Crafting Symbiotic Partnership and Collaboration in the Asia-Pacific Region

Conference Proceeding

With the support of:

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28th - 30th November 2012
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INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK CONFERENCE 2012

Crafting Symbiotic Partnership and Collaboration in the Asia-Pacific Region

Background

The spirit of partnership and collaboration has long been established by different groups of institutions, disciplines and professionals. This is a two-way process, relying on a mutual exchange of ideas and symbiotic relationship which requires further discourse. This international conference is another vital step to document and further disseminate innovative and best practices on partnership and collaborations in the Asia-Pacific region. Building on these ideas, this conference aims to discuss, enhance and strengthen our collective understanding of how people engage, form partnerships and collaborate for the wellbeing of the society.

New global social issues are emerging that require creative intervention processes. Social work is a global profession that embraces diversity, partnership and collaborations while providing services to different target groups and clients. Building rapport and working closely with other human service professionals and other related disciplines is a critical component to enable social workers to provide the best services to various populations, particularly to the vulnerable groups.

This conference provides a platform for various disciplines, professionals, practitioners and policymakers to come together to exchange knowledge, ideas, innovative skills and practices to share and analyze the different social issues in greater depth.

With great pleasure, the School of Social Sciences, Universiti Sains Malaysia and Institut Sosial Malaysia, Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development are pleased to announce the International Social Work Conference 2012, with the theme: “Crafting Symbiotic Partnership and Collaboration in the Asia-Pacific Region” to be held at the Bayview Hotel Georgetown, Penang, Malaysia from 28-30 November 2012.

The conference objectives are:

1. To advance critical discourse on developing innovative partnerships and collaborations among the different disciplines, practitioners, professionals, institutions and sectors in the Asia-Pacific region.
2. To strengthen engagement, partnership and collaboration through innovative strategies leading to new social development models and policies.
3. To further promote best practices in social work and social development scholarship in the Asia Pacific Region.
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REFUGEE REGIME AND THE VIETNAMESE REFUGEES IN MALAYSIA:  
ACTORS, FUNCTIONS AND REFUGEE PROTECTION

Arzura Idris

Abstract

A refugee regime forms an important structure of refugee protection policy. Such a regime responds to the needs of refugees produced by a crisis or positively responds to movements of refugees by securing their rights. This regime provides security and protection for these displaced persons covering the fundamental aspects of life such as the right to live, the right to food and the right to health and security. This paper examines the refugee regime related to the Vietnamese refugees in Malaysia following the 1975 Vietnam War. It identifies the actors that made up this regime and describes their main functions with regards to protection of the refugees. It further outlines the details of various forms of assistance given to these refugees. The refugee regime examined in this study is composed of the following states and non-state entities: the Malaysian government, the governments of resettlement countries, the Malaysian Red Crescent Society (MRCS), the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), and various non-governmental organizations. These actors responded to the plight of the refugees and functioned according to the protection framework as set out by the Malaysian government under the so-called ‘first asylum’ policy. The study suggests that though the actors held different opinions in matters related to the Vietnamese refugees, these actors collaborated and offered a protection package for the refugees in Malaysia.

Introduction

Refugee movements and the consequences create a policy dilemma in the international community. The refugee policy of a government for instance, is not necessarily a convincing refugee solution for other stakeholders. This situation pictures the difficulty in responding to a refugee crisis often due to the different behaviours and interests that stakeholders have on any particular crisis. The literature concerning refugee studies points to the important role a refugee regime plays in assisting groups and helping governments deal with such situations (Betts, 2008).
An international refugee regime ensures the survival of refugees by providing them with assistance and securing their rights as accorded by the international law. At the core of this regime is the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) which was established in 1950 to provide international protection for refugees. The UNHCR is guided by a number of international laws most notably the 1951 United Nations Refugee Convention and the 1967 protocol. Other actors that make up the international refugee regime are national governments, refugee communities, local and international nongovernmental organizations.

A number of frameworks have been used to describe a refugee regime and to assess its performance and effectiveness in responding to refugee movements, balancing stakeholders’ interests and reducing the likely negative impacts produced by a mass exodus (Feller, 2001; Betts, 2006). The realist perspective argues that an international regime is created by willing refugee stakeholders including various governments (Keohane, 1989). According to this perspective, the effectiveness of the regime depends heavily on the convergence of the interests of powerful states. Functionalists see regimes as a response to perceived needs (Young, 1986; Whitaker, 2008). This view suggests a refugee regime supplies assistance and secures rights for refugees. According to this view, governments and nongovernmental stakeholders are a crucial component of a regime which can put structural constraints on government action.

This paper examines the refugee regime related to the Vietnamese refugees in Malaysia following the 1975 Vietnam War. It considers that while writings on refugees in Malaysia do exist, those that discuss the refugee regime in particular in the context of refugee protection in the country are few (Low, 1983; Nur Ain, 1984; Azizah and Ubong, 2005; Azizah, 2006; Sanjugta, 2009; Arzura, 2011). This paper attempts to contribute to lessening this knowledge gap. The paper aims to identify the actors that make up this regime, describe
their main functions with regards to Vietnamese refugee protection and outlines the details of the assistance given to these refugees.

The paper is organized into three sections. Section one introduces the Vietnamese refugees and the Malaysian policy towards them. It highlights the problems posed by the Vietnamese refugee movements on a number of key refugee actors and the dilemmas these actors faced in responding to the Vietnamese refugee situation. Section two describes in detail the refugee regime related to the Vietnamese refugees in Malaysia. Two items are literally brought into the discussion. One is the identification of the refugee regime actors and highlighting their main functions with regards to refugee protection. Second is to outline the details of the assistance given to these refugees. Section three concludes the study.

The Vietnamese Refugees and the Malaysian ‘first asylum’ Policy

Refugee movements are part of international and Malaysian migration. Since Malaysia’s independence, modern refugee movements have brought a number of refugee groups into Malaysia (Azizah, 2005; Arzura, 2012). Amongst these are the Vietnamese refugees who first entered the country following the downfall of the government of the Republic of Vietnam (RVN) due to the Communist regime and American withdrawal from Vietnam on 01 May 1975. Between 1975 and 1980 alone, a total of 124,459 Vietnamese refugees entered Malaysia and sought asylum from the Malaysian government (Arzura, 2011). Other countries in the Southeast Asian region which provided protection for the Vietnamese refugees were Singapore, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand. Most refugees came to these countries through boat journeys and hence were known simply as the ‘boat people’.

The Vietnamese refugees in Malaysia were handled through the so-called policy of ‘first asylum’. The policy was created in May 1975 by the then Malaysian Prime Minister Tun Abdul Razak in response to the arrival of the first batch of Vietnamese refugees at
Perhentian Island off the East Coast of Malaysia. The Prime Minister’s decision was to temporarily provide the Vietnamese refugees with necessary protection before they departed to resettlement countries. This policy of Tun Abdul Razak became the foundation of Malaysia’s policy towards the Vietnamese refugees seeking protection in Malaysia from 1975 until the 1990s. The ‘first asylum’ policy ended in 2005 with last group of Vietnamese refugees departing from Malaysia to Vietnam (Steenhuisen, 2005).

The ‘first asylum’ policy is unique due to the long years of commitment which the Malaysian government gave in making the country a transit country for the Vietnamese refugees despite her not being a signatory to the 1951 UNRC and its 1967 protocol. During the peak of the Vietnamese refugee arrivals, the government opened eight refugee camps to house the Vietnamese refugees in Malaysia. These refugee camps were located in Terengganu, Pahang, Kelantan, Johor, Perak, Sarawak etc. The government also opened a number of transit centres to accommodate refugees selected for resettlement to third countries (Arzura, 2011).

Humanitarianism was essential to the ‘first asylum’ policy because from the beginning of its establishment it prioritised the humanitarian needs of the refugees affected by the 1975 Vietnam War. Such is obvious in two policy decisions made by Tun Abdul Razak in 1975. The first decision was to invite the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) to open an operational branch in the country in order to allow the Vietnamese refugees in the country access to UNHCR protection. The second decision was to establish a framework for refugee protection for the Vietnamese refugees in the country. In 1975, the Malaysian government signed a tripartite agreement with the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the Malaysian Red Crescent Society (MRCS). This agreement allowed collaboration for the protection of Vietnamese refugees amongst the three entities which took place systematically and on a large scale.
Like any other refugee crisis, the Vietnamese refugee exodus and its corresponding movements put many governments, including the Malaysian government, in a tough situation. First, the refugee exodus produced a series of Vietnamese refugee arrivals into Malaysia and hence created an emergency situation in the country. Some of these arrivals represented hundreds of Vietnamese refugees while others brought thousands of such refugees into the country (Arzura, 2011).

Second, the majority of the Vietnamese refugees who entered Malaysia were ethnic Chinese and this warned Malaysia’s leadership whose agenda of nation-building was to balance the demographic population of the country and maintain the social harmony of the Malaysian multi-ethnic society. Third, the Vietnamese refugees entering Malaysia included those who had links with the Communists and this was perceived to be negative for the security of the country. It must be mentioned that in the 1980s, Malaysia’s security agendas included counteracting the Communist ideology and its guerrillas in the Malaysian jungle.

Fourth, violence in the refugee camps was one of many problems which Malaysia had to deal with while hosting the Vietnamese refugees in her territories. The refugee violence was the result of many factors amongst which were overcrowding, a shortage of money and the feeling of desperation after being rejected by two or three countries for their resettlement. Fifth, the mass influx of the Vietnamese refugees into Malaysia from 1978 to 1979 brought with it residual problems for the country and burdened the Malaysian authorities. Many Vietnamese refugees, in particular those that arrived into Malaysia a few years after the Vietnam War ended, were unskilled, illiterate and semi-illiterate. This category of refugees faced great difficulty to be accepted by resettlement countries and consequently had to spend many years in refugee camps in Malaysia (Arzura, 2011).

From the UNHCR point of view, the 1975 Vietnamese refugee exodus was a humanitarian crisis which required emergency action. The organization considered the
Vietnamese refugees as prima facie and was primarily concerned with providing the refugees with immediate assistance such as medical and food aid and quick access to temporary protection (Loescher, 2001). However, these preliminary policies of the UNHCR changed due to changes in the refugee movements which took place in 1978 and the 1990s. There were reports that the Vietnamese government and human trafficking syndicates were behind the refugee outflows and the refugee groups fleeing Vietnam in the 1990s included economic migrants (UNHCR, 1978; New Straits Times, 1978).

Following these reports, the UNHCR continued its assistance programmes for the refugees but insisted on international procedures regulating the Vietnamese migration. In 1996, the organization introduced a Comprehensive Plan of Action aimed at curtailing the Vietnamese refugee outflows, reducing the refugee burden on the host countries as well as preventing an open ended Vietnamese migration (United Nations General Assembly, 1989).

For the governments of resettlement countries, the Vietnamese refugee movements, in particular those that involved a high number of refugees, were catastrophes with various costs. These governments understood the implications and the difficulties in hosting the refugees. Amongst those difficulties were the need for huge funding, local consent, and domestic preparations that come with administrative costs etc. Due to these issues and the common view that the Vietnamese refugee crisis was the responsibility of the United States, many resettlement countries were unwilling to offer the refugees asylum status. The resettlement situation became even worse when these countries imposed strict asylum criteria on the Vietnamese refugees. These policies impacted the UNHCR Vietnamese refugee resettlement programme, the on-the-ground refugee camp operations and the first asylum countries. In 1978 for instance, refugee camps in Malaysia and other first asylum countries were overcrowded and the refugee population in the country was increasing.
Refugee Regime: Actors, Functions and Vietnamese Refugee Protection

As indicated earlier, the Vietnamese refugees in Malaysia were dealt by the government under a ‘first asylum’ policy. The Malaysian government was responsible for the refugees in Malaysia. The government made decisions pertaining to the refugees and together with the UNHCR and MRCS was a key player in the protection of the Vietnamese refugees. The government offered the refugees assistance fundamental for their survival through a number of ministries and agencies. Table 1 and Table 2 outline the actors involved in protecting the Vietnamese refugees in Malaysia and each function with regard to refugee protection.

Table 1 outlines the Malaysian government ministries and agencies that participated in the refugee protection activities in the country. It must be mentioned here that prior to the Vietnamese refugee arrivals, the Malaysian government had no experience in dealing with a refugee situation, in particular those of crisis status such as the refugee exodus from Vietnam. The government had to make use of the existing available resources and administrative frameworks to cater with the sudden refugee population in the country.

Table 1: Malaysian government authorities and main functions for Vietnamese refugee protection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Malaysian Government authorities</th>
<th>Main Functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Home Affairs (MOHA) (PDRM, RELA, Immigration Department)</td>
<td>Provide safe entrance for the Vietnamese refugee arrivals, manage and maintain law and order in the refugee camps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Welfare and Services</td>
<td>Work on the welfare issues of the refugees through collaboration with the UNHCR and MRCS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA)</td>
<td>Collaborate with foreign embassies and the UNHCR with regard to refugee resettlement activities, facilitating Malaysian diplomacy on the refugee resettlement issue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Defence (MINDEF)</td>
<td>Coordinate with MOHA in facilitating the safe entrance of the Vietnamese refugees.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The MOHA was crucial in the context of protection of the Vietnamese refugees. The ministry through its three agencies, namely the PDRM, RELA and the Immigration Department, secured the fundamental needs of the refugees while they were in the country. It provided the refugees with assistance such as immigration services, safe entrance into the country and access to refugee accommodation either at temporary shelters or established refugee camps. The ministry also provided and maintained security at the refugee camps. Supporting the MOHA role for refugee protection tasks were authorities such as the NSC, MINDEF, MOFA and the Ministry of Welfare and Services. MINDEF for instance facilitated refugee movements from the landing areas to the camps or from small camps to larger ones.

Table 2: Other refugee stakeholders and main functions in Vietnamese refugee protection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other refugee stakeholders</th>
<th>Main functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Refugee resettlement countries (United States, Germany, Australia, United Kingdom, France, Canada, Switzerland etc.)</td>
<td>To provide the Vietnamese refugees with resettlement opportunities; facilitate refugees to integrate into new homes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>The main financial contributor for Vietnamese refugee protection activities in Malaysia; provide the refugees with assistance to ensure their survival and ensure that they were to be resettled in third countries; coordinate a humanitarian network in response to the refugee crisis; monitoring human rights as part of refugee protection; coordinate refugee protection activities in the country; speak for the Vietnamese refugees; work out the ‘burden sharing’ scheme in response to the Vietnamese refugee exodus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 outlines the other actors that took part in protecting the Vietnamese refugees in Malaysia. Amongst these are two important entities: the UNHCR and the MRCS. These two actors were the key partners of the Malaysian government with regard to refugee protection. The UNHCR and the MRCS roles in the Vietnamese refugee protection were largely due to the strengths of each institution and the perceived impact that these could place on the ‘first asylum’ policy in general and refugee protection in particular. As an expert on refugee law and refugee protection, the UNHCR helped Malaysia deal with legal and human rights issues pertaining to the refugees. As a UN refugee agency, the UNHCR was expected to provide the government with the humanitarian network crucial to deal with a refugee emergency situation.

The same goes for the MRCS whose experience during emergencies was considered important to help the government deal with the refugee emergency situation in an effective manner. Most crucially, as a local humanitarian organisation, the MRCS was familiar with Malaysia. Therefore, it was in a better position to assist the UNHCR to carry out protection activities for the influx of refugees in the country. Other actors assisting the Vietnamese
refugees in Malaysia included the resettlement countries and various nongovernmental organizations. While respecting the framework of refugee protection as laid out by the Malaysian government, these actors functioned to meet the critical needs of the refugees.

Table 3 outlines the details of the Vietnamese refugee assistance as offered in the ‘first asylum’ policy. In brief, this table suggests the following: First, the Vietnamese refugee protection package was comprehensive. It covered the refugee needs at three refugee transitory stages: arrival, refugee camps and transit centres. Assistance given to at each stage was to promote their survival.

Second, the Vietnamese refugee protection package promoted the fundamental principles related to refugee protection and conformed to the international refugee law. The human rights of the refugees were respected while they were in the country. They were allowed to exercise their religion and their culture. Although the refugee protection package precluded rights to employment and free movement, this was done because of the security concerns of the Malaysian government. To ensure the refugees received humane treatment, the Malaysian government allowed the UNHCR to play its role in monitoring it in the refugee camps and other avenues where refugee protection activities took place. In addition, the government allowed other international humanitarian organizations access to the camps so that the critical needs of the refugees were met.

Table 3: Model of Refugee Protection in the ‘First Asylum’ Policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Protection at Refugee Arrival</th>
<th>Protection at Refugee Camps</th>
<th>Protection at Transit Centres</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Refugee landing procedure</td>
<td>Law and order</td>
<td>More or less similar to those at refugee camps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to asylum</td>
<td>Access to international actors’ assistance</td>
<td>Assistance for resettlement of refugees to third countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe entrance to refugee camps</td>
<td>Access to medical treatment, education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urgent assistance to refugees</td>
<td>Programmes for Refugees</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Various facilities at refugee camps</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freedom to exercise religion and culture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assistance for basic life supply</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Restricted refugee movements</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Conclusions

The Vietnamese refugee exodus and the solutions provided by the international community towards these refugees are now a thing of the past. Currently, most of the refugees settled in third countries have now reached their third generation and are assimilated into these nations. Malaysia has contributed to this Vietnamese refugee end solution. The government did this by helping the refugees to survive their refugee experience through the ‘first asylum’ policy which Malaysia offered them for nearly three decades. This achievement is attributed to the willingness of the government to concentrate on humanitarianism despite security concerns during the refugee crisis and the cooperation amongst regime actors on burden sharing.

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THE MODEL OF DEVELOPMENT OF CREATIVE SEWING COURSE TO IMPROVE THE CREATIVITY OF COMMUNITIES IN BANDUNG DISTRICT

Asep Mulyana

Abstract

The background of this research was the social phenomena in Rancaekek and Solokan Jeruk Sub District, Bandung sub district where the inhabitants were farmer. There was a lot of unemployment of youth because some of them were unskilled and the others got fire from the companies. This situation was severed by the lack of land possessive where the average of the land had been less than 0.2 hectare. The characteristic of farming society was defensiveness to the destiny, couldn’t manage time, and had no confidence to themselves to create new chance in empowering the environment. Other mental disease was the lack of discipline, had no spirit to work hard, had no sense of responsibility, cutting through, lack of orientation toward entrepreneur and had no awareness about the future possibility. Therefore the situation needed to be handled towards creating industrialize society which built character of willing to curious, willing to be developed, motivate to actualize themselves, spirit, had high skill and had spirit to compete with others. To change the situation from farming to industrialize society needed the developing of creative skill course models to create creative society in Bandung district. The references used in this research were: 1) course concept, 2) creativity theory, 3) life skill concept, and 4) society empowerment concept. The approach used in this research was Research and development (R&D). Data collection technique used in this research was participative observation, documentation study and interview. Model testing used was pseudo design (Pre experimental design) with pretest control group design. Data analysis used qualitative and quantitative. This course model was begun with preliminary study about the requirement to model development before arranging conceptual model. The next step is model validation. The forward activity was comparing between model developed with control group. The initial score of experiment group (O1) and control group were initialized. Experiment group was treated to use creative course model design and control group use common course model. If end score of experiment group (O2) was higher than control group (O4), it meant that creative course model development was more effective and efficient than common course model. Next step was examining the significance of effectiveness and efficiency of creative course model design. If the data was in interval form, it could use
pair t test. The result of examination showed improvement significantly. The instructor personality, student motivation, creative learning process so influenced significantly toward the creation of creative learners (in creating creative society). Researcher concluded from this research that creative course model could create creative society in Solokan Jeruk and Rancaekek subdistrict in Bandung district. The society became diligent, discipline, dare to take risk, innovative, and always tried something new, increased in motivation in undertaking creative activities and it could create creative environment, creating creative activities process, creating creative product both modification from previous product and the new one.

**Background**

Non formal education give meaningful contribution in improving human resource quality. This is because not all society have the same chance to get education in formal school can take education through informal school. Therefore, non formal school cannot be underestimated because it has been obvious that non formal education give huge contribution to the development of this country in education aspect in national education system as Suyanto (2008: 19-20) stated:

About informal education. Although it is undoubt the importance of education in formal school environment, but informal school also give great contribution in education aspect especially in growing and socializing solidarity spirit. In addition, informal school is like in a family where brotherhood appear and informal school is more effective and efficient than the one in formal school.

The changing of education and job pattern occur because of the current dynamic and development of society as era are going on. Safaruddin (2008: 2) stated that crucial thing that must be done in the middle of changing imperative era is designing the relevance of education in order to more dynamic, responsive and anticipative. The society development can be undertaken through education formally, informally or non formally. Ndraha (1982: 18) stated that the village development is integrated part of national development (ordinance number 85 year 1958). The development of village society need scale of priority because of
some reason, because about 80% of Indonesian inhabitant live in village, but generally their level of education are low and they have no adequate skill. Most of them are labor in farming sector. Mastering science and skill are required to get appropriate job suitable with that are they hold.

Non formal education has to be hold in order to society who is not touched by formal education to satisfy the education. Non formal education is a part of national education program. The attention of government to non-formal education is less than that of formal one whereas the non-formal education program is directly served the need of society in each level.

The challenging in modern life needs to be undertaken optimistically and creatively. Creativity based economic will be able to penetrate market and finally will be able to create welfare. Based on the description, creative economic have to be developed. This is suitable with the president instruction number 6 year 2009 about creative economic development. The development of creative economic year 2009 till 2015 is the development creativity, skill and talent of individual based economic in creating creative power of individual that has economic values and can influence the the increasing of the creativity of Indonesian society to create the welfare of society. This effort is undertaken through creative skill course.

The director of guide of Course and institution develop and spread out implementation of innovative course in creating the quality of course begun at 2009 by initiating implementation of creative skill course. This course is intended to develop varies practical innovative and creative skill to pulfil the need of society.

**Creative Skill Course**

Creative skill course is the activity to give innovative skill done by education institution to society that complies with request. The limitation of creative definition is the form of production and service creative as a result of development or renewal
that has added value and can be benefit for society (The director of course guide, 2009: 2). This course pay attentions to local genius in order to the result of their creativity are marketable. This is done to implement the entrusted from Indonesian president instruction number 6 year 2009 about creative industry development.

The aim of creative skill course program is to give knowledge, skill and attitude to society with innovative and creative skill in order to they have adequate competence that will be used in work field suitable with the course they follow so they can pursue the work chance.

**Observation Region**

The object of this research was at Rancaekek and Solokan Jeruk sub district in Bandung district, because region was the growing industry which would be proper to the course. Beside there was a home industry located at Patrol village, Solokan Jeruk sub district that could be used as a partner to organize the course. Other consideration was because the region is close to market place to sell products. The place is also near to center of industry’s source in Bandung City and market would still open to sell the product of creative society. The region also had a lot of unemployment.

The method of this course was adult education. The government effort to overcome unemployment hasn’t been enough yet. The factories haven’t been enough to accommodate productive human resources. Other consideration, only skilled human resources could work in the factories. Of course this situation was a barrier to the youth around the location to get any job there. It needed to be solved by any programs which could develop their skills and competences.

The target elements of this course were:

a. Technical skill: sewing, embroider, making veil accessories and Muslims cloth.
b. Managerial skill and entrepreneurship management: entrepreneurship, marketing strategy, work ethic, partnership and simple administration.

Course Implement Strategy

Some considerations in developing the conceptual model were as follows:

a. Educators or instructors were some people who taught or transferred the creative skills to learners. The role of instructors was very significant, so they should have been creative and had entrepreneurship spirit. In fact, instructors hadn’t be able to facilitate learners, so they needed orientation given by organizers and researchers on teaching learning process. The orientation was given together with learning process so there was a reflection in the end of any activity to evaluate the performance of instructors to be revised in the next process.

b. Learners are adults, so the learning process would be different from those of formal institution because it should have considered the psychical condition of them as adults. In other side, the level of learners’ education was low, so it needed appropriate strategy to transfer skills.

c. Learning media should have been the main tool in learning process so teaching learning process would obtain maximum result.

d. Output and outcome of learning process were the real description of the success creative skill course so they would be the main evaluation source to determine whether the course was successful or not.

The conceptual model frame of creative skill course could be described as follows:
The implementation of this course was incorporated: 1) instructor used learning material that has been arranged by instructor and researcher based on available local industrial potential (contextual teaching and learning) and attractive and interactive learning and teaching process where communication between instructor and learners was harmonic. (2) all instructor monitored and evaluate during learning process from the beginning till end of learning process in order to the result can be used as source of consideration for next strategy. Instructors are supervised by researcher, (3) discussion undertook at every ending of learning process to know current learning situation and planning next learning activities. This
activities also could harmonize the relationship between owner, researcher and instructor in creating working together to succeed the course program; (4) the development of course were discussed at the end of every session, (5) analysis was taken by researcher, owner and instructor about everything about the course therefore the bad points and good points could be analyzed and corrected.

Learning activities was to give new situation that differed from teacher’s centered. Teacher’s centered was implemented at common or formal school which indicated by unhappy learners in following the lesson. These learning activities were expected to support learners to develop their potential because learning was interesting. The learning process incorporated problem solving, small group discussion, brainstorming, simulation, demonstration, group project, practice and apprenticeship.

Learning material used in this course was contextual learning material use real material. This was intended to make learners can practice directly.

Learning material used were:

a. Entrepreneurship modules of Director of entrepreneurship and institution.
b. Books of embroiders
c. Moslem cloth magazines
d. Modules made by instructor.

The impact of Creative skill course model development

The impact of outcome in creative skill course model development was creative persons who would give contribution towards the development of social creativity. The indicators were the increased ability of learners in making creative Moslems cloth products. This outcome could be shown by the number of learners who have been able to increase their skills in creating creative products. On the other
hand the creativity of learners is increased by the instructor’s facilitation who always motivated them to be involved in active learning activities.

Creative skill course model effectiveness

Based on the calculation, researcher find that this development of creative skill course gives contribution toward the increasing creative society in Bandung district with the percentage of its influence was 74.85%. This number indicated that the development of creative skill course model had strong influence in increasing the creativity of society in Bandung district.

Conclusion

1. Creative skill course in Bandung District has been able to help community around to master skills, so they would be able to improve their creativity.

2. The conceptual model of creative skill course based on industry potencies was focused on improving creative communities.

3. The implementation of learning model in creative skill course was integrated with the role of instructors in learning process. Instructors were the key in taking course, because they were the mediators, facilitators who facilitated learners in taking course program. The factor of learners who were serious in taking the course would also contributed with the successful of program.

4. The result of the course was the creative community, so the indicator of success was the creative community as the result of creative skill course based industry potencies.
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Crafting Symbiotic Partnership and Collaboration in the Asia Pacific Region
LIKING OR DISLIKING CURRENT HOME: LISTENING TO CHILDREN WHO RESIDE IN STATE-RUN CHILDREN’S HOMES AND FOSTER HOMES IN MALAYSIA

Chan Cheong Chong

Abstract

Residential child care is widely known in Malaysia, but this is not the case for foster care. Studies of foster home are limited and not popular as compared to studies of children’s home. This paper presents children’s immediate responses of like or dislike about the two mentioned substitute homes. 25 foster children and 27 children in children’s homes were interviewed. All participants are Malay and aged 10 to 15 year-old. Findings show that more foster children liked their foster homes as compared with their counterparts in children’s homes. Outing, foster mother, and comfortable living setting were some of the reasons given by the foster children. Conversely, children in children’s homes disliked their homes mainly because of the pooling system, regulations and staff’s attitudes. Overall, foster home appears to be a better received placement than children’s home. Nevertheless, children’s narrations imply that the main attributes to children’s views about their homes are the quality of reciprocal interaction and level of personal acceptance.

Introduction

Children’s home and foster home are not uncommon substitute placements in the west, but Malaysians mostly have limited ideas about the differences between children’s home and foster home. The history of substitute placement in this country may explain the limited understanding of the general public towards foster homes. Private children’s home was established as early as 1865 in Penang (Fulcher & Faizah Mas’ud, 2001) and the first state-run children’s home was established in 1935 in Malacca (Social Welfare Department of Malaysia, 2012). Conversely, the first state-run foster home was only established in 1988 in Kuala Selangor.
State-run children’s home in Malaysia, *Rumah Kanak-kanak*, is managed by the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia. There are 10 of these homes located in most of the states in Malaysia except Kedah, Johor, Kelantan and Terengganu. The homes provide institutional care to children who are separated from their families. Caregivers in the homes are official staff employed under the welfare department. Each home was initially designed to accommodate 100 residents. However, total residents of some children’s homes have currently exceeded the limit.

State-run foster home, *Rumah Tunas Harapan*, is also managed by the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia. There are nine foster homes which in total providing 26 houses for children in need of care. Approximately 6-10 children are placed into each house and taken care by a married couple or a mother. The caregivers are not official staff from the welfare department. They are known as foster parents where the father has to seek for his own employment, while the mother is a full time care taker of the children and the house. The houses are built and donated by private sectors and managed by the foster parents with support from the welfare department. Foster parents have autonomy in arranging daily routine for the children.

Studies and knowledge on foster homes in Malaysia are very limited as compared to children’s homes (Nor Amni Yusof, personal communication, June 16, 2008). Thus, the purpose of this paper is to explore children’s immediate responses on liking or disliking their current homes. Moreover, it is believed that situation in foster home can be better understood by comparing both children’s home and foster home.

**Literature Review**

A few local studies have been conducted on state-run children’s homes and foster homes, however the aspect of liking or disliking current placement has not been fully explored (e.g. Amir Awang et al., 2005; Salma Ishak, Jusmawati Fauzaman, Noor Azizah
Ahmad & Fuziah Shaffie, 2010). Moreover, unique features of foster homes were mostly overshadowed by the extensive focus on children’s homes in these studies.

Various studies on residential child care and foster care are widely found in western countries. However, many researchers claimed that there are little substantive studies in advocating children’s voices during their stays in children’s homes or foster homes (Chapman, Wall, & Barth, 2004, McAuley, 1996, Whiting & Lee, 2003). Many of the studies are quantitative oriented and from adult’s perspective. For instance, in Hegar and Rosenthal’s study (2009) on 1415 foster children, some of their core instruments (e.g. CBCL and TRF) were completed by caregivers. This implies that some of their findings on children are actually perceptions of the adults and may not represent the inner thinking of the children.

Very few studies explored the aspect of like or dislike towards placement. Some of the studies used retrospective approach by getting data from the ex-residents of children’s homes and foster homes. For instance, Mckenzie (1999) contacted 1589 ex-residents of orphanages on their experiences during the stay. He found that 15% of participants felt lack of freedom and 12% experienced excessive punishment during the stay. Conversely, 50% of them positively valued the basic amenities provided in residential care. 60% and 59% of them had gained personal value and direction, and sense of self-worth during the stay respectively. Mckenzie’s (1999) study shows that most of the ex-residents displayed positive views to their children’s homes.

Similar example also found in foster care studies where Schiff (2006) examined 94 alumni of group homes on their experiences of leaving care. By conducting telephone interview to the respondents, 83.7% of them considered the experiences in care were good or very good. Indeed, 92.3% of the alumni have good or very good quality of relationships with their group-homes parents. One of the alumni even said that “...They were like our parents and when they cut off from us it is like losing parents.” (p. 349).
Besides retrospective approach, few studies interviewed children who resided in children’s homes or foster homes. For instance, Fox, Berrick, and Frasch (2008) interviewed 100 foster children (6 to 13 years) and found that 66.6% of children perceived their current foster homes as the safest place on earth and 84% of them felt very safe in the foster homes. However, only 24% of them perceived their current foster homes’ neighbourhood as very safe.

Similarly, Sinclair and Gibbs (1998) interviewed 223 children (aged 10 and over) from 48 children’s homes. Their study shows that 40.9% of children felt residential care placement was a good idea, while 25.9% thought it was a bad idea. The rest 25.9% had mixed feelings of both good and bad on residential child care. In a follow up study after 6 to 9 months of the first interview, Sinclair and Gibbs (1998) found that 72.9% of the children perceived the residential child care as a good thing.

The above child-centric studies provide general idea that most of the children in children’s homes or foster homes like their placements. However, these studies provide limited children’s narrations in explaining the aspect of like or dislike. Indeed, no direct comparison is made by these studies in looking at children’s homes and foster homes. Thus, more children’s narrations are needed to explore why a child likes or dislikes a substitute placement.

Method

Findings presented in this paper are taken from researcher’s current study on three state-run children’s homes and five foster homes in Malaysia. By using purposive sampling, 27 and 25 Malay children, aged 10 to 15, in children’s homes and foster homes were interviewed respectively. All the 52 interview sessions were conducted only after receiving caregivers’ written consents and children’s verbal consents. The interview sessions focused on children’s narrations on four main issues of behaviour, health, education and placement in
their living settings. The study design is developed based on subtle realism and interpretive perspective, and is informed by the Bronfenbrenner Ecological System Theory and the Symbolic Interactionism. The study has received approvals from the Economic Planning Unit, Prime Minister Department (EPU), Social Welfare Department of Malaysia (JKM) and also has gone through an ethics review by the NUS Institute Review Board (NUS-IRB). This paper presents a small portion of preliminary findings gathered from the children’s narrations on placement issues.

**Results**

The question of like or dislike the current home was an exciting topic for children in this study. They immediately made the decision of like or dislike once the question was asked. Only one child from children’s home was indecisive. Table 1 shows that more foster children (76%) liked their current homes as compared with their counterparts (41%) in children’s homes. Conversely, more children in children’s homes (56%) disliked their homes than foster children (24%).

**Table 1 - Liking or Disliking Current Home**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Like</th>
<th>Dislike</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foster Homes</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children’s Homes</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
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**Foster Children Who Liked Their Homes**

Nineteen foster children liked their current homes. They liked the home because of the outdoor activities. Several children described outing as the most excited activity during their stay. Besides the outing, foster mother is another reason given by the children. Children who liked the foster home would not have much trouble with their foster mothers. Indeed,

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1This section is reproduced from author’s preliminary draft of thesis which is still in progress at Department of Social Work, National University of Singapore. Hence, organization and interpretation of the findings presented are yet to be finalized.
they appreciated the commitments from their foster mothers. For instance, F11 (Girl, age 14) was very straightforward in praising her foster parents during the interview.

“... [I] have good [foster] parents. Good [foster] parents... [I] have everything here. [Everything is] complete. [I] don’t need to be like certain people [who] have to find their own money for study... everything right? So here, [I] have people to support [the financial burden]... [it is] like [I] have everything.”

Another example is from F15 (Girl, age 15) who shared what she learned from the foster mother.

“This house is really good... because as a girl [in this house] she knows how to cook, she knows how to clean, everything. My [foster] mother always teaches me like that.”

Besides the outing activities and the foster mothers, three foster children, F21 (Girl, age 15), F23 (Girl, age 11) and F25 (Boy, age 12) liked the home because the house was beautiful, clean and had fewer children. Furthermore, according to F14 (Boy, age 14), opportunity to study and have good foster brothers were the main reasons of liking the foster home.

“[I] can study comfortably... study. [I] have good [foster] brothers. Since I have been staying here, [foster] brothers [have been] all nice [to me].”

Children in Children’s Homes Who Liked Their Homes

11 children in children’s homes liked their current homes. One of the popular reasons given by the children was the indoor and outdoor activities organised in the children’s homes. The following are two selected examples given by R6 and R20.

R6 (Girl, age 14) liked the home as there were many activities to be participated. She was a brass band member.
“[It is] best [because we] can learn what we can’t learn at outside. What I mean is [I] can join the brass band.”

She was also a National Champion of the Al-Quran Recital Competition organised by the Social Welfare Department. She had an active lifestyle at the home.

“...a lot [of activities]. Sometimes they organised competition between welfare institutions right? I participated. For example, the Nasyid Singing Contest and the Al-Quran Recital Competition. If we participate at the district level, we can compete with other district... then we can be representative of Negeri Sembilan, and the winner can go travel to other State (for following competition).”

She was very satisfied with the home as she was in a prestigious position in the home. She was the Head of Religion and in-charge of religion matter among all the children in the home. She did not reveal this information until the very end of the interview.

R20 (Boy, age 10) liked the home for the outing, indoor activities and the available facilities.

“... [We have] small mosque. [We have] playground over here.... [The home] here have [tuition] classes, [it is the] for example Maybank’s class (Activity organised by the Maybank). Then [we] have visitors came right?... [We have] things] such as donation. [Things] like that.”

However, there are two children who liked their homes but giving contradictory narrations. R11 (Boy, age 13) liked the current home as he experienced more freedom as compared with his former children’s home. To him, freedom was referred to the liberty of disobeying the staff due to inconsistent implementation of rules and regulations.

“If at Children’s Home C (his former home) around 10 o’clock... 10 o’clock [we] already go to sleep. Here (current home), it is okay if you [choose] want
to sleep or want to play. But at night, officer (staff) will ask [us] to sleep. Kids over here don’t want [to sleep]. They like to play, so [they] run and let the officer chases [from behind].”

Similarly, R18 (Girl, age 10) was satisfied with facilities in the home but was annoyed by other children’s behaviour. She even cried for being a victim of beating.

“Because here [I have] been beaten, [my belongings have] been stolen,... [I have] been scolded, and then when... we have done the work that he/she asked us to do, we have worked. He/she still asked us to keep doing it, he/she accused us for not doing it even though we have done it. He/she said we didn’t do the work. But we [have] done it. (sound a bit angry)... Sometimes (Crying) ah because they beat... over there (mentioned the name of bully)... They beat [us]. They took that (maker pen) to sign the name [on me]... sometimes she pinches [my stomach].”

Foster Children Who Disliked Their Homes

Relatively not many foster children disliked their homes. A few foster children did so mainly because of lack of activities in the home. A foster girl blamed her foster mother for not taking them out for activities. F24 (Girl, age 14) complained that,

“But this is extremely... no freedom. [They] did not bring [us] for outdoor activities. I’m jealous with [children] in Foster Home A, they went to Sunway (shopping and recreation complex)... [they were] brought to Sunway, picnic, [went to] Genting, went to Malacca right?... [That’s why] I’m jealous. [Foster] Mom didn’t organise that [activities]... [I] have been got an earful [from the foster mother]... [She does] not allow us to do activity that we want, that is what I hate most.”
However she wanted to stay in the foster home. To her, disliking the home and her decision to stay were two different matters. This is true because children who liked the homes might not choose to stay in the home if options were given.

Another reason given in disliking the current home was Ghost. Only two foster children talked about this when explaining their dislikes. F22 (Girl, age 11), “No (soft)... [I] like the school here, [but I] don’t like staying here!” This is due to her obsession on ghost at night.

“When [I] want to sleep at night the moment I close my eyes, [I] will think of ghost. Afraid [of it] every night likes that, so [I have] difficulty to sleep... (Is there Ghost in the house?) No. But [I] really have that kind of thought. [I] like to think something that is not exist.”

Although F22 (Girl, age 11) disliked her current foster home, she appreciated the home in providing space for her to study. She could partially concentrate on her study while staying here.

“[I] can fully concentrate on the subjects because [my] young sister doesn’t disturb me anymore. Although [I] can fully concentrate, [I still find it] hard to focus on what is taught by the teacher on the subjects.”

F19 (Boy, age 15) stayed in the current foster home more than 11 years. He gave the same reason as F22, but he claimed he had seen ghosts in one of the foster houses. There are four foster houses in the Foster Home D, two each in the upper area and lower areas.

“[I] had once... the house was empty, it had only been a month after people had moved out. During that time I stayed at the upper area (next to the haunted house)... I was loitering. I wanted to bring something up (from the

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2The related data and topic of desired placement are not included in this paper.
lower area) right, [because] my belongings was left over there, and through the keyhole of the door I saw something moved... bondot!! (a random word expressing shock)...”

Based on researcher’s observations on F22 and F19 during the interview sessions, the ghost stories had significant meaning to them. Their tones were serious but they narrated their stories lively. They were in doubt whether the researcher would believe their stories.

Children in Children’s Homes Who Disliked Their Homes

About half (56%) of children in children’s homes disliked their placements mainly because of the pooling system, regulations and staff’s attitudes. For an example, R16 (Boy, age 14) explained,

“Sometimes I got pissed off with the staff. Sometimes my friend and I were sleeping, when he came into the room (the hostel) with his motorcycle, he pressed the [horn] ‘beep! beep!’ [He] came into [our] room with his motorcycle.”

He complained the incident to the principal of the home but he was not satisfied with the given explanations.

“The Principal said the staff didn’t know. As the staff was in hurry. Later Principal would look and talk to him... So many excuses.”

Besides the staff and the system, R19 (Boy, age 11) disliked the home because some children did not do the housework and therefore he was beaten up by the elder children. The elder children in the home were about 12 years old. He blamed the others for not washing the tray but at the end he admitted that he did the same mistake.

“Sometimes... sometimes... [I] was beaten (very soft)... here sometimes was like... ahh... [I] can watch TV [but] sometimes [I] can’t... [I] was beaten... if one person doesn’t wash the tray... all [of us] would be punished. Because
many of them [don’t want to], if lazy, all [of us] would be punished to sweep
the floor because [one person] doesn’t wash the tray. They would say, ‘I
have washed it, I have washed it’ [They just] don’t want to admit. (Who
would beat you?) Senior... Our senior who supervised [us] because I didn’t
wash the tray.....He beat but not too hard. He beat softly only.”

Although children in children’s homes hated their homes, they appreciated some
aspects of the homes. Children in this category were relatively small. For instance, R1 (Girl,
age 15) disliked the home but she felt the home was helping her in study. Most of her free
times were used for revision. This explained why she said the best thing in the home was able
to concentrate on her study.

“... I normally finished doing all the school works on Friday. At night I do
revision. So the next morning [that I] can have some rest, because I normally
do revision at night. In the afternoon, nothing... nothing needs to be done.
That is the only free time for me... [time to] reading story books.”

The pleasure of breaking the rules in children’s home provides some consolations to
the children’s dissatisfaction of the home. R27 (Boy, age 11) disliked the home but he liked
the Nasyid Music (Islamic Music) in the home and the best thing for him was to skip the
pooling by pretending to be asleep.

“[I like] sometimes someone listens to the Nasyid [music], sometimes... [I]
don’t line up [for the pooling], sometimes [I just] pretend to be asleep.”

Discussion

The results indicate more foster children liked their homes as compared to children in
children’s homes. Foster children liked their home for the outing activities, foster mother and
some because of the physical amenities of the house. Children in children homes disliked
their homes mainly because of the pooling system, regulations and staff’s attitude.
Various western studies show that children in children’s homes liked their homes (e.g. McKenzie 1999; Sinclair & Gibbs, 1998; Smith, McKay, & Chakrabarti, 2004; Southwell & Fraser, 2010). However, this is not found in this study and more children in children’s homes disliked their placements as compared to foster children. Children’s narrations especially those from children’s homes mostly indicate sense of “demeaning” as found in Colton and Roberts’ (2007) study. The differences of the results in this study as compared to the western studies could be attributed to two important concepts, namely reciprocal interaction and acceptance.

Children’s explanations are mostly related to their caregivers and counterparts in the homes. The two microsystems were repetitively used by the children to either praising or blaming the current placements. For instance, there are foster children and children in children’s homes who disliked their homes for the similar reason: their caregivers. Hence, if the children had positive reciprocal interactions with the caregivers and counterparts, the children would mostly like their placements. Although some children in children’s homes disliked their homes because of the protection system at the homes which is known as pooling requirement or regulations, their narrations show that the macrosystem do not fully responsible for their preferences. Indeed, children’s preferences are associated to the quality of reciprocal interaction with the caregivers and counterparts during implementation of the protection system.

Narrations from R11 and R18 show the appearance of personal acceptances. Although they narrated their children’s homes negatively, they generally liked their placements. This is also found in R1 and R27’s narrations where they disliked their homes but provided positive insights about their homes. Indeed, the “Ghost” issues as main reason of disliking the homes by F22 and F19 further imply the complexity of the children inner thinking. Hence, individual level of acceptance does make a different to the perceived
negative or positive environment. This reflects the child own self-indication process that determines whether he/she likes or dislikes the home without influences from the environment or the reciprocal interactions. As explained by Blumer (1967, p. 141), self-indication is refer to “a moving communicative process in which individual notes things, assess them, give them meaning and decides to act on the basis of the meaning... not explained by the environment pressures, external stimuli...” Based on the Blumer’s explanation, it is argued that the children’s acceptance levels could moderate the outcomes of the reciprocal interactions in making decision of liking or disliking current homes.

The relationship between the reciprocal interaction and acceptance is yet to be clarified in this paper due to limited data used. These two elements are believed to be the main attributes in deciding children’s likes or dislikes. This implies that to understand children’s views on the placements is to explore the reciprocal interaction and acceptance of the children.

Conclusion

This paper explores the children’s liking or disliking their children’s homes or foster homes. Overall more foster children liked their placements as compared with their counterparts. Although children’s narrations were mostly negative on children’s home, data in this paper are limited and many other issues of behaviour, education, health and placement are excluded. As a result, it is overly simplistic to conclude that foster home is better than children’s home. Children’s narrations show that their preferences may not be simply determined by the setting of the homes. Indeed, it is reasonable to suggest that children’s reciprocal interactions with the multiple systems and their levels of acceptance could be the main attributes in liking or disliking.
References


CULTURAL COMPETENCE: APPROACHING NATIVE AMERICAN COMMUNITIES APPROPRIATELY

Christopher Hodshire

Abstract

More than ever in US history, social workers are interacting with people from different cultures in almost all aspects of their work. The same could be said for the business world, multi corporations in particular. By and large, social workers need to understand the cultures and the people among them so that they could provide accountable, smooth and meaningful services. In order to do that in their best abilities, they need to be aware of and sensitive to the history, policy, culture and traditional changes among other things that have influenced indigenous cultures to change and evolve, even as we speak today. To be ignorant of these cultural changes could lead to dissatisfaction in services and in some cases, damaging to the individual and communities in which the social worker is trying to serve. Not only that, it damages the social work profession's reputation as well. This paper examines the Native American culture in the USA, the Pokagon Band of the Potawatomi people in particular, to see what changes have taken place within the culture. American society is changing at a fast pace and so are its subcultures and remote cultures as well. That said, it is very important to understand how these new identities emerge and function. By understanding the evolving changes taking place in certain cultures, social workers are able to reach out to them appropriately – building trust and understanding, which is the basis of the social work profession. This ongoing qualitative study, interviews a number of people from the local Dowagiac community. Some of the participants were the tribal leader himself, social workers who work with the people of the Potawatomi as well as some of their ethnic tribal citizen community members. Both genders and different age groups were approached as well as bi-racial community members. The conclusion of the study: The Potawatomi tribe in particular has experienced dramatic changes culturally since the 1990’s due to many factors, which is mentioned throughout the article. In this paper I make my case that culture is changing on an ongoing basis, some more than others, and we as social workers need to keep up with the pace in order to accommodate for those whom we are trying to serve and advocate on behaving. In order to do this, we cannot necessarily go to reading materials. Instead, we have to go into the community itself to do data gathering in order to acquire a better glimpse of the people/community we are currently trying to reach and serve. Simply put, approaching communities with this frame of reference may prevent xenophobia and myopia from occurring as well as
myths, stigma and ignorance from developing; as a result, infusing cultural competence into the social worker for the population of people that they are eagerly trying to correctly diagnose, advocate and serve.

Introduction

All social workers must be sensitive to those with whom they interact who are from other ethnic backgrounds. Acclimatizing oneself to other ethnic groups should be the ultimate goal before delivering services or intervention. In fact, cultural competence is critical when working with any ethnic group, especially those who have historically experienced racism, oppression and exclusion, to name a few. Approaching Indigenous communities systematically and properly will play large dividends for the profession as it continues to interact and provide needed new innovative services and interventions. As some of these Indigenous communities evolve, it is important to recognize and acknowledge their new emerging identities. Unfortunately, many of these Indigenous ethnic groups, especially remote ones, have limited data about them especially updated data. In order to serve them in a meaningful and impacting way, social workers may have to do their own research before fully entering the Indigenous community they plan to advocate or provide services too. Equally important, people in the helping profession need to become extremely familiar with the stereotypes, myths and other damaging insulting verbiages used in everyday languages (Schmidt, R. 2001). Thus, using the proper ethnic wordage as well as addressing Indigenous ethnic groups and individuals correctly would help prevent distrust and dissatisfaction in service and client participation.

The purpose of this study was to see how much, if any, changes have taken place in the Indigenous Native American Potawatomi tribal community of Dowagiac over time, both culturally as well as traditionally. Root causes for these changes were explored as well as their impacts, both positive and negative. Other area of concerns related to culture competency with the social work profession and its effectiveness in service delivery. With
some tribal members receiving new recognition and status by the U.S. federal government it was suspected that some elements within each tribal culture would change over time. The Potawatomi’s of Dowagiac was a newly recognized tribe back in the 1990’s and ever since being granted that new status, new identities began to emerge. Since this tribe is limited on research date in particular to new emerging identities and best practices for service delivery, this research may serve to be beneficial to those who plan to work with this tribe in the near future as well as other Indigenous Native American tribal groups. At best, this qualitative data collection could be used as a reference for those who are exploring the subject area in relations to indigenous people of the Americas.

In the helping profession, all social workers must be sensitive to those with whom they interact who are from other ethnic backgrounds. Social workers must educate themselves and become more acclimatized with other culture(s) that are different than their own. Social workers who extend themselves to understand others from different cultures are better known as being ethnically sensitive.

Unfortunately, many professionals become stagnant when learning about a culture, thinking of it as a culture set in stone. Even worse, professionals generalize about certain ethnic groups such as the Native American communities. As a result, people’s personal dignity becomes attacked and the services they receive are usually weakened. Obviously, American society is changing at a fast pace and so are its sub cultures—even remote cultures. Consequently, when cultures change, people’s food habits change as well as their language, norms, religions and so forth. One way for social workers to adapt to these evolving cultures and lifestyle behaviors would be to directly study the populations themselves. In other words, do some participatory, survey and qualitative empirical gathering research.
Approaching Potawatomi Communities Appropriately

As social workers or professionals, it is very important to understand how these new identities emerge and function. Clearly, social workers must become familiar with cultural behaviors and ideologies if we are to advocate on behalf of members of these communities. The best way to do this, for example, is to go directly to the Potawatomi’s nation government (An American Native Nation) to gather data on their cultural ways of life. Moreover, practitioners must be careful not to generalize the data by applying it to other Native Indian tribes because no two tribes are alike. Although some of these nations have been around for well over 8,000 years, some well-regarded dictionaries such as the Microsoft Word Dictionary, does not even have them listed into their vocabulary, which goes to show the lack of recognition. With that notion, social workers may have to go directly to the source to gather information in regards to the ethnic groups’ culture. If this is not challenging enough, social workers also need to understand that many Native Americans’ are from very diverse backgrounds, which continue to shape and modify their identities. Being able to identify which culture they associate with the most may be critical in our service delivery or everyday interaction. According to the Harvard Encyclopedia of American Ethnic Groups, “The important fact is that American Indians have maintained a high degree of diversity and continues to develop in a variety of ways” (Thernstrom, P. 57, 2000). That being said, social workers need to view Indigenous American population(s) as changing and that their cultural rules are not always set in stone. Simply put, as times change, so do peoples’ ethnicity, cultural behaviors and ideologies.

Ultimately, social workers should advocate in the most professional manner to see to it that the Native Indian community, as well as any other community, continues to move forward in the right direction toward connecting with their heritage(s). Our understanding of their culture and sub-cultures, not only historically but presently, and the problems that are
inherited throughout time, will equip practitioners better when working with populations much different than their own.

Studying the Native American community of Potawatomis of Michigan, many propounding changes have taken place over the years. Between the years of 1970-1990’s, new Native Indian identities began to emerge all across America. According to Harvard Encyclopedia of American Ethnic Groups, “Groups with a new sense of identity have formed as a result of nations being separated into two or more groups having different experiences in the course of their later history. The Cherokees of Oklahoma and the Eastern Bands of the Cherokees in North Carolina, the citizen Potawatomis of Oklahoma and the Forest Potawatomis of Michigan are two examples” (Thernstrom, P. 58, 2000). However, to be more correct, the Forest Potawatomis of Michigan are actually called the Woodland’s Indians, according to John Miller, Tribal Chairman of the Pokagon Band of the Potawatomi Indians of Dowagiac, Michigan (Miller J. ongoing personal communication, Summer 2005). Due to all the adversity the Native American Indian community has undergone, historically as well as presently, because of European xenophobia, it is no wonder changes have taken place among the Native Indian cultures.

After studying the Pokagon Band of the Potawatomi’s of Dowagiac, Michigan, the researcher was able to gain some insight of new cultural norms and behaviors. According to Indian Child Welfare Coordinator Kathleen McKee, “The Dowagiac Pokagon Band people are reclaiming their history and culture to the point that they are learning their true native language” (K. McKee, ongoing personal communication, June 27, 2005).

According to Social Service Director Bill Holmes, “the Pokagon Band of the Potawatomi Indians is a very diverse population in Dowagiac, sharing a combination of cultural identities” (Holmes B. personal communication, June 28, 2005).
Ideally, both McKee and Holmes are employee’s of the tribe that works directly on the Pokagon Band of Potawatomi homelands in Dowagiac, Michigan-Cass County (also serving other Pokagon Bands of the following counties: La Porte Indiana, Starke Ind., St. Joseph Ind., Marshall Ind., Elkhart Ind., Kosciusko Ind., Berrien Michigan, Van Buren Mich., and Allegan Michigan).

Ever since President William Clinton signed into law a bill to restore the sovereignty of the Pokagon Band of Potawatomi India’s Nation, the tribe has developed very systematically as well as energetically. However, there continues to be more challenges ahead for the Pokagon band as they diligently work on solving the serious problems that was imposed onto the tribe by the American strong ethnocentric culture.

Brian Dayson, a long standing member of the Pokgan Potawatomi tribe and former Potawatomi Mascot of the Dowagiac Union High School, said that his father was part of the boarding schools which robbed his fathers of his culture and identity. Since the federal recognition of the local tribe by the US government, Dayson claims he and the rest of his family have been reconnecting with their tradition, language and customs (Dayson B. ongoing personal communication Western Michigan University, Aug, 2010).

Rosey Coulson, a bi-racial Native American community member, said she was deprived of any education in her past. “If you had even a drop of Indigenous blood you would not share that since the sigma back in the south was rather harsh” (Coulson R. personal communication Sept. 2009). Today though, living among the Pokagon Potawatomi people of the Midwest part of the US, she feels proud of her background and roots. Since the perception of the Indigenous people has change enormously over the years, people have been taking the risk of reconnecting with their roots.

Clearly research from local and abroad exhibits how some boarding schools, social worker agencies and many other professionals have done nothing but created misery for the
Indigenous tribes (Garimara. P. 1996). Even today as some of these tribes try to regain their sense of self, the institutions are not keeping up with the positive developments as the culture continues to evolve.

For many years, the Native American Indigenous people of the Midwest region have been evolving on their own without much assistance from the outside European cultures. And now that several of the Native American tribes are to the point that they are federally restored tribes, they continue to emerge. Growing up in a Native American community located in the southwest part of Michigan, the researcher too witnessed the Potawatomis nation emergence. They began to advocate for themselves by changing the local communities’ behavior, even to the point where some ethnic groups became upset. For instance, during the researcher’s senior year, the school had to change their high school mascot, which represented the Potawatomis Indians. We could keep the mascot as our icon; however, that was not the problem. According to John Miller, Tribal Chairman of the Pokagon Band of the Potawatomi Indians of Dowagiac, Michigan, “The Dowagiac school board approached the Pokagon Band to seek information regarding their mascot’s correct representation of the Potawatomi Indians. The school was not representing the headdress correctly and we worked with them to depict a Woodland Indian. Although, the Pokagon Band does not consider its nation a mascot, we worked with the local school system on an accurate representation” (Miller J. personal communication, Summer 2005).

Critics have point out for some time that most American school mascots do not accurately represent Native American tribes, people and culture. In fact, in many cases the schools help reinforce stereotypes which continue to damage the Indigenous populations. Native Americans are real people and not cartoon charters, as they are sometimes portrayed. According to Daniel Chapin of the American Indian Movement (AIM), “The Native Americans are a culture. We are not mascots or icons. We are not running around with bow
and arrows or sitting around campfires as depicted all over the place.” (Yi, Danial, 2001). While there remains considerable debate on this, the social workers need to understand the culture and the emotion behind words and symbols before doing their intervention and advocacy work.

Taking everything into consideration of what the Indigenous people have been historically through all over the Americas (harmful governmental policy, unfulfilled treaties, unethical boarding schools, cultural and human genocide, to name a few) these tribal people still tend to remain resilient. When peering deeper though, social workers are able to see that some of the problems from the past are haunting these tribes today. In fact, many social workers throughout the US are not even familiar with the fact that Indigenous Native American groups contain the highest suicide rate among all ethnic groups (Schaefer, R. 2010). The Native Americans also have the highest school dropout rates in the US. Clearly, social workers got their work cut out for them and the Indigenous community is where the answers are to be found. Tapping into the peoples’ knowledge and skills, may be a starting point as practitioners try to advocate services for these populations. In order to do that though, practitioners need to know about the tribe’s culture, current identity and history, to name a few.

It is important not only for social workers to learn about other cultures, but to also teach the community about them too. Not only will this help prevent myopia, it will also empower the population for which they are to advocate services to.

**Mythologies and Data Analyst**

About 15 Potawatomi Native Americans were interviewed but since 5 of them were rather young, they were eliminated from the research collection leaving the researcher with a set of ten people, two being non native Potawatomi but still very beneficial for the data collection, since they were social workers working directly with the Potawatomi tribe.
members within the community. Besides the social workers playing a major role, the local Tribal Chairman also contributed greatly. The seven other participants were all local members of the community and all but one was affiliated with the tribe per se. Common Themes discovered throughout: The lack of trust with US government, including with the social service agencies; the abundance of ignorance from the mainstream outside of their community; the stereotypes affiliated with the tribe as well as lack of opportunity to grow as a culture. Other themes heard throughout was the notable amount of native Potawatomi’s that were mixed either with other ethnic tribal blood or with European blood and their desire and willingness to reconnect with their cultural heritages, in all forms and opportunities.

The data collected were in forms of dairies, open-end questionnaires, unstructured interviews and structure and unstructured observations. Though some experts may argue that qualitative data is typically descriptive data and as such is harder to analyze than quantitative data, the researcher felt this was not the absolute case due to the nature and approach of the study as well as the time commitment and dedication given to it. Since the researcher’s observation went on over the years and since the data provided was in from of experts who works directly with the tribe on an ongoing basis, the researcher felt some of the themes could be tested and either proven or otherwise disproven through ongoing observations. Using the structured interviews provided by the Tribal Chairman and the two social workers, the other local tribal residents reinforced what was said by the three above. Ongoing themes kept arising. Not only that, the researcher attended many other their tribal traditional functions over time. Through those ongoing interactions and observations the researcher was able to see things unfold as it evolved.

Participants

The ages ranged from 25-85 years old with middle aged individuals making up the largest portion of the sample. The targeted population was the Potawatomi Tribal community
members of Dowagiac, either it being they were fully Potawatomi or Bi-racial, both played a role in the study. The participants were approached by different means and all were done on a voluntarily basis. All interviews were face to face with some follow up on the phone and by email communication. All, with the expectation of the two social workers who work directly with the tribal members, had to be either Potawatomi’s from Dowagiac city area and or tribal members. Again, bi-racial tribal member are included.

**Interview Results**

Brian Dayson, a long standing member of the Pokgan Potawatomi tribe and former Potawatomi Mascot of the Dowagiac Union High School, said that his father was part of the boarding schools which robbed his fathers of his culture and identity. Since the federal recognition of the local tribe by the US government, Dayson claims he and the rest of his family have been reconnecting with their tradition, language and customs.

Rosey Coulson, a bi-racial Native American community member, said she was deprived of any education in her past. “If you had even a drop of Indigenous blood you would not share that since the sigma back in the south was rather harsh.” Today though, living in among the Pokgan Potawatomi people of the Midwest part of the US, she feels proud of her background and roots. Since the perception of the Indigenous people has change enormously over the years, people have been taking the risk of reconnecting with their roots.

However, to be more correct, the Forest Potawatomis of Michigan are actually called the Woodland’s Indians, according to John Miller, Tribal Chairman of the Pokagon Band of the Potawatomi Indians of Dowagiac, Michigan. According to Indian Child Welfare Coordinator Kathleen McKee, “The Dowagiac Pokagon Band people are reclaiming their history and culture to the point that they are learning their true native language”. According to Social Service Director Bill Holmes, “the Pokagon Band of the Potawatomi Indians is a very diverse population in Dowagiac, sharing a combination of cultural identities”.

We could keep the mascot as our icon; however, that was not the problem. According to John Miller, Tribal Chairman of the Pokagon Band of the Potawatomi Indians of Dowagiac, Michigan, “The Dowagiac school board approached the Pokagon Band to seek information regarding their mascot’s correct representation of the Potawatomi Indians. The school was not representing the headdress correctly and we worked with them to depict a Woodland Indian. Although, the Pokagon Band does not consider its nation a mascot, we worked with the local school system on an accurate representation”.

**Research Observation**

- The local community schools modified and adapted their school mascot in order to correctly represent the local Tribe.
- Witnessed a growth in the Potawatomi tribal community functions and traditional activities. Met many mix marriage couples that are embracing the culture and traditions.
- A visual recognition of tribal pride seen through garments, jewelry and traditional wear.
- A significant change in people’s willingness to talk about their cultural heritage and ethnicity, with a lot of positive historical attachments.
- A strong presents in learning the Potawatomi languages
- Considerable recognition to the Potawatomi arts
- Newly established police, court, social services and even schools catered particularly for the Potawatomi and financially supported and maintained by the tribe.
- Historical museums recognizing and teaching about the Potawatomi people
- Federal government recognition of the tribe itself.
- Local community schools teaching non Potawatomi children about the true people and their contributions to American society.
- Ongoing well structured community Pow Wows.
- More mass media coverage of the tribe, which is usually positive.
Challenges and limitations of Study

Many participants were hesitant to answer any questions about their traditional/cultural or lifestyle background. Some of the fear was due to their past experiences with governmental agencies such as Social Service Agencies, BIA Bureau of Indian Affairs and the FBI Federal Bureau Investigation, all institutions that had some poor complicated and unethical relationships with tribal members in the past. Another issue is the communication gaps, the time investment as well as financial budget. The distance from the place of employment was far so the travel at times was great. The need to know and be familiar with the proper protocols with the culture had to be studied and revisited over time, especially in relations to the tribal leaders. Building trust over time was also a key to make this materialize into something meaningful. Besides the time investment, the locations for the meeting were not always ideal places for the researcher, although it served well for the participants. One of the main reasons for the verbal qualitative study was for the fact that two participants could not read or write English, only verbally speak it. Elaborations was always requested and usually provided without much resistance. One more major hurdle was the lack of information on these tribes in some well-known listed dictionaries. The lack of journal reviews were also limited as mentioned throughout.

Conclusion and Discussion

The need to be well equipped as a social worker when working/interacting with the Indigenous population is a must. History shows that Indigenous populations has been hurt over time, underserved and belittled by outsider institutions and the social worker profession is no exception. For the social work profession not to adapt and acquire a clear understanding of the new emerging cultures within the Indigenous populations, could lead to unintended repercussions.
Presently, the Potawatomis nation is recognized and respected in the Dowagiac area. Many of the community members are learning about the true Potawatomis nation’s culture, community and behaviors; in particular, the Pokagon Band. Moreover, the Potawatomis Nation (also known as Woodland’s Indians), citizens are learning their own true cultural/traditional ways, language, personal laws and rights. By passing down these traditions to their children, without the interference of the US Government, they will have room to understand themselves, their true history and ethnic culture.

In essence, social workers are interacting with people from different cultures in almost all aspects of their work. The same could be said for the business world, multi corporations in particular. The key elements of open communication and asking questions are critical if social workers and other professionals are to have cultural competence. It is also important to understand that culture changes over time because of external forces, diversity and newly discovered identities. Social workers need to realize these changes so they could better deliver services to diverse populations that may be far different than our own. In short, accountable, transparent, smooth and meaningful services should always be the professions primary aim, no matter the ethnic group the profession is trying to serve.
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http://www.pokagonband-nsn.gov/
THE DIFFICULTIES OF FAMILIES HAVING CHILDREN WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISORDERS AND THEIR NEEDS OF SOCIAL WORK SERVICES

Do Hanh Nga

Abstract

The article analyzed the difficulties for families having children with development disorders and their needs of social services. The data were collected from a survey of 105 parents having children with developmental disorder in Ho Chi Minh City. The data covers the time when the parents first discovered the children’s “developmental delay”, the problems that the parents had after discovering their children’s developmental retardation, and their wishes from social services. The result showed that there is a lack of the parental knowledge of their children’s developmental delay and in seeking social work services, and a lack of help from social workers in early detection. The author then discusses some duties that social workers have to do to support families having children with developmental disorders.

Introduction

The Vietnamese Scenario

According to the Department of Social Protection (Ministry of Labor, War Invalids and Social Affairs, Viet Nam), there are about 7.5 million elderly people, 5.3 million people with disabilities, 1.4 million children special circumstances and 1.3 million people need monthly assistance from the Government. And besides, because of the process of industrialization- modernization the social problems arise such as poverty, homeless, and issues arising in family group in both towns and villages that need for assistance from the social worker. Therefore, on 25/08/2010 The Ministry of Home Affairs issued Circular No. 08/2010 / TT-BNV guidelines on the issue of titles and codes of civil servants in social work. Accordingly, a civil servant consists of three titles: main social worker, social worker and social work staff. Consequently, Social work is becoming a recognized profession of the
importance and influence on the development of modern society. Yet in Vietnam, social work is a new and almost strange profession for many people, not only people in positions of local authority but also those who are entitled to inherit the help of social workers

**Background**

Social work, as a profession, originated in the 19th century in Western Societies and social work in the 20th century became increasingly a professional activity (Langan, 1993; Cree, 2002; and Le, 2004). In particular, social work with disabled people is one of the areas that developed countries particularly interested (Dale, 1996; Middleton, 1999; Gupta & Singhal 2005; Mary, 2007). Social work services to disabled people not only be done in special schools, in the health care centers for disabled people but also social work services are also included in family of disabled people (Strock - Lysnkey and Keller, 2007). According to D. Strock-Lynskey and D.W. Keller (2007), since 1997, in the United States, Family-Centered approach and intergrating into social work practice in the care and education of disabled children were applied. Family centered early intervention philosophy and strategies draw from a strengths based perspective which encourages partnerships, family choice, and the provision of the child and family (Bruder, 2000). In the 21st century, integrating a family-centered approach in social work practice increasingly developed in countries around the world with a variety of services. Take a concrete example of how to use social services in families of disabled people in Scotland (Sinclair and Gray, 2012). Scottish local authorities have a general duty under the Children (Scotland) Act 1995, to safeguard and promote the interests of children in need. The law recognises disabled children as being in need. Therefore, local authorities must provide a social worker service. These may include: providing information about services which may be available, assessing the needs of disabled children and their carers, providing a range of services to meet these needs. The services detailed are: practical assistance in the home such as help with the personal care of
disabled child, provision of equipment to satisfy a recreational need, such as a TV, radio or computer, provision of leisure facilities (this could mean outings), travel and other assistance home adaptations/disabled facilities such as fitting of handrails and hoists, holidays, meals, telephone. There are other services listed in the regulations and guidance. Family support services should cover both day care and home care services. These may include: home help, family centres offering childcare, support to parents and education to increase parenting skills, access to suitable housing, occupational therapy, and special equipment and adaptations.

In Vietnam, there are many studies in the field of disabilities with different topics. There are researches on specific kind of disability such as hearing impairment, visual impairment (Pham, 2011; Pham&Tran, 2012), researches on the situation of children with disabilities and people with disabilities (Nguyen, 2011). And there is research the needs of children with developmental disabilities and the difficulties that children with developmental disabilities and their families faced in the process to find the best solutions to support from the society (Hozumi, Yoahiaki&Michiko, 2011; Nguyen, 2011). However, until now, there are no studies about social work services for Vietnamese families having disabled child.

Following are results of the research done in Ho Chi Minh City through the survey on the social service needs of families of children with developmental disabilities. The objective is, through the analyses of the research results, to determine the role of social work for people with disabilities and their families in the present social context. There are some research questions:

- When parents found out their child’s disability and what their need of social work services?
- Which difficulties that parents facing in child’s care and what their needs for social work services?
- What are the parents’ desires of social work services?
Procedure and Subjects

The questionnaires were distributed to parents of children with developmental disabilities (mental retardation, motor disabilities, language delays, autism/Asperger syndrome) in four institutions: Gia Dinh Special School, Binh Minh Special School, Suong Mai kindergarten, and the Center for Research of Children with Disabilities, and a total of 105 questionnaires were collected. These are places rich in experience in caring for and educating children with disabilities in Ho Chi Minh City. This selected sample is representative of the population of young people with developmental disabilities in the city.

For the major disability, 35 (33.3%) showed delayed language development, 31 (29.5%) developmental disorder (maybe autism or Asperger syndrome), 22 (21%) mental retardation, 17 (16.2%) were either other forms of disability or non-respondents.

Results

Difficulties in detecting and identifying the children’s developmental disabilities

Table 1: The time of detection and identification of children’s disabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Time of detection</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Cumulative percentage</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Time of detection</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Cumulative percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>At birth</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.5 years old</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>68.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3-4 months</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3 years old</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6-7 months</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.5 years old</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>9-10 months</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4 years old</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>93.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1 year old</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.5 years old</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>95.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.5 years old</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5 years old</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>98.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>2 years old</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>After entering Primary school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the question: "When did you recognize the retarded or defective developments of your child?" The times when parents discovered the "developmental retardation" status of their children were very different (see table 1). 13.6% parents recognized the "developmental retardation" status when the children were 1 year-old; 16.5% parents found out the state at the age 1 and half years. A similar rate of parents (16.5%) discovered when the children were
2 old-years, and 11.7% parents recognized their children’s problems when they were 3 years old. Children older than 3 years miss the “golden period” in which they can benefit from the process of early intervention, but still 20% of parents discovered the “retardation” state of their children only at this time. Even parents with children older than 5 years and beginning primary school, (of which there were 5 cases (4.8%) had been unable to recognize signs of “developmental retardation” in their children! Explaining the significance of the statistics as a cumulative percentage, we can see: 28.2% parents discovered signs of developmental retardation in their children at one year old; 44.7% parents discovered the problems when their children were 1 and a half years old; and 61.2% parents recognized only the “developmental retardation” state of their children when their children were 2 years of age.

This suggests two things: (1) Most parents in the study sample were lacking in knowledge about their children’s psycho-physiological development, which resulted in belatedly discovering the signs of developmental retardation in their children. (2) Most parents in the study sample may be unaware of the necessary compliance with medical regulations on examination and early detection. Therefore, they did not take their children to the medical facilities promptly in order to detect for "developmental retardation" of their children.

**Families’ facing difficulties**

The above analyses show that parents were often too late in detecting signs of developmental retardation in their children, with only 13.6% of them discovering their children’s problems when the children were 1 year old. Only after becoming aware of their children’s retardations, did parents worry about finding supporting social services. Table 2 shows that the first problem faced by parents (accounting for 53.3% the answers) is finding schools/centers for their children; the 2nd difficulty (45.7% of the replies) is the difficulty in finding professional educators; the third difficulty 41%) is obtaining the services that can
meet the children’s needs; and the fourth difficult (24.8%) is searching for specialists for medical care, and nurturing.

Most children (about 77%) in this research sample are learning at centers/schools, but this ratio shows how parents struggle to find suitable schools for their children. Currently, the number of special schools for children with mental retardation and autism are not numerous in Ho Chi Minh City, while kindergartens, primary schools are still not used to receiving the children to learn in the form of inclusive education. Private schools are always available to accept children with disorders, however the families’ economic conditions means that they cannot meet the high fees. Therefore the worry about not finding a school is a real concern for the parents of children with disabilities now.

Table 2: Difficulties of child care

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Difficulties of child care</th>
<th>Not difficult</th>
<th>Difficult</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seeking educator, social workers, and counselors</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Seeking specialists for medical care, and nurturing</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>71.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Seeking schools/centers for children</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Seeking services meeting the children’s needs</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interviews showed that the difficulties of parents of children with disabilities were very diverse: the challenges of finding teachers produced replies such as: "No assistant for children at schools", "No special education assistant at inclusive schools", "The teachers in school can not teach children with autism". The difficulties in seeking social workers elicited comments such as "No-one guides the children or shares their problems", "No-one trains the children how to do activities", "No-one shows the way of working to the children","No-one guides to search toys and tools suitable for children", "We cannot find any inclusive playing places for children".
The Parents’ Desires for Social Work Services

a) Policy for financial support

The survey shows that the major desire of parents of children with disabilities is a concern with the State’s social policy system for children with disabilities. Up to 75.2% of parents want the state to develop the subsidy system for children with special needs. Although the Government, in recent years, has certainly paid attention to children with disabilities and has issued many policies on education and care for children with disabilities, the social policies for children with special needs do not seem to be receiving adequate concern. According to the research results, the families who pointed out the lack of social policies to deal with this problem are those who have fallen into difficult circumstances. In addition, 39% of parents also want the state to implement policies that provide funding support for medical treatment. Currently, the state has a policy of free health care for all children, including children with special needs up to 6 years of age. It is curious why children over 6 are not included in this policy. Unfortunately, this sample has only 47% of children over 6 years, so this question cannot be discussed in detail here.

b) Daily living support

Although most respondents of the survey were parents with disabled children who are learning at a preschool or child care center, their desire to gain access to, and receive the support of, an assistant (special education specialist, social worker, etc) is still the major need (54.3% of comments). This suggests that there is a shortage of staff of special education professors and social workers working for disabled people, particularly in Ho Chi Minh City, as well as in the country generally. If staff are professionally trained, they will know how to approach the children with special needs and their parents to promptly assist them in all aspects of life.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Daily living support</th>
<th>No support</th>
<th>Support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Offer counseling centers</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gain access to and gain support of an assistant (special education specialist, social worker)</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: The support services

Table 3 points out that 36.2% parents having children with disabilities want to "Gain access to and receive the support of an assistant (special education expert, social worker, etc)" and 55.2% of parents want to "offer a consultation address." In other words, the percentage of the replies showed that the parents in this sample were not receiving consultative support for their problems, even though their children were learning at special schools. This means that the current schools and child care centers are not able to meet the needs of consultations for the parents. These places may lack experts on special education and social work, so that the parents are forced to get more counseling support from other people and other places. One parent’s opinion: "I want my child to be supported in all aspects: mental-motor, physical health, social integration, independent living, self-help skills”.

**Discussion**

The research results point out the weaknesses and inadequacies of the social services for people with disabilities and their families. There is currently a significant shortage of social workers for people with disabilities and teachers for children with special needs.

In recent years, the Government and social organizations have endeavoured to partially meet the needs of children with disabilities and support their families. The gap between the needs of families and the social responses, however, is still quite large, and requires the synchronous implementation of local governments to address the policy for
people with disabilities and their families. In addition, they also need the support from social organizations and the community.

The advocacy work of raising awareness in detection and early diagnosis of developmental retardation signs of new-born children and infants is weak and non-synchronous among medical agencies and local governments.

Most parents in the study sample did not know which social work services can guide and support the children who are identified as having developmental retardation as well as assisting them to learn about the legal procedures supporting them.

The research results show that the role of a social worker working in the field of social work with disabled people is very important. They are the bridge between disabled people’s families and social work services for people with disabilities. In order to support families of the disabled, social workers need to do some of the following work:

- Identify the condition, find out the causes, and predict the symptoms and degree of disability. Examine the processes and expressions;
- Learn the mood of the clients and their families. Bring them opportunities for expressing their concerns. Build the trust and sympathize with their experienced difficulties;
- Help the families identify the clients’ situations and discuss plans to address their essential needs;
- Help the families find the medical, social, legal, and entertainment services in the community;
- Help the families identify the clients’ rehabilitation progress. Instruct them how to deal with difficult issues and identify when they need to have more support. Assist the families to prevent and deal with cases of emergency;
- Identify the goals of social work for the clients and their families, in order to assist the clients promote self-helped functional activities, and guide the families for nurturing and rehabilitation;
- Social work services with programs and services in the community: education, vocational guidance, and vocational training.
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INTEGRATIVE MODEL ON MIGRATION

Finaflor Taylan

Abstract

Given the myriad issues of migrant workers and their families, a practice model that is fit and will address the concerns of the international migrant workers and their families should be systemic, collaborative, and multimodal/multilevel. A systemic model should look at the interplay and intervene at the different aspects such as the economic, political, socio-cultural aspects of migration. It should also assess how broader systems and structures impact the situation of the families and individuals. A collaborative model is described as being able to identify disciplines, institutions and persons which can help in the problem resolution. This involves the maximum use and possible sharing of competencies of different players that will help in addressing the problem of international migration. This also underscores the role of the different sectors and the affected parties themselves in the problem assessment and resolution. Thus, collaborative model is both participatory and empowering. Lastly, the model is multimodal or multilevel. Since the problem has causes and impacts that are of different levels (macro, mezzo, and micro), interventions and course of action should also be at the different levels simultaneously done and orchestrated in ways that will achieve the following objectives: For the part of social worker or program facilitator, 1) to address the neoliberal and multifaceted causes of!migration, 2) to address the ill effects of international migration against the migrants and left behind families, 3) to facilitate a pro poor and pro people development in the country, and, 4) to involve possible partners and stakeholders in managing the migration issue. For the part of the affected parties such as the migrant workers and their families, the model will facilitate the maximization of the economic gains of migration, address the social costs of migration, and prevent further problems from occurring especially to other people.

Introduction

The issue of international migration can be looked into at the continuum of macro to micro levels. At the macro level, it is good to look into the different aspects of the society or development such as the political, economic, socio-cultural and physical facets. Neo-liberalization and dependency theory as development perspectives both discuss economic and political causes of migration. Neo-liberalization and dependency theory stem from the
globalization phenomenon in which the participating countries are expected to interact with one another and share what they have to facilitate “development” (Ferrer). The Philippines as a participating country in globalization was able to access “assistance” from the developed countries as part of their commitment to globalization. Different aids or the Official Development Assistance (ODA) include financial assistance in the form of loans, soft loans and grants. The Philippines, on the other hand in exchange of this assistance, has to adapt its political and economic system by adjusting its policies that should be facilitative to this new order (Tadem, 2007). Part of these adjustments is to share resources to other countries which need these, resources such as cheap raw materials and of course human resources, which are one of the Philippines’ assets with its vast quantity and even competencies. International migration has become a job generation policy of the government in order to respond to the growing needs of the developed countries for human resources—both professional and non-professionals to sustain the developed countries’ development and make these further (Asis).

As what the dependency theory espouses, this exchange of financial assistance and resources by the developed and developing countries respectively has become the prevailing relationship (Ferrer). To facilitate this relationship further, the Philippine government is not able, intentionally or unintentionally to provide quality and competitive local jobs for our human resources (Aniceto Obreta & Abrigo, 2009). Furthermore, development in the local scene is far from reaching. The country especially in the rural areas has not developed much in terms of its economy (International Fund for Agricultural Development). This situation can be explained again by the neo-liberalization and dependency theory. The raw materials brought to other countries for example through exports are relatively cheap in prices (Ferrer). The Philippines doing exports is a paradox in itself since the Filipinos in reality have not much to consume locally while our products have to be exported for other countries’ consumption. Accordingly, surpluses have to be developed for exports. Agriculture as the
Philippines’ main economy has been not much of a priority of the government, proven in the trend on the annual national budget of the country in which the agriculture receives less than the other sectors especially debt servicing (The Freedom from Debt Coalition, 2011) and the investments provided to it (Habito & Briones) —being a result of the neoliberal system. This would mean less assistance for the agricultural workers and families to advance their technology, increase their income, and enjoy quality of life. If this is the case, rural development will be very far from its achievement especially for the local farmers, fishers and other people who depend on agriculture for mere survival. This does not include other issues such as agrarian reform, land conversion, natural disasters and corruption of public funds for agriculture. If this is the case in the agriculture sector, how can the country supply the basic food of the people? Imports is an answer to this which has become one of the strategies of the government to fulfill people's needs (Virola). It is very ironic to see that the country exports goods while it also imports from other countries of the basic food like rice, which if agriculture is developed and sustained, will not become the case.

Another situation brought about by neoliberalization is the closure or weakening of local industries which cannot compete with the goods coming from other countries. It is good to look how local industries cannot compete in a new and highly competitive leverage. Local industries need much from the government in terms of technical and financial assistance (Aldaba, 2008). If this is then the situation, weakening of the local industries leading to unemployment is on its way. For the local workers, Marxist theory can be of help in looking at their situation. Low wages, unjust/poor working conditions, inhumane treatment, no job security, underemployment, discrimination, and restrictive laws are only few among the issues of our workers (Federation of Free Workers), which can be analyzed by looking at the conflict of interest of the workers and the capitalists.
The culture theory discusses the contribution of culture and values on people’s lives and societal realities (Mendoza, 2008) in this case of the Filipinos to the issue of international migration. It has been a popular and common image of the Filipinos that other countries are better than the Philippines—their products, conditions, industries, culture, and the like are higher and better in quality that the locals. This can be brought by the fact that historically, the Philippines has been colonized by and was interacting with many countries and cultures since the prehistoric period (Gabornes). The Philippines has also been known to be very friendly and hospitable especially to foreigners. Thus, going out of the country or being able to experience other countries’ conditions is an ambition of many.

Looking at the interplay of macro political, economic and cultural aspects, international migration can become the only escape of the Filipinos of their conditions.

At the micro level or looking at the level of individuals and families, humanistic theory like that of Carl Rogers explain that all people have the tendency for self-actualization and positive self-regard (Mendoza, 2008), that they would look for ways in order to achieve conditions that will facilitate their self-actualization and to acquire positive regard of self and from others. If this is applied in the issue of international migration, and contextualizing or connecting the situation of individuals and families to the unjust and unsatisfying macro situation discussed above, individuals and their families have to contend with the option of working abroad for a more satisfying situation for themselves and for their families.

In terms of effects, both good and ill effects of migration can be seen. Economically speaking, a remittance coming from the Filipino migrants is undeniable, which makes the remittances oftentimes serve as an invisible subsidy of the national economy. Another is the fact that international migration provides a lot of job opportunities and jobs themselves for millions of Filipinos who might become bystanders in the locality if they choose to stay in the country. They would add up to the population who compete for the basic services
provided by the government and private organizations (Mohapatra, Ratha, & Scheja, 2010). But international migration has to be discussed not only in terms of its economic gains but also in relation to its social costs.

The brain drain phenomenon has been discussed in several literatures as an important social cost of international migration (Mohapatra, Ratha, & Scheja, 2010). The migrants, being people, are already considered as a resource or asset of any country. These people having to work in other countries, utilizing their competencies in serving other population is indeed a loss for the sending counties. This is to even underscore the fact that most of the migrant workers are the cream of the crop in their own fields or industries since qualifications in other countries especially for foreign workers are relatively higher that for their local counterparts. Thus, the country is left with people who can withstand the prevailing local situation in the country or those whose qualifications did not meet the standards of the other countries. This has a direct effect on the quality of services and goods provided to the local population. On the other hand, the competencies acquired by the migrant workers can also be applied to improve the local goods and services, if these migrant workers decided to stay in the country after some years of being away. But the appropriateness of the competencies that they earned from other countries if applied in our local context is another issue.

Care drain is another phenomenon worth looking at as an effect of international migration (Michel, 2010). This is for the left behind families of the international migrants. The loss or inadequacy of care, support and love for the left behind families is a crucial issue to weigh against the economic gains of migration. Many literatures have already outlined the effects to families especially to the children left behind by their families. This is very good to look using micro level theories like psychosocial theories. But generally speaking, literatures and development organizations have discussed that left behind families result to increased
income, relationship breakdown and changes in family structures within and among members left in the country and those working abroad. Problems can be in the form of school drop outs, early pregnancies, feeling of loneliness and aloneness, having extramarital affairs, participating in gangs and the like have been the common problems (Mohapatra, Ratha, & Scheja, 2010). Although there are also instances in which this gave positive effects on the families as the members both left behind and working abroad become more independent, more able to manage their money and responsibilities, performed other roles, self fulfillment, professional growth, and personal development as resiliency develops (Abenir, 2012). The situation can be different depending on the families and individuals who are involved.

In terms of culture, cultural assimilation or integration related to migration (Ray, 2002) has also become an interest to many especially for those who would like to see the cultural effects of migration, if cultures have been swept away and replaced by more dominant ones or have been improved and strengthened after having realized the strength of one’s culture.

But more literatures and news in the media have discussed the abuses and exploitation against our migrant workers as a result of even prior to migration. These include illegal recruitment, human trafficking, sexual abuses, physical maltreatment, psychological tortures and the like (Mohapatra, Ratha, & Scheja, 2010).

**Objectives and Brief Description of the Model**

Given the myriad issues surrounding international migration, it is imperative to develop a model that will respond in detail this complex issue of international migration.

For the part of the service provider/worker, the model would like to achieve the following objectives:

- To address the neoliberal and multifaceted causes of migration
• To address the ill effects of international migration against the migrants and left behind families

• To facilitate a pro poor and pro people development in the country

• To involve possible partners and stakeholders in managing the migration issue

For the part of the affected parties such as the migrant workers and their families, the model will facilitate the maximization of the economic gains of migration, address the social costs of migration, and prevent further problems from occurring especially to other people.

The model that is fit and will address the concerns of the international migrant workers and their families should be systemic, collaborative, and multimodal/ multilevel. Consistent to the assessment above, a systemic model should look at the interplay of and intervene at the different aspects such as the economic, political, socio-cultural aspects of migration. It should also assess how broader systems and structures impact the situation of the families and individuals. A collaborative model is described as being able to identify disciplines, institutions and persons which can help in the problem resolution. This involves the maximum use and possible sharing of competencies of different players that will help in addressing the problem if international migration. This also underscores the role of the different sectors and the affected parties themselves in the problem assessment and resolution. Thus, collaborative model is both participatory and empowering. Lastly, the model is multimodal or multilevel. Since the problem has causes and impacts that are of different levels (macro, mezzo, and micro), interventions and course of action should also be at the different levels simultaneously done and orchestrated in ways that will achieve the objectives above.
Details of the Model

The model can be presented in this figure:

Figure 1. Integrative Model on International Migration

Looking at the figure above, the integrative model on international migration highlights the different macro and micro causes and impacts of international migration such as politics, economy and culture to include relationships and these are treated as common grounds for actions throughout and in the continuum of micro-mezzo-macro practice: empowering work with the migrants and their families at the micro level, country driven development at the mezzo level and the international work towards social justice at the macro or global level.

1. Empowering work the migrants and their families: micro level

The social worker and other partners at this level will have to directly work with the migrants and their families to address issues of abuses, broken relationships, and capacity
development. Empowering strategies will be utilized so that the migrants could identify and make use of their capacities and strengths in resolving their own problems and issues that will eventually lead to helping other individuals and families who have the same issues.

As a direct worker, the social worker would employ the direct methods such as casework, group work and community organizing. For the part of the migrants, the social worker in the receiving countries will conduct casework with them. The casework will be employed to address the issues of abuses, homesickness, hopelessness, family or relationship breakdown, financial management, and the like. Counseling, legal assistance especially for those migrants who encounter cases of abuses, medical assistance, or repatriation if needed can be forms or ways to accomplish this. In relation to group work, migrant workers can be grouped together especially those with similar issues or those residing or working in the same locale so that the group can help the individual workers in their situation, to make the group as a support group, and to eventually make the group an agent of change. The migrant workers in a locality or in the same working conditions or industry can be assisted in forming an organization that will become a venue for their self-expression, participation, and situational change. Conscientization and capacity building will be very crucial at this stage of work. To be able to do all these, social workers or other collaborators should be visible in almost all the receiving countries. These can be done through the help of the embassies and development organizations in different countries.

For the part of the migrant families such as the left behind children and spouses, casework and group work can also be done with them. This is aimed at assisting the families to address issues of abandonment, neglect, care drain, family breakdown, and changes in family structure. This is a good way to complement with the work with the family members who are migrant workers. Again, counseling such as ventilation, processing of feelings, behavioral modification, cognitive restructuring and the like can be facilitated. For the part of the
families, the social worker can help in facilitating performance of roles especially role reversals to maintain the harmonious functioning of the families. Families can also be helped in managing the financial gains of migration by assisting them in entrepreneurship, investments, and banking. The children or the families can also be grouped based on their characteristics that can serve as support system. Organizing of families of migrants is another strategy that will facilitate self-expression, venue for participation and societal changes of the migrant families. The Local Government Units will be very instrumental in this aspect since they are the ones who have access and machinery to facilitate this.

2. Country driven development at the mezzo level

At this level of practice, the social worker and collaborators will have to work at the government level to try to do some reforms in our policies and programs so that these will address issues of rural underdevelopment, unjust working conditions, and inadequate programs for the protection of rights of people. It is called country driven since this intervention level should facilitate adjustments in the policies and programs of the country and will highlight agriculture and the agricultural capacities of people, supporting local industries and strengthening our cultures that will benefit the Filipino people themselves, and not the other countries. Facilitating the change of perceptions of people on migration or colonial mentality is also a key feature under this model.

For the mezzo level as a system developer, social workers should be able to shake or enter into the system of governance in the country so that possible reforms or shifts in paradigm on development can be made. Preliminary meetings can be made with the key government players so that presentations on the assessment of the development agenda of the country be discussed and how these affect the Filipino people specifically the migrant workers and their families. Discussions on the costs of repatriation due to the situations in the receiving countries can be an entry point to the discussion on the development of the country
itself and of the people. To be able to do this, researches should be made by the social workers to ensure that there is a database to prove that the country will gain more if paradigm shifts will be instituted in the development agenda of the country, which will eventually reduce the costs of migration. What is crucial will be the plan on making the country generates more jobs for the Filipinos without depending on migration and foreigners. This can be a very good discussion on the contributions of agriculture, strengthening local industries, ensuring just working conditions and investing on social services as key points for the reforms. Thus, the social worker can serve as consultant to make recommendations on the new development agenda. Looking for champions in the Congress and the executive branch of the government plus private organizations can facilitate the realization of this role. The social worker can also be helped in this aspect by the organizations of families of migrant workers who are already conscientized on the causes of migration.

Another aspect of the mezzo practice is the advocacy on a changed perspective or perception on migration and the colonial mentality of Filipinos. Educational strategies can be done such as promoting our own culture rather that of other countries, identifying the strengths of the country, or showing the ill effects of migration can be done through television advertisements. A discussion with the Department of Education to include this in the lessons in the classroom can be another strategy. The organizations of the migrant families can also help in disseminating such information especially that they themselves experience the difficulties of migration. They can be involved in popular forms of education and advocacy such as street theaters, comics, or even participatory videos to promote the cultural strengths of the Filipinos and the disadvantages of migration. Social workers can facilitate these activities by motivating and capacity building of family members to do educational activities. In this way, perceptions on colonialism and migration can be gradually changed and can prevent other people from migrating or forcing their family members to
migrate while appreciating our culture and nation as well. This is a complementary strategy towards the country driven development since this will pave the way for strengthened nationalism of people that can lead to better people’s participation to government programs and policies and their show of concern for the country.

3. International work towards social justice at the macro level

The macro or global level of work highlights collaborative work with multinational, international, and foreign organizations and countries that are maintaining or worsening the status quo of our migrant workers and their families through their unjust and inhumane policies and structures or non-existing policies and structures that will protect the migrant workers. This will try to shake the neoliberal system of politics, culture and economy that will lead to the protection of rights of the migrant workers and prevent further problems from occurring such as more sound management of influx of migration, trade agreements, and the like.

For the macro or global level practice, the main role of the social worker will be an advocate. As an advocate, the social worker should promote changes on (1) the relationships between the sending countries and receiving countries based on the neoliberalization, and (2) policies and programs for the protection of migrant workers. For the first issue, the social worker should advocate against the ill effects of neoliberalization especially for the developing countries like the Philippines such as dependency that will eventually lead to underdevelopment. For the second issue, the social worker should work for the implementation and full participation of countries especially the receiving countries on conventions and policies that seek to protect the rights of migrant workers. At present, most countries which signify their support to the said policies were the sending countries whereas the receiving countries are mostly silent about this.
For the macro practice as an advocate, the social worker need to have deep engagements with the different organizations of migrant workers, with the organizations which have more or less control over the global system such as the United Nations, with other international humanitarian organizations and advocacy groups against neoliberalization. At this level of practice, massive mobilizations, negotiations, and pressuring from many groups are needed to be able to shake this seemingly unshakeable structures and systems. It will help if the Philippine government at this point realized the disadvantages of its relationship with other countries especially the developed countries. In this work, the power of the people especially the migrant workers and those in support of this cause will really be very critical. Help of the different social movements against globalization in the different countries are needed. Social workers thus need linkaging, networking, pressuring, confronting, and negotiating skills to be able to accomplish this task.

Table 1. Summary of strategies of the integrative model on (International) Migration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of Practice</th>
<th>Strategies and activities</th>
<th>Key players</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Micro</strong></td>
<td><strong>Empowering work with the migrants and their families</strong></td>
<td>Social workers, Legal workers like lawyers, Private organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(individual migrants and</td>
<td>Working with left behind children and/or families (case work or groupwork)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their families)</td>
<td>Organizing of migrants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizing of left behind parents and children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mezzo</strong></td>
<td><strong>Country-driven development</strong></td>
<td>Social workers, Government agencies, Private organizations on country/rural development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Philippines)</td>
<td>Educational activities to change culture on migration or colonial mentality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advocacy with government on policies on the neoliberalization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advocacy on rural and country development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Macro</strong></td>
<td><strong>International work towards social justice</strong></td>
<td>Social workers, International organizations such as Red Cross, UN, ASEAN, etc. Advocacy groups against neoliberal system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(international level)</td>
<td>Advocacy for agreements/convention on the protection of migration workers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advocacy work against neoliberal policies and systems</td>
<td></td>
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References


RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN META-COGNITIVE BELIEFS AND THE
OBSESSIVE-COMPULSIVE SYMPTOMS AMONG FEMALE UNIVERSITY
STUDENTS

Heydar Fathi

Abstract

Introduction: The present descriptive co-relational study was conducted with the aim of determining the relationship between meta-cognitive beliefs and obsessive compulsive symptoms among female students of Tabriz University. Methods: The subjects included 196 female B.A. students of the faculty of Humanities in Tabriz University selected through stratified random sampling procedures in the academic year 2010-2011. The data for the study was collected by means of the short form of Wells meta-cognitions questionnaire (MCQ-30), Maudsley’s obsessive compulsive Inventory (MOCI) and Beck’s depression inventory (BDI-II). The data were analyzed through Pearson's correlation coefficient and stepwise analysis of regression. Findings: The results indicated that there is a direct relationship between meta-cognitive beliefs (positive worries, uncontrollable beliefs, cognitive competence beliefs and general negative beliefs) and the symptoms of obsession. No significant correlation was identified between cognitive self-awareness and the symptoms of obsession. The results of this study indicate that treating the obsessive patients through meta-cognitive approach is useful. Further study on obsessive patients might yield more accurate results.

Statement of the Problem

Obsessive-compulsive disorder is one of the anxiety disorders consisting of two important parameters of mental obsessions and practical compulsions. Main features of obsession disorder include returning mental or practical obsessions leading to obvious distraction or main disorder. Also, they are time consuming due to their severity (American Psychiatric Association, 2006). Epidemiological studies reported a 2.5% lifelong and 1.6% six-month prevalence of the disorder (Leahy & Holland, quoted by Gheitasi, 2007).
Therefore, it is felt necessary to focus on the problem considering its relatively high prevalence and psychological damage aspects.

There are several viewpoints about obsession. According to Mowrer’s two-factor theory, formation and continuation of anxiety is conditioned (classically conditioned) with mental events (thoughts or images) and practical obsessions result from any endeavor to reduce distractions deriving from these thoughts. Cognitively, the main difference between normal disturbing thoughts and obsessions lie in implications and thoughts identified by obsessive as a sign of possible damage to them or others. They think that they may be responsible for the damage. Severity and duration of checking behaviors of the checking mental obsessive patients are determined using three factors of increasing responsibility, damage probability, and expectation of damage severity and seriousness (Tavakoli & Ghasemzadeh, 2006).

Considering several theories, Adrian Wells’ metacognitive beliefs theory has recently been introduced as one of theories explaining cause of emotional disorders especially practical-mental obsession.

According to Wells (1994), emotional disorders result from deficiency in metacognitive controls such that people cause anxiety and obsession due to their insufficient metacognitive beliefs. Metacognitively, every supervision mistake from objective level of cognition to meta-level is introduced as a factor of mental disorder (Wells, 2006). According to the metacognitive viewpoint about anxiety disorders, people use their feelings as information to evaluate and judge. Therefore, negative evaluations lead to mental disorders and incorrect function. Considering Wells’ comments on data analysis process, cognition is affected by emotional and metacognitive factors. Therefore, emotional variations may change evaluations and cognitions. In fact, emotions are internal inputs affecting motivations, behaviors, and functions. They may even precede cognition and affect range of cognitive
processes including attention bias, memory bias, judgment, evaluation, and decision making (Hashemi & Khaiier, 2008).

In this regard, empirical studies suggest that copying metacognitive strategies of punishment and concern are associated with negative signs of psychological health and metacognitive strategies are related to susceptibility against emotional distraction and its improvement (Wells, 2006). Results of different researches are in correspondence with Wells’ metacognitive controls deficit theory on obsession. In their research, Wells & Papageorgious (1998) found that there is a positive and meaningful relationship between cognitive competence and symptoms of practical-mental obsession. Results of the study conducted by Wells & Cartwright-Hatton (2004) demonstrated that patients with generalized anxiety and practical-mental obsession disorders are at lower levels considering cognitive competence in comparison with the healthy subjects. Melling & Alden (2000) indicated to higher levels of post-event rumination in people with higher levels of anxiety in comparison with those with less anxiety. In a study, Lobban (2002) reported that metacognitive beliefs are more unbalanced in patients suffering from anxiety disorders especially generalized anxiety, panic anxiety, practical-mental obsession, and post-trauma stress disorders.

Studies refer to the relationship found between metacognitive deficiency and obsessive-compulsive disorder. Following previously conducted studies, the present research evaluates role of metacognition in obsessive-compulsive disorder symptoms. Since according to the researcher, there is not any research in Iran in this regard and no study was conducted on normal subjects, the present study considers university students and normal groups. This is an innovative study since it applied metacognitive theory at mental condition of students of Tabriz University. The present study tries to evaluate the hypothesis based on a relationship found between metacognitive beliefs and obsessive-compulsive disorder symptoms of the students.
Method

This is a descriptive and correlation study. The statistical population was consisted of all students studying at bachelor degree program of faculty of humanity in Tabriz University during academic year of 210-2011. The subjects were selected from different fields of faculty of humanity using classified randomized sampling method. The sample volume was consisted of 196 girls’ students of faculty of humanity of Tabriz University. It was calculated using Cochran sampling formula. Considering probability of existence of students with anxiety and depression disorders, 250 students were selected. Since students with scores higher than term score in both anxiety and depression questionnaire were exclude from the study, finally, 196 students were statistically analyzed.

Data collection instruments

Short form of Wells’ metacognitive beliefs questionnaire (MCQ-30), Maudsley’s obsessive-compulsive inventory (MOCI), Beck’s anxiety inventory (BAI), and Beck’s depression inventory (BDI-II) were used in addition to researcher-made demographic questionnaire including questions about age, gender, educational level, and educational field.

a. Wells’ metacognitive beliefs questionnaire: The questionnaire was compiled by Wells in 1997 and it is a 30-item self-report scale evaluating persons’ beliefs about their thoughts. The responses are calculated based on a 4-point Likert scale (1=agree to 4=very agree). The scale has five subscales: positive concern beliefs, uncontrollable beliefs, cognitive competence, general negative beliefs, and cognitive self-awareness. Hashemi and Khaiier (2008) used factor analysis method to confirm its construct validity. According to their report, the test reliability was 0.76-0.93 for all scales and subscales. The reliability was calculated using Cronbach alpha coefficient. Wells referred to 0.74-0.89 as retest coefficient of subscales of the questionnaire. Additionally, reliability and validity of the
questionnaire have been confirmed by different researches conducted by Wells, Cartwright-Hatton (2004), and Tosun & Irak (2008).

b. Maudsley’s obsessive-compulsive inventory (MOCI): The inventory was made by Hodgson & Rochman in 1997. It includes 30 true-false questions and designed to measure practical-mental obsession disorder symptoms. The inventory was consisted of four subscales of checking (9 items), washing (11 items), slowness (7 items), and doubt (7 items). The scores will vary from zero to four and the higher the score the more the practical-mental obsession symptoms. Astkty (quoted by Pakravan et al, 2007) reported 0.85 as its reliability using retest method. Dadfar (quoted by Pakravan et al, 2007) referred to 0.84 and 0.87 as validity of whole test and its concurrent validity with Yale-Brown compulsive obsession scale, respectively.

c. Beck’s anxiety inventory (BAI): The inventory was first developed by Beck in 1993. It includes 21 items and its phrases are drawn up based on signs and symptoms of anxiety and its severity. The inventory is scored as a 4-point Likert scale (0= Never to 3= very much). In their research, Kaviani & Mousavi (2008) concluded that the test has a validity of 0.72, reliability of 0.83, and internal stability of 0.92 and is of an appropriate capability to be used in psychological researches.

d. Beck’s depression inventory (BDI-II): It was compiled by Beck in 1961 and is one of the most common tests considering depression self-report. It has consisted of 21 items and every question includes 4-5 phrases drawn up based on signs and symptoms of depression and its severity. Each question is given a score varying from zero to three. Based on five factors, Beck’s questionnaire consists of depression signs and symptoms. Several researches have confirmed its validity and reliability. According to Rajabi et al (2001), the questionnaire has the validity of 0.87, intersection reliability coefficient of 0.83, and retest reliability coefficient of 0.49 obtained at the time interval of three weeks.
The data was analyzed using SPSS software and descriptive statistical methods (mean, standard deviation), Pierson correlation coefficient, step-by-step regression, and Independent T-test.

**Findings**

Mean age of the subjects was 23.50 with the standard deviation of 4.13 and the youngest and oldest subjects were 17 and 39 years old, respectively. Results of Pierson correlation coefficient indicated to a positive and meaningful correlation found between positive concern beliefs and symptoms of students’ practical-mental obsession \(r=0.41, P<0.001\). There was not any statistically meaningful relationship between students’ cognitive self-awareness and symptoms of their practical-mental obsession \(P=0.08\). Also, there is a positive and meaningful correlation between students’ general negative beliefs and symptoms of their practical-mental obsession \(r=0.37, P<0.001\). There is a positive and meaningful relationship between students’ cognitive competence beliefs and symptoms of their practical-mental obsession \(r=0.48, P<0.001\). Additionally, there is a positive and meaningful correlation between students’ uncontrollable beliefs and symptoms of their practical-mental obsession \(r=0.42, P<0.001\).

Table 1: Results of Pierson correlation coefficient between metacognitive beliefs and obsessive-compulsive disorder symptoms \(n=388\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Obsessive-compulsive disorder symptoms</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive concern beliefs</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive self-awareness</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General negative beliefs</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive competence beliefs</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncontrollable beliefs</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step-by-step regression analysis was used to determine predictive share of each metacognitive belief in explaining obsessive-compulsive symptoms. The results
demonstrated that uncontrollable beliefs which have more share in explanation of obsessive-compulsive symptoms entered the regression analysis equation at the first step. According to the analysis, \( f=40.87 \) (P<0.001). The uncontrollable beliefs can explain 17.0% of variance of the students’ obsessive-compulsive symptoms.

At the second step, the uncontrollable beliefs entered the regression analysis equation along with the positive beliefs (P<0.001). The uncontrollable beliefs along with the positive ones are capable to explain 25.2% of obsessive-compulsive symptoms variance.

At the third step, the uncontrollable, positive concern, and cognitive competence beliefs entered the regression analysis equation (P<0.001). The uncontrollable, positive concern and cognitive competence beliefs may explain 28.0% of the students’ obsessive-compulsive symptoms variance.

The uncontrollable, positive concern, cognitive competence, and cognitive self-awareness beliefs entered the regression analysis equation at its fourth step (P<0.001). The uncontrollable, positive concern, cognitive competence, and cognitive self-awareness beliefs are capable of explaining 0.30% of the students’ obsessive-compulsive symptoms variance.

Sign of \( \beta \) coefficients indicates to positive role of all four beliefs, i.e. the uncontrollable, positive concern, cognitive competence, and cognitive self-awareness beliefs, in explaining obsessive-compulsive symptoms.

Table 2: A summary of information related to determinant coefficient, estimation standard error, and regression coefficients of effects of metacognitive beliefs on obsessive-compulsive symptoms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Index/resource</th>
<th>B coefficient</th>
<th>B coefficient</th>
<th>T ratio</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Determinant coefficient</th>
<th>Estimation standard error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Uncontrollable beliefs</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>4.82</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Uncontrollable beliefs</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive beliefs</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Uncontrollable</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>&lt;0.039</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>4.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beliefs</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive competence</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive beliefs</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive competence</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive self-awareness</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

The present study aimed at explaining the relationship found between metacognitive beliefs and symptoms of students’ practical-mental obsession indicated to the correlation between metacognitive beliefs (positive concern, general negative, cognitive competence, and uncontrollable beliefs) and symptoms of students’ practical-mental obsession. But, it did not suggest any relationship between cognitive self-awareness and symptoms of practical-mental obsession.

Results of the research about the correlation between positive concern beliefs and obsession symptoms are in correspondence with findings of the study conducted by Yousefi et al (2008). They concluded that there is a direct relationship between positive beliefs about concern and mental rumination. Additionally, studies conducted by Tosun & Irak (2008) and Wells & Papageorgious (1998) demonstrated that positive beliefs about concern are associated with obsessive-compulsive symptoms. In accordance with this part of Wells’ theory, explaining role of positive beliefs about concern in appearing of obsessive-compulsive symptoms suggests that positive beliefs about concern activate obsessive thoughts in a way that beliefs created on usefulness of behavioral responses against obsessive thoughts convince the subject to minimize the evaluated risk developed by obsessive
thoughts through manifesting special behavioral responses (e.g. I need concern to be disciplined, concern helps me to overcome my problems, I need concern to work well).

Results referring to the relationship between uncontrollable beliefs and symptoms of practical-mental obsession match with findings of this part of the research as well as results of studies conducted by Wells & Papageorgious (1998) and Tosun & Irak (2008) about the relationship found between uncontrollable beliefs and obsessive-compulsive symptoms. Findings of this part of the research correspond with Miken Bam’s theory emphasizing that every kind of negative induction to oneself such as “I am not able to control my excitement” makes the person susceptible against mental damages and reduces his/her psychologically copying capability.

Outcomes resulted from the relationship found between students’ cognitive competence and symptoms of their obsessive-compulsive are in correspondence with findings of Nedeljkovic et al (2009) aimed at determining role of meta-memory and metacognition in symptoms of obsessive-compulsive disorder among the samples of university students. Additionally, results of this part of the study match with the results obtained by Soltanzadeh (2007) testing memory confidence in the obsessive patients. The results are in contrary to those obtained by Gheitasi (2006).

Outcomes resulted from the relationship found between students’ general negative beliefs and symptoms of their practical-mental obsession are in correspondence with the results of the study conducted by Wells & Papageorgious (1998) and Tosun & Irak (2008). Also, Yousefi et al (2008) demonstrated that there is a direct relationship between negative beliefs and mental rumination considering their coefficient. Responsibility is one of components of negative beliefs in metacognition. In their research, Shirinzadeh & Godarzi (2008) concluded that responsibility beliefs level of patients with obsessive-compulsive disorder is higher than normal subjects. Also, Mather and Cartwright-Hatton (2004) indicated
to the positive relationship found between responsibility and metacognition features and obsessive-compulsive symptoms.

In accordance with a part of Wells’ theory, explaining role of general negative beliefs in appearing of obsessive-compulsive symptoms suggests that the bound disappears between thought and events (thought and activities) in obsessive-compulsive disorder. In other words, the patient thinks that a special negative though is responsible for occurring of a special event (e.g. the evil will chase me if I think about it). Or, thinking about one event means its occurring (e.g. if I think that I have abused it, it is possible that I have the same actually) (Wells, 2006).

The results demonstrated that the relationship reported between cognitive self-awareness and symptoms of practical-mental obsession are not in correspondence with the findings of the studies conducted by Tosun & Irak (2008) and Wells. Explaining this part of the research findings, it is concluded that in self-regulating model of administrative function it has been assumed that there is a tendency to focus on thought processes in obsessive disorder which increases cognitive self-awareness and results in exploring of unwanted thoughts or beginning of disturbing ones. According to Wells, obsessive thoughts are inclined to predetermine the internal events and do not focus on external ones (Wells, 2006). Findings of this part of the study are in correspondence with Wells’ theory regarding difference found between the patients and healthy subjects considering role of cognitive self-awareness in appearing of obsessive symptoms. Apparently, cognitive self-awareness does not serve as a strong criterion in explaining obsessive symptoms in the normal subjects.

Since different metacognitive beliefs have been introduced by Wells as a theory and a metacognitive treatment of anxiety disorders and the present study aimed at determining the relationship found between metacognitive beliefs and obsessive-compulsive symptoms, Adrian Wells’ theory can be used to explain findings of the research and conclude that
metacognitive beliefs has appropriate theoretical capability and scientific explanation considering obsessive-compulsive symptoms of the normal subjects.

Using questionnaire is regarded as the main limitation of the present study. Also, outcomes of the study leads to data resulting from applied research methods. The research was conducted on girl students of Tabriz University and the findings should be cautiously generalized to other societies. Considering the mentioned limitations, further studies, as a research suggestion, will provide better conditions to use the research results. Therefore, it is recommended to evaluate the relationship found between metacognitive beliefs and obsessive symptoms about other rival theories such as cognitive and behavioral theories in order to determine special importance of each theory. Additionally, it is suggested to use metacognitive treatment approach in mental intervention plans of counseling center of universities and metacognitive strategies are trained at educational workshops to maintain mental health.

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BUILDING RESILIENCE IN YOUNG PEOPLE WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES
– A PARTNERSHIP WITH SOCIAL WORKER

Jee Ching Pang

Abstract

Graduating from school can be a celebration for many young people as they look forward for a bright future with anticipation. This leaves behind those who carry with them the negative impact of their school experiences such as school bullying (NCB, 2007), exclusion, peer rejection (Buhs, 2005:408), embarrassment, frustration and loneliness (McVilly et al., 2006:191). Research has shown that young people with learning disabilities have been consistently marginalized in their learning at school (Head, 2007:1). Consequently and unfortunately, they leave school with lost sense of purpose and destiny in life (White et al., 1982:273). It is a multifaceted issue to face with, not only with the young people, but the support system ecologically in supporting the young people. This means these young people need to move on, to reconcile and reconnect with themselves and their community consequently. Hence, moving on does not mean complete elimination of past negative experiences; it is maximizing opportunities by instilling resilience in handling and facing their daily encounters, such as associating with friends and experiencing success, besides building a network of support from the wider community, with family and professional support where necessary (Daniel et al., 2002:14). Thus, the role of a competent social worker is critical in ensuring a meaningful life for these young people living in an accepting and inclusive community.

Introduction

Graduating from school may be a celebration for many young people as they look forward to a bright future with anticipation. This leaves behind those who carry with them the negative impact of their school experiences such as school bullying (NCB, 2007), exclusion, peer rejection (Buhs, 2005), embarrassment, frustration and loneliness (McVilly et al., 2006). Research has shown that young people with learning disabilities have been consistently marginalized in their learning in school (Head, 2007). Consequently and unfortunately, they leave school with a lost sense of purpose and destiny (White et al., 1982)
in life. It is a multifaceted issue to face with, not only for the young people, but the support system ecologically in supporting the young people. This means these young people need to move on, to reconcile and reconnect with themselves and their community consequently. Hence, moving on does not mean complete elimination of past negative experiences; it is maximizing opportunities by instilling resilience in handling and facing their daily encounters, such as associating with friends and experiencing success, besides building a network of support from the wider community, with family and professional support where necessary (Daniel et al., 2002).

No man is an island. It starts with the individual, and growth comes from the environment and community. It is a reciprocal relationship. Young people with learning disabilities can be a source of strength for the development of social outcomes where each individual tries to see the best in everybody with the ends to build an ‘ideal’ relationship. In order to achieve community transformation and to change the world, it starts from our mind where resilience is the base for growth for a long-term outcome.

The Issues and Its Settings

The After School Effect

The detrimental problems encountered by young people with learning disabilities at school, is not a new issue to identify (Hornby & Witte, 2008). The list will never end when the problems are discussed – bully, peer rejection (De Pear, 1997), depression (McGillivray & McCabe, 2009), anxiety, loneliness (McVilly et al., 2006), stigmatization and exclusion. The negative consequences of labelling and the associated stigma have created additional relationship difficulties (Clough et al., 2005), both from the teachers’ perspective and peers. The label of ‘damaged goods’ has caused them to experience social and personal disempowerment especially when they are required to take a ‘passive’ role in the learning process. Such situation is called ‘learned helplessness’ where the consequence in adulthood
is they do not ask questions nor seek help (Smith & Tyler, 2010). The failure to learn life coping skills has complicated their social and emotional status as they grow older, thus, they feel they do not belong to anywhere in the school system and later in the community too. This issue has been compounded with mental health problems in these young people (Raghavan, 2004) where their resilience to risk and uncertainty are lessened, self-esteem is lowered, and ability to deal with change and adaptation is inhibited (Price & Patton, 2003). Clearly, their past experiences have overwhelmed their ability to handle emotions and daily life issues.

**A Typical Way of Life**

The repeated failure and frustration at school has negatively affect their motivation, often convincing them that they can do nothing in life (Smith & Tyler, 2010). Typically, many parents would continue to look for other training programmes for their young adult as recommended by the school teachers, such as sheltered workshop and employment training centre. Young people hardly get the opportunity to decide what they want to do or achieve (Wehmeyer, 2007; Hollomotz, 2009), mainly due to their cognitive and speech difficulties (Yeo, 2007, Smith & Tyler, 2010). For instance, simple decisions such as where and what restaurant to eat or where to go for outings are often decided for them. What more about life decision such as getting a job, being independent and having a life partner?

Often, the parents or caregivers may have the good intention to prevent them from experiencing the consequences of poor choices, but, they are actually hindering them in learning the life coping skills which are more critical for long-term impact (Wehmeyer, 2007). The underlying argument is about ‘involving people with learning disabilities in choices about their futures is much more challenging than inviting choices on’ (Parley, 2001). Therefore, the young adult is deprived of the freedom to make choices they are perceived as not even knowing what they enjoy and are capable of (Daniel et al., 2002).
**Issues and Challenges in A Family**

The stigma and segregation (Scorgie, 2010) faced by the family since their child was diagnosed is another issue for the family to face with their growing special young adult. This issue can be viewed at two levels, within the family and beyond the family. Within the family, the relationship and trust in the family affect the development of self-determination associated with resilience. Poor interaction amongst family members leads to a loss of trust and insecure attachment (Daniel et al., 2002). Hence, it affects and disturbs the attachment process where there were feelings of unworthiness, anger and anxiety in the family. Often, these feelings cause them to become hostile towards other adults or practitioners who genuinely wish to build positive attachments in their later stage beyond the family.

The controlled and confined social spaces in the family system have limited the opportunity for the young people to grow. This includes issues of bringing friends home, visiting friends and going out with friends for leisure (Davis, 2007) as a young person. It implicates and challenges the relationships of trust and respect that need to be built and valued. Strong feelings such as love and envy can be aroused and generated if it is not attended to and resolved properly. Subsequently, it becomes a constant mixture of emotional and practical challenges, particularly for the parents, practically at this stage of transition to adulthood.

**The Importance of Resilience and Its Impact**

The word ‘resilience’ to be used in social sciences meant ‘the ability to succeed, to live and to develop in a positive and socially acceptable way, despite the stress or adversity that would normally involve the real possibility of a negative outcome’ (Vanistendael in Cyrulnik, 2009,p.5). According to Cyrulnik (2009,p.13), ‘resilience is a natural process: what we are at any given moment obliges us to use our ecological, emotional and verbal environments to ‘knit’ ourselves’. The point is in its applicability to young people with
learning disabilities to move on from their difficult childhood and demoralized schooling years.

The role of emotions as inner sources of energy (Margalit, 2003) should be identified and recognized by the young people. This means inner feelings of contentment are as important as the outward signs of functioning well where resiliency is emphasized as a way of being engaged in this world (Greeff, 2005) as a young adult. According to Lewis (1999, p.12), ‘resilience is never directly observed, it is always imputed’ and helpful to counteract the person’s strong-held perception of helplessness.

Miller (2002) has pointed some key points from the view of students with learning disabilities. ‘Particular areas of strength’ (p.294), ‘self-determination’ (p.295) and ‘acknowledgement of the learning disability’ (p.296) are some key elements responded by the young people who displayed resilience attributes. Moreover, it is also pointed out by Price & Patton (2003) that when a person with learning disabilities grows and matures at different life stage, the concept of self-determination is critical to meet the diverse needs of the young person. This implies the significance and importance of self-determination in the young people as the progress towards resiliency in accomplishing their life goals (Miller, 2002). Karlsson & Nilholm (2006) brought up the issue of dilemmatic situations towards the empowerment of disabled people. For young people with learning disabilities, the dilemmas could be problems of interpretation, of hesitation, or of difficult wishes in human interaction which commonly complicates the practice of self-determination. Nevertheless, rebutted by Wong (2003), these hypotheses of self-understanding in young people with learning disabilities remain an empirical question as it is intertwined with societal and cultural influences.

Therefore, it is important to note that self-determination associated with resilience is not simply a personal construct, but a dynamic causal structure closely interlinked with the
family, community, as in the ecological model approach (Lewis, 1999; Wehmeyer & Garner, 2003). Goodley (2005) summarised five resilience aspects when he analysed the self-advocacy groups in Britain. Resilience is contextualized, complicating, optimistic, interpersonal and indicative of disablement. Taken from his perspective, the impact of resilience does not just originate with the individual, in fact, it is composed of the complex social process within the ecological model approach where each has its own roles to play and influence. It is also a process in acquiring a value system in the society when the young people are able to demonstrate the skills and knowledge associated with self-determination and resilience for an independent functioning in their adulthood (Price & Patton, 2003). Consequently, the ecological approach of resilience in young people with learning disabilities should be established on an unchanging and eternal verity which ‘carries values and beliefs about human condition and the quality of life’ (Clough et al., 2005).

**Straining Forward, No Turning Back**

**Coping strategies for resilience from within.** For young people with learning disabilities, to continue the journey toward adulthood with a new thinking for life can be challenging but not impossible. The central mind-principle is the new thinking, attitudes and beliefs which create new conditions for them to move on and be resilient. The essence of the new thinking consists of the continual renewing of our mind which can be manifested to be good and acceptable. This is closely related to the sense of self-efficacy and internal locus of control (Wong, 2003) within them which should be regulated into their daily lives and responsibility. According to Daniel et al., (2002, p.38), ‘a sense of self-efficacy is the foundation for resilience, where young people believe that they are able to make their own choices in life.

Development of self-determination associated with resilience is essential to successful life adjustment (Miller, 2002). It is a learning process where young people seek
increasing control over own lives and decision making is central to their development into adults capable of leading independent lives. It needs some discussion and compromise with the parents at some point. Nevertheless, it requires a good understanding of self-awareness, self-efficacy and self-acceptance by and for the young people for the possibility of self-determination to flourish (Roffman, 2007), especially in making conscious choices with a full sense of wanting, choosing and personal endorsement (Wehmeyer, 2007).

Besides being aware and understand about ourselves, we need to recognise and acknowledge our personal responsibility in the community. It is an on-going process of renewing the mind and transformation which is closely associated with resilience. As the transformation takes place, new thoughts and beliefs would replace the past unhappiness and distress and the young people are able to develop reasonably accurate attributions about their own and others’ behaviour in a social context (Daniel et al., 2002). Life become more meaningful when the young people have the chance to evolve from being a recipient of support to becoming an agent in their own support (Mortier et al., 2011) with the enhancement of self-determination and resilience for social competency. According to Daniel et al. (2002), ‘what distinguishes resilient young people is their knowledge that they can make choices that counteract the adversity they have suffered’. Therefore, it is critical to their having a sense of purpose and future for their lives ahead.

**Peer support in community living.** Resilience is associated with having a generally positive peer relationship (Daniel et al., 2002). Peer support has proven its effectiveness towards fostering co-operative and pro-social behaviour amongst young people (Cowie & Wallace, 2000). Such social support could be achieved through self-advocacy activities. Research has proven that ‘self-advocacy enables people to demonstrate their self-determination in the face of the indignities of discrimination’ where resilience is built and observed in the life of young people with learning disabilities (Chappell et al., 2001).
According to Cowie and Wallance (2000), the maintenance of quality peer relationship will enhance ‘the sense of responsibility towards the community that the young person has’. As such in self advocacy activities, young people need to see a reason to commit themselves to helping their peers beyond the friendship developed. The indication of good peer support provides space for young people to speak and share, be it their stories or problems. It begins with the experience of being befriended (McVilly et al., 2006) in the process of feeling more positive about themselves (Cowie & Hutson, 2005). This fundamental concept underpins the availability of support and encouragement (Wehmeyer, 2007) where freedom and respect in the peer support system should be made available where practices of direct responses to requests for help would be used.

Consequently, the sense of collectiveness and community spirit (Baginsky, 2004) is created amongst the peer group and the impact of such peer support will soon be influential if it is well maintained and trusted by the members. Ideally, this social support would buffer the effects of adversity among the young people and nurture a sense of empathy (Daniel et al., 2002) which is associated with resilience, to build and instill in their life to reach out to their peers. This is described by Goodley (2005) as social self-advocacy where radical resilience is at play at a different facet within the self-advocacy movement.

However, for the sustainability of peer support, peer helpers skills and strategies for enabling users of the system to find solutions to their own problem need to be taught by providing training in a supportive environment where adult practitioners retain a supportive and supervisory role without imposing solutions (Cowie & Wallace, 2000). The process of monitoring and continued support needs to be evaluated and handled appropriately to avoid any further negative consequences against its advantages (Baginsky, 2004).

The role of social workers in pastoral care. The intervention from the social workers can make a huge difference, whether in constructing or destructing the young people
and to break the culture of silence (Gibson, 2006). De Pear (1997) confirms the importance of providing timely opportunities for young people to voice their anxieties, thus reducing subsequent difficulties. Reframing is suggested to be a good way to ‘reinterpret the learning disability experience in a more positive or productive manner’ (Gerber, Ginsberg & Reiff, 1992). From such process, the young adult is supported to identify their areas of strength as bases of resilience. As the nurturing process moves on toward adulthood, the challenge is to tap and redirect the inner energy to develop resilient strategies by allowing them to discover their world and build their reality through interactions with people.

The role of informal support needs to be recognised and effectively managed between social worker and families (Wodehouse & McGill, 2009). Such support includes understanding the family situation, respecting the parents for their knowledge regarding their child/young person (Prezant & Marshak, 2006), listening to them and working in equal partnership where the person’s past is linked and the future planning is supported holistically (Parley, 2001; Dee, 2006).

Periodic monitoring and progress evaluation are vital for the improvement of the partnership in pastoral care. According to Wong (2003), there will be a place for different strategies, especially when the young adult is engaged with different therapists to build his resiliency level. Hence, the challenge remains for the practitioners to interact and work out the plan for the good of the young people. The core principle remains in respecting the perspective and view of the young people and their context in a constructive manner underpinned by human rights perspective. With this position and analysis, it is easier for us to see the world more accurately through the eyes of the young people where every act of learning and deviance from social expectation is a personal engagement (Wearmouth et al., 2005).
**A supportive family for an inclusive community.** According to Davis (2007), young people aspire to have good relationships with adults, and they see their parents as role models (Wong, 2003) in guiding their future with structure, support and emotional stability at home. As commented by Cowie and Wallace (2000), ‘a warm, supportive emotional climate in the home is one that is more likely to produce adults who are co-operative and who adopt a problem-solving attitude towards conflict and distress’.

A proactive support could be built since they are young from within the family. As suggested by Hall (2010) in the constitution of well-being for people with learning disabilities, the nature of environment they live in is significant in shaping their self-confidence towards the feeling of belonging in enhancing their quality of life. According to Wong (2003), the presence of other social support such as a supportive adult or mentor from the community could be advantageous for encouraging and promoting self-esteem in the young people besides learning how to act responsibly in relation to one another. Parents can work together with significant other persons trusted by the young people to smoothen life transition points, especially from school to work, and from adolescent to adulthood. This enhances and compliments the love and care for the young people while enhancing resilience from the wider community circle besides the sole responsibility of the family (Wearmouth et al., 2005).

With social acceptance, the lasting pitfalls of stigma can be avoided and minimized. The implication and application of the social model should go hand-in-hand with the ecological model approach where the importance of collective action is emphasized to promote a socially aware, active and inclusive culture (Chappell et al., 2001). As recommended by Karlsson and Nilholm (2006), ‘efforts towards empowerment of disabled people need to be ethical, collective and interactional with the possibility of appreciating interdependence despite unavoidable dilemmas to happen’.
Moreover, it is high time for parents to understand and accept the changes of their roles as their child grows up. According to Ytterhus (2008), the parenting role changes from ‘doing’ towards ‘being’ when the young people are able to organise their life upon reaching adulthood. As the young people exhibit resilience in their life, parents too practice self-management with a balanced practical and emotional work in the context of a listening, respectful and inclusive attitude towards the young people (Daniel et al., 2002). On the other hand, ecologically speaking, forming parent support group would enable and empower these parents as a point to share learning experience together. To be more assertive and transformative, the voice of parents does carry the message for a more inclusive community to happen!

**Conclusion**

The influence of the community within which young people grow up cannot be underestimated. A person’s learning and behaviour are dynamic in an interactive relationship within the environment in which they occur (Wearmouth et al., 2005). There will be interlinked dilemmas affecting the development of practice in supporting the young person, hence conflicting opinion would need to be balanced to lead to an advancement of the practice for the person and the community.

In fact, it is difficult to draw a good conclusion for this paper. The task we engaged in goes on and changes. The argument revolves around a belief that discipline is much more than imposition of someone else’s order and life. The position of this paper focuses on a universal shift from locating the problem behaviour within the person to locating the behaviour within the interaction between the person and the context with resilience as the emphasis in ecological model approach.

The purpose and goal of life need to be redefined. Individuality and personal responsibility underpins resiliency in young people; trust and respect underpins a reciprocal
relationship within the micro-system of ecological model approach. Therefore, it is critical to highlight the universalistic of intervention and management which targets on the social processes that are responsible for the creation of issues in the life of the young people with learning disabilities. This simply means a greater effort needs to be expended on to develop on this long term change beyond behaviourism towards resiliency as well as having a good sense of reality in terms of the constraints of circumstances.

Everything in the universe passes away. Every good behaviour and bad behaviour has a reason, a reason stems directly from each person’s story. There is no point to be frustrated forever. If it is hot, it is going to cool off; if it is raining, it is going to dry up. A sense of tranquillity can be built if we remember that nothing is forever. To shift the paradigm needs our effort, to sustain the paradigm in a society that responds to social and political changes would require a ‘double’ effort from everyone at all level. In another word, resilience in young people with learning disabilities is possible to be ‘rebuilt’ from within to beyond with the appropriate support and guidance across his supporting system, and ecologically with the understanding and acceptance by the community. How well this paradigm is being sustained for the next generation may rest with the ability of its argument that reflects real results, over time, in real community settings.

‘Granting freedom is not a method, it’s a philosophy; and unless you really believe that students can be trusted with responsibility, you won’t be successful. Now, you can’t build that philosophy out of thin air; you have to build it out of experience.’

(C. Rogers, Personal Communication, 1984)
References


National Children’s Bureau (2007) Spotlight Briefing: Bullying and disability


Abstract

The leadership theories have been extensively discussed and applied in numerous studies. Teacher leadership for instance is a growing area but most of the studies or research conducted by scholars typically involved leaders within an organization such as school principal and not specifically on the teachers itself. The main purpose of this research is to determine which leadership styles affect and has the greatest influence on students’ achievement at school. Participants in the research included 100 respondents from school principals and teachers in secondary school in Jerantut District, Pahang. These participants were given structured questionnaires and formal interviews have been conducted with several school teachers. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X) was used to measure leadership styles practiced by these teachers. The completed questionnaires were statistically analyzed using SPSS Version 17. The findings obtained from the analysis exhibited that most of the respondents were female teachers between the ages of 41 to 45 years and have served for 9 years in educational fields. Both analysis used by researchers found that transactional leadership is very strongly correlated with students’ achievements and also has the greatest influence towards students’ achievements in Jerantut, Pahang. Besides, Cronbach Alpha for all variables chosen was good and acceptable. It means, all the items in a set were positively correlated with one another.

Introduction

What is a leader? What is the meaning of leadership? In order to understand the effects a school leader or principal has on student achievement, it is a necessary thing to understand exactly what leadership is. According to Ubben and Hughes (1992), in their study, they explained that leadership is the result of the way principals use themselves to create a school climate characterized by staff productivity, student productivity, and creative thought.
The leadership theories have been extensively discussed and applied in numerous studies. Nevertheless, very least research involves indirect leaders such as teachers. Principal is considered as school leaders in school, both primary and secondary but teachers have great influence on students as they have larger capacity in teaching, communicating and monitoring students in the classroom setting. Teacher leadership is a growing area but most of the studies or research conducted by scholars typically involved leaders within an organization such as school principal and not specifically on the teachers themselves (Reeves, 2009). The fact that school principal is the leader of a school is undeniable, but teachers lead classroom as well as students. Teacher is the class instructor that monitors a small group of students as their direct followers.

Since the topic of student achievement is at the forefront of educational discourse, it is surprising to know that very least studies on the effects of principal leadership on students’ achievement were covered by researchers. Therefore, this research is conducted with the purpose of studying both transactional and transformational leadership styles and to examine whether it gives impact on the students’ achievements.

**Objective of the Study**

There are two objectives aimed to be achieved in this study. The first objective is to determine whether leadership styles affect students’ achievement at school. Additionally, this study also aimed to identify which leadership style has the greatest influence on students’ achievement at school.

**Literature Review**

**School Leadership**

Patterson and Patterson (2004), defined teacher leaders as those who collaborate with colleagues with the intent of improving teaching and learning in both a formal and informal capacity. Formal teacher leaders are recognized as such by their building principal, whereas
informal teacher leaders are identified as such by their contemporaries because they are deemed to have “credibility, expertise, or relationship building skills.

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001), also described teacher leaders as those who are influential leaders both within and outside of the classroom, and actively connect with and participate “in a community of teacher learners and leaders, and influence others toward improved educational practice”. Barth (1990), also came out with different definition of teacher leaders in which the author considered teacher leaders as “owners and investors in the school, rather than mere tenants”. Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson, and Hann (2002) meanwhile have different view on teacher leadership. Their definition on teacher leadership is “about action that transforms teaching and learning in a school, and ties school and community together on behalf of learning, and that advances social sustainability and quality of life for a community”.

The issues pertaining leadership styles in school has always been debated by various scholars. Marks and Printy (2003) contended that a blend of both leadership models was the ideal to be applied in the school environment. However, few authors have different opinion on this matter. Koh, Steers, and Terborg (1995) for instance, emphasized that teachers and students held greater organizational commitment when they worked for a transformational principal. It means, they believe that transformational leadership works better than transactional leadership in school setting. Besides, Marks and Printy (2003) also found that transformational leadership positively influenced school performance, when measured by student achievement and quality of teacher instruction.

**Transactional Leadership**

Based on definition given by Bass and Avolio (2000), transactional leadership is defined as leadership that supports the status quo through mutual leader and follower self interests across three dimensions: contingent reward, active management-by-exception, and
passive management-by-exception. In addition, Judge and Piccolo (2004), have classified three dimensions associated with transactional leadership. The three dimensions are contingent reward, management by exception-active, and management by exception-passive. In addition, Bryant (2003) also identified three characteristics of transactional leaders.

First, they work with team members to determine unequivocal goals and make certain workers get promised rewards for achieving those goals. Second, they exchange rewards (and promises of rewards) for worker’s effort. Third, they respond to the immediate self-interests of followers if those interests can be met while the job is being done. Thus, transactional leadership involves specified exchanges of effort for reward and a close relationship between goals and rewards.

Transactional leadership occurs when a leader and follower meet for the purpose of exchanging things of value to each. Each is aware of the power, resources and attitude of the other and values the other as person, but the transaction is the essence of the relationship (Burns, 1978). According to Bass and Avolio (1997), Bass’s model of transformational and transactional leadership has a number of important implications for the current reform movement in education. They added that the transformational and transactional approach builds trust, respect, and a wish on the part of followers to work collectively toward the same desired future goals. It means the both models are needed in an organization to survive and remain competitive.

**Transformational Leadership**

Bass (1985) introduced the term transformational leadership by using the following terms: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Armstrong (2001) also summarized the characteristics of transformational leadership as follows: emphasizes ethical behaviour, develops leadership
among team members, shares a vision and goals, improves performance through charismatic leadership, leads by example, and uses encouragement and praise effectively.

Mendonca (2001) meanwhile stressed that transformational leaders influence, followers and drive organizational changes by promoting process values such as honesty, loyalty, and fairness, while emphasizing the end values of justice, equality, and human rights. Within the transformational influence process, leaders utilize authentic empowerment strategies coupled with expert and referent power to elicit key changes in followers’ core values and beliefs toward the organization and its goals. Later, Bass & Riggio (2006) described transformational leadership as a leader who stimulate and inspire followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their own leadership capacity. In addition, they also believe that transformational leadership can also reduce conflict by being sensitive to their subordinates needs. This individualized consideration could encourage their employees to respect and understand the position and needs of others and at times, overcome any rigid positions they may hold.

**Impacts of School Leadership towards School Achievement**

Based on Stolp and Smith (1995), a positive school culture is associated with higher student motivation and achievement, improved teacher collaboration and improved attitudes among teachers toward their jobs. Transformational leadership is seen to be sensitive to organisation building, developing shared vision, distributing leadership and building school culture necessary to current restructuring efforts in schools (Leithwood et al., 1999).

Leadership has been viewed in the classroom as a determination of the best-fit or best-style without considering personal relationships, structure of the learning task, teacher’s power, or other teaching situations (Fiedler 1967). Based on several studies on leadership areas have proved that leadership styles play an important role in determining students’ excellence. For instance, in a study conducted by Dawson, Messë, and Phillips (1972), they
found that supportive teacher behavior significantly enhanced student performance on examinations. This can be supported by Kinicki and Schriesheim (1978), in which they also determined that student performance correlated with teacher supportiveness and directiveness. These studies have indicated that certain roles of teachers and expressions of them in the classroom create positive outcomes for students.

Recently, the studies on teacher leadership styles and its impact on students’ involvement and performance have attracted many scholars and researchers to examine its relationship. Leithwood and Riehl (2003) in their studies for instance have found that, “Although leadership explains only about three to five percent of the variation in student learning across schools, this effect is actually nearly one quarter of the total effect of all school factors”. Based on series of study conducted by Leithwood, it is stated that leadership in the classroom began to be influenced by the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire theoretical approach to positive outcomes in the early 1990s. Leithwood believed that leadership in education was more effective when the transformational approach was implemented (Leithwood, 1992). Leithwood (1992a, 2001) also indicated that transformational leadership in administration stimulated the desire to work in activities outside the school, enhancing teacher effectiveness in the classroom.

**Methodology**

Descriptive research design is used for this study in order to identify the leadership styles practiced by school principals and teachers and its impact on students’ achievement.

**Data Collection**

Method of collecting data was based on both primary and secondary data. Secondary data include information made available by business and governance sources, published material and computerized data. Primary data was obtained through distribution of questionnaires to 100 respondents including school principals and school teachers in
secondary school in Jerantut, Pahang. It was selected randomly using non probability convenience sampling where all the respondents were from secondary school in Jerantut District. The survey was done from September 2012 to July 2012. The data was exported for further analysis using SPSS versions 17.

Questionnaires Development and Analysis

The survey method of obtaining information is based on structured questionnaire that was distributed to the respondents in English version. The questionnaire consists of 54 questions to be responded by school principals and teachers in secondary school in Jerantut, Pahang. It was formatted according to three separate sections. There are section for demographic profile, leadership and students’ achievements. Section A is designed to get information of each respondent. There are 6 questions that comprise of open-ended questions, and dichotomous questions. Section B explicated the respondent’s leadership styles either transformational or transactional leadership style. In this section, there are 32 questions on leadership styles that were adopted from Bass (1997) using likert scale. Finally, Section C of the questionnaire consists of students’ involvement and achievement at school. There are 16 questions in section C that needs to be responded using likert scale. Likert scale is used in order to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement with the series of statement or item.

Frequency distribution is used to examine the demographic profile of the respondents and to summarize respondents’ responses on the variables investigated. Besides, another technique used to analyze the data is by using Correlation. It looks at the relationship between two variables in a linear fashion. A Pearson-Product Moment Correlation Coefficient describes the relationship between two leadership styles and students’ achievements. Besides, reliability analysis is assessed by determining the proportion of systematic variation in a scale. The association between scores obtained from different
administrations of the scale have been determined using this analysis. Regression analysis is also used to analyze relationships among variables (dependent and independent variables).

Results and Discussion

Demographic Profile

From the table, it shows that the majority of the respondents’ ages were from 41 to 45 years which represented 20 percent from the 100 respondents and followed by the respondents from the age of 26 to 30 years with the percentage of 19 percent from the entire respondents. Only 9 percent of the respondents’ ages 20 to 25 years. The greatest number of respondents in the sample was female with the percentage of 72 percent and the remaining 28 percent were male. Besides that, in terms of marital status, it shows that the majority of respondents were married with the percentage of 77 percent and the remaining 23 percent were single. It was found that both of the job grades, DG 44 and DG 41 have similar percentage representing 44 percent from the entire respondents, and followed by DG 48 with the percentage of 12 percent.

Table 1: Demographic Information on Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>20-25yrs</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26-30yrs</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-35yrs</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36-40yrs</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-45 yrs</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 45 yrs</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest qualification</td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>DG 54</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of duration of services, majority of the respondents have spent more than 9 years in teaching, representing 54 percent from the entire respondents and followed by 22 percent of the respondents spent 3 to 6 years in teaching. Only 14 percent of the respondents spent less than 3 years and the remaining 10 percent had spent 7 to 9 years. Lastly, it can be indicated that 95 percent of the respondents had bachelor’s degrees followed by 5 percent of the respondents who had master’s degrees.

**Cronbach’s Alpha**

According to the following Table 2, the results of Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the transformational leadership (IVB1), transactional leadership (IVB2), and students’ achievement (DVC) were considered as acceptable and within a good range. This results indicated that the items in a set are well positively correlated to one another. The result of Cronbach’s Alpha for the first independent variables, Transactional Leadership (IVB1) which consists of 20 questions are 0.707. According to Uma Sekaran (2003), 0.707 is the range between 0.61 to 0.79 which is considered as acceptable range. Therefore, the questions regarding the transformational leadership are up to standard and reliable. Reliability test result for the second independent variables, Transformational Leadership (IVB2) which consist of 12 questions is 0.675. According to the Alpha Coefficient Range or Cronbach’s Alpha, 0.675 is indicated as acceptable range. It shows that the reliability coefficient in this
research is positively correlated to one another and the questions asked were relevant to be used for further research. Lastly, reliability test result obtained from dependent variable, Students’ Achievement (DVC) is 0.834. According to Uma Sekaran, it can be considered as good range when Cronbach’s Alpha 0.834 is between 0.80 to 1.00 range. Thus the researcher concludes that all the questions and the data used in this research were reliable and relevant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Reliability Coefficient</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership</td>
<td>0.707</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
<td>0.664</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ Achievement</td>
<td>0.834</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pearson Correlation Analysis**

Table 3: Correlation Coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Transactional (IVB1)</th>
<th>Transformational (IVB2)</th>
<th>Students’ Achievement (DVC)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transactional (IVB1)</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.414(**)</td>
<td>.930(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational (IVB2)</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>433(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ Achievement</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.930(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the summarized table above, it shows that transactional leadership is very strongly correlated with students’ achievement. The result shows the correlation between
both variables (independent and dependent variable) is $r = 0.930$. Since it has very strong relationship, transactional leadership can be considered as an important variable and very significant towards students’ achievement. Based on the Davies’s theory, transformational leadership is also positively correlated with students’ achievement. The result shows the correlation between both variables (independent and dependent variable) is $r = 0.433$ and this is categorized as positive and moderate correlation. Nevertheless, transactional leadership has greater influence on Students’ Achievement because the outcome of correlation coefficient is near to 1.0, which is at 0.930.

**Regression Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients Beta</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>0.670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>0.455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: $R^2 = .644$, ***$p < .001$*

In this study, the $R^2 = 0.644$. It means, 64.4% of the changes in the Students’ Achievement can be explained by Transactional and Transformational Leadership chosen. The remainder 35.6% cannot be explained due to omission of some other variables. For the Standardized Coefficients Beta, it shows that Transactional and Transformational Leadership have positive linear relationship to Students’ Achievement ($\text{beta}=0.670$, 0.455). However, transactional leadership exhibits higher relationship towards students’ achievement.

**Conclusion**

Overall findings in this study show that both leadership styles have influence on students’ achievements in Pahang. This outcome is the result of correlation and regression analysis conducted by the researchers. The result shows that both leadership styles have positively significant relationship with students’ achievements in Pahang. However, it was
found that transactional leadership has greatest influence on students’ achievement than transformational leadership. According to Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) and Carless (1998), they stated that the leadership styles of men and women differ significantly in that female managers are reported to lead in a transformational style, whereas male managers are believed to display a more transactional style. However, in this research, even though 72% respondents were female, the results shows the contradiction with former researchers. This is because both correlation and regression analysis show that transactional leadership have positively significant relationship with students’ achievement and also give greatest influence on the dependent variable. In conclusion, secondary school needs effective leaders that have both transformational leadership and transactional leadership styles in order to sustain academic excellence and students’ performance in the school settings

**Recommendation**

The results of analysis using SPSS show that not only transformational leadership styles should be practiced but also transactional styles. However, a teacher should understand when to practice both styles and the necessary actions to deal with when they face different problems and situations. For instance, students should be given more opportunity to compete healthily. It means, those weak students should be given equal opportunity to speak up and they should be treated the same. By doing this, they will feel more comfortable and will increase their confidence level. Not only that, the problematic students should be asked to see the teacher personally to know their problems. By these, they will feel more secured. The teacher can make use the opportunity to know what the problem is during dialogue session. Lastly, even it is proven that transactional leadership is most practiced by secondary school teachers, there is still a need of more transformational leaders as to create a great relationship between students and other stakeholders. Since this study is focused on the leadership styles
of secondary teachers, it is recommended to the future researchers to study on the other factors that will contribute towards student’s achievement in school.

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STORY TELLING – A SOCIAL PERSPECTIVE OF HEALING AND SOOTHING

TECHNIQUE FOR SICK CHILDREN

K H Anilkumar, Kamini Dhruva and K Pushpalatha

Abstract

The process replicates the commonly used traditional approach to resolving problems or meeting challenges that are encountered in life, and will help prepare sick children to have better control over the situation by improving their understanding and confidence level. It is a holistic process of healing and soothing the pain of those sick children, who have no such knowledge and exposure at that young age to determine the reason for such suffering. A story telling technique, if used effectively can enhance the understanding of the situation and bring a cheer of smile and life back to such young minds. Today, the story telling has gone modern with the use of technology, such as videos, sound and music to give a better effect to the understanding.

Introduction

With modern life style the story telling has become a forgotten art. When we were kids, we used to listen to the bedtime stories by parents and grandparents, but today, it is an unheard story for our children. Studies have shown remarkable understanding and improvement in the health status of children with chronic illness by listening to appropriate stories.

The serious or chronic health condition can be traumatic, stressful, physically and emotionally painful for a patient either child or adolescent. The kids with diabetes, leukemia, asthma, etc face myriad of challenges as they are not old enough to manage the stress and also manage their own illness. The kids with theses serious/chronic illness has to be hospitalized repeatedly for the treatment and subject to painful treatments and tests.

Hospitals can be a frightening place, even for adults. For children, anxiety of unknown environments can greatly intensify fear. When children think of hospitals, they can
be overwhelmed by thoughts of needles, unfamiliar noises and smells, strangers, and feeling “sick” in a place that just isn’t home.

The first and the foremost of anything before treatment is make these little angels understand their health condition through their simple language. Use of cartoon characters like the initiative taken by Starbright with the help of “Explorer Series”, which allows children to learn about their conditions and prospective medical procedures in an entertaining and engaging manner.

Also, if they are connected through the community network to understand from some other child undergoing or has undergone the same problem before, to hear from them and get their questions answered by the similar patient community. Imagine a child in an isolation ward wondering around “why it happened to me”. Use of videos with teens talking candidly about issues facing the chronically ill, and offers coping strategies for challenges such as returning to school after protracted absence. Fairy tales can teach lessons to them to understand their own destiny and fate.

Types of Stories

Learn what kind of story to tell for different situations. There are six main types of story that we can use in the workplace:

"Who I Am" Stories – Which gives powerful insight into what really motivates the child. This can break down walls and help the sick child realize that they are human therefore their bound to be some flaw. For example, we can show them a child with similar sickness coming out perfect at the end of the treatment.

"Why I'm Here" Stories – Here the goal is to replace suspicion with trust, and help the sick child realize that you are in place where the child and the doctor work towards a treatment for making them more strong and healthy. For example, in case of treatment or diagnosis the child has to stay in the hospital and its cooperation is a motivation to cure.
Teaching Stories – Can help only in learning things better and help them manage the challenges. For example, the stories of child managing the sickness through their own selves and growing as successful teenagers, and adults.

Vision Stories – Tell these to inspire hope, especially when the child requires needs occasional treatment of why they're doing what they should be doing. Vision Stories are meant to stimulate action and raise morale. For example, a story that reminds everyone what the ultimate goal is, and why it's important that everyone reaches that goal. This type of story should be told from your heart, with emotion. This can also achieved through the community connect methods to understand from other sick child.

"I Know What You're Thinking" Stories – This helps to recognize another child treatment, and then show respect for the other point of view while convincing the child that you're right. For example, video demonstration or video talk of the child who is also suffering from a disease.

Some Examples

**HGS Dhaliwal – Indian Police Services**

Uday Foundation’s unique storytelling session with the presence of the DCP, South Delhi Police, HGS Dhaliwal in a new avatar of storyteller at the pediatric ward of Escorts Hospital in the National Capital was a plunge in two-fold directions. One the objective was to provide some relief to the kids during their hospitalization who otherwise most of the times experience anxiety, loneliness and develop fear.
**Sanjay Dutt**

Sanjay Dutt, a kid at heart, Son of Late Sunil and Nargis Dutt, widely regarded as the greatest actors and social workers of India. Sanjay Dutt not only unconditionally supported Uday Foundation’s Rare Blood Group Awareness Campaign but also continue to be part of all our little happiness.

**Jaideep Sahni**

Jaideep Sahni, one of the best storytellers of our times, Jaideep wrote for popular hindi movies like Chak De India, Rocket Singh Sales Man of the Year, Bunty aur Babli etc. Jaideep happily became part of Uday Foundation Storytelling Program for the Kids in the Hospital.
How to Deliver The Stories

✓ The stories need to bring in experience of storytellers talk from their hearts, so don't try to fake an emotion that they feel uninteresting.

✓ Pay attention to type of sickness as stories that are too long are generally boring. Tell the story well to connect to type of illness.

✓ The stories should bring in change as the objective is to instill positive attitude and motivators for better response to treatment and cooperation.

✓ A child telling story of its own is more powerful than anything as it connects through their language.

✓ A story told by their heroes and interesting characters such as cartoon, lots of digital stories carries powerful messages than dry and uninteresting characters.

✓ Stories with sense of music, feel and enigma can bring more life into their boring and confused world of question marks.

Conclusion

Storytelling and the human voice can provide an essential link to our humanity in the modern medical environments that both save and help each other. In the use of stories, rhymes, and songs, or the experts/parents/grand-parents involvement in story telling in this piece bring the language of the imagination into the clinical setting of the hospital and balance scientific knowledge with the truth, beauty, and wisdom of sharing and caring.
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SOCIAL SUPPORT SYSTEM AMONG JUVENILE DELINQUENCY:
A CASE STUDY IN ONE DETENTION SCHOOL IN PENANG MALAYSIA

Kumarashwaran Vadevelu and Paramjit Singh Jamir Singh

Abstract

Some adolescents today are involved in criminal activities that affect not only themselves, but also family, community and country in long-term. Recently, the number of incidence of juvenile delinquency such as drug use, abandoned babies and gangsterism has arisen. This research identifies the extent of social support systems that affect adolescent involvement in crime at one detention school in Malaysia. The social support system includes the client’s micro, mezzo and macro context. A total of eight respondents were interviewed in this qualitative research. This research is important for practice of social work in the context of juvenile rehabilitation in order to see their social support system in their daily lives. Through these efforts we can prevent recidivism after going through the recovery process. Social work practice should also be creative and innovative in creating various types of rehabilitation programs by using a variety of theories, models and practice of social work that the juvenile rehabilitation process can carry out systematically and effectively. At the same time, this research can also provide awareness to our society especially once the parents can fully focus on the development of the youth so that they do not fall in the crime. This research can provide an importance of awareness in all levels of society so that they can play a role in prevent the young generation involve in criminal activities in the future.

Introduction

This research explained about juvenile’s social support system among juvenile delinquency in Tunas Bakti Telok Air Tawar school, penang, Malaysia. The School of Tunas Bakti Telok Air Tawar is a juvenile correctional institution which is managed by Social Welfare Department of Malaysia which is under Ministry of Women, Family and Welfare Development of Malaysia.

In recent years, the incidence of juvenile delinquency, such as murder, drugs, prostitute, abandoned babies and gangsterism have taken place in our country. In general,
factors associated with the phenomenon of adolescent delinquency are based on three aspects which are sociology, psychology and biological (Fadila & Zabri, 2001). The incidence of crime among teenagers is one of the social ills in our society. Adolescence period is often considered the most beautiful moment in human life. At this stage, the teens went through the variety of changes in himself either physically or mentally. This condition makes them unstable, anxious, restlessness and unable to control their emotions (Hasnah & Rahman, 1995).

A fact which must be agreed by all members of the community is that teenagers are now more willing to act if compared to youth violence in former times. Teenagers in now not only involved in regular fights during the school environment, even willing to take drastic measures in order to achieve victory events leading to murder (Surahaya, 2006). Teenagers are now more involved in criminal activities not only unfavorable effects to themselves, but also to the family, community and nation in the long term run. This is because teenagers are the future leaders of the successor state figures available on this time. Among the crimes that typically involve a large number of adolescents in Malaysia are criminal extortion, 'Black Metal', criminal drugs, crime, theft, sex crimes, theft crimes, bullying and gangsterism (Surahaya, 2006).

According to Fadila and Zakaria (2001), most adolescents problematic in moral misconduct usually have a poor disciplinary record while they were in school again. This condition describes delinquency bad behaviour in high school students since they likely to involve in moral activities when they’re outside the school environment or when they enter the stage of adulthood. Youth crime has become one of the problems that attracted among the leaders, members of the scholars, the press and parents. Mass media reported that many teenagers are arrested because involve during drug addicts clean up operations, student arrested with a group of gangsters, fighting, robbery and other crimes.
Research Objectives

In this research, there are a number of objectives have been achieved by researchers. One of the objectives of this research was to observe the relationship between respondent’s social support system with their behaviour towards commitment in crime. Results from this study found that all eight respondents committed in crime due of their social dysfunction in their social support system. Besides that, one of the objective in this research are look into what kind of social support obtained by the respondents in their lives. In this study clearly indicate that the respondents are not getting the love of both their parents and the local community about providing moral support in developing their self in everyday life. In the same time the objectives of this research are bring awareness to the community about their social support roles toward juvenile as a method to prevent juvenile involved in crime the future. Results of this study can make as a guide to the local community so that they can play a major role in giving moral support to their children in order not to get involved in crime which can affect their future.

The Importance of Research

This research is important to our society which will encourage every parent to spent more time listing and understanding with their children problems so that these children can received love and caring from their parents. In this way parents can prevent their children from being involved with all kinds of activities due to criminal involvement. Parents should not pursue with materialistic world only and shouldn’t forgotten their responsibility in guiding and educating their children towards succeed in their life in the future.

In addition, the finding of this research hopes not only parent play the role and being responsible of educating young people towards positive attitude but all Malaysians including government, schools, etc also must play their role in shaping the character of young people youth towards positive personality.
Methodology

In this research, respondents in the study population were made up of residents in the School of Tunas Bakti Telok Air Tawar Butterworth. This school was selected in this research because this school is a juvenile correctional institution who commits crimes. By the population at this school is appropriate to take as appropriate to the focus of this research. While the samples taken in this research are a total of eight respondents from the total population in the Tunas Bakti School Butterworth, Penang, which consist of 60 people. Selection of eight respondents in this research is based on purposive sampling or purposive sampling where it meets the focus of this study. The sample of eight respondents because the respondents are sent to the school of Tunas Bakti Telok Air Tawar Butterworth, Penang for committing this crime and to meet the focus of this research.

The instruments have been used is a qualitative method in this research, namely by means of in-depth interviews (in-depth interview) to obtain information with more of the youths involved in crime. This study was conducted using a case study. A case study is a study to examine and explain a small group in depth. observation of not participating (non participant observation) are also used in this research in psycho-social study of teenagers involved in crime and their perception of the rehabilitation programs available in these institutions in the recovery process behaviour towards residents positive.

Results

Social Support System Among Juvenile Delinquency

The social aspect may also influence a minor involved in a crime. However, the researchers found that most of the respondents were involved in crime as influenced by their friends. For example, the seventh and sixth respondents admitted that he was involved with the crime committed, as influenced by their friends. This clearly showed that even friends can a person involved in a crime.
In addition, there are also some of the respondents admitted that they were involved in crime because of attitude yourself. For example, respondents were second, fourth and sixth admit that they committed the crime because on its own stand. For example, the first respondent admitted that he sucks the glue because he wanted to tease the feeling inhalant of glue. This clearly shows that the factor itself may also have contributed to the youth's involvement in a crime.

In this research, the researchers found that the pattern of social interaction in the social system of micro, mezzo and macro levels of the respondents did not contribute to the enhancement of self-confidence among respondents. Most of the respondents did not like to discuss the problems faced by families, especially with their father. For example, the fifth respondent stated that his father did not care about the problems faced by the respondents. This clearly proves that there exists a number of parents were not aware of their child's problems. If parents do not take the time and listen to the concerns of their children, the children are likely to be friends with friends who commit crimes.

Meanwhile, the researchers found that the local community such as the village or in a residential area not a problem so take care residents. At the same time, local communities are also not as an encouragement to the respondents to increase their self. For example, the fourth respondent stated that the village often insulted him and always with every fourth respondent accused of theft occurring in the village. Negative stigma factor is also one of the factors that can contribute to crime among teenagers.

**Social Work Intervention**

Meanwhile, researchers in this suggests that the management of Tunas Bakti Telok Air Tawar school, will require each family member to the inmates in this institution to make a family visit to this institution. Family visits to the institution by every parent to be denizens of mandatory family visits twice a month. Each family visits must be supervised by a
counselor or a social worker with the ability to be able to carry on the family counseling at the same time to discuss problems faced by each family. This issue has to be taken seriously because there are still some family members of residents in this institution have never visited the family on their next of kin. This directly act ignores the social welfare of their children who are in these institutions the government should enact the Children Act 2003 which is available for families that do not penalize their heirs to visit these institutions.

At the same time hopefully Malaysia ministry of education provides the social worker positions in every primary and secondary schools so that social workers can make home visits to each of the students with disciplinary problems at school. Through this approach, social workers together with the parents to discuss the problems that exist in the home environment so that the crime in kalingan school students. This is allowing them to prevent the youth from engaging in criminal activity that could be detrimental to their future.

The government together with the private sector and NGOs must work together in order to create more seminars, workshops, lectures and exhibitions about the importance of local communities in providing social support to young people in developing their capabilities towards the direction of excellence in academics, sports and human capital as efforts to prevent young people involved in any form of activity that does not benefit them in the future. Social support system is very important to the youth so that they can improve their social functioning to achieve well-being in their lives.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is hoped through this research, the Malaysia's social policies makers can make this research as a guide in outlining or implement a rehabilitation program for youths involved in crime. At the same time and hopefully this research will also benefit the school management and Penang Welfare Department in using this research to improve
existing rehabilitation programs in these institutions. In addition, it is hoped through this research, the people of Malaysia be aware of the importance they play an important role, especially spending time with their children or less able to prevent their children's involvement in crime. Finally, researchers hope this research can serve as important reference material for dealing with negative behavior such as criminal involvement among adolescents in Malaysia.

**References**


PSYCHOSOCIAL CHALLENGES FACED BY MALAYSIA’S TRANSGENDER

Kumarashwaran Vadevelu

Abstract

In Malaysia, one of the issues transgender population face is the lack of acceptance by the society because of religious, ethnic, belief, cultural and legislative reasons. According to the Ministry of Health, transgender population in this country face stigma and receive discriminatory treatment especially in the healthcare settings due to lack of understanding especially in terms of their gender transition process. In addition, this stigma results in unfortunate events such as difficulties in employment, sexual harassment, and not getting proper health care which affect their social-functioning. The aim of this paper is to increase the understanding of psychosocial challenges faced by this population in this country. This discussion on the stigma and discrimination experienced by this group focused on their social support system at the micro, mezzo and macro levels. Both primary and secondary data from various sources such as research findings, books, and personal communication with transgender community in Malaysia were used to analyze the issue. Understanding and having the knowledge on the psychosocial issues faced by transgender population will provide social workers with more effective social work intervention.

Introduction

Transgender is a term used to describe gender identity, sexual expression or gender differences from behavior of the original birth gender. Transgender individuals are people whose self-identification as male, female, both, or neither (gender identity) does not match their assigned gender (identification by others as male or female based on natal sex) (Teh, 1998). The identity and behavior of transgender individuals are socially and medically stigmatized, resulting in a notably underserved population at high risk for significant morbidity and mortality. One of the main health issues in this population is the rising rates of Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) infections, leading to the dreaded Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS). In Malaysia, this a major concern as transgenders or mak nyah (the Malay calling name) are generally labelled as sexual deviants and shunned by
society. This primarily causes decent employment to be illusive to many of them. Subsequently, a high majority of them turn to the sex trade as a major employment option. Even though many would deny regarding themselves as hard-core sex workers but studies have revealed that a huge majority of transgenders utilize sex as primary mode of income generation (Teh, 2002). This scenario has been recognized by the government as an important element in the explosion of HIV rates in Malaysia and HIV preventive practices have been sought after in this particular population. The paper proceeds as follows with Section II describing the transgenders as a particular high risk population for the spread of HIV. Section III will then explore the psychosocial barriers that exist in implementing HIV prevention programs and Section V will conclude the paper with recommendations.

**Transgender as a HIV High-Risk Population in Malaysia**

In 2005, Malaysia’s Country Progress Report submitted to UNAIDS reported that the number of cases detected had increased at about 500 - 600 cases per month in recent years (UN Country Team, 2005). In 2007, the Ministry of Health (MOH) of Malaysia announced the existence of around 80,000 HIV cases in Malaysia. This caused a grave concern for the country as the rates have been increasing indefinitely. A careful review of patient profile reveals that HIV is spreading from a concentrated set of individual characteristics (middle aged heterosexual males) to a wider demographics involving women, children and vulnerable minorities. The vulnerable minorities in this case referred to are transgenders or *mak nyahs* (the Malaysian street name for transgenders) who are prominent players of the sex industry in Malaysia, well capable of being effective carriers of HIV. *Mak nyahs*, in general, are not well accepted in the Malaysian society as they are seen as sexual deviants. With Islam being the national religion of the country, *mak nyahs* seem to be in direct violation of the Muslim doctrine. Islam forbids males to behave like females in respect of cross-dressing, wearing make-up, injecting hormones to enlarge their breasts, and undergoing sex change
operations. This invariably paints a very bleak picture of the mak nyahs in the eyes of the public (Teh, 2008). Subsequently, this lack of social acceptance leads to high levels of unemployment among the mak nyahs. Naturally, the mak nyahs turn to the sex trade as the most lucrative and welcoming field of work for them. Prostitution is illegal in Malaysia and prostitutes charge high due to the risks taken in the business. Mak nyahs counter the business by offering low rates and willingness to explore various different sexual styles to a variety of customers, including migrant workers, blue and white collar individuals. The HIV transmission among mak nyahs are quite varied with both sexual intercourse and drug abuse in play here. Apart from normal sexual intercourse, mak nyahs who do not undergo sex change operations have an increased chance of HIV transmission as their primary mode of sexual intercourse would be anal. This is due to thin lining of the rectum, allowing the virus to enter the body more easily during intercourse. This risk is amplified many folds if the mak nyahs have a tendency to participate in sexual intercourse without condoms. A study by Teh 2002 revealed that of the 71% mak nyah who were knowledgeable about HIV/AIDS, only 10% practised safe sex. Another important characteristics of the mak nyah that make them high risk population for HIV infections are the use of drugs in the trade. Its a well-known fact that prostitutes utilize drugs as a form of stimulant in their business activities. Drugs such as amphetamines, are very crucial friends of the sex workers. This subsequently leads to needle-sharing among them. This scenario is no different in the mak nyahs of Malaysia, where a majority utilize drugs for many reasons ranging from hormones, losing weight and so on. Unsurprisingly, the mak nyahs also commonly share needles and their drug supplies (Teh., 1998). This is also a major HIV transmission pathway. Thus, mak nyahs are vulnerable populations who are at high risk of both contracting HIV and spreading it.
Pscyhosocial Barriers to HIV Prevention Practices aimed at Mak Nyahs

The government of Malaysia have been working hard to implement HIV preventive practices in the general population. National Strategy for HIV has been initiated with wide ranges of information, education and communication activities being conducted nationwide to create awareness among the public. In fact, basic information on HIV/AIDS is now part of the secondary school curriculum. In terms of the mak nyahs, certain programs have been tailored to their needs by the government. Among them were media health education and group seminars. Posters and advertisements emphasizing the importance of safe sex and risk factors of HIV have been made available in public places and the national media. MOH conducted seminars and talks of the dangers of HIV and the steps that need to be taken to ensure the transmission is stopped. Furthermore MOH has given financial and expertise assistance to non-governemental organizations(NGO’s) to get involved in spreading the message on HIV prevention. The umbrella of this NGO coalition is the Malaysian Aids Council and they have initiated many outreach programs, facilities (support groups, drop-in centres and shelters) and HIV prevention activities (peer educators workshops and sharing sessions by HIV-positive individuals). Despite these programmes, preventive behaviour remains poor. By the end of 2011, Malaysia had a cumulative figure of 94,841 HIV, 17,686 AIDS and 14,986 deaths. The Country Progress Report 2010-2011 on AIDS revealed that mak nyahs are still one of the most prominent high risk population (Global AIDS Progress Report, 2012). Condom use is also not common or consistent during sexual activities among mak nyahs in Malaysia leading to a need to address the barriers that obstructing the governments initiatives.

Among the barriers outlined, pscyhosocial factors represent a formidable challenge to HIV prevention practices among the mak nyahs. Psychosocial factors refers to key elements in the social environmental that influence an individual’s action and reaction. For the purpose
of this discussion, 2 main psychosocial factors need to examined in the *mak nyah* context which are societal stigmatization and familial support. Stigma and discrimination continues to present themselves as obstacles to the progress and implementation of HIV prevention, treatment, care and support programmes. These stigmatization occurs in various degrees in the *mak nyah* population who are involved in the sex trade. The first stigmatization is by customer and co-workers. A HIV positive *mak nyah* who is already stigmatized for social identity will be further exposed to severe stigmatization and alienation if she were to insist on safe sex. Clients will be unhappy with her and relationships with boyfriends will be at peril. *Mak nyah* will also be very wary of going to HIV screening programs for fear of co-workers exploiting these issues and forcing them to be further stigmatized. One study showed that respondents mentioned that HIV status could be used by a *mak nyah* sex worker against another *mak nyah* sex worker by revealing to everyone so that she would never get any clients (Teh, 2008). The next stage of stigmatization occurs at health care facilities. In Malaysia, the public healthcare system, comprising of government hospitals, is an affordable avenue for all parts of the community. It is easily accessible and have been acknowledged by the *mak nyahs* as the first point of care for their medical needs. Unfortunately, there seems to be a degree of stigmatization when cross-dressing *mak nyahs* visit these facilities and this further worsens when their HIV status is positive. Studies have revealed *mak nyahs* not getting assistance from nurses, medical asistants and even certain practitioners when it comes to healthcare (Teh., 2008). This severely erodes their belief in the healthcare system and forces the *mak nyahs* to view HIV care and prevention programs as a pretentious event rather than a life saving element. The third degree of stigmatization occurs with the community. Participation of transgenders in seminars and group sessions are limited by their view of the community. *Mak nyahs* have revealed that to go for support groups that consist of normal HIV patients is rather intimidating as they are perceived in lowly manner. Studies have
found that as a result of discrimination, many transgenders delayed contact with the health care system until illnesses forced them to obtain care (Schilder et al., 1998). This could be a major barrier in terms of HIV prevention among mak nyahs in Malaysia.

Another important psychosocial factor undermining the inability to have effective HIV prevention programs among mak nyah group is the lack of familial support. Due to the conservative nature of the country, parents of mak nyah normally are unable to accept the sexual identity crisis of their children. Over generations, religion and culture has cast invisible restrictions over acceptance of transgenders by the parents and immediate family. This can evidently seen with the latest event being Malaysian parents are warned by religious and government authorities to constantly monitoring their children for ‘symptoms’ of transgenderhood. With such an approach by the community and family, the mak nyahs do not do not have the pushing factor to comply with HIV prevention programs, rendering it ineffective.

**The Social Work Practice with Transgender**

Ethical principles of social work is a guide to social work professional so that social workers can be guided by the ethical principles of social work during the process help to clients. If a social worker in accordance with the ethical principles of social work intervention process can be smoothly guided the clients to solved their problems by looking at the strengths and weaknesses of the client itself (DuBois & Miley, 2010).

At the same time, the policy on HIV / AIDS as advocated by the International Federation of Social Workers stated that explained that there must exist a respectful attitude towards people living with HIV / AIDS and the need to give full moral support to professional bodies that carry out program continued advocacy for policies eliminate anti-discrimination framework to communities affected by HIV / AIDS (IFSW, 2006).
Social work ethical principles appropriate to social work professional when offering social work services to transgender people in Malaysia, because the social work professional accept the uniqueness of clients of diverse backgrounds, ethnicity, religion, age, gender and so on. Social workers have the skills in cultural awareness and cultural competence, in which social work practice observe the various individual uniqueness in terms of culture, language, class, ethnicity, ability, religion, sexual orientation, and other features found in individual (NASW, 2001).

Here is the ethical principles of social work in relation to social work practice when dealing with transgender people facing with the issues of HIV/AIDS in our country especially in Malaysia.

1. Giving Services

The main goal of social workers is to help people in need and address social problems in a society. A social worker to apply knowledge, values, and skills to help people who need help in their lives (Hepworth, Rooney & Larsen, 2002). In such a scenario the problems faced by transgender people in Malaysia, a social worker must provide social work services in order to assist and guide the transgender in an effort to solve their problems. In providing social work services such as intervention, counselling, advocacy and so, social workers must use three main components in the component of social work practice knowledge, values and skills during the process of aid given to the transgender so that the services provided can truly empower this in solving problems and indirectly this group can achieve prosperity in their lives.

2. Social Justice

Social workers should bring a social change in an effort to help individuals who do not achieve social and community empowerment functionality that often repressed by unscrupulous individuals. Issues that often championed by social workers, such as poverty,
unemployment, discrimination, political and other forms of social injustice. Social workers should ensure that all members in the community have access to information resources, services, and have equality of opportunity and participation in decision making in their daily lives without any discrimination (DuBois & Miley, 2010).

Transgender people cannot get away with the issue of stigma and discrimination in their lives. The consequences of non-acceptance on the personality of the place are those brought by transgender people in our country, so sometimes these people do not have access to health services in some hospitals as a result of HIV status and personality conveyed by them (Tomaszewski, 2004).

Thus, a social worker especially medical social workers should bring a change to this marginal group that trademark rights can be pursued in order to access to information resources, services, medicine and have equality of opportunity and participation in decision making in their daily lives without any discrimination.

3. Respect for Dignity and Self-Esteem Individuals

In granting a form of intervention is best for the community, the social worker should respect the dignity and worth of each complete individual without making any discrimination and favouritism. Social workers should provide any form of assistance to every individual without any difference in terms of ethnicity, religion, culture, identity, gender and so on. Social workers should stick to the values, principles and ethics of social work professional in order to meet the requirements of the client needs to respect the dignity and self-esteem of a client's own (NASW, 2001).

Similarly, in the transgender situation in our country, social workers should provide assistance without distinguishing ethnicity, religion, culture, identity, gender and the like brought by transgender people. Transgender people is also a human being and part of our
society and social worker should receive any identity that brought them without compromising the dignity and worth of this transgender.

4. Importance of Humanitarian Relations

Social workers should establish a social relationship in order to understand the life of the community who have different kinds of problems in their daily lives. Social workers should convince and gain the trust of the client in order to allow the social worker the process help in guiding them to solve the problems. Therefore, social workers should seek to strengthen relationships among people in an effort designed to promote, restore, maintain, and enhance the well-being of individuals, families, social groups, organizations, and society (DuBois & Miley, 2010).

Social workers also should develop good social relationships with transgender people in our country as one of the efforts to understand the problems faced by these marginal groups. Social workers also have to build a good rapport relationship with these people so that the information elicited easily run to help the peace process to them. Information about high-risk behaviours towards HIV transmission is very important that social workers can empower these people with knowledge of HIV / AIDS prevention is one of the virus in the transgender community in Malaysia.

5. Honesty and Integration

Social workers are always considering the purpose, mission, values and ethical principles, and practice of social work practice in the course of helping a community or individual. Social workers should be honest. Responsible course of their work toward helping clients solve the problems faced by them (Hepworth, Rooney & Larsen, 2002).

The same applies to the scenario when social workers want to help the transgender, in which social workers should stick to social work practice in order to really help the client without any bad intention on this marginal group. Social workers can’t use their own values...
bias against these groups who really need the help of knowledge of HIV / AIDS prevention program of HIV / AIDS and others in an effort to prevent the spread of HIV in this community.

6. Competence

Social workers must constantly improve their knowledge and skills professional social work in the field of their competence so that social work services can be provided to the client so that the client can effectively obtain this help in solving the problems faced by them. Social workers should also be efficient in collaboration using available resources that can help you with a comprehensive client. Social workers should collaboration with agencies that have their own expertise in assisting clients who have a problem that can’t be solved by social workers as outside expertise is social worker (Hepworth, Rooney & Larsen, 2002).

When discussing the issue of transgender people on issues related to HIV / AIDS in Malaysia, the social worker should have a broad knowledge of the life of a transgender patterns especially when the marginal are faced with the issues of HIV / AIDS. Medical social workers should actively seek the views of the medical officer of health status of clients to medical social workers can provide an effective intervention for transgender people in solving their problems as a whole.

Conclusions

HIV rates are rising at alarming rates among the transgenders in Malaysia. This a grave concern as transgenders are compelled by societal factors to use the sex industry as one of their primary base of income. Thus, transgenders are a both high risk population for infection and spread of HIV. National strategies on battling this phenomenon among the transgenders have been less than successful. A major reason for this scenario is due to pscyhosocial factors such as discrimination and lack of familial support towards the transgenders. HIV prevention should start by targetting the attitudes of healthcare workforce
and families to accept transgenders as an individual. Without addressing psychosocial factors, it is impossible to expect any real benefit from even the most dedicated HIV prevention programs in Malaysia.
References


LITERACY EDUCATION THROUGH MOTHER TONGUE AND THE
CONTRIBUTION TOWARDS THE MAINTENANCE OF LANGUAGE AND LOCAL CULTURE

Kuswara

Abstract

The purposes of the research was to obtain the description of language maintenance related to (1) the various of local tradition, (2) ethnical identity, (3) social adaptability, (4) the improvement of security feeling of research subjects, and (5) the improvement of linguistic sensitivity during and after learning process of functional literacy through mother tongue. The basis theories supported the research were 1) Socio-linguistic theory, 2) Learning theory, and 3) Literacy theory. The research used descriptive method to describe the nature of individual, condition and symptoms of certain groups, which has empirically been happened when the research has been taken. The number of research subjects was 45 participants, consisted of learners and tutors of literacy program. The result showed that learning material explored by language riches and local culture have contributed to the improvement of vocabulary riches and the promotion of local culture values which might be forgotten or even unknown anymore. The using of local folklore, proverbs and babasan, music or local art in learning process of literacy education have functioned as the tool of illiteracy eradication of numbers and alphabets as well as have contributed to the maintenance of languages and local culture.

Background

According to data published by United Nations Educational Sceintific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), there have been 6,000 languages spoken by almost 6 billion people in the world. But the languages have been divided into speakers unevenly. More than 90% of them have spoken only about 300 languages, such as Malayan, Hindi, Urdu, Arabic, Mandarin, Portuguese, Spanish, French and English.

The languages in that group are called major languages. About 10% of total population in the world has spoken 5,700 languages as minor languages. From all minor languages, about 3.481 (61%) have been found in Asia Pacific.
In the literature of macro socio-linguistics, the study of language maintenance have usually been focused on minor languages or ethnical languages facing major languages, such as national languages or international languages in bilingual context. The language situation has shown that there has been language contact between L1 (mother tongue) and NL (national languages). The language contact would have obtained much language phenomena, such as bilingual, dyglocia, code transfer, interference, convergence, language shift and language maintenance.

In the position as mother tongue (L1), Sundanese language is the second biggest language after Javanese language. Up to know, there have been 22 million native speakers of Sundanese language, spread from West Java and Banten Provinces as well as in the whole Indonesia. So the position of Sundanese language has been important in Indonesian context.

The study has tried to reveal the contribution of an education program which has used the riches of L1 as the learning materials, related to an aspect of some phenomena happened by language contact, that is language maintenance.

The research has used descriptive method. The number of research subject has been 45 people, consisted of 40 learners and 5 tutors. Then the collected data has been selected to take relevant data with the research purpose.

Based on the background, the focuses of the research have been: (1) Have the functional literacy learning through mother tongue in Cibago-Subang been successful in revealing many local traditions? (2) Have the functional literacy learning through mother tongue in Cibago-Subang been successful in maintaining ethnical identity of research subjects? (3) Have the functional literacy learning through mother tongue in Cibago-Subang been successful in supporting social adaptability of research subjects? (4) Have functional literacy learning through mother tongue in Cibago-Subang been successful in improving the security feeling of research subjects? and (5) Have the functional literacy learning through
mother tongue in Cibago-Subang been successful in improving the language sensitivity of research subjects?

Research Results and Discussion

In the basis theories, there have been stated that the language maintenance (Crystal: 1997, Alwasilah: 2004) has been defined as purposed efforts to:

Bring Out the Various Traditions

The various local traditions discussed in the research consisted of 1) the knowledge of environment around, 2) traditional literature, 3) traditional music, and 4) traditional art. During the learning process, there have been some findings related to the various local traditions of research subjects, or Cibago-Subang community in general.

1. The Knowledge of Environment Around

The various environment of knowledge has been the specific local knowledge for Cibago-Subang community. Nature has been an influenced factor to Cibago community. They have lived in nature and nature has given what it has had. So they generally have taken anything from nature to fulfill their daily needs. They have rarely taken exploited natural resources to get profit. The exploitation of natural resources has usually been taken by community out of Cibago as the brokers.

2. Traditional Literature

The knowledge of local literature in the research has consisted of songs, stories, poets, proverbs, taboos, games of musical instruments or showings. The knowledge has been specific and could be searched for existence. It could be documentation, staging or resource persons who could still been met.

3. Traditional Music

Traditional music in the activities has referred to some Sundanese songs taught to research subjects. Some background themes have taken according to local context, but the
melodies have used the popular songs of Sundanese community, such as “Manuk Dadali”, “Hanjuang Siang”, “Mobil Butut”, “Ririungan”, “Mojang Priangan” or “Curug Cinulang” songs. Sometimes learners have taken their own creativity and initiative to accompany the songs by jaipong music which they have played themselves.

**The Maintenance of Ethnical Identity**

There have been some findings during the research related to Sundanese language as the Sundanese ethnical identity in Cibago-Subang. In general, Cibago community speaks Sundanese language with northern accent (Subang, Indramayu, Purwakarta) in daily life. It is compared with Sundanese language of Priangan which is considered as polite Sundanese, the accent of northern Sundanese is considered rude in using the vocabulary. It is used by all community, both adults and children who speak friendly Sundanese between them. But, actually Cibago community are able to speak polite Sundanese like Priangan community. They speak polite Sundanese to communicate with respected people come from out of Cibago.

The number of Sundanese native speakers at Kampong Cibago is almost 100%, because Sundanese is the mother tongue of them. Language situation has shown that 100% Cibago community have been able to speak Sundanese, 5% of those have been able to speak Indonesian, 1% of those have been able to speak Javanese and Sundanese with Banten dialect. Cibago community members who haven’t had Sundanese as mother tongue have been newcomers from Central / East Java and Banten.

**Table 1: The Language Situation of Cibago**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of language</th>
<th>The number of speakers</th>
<th>Using context</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sundanese</td>
<td>± 99% (＞600 speakers)</td>
<td>Communication in daily relationship, Formal activities of local government (level neighborhood)</td>
<td>Sundanese language used is northern accent, Sundanese is mother tongue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The introduction languages in education are Sundanese and Indonesian. In religion, they speak Sundanese, Indonesian and sometimes Arabic. In daily occupation, they speak only Sundanese when they go farming, make brooms, make palm sugar or take carpentry. But in daily relationship, Cibago community speak Sundanese, on Indonesian if they meet newcomers who are not able to speak Sundanese.

### Table 2: The Spoken Language at Cibago

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spoken Language</th>
<th>Sundanese</th>
<th>Indonesian</th>
<th>Other Languages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relationship</strong></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The type of languages spoken in daily life of Cibago community is shown as below:

The number of speakers: ± 5% (30-40 speakers)

- Government
- Traditional activities of community members (marriage, funeral etc)
- Communication with people come from out of Cibago (tourists, guests)
- They are rarely spoken
- Only for certain groups
- They are spoken in religion learning
- As mother tongue for newcomers of Cibago.
- Arabic language is taken from religious school
- Using context
- Sundanese is spoken actively
- The using of written Sundanese is rarely found
- Indonesian is used passively (they are able to understand but difficult to speak)
- The using of written Indonesian is rarely found
- As mother tongue for newcomers of Cibago.
- Arabic language is taken from religious school
Back to the previous data which has shown that about 5% (30 speakers) of Cibago community are able to speak Indonesian (IL) in simple level. They are able to communicate in Indonesian for informal conversation. The rest (95%) are only able to speak Sundanese (SL) with South Subang dialect. In local context, Cibago community is language homogeny community. But nationally, Cibago community is minor language community, facing Indonesian language as major language.

Based on development level, 1% of research subject said that they have learned Indonesian language when they were kids (earlier), 72% of them have learned Indonesian language at school (middle bilingual) and 65% of them have learned Indonesian language when they have been adults (late). Some of them have been able to speak other languages such as Arabic, Javanese or Sundanese with Banten dialect.

According to the effect for Sundanese language, nationally Indonesian language is potential to influence the shift of Sundanese language. But, IL which has been mastered by some research subjects is simple or passive-productive IL, so it will not shift the function of SL in extreme form, but IL can be the complement to master communication skills in proper domain, especially to guests from out of Cibago. They can be called as bilinguists in basic level.

It has been caused by the acquisition of IL in the development level, because they have got IL after they had passed childhood. IL as L2 has been generally mastered by research subjects after they had mastered SL as mother tongue. Therefore, the nature of bilingual has been addictive and hasn’t been subtractive. The situation has been able to cause SL as the language maintenance in such a long time.

Research subjects have spoken the pattern of SL in some domains, comprising houses / families, neighborhoods, occupations, education, local governments, religious events,
private letters and discussion. In domains of formal education, telephone conversation or communication with newcomers, they will speak IL.

The situation of language selection according domains above has shown that there has been the spoken pattern of language according to certain domains; SL for traditional domains and IL for modern or formal domains. Beside that, they have also spoken the languages in certain situation, such as when they are joking, angry, persuading, talking, counting and quarrelling.

The Possibility of Social Adaptability

The reading, writing and arithmetics (3Rs) skills, the improvement of reading habits and the using of Sundanese language during the learning process have been possible to develop social adaptability in research subject. Adaptability means the skills of adaptation with environment around.

The skills of 3Rs have had the clear impact towards the adaptation skills of research subjects into the improvement out of themselves and environment. Based on the observation and interview, more than 95% learners have been able to master basic 3Rs. They have mastered the skills in 6 months of learning process. For new literates (22 research subjects), they have still had difficulties in understanding the reading materials. But in general, learners have had 3Rs skills.

In 3Rs skills, both female and male haven’t had significant differences. Some of them have mastered the skills quickly, but the others have understood the materials slowly. But they have tried to hide that they haven’t mastered 3Rs skills yet. So, if they have been asked about 3Rs skills, they would have answered that they have already been mastered 3Rs. The analysis of their skills objectively has been carried out by some methods: 1) to monitor the documentation of learners’ writing skills, 2) to ask tutors who have already known the skills of each learner.
The observation result has shown that the reading interests of learners and Cibago community have been improved, especially into “Buletin Kejar”, a suplement reading materials produced twice a month during the learning process. There have been three possible causes, 1) the rarity of interesting reading materials and appropriate with the character of learners which have lived in villages and have been lack of education infrastructure, 2) the use of Sundanese language in Buletin Kejar have approached and facilitated the understanding of learners towards what they read, because they have been more understand Sundanese than Indonesian, 3) the script themes or writings in Buletin Kejar have been appropriate with character and tradition of Cibago community. Buletin Kejar has also presented tutors’ and learners’ writings.

The Improvement of Security Feeling

Security feeling in the research has been related to introduction language during the learning process and learning materials. Previous research stated that the use of Indonesian language as introduction language in education for community who hasn’t understood Indonesian language has caused some problems, such as ‘misunderstanding’. The problems in certain degree would have caused ‘insecurity feeling’ for learners. They have been reluctant to learn (quit learning), afraid of asking, afraid of discussing or others which would have caused insecurity feeling.

The results of observation and depth interview have shown that the use of mother tongue as the introduction in learning process had caused the improvement of security feeling, confidence and interest of learning. There has been a case in Learning Group of Kandaga Mas IV whose the tutor has spoken Indonesian or mixed Sundanese-Indonesian in the first learning process. In the second time, learners have quitted learning. It has been caused not only by the introduction language, but also the mistake of tutor in taking approach technique to learners.
The Improvement of Language Sensitivity

Linguistics sensitivity or language sensitivity in the research means the ability of research subjects to speak Sundanese as well as to take new vocabulary and other language forms.

The result has shown that the Sundanese mastery of research subjects have been very good as a community who speaks Sundanese. Because they live in remote area, they haven’t understood some vocabulary which actually has recognized in other areas. From the observation, the Sundanese mastery of research subjects after learning process have been improved. Beside the vocabulary which had been mastered before, they have been able to learn some new vocabulary such as Angot: All the more, Rokaya: But, Unexpectedly, Orokaya: But, Unexpectedly, Baruk: Apparently, etc.

The vocabulary hasn’t been directly taught in learning materials, but it has been contained in learning materials for supporting the learning process. Some new vocabulary has been included in ‘Buletin Kejar’ as the special bulletin for learners which has been produced during the learning process twice a month. The bulletin has been the media for facilitators, tutors and learners to create and write anything.

Research subjects haven’t felt the riches of vocabulary as a part of intended Sundanese maintenance. They have been happy to and curious about the meaning of Sundanese vocabulary which they hadn’t known before. Sometimes they have spoken new vocabulary in daily conversation among learners or other community members. The linguistics sensitivity of research subjects have also been improved by learning Sundanese songs, Sundanese proverbs and some new vocabulary from learning materials.
**Conclusion**

The research has been concluded as follows:

1. Learning materials explored by the riches of Sundanese language and culture in local context would have improved the value of Sundanese culture which might be forgotten or unknown by research subjects. The using of local folklore (such as *sasakala*), proverbs and *babasan* as well as music and tradition in learning process have functioned as the tool of illiteracy eradication of numbers and alphabets as well as have contributed to the maintenance of languages and local culture.

2. Ethnical identity has been related to the mastery of certain ethnical language. The maintenance of identity in the form of language maintenance could be seen from the language situation and the level of language maintenance of research subjects at Cibago-Subang which have been stable in general.

3. The ability of 3Rs, the improvement of reading interest and the using of Sundanese language during learning process would have caused the possibility of social adaptability in research subjects. Adaptability means the ability to adapt oneself in taking new things, both knowledge and culture.

4. The program has especially focused on the development of illiterate community education by making use of the riches of mother tongue as learning resources functionally in learning 3Rs. The use of mother tongue riches in literacy learning process for learners who haven’t been able to speak Indonesian has improved the safety and comfortable feeling for them.

5. The language sensitivity of research subjects after learning process has been improved. It has proven by their ability to show and mention new vocabulary, even some of them have spoken it in daily conversation.
References


COLLABORATION WITHIN: MIGRANTS FINDING THEIR NICHE THROUGH SKILLS ENHANCEMENT PROGRAM

Linda A. Lumayag

Abstract

Migrant workers are often negatively stereotyped by the media and Malaysian public. They are seen as pendatang pekerja or sometimes called pendatang haram who take away jobs intended for local people. And because they come from less developed economies in the region, they are seen as poor and marginalized. Using this as a backdrop, this article examines how this so-called marginalized group of people is able to negotiate their position in the community through the formation of a Migrants’ Capability Enhancement Program (CAPE). Practices like self-sufficiency, volunteerism and empowerment are key points in how migrants provide a model for collaboration at the level of the local community. This particular study pertains to the community-based or faith-based organization whose members are active volunteers of the CAPE program in Kuala Lumpur. Both qualitative using participant observation and quantitative method using survey were adopted. This study observes that marginalisation and discrimination has in effect emboldened certain groups of migrants to help each other and maintain a very high degree of self-sufficiency and volunteerism. In return, they empower other migrants by sharing their knowledge and skills by organizing a non-formal type of education to enhance their skills, build small communities and strengthen their collaborative effort in the local church and the wider Malaysian society.

Introduction

More often we assume that marginalized communities do not have the capability to empower themselves because of structural constraints such as culture, ethnicity, gender and religion William and Labonte (2007). We also know that this assumption does not quite reflect some undocumented or understudied areas of concern where marginalized and poor communities demonstrate a high sense of resilience in the midst of the structural problems they encounter on a daily basis (Burton, 2012).
In here, we examine how migrant communities exude a certain degree collaborative spirit at all levels of their everyday lives in a transnational social space. The main objective of this paper is to examine the phenomenon of collaboration - and empowerment - “within” the marginalized community of migrants and how this social action has found meaning in the wider context of community participation, volunteerism and empowerment. It is argued in this paper that collaboration does not exist in a vacuum. It is rather situated in a space where there are motivations and justifications for why collaboration is necessary.

In sociological parlance, collaboration is often seen as the process of cooperation with the view of helping each other to achieve an end or goal. Collaboration is a social construction which means that arrangements can depend on contextual circumstances. Conventionally, collaboration involves at least a ‘meeting’ of two parties who are of equal social footing, power relations and share common interest towards something. Can there be collaboration in an unequal power relationship? Can collaboration emerge in an unequal power terrain where two collaborating parties hold varying degrees of power? And if so, are both collaborating parties, at the end of mutual cooperation, become empowered? I argue that collaboration does happen in an unequal power relationship. It happens when both parties are able to identify social capitals in the perceived collaboration such that the one holding higher power can also gain in collaborating such as the perceive better ‘treatment’ from other migrants and the attendant positive account of being able to network with other types of people in Malaysia. One of the perceived incentives is access to higher social circle or networks.

Methodology

This research is a product of a year-long participant observation study where I myself am involved as a counselor for Filipino migrant workers in the Klang Valley. Having lived in Malaysia for several years, I have found the community of migrants my ‘home away from
Filipinos from all walks of life come and casually interact with one another. Specific to the location of this study is the St John’s *Tahanang Pilipino* (Filipino Home). I frequent this place almost every Sunday to do my community service as a volunteer. In this home, I also find Filipinos who come to Malaysia as domestic workers, engineers, IT specialists, educators, religious lay persons etc. In this particular study, I look at the thirty four (34) Filipino migrant worker-volunteers who spend at least three hours every Sunday to teach various courses offered by the Migrants Capability Enhancement Program (CAPE MALAYSIA). These courses range from Basic Computer to Baking and Pastry to Ballroom Dancing. There are more than 10 domestic workers who volunteer for this program while the rest come from the engineering, IT, construction, travel, and education sector. The every Sunday meeting and conversation with the volunteers provides a platform for sharing their thoughts and experiences not just about their working life in Malaysia. The volunteers seem to now indulge themselves in helping one another to making sure that CAPE MALAYSIA continues to operate without problems. Sunday encounters mean talking to them directly, observing and listening from a distance as well as coming together in social functions and parties in the Home. This process of getting information is far richer than observing and participating within a short period. I maintain a Sunday Journal to record what every Sunday encounter I would have with the volunteers. Sometimes a Sunday encounter can be ‘empty’ in a sense volunteers come to teach and nothing extra special happens. An eventual Sunday encounter means there is a list of activities for volunteers to participate and this involves essentially their classes. In some instances, two volunteers, together with the student-participants visit an Old Folks Home to provide free services such as conduct blood pressure reading, first aid, and other forms of care-giving. At another time, when volunteers need to facilitate the festival preparation in the area of food, decoration, cultural show etc. So, almost all volunteers extend free service to the migrants community. Whenever possible, I
participate in most of the activities of the Tahanang Pilipino and this is the best time I do my observation as well. At the same time, I conducted a social survey to evaluate the effectiveness of volunteers in CAPE MALAYSIA, however, in this paper, there is least discussion on that.

Findings and Discussion

Structure of CAPE MALAYSIA

CAPE MALAYSIA runs for 16 weeks, meeting every Sunday. Each student in a particular course meets twice a month for two hours per meeting. The old parish building at the Cathedral was once the beehive of activities on Sundays, with temporary partitions installed every time. On ordinary Sundays where there are no activities other than attending classes, classes begin at 10 in the morning and ends at five in the afternoon. Classes are held either in the old parish house or in St. John’s School. For three years now, the CAPE executive committee has received support from the St John’s School by opening its classrooms for a minimal rent of 200RM a month. This support has boosted the operation of CAPE as its participants are increasing every year. CAPE is able to optimize spatial use in and around the cathedral every Sunday from 10am to 5pm. The four different classes of Internet are held in a nondescript internet café in the old KL town. CAPE does not own a computer lab to cater to the growing demand of migrant workers. In order to offset this, CAPE rents an internet café and participants pay their actual time spent at the café. The two volunteers also pay the charge per hour, at the same time, provide instruction to the participants. It is not actually the best way to do but given the serious problem of lack of access to a real computer lab, CAPE feels that is far better than with no service.

The driving class is one of the better popular courses that CAPE runs. It is noteworthy, how some Malaysian employers, upon knowing that CAPE is offering a course on driving, request their domestic workers to register in the course and the employers are
actually the ones paying of the registration fee of 35RM per course. Now, with the current problem of space and a proper venue to hold practical sessions with the students, participants have been urging the CAPE executive committee to find a better driving school compound to maximize learning.

One of the best features in the skills enhancement program is the idea that everybody will pass the course. It is different from a formal school system in a sense that nobody fails if one wants to learn. All those who register for the course, for as long as they come regularly, join the projects as expected of them as student-participants, and show their newly-acquired skills through organized exhibitions, then students will be able to graduate.

The culminating ceremony or the awarding of certificates is done after 16 weeks. Most often participants anticipate this activity. Especially for those participants who did not have any opportunity to attend college education in the Philippines, the CAPE ceremony is a platform where they can show off to their family and friends back in the Philippines that they now have acquired a new skill.

Table 1 shows the status of CAPE MALAYSIA by looking at the courses offered, the employment background of volunteers and their length of stay in Malaysia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of volunteer</th>
<th>Courses Offered</th>
<th>Work status in Kuala Lumpur</th>
<th>Visa held</th>
<th>No of years in M’sia</th>
<th>Level of education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Aerobics</td>
<td>Domestic work (full time)</td>
<td>Employment visa, dependent visa</td>
<td>6, 10, 11</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bahasa Malaysia</td>
<td>Bank executive</td>
<td>Malaysian, employment pass</td>
<td>-, 7</td>
<td>Both finished university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tour operator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Basic Computer Business Application</td>
<td>Domestic work (full time)</td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Basic Computer Business</td>
<td>Domestic work (part time)</td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td>16, 17</td>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application</td>
<td>Employment Details</td>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baking &amp; Pastry</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass, dependent pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caregiver 1-A</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caregiver 1-C</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caregiver 1-B</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caregiver 2</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defensive Driving 1</td>
<td>Lecturers (technical education)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defensive Driving 2 – Electrical/Mechanical</td>
<td>Civil Engineering.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ballroom Dancing</td>
<td>Domestic Work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guitar-1 (Basic)</td>
<td>Hotel and Restaurant work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guitar-2 (Intermediate)</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hair &amp; Beauty Culture</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-A</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dependent pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-B</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photography</td>
<td>IT specialist</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sewing 1 / Dressmaking</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sewing 2 / Tailoring</td>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice Lesson</td>
<td>Entertainment Special Needs teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment pass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Undergraduate, Finished University, Licensed Engineer, Both Finished*
CAPE stands for capability enhancement program and it is a program fully run by migrants from the Philippines. Founded in 2007, it is an attempt at ensuring that migrants workers who frequent the cathedral in Kuala Lumpur is given a place where they can make use of their free time rather than spend their time milling aimlessly in shopping complexes. The gestation process of CAPE took more than 10 years. Initially, a group of Malaysian and Filipino friends who belongs to the Catholic faith was exploring the possibility of a program to help Filipino Catholics in KL, some of whom have had brushes with their employers, runaways or distressed Filipino domestic workers (FDWs). The organizing was stalled all the time as some of those who thought could run the program based on voluntary spirit either had to leave the country, or a more challenging work come in the way. It was only in 2007, when a group of determined FDWs and a few Filipino professionals offered to give it a try. Armed with enthusiasm and willing hands to plan, organize and implement the program, 20 volunteers, mostly domestic workers who have been working in KL for several years, started the program with the assistance of at least three professionals and one Malaysian. It started with 10 courses, mostly on food art and beauty culture and technical skills, especially basic driving. As CAPE progresses, more courses are offered based on the needs of the community as well as availability of volunteers on Sundays.

**Courses and participants’ interests**

The different courses that CAPE offers this year are varied. Yet, it caters to the basic needs of migrants who wish to enhance their skills while working in Malaysia. The 19 courses are classified into music and art (5), language (1), food art (2), ICT (1), beauty culture (2), technical skills (4) and care-giving (2).
Table 2: Classification of Courses offered

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Courses</th>
<th>Number of courses offered</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Music and Art</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food art</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty culture</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical skills</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caregiving</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we look at Table 2, we find that at least five courses offered are categorized in music and art while four of the courses offered are within the domain of technical skills. This is important to know as student-participants do not simply register for the sake of registering, they do come for varied reasons, firstly, “to learn something new” as their Sundays are pretty much very predictable or without any event at all. So in a way students use CAPE MALAYSIA as an escape route after six days of routinary work in the workplace.

**Church as a unifying ground for collaboration**

Since the 1980s the Church has been in the forefront in promoting the idea that Catholic migrant workers from other countries are the “guests” of the Church, and therefore they should be welcome by the local church/community. The “welcome” sign to the migrant workers as guests was never an easy task, however. Difficulties lie in whether, at the macro structural level, the Church leadership is willing to protect the migrants’ legal and socio-religious rights in the context of multi-ethnic and multi-religious Malaysia and, at the micro level, whether the leadership of the local church is optimistic about the socio-religious participation of migrants in the community and how this participation will bring about synergism within its following.

This study is cognizant of the fact that the role of the Church is significant in integrating Christian migrants in Malaysia. The Catholic Church plays an active involvement
in setting up migrant ministries all over Malaysia and assigned priests or counsellors to assist migrant workers in their local churches. Several years ago, the St. Francis Xavier’s parish church, for example created a Filipina Service Committee as part of the parish coordinating council. It is represented by an adviser-cum-counsellor at the parish level and is given a measly annual budget for its formation, training and fellowship programmes. The Church, in her effort to educate the faithful about the status of migrants in the country and in the world, sends out the Papal message every September as part of the advocacy programme carried out in Malaysia. Papal messages are translated into Bahasa Malaysia, Tamil, Myanmarese and Filipino and are distributed to all the accessible channels of information, usually the local churches. Papal messages reiterate the need for the host countries to “welcome” the migrants with respect and understanding rather than to be viewed as commodities in the widening disparity between nations and cultures. In the 2003 papal message to the Catholic community in Malaysia, the Pope exhorts everyone, saying,

“In a world that is undergoing such radical transformation as a result of the process of globalisation, one of the major concerns of the Church is migrants and refugees – People on the Move. When people are forced to move, for various reasons, they have to face a new land, new people and new environments. They end up somewhere, as strangers and foreigners. This is where the Church opens its doors to welcome them, because we are a people who care.” (Summary Message of Holy Father Pope John Paul II for Migration Sunday, September 2003).

The role of the Church in providing legal, social and spiritual assistance is a welcome move considering the problems of isolation, rejection (National Office for Human Development, 2003) and discrimination among migrant workers. As a matter of advocacy, Church reminds Catholics to respect the rights of migrants especially the domestic workers
who are more vulnerable to abuses and harassment. The now-defunct National Office for Human Development is tasked at the national level to look into the problems of migrant workers apart from the local migrant ministries that are created in various parishes. It is safe to say that the Filipino domestic workers’ group is the most vibrant ministry within the migrant community. Domestic workers who help form and manage the groups could only say that the Church is the only place they can call “home away from home.” In Saint Francis Xavier’s and St John’s parishes, the Filipino groups are provided with their own rooms to cook, watch TV or to relax. There are those domestic maids who go straight to their “home” as soon as they take their day off, rather than going out to places where they need to spend money for food, transport fare and other expenses.

In here we find that the Church has a crucial role to play in ensuring that migrant workers, especially those who are Catholic will find refuge in the new homeland they call Malaysia. Considering the

Cultural Values as Empowering the marginalized and powerless

In this section, I would like to highlight the value system of the Filipino workers and how these “active” values, though may be viewed by outsiders with negativism, can sometimes be an empowering element in their marginal position in Malaysia. Values are traits that consciously and unconsciously direct a person or group that has socially and psychologically adopted them as part of the person’s or group’s social processes. Values or traits maintain their “influence” through the constant gaze of the members of the group or society; and non-adherence of the social processes could mean deviations from the socially accepted norms of the society. Various portrayals of being powerless are observed in expressions such as, *walang kakayahan* (no capability), *walang magagawa* (nothing can be done), *suwerte* (luck), *palad* (fate), *bahala na* (come what may), *pagtiyagaan* (make use of), *tiyaga* (patience), *tis* (sacrifice) and *hiya* (shame). All of these verbal expressions are so
common among Filipinos who, when faced with difficult situations or problems, readily succumb to adopting the above expressions. Anthropologists and sociologists label these as expressions of fatalism and dependence on the forces of nature. F. L. Jocano (1997), a known Filipino anthropologist, asserts that fatalism of Filipinos means relying on the ‘unseen’ forces that partly govern a person’s destiny. But reliance to these ‘unseen’ forces does not mean hopelessness in such situations for it is in “the moment” of hopelessness that “strength from within” emerges. It is in the way that the Filipino, as a people imbued with a deep sense of faith, allows this hopelessness or helplessness to be overridden by it.

Manifestations of positive Filipino values are expressed in bahala na [come what may], tiyaga [patience] and suwerte [luck]. These value expressions, whether directly or indirectly, form part of the Filipino migrants’ psyche and in situations where there seems to be no letup, the value of fatalism crops up. In another perspective, fatalism encourages passivity and indifference in the midst of abuses and exploitation of labour as when domestic workers rely on their “deep sense of faith,” which means without doing anything to counter an abusive condition. Similar to Scott’s (1985) observation as well as Gaventa’s (1980), pagtiyagaan is likened to a tactical prudence, a calculated accommodation if only to strike or take what they envisioned in the long term. While this can be observed in some Filipino workers to remain patient until the right time comes, other Filipino workers would entirely rely on “patience” without understanding or knowing that a necessary intervention is significant in order to diminish, if not eliminate, certain abusive situations. In a way, this goes back again to the main point of this section: that Filipino workers’ extent of practicing active values in marginal situation will indicate to what extent they can empower themselves.

Volunteerism and Empowerment

Now, with their values attuned to ‘patience’ and ‘sacrifice’, volunteer workers optimize and use their resilient character to a higher calling and that is to offer free service of
their skills, resources and time to a more marginalized sector within the migrants community. This form of collaboration, no doubt, is unequal. It is unequal considering that volunteer workers have an edge in terms of skills and experience, while the participants-cum-students, mostly from the domestic work sector learn from the more experienced domestic workers.

This process of empowering each other is amazingly fraught with challenges. I would like to argue that empowerment has its many dimensions, not only the ability to exercise their basic rights as migrant workers, but more so in people’s ability to create a community inspite of the prevailing structural and legal constraints that Malaysian multi-ethnic communities are experiencing. In the process of volunteering, the other collaborating party is empowered.

Volunteering to make substantive changes in one’s life by helping others at the same time to share their knowledge and skills to others is essentially the moral ground that volunteers put their foot in. If our history tells us, human civilization is rooted on the idea and practice of helping one another. In tribal, pre-capitalist societies, ‘working as one’ community is the backdrop upon which inhabitants are able to sustain its physical and social life in relation to their ecological environment. Modernisation, as part and parcel of the growth of capitalist orientation in our market economy, has somehow changed all that. The traditional practice of helping has been threatened by stresses and strains of putting a cash value to almost everything that we do. For instance, in a modern-day concept of work, when we are employed in a factory, we are paid on the basis of how much time we spend and how much we produce. This orientation has seeped in and in real sense has affected in the way we live, more specifically when we view other people. How is it that international migrant workers, a product of capitalist initiatives, are able to forge cooperation and mutual helpfulness at the micro level, i.e. in the community? It is reckoned that migrants regardless of their position in the host country are discriminated against and occupy a marginalized position in the skewed structure of Malaysia’s multi-ethnic society. Within the migrant community, the idea of
volunteerism or extending help to someone is often thought of as a ‘natural’ course of things. The common notion that migrant workers are victims and do not have agency to decide for themselves need to be critically understood. While some migrants are thought to experience some form of victimization and disempowerment, it does not mean that they remain victimized all the time.

When CAPE first started, it had about 20 volunteers from the Philippines, majority were working as domestic workers. In 2012, there are close to 40 volunteers who work in various industries in Malaysia. More than 10 volunteers are non-dомestics.

Creating and sustaining a community of migrants that understands each other’s needs and aspirations, and experience the same treatment from the host country are the rallying points why CAPE grows into a community of empowered migrants. Their Sunday activities in the CAPE program and their regular participation in classes, joint field trips and social events have allowed them opportunity to mingle with each other, share their narratives of marginalization as well as empower people they meet on Sundays. Crafted on the idea that overseas workers (OCWs) from the Philippines are mostly women, CAPE’s main intent was to respond to the increasing number of Filipino domestics in Malaysia who were largely unorganized and fragmented.

An annual dinner is one of those activities organised by the CAPE management to honour the selfless services of the volunteers and facilitators. The pool of facilitators is now predominantly Filipino workers living in the Klang Valley and Kuala Lumpur, with an exception of at least two (2) Malaysians who served as advisers. It is interesting to note that with the pool of willing hands, these volunteers are able to provide a meaningful space for migrant workers who never dreamed of taking courses in Malaysia. A participant in an Internet class said that “instead of spending money in McDonald’s, I’d rather spend my time
learning something new’. Now at least I know how to send email to my children, or open a Facebook account to keep track of my friends as well.”

**Closing Words**

The social conditions of Filipino migrants in Malaysia are a product of collaborative spirit. Collaboration and mutual helpfulness is demonstrated in almost all levels especially in relation to sustaining a learning and empowering environment upon which they are able to learn new ways while working in Malaysia. In this particular study, we are looking at how Filipino workers who are differentiated by their type of employment in Malaysia are able to forge a productive relationship in order to exercise a social action as a collective. Within the prism of collaboration at the level of migrant workers, unifying elements are reflected in their common identity as Filipino overseas workers, in their religious orientation as Catholics, and share common cultural practices and traditions. Collaboration of migrant workers with the local church is an interesting observation. This kind of collaboration is interesting in a sense that the local church provides both social and religious space for migrants to work out a program they think could foster camaraderie, involvement and most importantly, empowerment.
INDIGENOUS SOCIAL WORK-PHILANTHROPIC INITIATIVES TO PROFESSIONAL SOCIAL WORK: THE EXISTING PRACTICES AND GAPS:

BANGLADESH CONTEXT

Md. Shahid Uz Zaman

Abstract

In Bangladesh, history of professional social work education has just crossed the 50 years. Within the five decades of Journey, Social work education has expanding from University of Dhaka to more than 60 educational institutions including different public and private universities and state recognized colleges. Non-Government Organizations (NGO) has been continuing in Bangladesh with meaningful existence from just after independence of 1971. As on before of social work education and NGO interventions, the philanthropic initiatives-mostly considering of the religious spirit, had has an effective evidence of the conventional community development specially on the field of disaster response, primary health care, drinking water and in some cases shelter, food for extreme poor and disable people. Social Capital had played an important role, in terms of the social integrity and community feelings and empathy. After promoting the NGO initiative and partial combination of professional social work, it has a big dilemma in terms of nurturing and promoting of philanthropic social welfare and social capital for societal peace and harmony. In many cases, the top-down approached NGO initiatives has negatively destroyed social bondage and integrity. Before the interventions of NGOs, the philanthropic initiatives recognized by the community not only effective and meaningful, these initiatives has recognized as widen social services but after the NGO interventions, philanthropic initiatives gradually not only reduced, the initiatives turn as their earlier excellent humanitarian character and treated only religious efforts. This paper aimed to identify the existing theoretical and practical gaps in between Philanthropic and NGOs initiatives of Bangladesh on the aspect of Professional Social Work. Through this paper, the author also identified and critically analyzed the theory and practice of Professional Social work in Bangladesh and finally drawn an outline of appropriate and effective coordination in-between Professional Social Work, NGO Initiative and Philanthropic Social welfare in Bangladesh.
Introduction

In Bangladesh, history of professional social work education has just crossed the 50 years. The Academic social work in Bangladesh emerged with the recommendation of The advent of academic social work in Bangladesh has come from the recommendations made by UN experts on welfare for the establishment of a programme of professional welfare practice. The recommendation highlighted the need for scientific knowledge in the solution of acute and large-scale social problems (Watts, 1995). It was felt that, the increasing urbanization and industrialization together with landlessness and impoverishing condition had weaken the joint-family system and had also put serious limits on the role of voluntary and charitable sectors (Moore, 1958)(cited in Watts, 1995).The Institute of Social Welfare and Research (ISWR) was established in 1958 as a constituent College of the University of Dhaka. It was jointly sponsored by the then Central Government of Pakistan and the United Nations Technical Assistance Program. Subsequently after the emergence of Bangladesh the then College of Social Welfare and Research Centre was merged with the University of Dhaka as an Institute in March 1973((ISWR, 2009-2010).

Within the more than five decades of Journey of Social work in Bangladesh, Still now, social work has been continuing as an educational subject rather than professional aspect. Not yet in Bangladesh, social work treated as a profession, the graduates of social work not recognized by the state as a professional social worker and no accreditation institution has exist in Bangladesh for social work profession. Considering the number and activites, Bangladesh is one of the largest NGO based country. In Bangladesh, roughly two million employees are working for NGOs, but they are treated as NGO workers as because they have come from different academic background, a few portions of employees come from Social Work background without having professional recognition and they have treated
as general University graduate just like other discipline. A significant number of informal religious, spiritual and philanthropy based social services has been continuing in Bangladesh, but there is no meaningful relationship in between Social work, NGOs and philanthropic Initiatives in Bangladesh. No doubt, this is one of the big gaps in terms of demand and supply side of social work and social services.

**Social Work Education in Bangladesh**

Each year a mentionable number of social work graduates have awarded from Universities of Bangladesh Social Work. According to the recent data on June, 2012, the graduation and masters of Social Work degree offered by 4 public universities, 2 private universities and 57 affiliated colleges through national university of Bangladesh. Near about 5000 students have completed their graduation on social work and 3000 students completed their masters in Social Work.

**The Chronology of Social Work Education in Bangladesh**

1958      The Institute of Social Welfare and Research (ISWR) was established as a constituent College of the University of Dhaka.

1964      The Department of Social Work was initially started as a college of Social work under the affiliation of University of Rajshahi.

1972      The Department of Social Work, University of Rajshahi was evolved as a separate and independent department under the faculty of Arts.

1973      College of Social Welfare and Research Centre was merged with the University of Dhaka as an Institute.

1992      Bangladesh National University has established as a parent university of Bangladesh which was primarily established to affiliate all the universities and colleges and under the National University the graduation and masters of Social Work degree offered by 57 colleges.
1994-95 Social Work Department of Shah Jalal University of Science and Technology launched its journey.

1998 Social Work Department of Gono University launched its journey.

2005 Social Work Department of Jagannath University launched its journey.


According to the syllabus and academic records of the 4 public universities of Bangladesh, The major outlines of Social Work Education in Bangladesh has given below:

A Short Outline of Social Work Education in Bangladesh

Vision and Mission

1. To produce efficient professional social workers;

2. To teach and give the students theoretical as well as practical knowledge in relation to socio-cultural development.

3. To produce skilled and efficient Social Work graduates who can engage themselves in multidimensional developmental activities in the country.

Nature of Social Work Discipline

Social Work discipline is based on different knowledge systems coming from psychiatry, psychology, sociology, economics, political science, anthropology, statistics, law, etc. Apart from these knowledge systems the students of Social Work also learn computer-based knowledge, Bangla and English language, environment-based knowledge, public policy and administration, project management, etc. Social Work usually deals with the problems of individuals, groups and communities. Since ours is a developing country in Bangladesh context, emphasize developmental social work, but it does not mean that clinical social work is entirely ignored here. Students are in fact taught developmental and clinical social work simultaneously.
Field Work/ Internship Activities

The student of social work apply the theoretical knowledge learn from the classroom and other sources practically in the field while working with people through social welfare agencies. This program is called *internship* in social work language. The students of undergraduate and graduate levels are required to perform internship in different groups for 60 (Sixty) working days under the supervision of internal and external supervisors. There are 18 to 20 governmental and /or non-governmental organizations providing social welfare services here in Bangladesh where the students of Social Work perform their internship.

Research Activities

The students are required to complete three theoretical courses on social research/social work research at undergraduate and graduate levels.

Seminar Activities

Seminar paper on burning socio-cultural and development issues need to be presented before the students and teachers by every formed group of student in each terminal semester of an academic year. (ISWR, 2010-2011).

Almost the syllabus and the academic procedure are common in all Universities and a good coordination and academic system has exist within all Universities .But due to the absence of accreditation system and accreditation authority, the degree has been treated as an educational degree and not as a professional degree. Due to the lack of professional recognition and less opportunity of social work professional job opportunities, major portion of Social Work graduate has employed in the different field –that field are not appropriately related with social work profession. Just for example, work for financial institutions, Government services and Private commercial Institutions. A few portion of graduate work for NGOs and national and International development agencies, due to lack of professional
recognition; they are not recognized as professional social worker. Only those graduates involved with social work teaching profession - treated as social work professionals.

The social work education in Bangladesh almost covers the standard of social work accreditation according to the standards of International Social Work, but due to the lack of recognized accreditation authority, the professional acceptance of Social Work as a profession in Bangladesh still now a dream not in reality. Recently, Bangladesh Council for Social Work Education (BCSWE) has established with the vision of ensuring accreditation of social work. On the last March, 2012, Bangladesh Council for Social Work Education (BCSWE) organized the day-long conference at the Institute of Social Work and Research of Dhaka University titled ‘Contextualization of Social Work Education in Bangladesh: Challenges and Policy Dimension’ where the Education Minister act as the chief guest.

He committed to the participants for initiatives for accreditation of social work. This is the first time initiatives of Bangladesh, but due to lack of proper planning, coordination and communication with International and National level policy advocacy, still now accreditation of social work is too far from the existing scenario.

**The Indigenous Social Work and Social Thoughts in Bangladesh**

Social Thoughts in Bangladesh: Which has created the foundation of Social Work in Bangladesh?

Bangladesh has long history of Social thoughts which has significantly contributed in Social changes and positively improved the social development and organized the communities in Bangladesh in terms of Social action and Community development. No doubt, the major social thoughts came on colonial period and adopting with the changing society of Bangladesh. For this study, I just present a few number of social thoughts and philanthropic institutions but it does not mean that this list is only contributing the modern social work in Bangladesh, this is only a representation and also unique in terms of dedication, social philosophy and philanthropy.
Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar : A compassionate reformist (1820-1889)

Iswar Chandra Bandopadhaya was born at Birsingha in Midnapur. He was also known for his charity and philanthropy as "Daya-r-sagar"– ocean of kindness, for his immense generosity. He always reflected and responded to distress calls of the poor, sufferings of the sick and injustice to humanity. Vidyasagar did not believe that money was enough to ease the sufferings of humanity. He opened the doors of the Sanskrit College to lower caste students (previously it was exclusive to the Brahmins), nursed sick cholera patients, went to crematoriums to bury unclaimed dead bodies, dined with the untouchables and walked miles as a messenger-man to take urgent messages to people who would be benefitted from them.

His fearless championing on behalf of widow re-marriage ends in success. Vidyasagar took the initiative in proposing and pushing through the Widow Remarriage Act XV of 1856 in India.

Rabindranath Tagore (1861 – 1941)

Rabindranath Tagore is generally hailed as a versatile genius in the arena of fine arts (all branches of literature, music and painting). Tagore was also one of the pioneers of rural development in Bangladesh and India. Tagore’s concept of sustainable development is rooted deep in rural regeneration as majority of the population of Indian sub continent reside in villages. It has two major planks:i) Cooperatives and ii) Panchayats. In both the cases, Tagore calls for revival of the spirit of the rural masses so that they could be self-sufficient and free from dependence on outside assistance (‘to approach the authorities with begging bowls’ so to say) for their economic and social uplift and empowerment. Tagore lays greatest stress on instilling the spirit of self-confidence and unity in the minds of the rural folk (through proper education) so that they could, on their own, fight off the maladies afflicting rural Indian sub continent. Tagore holds, only by inspiring the rural masses to form
cooperatives and panchayats by their own efforts. Tagore always encourages the application of modern technologies for rejuvenation of rural Indian sub continent, but all these should be within the framework of a regenerated rural society based on self-help and freedom from outside interference. (Basu, 2009).

**Begum Rokeya and her Movement (1880-1932)**

Begum Rokeya was an inspiring figure who contributed much to the struggle to liberate women from the bondage of social malaises. Her life can be seen in the context of other social reformers within what was then Indian sub continent. To raise popular consciousness, especially among women, she wrote a number of articles, stories and novels, mostly in Bengali. She criticized oppressive social customs forced upon women that were based upon a corrupted version of Islam, asserting that women fulfilling their potential as human beings could best display the glory of Lord. In 1909, after the death of her husband, Rokeya established a high school in her beloved husband's memory, naming it Sakhawat Memorial Girls' High School. Begum Rokeya also founded the Anjuman e Khawateen e Islam (Islamic Women's Association), which was active in holding debates and conferences regarding the status of women and education. She rejected discrimination for women in the public arena and believed that discrimination would cease only when women were able to undertake whatever profession they chose. In 1922 she founded an organization “Naritirtha” for the upliftment of most wretched women “prostitutes”. She could open homes for the female child of these destitute to impart education and to elevate them to healthy living.

**Philanthropic Social Initiatives in Bangladesh**

**The Ramakrishna Mission (1897 to till now)**

The Ramakrishna Mission, founded by Swami Vivekananda in 1897, is a humanitarian organization which carries out extensive medical, relief and educational programs. The aims and ideals of the Mission are purely spiritual and humanitarian and have
no connection with politics. The service activities are based on the message of "Jiva is Shiva" from Ramakrishna and Swami Vivekananda's message of "Daridra Narayana" to indicate that service to poor is service to God. The mission's activities cover the following areas, Education, Health care, Cultural activities, rural uplift, Tribal welfare, Youth movement etc. The mission has its own hospitals, charitable dispensaries, maternity clinics, tuberculosis clinics, and mobile dispensaries. It also maintains training centers for nurses. Orphanages and homes for the elderly are included in the mission's field of activities, along with rural and tribal welfare work. (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ramakrishna_Mission).

**Anjuman Mufidul Islam (1905 to till now)**

During nineteenth and early twentieth century, when the Muslims of the sub-continent were going through a difficult period, formed Anjuman Mufidul Islam in Kolkata in 1905. After partition, Anjuman’s office was setup in Dhaka in September 1947. Anjuman has been involved in a number of humanitarian and social development activities mainly serving the poorer section of the community. Over time, it has continuously improved and expanded the activities and currently these include collection and burial of unclaimed dead bodies, free ambulance services, running homes of orphans for boys and girls, running Technical Institutes, running junior high schools and other service related activities for poverty alleviation & rehabilitation of the people living below poverty line. For the rich and able, it has a "Daphon Sheba Project". Anjuman has been implementing a "Poverty Alleviation Project". Under this project applications are received from poor and deserving persons through its branch offices and assistance is provided in cash & kind. (http://amibd.org/aboutus.php?cid=32&sid=6).

**Kumudini Welfare Trust (KWT) (1943 to till Now)**

Ranada Prasad, a fairly rich man, dedicated himself to the service of the suffering humanity. In 1943 a dispensary and outdoor facility .R.P. Shaha thought that the foremost
requirement to achieve women's freedom and establish their rights is education for women. R.P. Shaha dedicated himself to draw a synthesis of modern and traditional education for women and established the Bharateswari Homes in 1944. After reaching the pinnacle of success, R.P. Shaha placed all his companies and businesses in a “Trust” with a view to use its proceeds for public welfare; “Kumudini Welfare Trust of Bengal” (KWT) thus came into existence for poor and distressed people. He had used his entire wealth to establish in a remote village a hospital to provide free medical care and impressive educational institution Bharateswari Homes to promote education among women. The major welfare activities of Kumudini Welfare Trust of Bengal: Kumudini Hospital, Nursing School, Women's Medical College, Village Outreach program, Bharateswari Homes, Trade training School. (The Daily Star, 2010, http://kumudini.timdmp.com/).

**NGOs in Bangladesh: Evolution, Success and Criticism**

The history of NGOs in Bangladesh could be traced way back to the British colonial period. Since the British era, NGOs in its traditional form have been working in Bangladesh as different religious trust-based schools, hospitals and orphanages. However, NGOs in Bangladesh got a radical transformation and turned into agents of development in the post-independence era. Since 1970s NGOs, therefore, have become a part of the institutional framework of poverty alleviation in Bangladesh. The NGOs, especially the large ones in effect, have infiltrated into an operational arena which has traditionally been the “exclusive domain” of the government. Donors have played a significant role in advocating for the NGOs as an active partner in poverty alleviation projects in Bangladesh (Sobhan and Bhattacharya, 1990). The NGO sector in Bangladesh is an inseparable part of our society. Gradually, NGOs started to work in the field of group formation, credit, formal and non-formal education, health and nutrition, family planning and MCH (Mother and child Health) gender development, poultry and livestock, agriculture, sanitation, environment, human
rights, advocacy, legal aids and in many other fields. Untiring efforts and intrinsic zeal have led NGOs towards assisting the poor in poverty alleviation and to empower them in every aspect of social life (Mohiuddin, 2002). In the wake of government failures to address the problems of unemployment, poverty, social injustice and environmental degradation, NGOs have gained recognition as effective development agencies by marshaling the creative energies of the poor to solve their own problems. The changing global environment realized the important role of the NGOs and eagerly recognized the NGOs as development partner.

NGOs in Bangladesh are now in the third stage of their growth. In the late 1970s, there occurred a gradual shift from the first generation strategies that is, relief and welfare services to the second-generation strategies characterized by small-scale, self-reliant local development initiatives for building people's capacity. Throughout the 1980s, this thrust continued. Pursing the third generation strategies that focus on the policy changes at different levels is recent phenomenon visible since the early 1990s. (Haider, 2011)

Considering the long development journey of Bangladesh, the approach, programs and activities has changed according to the peoples need as well as the donor’s perspective. The following table has given an idea regarding the evolution of NGOs in Bangladesh.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Major sectoral focus</th>
<th>Major programs</th>
<th>Target audience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before 1971</td>
<td>Charity and Philanthropic initiatives</td>
<td>Hospital, School, Orphanage</td>
<td>Rural People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971-80</td>
<td>Relief and Rehabilitation Health</td>
<td>Relief distribution Rehabilitation work Tree plantation Primary health care</td>
<td>Rural poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-90</td>
<td>Women Empowerment Education</td>
<td>Women Empowerment Income Generation Adult Education Non Formal Primary Education</td>
<td>Rural poor women Poor Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-2000</td>
<td>Micro Credit Human Development</td>
<td>Micro credit Awareness Training Skill Development</td>
<td>Rural poor women Poor Children</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Training and Collaboration in the Asia Pacific Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Range</th>
<th>Training Area</th>
<th>Organization Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000-2010</td>
<td>Food Security Program</td>
<td>Rural and urban poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Climate Change and Disaster Management</td>
<td>Women and Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rights and Governance</td>
<td>Coastal and Char people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-till now</td>
<td>Policy Advocacy Governance</td>
<td>Civil Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Government policy makers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Media</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The size of the NGO sector in Bangladesh is remarkable; it consists of the following organizations:

- **Total NGO registered in Bangladesh are 58,000 according to Social Welfare ministry of Bangladesh. But all of them are not active, only 20,000 NGOs are active in Bangladesh.** (Daily Prothom Alo).
- **2161 NGOs registered with the NGO Affairs Bureau (NGOAB, 2012).**

Near about two million NGO workers have been working for NGOs in Bangladesh, and within this number a significant portion is female worker. In terms of GDP the NGO sector in Bangladesh is one of the world’s largest – 6%-8% of GDP is produced by the sector. No doubt, NGOs has played a pioneer role in the field of poverty alleviation, women empowerment and human development in Bangladesh.

Due to lack of professional education and skills, many criticisms have been observed about the NGO sector in Bangladesh. The Existing Gaps and Dilemma of Charitable Institutions, Religious Charity, Govt. Social Service, NGO Initiatives and Professional Social Work Education in Bangladesh has given Annex I.

Some common criticism of NGOs of Bangladesh has given below:

**Critics-1:** In the field of humanitarian action and response, there have also been strong criticisms of NGOs which have not lived up to expectations in providing assistance in
emergency situations, with critics pointing to institutional self-interest by individual NGOs, a lack of coordination leading to duplication of effort, limited understanding of local circumstances among international NGOs and a somewhat naive approach to the underlying causes of conflict and instability (Lewis and Kanji, 2009).

**Critics-2:** NGOs is that they impose their own agendas and become self-interested actors at the expense of the people they are in theory supporting. For example, NGOs may sap the potential of more radical grassroots action from social movements or organized political opposition by drawing such activity into the safe professionalized and often depoliticized world of development practice (Lewis and Kanji, 2009).

**Critics-3:** Hashemi (1995, cited from Lewis and Kanji, 2009)) described the incidents of local violence that resulted when an NGO fielded candidates from its own landless group membership for local elections, members of the local power structure responding with intimidation and violence.

**Critics-4:** Bangladesh civil society had non-governmental, voluntary and self-sustaining relationships and organizations long before the plethora of new NGOs arrived there. Such community-based arrangements and traditional leaders included the informal council of elders (often known as the panchayats), the shalish, the religious trusts, the local matbars, the landholders, religious leaders and even the money lenders. Also, such grass roots services included orphanages, schools, colleges, mosques, temples, churches and places of prayer and religious instruction. Whenever necessary, the rural leaders also lobby the politicians and bureaucrats for building roads, supplying drinking water, preventing flood, fighting epidemics and relief distribution during natural disaster. The large NGOs, well funded and well organized, have undercut those traditional leaders, relationships and organizations; though not democratically chosen and sometimes accused of hostility towards social
change and economic development, they command influence in the civil society, and still ready to assert themselves. (Zaman, 2012).

**Critics-5:** Indeed a dichotomy has been unfolding in Bangladesh between the Muslim ulama and the NGOs working as the intermediaries of the Western funding agencies. Conservative Muslims who look upon those voluntary organizations as cultural adversaries have challenged the NGOs. And in the last few years, in several towns and villages, the ulama have used fatwa to discourage the NGO work, particularly those supported by the Christian Missionaries accused of religious conversion of the poor people. The focal point of most fatwa had been the family, marriage and divorce, and purdah, which included women's personal status in relation to the rest of the community. The core disagreements between the religious leaders and the NGOs deserve a resolution through a dialogue between the two sides. Only an interactive acceptance will increase the NGO capacity to work for a social mobilization where women could participate without any serious hindrance from the conservative challengers. (Zaman, 2012).

**Why These Questions Raised Against NGOs?**

In Bangladesh, the recruitment of NGO staffs at grass root level to senior level come from any discipline without having academic background and professional skills of social work. Due to the lack of coordination in between the professional social work educational institutions and NGO sector of Bangladesh, as a result, the NGO workers have delivered their services through some conventional approaches and their own policies and procedures of concern NGOs. Finally due to lack of professional competency the mentioned criticism occurred, which has easily possible to minimize through appropriate using of social work practice. One of the good example of Levels of Development-Focused Practice in International Social Work provided by Richard J. Estes:
### Levels of Development-Focused Practice in International Social Work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Practice Levels</th>
<th>Major Focus Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual &amp; group empowerment</td>
<td>Individuals and groups learning, through self-help, mutual aid, and con-scientization strategies, how to perceive and act on the contradictions that exist in the social, political, and economic structures intrinsic to all societies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolution and peace building</td>
<td>Efforts directed at reducing (1) grievances between persons or groups or (2) asymmetric power relationships between members of more powerful and less powerful groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institution building</td>
<td>Refers both to the process of &quot;humanizing&quot; existing social institutions and that of establishing new institutions that respond more effectively to new or emerging social needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community building</td>
<td>Through increased participation and social animation of the populace, the process through which communities realize the fullness of their social, political, and economic potential; the process through which communities respond more equitably to the social and material needs of their populations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation building</td>
<td>The process of working toward the integration of a nation's social, political, economic, and cultural institutions at all levels of political organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region building</td>
<td>The process of working toward the integration of a geopolitical region's social, political, economic, and cultural institutions at all levels of social organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World building</td>
<td>The process of working toward the establishment of a new system of international relationships guided by the quest for world peace, increased social justice, the universal satisfaction of basic human needs, and for the protection of the planet's fragile ecosystem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Richard J. Estes, DSW, United States-Based Conceptualization of International Social Work Education, University of Pennsylvania, School of Social Policy and Practice

**The Ngo Workers: Need To Develop Them As Paraprofessional Social Worker**

According to the above mentioned discussion, it has proven that the paraprofessional social work is the major burning need for Bangladesh country context and it is easily possible to upgrade the existing NGO workers as paraprofessional social worker through appropriate training. A good example has already been conducted in Para Social Work Training Program in Tanzania, conducted by Susan Becker Ph.D., MPH, for addressing the needs of Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC) and their families.

**Best Practice of Develop Paraprofessional Social Worker in Bangladesh**
Eco Social Development Organization is one of the pioneer non-government organizations of Bangladesh with the leadership of professional social worker. ESDO has worked for with the vision of an equitable society free from all discrimination. ESDO has launched a program on 2006, named Promotion of Rights for Adibashis and DALITS Improvement Programme (PRADIP) for ensuring and promoting rights of extreme minorities of Bangladesh. The ESDO management has successfully promote the Paraprofessional social work and through this approach the project has successfully ensuring the rights and access of extreme minority and the PRADIP project has recognized by all concern stakeholders as one of the best performing project in terms of long term sustainability and appropriate way forward for inclusion of extreme minority in the society. 60 staff has involved with PRADIP project for delivering rights and services and the ESDO management conduct initially a 4 weeks training in light of social work methods and strategies as because those staffs are not come from social work discipline (ESDO, 2011). After successful training course, they have played the role of Paraprofessional social worker and creates enabling environment for extreme minority community. The details Critical Best Practice on Social Work: The PRADIP Project has given Annex II.

Conclusion

In Bangladesh, Social Work practices still now a big question. A big gap has existed in between Theory and Practice of social work. The graduates of social work not significantly involved with social practice. Due to the communication and understanding gap in between professional social work and other actors in social services field including of Charitable Institutions, Religious Charity, Govt. Social Service, and NGO Initiatives, as a result effective change and sustainability for the target audience still now questionable and less recognized by the state and concern stakeholders. In many cases, contradiction, overlapping and ill competition with mainstreamed institution (for example, local
government and rural conventional rural leaders feel less importance due to NGO intervention and in many cases NGOs are less interested to sensitized or involve them with development initiatives). The Professional Social work educators and the BCSWE can play the appropriate initiative for filling the gap. The paraprofessional social worker is the demand on reality for sustainable development of Bangladesh as well as the world.
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UTILISING SOCIAL MEDIA TO BUILD COLLABORATION WITH YOUNG PEOPLE IN “STOP VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN’S CAMPAIGN”

Miryam S. V. Nainggolan

Abstract

Violence against women (VAW) in Indonesia has reached worrying number and continues to increase. There are 395 cases of violence against women that happened in Jakarta alone, between January-March 2011. National Women Commission has also noted that there are 1299 victims of dating violence. VAW should be prevented because any form of violence against women (and girls) will hinder their potentials, not to mention will leave physical and psychological wound. Women are the source of future life and hurting them means hurting the next generation. Involving young people to be more aware of Violence Against Women and Girls is very strategic, combined with increasing more knowledge of appropriate bystander behaviors, will develop willingness to act as a bystander to step in and take action if the situation warrants. Pulih Foundation, an organization dealing with trauma recovery and psychosocial empowerment for women and children has been working since 2002 and has been very active to campaign against VAW as one of its activities. From November 2011 to June 2012, as partner of UN Women, it implemented a program of innovative campaign against VAW for young people (18 – 24 years of age) named “the Power of Social Media” in Jakarta region. Activities in the program are: 1) road show to senior high schools and universities and conduct workshops on VAW, photovoice and video advertising, and 2) public seminar about the same topics and competition on photovoice and video advertising for high school and university students.

Introduction

Violence against women (VAW) in Indonesia had reached enormous number and continues to increase in numbers. There are 395 violence against women cases happened only in Jakarta, between January-March 2011 according to Ninik Rahayu, commissioner of the the National Commission on Violence Against Women.

In 2011, the Women’s Crisis Center/WCC (Mitra Perempuan) had given assistance and service to 209 women who for the first time contacted the center regarding violence
cases in the areas of Jakarta, Bogor, Tangerang, Bekasi and others. This data is not included 1.403 women who called to the WCC Hotline Service to ask for information related to the issue of violence against women, such as: law and regulations, medical services for victims of VAW, institutions working on the VAW). The Pulih Foundation annual report of 2010 reported from all cases handled by the clinic of Pulih, 45.71% is domestic violence. Komnas Perempuan 2010 Annual Report recorded 863 cases of violence against women in 2010 which were committed by state officials and public figures. In addition to this, the report also notes that 105,103 cases of violence were handled by 384 service agencies in 2010.

This condition worsens by the increase of numbers of the discriminatory policies toward women and other minority groups. As stated in the national daily newspaper Kompas, March 8, 2011: "Since 1999 up until early March 2011 there were 195 discriminatory policies found at the national, provincial and regency level", said Arimbi Heroeputri from the Monitoring Division of the National Commission on Violence Against Women (Komnas Perempuan), while there are only 46 policies which in compliance with the constitution to end violence.

Violence against women should be prevented because any form of violence against women (and girls) will blocked their potentials, not to mention will leave physical and psychological wound. Women are the source of future life and hurting them means hurting the next generation.

Involving young people to be more aware of Violence Against Women and Girls is very strategic, combined with increasing more knowledge of appropriate bystander behaviors, will develop willingness to act as a bystander to step in and take action if the situation warrants.
Violence against Women

Until now, many people in our community remain viewed violence against women as a relatively minor social problem affecting only limited number of women. In case of Indonesia, although it has already the Law Number 23 Year 2004 about the Elimination of Domestic Violence (UU KDRT), as well as the State Ministry of Women’s Empowerment and Protection of Children, yet the mindset of many people including state officials, even at the high level, are still far from proper understanding of the concept gender based violence.

United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Agains Women - adopted by the General Assembly on 13 December 1993 – defined violence against women as any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life.

What Should Be Done: The Role of Civil Society and The Role of Social Media

Civil society is an area where citizens can work together hand in hand to achieve a range of different purposes related to the actual social issues in the community. In the context of Indonesia, civil society is usually perceived as those organizations in which citizens work together in order to push for democracy, particularly after the reformation in the year 1998.

Civil society organizations (CSOs) at the present in Indonesia have a very valuable role to play in empowering people and community that they are able to access their rights as well as to counterbalance the authority of the state and government in directing policy. CSOs usually organize people to support critical issues and interests and do some actions to make the state and government listen and respond to them. One strategic role which can play by CSO in dealing with the issue of violence against women is by raising public awareness.
As mentioned in the UN Resource Manual on “Strategies for Confronting Domestic Violence”, the goals of public awareness-raising campaigns are as the following:

- Raising public awareness of the existence and prevalence of violence
- Providing specific information on where to go for help
- Changing public attitudes towards the problem
- Promoting action to solve the problem
- Making victims and offenders aware of the role of the criminal justice system and providing other relevant information such as on rights under family law.

**Social Media.** To obtain information, education, news and other data, many people now are using electronic, including social media which is comparatively inexpensive and accessible to enable anyone to publish or access information. Social media is defined by Andreas Kaplan and Michael Haenlein as "a group of Internet-base applications that build on the ideological and foundations of Web 2.0 and that allow the creation and exchange of user-generated content." Social media are social software which mediate human communication. Social media is present everywhere and accessible once technologies are in place; this is enabled by scalable communication techniques. In the year 2012, Twitter, Facebook and YouTube noted as the most powerful sources for news updates. Using YouTube, the Korean singer Park Jae Sang, more popular as PSY, with his song and unique dance of “Gamnam Style” has successfully in reaching people in all ages in many countries all over the world. Jurnal http://jurnal.heck.in/gangnam-style in September 2012 reported that Psy’s video at YouTube had been seen 143 million times. Those three social medias were also optimally utilized by the candidates of Jakarta’s governor: Fauzi Bowo (Foke) and Joko Widodo (Jokowi) for their campaign in the September 2012 election.

Some characteristics of social media are:

1. Reachable; like industrial media, social media technologies provide scale and are capable
of reaching a global audience. Social media, by their nature, is more decentralized, less hierarchical, and personal.

2. Accessibility: social media tools are generally available to the public at little or no cost.

3. Usability: most social media production requires only modest reinterpretation of existing skills; anyone with access can operate the means of social media production.

4. Immediacy: social media can be capable of virtually instantaneous responses.

5. Permanence: social media can be altered almost instantaneously by comments or editing.

About Pulih Foundation

Founded on 24th of July 2002 by Kristi Poerwandari and Livia Iskandar-Dharmawan, both with background in psychology. Other humanitarian activists who also have psychological background and/or are experienced in handling victims of violence were also invited along: Saparinah Sadli, Irwanto, Ali Aulia and Karlina Supeli. They were all concerned about the small number of psychologists working with survivors of violence while in reality there are huge problems in the society accompanying, or as a result of political, social and economical changes occurring in Indonesia. This need became urgent when cases of violence increased in Indonesia, since the power change from the old regime of New Order until today. The vision of the foundation is “the realization of a society that is psychosocially prosperous and healthy, peaceful, free from fear and violence, democratic and has high respect for humanity, peace, human rights, social justice and gender equality values; through an extensive recovery process from violence and natural disasters.

Programs and Activities

Dealing with trauma recovery and psychosocial empowerment for women and children since 2002, the foundation has been very active to work on the issue of violence against women as one of its mission in various forms: campaign, develop psychoeducational materials, training and other ways of capacity building, direct service through
psychological clinic (counseling, therapy), community-based psychosocial programs, public discussion and media talk show.

In Jakarta, Pulih Foundation provides face-to-face counseling, outreach, hotline phone, and mail counseling to children, women, men & families suffering the impacts from violence, and if needed, giving guidance and providing written or oral expert witness during legal process. PULIH also provides psychological support to humanitarian workers and human rights defenders prone to secondary trauma and burn out/compassion fatigue from dealing with traumatized populations in their everyday work.

The latest program developed by the institution was a campaign on violence against women utilizing social media. From November 2011 to June 2012, as partner of UN Women, Pulih Foundation implemented a program of innovative campaign of violence against women (VAW) for young people (16 – 24 years of age) named “the Power of Social Media” in Jakarta region.

**Program: Campaign Of Increasing Awareness towards Violence against Young Women (Age Of 16 To 24): The Power Of Social Media**

The campaign, which aims to engage with young people aged 16-24, is called ‘Gerakan 5 Jari’ (‘Five Fingers Movement’) in reference to the ‘stop’hand gesture used in the regional UNiTE branding. The ‘five fingers’ concept will be used as a tool to communicate messages involving five points or steps. The campaign is using the slogan ‘Nyatakan Sekarang – Stop Kekerasan Terhadap Perempuan’ (‘Say it Now: STOP Violence Against Women’).

Objectives of the program are as follows:

- To increase awareness among the young people (age of 18-24) towards the existence of violence against women as well as what they can do to prevent it.
To increase the involvement of the youth in activities which aim to send messages that prevent violence against women through the familiar ways in their daily life.

To channel the young people to take actions in developing a creative campaign related to stop violence against women by giving them knowledge, guidance and technical skills.

**Program Activities**

- Road show, in the form of workshop, to five high schools and five universities, all in Jakarta; the content of the workshop are: violence against women (and girls), photovoice and video advertising.
- Public seminar for young people (age 18 to 24) about the same topics above.
- Competition of photovoice and video advertising aiming the five schools and five universities which have been participated in the workshop.

**Program Implementation and Results**

**Pre-condition: Press Conference**

Prior to the activities, the press conference, which is actually is also part of the campaign, was held in one big hotel in Jakarta to launch the campaign program on violence against women, worked together with Matari Advertising – one of the foundation’s partners. Forty five journalists attended the conference and the event received coverage in online and print media; articles or photos about the event and PULIH’s campaign were published in ten online news portals, including popular media outlets in Indonesia: Kompas, Suara Pembaruan and Media Indonesia, Tempo.com. It is explained during the press conference about “the campaign” which involved road shows to 5 high schools and 5 universities in Jakarta and Greater Jakarta, including a small public workshop of digital advertising and photo-voice with the theme of ending violence against women and girls, and as the ending there will be a public workshop and contest for digital advertising and photo-voice with the theme of ending violence against women and girls. To attract significant attention from the
target group, renowned film director and screenwriter Riri Riza and documentary photographer Poriaman Sitanggang will be presented at the public workshop and acted as Jury for the competition. PULIH Foundation also campaigned the program through social media – Facebook (Gerakan 5 Jari) and Twitter (@gerakan5jari).

**Activities and Results**

1. Roadshow Workshops on violence against women (and girls), photovoice and video advertising to five Highschools and five Universities.
   - Workshop at SMA 3 (High school) in Central Jakarta, attended by 26 students of 10th and 11th grade, boys and girls.
   - At SMA 46 (High school) in South Jakarta, workshop was participated by students from 10th and 11 th grade, male and female, with total 70 people.
   - At SMA 78 (High school), West Jakarta, participated by 110 students from 10th and 11th grade.
   - Workshop at SMA Cakra Buana (High school) in Depok (greater Jakarta) was attended by 139 students from grade 10 and 11, boys and girls.
   - At SMA 70 (High school) in South Jakarta, workshop has attracted 102 students to participate, also from grade 10 and 11, boys and girls.
   - Workshop at Pancasila University in Depok (greater Jakarta) was participated by 86 students from Faculties of Psychology, Communication and Tourism.
   - At Bina Nusantara University, 130 students from Faculty of Design Faculty were participated --At Trisakti University, 64 students from Medical and Dentistry Faculty attended the workshop.
   - Workshop at Tarumanegara was attended by 101 students from Faculties of Psychology and Communication.

2. Public workshop with special speakers
The public workshop was held in three sessions: session 1 was presentation and discussion about Against Women/Girls; session two was a skill training about Photo-voice, and session 3 was skill training about Digital/Video Advertising. Participants of the workshop varied from high school and university students, organization focusing on woman, organization of Jakarta poverty community, health ministry, organization for rehabilitation and recovery of addiction, and labor organization. Activities ended with announcement about Photo-voice and Digital/Video Advertising competition which would be informed through social media: Facebook of Gerakan 5 Jari and Twitter @gerakan5jari.

3. Photovoice and Digital/Video Advertising Competition Through Social Media (facebook and twitter) and Press Writing Contest

Overall this activity was getting positive responses. From the competition, both photo voice and digital advertising/video, it is found some interesting and important information, as follow:

- Majority of the participants are males; this was actually not planned, as it was considered that this activity would be attractive for both males and females. In fact, photo and video competition created more interest to males among the target group.

- The photos and videos produced, unfortunately still represent a very strong stereotyping of men and women in the society. Females in the photos or videos as a victim represent as someone who is passive, weak and helpless, staying at home, waiting. Males are pictured as ‘macho’, very powerful, active, earner/bread winner and those who can change the situation (from violence to non-violence). It can say these photos and videos are representing the current condition of the society. The result were also lacking in communicating the vicious circle of violence, where there is actually honeymoon period and the violence can happen over and over again in higher intensity. None of the photos
and videos really communicated about how to break the cycle and leave the partner if there is a sign of violence - in the case of intimate partner violence. Most violence shown were physical abuse, which might be the easiest to be visualized, only few of them that shown verbal abuse.

**Conclusion and Lessons Learnt from the Program**

The roadshow to schools as well as universities to spread out the VAW issue is much more effective than expecting them to look for the information themselves. By proactively approaching the students, there are numbers of young people are exposed to this issue. To approach young people, this program implemented two ways: hard approach in a mandatory discussion and soft approach, which is through “their way “ of communication nowadays. They are aware and understand about violence against women, however the root cause which is changing the paradigm on how they see males and females, is something that needs to be continuously educated. Social media in Indonesia especially twitter and facebook showed the effective spreading of information in short time periods and wide coverage, and more in touch with youth “attitude”. Facebook Gerakan 5 Jari Fanpage : 247, Member facebook group : 283, Twitter @gerakan5 jari Followers : 550

However, high numbers of participation of young people in Gerakan 5 jari campaign in social media is not guarantee high numbers of participation on other activity related. The VAW issue is still perceived as “distance” issue. Very limited media wanted to be media partner. Therefore, Pulih Foundation try to use other channel for disseminate information, gather followers and invite to join Gerakan 5 Jari activity (friends network and social media), which was proven more effective. Photovoice and Digital Advertising competition seems to give barrier towards girls to take part. Ninety percent of the competition participants is male participant. However, this condition becomes an advantage to expose young males to the
VAW issue. It was not easy to find endorsers that fit with the topic, have clean track records or even supporters of the issue, and willing to give their time for free for social purposes.

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THE PLIGHT OF AINU, INDIGENOUS PEOPLE OF JAPAN

Vincent Mitsuharu Okada

Abstract

Since the 1980s, a worldwide movement, initiated by the United Nations together with international indigenous peoples’ rights and advocacy organizations, has drawn attention to the rights of indigenous peoples. The Ainu of Japan are one such group. More than one hundred years of assimilation and discrimination policies, along with the Japanese public’s ignorance of the Ainu people’s cultural values and traditional ways of living, have combined with the enforcement of laws and policies that have caused the Ainu people’s considerable suffering. The Indigenous Peoples Summit, held prior to the G8 summit in Hokkaido in 2008, alongside many other efforts, led to the Japanese government’s recognition of the Ainu as indigenous people for the first time. A resolution was passed to create a new law to help the Ainu recover their status, regain their culture, and rebuild relationships with non-Ainu people in Japan. My research aims to examine how the Ainu understand and define their struggle as people, and studies the extent of the Ainu people’s awareness of their agency, identity, and the survival of their culture. It also focuses on exploring what the Ainu want for future generations, and the actions that they are willing to take to secure their future and promote the implementation of Japan’s Ainu recovery policy. My study hopes to achieve an in-depth understanding of the Ainu’s values, beliefs, interactions, processes, and historical prospects, as well as their levels of well-being and related macro-implications. In this paper, I will briefly summarize the history of Hokkaido and the Ainu, in terms of a series of influential policies, major issues, and findings from the data collection process. I also plan to discuss difficulties in political advocacy, policy-making process, education, and social work structure in Japan, with regard to minority/indigenous populations.

Introduction

A major issue in the twenty-first century is the recognition of indigenous rights and the preservation of indigenous peoples’ unique cultures around the world. Since the 1980s, a worldwide movement—initiated by the United Nations together with international indigenous peoples’ rights and advocacy organizations—has drawn attention to the
education, culture and tradition, protection, self-determination and land rights of indigenous peoples. The Ainu are one such indigenous group.

When the Law for the Promotion of Ainu Culture and the Dissemination and Advocacy of Knowledge in Respect to Ainu Traditions (Ainu bunka shinko-ho) was passed in 1997, the Ainu were finally freed from the term kyudojin (former aborigine), which had stigmatized them for more than a century. In June 2008, prior to the G8 summit in Hokkaido, twenty-one indigenous groups from all over the world gathered for the very first Indigenous Peoples Summit. There, they discussed the gaps in policymaking, education, and environment protection and global economics realities, and submitted a declaration to the participating nations of the G8 asking to be heard. This summit, among many other efforts, led to the Japanese government’s 2008 recognition of the Ainu as an indigenous people for the first time in history. As a result, a resolution was passed to create new legislation to help them recover their status, regain their culture, and rebuild relationships between Ainu and non-Ainu people in Japan.

Over a hundred years of assimilation and discriminatory policies, together with the Japanese public’s ignorance of the Ainu people’s cultural values and traditional ways of living, caused the Ainu to experience considerable suffering. In 2009, the Japanese government established the Ainu Seisaku no Arikata ni Kansuru Yushiki-sha Kondan-kai—an advisory panel of well-informed experts on Ainu policy that includes Ainu members, the prime minister, and the governor of Hokkaido Prefecture—as a means to improve the quality of life for the Ainu.

The advisory panel’s initial report highlights the importance of ethnic harmony. The concept of ethnic harmony creates a model by which the members of a modernized, multicultural nation can respect one another’s individuality, culture, and dignity. The Japanese government has finally recognized the Ainu as an indigenous people, and together
with the new policy changes, all of Japanese society should follow suit by living with respect and appreciation for diversity. However, despite the high-level discussions that continue at present, no corresponding legislation has been created. In this paper, I will briefly summarize the history of the Ainu, in terms of a series of influential policies, major issues, and findings from the research I am conducting. I also discuss difficulties in education, political advocacy, policy-making process, and social work structure in Japan, with regard to minority/indigenous populations.

**History of the Ainu**

Historians assert that by the thirteenth century (Uemura, 2008) the Ainu had developed their culture and settlements in the northern island of Hokkaido, the northern part of Honshu (Japan’s main island), the southern part of Sakhalin (called Karafuto in Ainu and Japanese), and the Kuril Islands (Chishima in Japanese). Their settlements—called *ainu mosir*, which means “great calm lands where Ainu reside”—were typically located near the ocean. The chief methods of earning a livelihood were fishing and hunting. Their language and beliefs were distinguishable from those of the Japanese. However, because the Ainu language did not employ any method of writing, much about the history and origin of these people remains unknown (Ainu Minzoku Hakubutsukan, 1993).

The Ainu began to experience the negative ramifications of political maneuvering between Japan and Russia in the late nineteenth century. The Japanese government had sensed that the Russian government would also seek to extend its holdings, chiefly in undeveloped territory (Uemura, 2008). Japan and Russia negotiated the borderline between their newly claimed territories. Consequently, those who were forced to leave the homeland were not treated well in their new environments (Uemura, 2008).

Japan claimed that undeveloped Hokkaido was part of its territory. In 1869, the central government sent commissioners to study the land and create a plan for the
development of Hokkaido. Under the Census Registration Act of 1871, the Ainu were all registered in the census and were forced to use Japanese last names. Essentially, this act was an assimilation policy of ethnic cleansing. Their language, culture, and traditional ways of living were prohibited. The central government also wanted to promote emigration from the mainland to Hokkaido, and therefore enacted a series of laws to allocate land for development in the late nineteenth century.

The Hokkaido Former Aborigines Protection Act was passed in 1899 for the purpose of “protecting” people in Hokkaido, including the Ainu. This act ignored the fact that the Ainu livelihood depended on fishing and hunting. Prior to this act, in the late 1870s and early 1880s, their traditional fishing and hunting activities were banned by the government in order to promote farming and controlled production. The act’s main purpose was to allocate land to the people in Hokkaido, including the Ainu, to promote farming. This act also set a quota in which the land given would be taken away if success could not be demonstrated within fifteen years. Most of the Ainu, who were not accustomed to farming, did not succeed in their attempts. Those who failed at farming were sent to factories and mines, where they worked as poorly paid laborers (Uemura, 2008, The Ainu Minzoku Hakubutsukan, 1993).

Another purpose of the act was to promote education. Teaching was conducted in the Japanese language. Some Ainu children were forced to move to Tokyo to be educated, but the curriculum was intended to ensure cooperation with the central government. Such training enforced assimilation. In the name of protection, the 1899 act deprived the Ainu of their traditions, culture, land, language, and identity (Fumoto, 2002; The Ainu Association of Hokkaido, 2008).

**Current Issues**

In the past, the Japanese government has enacted numerous “protective” policies for people in Hokkaido. Often, such policies helped *Wajin* (the term used to describe the
dominant ethnic group of Japan) immigrants who had moved to Hokkaido from the main island of Honshu in the late nineteenth century improve their quality of life by providing land, assistance, farming tools, and educational opportunities. However, the traditional customs of the Ainu were suddenly prohibited by outsiders. The government, without negotiation or consideration for the Ainu culture (Tahara, 2006), allocated the land of *ainu mosir*, the land of the Ainu. The Ainu were thus forced to assimilate into Japanese culture. Their unique culture and identity were marginalized, and their voices were silenced by the *Wajin*-dominant society. All this made life in a harsh environment even more challenging for the Ainu people.

Many Ainu, over a hundred years of such policies, have grown up ignorant or ashamed of their cultural heritage (Uemura, 2008). The Japanese government’s assimilation policies, along with their ensuing consequences, created discrimination toward the Ainu people (Uemura, 2008). The Ainu Association of Hokkaido (2008) believes there are many Ainu who do not want to identify themselves as such, as well as parents who have never told their children that they are Ainu. The available data from 2006 shows that 24,000 people in Hokkaido and 2,700 people in the Tokyo metropolitan area described themselves as being either Ainu or of Ainu ancestry. However, there could be more than 100,000 Ainu currently living in Japan, including those who do not want to identify themselves as Ainu (Ainu Association of Hokkaido, 2008).

The late Shigeru Kayano (1993), an Ainu and former politician, pointed out that the Japanese public’s ignorance of Ainu cultural values and traditional ways of living, combined with the enforcement of laws and policies in the past, caused the Ainu a considerable amount of suffering and struggle (Uemura, 2008). Even though the rate of Ainu respondents who have experienced discrimination at work and school has declined dramatically over the past decade due to media exposure that helped create a more positive image of the Ainu and their
culture (Uemura, 2008; Hokkaido Prefectural Government, 2008), low self-esteem, closeted identity, and feelings of shame continue to be problematic (Uemura, 2008; Foundation of Research and Promotion of Ainu Culture, 2005). These issues make it difficult to research and assess the Ainu, and could possibly delay any solution to their various issues and problems (Uemura, 2008).

**Research and Data Collection**

I have been conducting research to examine how the Ainu perceive and describe their standing as an indigenous people in Japan; to learn about the Ainu’s understanding of their agency, identity, and the survival of their culture; and to assess what the Ainu want for future generations as well as the actions they are willing to take to secure that future and promote the implementation of Japan’s Ainu recovery policy. By gathering their points of view, the study aims to deepen understanding of Japan’s implementation of existing Ainu-related policies. I am hoping their stories help develop a thorough understanding of the Ainu’s expectations for future legislation.

Data collection sources included one-to-one structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews and group discussions. Fifteen individuals were interviewed between April and July 2012, and asked to describe their life stories and memories of their family and community. Interviewees were comprised of a range of people: both male and female, activists, urban residents, suburban residents, and regular association members and non-association members. All interviews and group discussions were conducted in Japanese. The method of the main interview session involved narrative and/or storytelling.

**Findings**

When telling their stories, the interviewees talked about their transitions and positions of identities, attitudes, and perceptions of well-being in a historical, sociopolitical context. They mentioned the coping mechanisms they had used throughout life. At the end of the
interview sessions, almost all interviewees discussed hopes and expectations for future generations and shared their thoughts regarding how to build a place in society for the Ainu and promote their rights for future generations. The interviewees also shared their concerns and challenges. Even though the advisory panel emphasizes that addressing gaps in education, socio-economic status, and quality of life are crucial, many interviewees did not mention these factors. Instead, they spoke more about helping shift the general public’s attitudes toward and awareness of multiculturalism through educational reform and new legislation. While the interviewees emphasized the importance of incorporating the Ainu’s voices in the process of fulfilling their unmet societal needs, a lack of solidarity among Ainu communities and perceptional differences between generations were indicated as obstacles that would hinder the implementation of future legislation as well as the process of identifying steps necessary for further development.

Implications for Social Work/Social Welfare

The International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW) supports the principles of the Draft UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, and the preservation of human rights is a keystone in the profession of social work/social welfare. The statement interprets that professionals in the social work field must respect the dignity and inherent worth of all people, work to preserve each person’s well-being, and work for social justice in all cases, including physical, economic, psychological, emotional, and spiritual justice.

As I conducted my field research in Japan, I realized that there are a few areas that Japanese social workers could take more initiative in, which I identify as follows: 1) establishing a better structure to assess the needs of the Ainu population and/or ethnic minority groups; and 2) becoming advocates to improve the quality of life for the Ainu and/or ethnic minority groups. In order to achieve these goals, a deeper understanding
Regarding the situation and issues surrounding the Ainu and other ethnic minority groups in Japan is encouraged.

Currently, there is not an adequate structure in place that enables Japanese social workers to assess the Ainu’s needs. There are a few guidance counselors working for the city of Sapporo via the Hokkaido Ainu Association, however, they are not licensed social workers. There is no system to evaluate how the available social services to the Hokkaido Ainu Association members work. The Hokkaido Prefecture government and Hokkaido University’s Center for Ainu and Indigenous Studies conduct surveys on Hokkaido Ainu’s living conditions. These services are available only in Hokkaido, and as a result, we still do not know much about Ainu living in the Tokyo area.

After conducting the interviews, I strongly felt that my study and experience should be expanded to support the needs and rights of the Ainu. Social workers have the capacity to become advocates for discussion, negotiation, and agreement between the Ainu community and the Japanese government and society. Educating social workers to develop a diverse, multicultural perspective within their profession will be crucial.

Conclusion

Continued discussion and specific implementation plans will be crucial for Japan as it strives to become a true multicultural nation. By establishing an adequate working structure that considers the needs of diverse populations, social workers could significantly affect the development of future Ainu-related legislation. Furthermore, social worker could help develop and shift mainstream attitudes regarding multiculturalism and help ensure that future policy involves the needs of local communities, is more responsive to social problems, and better reflects the values of inclusion, fairness, diversity, and equal opportunity. Through my continuous research, I would like to collaborate with the associations of Japanese social
workers and become an advocate of policies and action that improves living conditions in the Ainu community.

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SAFE INJECTING PRACTICES AMONG INJECTING DRUG USERS IN PENANG

Mohd Syaiful Nizam Abu Hassan and Azlinda Azman

Abstract

Injecting drug use is an expanding issue in more than 135 countries. Globally, there are between two to three million Injecting Drug Users (IDUs) that are infected with HIV. Despite the efforts of law enforcement, education and treatment, there are still those who continue to take drugs through injection. Therefore, the risk reduction program (Harm Reduction) such as the Needle and Syringe Exchange Program (NSEP) provides a series of services such as supplying injecting equipment to IDUs. To what extent is the safe injection practices practiced by IDUs in the NSEP program? This paper will examine the behavioral changes of IDUs who participated in the NSEP. A total of 10 IDUs were selected as respondents. Study finding showed that the level of awareness among many IDUs is increasing. Despite certain weaknesses that IDUs encountered from time to time, the ability of social workers to help change the risk behaviors suggests the importance of the role of social workers.

Introduction

Problem of the spread of HIV / AIDS is an issue that plagues many countries in the world. The epidemic is one of the epidemic and not dangerous for humans to have a cure to this day. Malaysia Government are committed to the efforts to reduce the spread of this epidemic because HIV / AIDS is a huge loss to the country, particularly in terms of economic and social development. Therefore, the government, through the agency of the Ministry of Health has introduced a needle exchange program (NSEP) in an effort to curb the spread of HIV / AIDS. This case study will examine the changes the behavior of injecting drug users (IDU) in the needle and syringe exchange program (NSEP).

Globally, HIV / AIDS is now the world's fourth leading cause of death after heart disease, stroke and acute lower respiratory (UNAIDS & WHO, 2011). Hence, it needs serious attention because of HIV / AIDS can be spread regardless of age, gender and race. High-risk behavior of sharing needles and syringes is the largest contributor in the cause of
drug use is an issue that is expanding rapidly in more than 135 countries. Globally, there are
between 2 to 3 million IDUs are infected with HIV. Despite the efforts of law enforcement,
education and treatment but there are still those who continue to take drugs by injection. Risk
of HIV / AIDS are also derived from IDU itself as a lack of awareness about the risks of HIV
/ AIDS during injecting drug use (Training Program for Police: Effective Strategies to
Reduce HIV / AIDS, 2006).

Therefore, the risk reduction program (Harm Reduction) as Needle and Syringe
Exchange Programme (NSEP), providing a series of services such as equipment to IDUs
inject a new, clean and sterile. More than 40 countries have NSEP program in the world.

Research Questions

To what extent safe injection practices in the context of the use of injecting
equipment such as needles and syringes, sterile practiced by injecting drug users (IDU) in the
NSEP program?

Objectives of the Study

1. To know the effectiveness of safe injection practice IDU inject their activities.
2. Is also used syringes safely.

Importance of the Study

Harm reduction program has been practiced in other countries and the effectiveness
of programs, especially in high-risk behavior change aspect has to be seen as a result. In the
Malaysian context, harm reduction programs recently implemented within the scope of the
needle and syringe exchange programs as well as the substitute drug methadone program.
The research conducted is an early exploration using grounded theory in looking at behavior
change that focuses on the behavior of IDUs inject in a safe manner during the NSEP
program.
Limitations of this research study can not be used across the board for the purpose of generalization because this research involved only eight respondents as informants. Undoubtedly, this research is a qualitative study in-depth but this research does not reflect the overall behavior of IDUs in Penang. This research is also affecting other groups with demographic and socio-economic backgrounds are different.

This study was also limited with a time limit. NSEP program is a new program implemented in Malaysia, so researchers can collect data only about a year for IDU were enrolled in the program in Penang NSEP. More than six months is a period of consistent behavior of IDU but IDU behavioral enrichment-related information in the NSEP program was limited.

**Review of the Work**

The first AIDS case was reported in 1986 and since then, there was a sharp increase in the number of cases of reported cases (Goh et al). By June 2005, the report shows HIV cases of 67,528, 10,024 and 7,651 AIDS cases people have died of AIDS since the epidemic of HIV infection / AIDS in Malaysia in 1986. Malaysia has reached emergency levels in anticipation of 18 new cases of HIV infection, three cases of AIDS and three reports of deaths due to AIDS every day (Chua Soi Lek, 2006).

Among the factors that led to the spread of HIV / AIDS cases in Malaysia is an activity shared needles among drug users and unsafe sex. Generally, Malaysia is not a drug producing country and it has shown a similar trend in recent years. However, the impact of the geographical position near the Golden Triangle (Burma, Laos and Thailand) and some Southeast Asian countries that produce heroin, amphetamine and some other drugs has resulted in Malaysia vulnerable to drug abuse problems (Reid, Adeeba Kamarulzaman, Sangeeta Kaur Sran , 2005). Drug trafficking to Malaysia by golden triangle going by road across the border of Malaysia and Thailand sea route (National Narcotics Agency, 2001).
A doping problem in Malaysia is not a new thing. Drug abuse begins with taking opium in the early 18th century (Spencer and Navaratnam 1981). Behavior change of drug users sucks to inject is the beginning of an epidemic of HIV infection in Malaysia (UNAIDS and UNODC 2000). Intravenous drug use was the mode or the mode of transmission of HIV in the IDU community in Malaysia. Behavior of injecting drug use occurs under pressure from peers, heroin price increases, reduction heroin purity, heroin shortage in the market and increase feelings of euphoria desire (Reid, Adeeba Kamarulzaman, Sangeeta Kaur Sran, 2005).

Related studies in view IDU behavior change, done by Vertefeuille, Mark, Tun, Huettner, Strahdee and Vlahov (2000). This study was a quantitative study of data collection twice in 1994 and 1997 among IDUs involved with NSEP in Baltimore. Chi-square statistics and Paired T-Test is used to observe the behavior of the difference between the two data collection. As a result of the study found that behavior such as reduction of syringe borrowing from other IDU.

The study, conducted by Guydish, Brown, Edgington, Edney and Garcia (1999) which is to see the difference IDU involved in the NSEP program is not involved with the NSEP program in terms of high-risk behavior. Available IDU involved with NSEP less practice high-risk behavior than those not involved. As a result of these studies, it was found that the IDU is less sharing needles with other IDUs.

**Research Methodology**

Researchers will explain the research design, selection of informants, equipment used and data collection procedures include data sources, primary data collection, the data collection, data recording and data analysis methods.

Researchers have chosen to conduct a study in qualitative terms. Design Grounded theory was chosen because is relevant in the process of obtaining data to answer the research
questions. In the form of qualitative research grounded theory, researchers go into the field with an open mind without centric theories are rather based on knowledge of the studies that have been done. Directly, this study will use in-depth interview techniques (indepth interviews) to obtain information related to research well.

**The informant selection**

In this study, the respondents selected were injecting drug users in needle and syringe exchange program (NSEP) more than six months. This selection is done because the researchers wanted to see change behavior of injecting drug users in needle and syringe exchange program (NSEP). Period of six months, is a consistent period saw changes behavior of injecting drug users (Part Monitoring and Assessment Program NSEP Malaysian AIDS Council, 2006).

In session form a relationship that builds rapport with the respondent, the session went well because the respondent has been identified by researchers a month before the research or data collection is done. Respondents first identified as a client in NSEP program at the Penang. Researchers have also stated on interviews carried out do not have any form of material compensation or money. Researchers have also expressed assurance that the information or the answers provided by respondents will be kept secret and confidential. Researchers also state the full name of the respondent will not be highlighted in the report or findings later.

Researchers also pointed out to the respondent that if the sample does not want to answer sensitive questions, the respondent was entitled to no answer and respondents are also entitled to terminate the interview is being conducted at any time. Researchers also talked about the answers given by the respondents to accurately and honestly will help researchers to see changes in the behavior of injecting drug users (IDUs) in Needle And Syringe Exchange Programme (NSEP) and the researchers were able to form a suitable intervention
in the form of behaviors that are shaped to reduce harm among injecting drug users in Malaysia. Respondents also set the time in the range of 45 to 60 minutes for each interview session will be conducted. In the explanation stated, were selected have agreed on the terms and warranties made by the researchers.

Method in qualitative research are usually not for the purpose of generalization. Often it intended to pursue the case with the appropriate data through in-depth interviews. Therefore, the selection of informants is limited when compared with quantitative methods that require many number of respondents. In the context of the research study will do the number of respondents is a total of ten injecting drug users.

Penang was chosen as the area for researchers to get respondents. The main reason for the selection of respondents in this region as Penang is the first state pioneered the NSEP program since the program's inception in early 2006 again.

**Tools Used In Conducting Research**

Tape recordings will be used as a tool to record the data. Accordingly researchers will obtain prior consent from informants before recording data. Recording of this data will take into account the rights of confidentiality of informants. Each copy of the transcripts that have been recorded to be filed for each informant with a specific code to avoid confusion or mistake in the later analysis. Each copy will be kept in a safe place to ensure the confidentiality of informants.

**Data Collection Procedures**

**Source of data.** Primary research data is primary data that the data obtained in-depth interviews with selected informants. While secondary data, it is derived from daily reports outreach workers and case workers. Secondary data will be used in support of the information from the primary data will be analyzed.
**Primary data collection.** In a study to be performed, the primary data collection is done by performing in-depth interviews. The methodology is used because researchers want to see the reality of the situation informants in depth, exploring feelings and thoughts. To facilitate and smooth the acquisition of relevant information researchers also chose to use a semi-structural interview to obtain explanations, clarification and specific examples from informants.

**Data collection period.** In a study to be conducted, the researcher provides approximately three months to collect the data. In the period from the researchers themselves note, case workers and outreach workers will be collected once. Prescribed period include researchers need to interview informants in key stages of the interview.

**Recording of data.** Prior to data recording is done, the informant will be informed of the purposes of this study, the findings only for academic purposes, the processes that will be experienced by the informants during data recording is done and interview methods to be used. Researchers will collect data in stages of three stages. In the first set of data will be collected and analyzed based on the research question. In the second set of data will be collected based on the first set of analyzes. In the third set of data obtained will then be analyzed again until satisfactory theory for researchers.

**Data Analysis**

At this point the data collected will be analyzed each time after the completion of the interview. The reduction process will see the concepts that emerged from each of the informants who were interviewed. In the meantime, this stage, researchers will filter the information to find a particular theme that is submitted by the informant and differentiate the result of another informant. Then each of the categories of data are to be processed horizontally to identify themes that have similarities. The same theme will be broken for the scope of the reaction and the researchers were able to facilitate access to a theme when
researchers want to do analysis or review. The themes available are reviewed by a supervisor or a specialist to determine the reliability of the findings.

**Survey Findings**

**Safe injection practice in the context of the frequency of sharing needles and syringes that have been used by others**

Once the researchers focused on the frequency of respondents used needles or syringes that have been used by others before NSEP program carried out, thus researchers have focused on analyzing the data to see the results after the program was conducted NSEP.

After NSEP program is launched and the range of services provided and prepared, behavior-frequency high-risk behavior in the context of a needle that has been used by another IDUs also experienced a positive change of behavior risk reduction. What happens is investigated eight respondents identified were experiencing behavior changes which respondents were categorized never in the context of using a needle that has been used by another IDUs while in the NSEP program in Penang.

Themes that exist in the frequency of using a needle that has been used by another IDUs after the program was conducted NSEP is behavior that never share needles or use other IDUs. This is directly related to the theme of the main objectives of the NSEP program to reduce harm in activities for IDUs shared needles that do not share needles.

These research findings support research by Vertefeuille, Mark, Tun, Huettner, Strahdee and Vlahov (2000) also associated with IDUs behavior change. This study was a quantitative study of data collection twice in 1994 and 1997 among IDUs involved with NSEP in Baltimore. Chi-square statistics and Paired T-Test is used to observe the behavior of the difference between the two data collection. As a result of the study found that behavior such as reduction of syringe borrowing from other IDUs.
His research findings have also supported research by Guydish, Brown, Edgington, Edney and Garcia (1999) that is to see the difference IDUs involved in the NSEP program not affected by NSEP program in terms of high-risk behavior. Available IDUs involved with NSEP less practice high-risk behavior than those not involved. As a result of these studies, it was found that the IDUs is less sharing needles with other IDUs.

In addition to use a new needle for the respondents while in the NSEP program, the researcher also make research has centered on the frequency of respondents shared needles and syringes that have been used by others before NSEP program run.

Frequency of high-risk behavior in the context of a needle that has been used by another IDUs also experienced a positive behavior changes. Before the NSEP program run all eight respondents who were interviewed stated that they never used a needle that has been used by others.

Frequency of using other IDUs needle showed a high level of frequency which in this research, five respondents identified practice behaviors risky to use a needle that has been used by another IDU with high frequency which can be categorized or classified by researchers as always practiced sharing of needles and syringes.

For frequencies in the categories that are classified as rare in practice the sharing of needles and syringes, three samples were identified. So three of these were identified with a rare behavior in the frequency of sharing needles and syringes that have been used by others before NSEP program run.

Not with standing category classification made, all eight respondents was found to share needles to inject drugs. Thus, the probability of being infected by HIV virus and diseases of other blood-borne infections such as hepatitis are higher percentages before NSEP program run. This research supports the study conducted by UNAIDS and WHO.
(2005), where high-risk behavior of sharing needles and syringes is a major contributor to the spread of HIV / AIDS among injecting drug users. Frequency giving used needles to others. In the theme of safe injection practices, the researchers also saw the danger of consciousness give needles were used by the respondents to other injecting drug users. Thus, researchers have focused on the behavior of respondents in giving needles used by respondents to the other person while the respondents registered in NSEP program.

Relevance sharing needles occur when there is a situation giving needle to another IDU. This behavior is classified as high risk when an IDU provide used needles to IDUs who need a needle for drug injection activities. In the report pertaining to HIV and drug users, showed us that, needle sharing activities among IDU is the highest factor in the way of HIV infection in Malaysia in general. When NSEP program is run, the impact of changes have occurred which made this research, a total of eight respondents have experienced behavioral changes associated with giving used needles to other IDU.

Researchers have identified all eight respondents involved in this study had never used needles give to their friends or other IDU after NSEP program is carried out, this is an important theme in the research that exists, harm reduction in the context of what happened after the NSEP program implemented is a detrimental behavior changes such as giving used needles to other IDU has no longer applied because many clients in the NSEP program in Penang is always provided with clean needles and sterile. His research findings have also supported research by Guydish, Brown, Edgington, Edney and Garcia (1999) that is to see the difference IDUs involved in the NSEP program not affected by NSEP program in terms of high-risk behavior.

**Frequency of injecting in a day**

This research has also discovered a number of categories for injecting frequency response in a day, from as low as two times to five times a day. In this research, the
researchers have identified two frequency respondents injected with four and five times a day. For category two and three times a day for injecting drugs, researchers have identified five respondents. Only one respondent identified inject three to five times a day. This suggests, half of the respondents in this research has been to adopt behavior to inject an average of two and three times a day.

Total injected frequency is influenced by several key factors, such as finance and quality heroin. Seven respondents were identified for the frequency of injecting in a day is the financial factor, where the average respondent has stated about the money or budget plays an important role in influencing the behavior of the frequency of injecting drugs in a day. In this research, only one of the respondents stated that the factors that influence the quality of heroin in connection with frequency of behaviours inject drugs in a day. Notwithstanding the frequency of injecting behavior is very much influenced by the respondent's financial resources. When money is on many levels then inject activity will become more frequent in a day. On the other hand if the finance is in the slightest degree the frequency of injecting behavior will be less in a day. Second is the quality of heroin injecting influence on the frequency behavior of the day. This happens when each dose of heroin taken are of good quality and longer imaginary individuals who take it. On the other hand if the quality was not so good then heroin ecstasy period will be short. Thus, an individual will get the next dose to continue to be in effect unreal but the dose will be needed the money to acquire them.

This research study done by pushing Vertefeuille, Mark, Tun, Huettner, Strahdee and Vlahov (2000) also associated with IDUs behavior changes. This study was a quantitative study of data collection twice in 1994 and 1997 among IDUs involved with NSEP in Baltimore. Chi-square statistics and Paired T-Test is used to observe the behavior of the difference between the two data collection. As a result of the study found that behavior such as reduction in total mean injecting has occurred. Instead the findings of this research have
shown that the frequency of injecting rather than because of their access to needles but by financial factors and quality factors of heroin. Injecting frequency decreases when the quality of heroin was at a good quality and vice versa. Injecting frequency will also decrease when financial resources are not strong even in the context of the "euphoria" has yet to arrive. So, IDUs had to suppress the desire involved in this situation.

**Frequency giving used needles to others**

In the theme of safe injection practices, the researchers also saw the danger of consciousness give needles were used by respondents to other injecting drug users. Thus, researchers have focused on the behavior of respondents in giving needles used by respondents to the other person while the respondents registered in NSEP programs.

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study of data collection twice in 1994 and 1997 among IDUs involved with NSEP in Baltimore. Chi-square statistics and Paired T-Test is used to observe the behavior of the difference between the two data collection. As a result of these studies found that such behavior lends decrease needles and syringes that have been used to other IDU have occurred.

**Frequency use new needles or syringes that are not used after the NSEP program run**

High-risk behavior that can be seen a positive turnaround is to use a needle to inject new frequency after NSEP program run. Use new needles for IDUs is very important to reduce damage to the vein during injection drug activities performed. Besides reducing damage to the vein, use a new needle is very important to ensure that used needles are put in 'sterile' and not contaminated by any virus which can be transmitted through blood, such as HIV or hepatitis.

After NSEP program, it was found that the eight respondents have adopted behaviors that reduce the risk in the context of the use of new needles in drug injection activities they are doing. Behavior changes involves the respondents in this research include a respondent who use injection practices maintain a clean and sterile needles.

Findings of this study support research by Guydish, Brown, Edgington, Edney and Garcia (1999) was to compare the IDUs involved in NSEP with NSEP not involved with risky behavior aspects, sexual and NSEP potential negative impact. As a result of these studies, it was found that the IDU is less sharing of needles and prefer to own more than five syringes.

This section has shown us that the themes that exist in the frequency of using a needle to inject new post NSEP program is carried out regularly. Behavioral always use new equipment to.
Impact for the Social Work

Methods of Social Work Intervention

This research is not merely, or in the context of space behavior of injecting drug users in the NSEP program alone, but this research has also been formed to find an appropriate method to be applied intervention within the meaning of increase social functionality respondents or clients in the program This particular NSEP. Strings, the researchers have developed some form of inter-related questions to obtain or produce facts or data problems faced by the respondents.

Having the same theme were grouped for the scope of the reaction, the researchers have done the analysis and revisions to the satisfaction of researchers stages. Subsequently, researchers have find some weaknesses and problems related to the implementation of the NSEP program itself and also involve external environment IDUs. The problems still exist related to the NSEP program is concerned with the problem of lack of understanding of Hepatitis IDUs and awareness is still lacking among IDUs on the importance of safe injection practices as still not using alcohol swabs, cotton and iodine when injecting drugs. Findings showed that the respondents were still involved in this research to practice high-risk behavior in injecting drug activity and fewer still understand some understanding of infectious diseases through blood especially of injected activity itself. This problem is so critical for the respondents because they are clients of the NSEP program in Penang for more than six months.

Environmental problems associated with IDUs was associated with contact with the police and IDU difficulty getting a job. Objective inequality between the police and the local NSEP cause IDU enrolled in the program will still NSEP arrested by the police when they should be given the flexibility to have been registered under the NSEP. This leads to the
problem of sorting themselves by IDU and contribute to their difficulty getting jobs because they fear to be arrested by police while working.

The method of treatment or social work intervention seen by researchers as timely and appropriate to the problems and weaknesses inherent in the NSEP and the environment is a method intervention IDUs group work. Intervention sessions of group work can be applied to enhance the overall functionality of the NSEP program. Group work is undertaken to help IDUs participating in the work group to develop their potential, achieve the goal of focus in the group formed and will directly improve understanding of Hepatitis and safe injection practices directly improve social functioning IDUs. The social worker will ensure that the goals and mission is to restore behavioral problems, particularly in the context of group members understanding of hepatitis and safe injection practices.

Various activities can be carried out during the group work sessions conducted intervention. Among them are such as to give practical guidance to IDUs in the group associated with injecting a safe way. Next, the group, the group members are encouraged to repeat the IDU safe injection process in order to instill discipline among IDUs and increase the confidence that they are able to practice safe injection. It is important that the IDUs can enhance their understanding of good practice safe injection.

Medium used as a way of modifying behavior, reactions and perceptions of IDU on something. Therefore, the goal should be stated in clear operational theme that simplifies the process of evaluating the achievement of short and long term.

The main focus of the group's work is to alleviate problems and help members improve their skills in the face of everyday problems. Social workers try to enhance their capacity to deal with drug users faced problems such as emotional, family and environmental problems become causative factors to the lack of understanding of safe injection and Hepatitis.
When arriving at the termination, social workers should ensure that members of the group have been able to understand about hepatitis and safe injection practice in drug-taking. Social workers also need to ensure that each member of the group at the termination of achieving this.

If viewed as a whole, formed intervention has some similarities with the work intervention treatment aimed Model described the review of literature is divided. Among them are expanding their potential and achieve the goal of focus in the formation of the group.

Intervention which was developed can guide the parties conducting NSEP program to enhance the understanding of Hepatitis and ensure that clients in this program practice safer injection drug injecting activity practiced them.

**Conclusion**

Overall, the research behavior in a safe injecting among IDUs has given an answer findings indicate that there is still much to be done by all parties involved in the NSEP program includes IDU in order to achieve the ultimate goal of NSEP itself reduce risk. Every aspect should be taken into account and given the strong emphasis that the shortcomings and weaknesses that exist in the implementation of the NSEP program can be overcome.

Based on the findings in this research, especially in relation to safe injection practices, the researchers concluded that the level of awareness among many IDU is increasing. While there is still a practicing IDU risk behavior, however, this number is decreasing. More among IDU following NSEP program showed positive changes pattern. This gives an indication that the program is being planned in NSEP is relevant and should be continued to achieve the reduction of HIV AIDS among IDUs.

The success achieved especially in terms of behavior change among IDU toward safe injection after NSEP program conducted show that the social worker as the implementing
agency for this government program has done an outstanding job and responsibilities and should be applauded. Despite a certain weaknesses that can certainly be overcome from time to time, but the ability of social workers to help change the IDU risk behavior should be applauded. This is because, even if they are faced with a problem, particularly in terms of acceptance of NSEP program, but they have proven that the risk reduction methods that have been applied by social workers among IDUs could reduce infections such as HIV / AIDS and Hepatitis. A statement issued by the Minister of Health, Malaysia showed that social workers have played an outstanding role in implementing the NSEP.

"... The expansion of the Ministry needle / syringe exchange programs and methadone replacement therapy will include all states in the country. We hope to involve 15 000 drug users in methadone substitution therapy, MST and the Needle Exchange Program, NSEP by 2010 ". The Star On-line, 6 December 2006.

Statement from Datuk Dr Chua Soi Lek, Minister of Health, Malaysia is the lengthening of the NSEP program until 2010, showing firmness and confidence in the government in implementing programs to reduce HIV infections in Malaysia. Despite various problems, particularly NSEP program client arrest by the police, continued collaboration and precision of the police in this very important program to ensure its effectiveness. Training for police should be increased by the relevant authorities, particularly the Ministry of Health Malaysia

Challenges, problems and there are also ridicule thrown by the ekstrimes Some of this in the context of religion, full recovery and prevention of NSEP program, it has been accepted by prudent by NSEP program implementation, the machinery for doing upgrades and correction of program delivery smoothen as a whole. Whatever the reason, this NSEP
program should be viewed with a broader scope and comprehensive rather than a narrow view of thinking or negative.

Various efforts had been made by the government to allow all levels and walks of life to obtain rights in Malaysia. Human Capital Development in full swing by the government as a whole is also not ignore people who use drugs. Continuous efforts made by the government and the various constituencies should play a role in launching the NSEP program. Continuity of partnerships formed is capable of looking at changes to the no-risk high-risk behavior by injecting drug users. The main goal of reducing HIV infection among injecting drug users will also be able to realize.
References


Malaysia National Narcotics Agency, 2001


THE NEED FOR FORENSIC SOCIAL WORK IN MALAYSIA AND ITS COLLABORATIVE IMPLICATION

Mohd Taufik Mohammad, Azlinda Azman and Mohd Haizzan Yahaya

Abstract

This article discusses the possibility of establishing the field of forensic social work in Malaysia. Literature shows that certain aspects of a criminal justice system can be detrimental to the well-being of both offenders and victims, such as bureaucratic processes, treatment designs, and direction of focuses (whether on offenders alone or victim alone). Malaysian criminal justice system is observed by author to have some of those aspects discussed by the literature. This leads to the importance of having a forensic social worker to work in these systems. This article discusses how a forensic social worker can contribute to a system to be more stakeholders-oriented, rather than system-oriented. However, while forensic social workers can help identify and mitigate these issues, it is undeniable that collaboration from other fields, such as psychology, law, and sociology is important as responsibilities of a forensic social worker reflect the needs for these fields. Suggestions and implications are also discussed.

Introduction

A criminal justice system deals with delicate groups of people, namely offenders and victims of crimes. The system used to be known as a place where the government attempts at solving a criminal event by judging the offenders in a manner that has been set, but now another focus has been increasingly acknowledged—the victims (Groenhuijsen, 1994; Wolhuter, Olley, & Denham, 2009). Groenhuijsen (1994) argued that with the increasing acknowledgment of the position of victims in the system, conflicts that are divided between advocating the offenders’ and the victims’ rights. Fortunately, academicians and researchers have laid out models that could help identify the purposes and functions of a criminal justice system in relation to the needs of both offenders and victims. The models started out as being too centric on offenders and the legal system such as Packer’s (1964) crime control model
and due process model, then evolved to being more considerate to the voices and satisfactions of the victims, such as Stickels’ (2008) victim satisfaction model.

However, a criminal justice system may possess certain characteristics that may be detrimental to both offenders and victims. Currently, many criminal justice systems have fixed procedures where offenders have to go through, along with fixed outcomes. This leads to the event of all offenders to undergo similar treatment no matter how unique their cases are. Juvenile delinquents, for example, may externalize their mental health problems in forms of aggression and defiance that are seen as normal “symptoms” of being delinquents. But these “symptoms” can have implications on the treatments that these delinquents might or might not be able to respond to (Rosenblatt, Rosenblatt, & Biggs, 2000). According to Rosenblatt et al., by differentiating the youths with proper mental evaluation, course of treatments that are appropriate for each one can be designed and delivered.

Not just on the offenders, a criminal justice system can also have negative effects on victims. Police having the attitudes that victims “choose” to be victimized which might affect how they ask questions to the victims is one of the example (Hoyle & Sanders, 2000). Furthermore, because of the diminishing trust on the police, victims’ reporting behavior can be affected, which could lead to more unreported crimes (Tewksbury & West, 2001). All these factors contribute to the reasons why sometimes some victims suffer from some unresolved psychological issues resulting from victimization. At this stage, victims need to lean on reliable social supports in order to recover efficiently.

The issue of victims’ rights is also a major question in the course of development of criminal justice systems since victims’ right movements started, and it becomes the basis for the development of restorative justice (Shapland, Willmore, & Duff, 1985; Karmen, 2007). But, in terms of total acknowledgment, it can be observed that in some parts of the world, offenders and the legal system still have more heightened focus than the victims, including
Malaysia (Hussin, 2010). What leads to the slow development for victim-oriented criminal justice system is that there is no clear definition of who victims are and what services that should be provided for them. Although in some developed countries there are organizations that are dedicated for victims, in some others, victims still have the ambiguity of direction when they are victimized. Perhaps police, medical institutions, and the legal systems can be an option, but they are not institutions whose responsibilities would focus on victims’ welfare. According to Groenhuijsen (1994), victims in these institutions are more of a tool for investigation rather than an important stakeholder.

In Malaysia, as discussed, victims in general do not have a clear definition and they do not have the specific place where they can go after victimization (Hussin, 2010). Even some services are provided in a welfare department, the target groups for the services are quite specific – as of now, only victims of domestic abuse or children abuse victims would be able to enjoy some physical services such as a shelter (Zakaria, 2003; Hussin, 2010). Every now and then in the news we can read how victims of various crimes suffer short-term or long-term consequences because of a crime (e.g. Utusan Harian, 2012; Sinar Harian, 2012). These people need their voices to be heard and if they are lucky, some organizations or generous individuals might come to their rescue.

In terms of offenders in Malaysia, as discussed above, Malaysian criminal justice system can be bureaucratic, which might be adverse to the very intention of containing crimes. A case of a juvenile delinquent, for example, is handled by a welfare officer who is assigned under the Child Unit in a welfare department. This officer would write up a report to be presented in front of a judge so the latter could make a decision of outcome for the arrested youth. Currently, there are eight possible outcomes for a juvenile delinquent who is found guilty under Section 91, Child Act 2001. These outcomes can be comprehensive at some times, but they can also be inappropriate for some other kinds of delinquent cases such
as the ones that might suffer mental health problems as suggested by Rosenblatt et al. (2000). Different crimes might require different kinds of treatment, which requires an evidence-based approach of dealing within offenders (MacKenzie, O'Neil, Povitsky, & Acevedo, 2006).

A Need for Forensic Social Work

Because of the issues discussed above, a criminal justice system needs a field that can help in the various issues of well-being of its stakeholders and this is where forensic social work comes in. National Organization of Forensic Social Work (NOFSW, n.d.) lists down several main responsibilities of a forensic work. According to the organization, a forensic social work’s responsibilities include: 1) Providing consultation, education, or training, 2) diagnosis, treatment, and recommendations, and 3) other functions such as policy formation, mediation, and analysis.

One of the advantages of having a social worker in the legal system because of the role of advocacy that every social worker is trained to play. One of the aims of social work practice is social justice which is to ensure that oppressed individuals also have access to resources that are available in the system (The National Association of Social Workers, n.d.).

When crime occurs, it is obvious that commonly those who are involved are offenders and victims. However, while offenders might be dealt almost appropriately in a legal system, victims are pushed aside because having no importance in the criminal processes. This deprives the victims of the necessary course of action and treatment that they need in the aftermath of victimization. This phenomenon raises the voices that urge the system to also consider the perspectives and position of a victim when making a decision (Zehr & Gohar, 2002; Rea, 2012).

Malaysian criminal justice system is also unfortunately suffering from the issue of blindness towards the needs of the victims. While victims are not defined properly (Zakaria, 2003) and the services provided are limited and offered only to a small segregate of victims
which are child victims or victims of domestic abuse (Hussin, 2010), offenders are only judged because it has the assumption that a crime should be accountable towards the legal system, with little emphasis on the victims. This further strengthens the need towards a social worker in a legal system because victims of crime would have no one to stand up for their own rights if not advocated by individuals who can have influence on the system like a social worker.

Not just the victims, offenders also have their own rights – rights towards effective treatment and intervention plan. In the current processes for juvenile delinquency in Malaysia, young offenders who are found guilty will have to face one of eight outcomes set by the Child Act 2001. These outcomes are:

1) Release with warning,
2) Good behavior bond,
3) In the custody of those who are qualified,
4) Fine,
5) Probation in a detention center,
6) Probation in a detention school such as Henry Gurney,
7) Lashes, and
8) Prison.

Quite a number of those who are found guilty would have to do their time in a detention center or a detention school with other juvenile delinquents. One study has shown that ‘group care’ provides platform for these youths to associate with other peers who can exacerbate each other’s delinquency (Leve & Chamberlain, 2005). By being housed in a place together, they might learn a new “skill” or plan a strategy to commit a new crime. In Malaysia, studies that can analyze the effect of group care as shown by Leve and Chamberlain are limited. However, it is still not something that should be ignored by the
legal personnel but until someone advocates for further understanding on the effects of the already available treatment plans such as the detention center on the recidivism rate of these youths, we are in the dark and will always question why some youths would resort to committing a crime again. A forensic social worker can help advocate and even facilitate in these studies that can shed lights on the needs of juvenile delinquents that current system might have missed.

**Collaboration by Other Professions**

While this may sound comprehensive enough to describe what a forensic social worker can do, this current essay argues that the responsibilities as outlined by NOFSW might be problematic if not assisted by professions in other fields. According to National Organization of Forensic Social Work (n.d.), a forensic social worker’s main responsibilities include: 1) Providing consultation, education, or training, 2) diagnosis, treatment, and recommendations, and 3) other functions such as policy formation, mediation, and analysis. Various roles that social workers from any specialization are already in parallel line with this description: they can be an educator, a mediator, a facilitator, and even an advocator.

However, dealing with the individuals involved with a criminal justice system is more complicated than that. Consider an example of the role of diagnosing an offender with a potential mental disorder. A social worker might be able to point out several symptoms that might direct to a diagnosis of a certain mental disorder, but how can a short course of mental disorder make up for years of training and courses undergone by a psychotherapist or a psychiatrist? The advantage of a social worker is that they live up their career with values and philosophies that are driven for human welfare. Therefore, this is beneficial for those who are in need of a diagnosis. A social worker can advocate for an offender to be properly treated and diagnosed if a system fails to do so. By spotlighting an ignored case,
collaboration from a psychotherapist/psychiatrist can help the offender in question to get the proper treatment.

In Malaysia, victims are especially a segregated issue; in fact it is almost non-existent. Advocacy work can be done by a forensic social worker in Malaysia, if there is one, to shed a light so authority in the system can be shown that it is in need of attention. Offenders and the legal personnel are not the only ones being “at stake” in the criminal processes but right now it seems like they are the only ones who are. Victims find themselves not knowing what services that await them in the aftermath of victimization. At the very best, they might just be treated as an evidence to convict an offender for his or her crime. Forensic social worker, along with other professions such as policy makers for policy reforms, psychologists who can conduct studies on victims’ position and effects in a criminal event, can change this unfortunate phenomenon.

**Conclusion**

This paper discusses that forensic social work is an important profession to be introduced in a criminal justice system. Because welfare of victims and offenders are ignored by important legal personnel and authority, forensic social workers can help by putting the issue at front so acknowledgement can be done. However, forensic social workers cannot work alone. To help the victims and the offenders, understanding them both require the cooperation from other profession such as sociologists, criminologists, and psychologists.

The first steps would be by education. Especially the term “forensic”, people might only associate the word with the application of hard-science such as chemistry and biology to analyze crime, but criminal processes take so much more than that. By gradually educating the nation about how to see crime effectively, especially the legal personnel and authority, the criminal justice system in Malaysia will have difficulties in making improvements.
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WELFARE DEVELOPMENT IN SOCIAL WORK PRACTICUM:
COLLABORATING ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

Muhamad Fadhil Nurdin, Azlinda Azman, Soni Akhmad Nulhakim, Syarif Muhidin and Mohd Khairul Hafiz Omar

Abstract

The welfare concept and development have the wider meaning and has been widely criticized. The welfare development can be to focus in social work practicum. As in many schools of Social Work, we have examined how collaboration USM-UNPAD Model based on students experience in community practicum. This activities as main curriculum in social work education had an impact on learning in meaningful ways for students during a six-week alternative student’s placement. The wider context in this collaboration has impact to relation between faculties, universities and both countries. We investigated cognitive and affective learning moments during a collective play community development unit. Participants’ recorded responses indicate that using models in this process to address social development issues created a conducive and rewarding learning environment.

Introduction

The social work practicum is a fundamental aspect of social work education that provides students with the opportunity to apply the theoretical foundations of the profession to the practice arena (Engstrom & Jones, 2007). The practicum is an integral part of many professional courses in higher education, and is manifest in several different forms depending on the area, such as field experience, case work, group work, community organization, block placement and clinical practicum (Berg-Weger, Rochman, Rosenthal, Sporleder, & Birkenmaier, 2007). It focuses attention on the purpose and value of the practicum; the relationship between the practicum and the learning outcomes of a course as a whole; and the structure and placement of the practicum within a course. It is considered to be a central aspect of social work education and has even been described as the “signature pedagogy” of the profession (Engstrom & Jones, 2007).
Globalization demands that social work educator’s initiate educational programs that promote understanding of global problems and country-specific interventions to address transnational problems. Moreover, the global movement of peoples means that social workers must be increasingly adept at working with different cultural groups. Social work educators share the consensus beliefs that practitioners must be able to work within the context of other cultures, and that the profession must be able to help the larger society to understand different cultures (Bogo & Maeda, 1990). Profound demographic change, the emergence of geographical mobility, and new communication technologies has all drawn our world closer together.

These global demographic changes have made these collaboration efforts even more relevant and important for today’s practice. Social workers now more than ever need an international perspective. As much as social workers have always needed sensitivity to the culture and customs of others around the world, they must also know how these cultures are unique (Campbell, Jamieson, Olson, & Mappin, 2012). There is also a need to understand the international issues that are contributing geographic mobility and interdependence.

Obtaining this world view is difficult when educational preparation is aimed at preparing practitioners for specific problems mandated by their own society (Campbell et. al., 2012). Such a restricted approach to education may result in a narrower, more culture-bound view of the world limited to local realities rather than a broader world view. Berg-Weger et. al., (2007) suggest that effective practice requires social workers to understand their own culture and to be able to make a shift to more globally collaboration. An international experience as part of social work education would expand students’ knowledge base by exposing them to other cultures, social welfare policies, and to different ways of approaching and solving practice issues.
Collaboration Issues

Achieving Global thru Collaboration

The collaborative process has been described from a number of perspectives including the action research paradigm, from the co-operative group process perspective and from special education's multidisciplinary team approach (Cocks, Al-Makhamreh, Abuieta, Alaedein, Forrester, & Sullivan, 2010). Collaboration is characterized by mutual understanding and consensual decision-making resulting in creative solutions that are enhanced and altered from those that any team member would produce independently, and by common action.

Advantages of the process which seem particularly applicable to inter-institutional collaborative partnerships in teacher education include increased sharing of material and human resources across professional disciplines, facilitation of liaison activities among institutions, and cost effectiveness; the generation of unique solutions and better decision-making that results from the pooling and recombination of resources (Parrish & Rubin, 2010).

However, inter-institutional collaborative partnerships, by definition alternative approaches to solving educational problems or improving educational practice, have an element of innovation. The central focus of this collaboration between these universities is on interdisciplinary and multi-level approaches to community-based initiatives practicum that will help to foster happier, healthier and more vibrant communities in ways that are both culturally sensitive and culturally appropriate (Cocks et. al., 2010). These multi-level and multi-cultural initiatives accentuate important core issues related to the field of community social work practicum. These include leadership growth and development, family enhancement, capacity building, partnership, collaboration, empowerment and sustainability in an array of sectors including: environmental quality, community-based economic
development and the relationship and interdependence between work, community and family life (Parrish & Rubin, 2010).

**Competencies required for social work practicum**

Students undergoing practicum may be placed in settings in which they are engaged in direct practice or indirect service provision. All social workers, whether engaged in direct or indirect practice, are expected to display certain level of competencies. It is why collective collaborations between University Sains Malaysia (USM) - Universitas Padjadjaran (UNPAD) Indonesia are integral in shaping a standard practice in students practicum training. In achieving this mission, proactive measures need to be taken into consideration and a task force need to be form. The Educational Policy and Accreditation Standards of the Council on Social Work Education (2008) outlines central competencies that are considered as essential for the development of the social work student. These include the application of the ethics of social work practice; the use of critical thinking to guide decision-making; the acceptance and understanding of diversity in practice; the advancement of social justice; the participation in the development of policies that impact social service provision and the engagement, assessment and intervention with individuals, families, groups and communities.

**General goals of social work practicum**

The general goals of social work practicum at both universities is to ensure equip future social workers who possess the knowledge, skill and value base for effecting change at the local, national and global levels (Johnson, Bailey, & Padmore, 2012). A major emphasis is the development of the ability in students to apply critical thinking skills in social work practice and to help them to encourage citizen participation in addressing issues of social and economic justice, particularly among disadvantaged populations. A further goal is the preparation of students for pursuing graduate level education in social work. The onus is on
Crafting Symbiotic Partnership and Collaboration in the Asia Pacific Region

faculties to provide continuing educational opportunities to enable social workers to improve the quality of their professional practice (Johnson, Bailey, & Padmore, 2012). Additionally, faculties from both universities also develop effective cooperative and collaborative partnerships with government, non-government organizations and community groups whose interests are consistent with the mission of the practicum program (Bogo & Maeda, 1990).

Challenges

Present and upcoming challenges in social work practicum

Over the past decade, social work practice has expanded in Malaysia and Indonesia, opening additional opportunities for the placement of students on practicum. However, the expansion of social work practice was paralleled by the escalation in the number of institutions offering social work program. This development has placed a strain on the ability of social service agencies to provide practicum experiences for students and consequently has led to increasing challenges in securing placements for students (Engstrom & Jones, 2007). The challenges in securing community placements and placements that provide experiences in social action have restricted the practical experiences that are available to students on placement in both countries. The lack of opportunities for placements in social action limits students’ ability to fully understand the role of social worker as advocate or activist. Even though most of the knowledge of social work in Malaysia and Indonesia is borrowed from the West, and it is difficult to directly apply the theory that is based on a different culture.

Achieving Holistic Collaboration

Collaboration between schools of social work across international borders is not a new phenomenon. It is not a straight forward journey; it can be exciting, challenging and beneficial; full of pitfalls; and open to criticism from onlookers. Campbell et. Al., (2012) note that developing more effective collaborative relationships and skills can benefit multiple
areas of the curriculum, to include field work practicum. Furthermore, Campbell et al., (2012) notes the inherent ambivalence regarding collaborations that includes:

1. Merging differing institutional cultures;
2. Ability of the collaboration to meet the needs and situations of individual participants;
3. Preventing a loss of independence and devising a strategy for managing the complexities of inter-program partnerships that involve communication, cooperation and adequate planning.

Adapting Campbell et al., (2012) study of BSW program collaborations, advantages of inter-program collaborations that have applicability for field education include:

1. Decreased duplication, particularly regarding field instructor orientation;
2. Increased field instructor satisfaction regarding program efforts to accommodate and support them;
3. Decreased confusion regarding individual programs’ requirements;
4. Increased resources, particularly for ongoing training and program development; and
5. Decreased competition for field placements.

The collaboration principles developed by Xiong and Wang, (2012) can aid in framing field program collaborations. These principles include: ensure equity in decision-making; identify goals for the group and for each member of the collaborative group; articulate a clear rationale for the collaboration, recognizing program differences; clarify the leadership structure; and determine that the collaboration has the full support of all parties. Successful collaborations encompass a sense of selflessness, shared responsibility and values to guide the work of the group and are open to change and creativity (Xiong & Wang, 2012). Engstrom & Jones (2007) suggests that successful collaborations must recognize the cultural differences that exist among collaborators’ institutions and develop mechanisms for
transforming those differences (or barriers) into positive change. Parrish & Rubin (2010) emphasize the need for building on existing relationships and informal contacts, negotiating equitable divisions of labor and ongoing provision of education and training for all those involved. Moreover, considering personal interests, assumptions and the needs of all parties is key to a successful negotiation. These are all issues that are relevant for an inter-university partnership. Each institution has its own unique culture and practices regarding field education, specifically related to philosophy, policies and resources. Therefore, we can benefit by familiarizing ourselves with the collaborative experiences of others.

**Evaluation Procedures**

Evaluation is essential for ongoing and are necessary to ensure effective collaborative effort. The criterion on which an evaluation of a collaborative effort is based is needed from the outset. Collaborators must determine if input (resources expended), output (tangibles produced) and/or outcomes (change that occurs) related to the collaboration are to be evaluated Berg-Weger, Rochman, Rosenthal, Sporleder, & Birkenmaier (2007). Evaluations can be both formal and informal, but should be guided by the stated goals and aimed at assessing the group’s functioning at multiple levels (e.g. individual, group and external). Evaluation can focus on the individual and group characteristics, to include clarity regarding goals, expectations, procedures, role differentiation, communication, trust, decision-making, cohesion and leadership (Berg-Weger et.al., 2007).

Experiences of community-based collaborations can also provide insights to aid in the development of inter-university field education collaborations. Community based collaborations often respond to decreased funding and resources and increased service fragmentation (Engstrom & Jones, 2007). Field educators recognize that decreasing agency funding may mean less time and resources for field instructors to attend training or supervise. Collaborations are a strategy for multiple groups to join together around common issues,
allow for increased access to resources, resource exchange, mutual gains and products and a common goal (Bogo & Maeda, 1990).

In the planning stages, responses from the field instructor focus group were used to identify needs and structure programmatic efforts. As the collaboration has matured, input is routinely obtained from ‘seasoned’ field instructors regarding the extent to which the collaborative orientation mirrored what they saw as the major needs and concerns in the field. The advisory group, in essence, serves as one form of evaluation. Field instructors qualitatively and quantitatively evaluate each of the field instructor training programs and the Advisory Board analyzes all phases of the collaborative process, including the results of the written evaluations, and offer suggestions for change and improvement (Noble, 2004).

Benefits from the Collaboration

As collaboration is a necessary part of contemporary social work practice, this endeavor enables social work educators to serve as role models for the social work community, particularly field instructors and students. Agency administrators report that they are supportive of the universities’ efforts to be sensitive to the time constraints of their employees in offering training that requires attendance at one meeting versus two or three (Parrish & Rubin, 2010). Additionally, in this era of cost cutting, administrators appear to value the provision of free professional development for their staff.

The collaboration’s activities benefit the students through the provision of clear information being presented to the field instructors. Having joint orientations and field-related trainings enable field instructors to gain information regarding the commonalities and distinctions between the programs (Parrish & Rubin, 2010). Field-focused continuing education events for field instructors which enhance their knowledge base for field instruction can certainly serve to improve the quality of the students’ field experiences. For
example, field instructors and students were invited to attend a workshop on field supervision together.

**Conclusions**

Noble (2004) provided guidelines and techniques that can be applied flexibly and appropriately by universities in diverse contexts in designing field work placements and supporting practice teachers. In nurturing a supportive atmosphere for learning, students are allowed to develop self-confidence and feel encouraged to experiment and creatively reflect and employ different related theories in their own pieces of work and study (Xiong & Wang, 2012). This is important because the current emphasis on producing particular technical field work skills is one of the most important functions of social work education and is critical to encouraging innovative and constructive knowledge leading to intellectual self-sufficiency to face the challenges of contemporary complex knowledge-driven economy (Noble, 2004). Respecting the student’s personal experience is crucial to the development of professional practice and helps him/her to recognize and adopt an individualized theory or concept. Lifelong learning requires not only social work skills, but also knowledge and application of theories in different case work contexts with individuals, groups, families and communities. It is very important to learn about the social practices and values of the community within which field practical take place. Supervisors can be important guides to understanding the network of social services available in a particular region, and can help orient the student to the agency context in which they will work (Parrish & Rubin, 2010). Clearly defining student learner roles is an important step, so the student can benefit fully from the educational opportunity, while still providing appropriate service to both clients and agencies.

Faculty liaisons can help ensure that everyone’s needs are addressed and that opportunities to integrate classroom training with “real world” experiences are maximized. A fruitful social work practicum would be the final shaping of the student in becoming a
professional social worker. Given the reality of resource limitations (*personnel, time and money*) in the context of developing countries, universities may consider the use of online communication between field supervisors and individual practice teachers as well as group supervision, in which practice teachers can support and challenge each other (Xiong & Wang, 2012). A review of the social work practicum in the contexts of Malaysia and Indonesia creates questions of the usefulness of hybridization in these contexts.

The Global Standards for the Education and Training of the Social Work Profession (2004) notes that schools of social work should aspire for the “recognition and development of indigenous or locally specific social work education and practice from the traditions and cultures of different ethnic groups and societies” (p.5). Although the social work practicum in the contexts of USM-UNPAD may not fully reflect indigenous practice, the unique aspects that were highlighted reflect a useful adaptation of this aspect of social work education to meet the requirements of each country. There is a need for research into the role and involvement of other systems, such as the professional associations of social work in the provision of social work education during the practicum.
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CHALLENGES OF FIELD PRACTICUM IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION: IS DEVELOPING PARTNERSHIP AMONG THE ASIA-PACIFIC COUNTRIES A WAY OUT?

Muhammad Samad

Abstract

It is obvious that the social work education originated in the United States of America in the late nineteenth century and, more or less, is being replicated both in the developed and developing countries of the globe even to date. The world first school of social work, the New York School of Philanthropy, emerged from the apprenticeship training in the field of scientific social service. Thus the practice aspect of social work education started with its beginning. In Bangladesh, social work education was launched to build-up professional leadership in order for encountering the massive social problems of the 1950s. More than a period of half a century have already been elapsed yet Social Work is not professionally recognized in the country and many of the Asia-Pacific regions. The major hindrances in this respect can be delineated as non-applicability of knowledge, ineffective practice and absence of professional organizations. In the backdrop of this scenario, this paper is attempted, firstly to, keeping the context of Bangladesh in view, understand the challenges of field practicum in social work education in terms of course-work, student selection, agency/setting, placement of students, supervision and evaluation procedure particularly in Bangladesh; secondly, to identify effective measures to meet the challenges involved in the whole process and to explore potentialities of field practicum which can be attained through developing proactive partnership between social work schools and professional organizations in the countries of Asia-Pacific region bearing a little socio-cultural variation.

Introduction

Needless to say, the social work education originated in the United States of America in the late nineteenth century and, more or less, is being replicated both in the developed and developing countries of the globe even to date. The world first school of social work, the New York School of Philanthropy, emerged from the apprenticeship training in the field of scientific social services. Thus the practice aspect/field practicum of social work education
started with its beginning. Field practicum is an integral part of social work education that provides students with the opportunity to apply and integrate knowledge from all areas of the curriculum within a practice setting/agency where they learn generalist practice methods utilized in working with individuals, groups, families, organizations, and communities. But, mainly because of absence of professional recognition by the state and lack of awareness among the service providers both in government and NGO sectors, field practicum in social work education is not getting due importance particularly in the developing countries of Asia-Pacific including Bangladesh. In addition, lack of clear understanding about implication/efficacy and economic and psycho-social value of social work education on the part of the policy makers and other state machineries as well act as major stumbling block in the endeavor for enhancement and application social work knowledge into practice. As a result both social work students as well as faculties are losing their enthusiasm in field practicum to a considerable extent in the developing countries. The present paper is a humble attempt, firstly, to point out the challenges of field practicum in social work education in terms of course-work, agency/setting, placement of students, supervision and evaluation procedures adopted particularly in context to Bangladesh and other developing countries of the Asia Pacific region; secondly, to suggest measures to meet the challenges involved in the whole process; and finally to explore the potentialities of field practicum which can be attained through developing proactive partnership between social work schools and professional organizations in the countries of Asia-Pacific region. However, I apologize for just highlighting the issues instead of going for detailed analysis mainly due to space constraint.

**Field Education and Practicum**

For clear understanding about concepts and methods of field practicum, goals and activities of settings/agencies, changing contexts of societies, needs and problems of the clients, the social
work schools in developed countries offer three/four full credit courses for the students (Ginsberg, 2005; Gitterman & Germain, 2008; Noble et al., 2009). On the contrary, most of the south Asian countries organize two or three-day orientation sessions prior to placement of students for field practicum. It is relevant to mention that since its inception, there was no theoretical field education course in social work in Bangladesh. However, during my tenure as Director of the Institute of Social Work and Research (ISWR), only one theoretical course on field education was introduced in ISWR, University of Dhaka, in 2010. On the other hand, BSW and MSW foundation students of developed countries including North America are required to complete at least 240 hours per semester (total 480 hours over two semesters) for field practice. Even, MSW advanced generalist students are required to complete a minimum of 350 hours per semester (700 hours over two semesters). In contrast, in most of the south Asian countries including Bangladesh the required time for field practicum is at best 420 hours spread over 60 working days for both bachelor and masters’ students with block placement. And, field practicum is offered at the last semester after completion of all theoretical courses both in bachelor and masters programs. Thereafter the students are to submit a final report for evaluation.

Field Practicum Setting/Agency

The developing countries in Asia and the Pacific region and all the south Asian countries, in particular, are currently facing almost similar socio-economic and psycho-social problems i.e. poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, poor health, trafficking and abuse of children and women, physical, mental and social disabilities and so on. The government agencies (GAs) in the region have been traditionally engaged in implementing a number of social service projects including hospital social service, rural social service, poverty reduction program for women and elderly, juvenile development, state orphanage, training and education for physically, mentally disabled and visually and hearing impaired and correctional services (Faruque and Samad, 2008; Mian, 2007). Simultaneously, a large
number of NGOs (e.g. ASA, Brac, Grameen Bank, Proshika etc. in Bangladesh) also have been implementing various social development programs through micro-credit, human development training, conscientization and advocacy to improve the life situation of the poor and the disadvantaged segment of the population in the region (Samad, 2000). These are the major areas where in social work students are placed for field practicum. But mainly due to lack of professional recognition in most of the countries, service providers are not aware of the implication of social work education and practice as such.

**Challenges of Field Practicum**

Although some encouraging experiences of field practicum by Coventry & Grace, Nickson et al. and Noble, (2009) can be traced yet including the United States of America (for detail see Peterson, 2010), many developing countries of the Asia-Pacific region have been facing multifarious challenges for promotion and development of social work knowledge and practice skills. The major challenges and problems encountered in the field practicum of social work education particularly in the newly introduced countries like Cambodia, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Vietnam along with comparatively old( in terms of proving social work education) countries like Bangladesh, India and Pakistan can be enlisted as under:

**Inadequate theatrical course on field practicum**

As mentioned earlier, theoretical course on field education in social work program has not been given due importance in Bangladesh, and two/three days’ field practicum orientation before placement is quite insufficient to understand the pros and cons of field practicum by the students. While there is three/four theoretical field education courses are offered having well structured syllabus and available textbooks in developed as well as the Asia-Pacific countries e. g. Australia, Canada, Japan, Singapore, UK and USA, the theoretical field education course in social work education lacks in newly introduced and
developing countries including Bangladesh. As a result, they can not make their social work students well equipped with knowledge and skill on field practicum through a week-long or two/three day field practicum orientation session. Hence, the students face lots of problems include proper understanding about agency and its activities, rapport-building and guidance by agency supervisor, duties to perform etc. at settings/agencies having variation of mission, vision and services.

**Lack of setting/agency**

Apart from some big cities adequate number of field settings is not available for field practicum in the government and non-government social service agencies in and around the social work schools/programs in developing countries e. g. Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Sri Lanka. Out of my own experience I have observed that students of Visva Bharati University at Santiniketan, India and the students studying social work at more than one thousand colleges in Bangladesh are being placed in rural settings only. This kind of stereotyped field practicum has been depriving the students to get acquainted with the gamut of modern knowledge, techniques and skills of field practicum.

**Faulty placement procedure**

In the developed countries of North America, Europe and Australia, field placement are done on the basis of students’ choice after a mutual discussion between students and supervisors belonging to both social work schools and agencies. This in turn help students to understand and work in her/his chosen fields and ultimately ensure better services for the clientele. Field placement in Bangladesh and most of the Asian countries is done by the Field Coordinator of the schools through a small committee composed of faculties. Thus students’ choices are ignored which ultimately curb the immense potentialities of students in their high road to become good social work practitioners in the days ahead.
Weak supervision

As social work is not professionally recognized in most of the Asia-Pacific countries including Bangladesh, a considerable number of agency supervisors of field practicum settings are non-social work degree holders and the students are not being guided in a proper way to be the qualified social workers. In the developed world, the counter part of the faculty i. e. agency supervisors of field practicum are social work degree holders and the students are being supervised properly which is conducive for preparing competent social workers in the country. Similarly, since there is no guarantee that the students placed for field practicum would definitely become a professional social workers, the faculties are likely to be not very serious in supervising the students.

Fund constraints

The funds and resource mobilization mechanisms are not well built and ensured for social work education and practice in the poor and developing countries in the Asia-Pacific region. It acts as one of the most crucial impediments in the way for development of social work education and field practicum in the region. For example, in Bangladesh, the students are provided a nominal amount of subsidy during their field practicum. The amount is so meager that cannot; even meet their day to day travel cost. International placement like Noble (2009) as such is a distant dream which cannot thought even be imagined by the social work educators like us who belong to South Asian countries.

Improper evaluation

As many of the agency supervisors of field practicum settings are non-social work degree holders, they are not well motivated to guide and supervise accordingly. They are frequently found to be not serious and vigilant during the field practicum. Sometimes it is observed that the supervisors are compelling students to do their official and personal jobs
instead of assigning the professional tasks. These sorts of non-professional acts give rise to conflicts between faculty-supervisors and agency supervisors and ultimately hampers objective evaluation of students’ performance.

**Job insecurity**

Available statistics shows that within USA 175000 social work graduates got employment in related fields in the year 1996. Total employment was however, projected for more than two millions by 2005. The federal government’s Bureau of Labor Statistics further predicted that social work will occupy top ten positions within occupation growth areas through 2006. It would not be an exaggeration to state that the USA certainly did not fail to fulfill their projection as well as prediction. It is also worth noting that people with social work backgrounds are hired as soon as they are being graduated in Social Work in USA. In some cases, it so happens that the students get the offer of employment even before they could finish their courses and obtain degrees (Ginsberg, 2001). On the contrary, social work graduates of many countries of the Asia-Pacific region hardly find any opportunity to be employed in a job wherein their professional knowledge and skills can be practiced. For instance, the Department of Social Service under the Ministry of Social Welfare of Bangladesh Government recruited social work graduates for its various social welfare program up to 1973. As social work does not have professional recognition in the country, since 1974 the Government of Bangladesh has changed its recruitment policies to make the jobs classified as services open for master’s degree holders in any discipline. This type of undermining towards social work graduates by the government has given impetus to the NGOs also. At the end the social work graduates are being deprived of having their legitimate and requisite jobs in social development sectors such as urban community development program, micro-credit, hospital social service, juvenile development, services for the children, elderly people, physically and socially disables, and disadvantaged women
and children. Thus the students are losing their interest in field practicum for being non-recipients of dividends accrued from field practicum.

**Absence of partnership**

Partnership always needs multi-dimensional network and cooperation among the stakeholders of social work schools within the country and with other countries as well. Although social work faculties are involved in question setting, script examining and oral examination due to double examiner system in evaluating the students’ performance in South Asia, yet they hardly exchange their views in preparing course curriculum and improvement of the field practicum system, in particular. Likewise, so far we have some memorandum of agreement (MOA) with some social work schools of other countries (Bangladesh has MOA with India, South Korea and USA), but practically it is not working mainly due to lack of financial support, proper initiative, exchange program and strong networking among the professional organizations. All these factors hinder the mission for partnership development among the social work schools of Asia-Pacific region.

**Less active professional association/organization**

It is to be noted that the Asian and Pacific Association for Social Work Education (APASWE) has been trying to promote academic and professional standards of social work education in the region. Still, professional associations are not active up to the expectation in most of the developing countries of Asia-Pacific region. In Bangladesh, excepting newly established Bangladesh Council for Social Work Education (BCSWE), there is no other important professional association/organization in the country which can expedite partnership for social work education and practice.

**Is Developing Partnership among the Asia-Pacific Countries A Way Out?**

In this globalized world of today, global networking and partnership is visible everywhere in business organizations, trading houses, social groups, indigenous people,
environment movements also in NGOs and CSOs. Therefore, in order to cope with the changing national and international scenarios, the social work education and practice (specifically to deal with increasing number of multi-cultural families, older persons, persons suffering from ill health and HIV-AIDS, migrants refugees, victims of human rights violation etc.) must aim at achieving human dignity, peace, justice and sustainable development. In this respect, as has been documented in the seventh clause of IFSW values and ethics, social workers are expected to provide the best possible assistance to anybody seeking help and advice, without unfair discrimination on the basis of gender, age, disability, color, social class, race, religion, language, political belief, or sexual orientation (for detail see Meenaghan & Gibbons, 2000; Morales and Sheafor, 2004). It would not be out of place to say that still today only a single model of social work education system developed in western countries, particularly emanated from US, has been reigning over teaching, learning and practicing all over the world which urgently needs to be modified for application in cross cultural contexts (Harper & Lantz, 1996; Rowe, W. et. al. 2000). At the same it should also not be forgotten that so far the growth and development of social work as an academic and distinctive professional discipline has been possible only because of the positive outcome of cooperation among both government agencies and voluntary organizations working both in developed and developing countries (for details see, Ginsberg, 2001; Watts, T. D. et. al., 1995). In view of this dichotomy specially in order for resolving some challenges of social work education practicum and to develop proactive partnership among the countries of the Asia-Pacific region in particular, the following suggestions being put forward for active consideration:

i) As one third of the total course is covered by field education in developed world like the USA, therefore foremost emphasis should be given on field practicum with more theoretical courses on field education; This course on field practicum be based on
students’ choices, local needs and local as well as regional perspectives for the Asia-Pacific countries.

ii) Aptitude and attitude tests should be set as precondition or made compulsory while selecting students for admission in social work disciplines and courses that maybe the driving force for students and faculties to go by a field practicum of highest standard;

iii) Since setting/agency of field practicum, the GAs and NGOs in most of the developing countries in Asia-Pacific region are not fully aware of knowledge-base and field practice of social work education, therefore, campaign for awareness raising and advocacy program targeted for governments and NGOs should be launched as soon as possible:

iv) There should be a strong initiative in the form of organizing local, regional and international conferences-seminars-workshops, short academic exchange programs in the Asia-Pacific countries to prepare a common document like EPAS. This kind of exercise should involve all social work schools of this region (on the basis of contexts, demands and practical fields of social work education) so that proper placement, adequate supervision and objective evaluation of students’ performance is ensured.

v) APASWE and individual professional association/organization of the Asia-Pacific countries should take concrete steps to create a **Joint Research and Development Fund** for the social work education and practice convincing the governments of the region as soon as possible. It would create ample opportunities for searching, reading and preparing indigenous teaching materials. At this end publication of a Social Work Encyclopedia of Asia-Pacific by the APASWE may be regarded as helpful and very much crucial;

vi) The jobs for social work graduates in various relevant social service sectors of the governments and NGOs should be ensured and, thus movement to obtain professional recognition should be streamlined in tandem with the Governments, NGOs and CSOs of Asia-Pacific countries;
Finally, the organizations like education accreditation bodies such as the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE) and recognized professional organizations like NASW, IFSW, IASSW, and APASWE etc. should be strengthened by technical and financial supports and through proportionate distribution of funds. This kind of initiative will pave the way for mutual exchange of supports between global north and global south to build-up effective and meaningful network among the social work schools all over the world (Ramanathan and Link, 2004).

**Conclusions**

Undoubtedly the time is ripe now to implement above mentioned recommendations; but initiatives should be taken phase by phase on the basis of priority for its successful implementation. To start with, immediate step should be undertaken to formulate a common policy. This would need to involve all social work schools and professional associations/organization located within our region. With their active involvement effective mechanism for comprehensive/better field education and field practicum in individual country as well as in the Asia-Pacific region as whole would be possible. Secondly, a comprehensive project should be prepared for strengthening the movement for securing professional recognition which may usher the efforts for an effective field practicum. All these efforts will definitely take time to come to fruition but what is immediately needed is to build-up international cooperation and to develop proactive partnership if we fail in doing so our success in other arenas would not give us a tangible outcome.
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JUVENILE DETENTION AND CUSTODY: RESTORE OR HINDER?

Nazirah Hassan and Tuan Sharifah Diana Syed Ahmad

Abstract

Juvenile crime becomes more complex and globalized. The contagion of this social disease threatened the development of adolescent itself and jeopardizes public safety at large. Due to this, most countries established rehabilitation centers, detention or custody in order to bring changing on risky adolescent and preserve society tranquility. In Malaysia, centers are under the control of the government, which has been accused of allowing severe problems to continue in the centers, including delinquency. There has been a longstanding debate over the effectiveness of correctional centers. Although the purpose is to rehab, juvenile detention centers may not be the best way. This review reveals important issues to current debates on juvenile custody and detention centers in Malaysia contexts.

Prevalence of Juvenile Delinquency in Malaysia

Teen crime and its correction are viewed as social problems of great concern, throughout the world. In the United States every five minutes, an adolescent is taking into custody for committing crime and every two hours, a child is shot and killed (Daley & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Hence, it can be expected that the number of adolescents committed crime around the world, has escalating as well and it is increase the figure of juvenile offenders. In Malaysia, statistics on adolescent involved in criminal activities, is at serious concern. Table 1 shows the statistics of juvenile offenders in Malaysia that reported from 2005 until October 2011. It can be inferred from the statistic that every month, approximately 220 cases recorded and 8 juveniles being arrested everyday. However, it contains only those that have resulted in arrests by police and therefore does not represent the actual number of juvenile delinquents (Siegel, Welsh & Senna, 2003).
Crafting Symbiotic Partnership and Collaboration in the Asia Pacific Region

Table 1 - Statistic of juvenile offenders from 2005 until October 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1816</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>2103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>1924</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>2147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2039</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>2311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1881</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>2092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2122</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>2339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2481</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>2670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 October 2011</td>
<td>2580</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>2717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>14843</td>
<td>1536</td>
<td>16379</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source. Prison Department of Malaysia

Juvenile delinquency in Malaysia as well as other countries consists of diverse range of act and basically classified into minor and major delinquent. Minor delinquent acts include smoking cigarettes, lying to parents, vandalism, shoplifting, school truancy and drinking alcohol, while major delinquent acts range from auto theft, dealing in stolen property, burglary, rape or attempted rape, homicide, arson, weapons offences and aggravated assault (Loeber & Farrington, 1998). In Malaysia, 63 percent of juvenile arrests were detained for property offenses such as burglary, stealing vehicles and dealing in stolen property (Hussin, 2005). In spite of that, property offense becomes a major delinquent that committed by adolescent. According to the prevalence and confinement statistic, it is more than enough to describe the seriousness of juvenile delinquency problems in Malaysia. Even the numbers of juveniles reported every year is small rather than other countries, but it is a significant number for a small population in Malaysia.

**Right for Children and Juvenile Practices in Malaysia**

Some people may dispute that juvenile offender who involved in serious cases should be convict into appropriate punishment in order to avoid repetition of behaviors (Heslop, 1991). Juvenile delinquent is treated differently than criminal in our society. Some assumed that adolescent are less responsible for the delinquent and the illegal behavior, which has not
yet solidified into a criminal pattern (Yablonsky, 2000), even though they have capable to think maturely and they respond to criminal behavior as adults (Levitt, 1998). According to Kratcoski and Kratcoski (1990), juvenile delinquency could mean any type of behavior by those socially defined as juveniles that violate the norms set by controlling group. Bynum and Thompson (1992) refer juvenile delinquency as illegal conduct by a juvenile that reflects a persistent delinquent role and result in society regarding the offender as serious deviant. Siegel, Welsh and Senna (2003) define juvenile delinquency as the participation in illegal behavior by a minor below a statutory age limit. The statutory age limit may slightly differ from one country to another and the age limit in most countries is eighteen (Siegel & Senna, 2000). For example, it is eight in Scotland, ten in England, 12 in Canada and Turkey, 14 in Germany and Japan, 15 in Scandinavian countries, 16 in Spain, and 18 in Belgium (Rutter, Giller, & Hagel, 1998).  

In Malaysia, the Child Act 2001 defines a child as a person under the age of 18 years and below with criminal responsibility set at the age of ten (Kassim, 2005). Section 82 of Penal Code provides conditional protection for children less than 10 years and no action will be taken against the child of this age. Section 83 of ethic Code also stipulates children between 10 to 12 who have not shown sufficient maturity may be exonerate from criminality as well. This principle is in line with the concept of doli incapax, which derived from recognition of the immaturity of children who do not posses a fully developed understanding of what is right and wrong, nor has the ability to fully appreciate the consequences of his acts (Allen, 1991).  

Child Act 2001 is commensurate with Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), which have been adopted by the Government of Malaysia since 1995. This act is an amendment to the provision relating to the care, protection and rehabilitation of children, as well as providing statute relating to children. Instead of recognizes children as important
asset, it also protects children and adolescent who are under the age to be punished and tried separately from adult. Several important sections that has been set by the act, which relevant to juvenile justice are as follows:

1. Section 12 (3) - No person shall be present at any sitting of the court for children except members and officers of the court, the parent, guardian, advocates, witnesses, person directly concern in that case and the person responsible is determined by the court.

2. Section 46 (1) - Parents may request in written to the Court For Children to detain a child in an approved school, place of refuge, probation hostel or center on the ground that the parent or guardian unable to control over the child.

3. Section 85 - Children should be separated from adults while at the police station or Courts.

4. Section 97 (1) – A sentence of death shall not be pronounced or recorded against a person convicted of an offence if it appears to the Court that at the time when the offence was committed he was a child.

Delinquent acts can be divided into prohibited omissions by law and status offenses. A status offence is considered as wider offences for juvenile, which fall into two forms; beyond the control of parent and being exposed to moral danger such as involvement in prostitution and sexual intimacy (Hussin, 2005). Children who being accused to delinquent offence are deal by the Court for Children and this legal process involving children into three distinguish phase, specifically, arrest, trial and post trial. During the process of arrest, suspects will be remanded in a police detention center or any detention center that gazetted only for children. However children who are detained may be released on bail, but, if any parent or guardian of a child fails to attend the Court when required they will be fined up to RM5000 and not more than two years imprisonment. During the trial process, the Court For Children shall require the child's parents or guardian to attend at the Court before which the
case is heard or determined during all the stages of the proceedings (Section 88[1]). Due to the limitation of children voice, the probation officer would seeking for a protection order from the Court and the parents or guardian may challenge such an order, even though such challenge are not common in Malaysia (Dusuki, 2006). Finally, post trial process is the phase when the Court has proved a child offence. Basically, according to virtue in Section 91(1) of Child Act, the Court have power to admonish and discharge the child, order the child to be placed in the care of proper person, order the child to pay a fine, make a probation, whipped with not exceeding 10 strokes of a light cane and order the child to be sent to a center or Henry Gurney school.

In Malaysia, the center for the children and underage adolescent that engaged in delinquency is under the purview of the Government of Malaysia. Probation hostel and Tunas Bakti School (TBS) are two forms of juvenile center, which coordinate by Department of Social Welfare (DSW). Probation hostel is children custody that established under the Section 61(1). It is accommodate a small number of remand cases and provide rehabilitation for a maximum 50 inmates within one year. TBS is established under the Section 65(1) and allocated juvenile offender for three years period. There is one juvenile center which also available, namely, Henry Gurney School (HGS). This school is outlines under the Section 73 and governs by the Prison Department of Malaysia. It is typically for adolescent between 14 to 21 years who committed serious offence and they should follow several treatments within 3 years.

Each centers holds the responsibility towards the children from the time of arrest or referral right till the reintegration of the child back into society (Rashid, 2008). Rehabilitation strategy has already been applied in centers in order to embark on programs that can deal with delinquency based on risk-factor approach. In dealing with juvenile delinquents, one must treat a juvenile as a person and should try to penetrate into the juvenile’s mind rather
than keeping them behind the cold walls (Mustaffa, 2009). Due to this challenging task, over the years, it has become aware of some major problems in dealing with juvenile offenders in the center, especially in finding suitable ways to reintegrate their delinquent behavior.

**Dilemmas of Juvenile Centers**

A punitive culture is historically and geographically specific set of practices through which a retributive and vengeful penalty is performed. Juvenile center is one of the punitive forms of the juvenile justice system. It is intended temporarily penitentiaries or correctional facilities, house convicts for sentences. This is not deliberated to be punitive, however, the placement of adjudicated youth in custody or detention for few weeks, months to several years, is for treatment. The concept of juvenile centers can be extract from the ideology of *total institution*, whereas nearly every aspect of the inmate’s daily life being control by others (Mays & Winfree, 2002). Public safety advocates have made juvenile center a priority for low-risk offenders, including first-time offenders, and those with strong family and community-based support systems (Austin, Johnson & Weitzer 2005).

Juvenile center provides vary services and facilities that geared to juvenile needs, for example education, which being a primary rehabilitative service to detained adolescent. Expertise that exists is not limited to the treatment staff only, but, social workers, counselor, psychologist, psychiatrists, caseworkers, case managers, educators, nurses and physicians that can provide a comprehensive integrated treatment. They are guided by an overarching philosophy that stresses the safety, health and security of the inmates according to Child Act 2001. In the center, inmates are afforded the opportunity to develop their competitive skills and move beyond drill to tackle increasingly complicated tasks (Gemignani, 1994). However, there is a sort of conspiracy of silence about conditions of incarceration life, which public opinion is not much concerned about. Van Den Hagg argues that no one has proof of the positive and negative effectiveness of the punishment and therefore the moral obligation is to
risk the possible ineffectiveness of executions (Haag, 1969). At the opposite extreme there are those who believe that punishment is futile and simply derived rationalization of revenge by living out of their own aggressive hostile impulses.

Inmates and detained adolescent have to spend from a few days, few months to a few years in custody. At best, they are emotionally and physically separated from the families and communities who are the most invested in their recovery and success (Holman & Ziedenberg, 2007). In more, it has a profoundly adverse impact on adolescent’s mental and physical wellbeing. One psychologist found that for one-third of incarcerated youth diagnosed with depression, the onset of the depression occurred after they began their incarceration (Forrest, Tambor, Riley, Ensminger & Starfield, 2000). In addition, the poor mental health and the conditions of confinement together conspire to make it more likely that incarcerated teens will engage in suicide and self-harm (Mace, Rohde & Gnau, 1997). Meanwhile, some researcher proposes that incarceration might give impact to the social life after being discharge. Economists have shown that the incarceration process will reduce the adolescent ability to remain in the workforce, and possible to change formerly detained youth into less stable employees (Freeman, 1991). Educational researchers also found that more than 40 percent of incarcerated youth face significant challenges and posses learning disability while returning to school after they being discharge (LeBlanc, 1991).

Most importantly, there is significant research suggests that the experience of detention may make it more likely that children and adolescent will continue to engage in delinquent behavior. While the serious and non-serious offenders live together, some of them will learn new destructive behavior. Furthermore, when the housed in overcrowded and understaffed facilities, the environment conspires to breed neglect, violence, and that the detention experience may increase the odds that youth will recidivate, further compromising public
safety. In 2011, the Government of Malaysia spends more than 50 billion to the centers and approximately it spends more than RM30 to each inmate (Malaysian Ministry of Finance, 2010). It such a wasteful when the cost incurred is extremely high but the crime and reoffending is continues arise. Why do we continue to spend lots of money and provide valuable resources building more locked facilities to detain low-risk youth if there is alternatives are less expensive and more effective than detention? Perhaps, this is the traditional mission of the juvenile justice system, which has been altered by the politicization of crime policy in this country.

There is much work to do in a juvenile justice system, which is so badly in need of reform. The reformation must aim to transform the administration of juvenile center in this country to make it more robust and credible. However, it should start by rewriting the scholarly image of penal modernity, otherwise, the contours of the present cannot be outlined and an effective critical intervention is forestalled. Even worldwide agreed that community-based treatment is the preferred alternative, however, institutional treatment might be the best way in order to conserve public safety and restore juvenile genuinely.
References


PARTNERSHIP AND COLLABORATION TOWARD PROMOTING AND STRENGTHENING SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION IN MYANMAR

Nguyen Thi Tung Uyen, Henry Ngun Ceu Thang, and Azlinda Azman

Abstract

The paper highlights the important role of social work education and training in Myanmar and further aims to promote and strengthen the social work education in the country through partnership and collaboration domestically and internationally. Social work profession is to bring change, transformation, and well being to people and their communities. Social work profession helps to empower people through acquiring skills, knowledge, positive attitude and values in life, and the ability to participate in the decision making. The practice of social work and development work has been carried out in Myanmar for years, but there is not much training and education in these fields of professions. This paper therefore brings in the need to promote and strengthen the social work education through partnership and collaboration to meet the demand of well trained social workers in the country.

Introduction

In order to achieve the goals of change, transformation and well being of the people in the communities through social work education, empowering the people through different social work education to the people to acquire skills, knowledge and positive attitude, values and participation in decision making process, social work education activities and programs should be utilized as one of the means of social work profession. Looking at the social work and development work worldwide, different modes of education activity and education promotion for respective targeted beneficiaries are always attached with most of Non Government Organizations (NGOs), International Non Government Organizations (INGOs) operation. Examples can be drawn from the work of leading organizations such as UNICEF with the theme of “Education is key to peace and social development”; ActionAid with “Education is a right. It’s the key to a better childhood, and a better future for children, their
communities and their countries”; World Vision International, CARE International with belief that “Education is empowering. It strengthens individuals, families and communities”; OXFAM International, PLAN International with the motto of “Education is one of the most powerful tools in breaking the cycle of poverty”; Save the Children… to a smaller scale of organization like Room to Read with “World change starts with educated children”. Most of these organizations and education programs have been implementing in Myanmar.

However, the reality shows the evidence of lacking of training and education both formally and informally for people who are engaged in the field of development and social work. The importance is the kind of educational system of a country has and how education causes social changes in that particular society and country. This point brings us to acknowledge the necessary of developing social work training and education in the country.

This paper focuses on the need to develop the social work education through partnership to meet the demand of well trained social workers in the country.

**Concept of Education**

According to Battad et.al (2003), education is conceived as a lifelong process of learning. Teaching and learning are two main activities in education while observation through life experiences is significant method in enhancing skills and knowledge for life. Abuso et.al (1998) gave the concept of education as a systematic, dynamic and organized process designed to enable learners to achieve certain goals and objectives; all kinds of learning covering knowledge, attitudes and skills acquired from school and non-school sources leading to desirable changes in the learner’s behavior; development of the human being for self-actualization and socialization for new roles arising as a consequence of changing economic, social, and political conditions in society; and creation of new knowledge for the development of a shared social structure and shared system of meanings.
Generally, there are three modes of education namely: *informal education* of which people acquires and accumulates knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences; *formal education* which refers to the highly institutionalized, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured; and *non formal education* which in turn also refers to any organized, systematic, educational activity carried outside the framework of formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population (Supe, 1983; Battad et.al, 2003). Non-formal education emphasizes on three areas: (i) *Non-formal education for rehabilitation*: Non-formal education can be a process for rehabilitation for the population, especially for the displaced population one way or another. One example is the experiences of Itas in 1992 in the Philippines due to the Mt. Pinabuto eruption. According to Abuso (1998), who has been involved in a community based literacy program among the Itas in Botolan, Zambales in 1992, found out that it is the NGOs that helped to conduct many non-formal education programs, which in return rehabilitated the displaced local Itas. (ii) *Non-formal education for empowerment*: Non Formal Education programs encourage participants to participate in the life of his or her community. Through non-formal education, participants gain higher self-esteem. The participants in those programs acquire greater confidence in themselves and a greater sense of self-initiative. Empowerment is one of the most significant benefits of non-formal education programs. The effect of education on self-esteem and self-confidence is especially significant among women in strongly male-dominated societies. Individuals empowered through adult literacy and non formal education programs have a higher capacity and desire for social change (Kumari, 1999). (iii) *Non-formal education for developing the capacities of human resources*: As non-formal education concentrates on the acquisition of skills and knowledge which are necessary for employability and competitiveness in the labor market, it will dearly and greatly contribute in developing human resources in rural and urban poor areas.
Partnership and Collaboration

There is no such “One Man Organization” in social work as the skills, knowledge and resources possessed by different organization differ in working for different people in different areas. There is a need of strong partnership if the purpose of organizations is working for the significant development for the people. Partnership can be done by individuals as well as by communities and organizations and strong partnerships among countries for politico-socio-economic development. It is the general belief that partnerships complement community social development activities to meet their needs for sustainable development and equip organizations to reach their objectives.

Partnership is defined as an “an arrangement where parties agree to cooperate to advance their mutual interests”. Partnership in social work profession is a commitment of different organizations/agencies in working together toward the more comprehensive and effective services for clients or service users. The partnership can also be defined as the inclusion of different stakeholders in the decision making process (The Open University, 2012). Briefly, partnership is about “two or more independent bodies working collectively to achieve more effective outcomes than they could by working separately” (JIT, 2009).

Collaboration can be also understood as working together in order to achieve shared goals by different partners of individuals or organizations. Working together enables both parties to Collaboration, cooperation, sharing information, skills, knowledge and resources are major practices of partnership among different organizations and agencies as partners for common objectives.

Partnership and collaboration are often used interchangeably and sometime they are put together (Carnwell and Carson in Carnwell and Buchanan, 2008). They can be in
informal or formal types. However, they can be categorized as (i) steering or networking group; (ii) joint project; (iii) coordinated activity; (iv) lead partner project; (v) separate organization (Citizen Advice Bureau, retrieved on November 12, 2012).

**The Need for Social Work Education in Myanmar**

The social work education program has been implemented in Myanmar for some years and accepting few students for Diploma of Social Work under the Department of Psychology of University of Yangon. The program includes social theory and practice, psychology in social welfare and field work. The Diploma of Social Work program can be attended by graduates who pass the tests of their communication skills and aptitude for social work. According to Dr. Aung Than Oo, the Department Head of Psychology Department, “the Psychology Department and the Department of Social Welfare had jointly established the one-year diploma course to ease a shortage of social workers” (Khin Su Wai, 2007).

However, it is important to ask how far this diploma of social work program can really reach out to a larger population in preparing social workers, and whether this program is efficient in promoting and strengthening the social work education in Myanmar. It is quite clear that workers working in International and Local Non-Government Organizations in Myanmar which have been implementing both social work and development works are not clear about the differences between social work and development. Through informal communicating and discussions made with some staff in Myanmar on their understanding about social work education, their responses were mostly related to development concept.

The reality is that it is only Psychology Department of Yangon University recently starting the diploma of social work program, not a degree program, with limiting to only some few students is the evidence of the need of strengthening social work education in Myanmar. There are social needs and problems encountered by the people, and addressing the social issues and problems and assisting people to help themselves is one of the main
important strategies for social work education. There are organizations working for social works in the field without well trained social workers and it limits the quality of social work services to people.

There should be efforts invested in finding the cause to lack of social work education and its positive and negative impacts to the service to the people. It is strongly believed that there is a need of establishing the partnership between Public Educational Institutions and Private/NGO sectors to promoting social work education in the country for better and quality social work services.

Through informal communication and discussion with some staff who works at Program Management level who oversees development and social works in Myanmar, they strongly recommended partnership and collaboration to strengthen the promotion of social work education in Myanmar. They shared their view that partnership and collaboration with different stakeholders and organizations should be strengthened to meet the various needs of communities, and partnership should be one of the approaches adopted by organizations to bring sustainable social work in the country. For them, partnership should not be limited among the organizations but should be extended to the local communities because it is the communities who best know their needs and strengths.

In Myanmar, partnership among social work and development organizations can be focused on organization development which can include financial resources, human resources, and communication and supporting training opportunities; networking with different organizations for sharing information, skills and knowledge, leadership development for social work programs; and establishing joint social work programs among local and international partners for capacity development for social workers and practitioners.

In summary of the need of social work education Myanmar, the strength is there are numbers of local and international organizations working for development and social work in
both rural and urban communities. The international organizations have more resources to enhance the skills and knowledge of their staff internally, which many local organizations have not had enough access to. The commitment of social and development workers in the country is undoubtedly strong for the community members, but what lacks for them as social and development workers and their organizations is still the required skills and knowledge for the specific job assigned to them. Based on the experiences in the field, it is highly important to enhance the skills and knowledge of the social and development workers in the country, as there are not yet sufficient and efficient institutions to provide development and social work courses. It is obvious that social and development workers need to be trained professionally in order to render quality services to beneficiaries, especially educational services which most of NGOs are providing.

**The Importance of Partnership and Collaboration in the Field of Social Work Education**

Partnership and collaboration are always part of strategy and action plan of most of local and international NGOs. It is not exceptional for those organizations working in the field of development and social work in Myanmar. Nevertheless, the partnership and collaboration network among these organizations are more focusing on sharing financial resource, human resource, information, skills and knowledge through certain training programs. Partnership and collaboration in the area of professional social work education is likely at its beginning.

While there is a high need of trained social workers to effectively implement educational programs and other activities at the field, number of social work education program is very limited at a very few universities in partnership and collaboration with certain NGO.
The partnership and collaboration in the area of professional social work education in Myanmar needs to be expanded beyond the country border. As social work education is not yet strong in the country, seeking partnership and collaboration with foreign institutions where social work education programs have long history and great achievement will enable this profession develops and produces qualified social workers for the country.

**Conclusion**

Social work is a professional and academic discipline that aims at improving the quality of life and well-being of individuals, groups, or communities. It is a profession working with human being to address their needs and problems. To be in this profession, it does not only require the will and commitment of sharing, assisting, and helping people, but it also requires lots of knowledge and skills in providing assessment, intervention, monitoring and evaluation. Therefore, social work practitioners need to be professionally trained and equipped important knowledge, skills, and attitude to work with people.

With its important roles in developing the lives of the people through giving knowledge and skills, social work training programs should not be just conducted on the spot. It has to be well organized, well planned, and well researched so that the programs can meet the needs of the people, so that it has constructive and positive impacts in their lives.

Social work education in Myanmar demands a form of partnership and collaboration locally and internationally for its development and improvement. Social work education has to be seen as the process and strategy to professional development. With this perspective, people in the organizations might realize the importance of social work education for both individuals and organizations both in urban and rural areas.
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INTERNAL COLLABORATION CHALLENGES IN POLICY IMPLEMENTATION
ACTIVITIES IN MALAYSIA: THE CASE OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Noor Azizah Ahmad and Ahmad Shukri Abdul Hamid

Abstract

This paper discusses some of the challenges faced by the Malaysian government in the course of implementing policies in the area of violence against women (VAW). It dwells on the issue of internal collaboration involving policy activities and implementation mechanisms comprising various agencies in Malaysia. Policy implementation is a complex process. It often requires a teamwork effort from amongst various agencies within and outside of the government. Specifically in the broader case of gender mainstreaming activities, under which the policy area of VAW can be subsumed, the government of Malaysia has in store various measures, aimed at eradicating such problems involving women in particular, and the broad area of violence in general. Such effort requires not only a collaborative effort from amongst local agencies but also from abroad. But as will be argued in this paper, apart from external collaboration, the challenges faced by the government and other non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in this particular area in terms of internal collaboration, also deserve a scrutiny all on its own. This paper outlines some of these challenges based on a study involving grassroot personnel who have been involved in the process. It serves to portray the kind of challenges that the government is facing specifically with regard to policy activities involving collaborative efforts amongst local agencies, departments, government and NGOs, particularly in the area of VAW.

Introduction

This paper discusses some of the challenges faced by the Malaysian government in the course of implementing policies in the area of violence against women (VAW). It dwells on the issue of internal collaboration involving policy implementation processes comprising various agencies and organizations in Malaysia. It is a well known fact that policy implementation is a complex process. It requires not only a collaborative effort from amongst local agencies but also from abroad. It is therefore imperative that a discourse be conducted so as to explicate the complexity of creating and maintaining such collaborative effort. But as
will be argued in this paper, internal collaboration involving the government and other non-governmental organizations (NGOs) may also deserve some highlights all on its own.

This paper draws from the findings of a study that focuses on the larger context of the implementation of gender mainstreaming (GM) policy in Malaysia. The concept of GM encompasses an amalgam of activities that constitute a particular dimension of policy that concerns women and gender-related issues. This paper pays attention to one particular area of policy which is violence against women (VAW). The aim is to outline some of the challenges faced by the government in the process of implementing policy and policy-related activities surrounding this particular issue. The discussion is based on thematic analyses of secondary sources of information and interviews involving grassroot personnel who have been involved directly in the process of policy implementation. It serves to portray the real-life challenges that the government, or more specifically the individuals who have been tasked with implementing policies, is facing in carrying out activities involving violence against women.

**Violence against Women and the Malaysian Policy Context**

The Malaysian government is a signatory (albeit with certain reservations) to the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). In Article 1 of the Convention, ‘discrimination against women’ is defined as ‘any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.’

One of the sad truth about the state of women in this country is that discrimination against them still persists. For this reason, the Malaysian government has introduced many initiatives to reduce and eliminate such discriminatory problems as VAW. In the policy
context, VAW as defined by the Government of Malaysia is a form of discrimination that involves maltreatment of women, be it in the form of inhibition of the ability to enjoy rights and freedom on the basis of equality with men, or any form of violent acts directed against women on the basis of them being women and which would adversely affect them. The effort to bring gender into the mainstream in issues related to domestic violence is crucial to prevent and reduce violence against women. This initiative has been included under the GM policy agenda.

Merry (2003) asserts that violence is a deeply gendered and sexualised phenomenon and therefore requires an intervention strategy that puts gender and sexual issues as an important part of the equation. GM agenda will put clear focus on the fate of women in relation to the problem of gender relations as the central issue when dealing with the problem of violence. In this country the perception that domestic violence is a private matter is still commonly held, particularly amongst those who cling to a more traditional outlook of the family institution. In fact in some cases, the idea of violence has not even been invoked due to the fact that family and marriage are considered as sacred and private. Strong belief in the sanctity of marriage and the traditional authority held by husbands over their wives sometimes render such problems as violence and other marital issues a hidden problem. GM should be able to bring forth the awareness that a degree of openness and open discourse of familial problem is healthy and even crucial not only for the purpose of safeguarding the personal safety of women (and to certain extent, children and men as well) but also serve the greater purpose of protecting the sanctity of the family institution itself.

In Malaysia, issues that concern VAW falls under the prerogatives of the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development (MWFCD). As far as policy implementation is concerned, the ministry is responsible to oversee all aspects of policies concerning women affairs. For the most part, the ministry has been an active player in the policy realm, but as so
is the case with other policy initiatives, ultimately its capability to properly implement the policies, is bounded by the amount of money it receives from the government in terms of annual budgetary allocation. Since issues that concern women can vary considerably, the ministry is often involved in some sort of balancing act when it comes to giving priorities, which determines the amount of budgetary allocation (Noor Azizah, 2012). VAW is a particular area where such balancing act requires a little bit more stretch.

Being a signatory of international movements concerning women such as The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the problem of VAW in this country earns itself a considerable amount of attention. But as mentioned earlier, VAW is a complex issue. The multitude of definitions of the phenomenon and sheer scope of it further contribute to the difficulty in making policy implementation. For example, the definitions offered by the United Nation’s (UN) and the World Health Organizations (WHO) cover not only behavioral, emotional, sexual and psychological dimensions of violence but also structural aspects which considerably widens the scope of the phenomenon. While extensive depth and breadth of definitions may be considered crucial to ensure comprehensive coverage (to ensure that nothing that matters will be left out), it also creates problems when the actual policy are to be implemented.

In order to lighten the load that the ministry has to bear, particularly in tackling complex cases of VAW, a potent strategy is to collaborate with agencies, departments and organizations that deal with similar cases. These include the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health, Police Departments and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Although for many of these agencies, departments and organizations, problems such VAW are not considered as their main prerogative, the fact that they also got involved whenever such issues occur, makes them an inevitable (and to a certain degree, reluctant) partner in the
policy process. Thus collaboration between different departments and agencies is a mainstay of the policy process, and with it comes a set of challenges.

**Policy Activities Concerning VAW: Inter-Agency Collaboration and Its Challenges**

The study from which this paper derives involves a series of interviews with major stakeholders in the operation of policies and programmes on VAW. The context of this study was gender mainstreaming activities in Malaysia and the portion on which this paper is based represents a small part of a larger study. In particular the part of the study which form the basis of the current discussion centres around the views (which were abstracted into the form of emerged themes) expressed by key personnel from various agencies involved in the policy implementation. The respondents involved in this study and their affiliations are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 – Respondents and their Affiliations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GOVERNMENT AGENCIES</th>
<th>DEPARTMENT</th>
<th>RESPONDENTS</th>
<th>POST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Royal Malaysian Police</td>
<td>Criminal Investigation Division Sexual Violence Unit</td>
<td>1 (Male)</td>
<td>Superintendent of Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 (Female)</td>
<td>Assistant Superintendent of Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Investigating Officer (Inspector and Sergeant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development</td>
<td>Women’s Development Department Welfare Department</td>
<td>2 (Female)</td>
<td>Director and Counsellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (Male)</td>
<td>Director</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital</td>
<td>One-Stop-Crisis Centre, Emergency Department, Kuala Lumpur Hospital</td>
<td>1 (Male)</td>
<td>Assistant Director, Emergency Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One-Stop-Crisis Centre Unit</td>
<td></td>
<td>Director, Emergency Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department</td>
<td>Number of Respondents</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency Department, Alor Setar Hospital</td>
<td>1 (Female)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DEPARTMENT</strong></td>
<td><strong>NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS</strong></td>
<td><strong>POST</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Women’s Action Society (AWAM)</td>
<td>3 (Female)</td>
<td>Program Manager</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Training Manager</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Social worker</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s Centre for Change (WCC)(^3)</td>
<td>3 (Female)</td>
<td>Chairperson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Deputy Chairperson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Counsellor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s Aid Organization (WAO)</td>
<td>2 (Female)</td>
<td>Service Coordinator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumah Nurul Hana (Safe House or shelter home for victims)</td>
<td>1 (Female)</td>
<td>Chairperson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from showing the demography of respondents involved in this study, Table 1 also reveals the various ministries, departments, agencies and NGOs which are either directly or indirectly involved as stakeholders in the policy activities related to GM and VAW. An inter-agency program known as One Stop Crisis Centre (OSCC) for example, incorporates various agencies and ministries such as the MWFCD, the Ministry of Health (MOH), the Royal Malaysian Police, the Ministry of Education, Kuala Lumpur General Hospital, Legal Aid Bureau and the Religious Department, Women Crisis Center (WCC), Women’s Aid Organization (WAO) and All Women Action Society (AWAM). Needless to say that because of the varied nature of affiliations involved in such area of policy the issues also vary considerably. From the interviews conducted throughout this study and also from secondary sources of information, several significant issues have been identified and upon reflection, these issues can be formulated into insights and problems regarding collaboration between

\(^3\) This organization was previously known as the Women’s Crises Centre.
agencies in policy implementation activities. Some of the most salient themes that had emerged during the conduct of this study are as follows:

a) **Collaboration is a Reciprocal Relationship**

   It is not uncommon for NGOs to foster collaborative relationship with other agencies, particularly those that have substantial influence in the policy circle. Working closely with such agencies ensures that their programmes and activities are in line with the policy guidelines. While many NGOs by themselves are well-versed in the tasks that they set out to perform, it is nevertheless crucial for them to keep operating within the stipulated boundaries spelled out by policy directives. On the flipside, it is also reasonable to assume that government authorities that are tasked with implementing policies also rely on NGOs to help out with their functions. This is evident from the fact that all the NGOs surveyed in this particular study have been receiving fund from the MWFCD which greatly helped with their operations. The WAO for example has been receiving RM20-25 thousand a year to support their operations in providing shelter for their clients. With these allocations, from the point of view of the ministry and other governmental agencies, the NGOs provide invaluable services that assist them in policy implementation.

b) **Collaboration is Strategic**

   Healthy collaboration requires strategic partnership. Of particular importance in this sense is the budgetary allocation that organizations direly require to make their programmes or activities work. Many grassroot personnel concur that networking and collaborative effort between their own organizations and others do exist and that they are needed to make things run smoothly. A respondent from WCC for example suggests that WCC has been collaborating with many other agencies for a long time. For example, WCC has been described as having a close working relationship with the MWFCD. Being the most
authoritative player in the policy implementation process, the latter provides invaluable source of support as well as directives for organizations like the WCC. Quoting a response from an interview, the WCC respondent has this to say:

...at this moment we feel that we are able to overcome many things specifically because we have support from the Ministry. We have been working together for so long with the Women’s Ministry. We have meetings and they even call the WCC to be involved in steering committees in Kuala Lumpur. If we encounter problems with other enforcement agencies, the staff here will go directly to the officer. If the officer does not pay attention then we will speak directly to the senior officer.

From this tit-for-tat collaborative arrangement it is clear that one of the reasons organizations such as WCC value their relationship with other agencies is due to their need for monetary assistance, but it is far from being the only reason. Collaboration with other organizations, particularly those that have an advantageous power position, also help to compel commitment and ensure that problems with regard to their operational tasks be tackled more efficiently.

c) Money is Always the Bottom Line

Nevertheless, funding is still a crucial element that supports as well as creates the need for collaboration. One of the obstacles identified in this study is that many NGOs rely heavily on monetary assistance from the government. In the case of VAW, the MWFCD is one of the main sources of funding that many other organizations rely upon to secure a significant amount of their budgetary needs. While this is not in itself a collaborative issue, it does however affect the policy implementation process. For example, the MWFCD by itself is often overwhelmed by the sheer amount of workload that it needs to address, much less to give complete attention to the problem and finding proper solutions. The existence of external agencies that are willing to shoulder some of the burden, albeit for a price, should
come as a blessing. Funding these agencies not only ease the burden of carrying out tasks, but also allows the ministry to supervise or provide proper directives over those activities. In effect, the ministry becomes a regulatory body that ensures activities involving various agencies and NGOs are performed in congruence with the prescribed policies.

d) Collaborative Effort Often Comes with Occasional Hiccups

Another issue that was raised by respondents in our interviews concerns the operational constraints that plague the effort to provide services to women involved in VAW cases. Oftentimes, VAW cases involve a complex mix of issues that range from personal problems to legal issues, and from medical attention to the need for shelter. For each of these needs cooperation from different agencies may be needed. Any kind of hold up or bureaucratic issues that arises in any of these agencies could clog up the process. In the case of One Stop Crisis Center (OSCC) for example (see Noor Azizah, 2012), due to the extensive amount of cooperation needed from various agencies, occasional hiccups are to be expected. A point raised by WAO in one of their report on such case involving VAW is illustrative of this type of problem:

...even with Domestic Violence Act in place, we found that the police are still resistant to cooperating fully with the complainant. Even when women groups highlighted this lack of cooperation and insensitivity through the media, we were threatened and intimidated by the police that we could be charged for false news (WAO, 2003:10).

The OSCC demonstrates the extent of collaborative effort needed to handle cases involving VAW. Yet despite such occasional hiccups, the collaborative effort such as that shown in the case of OSCC provides a glaring example of how inter-agency cooperation can still be made to work.
e) The Unfortunate Case of Passing the Buck Attitude

Solving a problem within a collaborative setup requires cooperative zest from amongst the parties involved. To use a systemic analogy, a collaborative enterprise is like a tightly wound spring-loaded toy. Each part in the toy possesses a specific function that controls the energy flowing through the system coming from the tightly wound spring and distribute it throughout the system. The sole purpose is to solve a common problem, which is to move the apparatus in the desired fashion and bring to fruition the goal for which the system is designed to achieve. As straight-forward as it may sound, the goal however can only be achieved if each parts perform its intended function to specification.

Unfortunately, in the case of VAW, occasional lack of enthusiasm and passing the buck attitude lead to a bleed in the system. The policy implementation mechanism which is supposed to perform a clockwork operation becomes less than effective in the face of such bleed. The case of OSCC and the aftermath of it’s own shortcomings demonstrates how such bleed could happen. A respondent from WCC described how VAW victims, who already face a tumultuous event, could suffer additional hassle from the system. In the respondent’s own words:

“...even though there are staff on duty at night we did not have other facilities. The hospitals have more facilities compared to us, they should take the initiative to transfer victim to us. We are willing to accept them anytime. However, they have to come and turn the victims over to us as it also involves lots of paperwork to transfer the victims from hospitals or police.”

The respondent was referring to a situation whereby due to financial shortcomings, the NGOs can afford to operate only during daytime. However, when cases occur at night, the NGOs have to rely on the hospital or the police to secure the victim and bring them to a shelter if necessary. The lackluster response shown by its collaborative partners, in this case
the hospital and the police, to help the victim engage the NGOs (a simple professional
courtesy of transporting the victim to a shelter, for example), despite having fully aware of
the stressful situation that the victim might be experiencing at that moment, has in some
sense disrupt the smooth operation of the whole system.

Another respondent from the WAO related similar instance of what can be described
as another case of passing the buck attitude involving law enforcement officers.
I believe higher level officials understand what needs to be done, but not amongst
lower level officials. The most important person at the police station for instance, is
an officer who will file the report. However, if they are not aware of IPOs (Interim
Protection Order), DVA (Domestic Violence Act) and domestic violence, of course
they will not treat the victim with the respect they deserve. Instead, they just say this
is not police duty, go to the Islamic Religious Department or Syariah Court (for
Muslims).

These and other such instances of less than desirable attitude observed by these
respondents clearly indicate the existence of substantive collaboration between organizations
providing services for victims. Nevertheless, there is a need to ensure those involved in the
implementation of policies or programs fully understand the need to exercise more prudence
in judgement when carrying out their duties.

Conclusion

In many situations, collaborative efforts amongst various agencies from within as
well as outside of the government in policy implementation are inevitable. It is therefore
crucial that serious attention is given to scrutinise the operation of such enterprise and how it
can affect policy implementation. This paper reports on some of the challenges faced by the
government in implementing policies within a collaborative setting. For the most part, based
on accounts by grassroot personnel who involved directly in policy implementation
mechanisms, collaboration between different agencies are considered a healthy development. Such collaboration has been described as beneficial, strategic and financially helpful. As such much benefits have been gained when things are running smoothly, which, for the most part, they do. Only when things don’t turn up as tightly as they should be that collaboration becomes a challenge, particularly for those who are at the front line. Such problems as bureaucratic red tapes and lacking in professional courtesy may hinder the smooth running of such collaborative enterprise. Obviously, the wrinkles in the fabric can be ironed out and squeaky parts lubricated relatively easily. Much more important however is to ensure that policies concerning human services, such as in the area of VAW, are carried out and implemented with the victim’s welfare be kept closely at heart.

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Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).


SOCIAL CAPITAL AND PERFORMANCE OF SMALL BUSINESSES: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF SMALL MANUFACTURERS IN MALAYSIA

Nor Hasni Haron

Abstract

The performance of small businesses has been one of the major issues in developed as well as developing countries. As the most predominant mode of businesses in almost all countries, the strength and growth of these businesses are very much essential. However, these businesses have long been reported to face many problems concerning their management, financial supports, technologies and other internal problems. Many small businesses have bankrupt or failed especially during the economic crisis. The supplier and customer relationships are found to be among the most premier problems to these businesses and contributed to their failures. Among the problems are delaying in payments and collections, declining in product demand, rising cost of raw material and lowering demand from customers. These problems would be reduced by having good external business relationships. Thus, this study examines the impact of buyer-supplier and buyer-seller trust on performance of the small businesses. Supplier and customer trust are part of small business social capital. This study has examined on small sized manufacturers and the samples were taken from Malaysian SMEs Directory 2010 using stratified random sampling. A total of 209 questionnaires were answered by owner-managers and analyzed. The result has shown the positive significant influence of buyer-supplier trust on non-financial performance, but insignificant influence of buyer-seller trust on non-financial performance. It can be concluded that social capital has an impact on small business performance, but on certain dimension.

Introduction

The performance of small businesses has been one of the major issues in developed as well as developing countries. As the most predominant mode of businesses in almost all countries, the strength and growth of these businesses are very much essential. However, these businesses have long been reported to face many problems concerning their management, financial supports, technologies and other internal problems. Many small businesses have bankrupt or failed especially during the economic crisis. In Malaysia, about
79,310 SMEs discontinued during the year 2002 and the numbers are rising (Che Rose, Kumar & Yen, 2006). About 75.7% of the first year entrepreneurs failed and only 8% to 22% would last through the next five years (Shariffudin & Foong, 2004). Moreover, out of 37,000 new started businesses, about 60% have failed each year in the past five years (Omar, 2006) and only 10% of SMEs start-ups survived beyond 10 years (Che Rose et al, 2006). Financial and economic crisis have worse affected small businesses. Many of the businesses had collapsed and bankrupt during financial crisis in 1997 (Lakis, 2004). Supplier and customer relationships were found to be among the most premier problems that contributed to their failures. Among the problems were declining in product demand (Whah, 2006), delaying in payment collection and rising cost of raw materials (SMIDEC, 2008), lowering expenditures and demanding from customers (Zulkifli, Kamal, Rushdan, & Zakiah, 2010) and delaying of credit collections (Zainudin, 2008). However, these problems are believed to reduce by having good external business relationships. Thus, the objective of this study is to examine the impact of buyer-supplier and buyer-seller trust on performance of the small businesses.

**Literature Review**

**Performance of small business**

Resource-based Theory (RBT) is used to develop a more conceptually rigorous model of firm performance. The theory focuses on how firm sustained competitive advantage and how superior performance can be attained relative to other firms in the same market by acquiring and exploiting unique resources of the firm (Barney, 1991). Chandler and Hanks (2002) who conducted a study on 155 small manufacturing businesses between the year 1980 and 1991 in the nine counties in Northwestern Pennsylvania, found significant relationship between the overall abundance of resource-based capabilities to venture performance. This study defines non-financial performance as satisfaction of the business activities. Entrepreneurial satisfaction is a basic of non-financial performance that leads to the business
activities decisions (Cooper & Artz, 1995). This paper is proposing non-financial performance as indicators to small business performance.

Social Capital

Social capital is classified as resource (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) of an individual, group or organization. According to Nahapiet and Ghoshal, the sum of the resource derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Coleman (1988) is among the earliest scholar who was responsible for bringing the dimensions of social capital into the wider used in the following years. According to Coleman, extensive trustworthiness and trust within a group are the forms of social capital. Radius of trust is among the important social capital component studied in firm or organization relationship (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). The study by Tsai and Ghoshal examined how social capital affects the internal functioning of firms and contributes to a firm’s innovation. This study is focusing on the dimension of social capital namely inter-organizational trust. Inter-organizational trust is the resource of external relationship in the business relation and has been examined in few types of relationships such buyer-supplier relationship, buyer-seller relationship, supplier-distributor relationship, manufacturer-agent relationship, and business partner relationship.

Buyer-supplier and Buyer-seller Trust Relationships

Welter (2003) indicated that one way of identifying forms of trust in inter-organizational relationship is to look at the ways of customers and suppliers cooperate in the relationships. This study looks into the inter-organizational relationship between buyer-supplier and buyer-seller relationships. The combination of these two dyads of relationships may better determine the inter-organizational trust of SMEs. This study defines supplier as the firm or people representing the firm who the industry purchases from, while customer is defined as the distributor or retailer or people representing the firm who the industry sells to. Trust in both relationships is expected to enhance the performance of the business. The roles
of individuals are assigned in organization, restricted and guided by organizational roles (Noo teboom & Noorderhaven, 1997). Thus, inter-organization trust relation involves a key decision maker or a directed and assigned individual who acts with the autonomy on behalf of the organization or firm. The inter-organizational relationship in the context of this study is the relationship between the key decision maker of a business who is acting with autonomy on behalf of his/her firm with another individuals assigned in other organizations.

Past studies have shown the positive relationship between buyer-supplier and buyer-seller relationship with few of the outcomes. For example, to further develop the relationship (Bell et al., 2002), develop the performance of the firm (Zaheer et al., 2005; Claro & Claro, 2008), and increase sale effectiveness (Johnson & Grayson, 2005). A study conducted by Zaheer et al. (2005) on dyadic exchange relationships of 107 electrical equipment manufacturers and their component suppliers used fairness, trustworthy and reliability to measure buyer-supplier trust relationship. The study found that the buyer-supplier trust clearly associated with firm’s performance. Another study by Claro and Claro (2008) investigated on 132 distributors companies on the impact of mechanisms of trust (calculative, affective, belief) with producers or suppliers channel relationships and associated with firm’s performance.

Consequently, the buyer-seller relationships associated the trust with various outcomes such as performance (Hua et al., 2009), firm strategic decision making (Sanner, 2005), and relationship development (Nooteboom et al., 1997). For example, Nooteboom et al. (1997) examined the impact of buyer-seller trust on relational risk; size of loss and probability of loss. The study investigated on 97 suppliers in microelectronics assembly industry and found that trust has a negative effect on risk in the form of perceived probability of loss. The study on trust within entrepreneurial is still new. Only in 2006, Welter and Smallbone have explored the role of trust played in entrepreneurship in West and East
Europe by interviewing a total of 702 owner managers. The study found that personal trust plays a complementary entrepreneurship role in a stable institutional environment, whereas, in inadequate environment, it can substitute for institutional deficiencies.

**Methodology**

Satisfaction measure of entrepreneurs is the dimension of non-financial performance. The instrument by Cooper and Artz (1995) consists of four items including the entrepreneurs’ or owner-managers’ satisfaction with their sale, profit, overall satisfaction and their personal view on starting the same business again. The reliability of this scale is high with a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.81. Two types of inter-organizational trust that is buyer-supplier and buyer-seller trust relationships are the dimensions of social capital. The instrument adopted by Doney and Cannon (1997) is to measure the trust to supplier firm and to accommodate the industrial buyer-supplier context of this research which exhibited reliability (alpha= .78). The second, instrument is to measure the trust to customers which to accommodate the industrial buyer-seller context of this research and exhibited the Cronbach alpha of 0.74.

In order to test the hypotheses, an empirical study was conducted on 215 small manufacturers (5 and 50 employees) in Malaysia using stratified random sampling. The year 2010 SMEs Directory was used to get to the samples. Out of 1133 mailed surveys, 215 were return and analyzed. The response rate is 18.9%, which achieve the common response rate of 18% - 20% of Malaysian business studies. The questionnaires were mailed to owner managers who are the decision makers of the companies.

**Finding and Discussion**

The two main hypotheses are tested using multiple regressions of SPSS. These include the relationships between social capital and non-financial performance. Both buyer-supplier and buyer-seller trust make positive unique contributions to explaining the
satisfaction of small enterprises with beta coefficient of .30 and .127 (sig. at < .05) respectively. It can be concluded that only the buyer-supplier is significant influence the satisfaction of the small-sized enterprises. In conclusion, the supplier trust has an impact on the small business performance non-financially. The result implies the important of supplier trust as compared to customer trust in performing small businesses. The result has shown the positive significant influence of buyer-supplier trust on non-financial performance, but insignificant influence of buyer-seller trust on non-financial performance. It can be concluded that social capital has an impact on small business performance, but on certain dimension.

**Conclusion**

As a conclusion, this study generally points the important of social capital for small business performance and supports the RBT theory. This study also has pointed out that small businesses focus more on supplier trust relationship rather than customer trust relationship. However, the lacking of studies relating to intangible resource such as social capital and small businesses performance needs further research.
References


UNWED PREGNANCY DISCLOSURE: NEW INPUT FOR BABY DUMPING PREVENTION PROGRAM

Noralina Omar and Siti Hajar Abu Bakar Ah

Abstract

Recently, the incidences of baby dumping which was mainly resulted from unwed pregnancies are alarming. The social situation will degenerate if it is not handled with effective measures. A small scale study was conducted in 2011 to understand the problem. Main objective of the study was to identify factors to unwed pregnancy amongst school girls. Using a qualitative approach, respondents were face-to-face interviewed, flexibly guided by an interview protocol. The interviews were carried out to six female teenagers who had been convicted with unwed (illegal) pregnancy and baby-dumping offences. Those teenagers were residents of one of our local public probation hostels, which is under the administration of the Prison Department of Malaysia. These factors were reported as causes to unwed pregnancy - broken family, respondents' antisocial personalities, and deficiency in cultural values. The findings provide an alternative views and understanding about baby dumping issues and, are used as parameters for prevention programs.

Introduction

Incidents of baby-dumping in the local atmosphere are escalating. Cases of unwed pregnancy amongst school girls and their efforts to abandon and/or destroy their babies, and cases of which members of public find corpse or remains of babies which were dumped in rivers, sewers and waste disposal sites are frequently reported by our local media. Reports and statistics from agencies, such as the police force and the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development indicate that the cases of baby-dumping in Malaysia are increasing. The problem will accelerate if no intervention is offered to the target groups, in this case the school girls.

In most reported cases, baby-dumping amongst adolescents were resulted from unwed pregnancy, which were due to involvement in immature sexual activities. Upon the occurrence of the unwanted pregnancy, most of the girls confront with various challenges
and problems. Failure to cope and to react to the unwanted pregnancy, most of the girls will resort to either illegally abort their pregnancy or discarding the just born babies. Therefore, baby-dumping is not only about the crime act of it. The problem needs to be discussed along with antecedent factors and/or causal factors which contributed to the unwanted pregnancy among the offenders.

**Contributing Factors to Unwanted Pregnancy**

Literature and researches have continuously verified that unwanted pregnancy among young girls is resulted from various social factors. And, there is no single contributing factor to unwanted pregnancy among young girls. Most of the risk factors to unwanted pregnancy are interconnected and their dominance depend on the competency of the protective factors to counteract or to buffer the impact of the risk factors.

Lovett (2004), Martin et al. (2010), Walker et al. (2009), Wilson (2009) and Cervera (1994) in their studies found that most unwanted pregnancy amongst young girls was resulted from sexual abuse. The studies also discover that most of victims live in a home where incest, suicide, substance abuse and other form of criminal activities occurred. Miller et al. (2006) found that most of pregnant teens in their studies had experienced of physically or sexually abused.

In term of victim’s personality, psychoanalytic perspective confirms that most girls who involved with sexual offences have specific personality characteristics, such as poor impulse control, inadequate judgment, low self-esteem, and immaturity. Again, Miller et al. (2006) confirmed that most of pregnant teens are ignorant and/or disobedient of religious teachings and practices, and have negative psychosocial traits, such as prone to antisocial behaviours.

In the aspect of family risk factors, studies suggested that most girls who involve with sexual offences come from these household characteristics: low parental education and
income, living in a single parent home, lacking parental support and supervision and having parents with permissive sexual values. According to Benson (2004), poor communication between family members, especially child-parents communication, unstable family relationship, conflict family environment and negative style of parenting are significant contributing factors to pregnancy among teens. Cervera (1993) observed that most pregnant teens had uncertain or unstable relationship with their mothers; the parental dyad (father and mother) had some difficulties, aloof relationship between siblings and communicates occasionally amongst them.

On the other hand, Lipovsek et al. (2000) found that family characteristics (i.e., place of birth, number of male and female siblings) and knowledge of pregnancy risk did not differ significantly. The finding revealed a complex web of such factors; such as girls are encouraged or pressured by partners and peers to have sexual relations but strict social norms preclude open discussion about sexuality between parents and youth. The findings suggest that adolescent female in Bolivia lack trustworthy support network with their families, peer groups and partners, which then would empower them to seek information regarding sex from other adults (Lipovsek et al. 2000). The findings further suggest that, although factors related to the individual such as high self-esteem are associated with being able to avoid unwanted pregnancy, structural factors also contribute to the health and developmental status of adolescent females.

According to Benson (2004), most teens do not aware of their pregnancy. So, pregnancy can be a stressful time for the teens and their families. For some teens and their families, an unwanted pregnancy leads to consideration of abortion or some adolescents who give birth choose to place their baby for adoption. Donnelly and Voydanoff (1996), in their study found out that most of pregnant teens chose to abort or give their babies for adoption due to their needs to complete school and foresee future educational opportunities.
The 2011 Study

A qualitative study was conducted in 2011 to identify factors of unwed pregnancy amongst girls. In-depth interviewed, flexibly guided by an interview protocol were carried out to six female teenagers who had been found guilty for unwed pregnancy and/or abandoned their babies. Those teenagers were residents of one of the public probation hostels, which is under the administration of the Prison Department of Malaysia. The interview protocol consists of five sections: risk factor checklist, cause of pregnancy, background of the partner and the pregnancy, and the delivery and dumping process. Part of the risk factor checklist was adapted from Adolescent Clinical Sexual Behaviour Inventory, introduced by Friedrich et al. (2004).

Result

1. Respondents’ profiles - The six respondents were in the age range of 17 to 20 years old. Three of them were 17 years old. All are Malays. Only one of them comes from a big family with 9 siblings. The rest come from a family with 1-5 siblings.

2. Family characteristic - Five, out of six come from socially-physically challenged families, as has been summarized in Table 1.

3. Personality risk factors – All six respondents reported that they have poor impulse control, like to flirt around, mixed around with antisocial peers, involved with antisocial behaviour (esp. smoking, drugs, alcohol), low self-esteem (easily be influenced by peers), and disobey their religion teachings.

Table 1: Family characteristic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Family Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1           | Live with father and stepmother  
Parents divorced when respondent is still a child  
Father work as a fire fighter  
Mother’s job is unknown |
| 2           | Come from intact family  
Father works as a factory supervisor  
Mother is a full-time housewife |
3. Live with grandmother since childhood because of parent divorced  
   Father died because of HIV  
   Mother’s job is unknown

4. Live with foster family since childhood  
   Foster father was a pensioner, and was deceased  
   Foster mother is a fulltime housewife  
   Parents-unknown

5. Live with father  
   Parents divorced when respondent was 3 yrs old  
   Father is a drug trafficker, illegal fire arms dealers, and also a pimp  
   Mother’s information is unknown

6. Live with grandmother, was expelled by mother  
   Parents’ job-unknown

4. Partner’s background - All of them were pregnant due to sexual intercourse with their boyfriends. Three of the respondents’ boyfriend was in the range of age 16 to 18 years old (age of children). Whereas, the other three involve with an adult men; 20, 24 and 35 years old. In term of job status of partner, one partner was a college student, one was jobless, and one works as a factory operator, one work in the private sector and one was a businessman. Only one respondent reported that her boyfriend was a gangster. 

5. Factors to either keep or abandon their babies – Only three out of six of the respondents tried to abort their babies illegally. Two were eager to keep their pregnancies and babies; while one of the girls attempted to kill herself. Reasons for either keep their babies or abort their pregnancies are summarised in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1           | Attempt to dump her baby  
   Partner was HIV positive  
   Rejection by family  
   Easy access to private clinic/hospital |
| 2           | Want to keep her pregnancy and baby  
   Partner want to be responsible & give support |
| 3           | Want to keep her pregnancy and baby  
   Partner want to be responsible |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Support by grandmother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Want to keep her pregnancy and baby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Care &amp; support by the rehabilitation centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Want to keep her pregnancy and baby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Partner want to be responsible &amp; give support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Many private hospital willing to assist unwed pregnancy girls; esp. the delivery process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Want to keep her pregnancy and baby; but was intimidated by her partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Got new boyfriend and he is willing to take care of the baby</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. **Future plan** – All of the girls plan to either have a career or further their studies. Two of them want to be a tailor, one want to help her grandmother at her restaurant; two want to further their studies and one to be a nurse.

**Discussion**

The findings, at least, assist us with alternative views and understanding about baby dumping issues. Based on the findings, we want only to highlight two forms of interventions in this section; which are:

(1) Prevention program for the at-risk girls; and,

(2) Social support program for the unwed pregnant girls.

**Prevention programs for at-risk girls**

Prevention programs for baby-dumping problem among girls may need to focus on measures that effectively can prevent or protect the at-risk girls from being involved with sexual intercourse. If the at-risk girls (i.e., come from unstable family, divorced parents, antisocial parents, single parents home) are enrolled into intervention programs such as abstinence program and sex education program, they may be protected from the act that could contribute to their pregnancies.

As personal traits play a critical contribution to their involvement in sexual activities, the prevention program need to consider measures on strengthening the at-risk girls’ personal traits. Social skills intervention such as interpersonal skills, cognitive development skills and
effective coping strategies skills need to be considered. Programs for personal traits enhancement also need to include spiritual activities due to the fact that religion teachings can play an influential prevention mechanism against criminal temptation (Ibn Khaldun in Muhsin Mahdi 2006). The social cohesion (attachment, commitment, involvement and belief) makes people refrain from engaging in criminal behaviour.

As family also play a significant role in contributing to pre-mature sexual activities, unwed pregnancy and baby-dumping, the prevention program need to involve family sector. Intervention program that focused on the family; such as parenting classes, conducive family interaction classes, and family therapy for teenagers and their parents to help them resolved family issues that were contributing to delinquent behaviour and risky sexual behaviour need to be considered.

It is said that “it takes the whole village to take care of a child or protect a child”. Hence, the prevention program needs to be in a form of community-based social care. All sectors in a community, such as the informal (i.e., the family, neighbourhood), formal sector (i.e., the school, social welfare agencies and other human services agencies, PTA), the private sector (i.e., business and corporate), and the third sector (i.e., self-help groups, voluntary organisations, NGOs) need to work in a partnership manner in providing conducive social facilities and prosocial activities to safeguard children in one’s community.

**Social support program for the unwed pregnant girls**

The girls may want to keep their pregnancies or may not abandoned their babies if their families able to accept their pregnancy and give good support for them to go through the pregnancy and delivery process and support them for their education and child care. Most of pregnant girls also may keep their pregnancies and babies if their boyfriends want to be responsible for the pregnancies. In relation to this, parents need to be equipped with knowledge and social skills on how to accept, assist and support their unwed pregnant
daughter. Social support groups need to be established for parents who are in the same shoe. Social support program for the pregnant girls, such as educational meeting for teenagers (boys and girl) to educate them about child rearing, setting goals, family planning and related subject that could makes life better need to be considered.

References


LEADERSHIP STYLES IN FUND MANAGEMENT INSTITUTIONS

TOWARDS ACHIEVING QUALITY WORK CULTURE

Norlina M. Ali, Joeaiza Juhari and Ruziah A. Latif

Abstract

Over the years, the development of the fund management sector has been growth compared with the other sectors in Malaysia. The aim of this study is to investigate which leadership style creates a quality work culture at fund management firms. Data were collected in a survey and the respondents chosen among employees from first line managers up to top management in the fund management institutions. These employees were given structured questionnaires and direct interviews with several executives. Bass and Avolio's (1995), Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X) is used to measure leadership styles and the questions on quality work culture were adopted from Geri McKeown. Besides, IFE matrix is applied to determine the current work culture at fund management institutions. Findings revealed that transactional leadership had greatest influence to the quality work culture. A strong quality work culture may due to the number of years the institutions existed in the industry. This statement is supported by the strong correlation between quality work culture and leadership styles. The strong significant relationship between leadership style and quality work culture clearly shows that transactional leadership style possessed by majority of leaders is the main leadership style that influence the level of quality work culture. The paper is hoped to contribute towards improving the quality work culture by identifying the prominent leadership style practiced by fund management institutions.

Introduction

Over the years, the development of the fund management sector has been growth compared with the other sectors in Malaysia. To become well-known fund management institutions in Malaysia, leaders play an important role in managing future direction to the organization. An excellent leader will lead the staffs to become more proactive in executing their daily tasks. Today, most of the successful organizations have leaders and managers at every level of the organization to monitor and supervise employees’ behavior and
performance. Some people are good leaders, while others are not. Some of the leaders are overaggressive while others underaggressive. The leadership styles of leaders may influence the quality of work culture in the organization. If the leaders possess poor qualities of leadership styles it may affect the quality work culture in the organizations. Therefore, this study will provide findings on which leadership style creates a quality work culture at fund management institutions in Malaysia. The aim of this study is to determine the current quality work culture at the fund management institutions. Furthermore, it also attempts to investigate which leadership style creates a quality work culture at the institutions. The findings on this paper are hoped to contribute towards improving the quality work culture by identifying the prominent leadership style practiced by fund management institutions. It is very important to investigate and understand the leadership styles of fund management institutions since they may have positive consequences for improvement of staffs’ performance in the organization.

Review of the Literatures

Quality Work Culture

The term culture has been discussed in various fields such as sociology, history, and anthropology field. Robert & Thomas (2007) described it as a combination of qualities in an organization and its employees that arise from what is generally regarded as appropriate ways to think and act. There are numerous key values of work culture in an organization. Accountability, adaptability, collaboration, commitment, effective communication, empowerment equity, flexibility, good morale, professionalism, trust, continuous quality improvement, and respect are some of key values of work culture that usually being practiced in most organization. Besides, desirable work culture includes shared institutional values, priorities, rewards and other practices which foster inclusion, high performance, and commitment, while still allowing diversity in thought and action (Robert & Thomas, 2007).
Based on this definition, work culture can be considered as a practice of an organization, manifested by norms, shared values and basic assumptions of all members in the unit. To stay competitive in the market, it is vital for an organization to create conducive work environment for its employees. Blake & Mouton (1989) have studied ways in which organizations could increase their effectiveness. They also stressed that to be effective, an organization must have clear and strong objectives, have high standards of excellence, have a work culture that supports employees, utilize teamwork, have technical training provided through on the job training, and have effective leadership. It is clearly stated that an effective organization must have a work culture that supports its employees.

**Leadership Styles**

The concept of leadership has been misunderstood by several parties. Some people have a thought that leadership is about the first or the most powerful. McNamara (2008) described a leader as someone who sets direction in an effort and influences people to follow such directions. Chemers (2002) has different view about the definition of leadership. The meaning of leadership is given as the process of social influence in which one person can inflict the aid support of others in the accomplishment of a common task. In addition, Crawford & Loh (2004) added that culture and leadership styles are major influences on individuals. This is because leaders are the ones who set the tone of the organization, define its values and norms, and create and maintain a persona of what the organization is like (David & Ricky, 2006). However, all the definitions have similarities in some points. It can be said that leadership behaviors are one of the factors that may lead to the success of business. To keep leading in a challenging environment, a leader must keep learning and highly responsible on their tasks and subordinates. Responsibility of a leader is not easy because it needs high commitment in accomplishing the task.
Transformational Leadership

The transformational and transactional leadership theory, which is also referred to as the full range leadership theory (Avolio, 1999) or the multifactor leadership theory (Tejeda et al., 2001) is among the theories that have received the greatest attention from various researchers in various fields over the last decade. Transformational theory is one of the types of leadership that was initially developed by Burns (1978). Transformational leaders encourage their subordinates to develop their full potential and to transcend their individual aspirations for the good of organization. According to Bass & Riggio (2006), transformational leadership represents leaders who stimulate and inspire followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their own leadership capacity. Transformational leadership is described as the ability to motivate and to encourage intellectual stimulation through inspiration (Avolio et al., 2004; Dvir et al., 2002).

Transformational leaders inspire followers to exert effort beyond self-interest in favor of collective group accomplishment (Berson & Avolio, 2004). This is supported by several research that were conducted by Bono & Judge (2003), in which they found that transformational leader practices influence the followers to achieve goals, as well as increase confidence, commitment and job performance. As cited by Bass & Riggio (2006), transformational leadership can also reduce conflict by being sensitive to their subordinates needs. This individualized consideration could encourage their employees to respect and understand the position and needs of others and at times, overcome any rigid positions they may hold.

Transactional Leadership

According to the study conducted by several researchers such as Bass & Riggio (2006) and Podsakoff et al. (1982), exhibiting transactional leadership means that the followers agree with, accept, or comply with the leader in exchange for praise, rewards, and
resources or in order to avoid disciplinary action. Rewards and recognition are provided contingent upon followers successfully carrying out their roles and assignments. Achua & Lussier (2004) agreed that transactional leadership seeks to maintain stability rather than promoting change within an organization through regular economic and social exchanges that achieve specific goals for both leaders and followers. Transactional leaders usually motivate their employees by focusing on their personal interests. Podsakoff et al. (1990) also explained that the transactional leaders will use positive and negative reinforcement depending on the employees’ conduct and performance. In other words, this type of leader trade resources valued by employees in return for behaviors such as increased effort or cooperation. In their further study, they believe that contingent reward portrays the image of a leader who clearly communicates the objectives to be attained and who meet them (Podsakoff et al., 2006). This constant positive reinforcement may help employees to adopt the right behaviors as well as properly orient their efforts.

Comparison Between Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Bass (1985) stated that a transactional leader's manipulation of followers’ valued outcomes such as wages, promotion and so on in exchange for followers’ compliance with leadership wishes is considerably less exciting as a description of effective leadership than the dimensions associated with transformational leadership. Besides, Geroy, Hopkins & Sanders, (2003) in their paper found that transactional leaders tend to be less confident about their ability to control elements of their external environment whereas transformational leaders have a strong internal locus of control and have faith in their ability to change organizational directions. In terms of leadership effectiveness, transactional leadership is held to be somewhat less successful than transformational leadership because of the simple and impersonal nature of the leader-follower link and the lack of leader effect on the follower.
However, Den Hartog, Koopman & Van Muijen, (1997) argued that although the transactional leader may motivate subordinates to perform as expected, the transformational leader has the capacity to stir subordinates to levels of performance exceeding expectation. In terms of ethical perspective, both transactional and transformational approaches have different moral foundations.

**Methodology**

This study used a questionnaire to gather data through direct interview approach. The surveys were conducted among the employees from the first line managers up to top management in the fund management institutions. These employees were given structured questionnaires and direct interviews with several executives. 100 of respondents have been selected randomly by using a convenience sampling. Bass and Avolio's (1995), Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X) was used to measure leadership styles and the questions on quality work culture were adopted from Geri McKeown. On the other hand, Internal Factor Evaluation (IFE) matrix also was applied to determine the current work culture at the institutions. In this study, the questionnaire was developed in English version.

The format for the data collection had been designed by dividing the questionnaire into several sections that may develop the interest and focus among the respondents. The questionnaire was divided into three sections; section A is demographic profile, section B is leadership, and section C is quality work culture. In addition, the researchers conducted direct interviews with several executives for 20 to 30 minutes to obtain the information on quality work culture in the organizations. Data from the questionnaire were coded and entered accordingly into the SPSS statistical software. The descriptive statistics such as frequency distribution, regression analysis, reliability analysis, correlation were used to analyze the data and interpret the results.
Findings and Discussion

Internal Factors Evaluation of Work Culture

IFE matrix was done by interviewing several senior executives of fund management institutions in Malaysia. The interviewees responded positively and weighted the IFE Matrix by using the scale stated in the list. Table 1 shows the major strengths of the work culture are punctuality and attendances, effectiveness of Key Performance Indicator management, clear and well-defined scope of task assignment, good practice of helping each other in completing important assignment, conducive work environment and fully utilization of working hours.

All these major strengths were indicated by the rating of four. It shows all these positive values can be considered as strong culture value at fund management institutions that may reflects the good work culture as a whole. Besides, it’s indicated that all those weaknesses listed were minor weakness to current work culture. It means, the weakness of the current work culture is not too serious and still can be improved in the future because the major strengths are more than the existing weaknesses. The total weighted score of 3.33 indicates that the current work culture exceeds 0.83 above average from industry ratio which is 2.5. The result revealed that the fund management institutions already practiced a good work culture in its business operation. In conclusion, current work culture of fund management institutions can be considered as a good work culture and should sustain all the positive values that they have and make use of it to improve the weaknesses in future.

Table 1: Internal Factors Evaluation (IFE) Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Internal Factors</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Weighted Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strengths</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Punctuality and attendances of employees are very satisfied.</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A firm gives appreciation to their employees in the form of good rewards system,</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>promotion of position and so on.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The management implements the KPI system</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Rating</td>
<td>Weight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Task assignments are given clearly and in details to the employees to avoid any difficulties.</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Employees practice the culture of helping each other in completing the important assignment. (e.g.; absenteeism)</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Working environment is conducive and flexible.</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Employees are very loyal to work in the firm for a very long period.</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The higher authorities always show a good attitude and act as a role model to their employees.</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The higher authorities always give their supports and encouragement to their employees in order to improve their work performance.</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Communication efficiency among the higher level and subordinates.</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Employee’s competencies in handling all the tasks given by the higher authority.</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Enforcement of punishment for those employees who against the rules and policy of the company.</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Full working hours are used efficiently by employees.</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Es-spirit de corps and teamwork is very important for all employees in handling any activities.</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>The management always concern on the welfare of its employees.</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Weaknesses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Employee’s involvement in decision making.</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Integrity and sincerity in doing the KPI and employee’s performance.</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Employee’s freedom in voicing out their opinion.</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Lack of restriction among employees in making any complaints.</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Unbiased treatment among the manager and subordinates.</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Work conflict and dissatisfaction is handled effectively by the head of department.</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOTAL**

1 3.33
Respondents by Demographic Profile

Table 2 displays the demographic profile of 100 respondents who were participated in this study. As shown in table, the gender distribution of the respondents was predominantly male employees (55%) and the remaining were female respondents (45%). The majority of the respondents’ age range between 41 to 50 years (39%) and the respondents’ job title were Senior Executive in the institutions (54%). In terms of duration of services, it shows that majority of the respondents had spent more than 15 years in the institutions (33%). In addition, most of the respondents had high level of educational background whereby they possessed bachelor’s degrees (53%).

Table 2: Demographic Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Profile</th>
<th>Respondents (%)</th>
<th>Demographic Profile</th>
<th>Respondents (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Duration of Service</td>
<td>Less than 5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td>6 to 10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 to 15 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>More than 15 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Less than 30 years</td>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>Doctoral Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31 to 40 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>Master's Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41 to 50 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51 years and above</td>
<td></td>
<td>Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Professional Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Title</td>
<td>Senior General Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior Executive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reliability Analysis for Leadership Styles and Quality Work Culture

Table 3 represents the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and quality work culture. From the table, it can be seen that alpha coefficient of transformational leadership, transactional leadership and quality work culture were 0.879, 0.835 and 0.837 respectively. Based on results of reliability analysis of three variables (two independent variables and one dependent variable), it can be seen that all of the variables were above the acceptable Cronbach’s alpha. The closer the reliability coefficient gets to 1.0, the better. In this study, the dependent variable which is quality work culture and both the independent variables which are transformational and transactional leadership can be considered as good. Therefore, the internal consistency reliability of the measures used in this study can be considered to be good.

Table 3: Reliability Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational Leadership</th>
<th>Transactional Leadership</th>
<th>Quality Work Culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha = 0.879</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha = 0.835</td>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha = 0.837</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlations among Quality Work Culture and Leadership Styles

Table 4 exhibits the correlations between independent variables and dependent variable and the significance value of correlation of these variables. The outcome from the correlation test below indicated that transformational leadership and transactional leadership were positively correlated with quality work culture. From the summarized table below, it can be concluded that transactional leadership was very strongly correlated with quality work culture because the correlation coefficient is 0.721 and transformational leadership also positively correlated with quality work because the correlation coefficient is 0.695. However, transactional leadership has greater influence on quality work culture because the outcome of correlation coefficient is near to 1.0 that is at 0.721.
Table 4: Quality Work Culture and Leadership Styles Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Transformational</th>
<th>Transactional</th>
<th>Quality Work Culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transformational</strong></td>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>Quality Work Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.773(**)</td>
<td>.695(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Work Culture</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.773(**)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression Analysis for Quality Work Culture and Leadership Styles

Table 5 displays regression analysis for quality work culture and leadership styles including transformational and transactional. To evaluate the regression results, several statistics were examined. First, based on the rule of thumb, $R^2$ value of more than 0.85 (85%) can be considered to be good and acceptable and can be used for forecasting purposes. In this study, the $R^2 = 0.558$. This means, 55.8 percent of the changes in the quality work culture can be explained by transactional and transformational leadership chosen. The remainder 44.2 percent cannot be explained due to omission of some other variables. Second, transactional and transformational leaderships have positive linear relationship to quality work culture (beta=0.455, 0.344). However, transactional leadership gives the most impact towards quality work culture.

Table 5: Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>0.558</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Standardized Coefficients Beta</td>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transactional Leadership</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

This study attempted to determine the current quality work culture at the fund management institutions and also to investigate which leadership style creates a quality work culture. Based on the results of this study, the following findings may be summarized. First, the overall performance of current work culture at fund management institutions was found to be good. This is due to an effective and two-way communication practiced by employees and the strengths of current work culture seems to be superior to the existing weaknesses. This situation happens because the policies and procedures itself emphasizes on building a good employer-employee relationships. Furthermore, the researchers also discovered that majority of the respondents had spent more than 15 years working in the institutions. Here, it revealed that the positive environment has instilled the loyalty amongst the employees to work for such a long period. The results shown in IFE matrix supported that most of employees are willing to work longer due to the conducive working environment, rewards system, and many other factors. Second, the overall findings in this study show that both leadership styles have influence quality work culture at fund management institutions. The result shows that both leadership styles have positively significant relationship with quality work culture. However, it was found that transactional leadership has greatest influence on quality work culture than transformational leadership. From Table 2, it revealed that most of the leaders are male rather than women. According to Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) and Carless (1998), they stated that the leadership styles of men and women differ significantly in that female managers are reported to lead in a transformational style, whereas male managers are believed to display more transactional style. Transactional leadership has been described as a transaction that occurs between leaders and followers, where rewards are based on work performance (Bass & Avolio, 1994). In contrast, transformational leaders
have been seen as nurturers, who motivate and inspire their followers to contribute to the organizations goals.

Thus, when the results of correlation and regression analysis show that transactional leadership has been widely practiced than the transformational leadership, the result is not surprised. However, both leadership styles which are transformational and transactional play an important role in designing work culture in fund management institutions. Different leaders have different styles in designing quality work culture at their workplace. As suggested by Bass (1985), he presented a model of transformational and transactional leadership which include behaviors that, while distinct, serve to complement each other. However, he argued that a leader could exhibit both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors.
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QUALITY OF LIFE ASSOCIATED FACTORS FOR STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES IN MALAYSIAN HIGHER LEARNING INSTITUTIONS

Nur Fatihah Abdullah Bandar, Rohana Jani and Mohd Aminul Karim

Abstract

The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between the social relationships and health-related QOL with the Students with Disabilities (SWDs) currently studying in Malaysian Higher Learning Institutions. The study includes 127 students studying in Public Universities, 26 in Private Universities, 109 in Polytechnic and 19 studying in Community Colleges. The World Health Organization Quality of Life Abbreviation (WHOQOL-BREF) has been used to assess the QOL. SWDs Health related Quality of life was assessed with a single question scored on a scale from 1 (Very dissatisfied) to 5 (Very satisfied). Visually impaired student reported a significantly higher social relationships compared to others type of disabilities while hearing impaired students have significantly higher health related Quality of life. The paper would help the QOL instruments provide new insights by assessing the Quality of Life of a Student with Disabilities (SWDs) in Malaysian Higher Learning Institutions across the type of disabilities (Hearing impaired, visually impaired, Physical disabilities). This study expands WHOQOL-BREF instrument and adapt it to Person with Disabilities in Malaysian context and culture.

Introduction

QOL is somewhat vague and difficult concept to define, yet widely used. However, it is the view of some researchers that QOL cannot be defined exactly. The definition assigned to the term, and the way in which it is used, are contingent upon research objectives and context. Consequently, there is a lack of consensus about its meaning. Authors from different disciplines approach the concept from the perspective of their own research interests and objectives, and so the subject of QOL research also varies widely (Miako Kimura, 2009).

The WHOQOL Group, proposes a subjective and multidimensional concept for quality of life, which includes positive and negative elements: “Quality of life is the individual’s perception of their position in life in the context of culture and value systems in
which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards, and concerns.” It is a wide and complex concept, which comprehends physical health, psychological status, level of independence, social relationships, personal beliefs and the relationship with the characteristics of the environment. In this sense, the quality of life reflects the perception individuals have that their needs are being satisfied, or that they are being deprived of the opportunities of achieving happiness (WHOQOL, 1998).

In Malaysia, there is a lack of information about the public’s perception of the PWDs quality of life. Person with Disabilities (PWD) are defined in the PWD Act 2008 as those who have long term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in conjunction with other barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society. The seven categories for PWD according to the Act includes blind, deaf, physical disability, learning disability, speech, mental disability and multiple disability (MALAYSIA, 2008). Several studies on QOL has been conducted in Malaysia among different target groups and illness such as people with HIV+/AIDS (Hasanah, 2003), chronic schizophrenia patients (A.R.Mubarak, 2003), cancer patients (Sharifa Ezat Wan Puteh Paul Ng, 2009) and asthma patients (S Sararaks, 2001) but not much have been studied on QOL of Person with Disabilities (PWDs) in particular among Student with Disabilities (SWDs). The aim of the present study is to investigate the relationship between the social relationships and health-related to QOL with the Students with Disabilities (SWDs) currently studying in Malaysian Higher Learning Institutions.

Materials and Method

A cross-sectional study design was used in this study covering a total of 281 SWDs currently pursuing their studies in Malaysian Higher Learning Institutions. The participants were interviewed after being given a full briefing on the purpose of the study and taking their
Consent to participate in the study. QOL among SWDs was measured using WHOQOL-BREF questionnaires with 25 items.

Table 1: WHOQOL-BREF Domains

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domains</th>
<th>Facets incorporated within domain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Physical health</td>
<td>Pain and discomfort; Energy and fatigue; Sleep and rest; Dependence on medication; Mobility; Activities of daily living; Working capacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Psychological</td>
<td>Positive feelings; Negative feelings; Self esteem; Thinking; learning; memory and concentration; Spirituality; religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Social relationships</td>
<td>Personal relationships; Social support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Environment</td>
<td>Financial resources; Information and skills; Recreation and leisure; Home environment; Access to health and social care; Physical safety and security; Physical environment; Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. General Quality of Life</td>
<td>Overall Quality of Life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Health-Related Quality of Life</td>
<td>General Health perceptions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The WHOQOL Group (1998)

Participants

This study comprises of 281 students with disabilities from ten Public Universities, four Polytechnics, one Community College and four Private Universities. Data were collected through face to face interview using WHOQOL-BREF instrument.

Measures

Quality of Life

To assess the quality of life, we used the instrument proposed by the WHO for adults, the World Health Organization Quality of Life Instrument BREF (WHOQOL-BREF). This instrument has been used to measure the health-related quality of life in sick, healthy and elderly groups of individuals. The WHOQOL-BREF is a reduced version of the World Health Organization Quality of Life Instrument 100 (WHOQOL-100) and is composed of 25 questions: two of them are general questions about quality of life. The WHOQOL-BREF is composed of four quality of life domains, and each domain aims to analyse physical
capacity, psychological well-being, social relationships and environment. Besides these four domains, the WHOQOL-BREF is also composed of a general quality of life and Health-related to Quality of life. Four types of 5-point Likert interval scale reflect intensity, capacity, frequency and evaluation and one of these was attached to each item. Items inquire “how much”, “how completely”, “how often”, “how good” or “How satisfied” the respondent felt in their daily life, different response scale are distributed across the domains. The final scores of each domain are calculated by a syntax, which considers the answers for each question that compose the domain, resulting in final scores in a scale from 4 to 20. The instrument is self-administered, but in this study we chose the direct interview for the hearing difficulty and visual problems faced by SWDs.

**Data Analysis**

Data entry and statistical analysis were performed using statistical package for social science (SPSS) software, version 16.0. The descriptive statistics, such as mean and standard deviation, were used to summarize the score of the QOL. Domain scores were scaled in a positive direction (higher scores denoting a higher QOL). Reliability analysis was carried out to examine the properties of the WHOQOL-BREF measurement scale and the items that make them up. According to Sekaran (2000), if the value of Cronbach’s alpha reliabilities is less than 0.6, they are considered as poor, if the value is in 0.7 they are acceptable, and the reliability value above 0.8 are considered good. Continuous variables presented normal distribution according to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with significance level at 5%. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to find out whether there is a statistically significant difference among the three types of disabilities.

**Results**

The mean quality of life score of participants in the overall QOL and health-related QOL items were $3.94 \pm 1.04$ and $3.73 \pm 1.13$, respectively. The participants’ highest mean
score was in the psychological health domain (16.63 ± 2.71), while their least score was in the physical health domain 15.34 ±2.31 respectively (Table 2).

Table 2: Students with Disabilities (SWDs) Quality of Life according to four domains

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domains</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical Health</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>15.34</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>7.43</td>
<td>19.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Health</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>16.63</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Relationships</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>15.94</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>8.50</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>15.71</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall QOL</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health-related QOL</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 presents the mean scores obtained for each WHOQOL-BREF domain in hearing impaired, visually impaired and physical disabilities separately. There were no statistical differences between mean scores for three type of disabilities in Physical health, psychological health and environmental, except for social domain, with (P=0.041) which indicates that there are significant differences between social relationship domain and type of disabilities such as Hearing impaired, visually impaired and physical disabilities. Results indicated that student with visually impaired scored highest in the social domain compared to others group of disabilities.

Table 3: Social domains according to type of disabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality of Life</th>
<th>Type of Disabilities</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Hearing impaired</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>15.27</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.232</td>
<td>0.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>Visually impaired</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>16.26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domain</td>
<td>Physical disabilities</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>16.10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>15.71</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Table 4) was performed to compare the Health-related QOL of three types of disabilities. Participants were asked about “How satisfied are you with your health”? The ANOVA test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean Health-related Quality of Life score among the three of disabilities with F (2,278)= 3.304, p=0.038. Results indicated that, hearing impaired scored highest in health-related to QOL while physical disabilities scored least.

Table 4: Health-related Quality of Life according to Type of Disabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality of Life</th>
<th>Type of Disabilities</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health-related Quality of Life</td>
<td>Hearing impaired</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.304</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visually impaired</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical disabilities</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion and Recommendation

As we expected, the psychological health domain of SWDs was assessed with the highest score, implying good bodily image and appearance, positive feelings, self-esteem, spirituality and thinking & learning. Psychological health is important for quality of life. A positive outlook on life is believed to contribute to quality of life. Borglin et al. (2006) found that those groups with the highest self-rated quality of life had significantly higher total scores in the area of mental compared to poor self-rated quality of life groups.

Results indicated that visually impaired students scored highest in the social domain compared to others group of disabilities. These findings are similar to study by (Huurre, 2000) indicate that most visually impaired adolescent have close relationships with their parents and they receive social support from their family members, close friends and professionals. In University/College, visually impaired students have readers (Individuals
who read test directions, items, reading passages, or prompts orally to students who are unable to decode visual text) to assist them in University/College while physical disabilities and hearing impaired find it very difficult to get help from volunteers or assign interpreters to help them when needed.

Findings showed that hearing impaired scored highest in health-related to QOL while physical disabilities scored least. This knowledge is in line with the study by (Lotfi et al., 2009) which indicate that the satisfaction from using hearing aids in adults improve their health-related quality of life. Despite this fact, according to study by (Fillippo, 2004), students with hearing impaired have more opportunities than ever before to pursue a college degree alongside their peers who have normal hearing. This result differently with others study on the impact of hearing impaired on health-related quality of life. According to (Dayna S. Dalton Ronald Klein, 2003 ) adults who are hearing impaired getting loneliness, decrease of social activities and communication disorders. Consequences of visually impaired and physical disabilities (Wheelchair person), they facing limited enjoyment of daily activities, and interference with the ability to live independently and safely. They need social care and access to health more compared to students with hearing impaired.

The authors suggest that there is a need both by the University administrators and Ministry of Higher Education to emphasize the advancement of quality of life by promoting volunteers as reader and assign interpreters as well to set up centre for SWDs in University/College to assist SWDs in campus life, undoubtedly, providing adequate support by developing social programme, increase their networking and relationships with others. Special extra-curricular and sports activities should be organized for them. Community awareness, may be undertaken by the press and the civil society, should be encouraged. Special financial and motivational support, including medical supports, should be provided to take care of their health-related and psychological problems by the government, NGOs, and
the educational institutions. This is a socio-psychological problem and the society at large should come forward to their succour. Community’s involvement is a must to address this debilitating problem.
References


THE EFFECTIVENESS OF NEEDLE AND SYRINGE EXCHANGE PROGRAM (NSEP) IN MALAYSIA

Paramjit Singh Jamir Singh, Azlinda Azman, Farhana Kamarul Bahrain, Azahah Abu Hassan Shaari and Chan Ai Reen

Abstract

According to the Ministry of Health, the majority of HIV/AIDS infection in Malaysia is attributed to injecting drug use; which is why the Needle and Syringe Exchange Program (NSEP) was formally introduced in 2006. The aim of this paper is to increase the understanding of the NSEP and its implementation in Malaysia. Secondary data such as academic literature, journal articles, internet journal and books were used to analyze the subject matter. This paper concluded that the NSEP is among the most successful yet controversial harm minimization policy in Malaysia. The theory behind the program is to reduce the risk of HIV/AIDS infection among the injecting drug users (IDUs). NSEP is successful in achieving its objectives in terms of: 1) increasing IDUs’ access to sterile injecting equipment, 2) providing education on risk behaviors to IDUs in preventing infections, 3) promoting the safe disposal of used injecting equipment and, 4) providing information and referrals regarding HIV/AIDS and other blood borne viruses, drug use or other health and welfare issues as appropriate. Although NSEP has achieved its goal in the last 6 years, until today many of the clients are in dilemma to access the services because of fear of being arrested by the police as some police officers have little knowledge regarding NSEP. This situation has some implications on the program implementation which influence the program implementation. Hence, this paper suggests that an improvement in terms of training is important to increase knowledge and better understanding among the police officers on NSEP to ensure that NSEP achieves its objectives.

Introduction

In Malaysia, since 1986 when the first case of HIV was detected, 70,559 people have been diagnosed with HIV including AIDS and AIDS deaths (Ministry Of Health, 2006). According to the Ministry of Health Malaysia (2006), 75 percent of HIV/AIDS cases in Malaysia were attributed by injection drug users (IDUs). It is estimated that there are approximately 170,000 IDUs in Malaysia. Therefore, if there is no effective policy and action
taken to overcome this situation, it is estimated that in 2015, 300,000 of HIV cases will be accumulated in the country. In fact, in 2006 our Former Prime Minister Tun Abdullah bin Haji Ahmad Badawi stated that HIV/AIDS issues in our country had reached critical levels. The Needle and Syringe Exchange Programme (NSEP) was then formally introduced in Malaysia by the Ministry of Health with the collaboration of Malaysian AIDS Council (Edwards, 2009). The NSEP was officially introduced in January 2006 by the Ministry of Health Malaysia in order to reduce the risk of HIV/AIDS transmission among the IDUs in Malaysia.

Basically, HIV is transmitted through anal, vaginal or oral sex, blood transfusion, contaminated hypodermic needles, exchange of fluids between mother and baby during pregnancy, childbirth, breastfeeding or other exposure to one of the above bodily fluids. However, according to Malaysian AIDS Council (2010) the main source of HIV transmission in Malaysia is needle sharing among drugs users and through sexual contact with an infected partner. An injecting drug user (IDU) is an individual who injects recreational drugs into the body through an injecting equipment. Although there are various methods of taking drugs, drug users usually prefer taking it through injection because this method is directly absorbed in the body and the effects will take place in a matter of seconds (Shaughnessy, 2003)

**Needle and Syringe Exchange Programme in Malaysia**

In 2005, due to the strong advocacy work, the Government propelled an improved response to the epidemic by strengthening stronger political commitment and leadership at the highest level. Therefore, the National Strategic Plan (NSP) 2006-2010 was developed to manage the country’s response to HIV. The NSEP has three main priorities which are to secure commitment for the Harm Reduction Programme, specifically on the issue of needle exchange, to provide Antiretroviral drug treatment (ARV) for first line and second line
regimes, and to identify key affected populations and target HIV prevention programme accordingly (Malaysian AIDS Council, 2010).

In January 2006 the NSEP was introduced in Malaysia by the Ministry of Health with the collaboration of the Malaysian AIDS Council (MAC) and its Partner Organizations. NSEP is an effective programme in order to reduce the spread of HIV among injecting drug users and enables governmental and non-governmental organizations to reach out to the drug users. NSEP is an needle exchange programme and not distribution centers for needles and syringes. NSEP is often located in drop-in centers where clients are able to rest, eat, bathe, wash their cloths and receive basic medical attention. There are strict rules enforced at these sites and no drugs are allowed on the premises. Activities of NSEP include exchanging used needles for sterile ones, safe disposal of used injecting material, reaching out and educating drug users about HIV/AIDS issues, providing drug users with referrals to rehabilitation, health and welfare agencies, encouraging safer sex through education and distribution of condoms liaising with local agencies such as the Police and the National Anti-Drug Agency (Malaysian AIDS Council, 2010).

The Effectiveness of NSEP Programme in Malaysia

Increasing IDUs’ Access to Sterile Injecting Equipment and Promoting The Safe Disposal of Used Injecting Equipment

According to World Health Organization (2011), at the beginning of 2010, Malaysia had 240 sites where people who inject drugs (PWID) could access free sterile injecting equipment. The Malaysian NSEP services reached 24,999 PWID in 2010, surpassing a target of 15,000 PWID. A total of 2.5 million needles and syringes were distributed in 2009, with a national rate of return of used injecting equipment recorded at 65 percent (1.6 million needles and syringes). Table 1 provides an overview of the reach of the NSEP programme since its inception in 2006.
Table 1: Number of registered NSEP clients compared with national targets, 2006–2010 (June)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Target</td>
<td>1 200</td>
<td>7 200</td>
<td>10 800</td>
<td>13 000</td>
<td>15 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(cumulative)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered</td>
<td>4 357</td>
<td>2 301</td>
<td>5 572</td>
<td>6 147</td>
<td>6 216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clients (annual)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total clients</td>
<td>4 357</td>
<td>6 658</td>
<td>12 230</td>
<td>18 377</td>
<td>24 999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(cumulative)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: World Health Organization (2011)

In 2000, of all reported HIV cases, 74.7 percent were infected through the IDU route, and this percentage has reduced to 47.7 percent in 2010 and yet still remains the major cause that contributes to HIV transmission (Ministry of Health, 2010). This reflects that NSEP programme has shown effectiveness in terms of reducing HIV infection among the IDUs.

**Providing Education on Risk Behaviors to IDUs in preventing HIV/AIDS Infections**

Many studies that have been conducted in Malaysia show that the NSEP in Malaysia has a positive relationship with the behavioural change amongst IDUs. Accordingly, a study conducted by Ibrahim (2007) also shows that the number of IDUs sharing their injecting equipment with others have significantly reduced.

In 2006, a pilot study had been conducted in 3 sites in Malaysia which are Penang, Johor Bahru and Kuala Lumpur, using a behavior surveillance survey (BSS) in order to get some baseline data of HIV risk behaviour and the assessment of behavioural changes that may have occurred due to the NSEP implementation. In order to ensure the effectiveness of NSEP, a second BSS was conducted in February 2007. Generally, the respondents were asked few standardized questions regarding their drug use habit, sexual behavior, and knowledge of HIV and Hepatitis C (Ibrahim, 2007).
According to Ibrahim (2007), in the first BSS, 56 percent of the IDUs exhibit high risk behaviors such as sharing needles or syringes. However, in the second BSS, about 43 percent of IDUs reported sharing their used equipment. This is a significant decrease compared to 56 percent in the first BSS. This was a significant positive change on the IDUs’ risk behaviors in order to reduce the HIV infection among the IDUs.

Providing Information and Referral Services Regarding HIV/AIDS and Other Blood Borne Viruses, Drug Use or Other Health and Welfare Issues

NSEP programme provides various referral services for the clients in terms of health and welfare issues. According to Ibrahim (2007), in the first year of the NSEP implementation in Malaysia, a total of 799 referrals, with approximately 36 percent of referrals to health and medical services have been made. Furthermore, approximately 9 percent of the referrals to welfare and legal services have also been made, which usually covers obtaining Identification Card (IC) and job applications.

On top of that, NSEP programme also provides information regarding HIV/AIDS and other blood borne viruses. Ibrahim (2007) reported that about 75 percent of IDUs in the NSEP programme had a sufficient knowledge on HIV/AIDS and hepatitis. The proportion of IDUs who have heard and understood about the transmission of HIV/AIDS and Hepatitis has also increased. The increase of knowledge on these issues may give positive implication and influence on the IDUs’ future injecting behavior. One of these implications is to reduce the percentage of HIV transmission among them.

Factors Limiting the Effectiveness of the Needle Syringe Exchange Programme

Although the NSEP has achieved its goal in the last 6 years, until today many of the clients are in dilemma to access the services because of fear of being arrested by the police as some police officers have little knowledge regarding NSEP (Singh, 2012). This situation has
Some implications which influence the program implementation. Therefore, the NSEP must look into all the problems that affect its implementation in order to achieve its goals.

Most studies argue that police discrimination is the major barrier of the implementation of NSEP. Police often harassment and arrest drug users because it is technically a criminal offence to possess needles containing traces of illegal drugs. Thus, most of the drug users often share injection equipment because they rather hide themselves from accessing HIV prevention programme due to the fear of being arrested by the police. Yet, police harassment towards outreach workers and staff at NSEP have also limited the expansion of services and indirectly may have increased the length of time that contaminated needles circulate among the IDU. According to a research done by Chakrapani and Kumar (2009) in the Indian state of Manipur, police can stop and search any suspected drug user. An IDU described the fear of the said law as a factor in needle sharing “When we inject drugs we need to be quick. Police might come at any time. For that reason… we don’t mind sharing with others” (Chakrapani & Kumar, 2009, p. 67).

Police Acceptance Towards NSEP in Malaysia

In National Task Force on Harm Reduction programme, Royal Malaysian Police is one of the stakeholders who join in response to NSEP in Malaysia. Meanwhile, other community and stakeholder groups including Ministry of Health, Malaysian AIDS Council, NSEP site and National Anti-Drug Agency are also a part of the programme. Therefore, the NSEP must have a strong link and collaboration with other stakeholders especially the authorities in order to avoid misunderstanding and disagreement when serving the clients.
Diagram 1 shows the NSEP stakeholders that join to support harm reduction.

Source: Adapted from Centre of Excellence for Research in AIDS (CERIA) (2010).

O’Connor (2010) conducted a study on factors that limit the effectiveness of the NSEP in Malaysia and found that police attitude is a major factor in achieving the NSEP goals. NSEP monthly reports, as cited by O’Connor, that one of the reason why outreach workers find it difficult to meet clients is due to frequent arrest carried out by authorities.

Thus, police acceptance is important in order to achieve NSEP goals. In addition, O’Connor (2010) also found that barrier of police acceptance also included;

1. National Drug Policy
2. Harm Reduction as Public Health Issue
3. Police Involvement Not Clear
4. Unsupportive Senior Police
5. Current Legislation
6. Public Pressure
The National Drug Policy 2007-2012 sets out the Government’s policy for tobacco, alcohol, illegal and other drugs within a single framework. Thus, the police responds by reducing the supply, demand and harm from illegal drugs. In Malaysia, Narcotics Criminal Investigation Division is responsible for coordinating and directing the department’s efforts to enforce the Controlled Substance Act by investigating, apprehending, and prosecuting persons involved in the violation of these laws and ordinances. In addition, public pressure is also one of the factors that affect police acceptance towards NSEP. Public often gives pressure to the police (i.e. public insecurity) and always wants the police to respond when they find their neighborhood threatened by the existence of drug addicts.

Singh (2012) conducted a study to investigate the readiness of the lower rank police towards NSEP in Penang. Below is a response given by a police officers who had a negative impression towards NSEP through the in-depth interview:

“Frankly speaking.. I don’t like this programme.. For me, this kind of programme shouldn’t exist.. It’s wasting government money. In my opinion, I think police shouldn’t play any roles in this programme.. The government as though like encouraging drug addicts to take drugs by providing the free needles for them.. In addition, drug addicts often simply throw the used needles in their ‘ports’.. It is very dangerous to other people.. By right the drug addicts should throw the used needles in the proper place.. I am sorry to say that I am not willing to work with the NSEP which encourage people to take drugs.”.

The police involvement is not clear, which means they have only a superficial knowledge about NSEPs, and unsupportive senior officers also could reduce the effectiveness of NSEPs. For example, police are entitled to arrest a person without a warrant where they believe that person has committed or is about to commit an indictable offence which includes possession of a controlled substance.
Moreover, current legislation and public pressure on the police also serves as one of the factors why the police reject to participate and accept NSEP. Most of the time the public who also lacks the understanding of NSEP, they will pressure the authorities to take action against the drug users. At the same time, due to one of the key outcomes to be delivered by the police force under the National Key Results Areas (NKRA), police have to take action in order to improve the safety in the country. As such, due to law enforcement hesitation, people are reluctant to participate in NSEP (Klein, 2007).

**Suggestion**

In order to ensure the NSEP run smoothly, the NGOs and the government such as the Royal Malaysian Police (RMP) and the Malaysian AIDS Council (MAC) should regularly organize training, courses and seminars for the police officers in order for them to gain knowledge and understanding on NSEP. Training programs such as courses and seminars are very important especially to the rank and file police because they often deal with the NSEP clients (Singh, 2012).

Therefore, a policy related to the police training should be established where all the police officers are required to attend the NSEP courses so that they can get a better understanding of the NSEP. The rank and file police should be given priority to attend the courses because the rank and file police often deal with the NSEP clients. The Harm Reduction programme should be introduced in the Police Training Centre (PULAPOL) in order to expose the new recruits to the Harm Reduction programme so that they are ready to cooperate with the NSEP programme after they complete their training later.

The Ministry of Health Malaysia has implemented NSEP in 2006 in order to reduce the HIV/AIDS infection among the IDUs. This programme should be supported, expanded, and fully integrated into existing and developing health care systems. In addition, in order to employ all possible measures to decrease HIV transmission through injection drug use,
Section 27 (1) of the Dangerous Drugs Act (Act 234) should be amended because Section 27 (1) of the Dangerous Drugs Act (Act 234) insists that the police have the authority to arrest and confiscate any individual with any equipment which is used for taking drugs including the syringes and pamphlets that related to the drug. Besides that, the government also should allow the individuals under the age 18 years to access the NSEP programme so that the HIV/AIDS infection can be reduced.

If the police arrest the NSEP clients under the Section 27 (1) Dangerous Drugs Act (Act 234), it will affect the NSEP and increase the risk of HIV infection among the IDUs because they will share the needle among them because of fear of being arrested by the police. The laws should be eliminated to ensure that NSEP run smoothly without any interference from certain parties, particularly from the police.

Conclusion

It has been almost six years since the establishment of the NSEP in Malaysia, however it has improved beyond the expectations due to its unexpected achievements in short time. In order to ensure the NSEP achieve its objectives, Malaysian AIDS Council (MAC) should work closely with other stakeholders especially Royal Malaysian Police (RMP). MAC should also work collaboratively with Royal Malaysian Police in order to ensure the NSEP’s success. Training programs and courses regarding NSEP should be conducted more frequently in order to increase the knowledge and understanding among the police officers on NSEP. NSEP should be continued because NSEP has achieved its achievement in terms of reducing HIV transmission among the IDUs in Malaysia although there are several parties and organizations who disagree with the NSEP.
Reference


POSITIONING SOCIAL WORK WITH YOUTH OF UNIDENTIFIED GROUPS IN TERAI, NEPAL: FROM THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE TO EMPIRICAL STUDY

Raj Kumar Yadav

Abstract

In recent decades, Nepal has witnessed substantial changes among youths such as brain-drain, influence of modernization and westernization, political involvement, criminal activities and others. In post Maoist movement (2006), several unidentified groups came into operation of which most of the members are from youth section. This issue is more severe in terms of southern belt of Nepal (popularly known as Terai) wherein many youths represent these unidentified groups in some ways. Based upon author’s personal experience and empirical study, this paper seeks to address two major components – theoretical framework and social work intervention with youth of unidentified groups in Terai, Nepal. First section of this paper discusses social, cultural and economical background of youth of Nepal in general and Terai in Particular. Secondly, this will also bring theoretical overview such as push, pull and trigger factors to analyze youth engagement with unidentified groups. Further these theoretical understanding will provide us information why do youth in Terai are interested to join unidentified groups. The third section of the paper will depict the social work profession and practice in Nepal. In addition, this section would describe the prospect on social work intervention with youth involved with unidentified groups. It will also suggest social work frame of reference based upon micro-mezzo-macro level to re-integrate these youths from criminal activities. Finally, there will be two case studies of youth engaged in unidentified groups stating what the reasons behind their participation with these groups were and what do they think about intervention. The paper argues for a better policy coordination and partnership with like minded organizations to implement social work intervention that help the troubled youth in Terai, Nepal.

Introduction

Youth in Unidentified Armed Group and Social Work

In the eve of 2012, Nepal remained in a transition phase of peace process. Ten years of prolonged civil war came to an end in 2006 November with a peace agreement among major political parties of Nepal. Since then Nepal has observed positive impacts for peace and
sustainable development including election for Constitution Assemble held on April 10th, 2008. However, the state faces many obstacles in terms of social, economic, ethnic conflict and security front. There are ongoing barrage of Bandhas (strike), challenges to draft new constitution, proper rehabilitation of Maoist combatants and victims of war, and disagreement among the political parties. Apart from these, one of the major challenges in front of the state is proliferation of violence and increased youth participation in unidentified armed groups in the country (Safer World, 2011).

Youths are considered as an invaluable assets and a change agent of the nation. The national youth policy claims youths are pioneers driving force for social, economic, political and cultural transformation who could bring sustainable development in all parts of development field (National Youth Policy, 2010). According to National Youth Policy of Nepal (2010) “a man, woman or third gender of 16-40 years old are defined as youth” (National Youth Policy, p. 3). This age group in the nation accounts for 38.8 percent of the total population (MoHP, 2011) which means they are remarkable resources and backbone of this nation for both qualitative and quantities development perspective.

In contrary to youth participation in constructive development process, significant numbers of youth especially in Terai have been recently engaged with mushroomed unidentified armed groups by willingly or unwillingly. The main thrusts to join these groups by youth in Terai are characterized both in terms of personal benefit and political ideologies (AYON, 2011). The Terai also referred as Madhesh consists of 20 out of 75 districts of Nepal. This region comprises roughly 20 percent of areas which has almost 50 percent of the 29.3 million inhabitants of Nepal (Safer World, 2011). Miklian (2008) points out that “after a peace agreement was signed to end a 10 year civil war between the government of Nepal and the Communist Party of Nepal-Maoist in 2006, local and international observers were surprised to see new fighting erupt in southern (Terai) Nepal. The violence, however, was
initiated not by either party to the civil war but by new emerging armed groups fighting on behalf of those who profess a Madhesi ethnicity. The target of these groups are both the state and the Maoists, polarizing Terai citizens along ethnic issues that were largely unaddressed during the civil war” (Miklian, 2008, p. 3).

After end of the civil war, there was popular expectation peace would bring security. Yet, the Terai region has become known for its violence and its armed groups. In national surveys about security, households identified the Terai as the most insecure areas (Safer World, 2008). A survey of security and justice in Nepal conducted by Safer World in 2010 revealed that there is significant higher level of insecurity in the Terai than elsewhere in Nepal because of rapid emergence in armed groups. The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance (UNOCHA, 2010) also shows that there is significant rises in the violence such as killings, abductions and improvised explosive devices in the Terai than any other parts of Nepal. Besides, the recent facts presented by Association of Youth Organizations, Nepal in 2011 reports “there is huge engagement of youths in violence and with the armed groups in the Terai.

According to their survey questionnaire, 190 out of 209 respondents claim they have participated in violence related activities in the Terai” (AYON, 2011 p. 5). The rationales behind youths’ involvement with unidentified armed groups are lack of access to opportunities in terms of education, employment, basic amenities and natural resources. In addition, they are excluded from decision making process. “The exclusionary nature of Nepal society coupled with strongly enforced notions of generational hierarchy, particular in rural communities that means they are far from the community decisions. Ethnic, political and religious factionalism are also corroborations for the youth in Terai to engage them in armed groups” (Friends for Peace, 2008 p. 4).
The social work education and training in Nepal is rather nascent. Despite of challenges like its recognition and credibility, social work practice is emerging as one of the major profession in Nepal (Nikku, 2010). The social workers in Nepal are working in different sectors of development and they are able to contribute for positive and sustainable change in Nepalese society (Yadav, 2012). Thus, based upon personal experience and professional analysis of this author, social work practice could be one of the suitable professions to help the youths of Terai in Nepal.

Social, Economic and Cultural Status of Youth

The issue of youths in Nepal got into attention since 1985 with the declaration of “International Youth Year: Participation, Peace Development” by United Nation. Nepal started to identify and mainstreaming the issue of youth during Ninth Interim Plan (Shrestha, 2012). Though, there are not tangible studies on social and economic status of youths in Nepal. However, few reports made by government and non-government agencies claim that youth are one of the most vulnerable sections in Nepal as they have less opportunity to grow because of legal, social and cultural barriers (YUWA, 2012). Nepal has the lowest Human Development Index (HDI) of 0.428 in 2010 along with lower per capita income than in other South Asian Countries (UNDP, 2010). In 2010, National Planning Commission estimated 25 percent the total population of the country was below the absolute poverty line. The Commission also recorded high unemployment and underemployment rates of 39 percent have forced the people to remain either under severe poverty or migrate to other places within and outside the country for better livelihood opportunity (NPC, 2010). Besides, ongoing political instability along with prolonged a decade long civil war and Madhes Movement has been contributed in many forms of discrimination such as poverty, destitution, shrinking resource base, social and economic inequality, social exclusion and centralized
government system (MoHP, 2011). By and large, this turmoil stage of the state has direct and; or indirect impact over youths in Nepal.

In general, youths of Nepal are diverse in terms of social, economical and cultural aspects of which 80 percent of them represent rural areas (MoHP, 2011). According to statistics, about 400000 youths hit the employment market every year. In Nepal the youth of the rural areas have less access to facilities, resources, means and opportunities in comparison to youths of urban areas (Shrestha, 2012).

The literacy rate among youth (15-24 years) in Nepal is 92 percent wherein 8 percent of them have never attended any school. In addition 19 percent of youth have dropped out among those who have ever attended schools, colleges or university. The facts among youth shows that there is high prevalence of use of liquor, followed by use of tobacco and major drugs among youth in Nepal as one in every five are habitual of using them (MoHP, 2011). The major problems faced by youths of Nepal are related to unemployment, poor practical education, alcoholism and drugs dependencies, less awareness about their rights, in adequate facilities for recreation and creative work and moral degradation (Shresth, 2012).

On contrary to other youths of the nation, the youths in Terai are going through double oppression. At one hand there is little support for the youths of Terai for their holistic development and other hand increased armed groups have negative impacts over their qualitative lives. For instance, the literacy level of Terai is only 38. 4 percent which is almost half of the National literacy rate (United Youth for Madhes, 2012). According to Migration Year Book, as of September 2010, 1099 youth leave the nation for foreign employment per day on average (DoFE, 2010, p.2) . The number of youths from the Terai region is proportionately more than the other parts of nation to leave the country for remittance because of diminished opportunity. There are increased criminal activities of which many youths are participants directly. In addition, youths are frequently observed being engaged in
violent incidents such as bombing, shootings, clashes between youth groups, abductions, intimidation, extortion, rape and domestic violence in the Terai (Safer World, 2011). The unidentified groups in the Terai are influencing mechanisms for the youths to be engaged in violent incidents to some extent. So far cultural and political aspects of these youths are concerned they are very active participants. They are engaged in all kinds of cultural activities. They were also engaged with the major political movements of the nation such as in Maoist insurgency (1996-2006), Madhes Movement (2006), Movement against Monarch (2006) and Democracy Movement (1990/91) (AYON, 2012).

Youths of Terai in Unidentified Armed Groups: Theoretical Perspective

This section of paper seeks the grounds of engagement of youth with unidentified armed groups in the Terai, Nepal. Today, youth are living in contemporary societies wherein the violence has become norms within families, communities and states (UNICEF, 2007). In many countries young people are engaged in armed violence as perpetrators, victims and witnesses (WHO, 2004). Policy makers and practitioners explain forms of collective violence in terms of political, criminal and ideological in which youth are involved. They also claim that the underlying psychological factors that influence youth participation in different types of violent groups are common even though the different contexts in which youth participate (OECD, 2011).

There are several purviews why do young people in the Terai rapidly inclined to the unidentified groups. However, this paper concentrates on “push”, “Pull” and “Trigger” factors to describe youth involvement with the unidentified armed groups in the Terai region on Nepal. According to Social Development Direct (2009), explanation of youth with unidentified armed groups are closely related to factors that “Push” youth into engaging in violence; factors that “Pull” or attract youth towards violent acts; and factors that may “Trigger” violence (as cited in OECD, 2011, p.18). Based upon personal and professional
observation and experience this author, too, believe that these factors are justifiable to understand youth and unidentified armed groups in the Terai region of Nepal.

Literature on youth and unidentified armed violence describes “Push” factors as the situation wherein the youths are forced to commit violent activities. This systematically occurs in the lives of youth where there are poor living conditions, devastation of family, limited or unequal access to education and vocational training, lack of employment or livelihood opportunity, social exclusion and inequality, weak political participation and decision making (OECD, 2011). For instance, in the Terai, percent of own and operated land is only 75.1 in comparison to 86.2 and 87.8 in Hills and Mountains parts of Nepal respectively. Besides, there are only 11.2 percent of people in the Terai region who feel government health facilities are good for them. In terms of safe drinking water, electricity and road facilities, there are 19.6 percent, 8.8 percent and 12.2 percent of the people who are satisfied with the government respectively. So far education is concerned only one fourth of the total population is educated in the Terai region of Nepal. The rate of unemployment among 25-44 years old age group is 2.7 percent in the Terai in comparison to 0.8 only in the Mountains region of Nepal (CBS, 2011). This means the government is not able to address living condition of Youth properly in the Terai which has become strong basis for them to engage them with armed groups.

“Pull” factors explains youth involvement with the armed groups in terms of values and ideologies that they hold for a sense of inclusion, identity, safety or protection and opportunity for a voice in their societies (OECD, 2011). At this juncture, most of the youth in the Terai region are fighting on behalf of the armed group because they want to transform this place either into a single autonomous province for their identity (Miklian, 2008). There are more than a hundred armed groups active in the Terai region that are seeking control over the region, its resources and associated political and economic power (Crozier & Candan,
2010). These armed groups somehow present them as an advocate for independent and welfare of Terai. These armed groups also believe that their identities have been overruled by Pahade ethnic communities. They are able to reinforce the youth in the Terai region to fight against the Pahade ethnic groups (Safer World, 2011)

“Trigger” factor is often characterized through abuse by security forces, policy, economic crisis and influence of ethnic or religious identity. In addition this factor also involves events such as loss of jobs or failure to find one; rejection by a peer and family; substance abuse or emotional trauma (OECD, 2011). In the Terai, Nepal, the decade long conflict and continued insecurity in many areas such as employment, health, education and physical security have had an immense impact over the future of youth and their outlook on the society. Young people have been marginalized from policy debates and discussion especially in the Terai region and this exclusion has motivated young people to be easily exploited as “foot-soldiers” in the violent activities of political party youth wings, criminal gangs and unidentified armed groups. In addition, the young people are in the higher priority for the unidentified armed group, other criminal groups and militant political party where young people frustrated by lack of access to opportunities and social advancement are lured through monetary factors. The research also shows that there is not any other option for the youth rather than to join these armed groups (Crozier & Candan, 2010).

**Social Work with Youth of Unidentified Armed Groups in the Terai, Nepal**

In Nepal there is popular adage – Jahan Uthyo Tehi Bihani- which literary means it is never late to begin good act. This means even after 16 years of history of social work in Nepal, it is not too late for the professionals to address the issues of youth who are engaged in unidentified armed groups especially in the Terai region of Nepal. For a moment, this author had ethical dilemma whether a social work practitioner should work with the unidentified groups or not. However, the theoretical perspective of youth engagement in
unidentified armed groups as mentioned above provides adequate justification for the social work professionals to work with those youths.

Surprisingly, emergence of the Maoist insurgency that became basis for the mushroomed armed groups in the Terai region, and the social work education record the same year of 1996 in Nepal. In Nepal, the history of social work is very young which has become a ray of hope for overall development of the nation. Social services and reforms in Nepal has direct relation with religious and cultural institution such as Guthi (clan based association), Dharmashala (free residence for the poor), and Paatipauwa (public resting place) in Nepal. The root of social work practice could be clearly traced through its educational background. In 1996, St. Xaviers College started 3-years Bachelor program in social work. In 2005 and 2006 Kadambari Memorial College and St. Xaviers College initiated BSW and MSW respectively followed by many other colleges of social work in Nepal (Nikku, 2012).

In ten years of Maoist insurgency, more than 10000 people have lost their lives (Eck, 2010). The effect of Maoist insurgence was there in every field including youths of the Terai. Thus this author perceives this crisis as an ample opportunity for professionally trained social workers to address the youth issues of the Terai. There would be two major benefit to work with youth of unidentified armed groups of which first one is social work will get professional recognition at national level and second one is related with having constructive impact for the youth development especially in the Terai region and broadly for the Nepal’s youth.

There are mainly four major risk factors associated with youth involvement with the armed groups. Firstly, individual (including biological) factor involves young people traits such as hyperactive, impulsiveness, early aggressive behavior, early engagement with drug, alcohol and antisocial attitudes. Secondly, relationship factor which refers to individual
interaction with family, friend, peer group, witnessing violence and experiencing poor parental care. The third risk factor is about *community* dynamic in terms of high residential mobility, high unemployment, high population density, social isolation, proximity to drug and alcohol, and weak social welfare policies. Finally *societal* factors such as rapid social change, social inequalities, poverty, weak criminal justice system and social and cultural norms that supports violence play vital role in promotion of youths’ affiliation with unidentified armed groups (WHO, 2002). Since this author represents the Terai, he observes these explanations are correct to justify youth’s involvement with armed groups in that area. This fact also analyzes that youth engagement with the unidentified armed group is not individual phenomena rather it is collectively product at micro (individual)-mezzo (family, community) - macro (society) level. The nature of social work profession exactly suits here because it interprets the situation and issue at all levels. In this regard, social work has wide scope in the area of youths in the Terai, Nepal, especially with those who are engaged in unidentified armed groups.

Social workers are trained to have a belief in a positive and sustainable future and change who can work independently with a feeling of control over surrounding situation. They are capable of problem solving skills, allocating and distributing resources properly, finding foundation of supports and conflict resolution. The social workers committed intervention followed by scientific factors and artistic skills could bring positive impacts in the lives of youth who are helpless and hopeless being engaged with the unidentified armed groups in the Terai region of Nepal.

For this, the social work professionals in Nepal need to analyze the issue of youth and armed groups in the Terai region systematically from micro-mezzo-macro level. The Nepalese professionally trained social workers can design effective intervention by analyzing
the reasons- “Push”, “Pull” and “Trigger”- so that the youths could be rehabilitated towards productive lives from unidentified armed groups.

**Social Work Intervention: A Roadmap**

This roadmap consists of three major ideas to work with the youths of unidentified armed groups. At first, the development workers needs to analyze the individual’s youth motivation to join such groups that may be ranging from ideological (ethnic or religious) backup, personal factors such as economic gain or interest for revenge, intimidation of peers or the community, the search to particular political, economic or social grievances (USAID, 2009). In this circumstance, the professional practitioners systematically need to alter the values, belief and ideologies hold by the youth of armed groups by creating opportunities to discuss, interact and learn. Social workers may re-socialize them to release extremist ideas by learning new skills and thoughts.

The second roadmap must focus the relational dynamics of youth with the families and communities in such a way so that the youths receive proper interaction and orientation including access to decision making. The youth-hood needs to be recognized by the families and communities to channelize their energy for constructive work where the social workers in the Terai region could act as mediator between the youths and their families and communities.

Lastly, a practitioner needs to identify significant relationship between private trouble and public issues that means how a single youth is being affected positively or negatively because of youth policy. Here, social workers may relate the service at wider level of society or policy. The broad policy in terms of social, economic, political and cultural must be re-examined whether it is suitable for the youth or not. Social work professional may be an advocate or broker on behalf of youths of the Terai region to connect them with the existing resources and welfare activities provided by the government.
In addition, the social workers need to work with preventive and rehabilitative approach to address the issue of youth with unidentified armed groups in the Terai region. It is need at this moment that the social worker emphasizes on community based intervention such as rural reforms to ensure youth participation in decision and policy making, vocational training to improve skills and access to employment opportunity, increasing roles of youth in peace building process and generating awareness against weapons, drugs and violence and their impacts.

**Case Study**

Mr Ram Prasad Sah (name changed) of 21 years old from eastern Terai revealed that he was an intermediate level student when he joined armed group. His poor economic situation in families did not allow him to continue his education. In addition, he had to bear responsibility at home since he was eldest child of the parents. In absence of proper vocational training and employment scarcity in the rural parts of the Terai, he had not any option rather than choosing the armed groups. His leader pays him approximately NRs 15000-20000 per month with which he has been managing his personal and family life.

Laxmi Chandra Kewat (name changed) of 19 years old from central rural part of the Terai came into touch with the armed group through his friend. He revealed that his family background was strong in terms of financial and social status. However, his poor performance in education made him to quit study in 9th standard. Since, he was school dropout; his family started creating pressure upon him that forced him to be involved with the armed group.

In both of the case studies, they also admitted that this job is full of risk and they do not feel happy as a member of armed groups. According to them they are willing to leave these groups and come back to normal youth-hood if they get proper rehabilitation and reintegration schemes by state or non-state development bodies.
Conclusion and the Way Forward

Since the youths of the Terai region are in peril circumstances being members of unidentified armed groups, the social work professionals need to systematically work with these sections. Based upon scientific knowledge and artistic factors, the social workers in Nepal must analyze the issues of youths of armed conflict at different levels and prepare interventions systems with multi-stakeholders participation. Sure enough, there are many challenges in front the social work professionals to work with youths of armed groups in the Terai region of Nepal, however, a well coordinated approach at local and international level would bring noteworthy changes in the lives of these marginalized youths.

To conclude, these youths are forced to join the armed groups because of social, economic and political crisis in the Terai region. One cannot address the issues of these youths unless the influencing factors that “push”, “pull” or “trigger” them to join armed groups are properly analyzed. Moreover, helping this section of youth is not possible without strengthening partnership with social workers at globe level. Further, this will help the social workers to learn and design the programs with those youths who are extremists and engaged with the violent groups.

References


BUILDING SOCIAL CAPITAL AND ITS IMPACT ON MENTAL HEALTH OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AT UNIVERSITI SAINS MALAYSIA

Roghayeh Khosravi and Azlinda Azman

Abstract

Current study aims to illustrate the process of building social capital and its impact on promotion of mental health of international students. International students are distinct in groups and they have different backgrounds, culture, experience, skills, command of English. Therefore, it is true that international students face more difficulties to adapting to the new situation. Adjusting to a new culture can be a challenging and stressful experience. The loss of a social support system among international students can have a significant negative influence on the psychological well-being of students, including depression and loneliness. International students tend to feel a deep sense of loss in moving to another country after leaving friends and families and psychological stressors such as changing in support system may lead to social isolation. Studies in the field of mental health lay emphasis on the interaction between psychological, social and environmental variables. Between social variables, social capital due to comprehensiveness and effectiveness of different levels of living has particular importance in defining mental health. One way of looking at the relationship between mental health and the society is through the concept of social capital. Studies of social capital have focused on the static relationship between social capital and mental health, governance and economic conditions. This study is one of the first attempts to evaluate interventions designed to improve the levels of social capital in university students. The researcher constantly observed that there is still lack of preventative mental health intervention in Universiti Sains Malaysia. And also there is no research among Malaysian university students about the social capital based mental health intervention. This research in order to building social capital among international students will apply self-help group program and after the intervention the changes on the mental health of these students will be observed. The process of this intervention will define in this article.

Introduction

More than 450 million people suffer from mental disorders in the world (WHO, 2012). Mental and behavioral disorders have shown to account for 10% of the Global Disease Burden in 1990’s worldwide. It is predicted to rise by 15% in year 2020. Besides
physical, spiritual and financial well being, mental health is a vital part of person’s life. The debate between the experts is the notion that a healthy mind is the key to an individual gaining satisfaction in life (Swami et al., 2007). The World Health Organization Report (2012), defined mental health as an individual’s condition of well-being when he/she finds out their abilities to deal with the normal stresses of life; able to work effectively and productively, and; can supply to his community. Issues that are relating to mental health should be given prompt attention since an individual needs to deal with varied kinds of stressors in his/her life like carrying out daily tasks with effortlessness and fulfilling responsibilities to his family and the nation at large. Since issues that illustrated the numbers of mental health problems among university students are on the increase each year, it is clear this problem deserves immediate attention (Swami et al., 2007; Zivin, Eisenberg, Gollust, & Golberstein, 2009). In comparison with similar age groups in the general population, students studying in institutions of higher learning are more at risk of developing mental health problems or disorders (Hamdan-Mansour, Halabi, & Dawani, 2009; Nordin, Talib, Yaacob, & Sabran, 2010; Stewart-Brown et al., 2000). While college students are often assume as an advantaged population, they are not by any means immune to the suffering and disabilities that is related to mental health problem. The number and severity of mental health problem between college students appear to be increasing (Hunt & Eisenberg, 2010).

Malaysian institutions of higher education are striving to attract international students from other countries. The number of students registered in tertiary institutions increased from 170,000 in 1985 to about 230,000 in 1990, and about 730,000 in 2005 (Hassan, 2006). Institute of higher learning in Malaysia currently has more than 90,000 international students (Abdullah, 2009; Mohd, 2010; Yusoff & Chelliah, 2010). These international students are mostly from Iran, Indonesia, China, Pakistan, Maldives, India, Taiwan, Myanmar, Sri Lanka and even as far as Belgium (SEGI, 2010). Since international students come from diverse
backgrounds which are far different than their host country, they tend to be confronted with culture shock. Clearly, these issues are the challenges facing the higher learning educational institutions (Bektaş, 2008; Directgov, 2011; C. Lin, 2010). According to the statistics from the institute of postgraduate studies (IPS) in Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), the number of post graduate students at USM from 2009-2011 increased from 7469 to 9057. The percentage of international students for 2009 was 24.85% compared to 25.65% in 2011, a clear indication of the international growth.

Sovic (2009) illustrated that most international students have different backgrounds, culture, experience and skills. Consequently, they face more difficulties in adapting to the new situation. Adjusting to new circumstances on its own can be challenging, which leads to a very stressful experience. Academic demands may put international students at a greater risk as opposed to students in general because they are faced with the unique challenge of adjusting to a new culture. When moving to a new country, international students are likely to feel a deep sense of confusion as well as a major decrease in social support systems. Obviously, leaving family and friends can have a significant negative impact on the psychological well-being of the students, leading to depression and loneliness (Lui, 2009; Sandhu, 1994) and hence, psychological stressors such as a change in support systems may lead to social isolation (J. C. G. Lin & Yi, 1997).

As the number of international students in Malaysian universities increase, the need to understand their psychological, cross-cultural and social problems becomes absolutely necessary for proper preventative meaningful and successful mental health interventions. Around the world, many universities and colleges have communications in place to assist the caseload of students experiencing mental health issues, including counseling centers and staff alike such as psychiatrists who can help students to address their mental health issue (Stone & Archer, 1990). However, most mental health services like counseling centers that are
located on campuses appear to be treatment oriented and not preventative. In fact, they are mostly created to assist students who have been already involved with some level of psychological dysfunction services, ignoring the preventative factor (Landow, 2006). Unlike other educational institutes that are working in the mental health profession geared toward reaction, others are shifting to more of a proactive preventative type mental health service, which is designed to aid students to avoid developing mental health problems (Brown, 2002).

The emphasis of the treatment of mental health service on these universities campuses put their focus and energy into preventive as oppose reaction services. Conversely, the researcher consistently observed that there is still a lack of preventative mental health intervention at USM. Beside those problems mentioned above, there is not any research among Malaysian university students about the social capital based mental health interventions. Studies in the field of mental health lay emphasis on the interaction between psychological, social and environmental variables. Social variables aside, social capital is very comprehensiveness and its effectiveness of different levels of living has particular importance in defining mental health. Putnam (1993) argued that one way of looking at the relationship between mental health and the society is through the concept of social capital.

The concept of social capital refers to features of social life such as networks, institutions, reciprocity, norms and social trust that form the quality and quantity of social interactions and facilitate collective action, mutual benefit and coordination. Some aspects of social capital, such as trust, social support and social networks are very important determinants of the mental health of individuals (Patel, 2010). Some researchers mentioned below that developing social capital in clients, service users and even in the community level for people is one of the social workers’ task (Naparstek & Dooley, 1997; Nelson, Pancer, Hayward, & Peters, 2005).
Developing social capital as a macro practice go beyond individual interventions and are often based on needs, problems and concerns identified in the course of working one-to-one with clients. Macro social work practice could occur in different arenas. Rothman, Erlich, and Tropman (2001) mentioned communities, organizations and small groups as arenas of social work intervention. Groups are defined as ‘a tangible collection of people who can discuss matters personally and work together in close association’ (Rothman et al., 2001, p. 13). In the process of developing social capital one of the most important principle is the facilitation of social contact, which is essential in the attainment of social capital (Offe & Fuchs, 2002b). Consequently, providing opportunities for social interaction within a group is the necessary task for social workers and other professionals who are involved in developing social capital programs (Angelusz & Tardos, 2001; Grootaert & Van Bastelaer, 2002). In this regard, the current research will focus on self-help group programs aimed at international students in order to build social capital to prevent mental health problem from occurring.

As mentioned above, Universiti Sains Malaysia is an international university that desperately needs some preventative mental health interventions in order to protect international student from mental health breakdowns. Hence, the questions that remain unanswered are: How building social capital can affect mental health of the international students’ population, both good and bad? How is it possible to increase the elements of social capital that improve mental health of international students? Therefore, a systematic evidence based study is needed to answer these potential questions on international student at Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Unfortunately, studies of social capital have focused mostly on the statistical relationship between social capital and mental health, governance and economic conditions. In retrospect, this research is unique and rare in Malaysia and limited around the world with a
strong interest in adding innovative progressive approaches to evaluative interventions with the primary goal to improve the levels of social capital in university students.

**Research Question**

- How does building social capital (**Bonding, Bridging, Cognitive and Structural**) have an impact on mental health of international student?

- Are there any differences between the effects of building social capital on mental health of international students that receive intervention and control group?

**Objective of Study**

- To analyze the impact of building social capital (**Bonding, Bridging, Cognitive and Structural**) on mental health of international students.

- To discover how building social capital affects the mental health of international students.

- To analyze the difference between impact of building social capital on mental health of local and international students.

- To suggest intervention strategies that can be utilized to develop programs designed to increase social capital, which can contribute to the improvement of the mental health within university student population.

**Significance of the Study to Social Work**

The focus of this study is the impact of building social capital elements on mental health of international students in Universiti Sains Malaysia. This study is significant in a number of ways:

As discussed, the rate of international students are on the rise in Malaysia, thus the university students are seen as a valued part of Malaysian society and their psychological health and social status should be valued too. Case in point, college students are often assume
as an advantaged population, they are not by any means immune to the suffering and disabilities that is related to mental health problem. Though this is the perception by the mainstream, this is not the reality. In fact, the number and severity of mental health problem between college students appear to be increasing (Hunt & Eisenberg, 2010). The number and severity of mental health problems between college students appears to be increasing (Hunt & Eisenberg, 2010). Subsequently, it is important for social workers, psychologist and those who practice in mental health area to know more about international student’s mental health issues by making meaningful decisions to resolve the problems that develop into efficient intervention programs.

Coleman (1988) illustrates social capital as direct and indirect resources that are a by-product of social networks and social support systems among family, friends or community members. Some researchers consent that social work research, education and practice would apply the multidimensional framework of social capital in order to enhance the understanding of social relationships (Ersing & Loeffler, 2008; Loeffler et al., 2004; Mathbor, 2007). This research aims to present the importance of the social capital concept as an analytical and theoretical model for micro and macro practice. Historically, social work has long made use of social support and social network theory as they are fit well with person in environment perspective. Unlike other research done on social capital, this research will bring to light what social capital really entails, which is more than just social networks and social support system. The purpose of the study is to understand the role of social capital and how it can help social workers connect individuals to resources. Simultaneously, this research will establish a practical practice models for building social capital.

As mentioned above, mental illness is one of the most important issues worldwide. Studies in the field of mental health lay emphasis on the interaction between psychological, social and environmental variables. Social variables aside, social capital is very
comprehensiveness and its effectiveness of different levels of living has particular importance in defining mental health. The social capital–mental health relationship should be key elements in the promotion of mental health because mental health is a key input to human productivity. This knowledge should be used in the development of any social policy aiming to enhance social capital. As Shortt (2004) notes in the context of public health, "The policy utility of social capital for health remains an open and complex issue (p.18)." There are few interventions that explicitly try to strengthen social capital and even fewer evaluations of such interventions. This study aims to inform public policy by clarifying what is meant by a social capital intervention and presenting the strengths and weaknesses of this intervention in the context of others from around the world that explicitly use the term. It aims to contribute to the debate on whether and how social workers can intervene to develop social capital.

This research will use self-help group programs to construction social capital in order to improve mental health and prevent mental health problems. Until the time that Schwartz (1961) introduced the term of self-help group into the language of social group work, it was not common to the social work profession. Steinberg (2010) represents that self-help practice is evidence of best-practice social work. It is a process through which people (1) develop collaborative, supportive, and trustworthy relationships; (2) identify and use existing strengths and/or to develop new ones; and (3) work together toward individual and/or collective psychosocial goals, which reflects the very essence of social work with groups. Since this study is an action research self help group, a process will be applied in order to building social capital. According to the definition of building social capital the process of self-help group would fit well with building social capital intervention.
Research Hypothesis

- H0: There is no significant relationship between building social capital (Bonding, Bridging, Cognitive and Structural) and mental health.
- H1: There is a significant relationship between building social capital (Bonding, Bridging, Cognitive and Structural) and mental health.
- H0: There is no significant difference between mental health of international students before and after intervention.
- H1: There is a significant difference between mental health of international students before and after intervention.
- H0: There is no significant difference between mental health of international students that receive intervention and control group.
- H1: There is a significant difference between mental health of international students that receive intervention and control group.
- H0: There is no different impact of building social capital on the mental health of female students and male students.
- H1: There is a significant different impact of building social capital on the mental health of female students and male students.

Social Capital Theory

Social capital very recently became a topic of interest for many theorists, social capital theorists argue that the theoretical pioneers of the concept of social capital can be traced back to the eighteenth or nineteenth century or even earlier (Halpern, 2005). Scholars such as Adam Smith, Alexis De Tocqueville and Emile Durkheim have discussed in their writings about the importance of social capital (Ferlander, 2007; Yen & Syme, 1999). Emile Durkheim was one of the first ones to link social integration with health, noting that social ties and community relations work against anomie and therefore reduced suicide rates.
In 1916, the first use of the concept was credited to Lyda Hanifan by Robert Putnam and others (Portes, 1998; Putnam, 1993). In the 1970s, the conception of social capital was re-discovered and popularized through the seminal work of three key researchers: Pierre Bourdieu, James Coleman and Robert Putnam. The modern understanding of social capital is owed mainly to the writings and research of these three prominent researchers.

Pierre Bourdieu is mainly concerned with how social class and inequality are socially reproduced (P. Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990; Field, 2003). He defines social capital as "the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognitions" (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 248).

Education sociologist James Coleman (1988) is mostly concerned with the formation of human capital students' educational achievements. He debated that social capital in families and communities plays a crucial role in creating human capital for the next generation, since it constrains inappropriate behaviors and facilitates academic achievement. Coleman's conceptualization of the relationship between social capital and the creation of human capital is an important theoretical step in understanding the accumulation of human capital in childhood. The effect of social capital is not limited to school achievement. To him, social capital is as productive as other forms of capital: It reduces transaction costs in the market and can also facilitate collective action for noneconomic purposes. It is a resource, which "exists in the relations among persons" (1988, p. 100), particularly in the structure of a family relationship, which allows people to increase their human capital and reap economic rewards. Hence, Coleman defines social capital by its function: “it is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities having two characteristics in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structure, and they facilitate certain actions of individual who are within the structure” (J. Coleman, 1993, p. 302). In 1990 Coleman theorized that social capital
comprises of three forms: reciprocity (obligations, expectations, and trustworthiness of structures); information channels; and norms and effective sanctions. The three forms of social capital are not independent; but they are closely inter-dependent and mutually reinforcing.

Putnam (1993) interpreted the concept differently from his predecessors and measured social capital with substitutions never used before, such as interpersonal trust, newspaper reading, group membership and civic participation. Accordingly, he defined social capital as "...features of social organizations, such as trust, norms and networks that can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating coordinated actions" (Putnam, 1993, p. 167). Putnam believes that the three major components of social capital — trust, social norms and obligations, and social networks are mutually self reinforcing and cumulative. Generalized trust creates the basis for reciprocity, and social networks and civil associations in turn generate trust. Virtuous circles can "result in social equilibriums with high levels of cooperation, trust, reciprocity, civic engagement and collective well-being," while vicious circles intensify "defection, distrust, shirking, exploitation, isolation, disorder, and stagnation" (p. 177). In Putnam's argument, voluntary associations, especially those with face-to-face, horizontal relations among individuals, generate trust, norms of reciprocity and a capacity for civic engagement, which are essential to the functioning of a modern democracy.

A number of theorists and researchers came up subsequently with various definitions of social capital. For instance, sociologist Portes (1998) suggested that social capital had come to stand for "the ability to secure benefits through membership in networks and other social structures" (p.6) Similarly, Woolcock (2001, p. 153) saw social capital as "the information, trust, and norms of reciprocity inherent in one's social networks", but theorized social capital alone is not enough to bring about productive outcomes. Based on others’ work,
Szreter and Woolcock (2004) further refined the classification of social capital, identifying three types of social capital at contextual level: bonding, bridging and linking. Bonding social capital refers to trusting and co-operative relationships between people who see themselves as similar in one or more key characteristics including race, age.

A useful model of social capital is suggested by Bain and Hicks (1998) in which they distinguish between structural and cognitive components of social capital: “The structural component includes extent and intensity of associational links or activity, and the cognitive component covers perceptions of support, reciprocity, sharing and trust. At the simplest level, these two components can be respectively characterized as what people ‘do’ and what people ‘feel’ in terms of social relations” (Harpham, Grant, & Thomas, 2002, p. 106). This research will use their framework to organize this discussion of the theoretical constructs of social capital.

**Mental Health**

The term ‘mental health’ is considered to refer to an unimpeded sense of psychological and functional wellbeing. The term ‘mental illness’ refers to specific mental disorders as defined and classified by the World Health Organization’s (WHO) *International Classification of Diseases* system or the USA’s *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*. The term ‘mental health problems’ refers to symptoms of psychological difficulties; these include diagnosable mental illnesses and subclinical states.

In practice, social capital studies do not tend to measure mental health. They tend to measure mental health problems as mental illness, as symptoms of psychological distress that indicate that a mental illness may be present as well as symptoms or behaviors that are considered aberrant; but do not warrant a diagnosis, such as binge drinking.

According to available classification systems, there are many diverse types of mental illnesses. They vary in their symptoms, causes and prognosis as well as in their incidence and
prevalence. Using mental health or mental illness as a collective term is problematic because of this heterogeneity.

There is clear evidence for the importance of biological factors in the development of many mental illnesses as well as clear evidence for the importance of environmental, societal and behavioral factors. Even in the minority of illnesses where there is a clear unequivocal biological aetiology (for instance, when a genetic abnormality has been demonstrated to be necessary for the development of an illness), the onset, severity and course of the illness may be affected by the social world (Gelder, Mayou, & Cowen, 2004). Illnesses vary in the proportion of the risk of developing them which can be attributed to social factors.

**Social Capital Mechanism for Mental Health Improvement**

For the betterment of health and mental health, suggestions have been made to build social capital in various ways, at both the state and community level. At the national level, inequalities in political participation can lead to a lack of political commitment towards improving services for vulnerable groups. This has been shown in Kawachi’s work revealing the correlation between social trust and welfare expenditure, and the erosion of social services (Grant, 2000). At the community level, pathways between health and social capital include effects on behavior, effects on provision services and psychological effects. While many mechanisms can be assumed, three are mentioned below for consideration.

**Health-Related Behaviors**

Social capital can influence large populations of health behaviors by promoting a more rapid diffusion of health information (mental health literacy), increasing the likelihood that healthy behavior norms are adopted as well as exerting social control over deviant health-related behavior. The theory of diffusion of innovations suggests that innovative behaviors (e.g. use of preventive services) diffuse much more rapidly in communities that are cohesive and that have higher levels of trust (Rogers, 1983). Some studies have suggested
that the higher the degree of “collective efficacy” the more likely the community is to prevent antisocial behavior (Sampson, Raudenbush, & Earls, 1997). According to Hodshire (2012), “Kalamazoo city in Michigan USA has proven what expanded social capital can do for its citizens. Back in 2005, Kalamazoo implemented an innovative program that provides free ongoing college money to their residents, covering their entire tuition to all public in-state schools. In essence, it is based on a sliding scale, depending how many years the individual student attended the local schools. With that initiative, along with the Kalamazoo Poverty Initiative and the Bronson Breast Feeding Center, resources have been abundant, impacting, uplifting and economically powerful”.

**Access to Services and Amenities**

Community social capital can affect access to services and amenities. Cohesive communities are more able to unite to form appropriate social organizations, which ensure access to services that are directly related to health, such as community health clinics (Macintyre et al. 1993). Decreased access to services and amenities is often a result of poverty, crisis or chronic illness. Social capital links in these situations become even more important as they can serve as a mechanism that help improve social support, integration, rehabilitation and recovery (Cuny, 1994). Long-term solutions to the problems of inadequate resources and social exclusion require connecting marginalized groups to mainstream resources and services through mechanisms of bridging social capital that unites these excluded groups with the majority (R. D. Putnam, 2001).

**Psychosocial Processes**

High levels of social capital are beneficial for the development of an individual’s psychosocial processes that are needed to cope with life’s stressors with the protection against ill health. These psychosocial processes in part arise from social interaction within an individual’s community. Interaction with others is enhanced if it is based on trust and
reciprocity, which provide protective factors against the initiation of any psychosocial processes that are known to be determinants of ill health. The developmental processes by which the moral values of trust and reciprocity become instilled in children occur more rapidly in communities with higher social capital. Members of such communities have some sense of public responsibility for each other, even if they have no related ties. These norms of reciprocity or mutual respect can translate into easier childrearing, improved self-government and the maintenance of public life civility (Berkman & Kawachi, 2000). Variations in the availability of psychosocial resources at the community level may help to explain the anomalous finding that socially isolated individuals residing in more cohesive communities do not appear to suffer the same ill-health consequences as those living in less cohesive communities (Berkman & Kawachi, 2000, p. 105). In addition, “social capital could influence health of individuals via psychosocial processes by providing effective support and acting as the source of self-esteem and mutual respect” (Wilkinson, 1996).

Building Social Capital and Role of Social Workers

The concept of social capital provides a means to analyze the effect of network and support factors on the quality and availability of resources for individuals and communities that are embedded in social interactions rather than possessed by individuals (N. Lin, 2001). A principal characteristic of capital is its transformative and regenerative potency to convert and reproduce alternative forms of capital, resources, and benefit (Krishna & Uphoff, 2002; Siisiainen, 2003; Siisiäinen, 2000). Social capital underwrites the borrowing of financial capital and other forms of capital and resources. As the provision of capital and resources is pivotal in social capital, the nature and benefit of social capital hinges on people connected, who possess capital and resources (Portes, 2000; Van Der Gaag & Snijders, 2005). Two major kinds of people are those within one’s primary group, in-group or social circle and those outside the group or circle. Stemming from these two kinds of people are two kinds of
social capital — bonding social capital and bridging social capital (D. S. Halpern, 2005; R. Putnam, 2001). Bonding social capital typically evolves from self-help, supportive, and therapeutic groups within social services, whereas bridging social capital possibly accrues from volunteer services and mass programs for the community (Friedman & Aral, 2001; Wakefield, Elliott, & Cole, 2007). An important role of bridging social capital is to extend people’s identity as members of an in-group to those of a community (Wuthnow, 2002).

Social capital naturally accrues to the individual through the principle of the transformation of capital, as converted from alternative forms of capital. Those socio demographic characteristics of age, female, gender, education, being locally born, being employed, occupational prestige, income, wealth, social class, and being married contributed to social capital (Angelusz & Tardos, 2001; Eriksson, Kreimer, & Arnold, 2000; Scheufele & Shah, 2000; Van Der Gaag & Snijders, 2005; Webber & Huxley, 2007). These characteristics mostly represent human capital, financial capital, and specific forms of social capital inherent in marriage, the workplace, and locality. More specifically, personal strengths such as self-confidence and opinion leadership, interest in politics, and contentment are contributors to social capital (Scheufele & Shah, 2000; Webber & Huxley, 2007). Moreover, communication, leisure activity, political involvement, community participation, and collective action are activities conducive to the acquisition of social capital (Angelusz & Tardos, 2001; Glover, Perry, & Shinew, 2005; Grootaert & Van Bastelaer, 2002; Krishna & Uphoff, 2002; Narayan & Cassidy, 2001). Involvement in such activities, nevertheless, partly results from social workers’ encouragement, which embodies efforts to develop. The principle for developing social capital is the facilitation of social contact, which is a necessity in the acquisition of social capital (Offe & Fuchs, 2002a). Appropriately, providing opportunities for social interaction within a group is the necessary task for developing social capital (Angelusz&Tardos, 2001; Grootaert & van Bastelaer, 2002). More than mere social contact,
development of social capital requires investment in social relation (Brisson & Usher, 2005; Robison, Schmid, & Siles, 2002). This is the exchange theory of social capital development, featuring the exchange of capital in building social relationships (Flap, 2003). The theory emphasizes the importance of maintaining reciprocity and particularly its fairness in exchange for the transformation and development of capital. Such exchange needs to start with one party’s investment such as in the assistance and cooperation for the benefit of another party (Hofferth, Boisjoly, & Duncan, 1999; Paladyn, 2002). In this connection, cooperation commonly refers to a short-term form of investment (Riedl & van Winden, 2004). Cooperation among clients can be a result of social work coordination to engage in a social action for the benefit of the clients (Wakefield et al., 2007). Social workers can facilitate clients’ bonding social capital through the activation of self-help or mutual aid, which in turn benefits from social workers’ effort in capability building for clients. Clients’ investment for bridging social capital typically involves providing volunteering services organized by social workers (Narayan & Cassidy, 2001). Besides, social workers can play a pivotal role in linking clients to various people and organizations in the community in the construction of bridging social capital (Lichtenstein & Initiative, 1999).

**Sample**

Sample in this research includes at least 60 international university students at Universiti Sains Malaysia, which 30 of them will be included to the group sessions and the rest of 30 international students will be served as control group. Samples will be collected from the main USM campus because this campus has more student than their satellite locations. In order to select the sample, two inclusion criteria will follow: international students would have had arrived in Malaysia less than one year. The invitation for participate in the group will sent by email to all the international students. Sample is Non probability sample (Non-representative sample) which is the accessible sample; including those who are
volunteers for participate in the self-help group program. The researcher will conduct 7 sessions of self-help group for each international student (the first session of self-help group, will focus on preparing the right environment for group counselling).

**Tools of Data Collection**

In this research, social capital will be measured by an innovative handmade questionnaire and mental health will be measured by a 12 Items General Health Questionnaire (GHQ12) by Goldberg (1978). A repeated measures (pre test, post test) design will be utilized for all participants. Both experimental groups will complete the handmade social capital questionnaire and the GHQ12 prior to the first meeting and after completing the group sessions. The Control group will complete the handmade social capital questionnaire and GHQ12 two times.

**Statistical Analysis**

Building social capital in this study is an independent variable and mental health is dependent variable. SPSS software will be applied for data analyzing as bellow:

- To find out the relationship between building social capital and mental health correlation coefficient will be measured.
- To find out the differences between mental health of international students before and after intervention paired sample t-test will be measured.
- To find out the deference between mental health of experimental group and control group paired sample t-test will be implemented.
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SOCIAL CAPITAL, SUICIDE AND SOCIAL WORK

Roghayeh Khosravi and Christopher Hodshire

Abstract

The study aim’s to provide a broader understanding/review of social capital, suicide and the application of social capital theory in social work practice with the goal being prevention of suicide, both micro and macro level. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), “approximately 1 million die by suicide in the world every year and it is estimated that 1.5 million will die from suicide in 2020.” Suicide appears to be an intimately individualistic act. Sociologists, however, often regard variation in suicide rates as a social phenomenon. The initial ideas and work of Durkheim have long formed the basis for many sociological studies of suicide and his theories of how social factors influence suicide rates have received substantial empirical support. A more contemporary version of Durkheim’s regulation/integration thesis is the theory of social capital developed by Robert Putnam. Social capital refers to the stock of trust, civic engagement and norms of reciprocity existing in a community that allow collective actions to occur. Communities are higher in social capital when their residents are generally more trusting, more co-operative and more engaged in community life. Many recent studies, especially those in the public health literature, have examined the relationship between social capital and mental health. High levels of social capital are associated with lower mortality and with fewer accidents and suicides. Some studies in social work education shows that education in suicide prevention and intervention in social work graduate programs are little; yet social workers’ experiences and attitudes regarding suicide education are unknown. Therefore, this paper will make an in-depth comprehension of social capital and its impact on suicide as well as examine the ways that social workers can apply and implement this theory in suicide prevention programs.

Introduction

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), approximately 1 million people die of suicide globally every year and it is estimated that by year 2020, 1.5 million people will die from suicide. Consequently, the global suicide rate is at 14 suicides per
100,000 inhabitants, 18 suicides per 100,000 for males and 11 suicides per 100,000 for females (WHO, 2011).

For the most part, suicides around the world are perceived to be an individualistic act. However, Sociologists often assume suicide as a social phenomenon. The ideas and innovative research studies of Durkheim (1951) have had a profound impact on sociological studies of suicide. Arguably, Durkehim theories about the impact of social factor on suicide rates has received ongoing considerable experimental support (Aliverdinia & Pridemore, 2009; Chandler & Tsai, 1993; Danigelis & Pope, 1979; Kushner & Sterk, 2005; Pridemore, Chamlin, & Cochran, 2007; Stack, 1980, 1983, 1987, 2000, 2001).

After the Durkheim theory of regulation/integration, a more contemporary version of his thesis is the theory of social capital developed by Robert R. D. Putnam (2001) in BowlingAlone: The Collapse and Revival of the American Community. This theory is not specially applied for reasons of suicide; instead, Putnam argues that the community benefits when its members know and interact with one another. Social capital is accumulated through social participation mechanism.

Social capital has already been used to investigate patterns of homicide, employment acquisition and academic performance, delinquency and health outcomes but there is little evidence examining the relationship between social capital and the most acute form of social dislocation suicide.

Suicide happens when a person ends his/her life forever. However, this is only part of the problem. Most of the time, people that commit suicide survive more often than die. As a result, most of them are seriously injured and need medical care. They may have serious injuries like broken bones, brain damage or organ failure. In addition, those who survive from suicide often have depression and other mental health issues. It also affects the health of the community. According to WHO’s statistics, 50-120 million are intensely affected by the
suicide or attempted suicide of a close relative. Family and friends of people who commit suicide may feel shock, anger, guilt and depression. The medical costs and lost wages associated with suicide also take their toll on the community.

Statistics show that 60 percent of world’s suicides occur in Asia, so each year in Asia at least 60 million people are affected by suicide or attempted suicide (A. L. Beautrais, 2006). In spite of the high suicidal rate, this has received less attention in Asian countries because the lack of resources and competing priorities, cultural influences, religious sanctions, stigmatization of the mentally ill, political imperatives and socio-economic factors which have all played a very significant role in someone not receiving much proper attention to this demanding problem. Although there are some highlights in terms of preventive initiatives, overall efforts are uncoordinated, under-resourced and generally unevaluated (A. Beautrais, 2007; Vijayakumar & Rajkumar, 2007; WHO, 2011).

Due to the issues mentioned above, research on suicide seems necessary for the social work profession to focus their energies on. Unfortunately, Feldman and Freedenthal (2006) shows that education in suicide prevention and intervention in social work graduate programs are little; yet social workers’ experiences and attitudes regarding suicide education are unknown. A Web-based survey of 598 social workers currently working in the field discovered that although most participants’ received little, if any training in suicide prevention or intervention while in graduate schools, almost all respondents had worked with at least one suicidal client. Most of the respondents viewed their social work program’s training inadequate in suicide prevention and intervention. That said, this research aims to define social capital theory in order for it to be applied properly with social workers who specializes in suicide prevention with suicidal people and families.
**Definition of Social Capital**

The idea of capital is particularly from the perspectives of the Marxian view of capital, human capital, and cultural capital that is often applied to economics and sociology disciplines. Recently, the study of social capital has changed the researchers’ imagination, which provides another way of conceptualizing the social world (McKenzie & Harpham, 2006). To gain a better perceptive of social capital, it is vital to explain the concept of the term capital, which initially came from Marx’s idea. N. Lin (2001) defined capital as an “investment of resources with expected returns in the marketplace” (p. 3), representing that capital is seen as resources that purposely can be mobilized to make profits for the agent. On the one hand, social capital can be measured as capital because it serves as a precious resource for the goals achievement. Similarly, since it is embedded within social relationships and social structure it can also be regarded as “social” (Kay & Johnston, 2007). In other words, when trying to employ social capital in the mental health field it is vital to pay attention to the elements of the social relations and the social structure. Social capital is a debatable issue among different scholars. The definition of social capital has varied due to different theory bases and concerns. Among researchers social capital is considered as both individual and ecological (Field, 2003; Portes, 1998). A French sociologist, Bourdieu, defined social capital as: “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition” (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 249). Because of Bourdieu’s heavy abstraction, which is rooted in French social theory, the influence of Bourdieu in the development of the construct of social capital tends to be underestimated (Webber, 2004). Bourdieu’s definition of social capital has been broken down into two components by Portes (1998) as follow: “(a) It is the social relationship itself that allows individuals to claim access
to resources within their social networks; and (b) it involves the amount and quality of those resources” (pp. 3-4).

Therefore, Bourdieu assume the concept of social capital as instrumental, which may benefit an individual by asset of participation in groups and purposeful construction of sociability (Portes, 1998). In short, Bourdieu theory of social capital is seen as a form of power relations that the powerful can remain powerful through the connection with other powerful people (Webber, 2004) and can be seen as a property of individuals.

In contrast, other scholars, such as Coleman and Putnam, considered social capital as possessions of groups and communities. Colman, an American sociologist, defined social capital as the resources that exist in family relations and in community social organizations; thus, social capital inheres in the structure of social relations between individuals and among individuals (Coleman, 1988; Field, 2003). Basically, social capital forms useful capital resources for actors through processes, such as building upon obligations, trustworthiness, expectations, creating channels for information and setting norms (Coleman, 1988; Webber, 2004). Coleman extended the scope of social capital to include the social relations of non-elite groups, unlike Bourdieu who believed that only people who hold power can gain benefits from social capital (Webber, 2004). Putnam, a prominent American political scholar, modified the communitarian view and measures on social capital at an aggregated level. Putnam affirmed social capital as “the features of social life-networks, norms and trust that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objectives” (Putnam, 1996). The characteristics of social capital include (a) “social networks and density, including personal networks and community networks; (b) civic engagement; (c) local civic identity; (d) reciprocity and norms of cooperation; and (e) trust in the community” (Mckenzie & Harpham, 2006, p. 14). Simply put, the benefits of Putnam’s idea of social capital are conceptualized to have an equally impact on everyone within a particular
community or group, regardless of differences in individual behavior or values (Webber, 2004). In his review of the varying definitions of social capital, suggested that the components of social capital include “trust, social norm, and reciprocity, as well as features of structures and networks and the resources embedded within them” (p. 90). In this view, the concept of social capital goes beyond the perspectives of social support and social networks because it involves trust, civic engagement and norms, which are not only related to social networks.

N. Lin (2001) viewed social capital as an “investment in social relations by individuals through which they gain access to embedded resources to enhance expected returns of instrumental or expressive actions” (p. 19). What significantly differentiates N. Lin’s definition that of other scholars, such as Putnam and Coleman, is N. Lin’s definition on social capital, which he states is a measurement of relational asset that “must be distinguished from collective assets and goods, such as culture, norms, trust, and so on” (N. Lin, 2001, p. 27). According to the previous analysis, the definition of social capital is diverse with many conceptual consensuses.

Types of Social Capital

Even though some scholars consider social capital as contextual, others consider it as individual. Some studies have shown it as multidimensional concept (McKenzie & Harpham, 2006; A. D. Mitchell & Bossert, 2007). In this view, measures of social capital could be at both individual and ecological levels (Kay & Johnston, 2007). Concept of social capital consists of at least two dimensions: bonding/bridging and structural/cognitive (McKenzie & Harpham, 2006; Yamaoka, 2008).

Structural and Cognitive Social Capital

Cognitive social capital reflects attitudes consisting of values, altruism, norms, reciprocity and civic responsibility (McKenzie & Harpham, 2006; Whitley & McKenzie,
The measurement of cognitive social capital is related to the level of trust or a sense of belonging in a community or organization (McKenzie & Harpham, 2006). In comparison, structural social capital is characterized by behavioral aspects of network connections, including the relationships, associations, networks and institutional structures that link individuals and groups to one another (McKenzie & Harpham, 2006; Whitley & McKenzie, 2005; Yamaoka, 2008).

The measurement of structural social capital is often associated to network density (McKenzie & Harpham, 2006). For instance, membership in a sport club or an organization can be seen as an individual’s structural social capital. Discrepancies regarding the property of structural and cognitive social capital still exist among scholars. Some have suggested that these types of social capital can be measured at both individual and community levels (Almedom, 2005; Yamaoka, 2008). However, some researchers have considered both structural and cognitive social capital as properties that are ecological rather than individual in nature and have suggested that they can only be measured at the community level (Whitley & McKenzie, 2005). Although ambiguities involving conceptualizations and measurement still remain in the construct of social capital, a large number of studies have shown that social capital is multidimensional (Whitley & McKenzie, 2005). Thus, studies about suicide should consider a comprehensive approach and regard social capital as both individual and ecological.

**Bonding and Bridging Social Capital**

Another dimension of social capital consists of bonding and bridging that is a form of strong ties. Bonding can be explain as inward-focused that concerns homogeneity, loyalty, strong norms, and exclusivity, such as people in one’s own community or with a similar social identity (De Silva, Huttly, Harpham, & Kenward, 2007; McKenzie & Harpham, 2006; Whitley & McKenzie, 2005). In these relations, the ties between people are stronger and
closer. Bonding social capital sometimes is not positive and sometimes may have negative effects on society, such as gang groups or organized crime (McKenzie & Harpham, 2006). In contrast, bridging social capital is defined as outward-oriented that often refers to different groups in society such as people outside one’s community or with someone of a different social background (De Silva, McKenzie, Harpham, & Huttly, 2005; McKenzie & Harpham, 2006; Whitley & McKenzie, 2005). In this framework, the ties between people are weaker and more delicate (McKenzie & Harpham, 2006). Overall, it appears that the effect of bridging social capital is often positive as opposed to negative (Almedom, 2005; N. Lin, 2001; McKenzie & Harpham, 2006).

**Risk Factors of Suicide**

The idea that suicide is influenced by social factors was popularized by Durkheim, who argued that changes associated with modernization were related to an increase in suicide within European nations (Durkheim, 1897). Feeding off of his work, researchers have identified a number of population-level correlates of suicide, including divorce, fertility rates, education, religion, migration, and location of residence e.g., rural versus urban areas (Stack, 2000; Yip, Callanan, & Yuen, 2000). Suicide rates have also been related to trends in national economies (Lester, 2001) and employment e.g., female labor force participation, unemployment, and type of employment (Andersen, Hawgood, Klieve, olves, & DeLeo, 2010; Blakely, Collings, & Atkinson, 2003; Stack, 2001), as well as income and health care expenditures (Neumayer, 2003; Zimmerman, 2002).

Most psychological autopsy studies of children and adolescents have limited their inquiry to psychiatric risk factors. M.D Rudd, Joiner, and Rajab (2001) propose that risk factors of suicide can be divided into static (i.e. enduring, stable) and dynamic (i.e. alterable, inconsistent) categories and have worth in assessing suicidal ideation and attempts. Included factors among the static variables are: age (escalation of risk with age, particularly after 45
years) (Buda & Tsuang, 1990), a previous psychiatric diagnosis (Tanney, 1992), a previous history of suicidal behavior (M.D. Rudd et al., 1996), sex (males have an increased risk compared to females) (Garrison, 1992), existence of family history of suicide attempts (Roy, 1992) and a history of sexual or physical abuse (Linehan, 1993). Included among the list of acute risk factors for suicide are: hopelessness, depression and worthlessness (Buda & Tsuang, 1990), identifiable stressors with a focus on loss (e.g. a divorce, loss of a job) (Yufit & Bongar, 1992), a current DSM-IV Axis I diagnosis of a mood disorder, psychotic disorder, or substance-related disorder (Rudd et al., 1993), physical health problems (Yufit & Bongar, 1992), impulse control problems (Rogers, 2001), and active suicidal thoughts (Clark & Fawcett, 1992).

**Social Capital and Suicide**

As mentioned above research constantly suggests a variety of factors associated with suicide ideation, including: social support; undesirable life events and circumstances; depression and physical health (Gliatto & Rai, 1999; Mazza & Reynolds, 1998; Reifman & Windle, 1995; M.D. Rudd, 1990; Schutt, Meschede, & Rierdan, 1994; Vilhjalmssson, Sveinbjarnardottir, & Kristjansdottir, 1998). Although stressors generally decline an individual’s social resources and thus increase distress, the impact of this distress on suicide ideation has been shown to be buffered or moderated by these resources (Schutt, Meschede, & Rierdan, 1994). In real meaning, people with high levels of distress along with high levels of social resources, have low suicide ideation. In general, however, the social resources explored have been limited to the individual’s perceived social support (Ensel & Lin, 1991). It is an expulsion of interest in the broader concept of social capital but it contains little research about the impact of social assets in general on suicide ideation as well as its mediating and/or buffering role. While the use of the term ‘social capital’ is quite recent (Bourdieu, 1986; Coleman, 1988; Lin, 2001; Putnam, 1993) the notion that social ties are a personal asset is basic to sociology itself (Portes, 1998). In the work of Robert Putnam,
however, the term of social capital has got new life, new questions and even a degree of confusion in regard to research on the link between social ties and well-being. Putnam defines social capital as social networks and the connected norms of reciprocity and trust that come out of them. He describes two basic forms of social capital, bonding and bridging. These two were explained before, further making this difference between two crucial types of social capital. Putnam, due to his measuring of social capital, outlines a wide range of forms, including: political, workplace connections; civic and religious participation; volunteering and philanthropy; informal social connections as well as trust and reciprocity. A number of scholars criticized this spread out view of social capital (Boggs, 2001; Portes, 1998). According to Portes (1998), in spite of the concept’s growing use, it has not been defined sufficiently. No real boundaries exist as to explain the content of social capital. Lin (2001) attempts to qualify the term of social capital by providing a more structurally and resource-conscious understanding of it. According to Lin, social capital focuses on the resources embedded in the individual’s social networks. In this point of view, the social asset is reliant on the resources contained within it. All social asset units are not equal and they are dependent on the value of the resources embedded within them (Lin, 2001). This approach suggests that social capital’s impact on personal well-being will be variable across social position in spirit it reflects the social condition that the poor generally pay more for less. Thus, it is important to explore the impact of social capital on well-being among groups such as those that have a higher rate of suicide in order to discover how their suicide attempt are related to social ties and resources. One of the most particular interest within the social capital literature is the relationship between social assets, both physical and mental health (Cattell, 2001; De Silva et al., 2005; K. M. Fitzpatrick, J. Irwin, M. Lagory, & F. Ritchey, 2007; Harpham, Grant, & Rodriguez, 2004; Moffitt, 2002; R. Putnam, 2001; Zhang & Goodson, 2011). Putnam, in *Bowling alone* (2001), claims that the best measure of individual
and community well-being is social integration. In particular, people with more connections are healthier. Also, these benefits have been found with a multitude of social capital measures: family ties; social group participation; friendship; as well as civic affiliations and religious; and a diversity of health outcomes. Putnam, on the subject of mental health, contends that individuals with more social ties are less likely to experience sadness, low self-esteem, loneliness and all indicators of depressive disorders that are the main predictor for suicide. In addition, the amount of an individual’s social ties is the best predictor of his /her level of happiness. Kawachi and Berkman (2001) explore the link between social capital and mental health by employing assistance from their previous work on social networks and find similar results. A reliable relationship has been found between social capital and mental health among several researchers (De Silva et al., 2007; Lin, 2001; McKenzie & Harpham, 2006).

Although recent researches are compiling on the link between social capital and wellbeing, the literature is not complete. Some research shows negative links between some forms of social capital and health related outcomes. Specially, research findings conducted on low-income populations and communities show that individual social capital may not always benefit those who take it (Caughy, O'Campo, & Muntaner, 2003; C. U. Mitchell & LaGory, 2002) For instance, the research done by Mitchell and LaGory (2002) concludes that bonding social capital actually increases an individual’s level of mental distress within poor communities. Likewise, Caughy, O’Campo and Muntaner (2003), in a study of childhood behavioral problems find that social capital in poorer neighborhoods is negatively related to preschool behavioral problems. Exclusively related to suicide, Kushner and Sterk (2005)showed that poor communities that are very homogeneous may not benefit from social capital between its members. It may also be the same for physical health outcomes. A study on the impact of social capital on health outcomes found that socioeconomic factors are more
vital than social capital in influential health differences (Ziersch Baum, MacDougall, & Putland, 2005). These findings support Lin’s notion that social capital may not impact in the same manner, persons in different positions in the social structure. Most notably the research evidence show that deprived populations do not always benefit in meaningful ways from social capital. According to Lin (2001), social capital involves the resources that exist in social networks. Thus, for bonding social capital, if the resource base is low and the resources are highly segregated, such capital may at best ‘help people to get by’. At worst, such ties can actually become imbalanced exchanges with harmful consequences. In such examples, resources either reduce quickly or the social assets become networks of contract rather than exchange (Thoits, 1995). That said bonding social capital may have limited benefit for well-being, generally for the disadvantaged. Bridging capital, on the other hand, offers an individual access to resources and opportunities not normally available. In essence, it will have a positive impact on the mental health and physical health (Kevin M. Fitzpatrick, Jessica Irwin, Mark LaGory, & Ferris Ritchey, 2007).

Social Capital and Social Work Practice

In order to use social capital in social work practice, it is necessary to understand that the concept of social capital (i) is different and separate from social support and social networks, (ii) has both negative and positive elements and (iii) operates at the individual, community and institutional levels and can be applicable in all social work settings. Ideally, social work practice would take advantage of the inclusion of the multidimensional framework within social capital to improve the understanding of social support and social networks as well as the consequence of their interaction (Ersing & Loeffler, 2008; Loeffler et al., 2004; Miller-Cribbs & Farber, 2008; Mukherjee, 2008). Most social work measures and models’ focus is individual-centric, assessing from the viewpoint of the person-in-environment and its attention is far away to focus on environmental interventions. Clearly,
this has led to much debate on the profession regarding the commitment to and types of activism for social change and the pursuit of social justice (Reisch, 2008).

In addition to social work practice is the notion of social capital that could be used in combination with other clinical approaches. Social capital is also nicely fitted with the practice models such as life model assessment based on the ecological framework that focuses on a client’s interaction with their environments (Germain & Gitterman, 1996). Cultural assessments that highlight the understanding of clients’ ethnic and cultural background in the framework of their situations can be strengthened together with the structural analysis of social capital (Congress, 2002). Also in Narrative therapy that allows clients to externalize their ‘stories’ (White, 2007) offers a chance for clients to recognize social capital resources and challenges, understanding the interaction of individual and larger structural factors such as ethnicity or class. Within community based development, social capital resources are useful in the procedure of community development as well as in the practice of building social capital that generally is part of the community development process.

The theoretical basics of community development from a social capital point of view operates out of a ‘individual benefit’ contexts which Putnam and a few other experts tend to dispute; instead, Putnam argues that experts should consider a more broad way of approaching it from a ‘collective benefit’ model.

**Conclusion**

The aim of the current study was to define social capital theory, its relation to suicide and the usage of this theory in the social work practice. Understanding and acting on the ecological and individual determinants of suicide is even more important from a global health point of view. In fact, suicide is already one of the leading causes of death in young people in low- and middle-income countries (Patton, Coffey & Sawyer, 2009).
significantly, if the factors that fuel this outcome are in fact related to social capital, then, it is equally necessary that social workers pay more attention to this demanding social issue.

The uniqueness of this research paper is its sound approach to explore new areas of social work as it relates to suicide. Because of the lack of research on this topic in relations to suicide and “collective benefits,” the researchers tend to explore more deeply its usages, benefits, challenges as well as new ways of applying. Since this discipline is relatively new in the social work profession, far more research must be applied when pertaining to people of different genders, ages, cultures, ethnics, nationalities as well as to incomes.

In summary, social workers should focus more on building social capital with all communities in order to prevent suicide, locally as well as globally. Clearly, the contemporary social work field is not operating in this fashion but with evidence based research and a change in university curriculums and attitudes, social workers will become more competent when interacting with suicidal clients after applying this new mode of thinking. In short, social workers become more responsive and accountable to the individual client and the communities’ needs.

**Reference**


THE EMPOWERMENT OF FISHERMEN COMMUNITY BASED ON
COMPARATIVE ADVANTAGES OF LOCAL RESOURCES

Safuri Musa

Abstract

The research deals with daily life of fishermen community at Northern Seashore at Indramayu District. The research is mainly concerned with the notion of high poverty and unemployment as well as low educated job-seekers at the region, on the other hand Indramayu has potential local resources. Due to the issues, the objective of the research is to discover model of apprenticeship program based on the comparative advantage of local resources for apprentices’ prosperity. The focus of the research refers to the concept on comparative advantage of local resource, the concept of apprenticeship, the theory of human capital, the concept of program management, and the concept of empowerment. The research uses research and development methodology (Borg and Gall, 1989). The findings of apprenticeship model comprises of two steps. The first is to analyze the networking of productive economy activity that expands at a region through analysis on comparative advantage of local resources. The second is to provide strengthening of apprenticeship management that is considered as an effort of apprentices’ prosperity. The research results can be concluded that: (1) in developing both apprenticeship program and Non-Formal Education (NFE) as well as empowering program, we should pay close attention toward the comparative advantage of local resources, and (2) the construction of NFE models should deal with two dimensions, both to strengthen theoretical study and comprise practice values toward the improving of learners’ competences.

Introduction

One policies of the Indonesian government on the community empowerment was to implement the innovation in micro-economic policies to give the direct impact in the production improvement of poor communities. So far, the sectors of farming, animal husbandry, forestry and fishery have given less contribution than those of sectors of industry. But based on the data, the most employments have come from the sectors of farming, animal husbandry, forestry and fishery. More than 70% of Indonesians have depended on those
sectors. By concerning the problem, it should have been models of empowerment communities program realistically to solve many problems related to the development of the sectors of farming, animal husbandry, forestry and fishery, especially for the agents of those to improve the quality of farmers and fishermen by giving non-formal education. One of non-formal education programs is apprenticeship. Apprenticeship is one of indigenous learning system Sudjana, D. (1993).

In empowering communities, it should have been in accordance with comparative advantages where the apprenticeship program would have been launched. The northern seashore of West Java has had great marine potencies, but in the other hand, the farmers and fishermen in the area have been poor. Based on the background, the purpose of the research has been to find and to know as well as to study datas and information related to: (a) the comparative advantages of local resources which have been appropriate to be the basis of community empowerment in the northern seashore of West Java, (b) the model of fishermen empowerment in the northern seashore of West Java, and (c) the model effectivity test of fishermen in the northern seashore of West Java based on comparative advantages of local resources. The study used research and development approach (Borg and Gall, 1983). Data types consisted of qualitative and quantitative datas. Static Group Pre-test - Post-Test Design is used to asses the model effectivity.

Research Findings

Comparative Advantage of Local Resources

The improvement of the development of Indonesia had been successful. But in the other hand, there have been many problems to be overcome in many sectors of development. As an agrarian and maritime country, Indonesia hasn’t been able to fulfill the needs of food in all commodities independently, so the price of imported food has been increased year by year. Thousands ton of rice, wheat, corn, sugar, meat, fruit, soybean and milk from other
countries have come to Indonesian markets, so the devisa expenditure has been increased. Indonesia has faced the 60% people who have lived in relative poverty, even about 10-20% of them have lived in absolute poverty. They have been lack of food, clothes, proper housings, clean water, education, electricity and transportation. So far, the development of Indonesia has been focused on physical investment activities, but the sector has been fragile because the stockholders could easily take the capital out of Indonesia if the economic climate hasn’t been conducive. One choice to be developed has been development programs based on the sectors of farming, including animal husbandry, marine, fishery and forestry. More than 70% Indonesian people have depended on their live in the sectors of farming. The sectors have been the valuable riches because they have had comparative advantages of other countries. Each district of Indonesia has had various local resources.

The Model of Fishermen Empowerment in Northern Seashore of West Java Based On Comparative Advantages of Local Resources

The research has found the model of fishermen empowerment in eradicating poverty in Northern Seashore of West Java based on comparative advantages of local resources. The complexity of fishermen powerless should have been overcome by a program which has concerned about many backgrounds, ethnics, ethnography and developing dynamics in local context. The emerging of empowerment program for fishermen haven’t been top-down, but it has been established by concerning local context. According to the result of pre-study, the study of comparative advantages of local resources and the possibility of relevant treatment program, I thought the appropriate empowerment program to be developed into fisherman was by taking apprenticeship. Apprenticeship is an indigenous learning system and it successfully becomes the safety valve of economic crisis effect. There have been 11 steps of fishermen community through apprenticeship based on comparative advantages of local resources in Northern Seashore of West Java as follows.
Figure: The Steps of Community Empowerment through Apprenticeship Based on Comparative Advantage of Local Resources

The eleven steps of fishermen empowerment through apprenticeship above have been focused on productive economic business based on comparative advantages of local resources in Northern Seashore of West Java.

Basic consideration and study on how the apprenticeship development in productive economic business based on comparative advantages of local resources have been: (a) to
provide empowerment program which has been more specialized and concentrated, (b) to eliminate work force migration from villages to cities, (c) to overcome the rarity of job vacancies in districts, (e) to overcome the possibility of conflict towards the authority of local resources, (f) to respect the right of tradition economically, socially and culturally. (The International Convenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Right dan The International Decade of Indigenous Peoples).

**Model Effectivity**

There have been two main steps in testing the model effectivity: (a) study model theoretical validation, (b) model test in field. Pre-test and post-test design was taken in testing the effectivity. The result of pre-test showed that the developed model was quite effective. After a serial test in field and revision during research process and the next development, the post-taken was taken to test the model effectivity. That meant the model effectivity test in the post-test was taken after the developed model had been revised according to field findings. The score average of model effectivity test in pre-test was 120.17, so the developed model was assumedly effective to be implemented in wider fields.

The result of model effectivity test after field test (post-test) showed that the developed model was effective. So the increase between pre-test and post-test showed the positive trend, because the model effectivity in the pre-test was quite effective, but in the post-test became effective. Therefore the research was successful in testing an empowerment model through holistic apprenticeship by concerning comparative advantages of local resources as a background in program development.

**Discussion**

The fishermen in the northern seashore of West Java and whole Indonesia have been poor. There have been only heads, boat owners or *papalele* who have had more profit. But *pandega* (employees on a fishing vessel), *anak buah kapal, pecilen* or *pinggawa sawi* (crew),
haven’t been able to earn enough money to sustain themselves and their families. Thunder seasons (musim baratan) are difficult times for fisherman families, because they can’t go to sea for three months in a year.

One of basic problem in fishery and marine has been the powerless of fishermen to make use of fishery resources to improve the quality of life on sustainable basis. The problem source has come from the limited of proper hookers and the catcher technology, the low mastery of capital matters, the low level of education as well as cultural and structural obstacles in the fishermen.

As a maritime country, Indonesia has only had 4 thousands of fishermen, where 85% of them have had elementary school or below level (dropped-out of elementary school and illiterate), 12% of them have had junior high school level, 2.97% of them have had high school level and only 0.03% of them have had diploma or bachelor level. The condition could directly or indirectly be influenced the level or fishermen empowerment in overcoming the difficulties of life from poverty, underdevelopmentally and stupidity.

The powerless of fishermen has been caused by the ownership of hookers, boats or simple ships, the traditional technology of catching, the low capital and the simple processing system. Fishermen in Indonesia have used small boats or small ships, so the catching area would have been limited. It has caused the intensity of catching in shallow territorial waters and the overdensity of fishermen towards the limit of the conservation potencies of fishery sources. Overfishing has happened in the northern seashore of Java Island and Malaka Strait. Actually, the conservation potencies of Indonesian fishery have been possible. From 6.6 tons per year, there have been only those of 30-35% which have been made use of, including the catch of licensed strange boats.

The next powerless of fishery has been related to the unavailability of occupation alternatives when they haven’t gone to sea or turo, because of the rage sea storm. Fishermen
who have usually used small boats or ships would have been afraid of going to sea. In the
difficult times, fishermen and their families would have lived in sorrow. They would have
used the little deposit from their work before and also pawned or sold things to overcome the
need problems of families. They would have difficulties in doing other activities to earn
money, because they haven’t had other skills or capital. Fishermen in northern seashore of
West Java would have fixed and cared boats, nets, machines and other tools in difficult times.

The powerless of fishermen has been caused by the unfair distribution system in social
system and the low of instrumental in fishermen community. The heads (owners of boats /
papalele) have been more dominated in taking decision than crew (pandega/pinggawa
sawi). The domination of the heads have been identified as follows: the selling price of
catched fish has been determined only by the heads, the heads would have been the sellers,
the distribution of profit has taken by the heads with the reduction of operational budget,
boats using and catching tools which have been equal with two fishermen. That meant the
heads would have had 50% income before it has been reducted by operational budget and it
would have been added by twice parts of the rest income which has been equal with
fishermen after being reducted by operational budget during the work (diesel fuel, solid ice,
food, medicines etc).

The condition has forced the sociocultural in the life of fishermen who have kept
living powerless. Vidhyandika (1994) stated that the social imbalance in Indonesia,
especially in Java Island, has been caused by structural factors and especially cultural factors
which have coloured the economic life of elite group among society economic. The cultural
factors consisted of the unorientation to the future, the unlikeness to save money to increase
investment, the unperseverance attitude, the orientation to the heaven, the slowliness and the
lack of response to the innovation. The structural factors which have obstructed the
community empowerment, especially fishermen have been the low access into the improvement elements such as capital, technology, management, marketing and information.

As a maritime country, Indonesia has had comparative advantages of maritime resources and fishery which have been very potential to be developed, because (a) two-third percent of Indonesia areas is sea or about 3.1 million kms² are territorial waters, (b) there are 17,508 islands with sea line 81,000 kms along, (c) there have been the largest mangrove communities in the world for about 4.25 millions Ha or 27% of 15.9 millions of the mangrove forest in the world, and (d) there have been about 7,500 kms² ridge of rock which have stays at low tide areas. In fact, the great sea potencies haven’t given the optimum prosperity for fishermen.

Rising the standard and dignity of fishermen needs policies, strategis and programs of empowerment systematically. One formulation of fishery policies in the future according to Juliantara (2000) has been creating sustainable fisheries, which hasn’t only considered ecological aspects (environmentally friendly), but also economic dimensions (economically sound) and social dimensions (social just).

The three dimensions (ecological, economical and social) in the operationalization should have been integrated, which has been realized in fishery development based on ecological or ecological modernization. The concept has combined the development of economic and the conservation of environment. Ecological modernization has implied a partnership where government, business parties, environment lovers and scholars have taken collaboration in reconstructing capitalist politic economic through environment conservation approach. The implication of fishery activities should have considered sustainability principles. Arif (1998) has agreed that sustainable development has been the right choice as the respond of worse economic environment and world social caused by the
lack of government attention towards the environment and social damage which would have had the consequences toward the sustainability of the development.

**Conclusion**

Each area in Indonesia has its own characteristic and resources; human resources, natural resources and cultural resources. The differences have implication towards policies, strategies and programs of area development. The research has shown that area development should be based on comparative advantages of local resources (men, nature and culture). Studying comparative advantages is to find and to know the available potencies and networking in an area which hasn’t been available or lack of availability in other areas. By finding and knowing comparative advantages in an area, its development will be more efficient, specialized and competitive in selling products. The research has proven it through the apprenticeship development of ships, snack and salty-fish production of community in northern seashore of West Java. The three apprenticeships have been tested to have comparative advantages of local resources in empowering communities from poverty, especially in economic matter.

**References**


CULTURAL RESPECT AND CULTURAL COMPETENCE IN WORKING WITH JAPANESE TSUNAMI DISASTER SURVIVORS

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and Eiji Shimizu

Abstract

This paper outlines the therapeutic work we undertook as a Mental Health Response Team to provide counseling services and cultural support systems to survivors of the March 11, 2011 earthquake in the Tohoku area. Those who survived the initial impact continue to this day to suffer high rates of mental stress, chronic anxiety, depression, hopelessness, helplessness, addiction, and suicide. Following such a catastrophic event, helping professionals need to apply interventions that not only address intense individual trauma, but also alleviate the consequences of collective loss. The team, comprising a psychiatrist and two clinical psychologists (who were also trained social workers), was assigned by the Iwate Prefectural Public Health Office to implement a mental health support program for Ichinoseki City. We engaged in intense and at times overwhelming work with large segments of those displaced people living in temporary accommodation. Although we are still evaluating the program’s outcomes, this paper outlines our journey and the lessons we learned over the last 12 months. Adjusting to a semblance of normalcy and to a “new” life experience far removed from the old has a significant effect on stress. As a team, we established a traditional “tea salon” to bring people together. We understood the significance of this ancient practice and its positive impact on people. The ceremony represents, in many respects, the embodiment of quintessential Japanese tradition. In times of great sadness, it gives comfort and sustenance to both body and mind. Procter (2011) states that mental health professionals need to understand the host culture and aim to build their relationships through awareness, sensibility, and knowledge of the local people in the context of their culture. While Western-style, post-disaster practices may be enthusiastically adopted as important standardized regimes, the taught us the importance of placing a high value on culture and respecting local nuanced living. By honoring and utilizing cultural traditions, we argue this has positive effects on addressing the serious nature of post-event trauma.
Background

It was a clear spring afternoon, at 2:46 pm local time on March 11, 2011, when deep beneath the ocean floor, a magnitude 9.0 earthquake shook the Tohoku coastal area of Japan. Centered about 128 km east of Sendai, the capital city of Miyagi Prefecture, the quake generated a massive tsunami—the largest ever recorded in Japan’s seismic history. The massive wave killed more than 15,000, with 3,500 still unaccounted for, and displaced more than 300,000 households. On the day the tsunami hit Tohoku, more than 360,000 houses were lost and 300,000 people have been forced to be displaced. Those evacuees may experience tremendous mental stress, of which there are three aspects: post-traumatic stress, loss stress, and environmental change stress. Since the government did not have an actual plan for the reconstruction of their living environment, many evacuees suffer from anxiety about the future.

Program Description

Field

The population of Ichinoseki City in Iwate prefecture is 128,000. Since Ichinoseki is located on the mountainside of Iwate, it was not damaged by the tsunami. However, there are many evacuees who moved from the coast areas because they lost houses. The area was also severely damaged by an aftershock in April 2011.

Team

The Chiba University Mental Health Intervention Team, from the Research Center for Child Mental Development at the Graduate School of Medicine in Chiba University, consists of two psychiatrists and three psychologists. Two psychologists stayed in the field for eight months, and a psychiatrist and a psychologist visited the field two days a month.

Target Population
Our target population was composed of those who were temporarily housed in public shelters for tsunami and earthquake victims in Ichinoseki City. More than 1,000 families or 2,500 people moved from the coastal areas where affected by the tsunami. The aftershock in the city destroyed the houses of more than 150 families or 500 people.

Activity

In response to the need for mental health services for the tsunami evacuees in Ichinoseki City, the Chiba University Mental Health Intervention Team initiated mental health therapeutic intervention. We worked with local public health nurses in the Ichinoseki Public Health Office, who were in charge of providing health care to the evacuees as well as looking after their environment and other concerns.

I worked with the team on the project for eight months. My role was to identify and assess evacuees in crisis, and to refer support through local resources. The major areas of my involvement were the following: 1) outreach for evacuees, and home visits with local public health nurses; 2) consultation with public health nurses for case management; and 3) community education on stress management, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) prevention, suicide prevention, substance abuse, and grief care. Japan has a markedly different approach to social work than that of the US. For example, clinical psychologists can have dual functions; they can also serve as social workers and refer clients to hospitals, or provide psychological treatments or assessments. We used cognitive behavior therapy to provide evacuees with counseling. We also used Skills for Psychological Recovery (SPR,), which is an evidence-based approach to address survivors’ concerns in the weeks or months after the disaster. SPR helps survivors gain skills to cope with post-disaster stress and adversities (NCPTSD and NCTSN, 2010).
Outcomes

A. Mental Health Condition of Evacuees

We found that few survivors required surgical medical intervention compared to the survivors of another historically large disaster in Japan, the Hanshin-Awaji Big Earthquake. Most of the survivors of the Tohoku earthquake and tsunami had minor injuries. Medical workers took care of people with chronic diseases, such as high blood pressure or mental illness, who were under medication. In outreach, we checked their blood pressure, sleep, appetite, digestion, stress level, and mental health status.

As part of this program, the prefecture government ordered our team to conduct post-disaster intervention. But, in the time I was expected to work not only as a psychologist who provides intense mental health treatment, but also as a social work professional who manages cases by coordinating support resources in the local community. Indeed, many people suffered not only emotionally from the traumatic event, but also were physically stressed because of temporary housings issues such as temperature, noise, or relationships with neighbors. Although these concerns might seem trivial, the evacuees wanted to address them immediately to reduce their stress. I made a point not to leave such issues unresolved.

After relocating from an emergency situation to the recovery phase, social workers and other helping professionals were needed to help victims with ongoing crisis intervention and medium- to long-term support work. This included their role in coordinating resources, public health service, mental health support, and community organizing efforts.

B. Case Work Outreach

I made home visits to the evacuees to make sure to deliver timely and effective service, and to evaluate their psychosocial needs by using a screening tool that included post-traumatic psychological reaction. Through home visiting, I provided case coordination by
referring clients to local resources. I also provided brief counseling and psychological education on coping with post-traumatic reactions.

From interviews with the evacuees, we learned that they suffered daily anxiety, grief, and loss. Their anxiety was further exacerbated by feelings of helplessness, hopelessness, and loneliness. Some of them were at high risk of PTSD. Using SRA methods, we provided a therapeutic interview as well as a referral to service resources. Although we have not yet completed an evaluation of our outreach, many evacuees reported feeling better after talking with the psychologists.

C. Group Work: Tea Salon

While typical temporary housing in coastal areas were located in clusters, most evacuees in Ichinoseki City were dispersed because of the lack of open spaces, and hardly saw each other. Many evacuees were isolated; they had few opportunities to gather, and limited information and access to social resources. They tried to adjust to their new environment, but at the same time they missed the people in their hometown. Our team responded to their needs by planning a tea salon where people could gather.

We organized a tea salon with a safe and secure atmosphere for the evacuees. For example, we set guidelines for local authorities and volunteers to work effectively and appropriately in a therapeutic context. We instructed them not to force participants to talk and not to give intrusive advice. After the tea salon activity, we received the following reflections from the participants (translated original comments in Japanese to English):

“他の被災者と会えて嬉しかった” (I was glad to see people from my hometown.)

“同郷の人と話せて懐かしかった” (I feel at home talking with other survivors.)

“昔からの知人に会え、新しい知り合いができてよかった” (It was great to see old acquaintances and make new friends.)
“避難してきてから、はじめて他の被災者に会えた” (Finally, I met other survivors for the first time after the disaster.)

“もっと話したい、と前向きな気持ちになった” (I was motivated to share my feelings and to be positive.)

“同じ被災者同士で、他人がいないような気がした” (I feel a sense of closeness with others.)

“こころの痛みを打ち明けて、気持ちが楽になった” (I feel relieved because I let out the pain inside.)

“このお茶っこ会をきっかけに、被災者同士で” (I think this group would be the first step for survivors to contact each other.)

“このお茶っこ会で、他の活動もしてみたい” (I want to have various activities with this group, such as outings, cooking, etc.)

“このお茶っこ会を続けてほしい” (I strongly hope this group will be maintained.)

**Discussion**

A. Planned but Unplanned

As emergent responders, several medical and rehabilitative interventions were required. Because of the scope and magnitude of the tsunami, an extraordinary number of teams were involved in recovery work. The damage was mainly found in three prefectures; each prefecture government assigned an intervention team to each area. Each worker was responsible for assessing and treating the physical and psychological effects of the disaster on the people.

Some mental health teams prepared particular tools or skills for the interventions. However, no one knew what the actual situation was going to be. We could not force evacuees to undergo a particular therapy, even though we are specialists of the method. There
is a greater need in the field for general, flexible therapists, rather than specialists for a particular psychological treatment. Some medical teams were disappointed that they had fewer opportunities to conduct psychological therapy or trauma-focused intervention than they had expected. Workers need to place emphasis on meeting actual needs of survivors in the field.

B. Cultural Competency in Intervention

Under such stressful circumstances, it was important for field workers to be professionally and culturally competent. Cultural competence and cultural respect entail a sensitive, knowledgeable, and non-judgmental manner toward others. Cultural competence consists of four aspects: (1) awareness of one’s own cultural worldview, (2) being reflective of cultural differences, (3) knowledge of different cultural practices, and (4) cross-cultural skills (Ritter & Lampkin, 2012).

It is imperative to develop effective communication with local people affected by the tsunami. They do not often share their feelings with strangers, which might be a part of the Japanese characteristic of reservedness. People hesitate to ask for help, especially in terms of mental health, because of stigma. They worry that others would react negatively if they reveal mental distress. This tendency is often seen among people with a traditional perspective in rural areas. Research shows that most public misconceptions of mental illness result from “lack of education and reliance on stereotype,” and also affected by current media that depict people with mental illness as incompetent or weak (Behavioral Health News, 2000, July 5). Thus, social workers are responsible for providing accurate information for a community to overcome stigma.

Japanese people will likely ask for help from an informal community, such as their families or relatives, rather than from a formal community, such as city government workers and public welfare officials. After the natural disaster, some survivors were conscious about
being “customers” of welfare services. They insisted on sharing relief goods with the social workers. The survivors did not like being one-sided receivers, so they tried to return the favor. Thus, when providing social support to survivors, we should be highly sensitive to their cultural context.

C. Intervention as Insider and Outsider

Because our team members were all Japanese professionals, we might be able to communicate naturally with the local people. In terms of Japanese language and culture, we can identify ourselves as insiders, compared to workers from other countries. After a while, however, we found that the local people in the area had their own unique culture. For instance, although we all spoke Japanese, we noticed the local people’s strong dialect and unique intonation. We respected their cultural style.

In counseling, the local people proudly shared their history of surviving hardships in Tohoku, including frequent natural disasters such as heavy snowfall, floods, and tsunami. I realized that we should respect their strength. These stories might be common knowledge for the local people, but to outsiders like us, these stories confirmed their tradition of strength. For instance, they shared with us their oral traditions after a natural disaster, one of which had the following words: “Tsunami, ten-den-ko.” This means that, when a tsunami occurs, you have to run and save yourself; and once you run, you should never look back until you are sure you are safe. Many of those who died in the tsunami did not follow this rule, and had returned to their homes to look for their family members. Some people tried to rationalize their loss, but others felt guilt, regret, or shame because of this oral tradition.

D. Collaboration with Local Authorities

Independence and resourcefulness are crucial requirements for intervention workers in the field. Those who work in devastated areas, such as our team, must ensure adequate accommodations and accessibility in terms of mobile transportation. They must understand
the importance of self-care and health maintenance, and have sufficient food and other supplies. Unfortunately, we heard of cases where some medical intervention teams insisted that they be given five-star accommodations and special treats.

It is also essential to maintain clear communication and trusting relationships with local authorities. Since the situation changes by the hour, getting accurate information is one of the most important and challenging tasks in the field. If workers can establish good working alliances with local authorities, then they can get information in a clear and timely manner. It takes time to establish rapport with local people. Our team consisted of workers who stayed long enough to be familiar with the area, set up an eight-month program, and collaborated with local authorities.

Furthermore, because our team was technically composed of outsiders who worked in the field, we organized a network of local workers to collaborate with and take over the tea salon activity. To make our tea salon activity effective, we had to make arrangements with a local authority who was a key person in the city. In Japan, local authorities are extremely powerful in local organizations. We asked for the support of a local authority in the city government so that the local workers could be involved in the tea salon activity. We coordinated with the local workers’ network and introduced a social welfare council that would take over the tea salon for evacuees.

E. Tea Salon: Respect Cultural Value

Our tea salon aimed to help evacuees recover their sense of normalcy, and to provide a therapeutic effect in a traumatic situation. For the salon, we provided a secure Japanese style tatami room, where we served tea, coffee, and other refreshments to match the participants’ preference. In addition to tea, we also served tsukemono (pickled local vegetable), which is a typical snack at tea salons. This is a common practice in the Tohoku area.
By establishing a place that respects local culture and daily customs, we hoped that the people could recover a sense of security. Another group gathering in the area taught survivors to be economically independent by engaging in moonlighting work. However, at this phase, most survivors prefer a gathering for socializing rather than an economic activity.

Drinking tea has a treatment effect by itself. It can comfort survivors who are tense or distressed. In Japan, tea drinking habits and culture were introduced when the tea plant seeds arrived from China, and in the Kamakura period (1185-1392), tea consumption spread because of its medicinal value. In the latter part of the Kamakura period, a tea gathering was held with large servings of tea in a sacred temple. From then on, the tea gathering prevailed as a fulfillment of its spiritual aspects (Sen, 1980).

In Tohoku, people have held tea gatherings since the old days for several purposes. First, the tea gathering maintains their social ties. Historically, local people supported each other in farm work (e.g. planting, mowing, dam building, harvesting), fishery work (e.g. cultivation of seafood, maintenance of fishing net). And during their break time, they gathered with tea or snacks (kobili). In addition, people show each other their hospitality in a traditional tea ceremony that represents Japanese spirituality. Finally, a tea gathering can also be a gossip session; in Japanese, this is called Idobata Kaigi (talking around a well). People relieve their stress by sharing tea and stories about their personal lives. All these aspects enhance their sense of belonging in the community.

In a typical Western intervention model, workers establish a support group for people to share their experiences with others. However, most Japanese people are uncomfortable sharing their feelings in public. In our salon, tea and refreshments naturally helped people strike up conversations. We did not pressure the participants to share stories; instead, we provided them with the opportunity to gather in the tea salon. They enjoy presence here and now instead suffer past memory. This is an alternative method of trauma therapy for
survivors to support each other. Unobtrusive intervention can only be accomplished when workers consider the participants’ cultural context.

F. Procedure for Mental Health Intervention

After a disaster, the damage in the field could have multiple dimensions with time flame. Over time, people’s mental health needs become more complicated. During the rescue phase, the procedure of social work intervention in the field is simple: the security of the survivors needs to be ensured. Once survivors move to evacuation centers, their safety and stabilization needs emerge. In the restoration phase, some evacuees settle in temporary housing and begin to return to their daily routines. However, the recovery process differs for each individual. Some go through a less challenging process, while others struggle to confront reality or deal with tremendous loss. There are various types of reconstruction depends on original local context.

Similarly, the process of mental health recovery also differs for each individual. For instance, some people decide to move to another place, get a new job, and successfully adjust to a new environment. These people could recover faster. However, those with difficulty adjusting to a new environment or finding a stable job could need more time to recover. This is called bipolarization in recovery (Kin, 2006).

Conclusion

The most essential aspect of disaster social work is respect for individual and local cultural value. People who have experienced disaster have their own stories, and they should be given opportunity to safely share their stories if they so desire. In addition, because people rarely call for help, outreach is indispensable to disaster social work. Workers should continually assess the needs of the people in the field, since each field has different needs and may be in different phases of recovery.
After a disaster, workers can easily become overwhelmed and helpless. Workers need to immerse themselves in the field to understand its cultural context; however, they should stay objective about the situation and their self-condition. General guidelines for workers could be drafted, but workers should adjust to each situation. Workers should respect local values and suggest reconstruction based on the local context.
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COLLABORATING COPING WITH VARIOUS RELIGIOUS INTERVENTIONS FOR FLOOD DISASTER VICTIMS

Sapora Sipon, Khatijah Othman and Husni Mohd Radzi

Abstract

Stress management and intervention are important in preparing disaster victims with a sense of control and a better future. Many studies have shown religion and spirituality to be an important determinant of traumatic reactivity and is highly valuable in times of crisis, trauma, and grief. Religious activities include prayer, doa, meditation and regular attendance at the appropriate meeting house, regular and often public displays of religious faith. The collaboration between coping with trauma and the use of various spiritual beliefs is well established in many studies. This paper will look into a review of literature, research and non-research on the use of various spiritual beliefs as religious interventions and coping for flood disaster victims.

Introduction

Flood is the most severe natural disaster in Malaysia. After the disastrous flood of 1971 which affected many areas in Malaysia, various strategies and measures have been implemented by the Government to mitigate flood impacts. In Malaysia, flood, like any disaster, affect people from various aspects such as the psychological and emotional stress. Many research have proved that psychological and emotional stress are common following the experience of a natural disaster including flood. Research conducted by Y. Badiah et al (2008) on flood victims in Johor proved that they experienced stress, anxiety and depression.

Flood also changes the victims’ belief about themselves and meaning of life (Adeola, 2009 & Mohamed Haji-Yusuf, Adi Fahrudin, Beddu Salam Baco and Mohd Dahlan HA Malek, 2000). Freedy, Kilpatrick and Reschnick (1993) state that flood has changed one’s looks at the spiritual aspect of life. Disaster survivors also turn to their ministers, priests, and rabbis for practical assistance, emotional support, rituals and meanings. Personal
characteristics resources of flood victims which include self-esteem and self efficacy will change due to flood (Adoela, 2009; Sapora Sipon, 2000).

Collaborating coping with various spiritual beliefs is established in many studies (Reale; 2010 and Y. Badiah et. al, 2008). Thus this article will look into the use of various spiritual beliefs as religious interventions and coping for flood disaster victims. The interventions discussed are prayer, doa and dhikir. The role of local religious bodies and communities in helping the flood disaster victims is also discussed in this paper.

Effects of Flood Disaster

Victims of any natural disaster including flood disaster usually experience chronic stress such as psychological changes, fear, demoralizations, emotional or anxiety disorder and depression (Victoria, Holly & Dominic, 2010). The impact of losing own property, loved ones and sources of income can make a person stuck at a particular point. A person may feel confused, frustrated, hopeless and traumatized. They may also lose their strength and will power to pick up from where they have left and start again from zero. Picking up life fragments can sometime hurt a person’s ego and affected their self-esteem. The mental torture will not go away and it will worsen the person psychological state because it will only repeat itself after certain period of time. The thought of having to face the same trauma all over again can already create panic and increase a person’s stress level significantly.

From the 2006 Johor state flood disaster, a lot of the survivor have been showing several psychological and mental distress such as high stress level, depression, anxiety and low in self- esteem. As much as the government and the authority have tried to reach out to these people it is hard for the medical providers to detect and identified this emotional and psychological patient because they don’t realize it, they don’t want to admit or they don’t want to be labeled negatively (Berita Harian, 27 Jan, 2007). From this low self-esteem experienced by the flood victim may hindered them from accepting or getting the help that
they really need. Thus, the flood victims are at risk in suffering various psychological and mental distresses due to the impact of the traumatic incident.

As stated by Y. Badiah et al (2008), flood has caused its victims psychological effects. Their research findings showed that 13% were mildly depressed, 7% moderately depressed and 3% were severely depressed. It was also revealed that 22% were midly anxious, 19% moderately anxious, 5% severely anxious. On the stress scores, 15% suffered mild stress, 11% were moderately stressed while 2% were severely stressed.

Steffany (2010) stated that result from structural equation modeling revealed a positive and significant direct association between threat/harm and PTSD symptoms on flood victims. A research conducted in 2004 examines the longer-term psychosocial effects of the Red River Flood in Manitoba, Canada. The findings are based on a 2000 survey of 178 individuals living in two communities heavily flooded in 1997. The respondents showed a slightly higher rate of psychological distress than reported in the 1994/95 Canadian National Population Health Survey.

**Importance of Religion and Spirituality In Disaster Management**

Various reasons are posited on the importance of religion and spirituality in the practice of counseling and psychotherapy including disaster intervention. It was noted that many people who seek for disaster intervention would come with religious background. Kelly (1995) stated that many mental health workers including counselors believed that seeking a spiritual understanding of one’s place in the universe is important in overall health and well-being including disaster management intervention.

In many disaster intervention, the role of psychologists and counselors to look at religion and other spiritual dimensions as a tool to enhance the happiness in human lives is pertinent (Sapora Sipon, 2000). Western scholars even agreed about the influence of religion and spiritual belief in counseling process. In their study, Quackenbos, S., Privette, G., &
Klentz, B. (1985) stated that 79% clients found religious value was the main topic of
discussion during counseling process. This idea is also being supported by Hasan
Langgulung (1991) where a counseling process will be more effective when it takes into
account cultural and religious values of a client. Jung & Shamdasani (1932) further agreed
that religious values are vital in counseling process after 30 years of practice. According to
Jung, normally clients who are above 30 years old will eventually referred back to their
religious teaching and values before they really feel better with themselves or heal.

Bergins (1983) reviewed research studies through the 1980s and found that when
religion was correlated with measures of mental health, 23% of the studies revealed a
negative relationship, 30% found no relationship, and 47% found a positive relationship.
Thus, 77% of the obtained results are contrary to the negative effect of religion theory.

Bergins’ findings correlated with that of Gardner, Larson and Allen (1991) which found a
favorable association between religiousness and suicide risk, drug use, alcohol abuse,
delinquent behavior, divorcee and marital satisfaction, psychological well-being, depression
and physical health and longevity.

Collaborating Coping with Various Religious Interventions for Flood Disaster Victims

Collaborating coping with various religious interventions for flood disaster victims is
discussed in this part. The role of local religious bodies and communities in addressing the
psychological trauma of flood disaster victims will be part of the discussion. The religious
interventions such as prayer, doa, dhikir and wisdom is also discussed.

Role of Local Religious Bodies and Communities

The importance of religion in flood disaster management can be seen in the work of
the Centre for Risk and Community Safety at RMIT University. The centre held a forum at
the Parliament of World’s Religions entitled ‘Faith, Community and Disaster Risk
Reduction’, in which speakers addressed the important connection between religion and
disasters. This article draws from the Parliament forum, reviewing the role of religion in disasters – from religious interpretations of disasters to the role religious organisations play in disaster mitigation, preparedness, response and reconstruction. The humanitarian and Disaster Risk Reduction field is, however, beginning to open up to considerations of religion – for example, academics are starting to contemplate the role of Christian churches in African development, and liberation theology is attracting some attention. (Reale, 2010)

The role of local religious bodies in offering assistance to flood victims is becoming more important. Local religious bodies often have a great advantage in disaster situations. Local communities, organisations and governments have the greatest capacity to offer assistance. These bodies are embedded in the local community, speak the local language and understand the local culture. They know who in the community is most vulnerable and what people and infrastructure is available to assist. Religious institutions often have their own facilities, such as a prayer space that can be used for shelter or the distribution of food. Local bodies are already on the ground and can respond immediately. They are also often still involved in helping a community recover long after outside NGOs and UN bodies have gone home.

Reale (2010) indicated that a good example where religious bodies play important role in addressing flood disaster management is stated by Falk (2010). According to Falk, in relation to the Kashmir earthquake: it was local Islamic NGOs and volunteers from across the faith community that came to the aid of victims, speeding up the response process significantly. After the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, unaffected temples in Phang Nha, Thailand, became places of refuge for survivors, with monks caring for the physical, emotional and spiritual needs of survivors and conducting cremation ceremonies for the dead. Similarly, churches and other religious bodies worked together to provide relief for victims of the 2009 bushfires in Victoria, Australia.
In the Aitape tsunami, local, provincial and national governments failed to provide relief, leaving a space that was filled largely by the Catholic Church, which even constructed basic infrastructure such as roads and bridges in order to deliver aid effectively. In Fiji, the Church provides disaster-affected Christians with food and provisions over and above government aid. Churches are able to channel resources from overseas counterparts and provide support on all levels, including reconstruction of housing, relocation and limited financial aid (Reale, 2010).

**Prayer**

There are numerous research conducted to test clinical effectiveness of praying on chronic illnesses patient, recovery rate and overall human health (Levin et al, 1994; Gardner, Larson & Allen, 1997 and Bergin, 1984). In Islam, an important solution in avoiding stressful life is by coping it with patient and prayer. This has been stated in the Quran surah Al-Baqarah, verse 153. Muslim are advised to be consistent in their prayers and be confident that Allah is ever forgiven to all as affirmed by Surah Nuh, verse 10. This has been emphasized by Rizal (2009) where according to the studies conducted, during a prayer a person’s prostration position will affect the electro encephalogram by moderating the electrical waves in the brain from nine to twelve waves per second and this position placed that person on alpha waves, where he will be more calm, serene and restful. And this position proof to be a total submission to the power of God, where none other power above the power of Allah swt.

**Doa**

Doa’ is one of common acts of devotion in any religious community and it can be performed by any people at any level, age and setting. Thus, doa’ was chosen as a tool that will help the counselor to cope with psychological and emotional issues such as stress, depression, anger, confusion, dilemma and other mental concerns. Doa’ can give a sense of
optimism in the mind of a person because it represents hope and projects positivity in the person’s psychology. Constant praying to God may facilitate the development of a positive psychology in a person’s mind. Doa’ may also dispute any irrational or negative thoughts that may influence counselors’ thinking and evaluation. By having a dynamic positive psychology in a counselor mind would lead him or her to a better ability of dealing with stress and other health issues (Abdullah Mohamed, 2004).

Wisdom

Simultaneously, Islam encourages human being to help each other in developing potential and solving problems since in Islam each Muslim are like brothers to one another. Therefore, Muslims are supposed to adopt wisdom approach in ensuring successfulness in building strong relationship and brotherhood by helping other fellow Muslim in difficulties as acknowledged in (Surah An-Nahl, verse 125). This in fact has been further noted by Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) through his hadith means ‘Good deeds for your brother is your guidance to those who lost guide’. (Reported by Abu Dzar) In brief, every human being will be tested by Allah swt in various way as to their capabalities.

Human who have strong faith will be successful otherwise for those who have weaker faith should be helped, supported and guided to the right path and toward the blessing of Allah swt. For those who are willing to help others in hardships and troubles will be given a great reward by Allah in the hereafter as mentioned by Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him), ‘Whoever cooling eyes of a believer (remove hardships), Allah will cooling his eyes on the Day of Judgment’. In a state of depression a believer on the other hand is advised to increase

Dhikr

Unquestionably, by dhikr (remembrance of Allah), hearts are assured. In hadith narrated by Abdullah ibn Abbas, Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) said ‘If anyone
continually asks pardon, Allah will appoint for him a way out of every distress, and a relief from every anxiety, and will provide for him from where he did not reckon’. From this hadith it is proven that Muslim are encourage at all time to recites do’a, to seek the help from Allah in facing whatever situations.

**Conclusion**

The collaboration between coping and the use of various spiritual beliefs in flood disaster management is important in preparing disaster victims with a sense of control and a better future. This paper has discussed how various spiritual and religious interventions are being applied in preparing disaster victims with a sense of control and a better future

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SELF-TRANSFORMATION FOR PERSONAL EXCELLENCE IN SHAPING FUTURE WORKFORCE

Siti Raba’ah Abdul Razak

Abstract

Government and corporate sectors in Malaysia are looking into hiring people who are well equipped with soft skills such as leadership, communication, professionalism, teamwork and sound ethical values amongst other criteria. In the efforts of providing opportunities to PMR and SPM school leavers to undergo a skill oriented program in the field of Electrical, Institut Delta Semarak aspires to equip the students with the soft skills in the hope to increase the chances of these students in landing themselves in a suitable job in the industry. Inculcating soft skills in an individual needs time and because it is a process, it is imperative that the content is delivered in a specific time frame by a trained facilitator. The proposed approach in actualizing the teaching and learning of the soft skills is in the development of a twelve-week self-transformation program for the selected students. This is a community work project whereby the program is designed by the facilitator who has 9 years of personal experience in self-mastery and self-transformation using emotional intelligence and personal branding as the integral part of the transformation process. Neuro-Semantic Neuro Linguistic Programming (NLP) method will be applied in changing the mindset of the participants to be more receptive and embracing the transformation process. The work in progress result will be presented to announce the possibility of using the program for other private or public higher learning institution.

Introduction

Soft skills in Personal Excellence

Issues of lack of competence in the Higher Learning Institution graduates remains one of the most highlighted topics in the Malaysia’s human capital development agenda to date. It was mentioned in the newspaper (Metro, 27th April, 2012) that the lack of competencies ranges from technical skills to poor soft skills including professional work ethics, communication skills, decision making skills as well as leadership skills.
Despite of the efforts of some Universities such as Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), providing leadership and soft skills modules to the students from across all levels eversince 2006, and some Universities incorporating soft skills into the co-curriculum activities, it is apparent that there is still much work needs to be done in inculcating the soft skills knowledge and making sure it is practiced and embedded in the characters and personalities of all student’s involved as a preparation for the working world.

Soft skills can be learned, but it takes time and a lot of practice before one can master the skills and demonstrate their effectiveness on job performance in the industry.

To demonstrate the importance of acquiring soft skills through a self-transformation process for personal excellence, a program was designed to execute and implement the process.

**Personal Excellence – The Way Forward**

Why do we need to achieve personal excellence? Why can’t we just be an average person? Some people may have these questions in their minds, probably a way to camouflage their worry about having the need to change or resisting change altogether. Excellence does not just happened. Aristotle did not just say ‘excellence is an art won by training and habituation’ for no reason.

Achieving excellence requires the burning desire to be the best in a task or a performance. Personal excellence transcends a person into the higher Self. Every aspects of a person’s life could benefit from being in the higher Self. Organizations normally would seek employee who demonstrates personal excellence in work performance in the promotion exercise, or as a brand champion of the company who would act as the company’s advocate. Instead of having one or two star performers, why not have the whole system perform to their best? In this instance the way forward is to groom future workforce into embracing change for personal excellence from tertiary level of education as a preparation for the industry.
Werner (2011) cited a leadership researcher defines Personal Excellence as below:

“Personal excellence is a process of becoming the best person one can be and is reflected in how one is, as well as what one does. Personal excellence is indicated in people who develop their gifts and talents to the fullest, achieving a harmony in how they think, feel, behave, and believe that leads to productive relationships and outcomes.” ~ Richard Hammett, 2007.

Figure 1 shows the Personal Excellence Framework as a guide in which could be incorporated in an individual’s pursue of excellence.

![Figure 1 Personal Excellence framework](image)

( Richard Hammett 2007) Adapted from Werner, M. 2011)

Hammett (cited in Werner,M 2011) outlines the key concepts of the framework as below:

Belief System – Purpose : helps to define one’s own potential levels of achievement and excellence. Knowing the self, purpose, values, strengths and belief in one’s potential forms
the foundation for personal excellence.

*The Guidance System – Vision:* ability to envision one’s desired future and proactively set clear and specific personal goals to reach that vision.

*The Power System – Commitment:* skills like one’s ability to persist and accomplish goals and manage oneself through life and responsibilities.

*The Balance System – Change:* Skills including decision making and stress management are integral to one’s ability to manage change.

*The Support system – Relationships:* Skills like empathy, assertiveness, team building and influence helps to connect and build the support needed in achieving one’s goals.

Werner (2011) further explains that the framework represents five simple, yet interrelated systems that one can use in the evaluation of one’s personal and professional development efforts. Self-assessment as part of the continuous improvement should be the focus to enable fine-tuning one’s strengths and performance gaps.

**Self-Transformation – A Change Process**

Young (2003) describes the 3 kinds of change based on Bateson (1972), Anderson and Anderson (2001) and Young (2001)- Developmental, Transitional and Transformational. The change process relevant to the program is transformational change, which Young (2003) describes as changing the thinking and getting a new understanding or paradigm shift whereby learning in itself is a transformative process, integrating new experiences that influence future behaviour and thinking. This kind of change is a learning experience in which reframes or restructure what is known, so that things will never be the same again.

While self-improvement is a process of making small changes in our lives – where we improve our health habits, improve our memory skills, improve our relationship skills, improve our musical ability, improve our ability to make more money, improve our sales technique; self-transformation is a process of creating ourselves anew – where we examine
our daily thoughts and activity to see how we are slumbering upon ourselves, where we notice how we are behaving in fearfully reactive ways, where we become conscious of self-defeating behavior, and actually recognize it as self-defeating. (White, 2012).

From another point of view, self-transformation is a process that increases personal extropy. Extropy is a measure of a system's intelligence, information content, available energy, longevity, vitality, diversity, complexity, and capacity for growth. (More, M 1993). There are seven stages of Self-Transformation as Wilson (2008) describes:

- **Resolving** - one must be ready to change;
- **Retiring** - separating oneself from day to day existence such as the normal habits, routine, places or people;
- **Structuring** - create a space and structure or new routine for change to take place;
- **Dissolving** - using meditation, sensory deprivation or other methods to dissolve the sense of the old self so the new self can be born;
- **Reforming** - tell new stories of the new self and let old habits and beliefs be forgotten;
- **Solidifying** - Allow time for new self to be comfortable in the new way of being;
- **Returning** - Go out into the world with new habits and attitudes

A person who has resolved in wanting change to happen within the self, needs to take the transformational change route in re-organising and re-structuring the thinking patterns to prepare for the new behaviour patterns to take place. New habits and new attitudes will emerge into the being and a transformed person is born. Transformational change takes time,
it does not happen overnight, thus time is one of the crucial factor in a successful transformation process.

The Program

A Twelve (12) 2 hours weekly pilot program was designed in the attempt to inject a fresh perspective of the importance of Personal Excellence in the learning experience of the selected students of a vocational institution in Kuala Lumpur registered with the Department of Skill Development Malaysia. 24 students from mixed batch were enrolled for this program. They were selected based on their outlook and potential in grooming to become good students. The program consist of 3 main components, the understanding of Self or Self-Awareness, beginning from how the mind, body and soul works; understanding the basic soft-skills needed for marketability and employability, and developing a personal brand to facilitate the achievement of personal excellence and accommodate the demands and needs of the industry.

The methods employed ranges from normal classroom lecture, workshop style, coaching, individual sharing session, group discussion and presentation, group therapy, role-play, positive affirmation and positive self-talk, creative visualization, relevant and touching video clips, story telling, individual self assessment and reflection, journaling, kinesthetic/exercise, which addresses the overall cognitive, psychomotor and affective learning of an individual. The students were given an entrance survey in the first session (week 1) to measure the individual’s level of knowledge of the program’s content. They were each also given a self-evaluation survey to gauge their self-knowledge pertaining to the subject. The exit survey will be given in the last session (week 12) of the program to assess the individual student’s attainment of the program outcome.
The facilitator used Bahasa Melayu as the main medium for delivery effectiveness of the program content, given the fact that most of the students have poor English Language comprehension.

**Neuro-Semantic Neuro Linguistic Programming (NS-NLP) as a tool to transform mindset**

Neuro-Semantic NLP is an interdisciplinary field from Cognitive Behavioral Science, Developmental Psychology, the neuro-sciences, General Semantics, Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP), cognitive linguistics, cybernetics and system dynamics. Neuro–Semantics helps in an individual’s personal development in creating and enhancing robust meanings and actualizing the individual’s best values to unleash the highest potentials (Hall, M 2010).

Neuro-Semantics was incorporated in the process of transforming the mind-set of the students, helping them generate meanings in their life and what they stand for. Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP) provides the methods and technology for the ‘how to’ of the managing of human’s thoughts. It offers a model for learning how to recognize excellence and how to emulate it. NLP works primarily with mental processes rather than content (Bodenhamer, B, Hall, M 1999).

In administering the self-transformation process in the students, creative visualization technique and positive affirmation was introduced to facilitate the mental processes of each individual. Creative visualization and positive affirmation is a simple explanation of how NLP works through mental processes. Creative visualization is a method that uses the imagination to make dreams and goals come true. (Sasson, R 2012) This further emphasized by an NLP life coach that an individual can achieve the life that he or she wants by mentally seeing it happen (Wilkins, L 2001).
The technique was applied by asking the students to first think of something good or positive that they want to achieve and let them close their eyes and visualize or imagine the positive events happening. By doing so, they slowly unlearn the negative thought process patterns and re-learning the new thought process patterns.

At the same time, they were asked to use positive affirmation and prayers in their heart and mind to accelerate the positive thought process pattern. Positive affirmation can be done silently or by saying our loud enough for the individual to hear and be reassured by the creative visualization.

According to Sasson (2012), affirmations are positive statements that describe a desired situation, and which are repeated many times, in order to impress the subconscious mind and trigger it into positive action. In order to ensure the effectiveness of the affirmations, they have to be repeated with attention, conviction, interest and desire. Examples of positive affirmation are: ‘I am confident’, ‘I love myself and radiate love and happiness’, ‘I study and comprehend fast’, ‘I’m fit and energetic’.

Most of the students experienced positive feeling and outcome of the Neuro-Semantic NLP process, however there are a few who experienced mental block whereby they could not imagine or see themselves in a positive manner. This is probably due to an excessive negative thought patterns and habits or imprinted upon throughout the growing up years, since childhood.

The facilitator needed to provide a one-to one coaching session to help the students overcome the mental block.

**Emotional Intelligence in Classroom and Beyond**

The facilitator used Emotional Intelligence as a method of understanding, managing and communicating with the audience appropriately. It is crucial that the facilitator assesses
and responds to the students according to their family background, cognitive behaviour, emotional behaviour, level of understanding, skills and receptiveness of the lessons learned. Emotional intelligence is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships (Goleman, 1988). He emphasized the four competencies of Emotional Intelligence; self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management.

In the process of self-transformation, it is imperative that the individual have a deep understanding of one’s own emotions, strengths, weakness, values and motives which can be unfolded by getting to know the self. They need to learn how to manage their emotions and know how to relate to others. In the program, the students were exposed to the concept of Emotional Intelligence in helping them overcome their emotional issues and develop meaningful relationships during classroom teamwork, in family situation and in the real working environment in the future.

**Personal Branding**

Pavlina (2008), Schwabel (2010) defines personal branding as basically how an individual market him or herself to the world. McNally and Speak (2002) explained that Personal branding is more of being true to one self, becoming more of the person he or she is. Personal brand is about the values and competencies of an individual that are practiced in interaction and communication with others. The values can be learned and adapted to develop a strong and consistent individual identity.

According to Schwabel (2010), there are four steps to building a powerful brand; discover – learning about oneself, values, attributes, personal mission; create - a personal branding toolkit such as resume, blog, business card, portfolio or Linkedin profile; Communicate – to let people know the existence of the individual; and Maintain- updating the information the individual grows and mature into his or her career. However, McNally
and Speak (2002) emphasised that there are a number of factors in which contribute to a total brand package with regards to a person’s identity. This includes their smile, facial expressions, posture, the way the hands and eyes are used, words and tone of voice, appearance and environment.

Through the facilitator’s own experience, by having a set of values, personal mission and vision and brand promise is not enough to make an individual stand out in the crowd; the individual needs to go through the self-transformation process by applying emotional intelligence and Neuro-Semantic NLP through out the journey in order to transform the new thinking patterns and forming new behaviours and acquiring a certain soft skills. The purpose is to be able to demonstrate the positive and excellent ‘true self’ consistently through out one’s life, at any given place and time, at home, at work or just by oneself.

In addition, maintaining the brand as Schwabel (2010) explained, from the facilitator’s point of view is actually ‘living and breathing’ the ‘true self’ brand consistently, by upholding ones values and beliefs, demonstrating core competencies, soft skills and all positive traits in ones personality and character.

Indeed, in the preparation of the students as the workforce for the industry, the knowledge of personal branding is important in order of each individual to put up a good self marketing strategy by which he or she will be thought of by the potential employer in choosing the ‘right person’ for the particular job because the impression one makes on others can have a powerful influence on the success of his or her career (Hudson,L 2011). The program incorporates the Personal Brand Dimension model adapted from McNally and Speak (2002).

**Work in Progress**

It was observed that most of the students had undergone major life adversity, faced difficulty and negative life events, while some came from a broken home; most have an
intact family unit but experiencing lack of emotional support and were treated with aggression and negative inputs resulting traumatic childhood experiences. Basically, almost all students demonstrated a moderate to low self-esteem and this was evident in their lack of self-confidence in communicating. It was evident that these students are in a transition phase trying their best to ‘fit-in’ into the learning environment and at the same time struggling to overcome the challenges of life thrown to them.

Although they were given the opportunity to advance in life by attending the course, however, they still need a lot of guidance in developing a positive self-image, improving attitudes, thinking patterns, and realizing their goals. It was also observed that some of them have problems in focusing and paying attention, showing disinterest by shifting focus to playing games on the mobile phone, sleep, making noise and disturbing other students who are trying to pay attention to the facilitator.

The first class commenced on the 7th September 2012, basically it was more of ice-breaking session and introduction to the program. The students were quite noisy and seemed out of focus in the beginning. Self introduction by standing in front of the audience made them uneasy and uncomfortable at first instance, but as each student appear in the front introducing themselves, the others became calmer and almost like looking forward for their turn. The lecturers, co-ordinators and supporting staffs of the institute were present, and they were invited to do a brief introduction as well.

From an observation, most of the students appeared shy and did not speak clearly; and they body movements seemed to be of a distraction. It was probably difficult especially when other students were mocking and some gave quite rude comments.

The facilitator then briefly introduced the outline of the program, giving them an overview of what they will learn each week for 12 weeks. They were each then given a file to keep notes of each class and an exercise book, for their journal entry everyday. The purpose
of the journal entry is to learn a little bit more of each individual, how they spend their time, their thoughts, feelings, hopes, fear and dreams. It is also a method for the students to experience their feelings on paper, increasing their emotional intelligence.

At the end of the first class, the students were asked to read out a pledge to participate fully in all activities, keep focus and maintain confidentiality of stories shared by each individual. Finally, the first class was over, with a positive hope for success in all students.

A typical class will have a lesson plan for the whole two hours session. The teaching style needs to be short and concise, with a lot of questions asked to generate alertness amongst the students. Because the attention span of these students are short as they easily gets bored, the teaching aid such as the power point content was modified into using a lot of pictures to get them to focus more.

Before the end of each session, the students were briefed of the homework they need to practice, for example, journal entry, practice saying ‘Please’ and ‘Thank You’ at appropriate interactions with others, creative visualization and positive affirmation such as: ‘Senang saja nak berubah!’ (Its easy to change!); ‘Saya tak nak malas’ (I don’t want to be lazy!); ‘Saya yakin dengan diri!’ (I am confident!), ‘Saya sangat hebat!’ (I am excellent!), ‘Saya pandai berkomunikasi!’ (I am good in communicating!), ‘Saya sayang diri saya!’ (I love my self!), ‘Saya pandai memimpin!’ (I am able to lead!).

They were also asked to do simple good deeds such as offer to help others in doing simple tasks. The purpose of this activity is to inculcate and train the students to be more aware of the need of others thus making them less selfish and toning down their self-centeredness.

The improvement of the attention span of the students could be seen in the second week of the program. They were less noisy and calmer, listened to the facilitator’s instructions and some was very cooperative in the activities. To develop trust and bonding
amongst the students and the facilitator, the students were first introduced to the ‘circle of trust’ activity, where by they stand in a big circle, and one student stepped into the circle facing the first student on his right, looking into his eyes for 10 seconds and move on to the next student until he reaches his original place, and the student next to him on the right repeat the sequence and this goes on until all students completed the sequence.

In the second week, the facilitator showed a video clip of a very inspiring international motivator who has no limbs, Nick Juvicic (2012). This life story sharing session is very important to firstly spark interest and motivates the students, and secondly, to make the students comfortable in sharing their own life story in the following week. The lesson learned is that never see an obstacle as an obstacle, but only a challenge that one has to overcome.

In the third week, the facilitator shared her life story to the students, coming from a broken family herself, having a traumatic and unhappy childhood experiencing physical and verbal abuse, lack of parental love and abandonment, which had a negative impact on the thinking style, character and personality. The facilitator explained that an individual can transform from a negative thinking into a positive thinking individual by making a decision to take charge and seeking guidance and help from people who can show them how to. The purpose of sharing the story was to develop the trust and bonding between the facilitator and the students.

Then it was their turn to share their life story, a few students volunteered to share their sad stories, some storytellers bravely shed tears, while others listened quietly and ‘feeling’ the experience of the storyteller.

After the session ends, there was already an invincible deep meaningful connection between all students and the facilitator, and they looked even more motivated to go through the process.
As the weeks passed by, there were significant improvement on the students’ attention span and behaviour. They were more cooperative amongst each other, courteous, participative and forward-looking. They also have a sense of conviction in wanting to excel in their ventures in life.

**The Importance of Trust in The Transformation Process**

There was a break of trust chain in week 5, whereby half of the class had to sit for an exam. Students from other batches who were not originally signed up for the program had to fill in the class temporarily. There was a break of focus from the facilitator as well, when the temporary students did not attend since the first class and did not go through the ‘circle of trust’ activity and did not fully understand the objectives of the program. These students were the slightly notorious type; very noisy, demonstrates little sense of order, interrupts frequently and pays very little attention. Some of them picks on other students verbally (soft bully), and show little interest to listen to the facilitator. The impact of the break chain of trust in the original group was evident when all of the original students were more silent and less participative when they were asked questions. Their facial expression also shows their dislikes and feeling uncomfortable.

Interestingly, that particular week was looking into Emotional Intelligence topic, identifying emotions and how to deal with them, how to be more empathetic and resolve conflict in a positive manner. Most of the time the facilitator will ask the new students on their opinion and thoughts, to stop them from being a distraction to the class. In less than 10 minutes, the facilitator succeeded in getting life story experience from the new students based on their understanding of emotional intelligence. These students were eager to share their frustration, anger and dismay; they seemed deeply hurt and troubled by their experience with family.
Surprisingly, the same notorious students attended the class in week 6 and 7. Although there were not much interaction and participation from the new students, especially in teamwork activity, but they seemed to open up to the idea of personal excellence. The loud and ‘bullying’ student was very distracting, and later after class the facilitator had a one to one session with the student. This student demonstrated a typical ‘lack of attention and love’ syndrome in a child. Therefore he seeks attention in his daily interactions with others as he goes into adolescent. This student has the potential to succeed in his endeavors but with guidance and a lot of positive encouragement.

**Conclusion**

This program was designed as a pilot to introduce the concept of self-transformation for personal excellence to the students. It is not a promise that after the 12th week, the students are already in their ‘personal excellence’ state; but at least they were already exposed to the methods and technique in changing and learning new thinking patterns that will be followed by desired behavioral outcomes.

The program is still in progress with 5 weeks more to completion. The students seemed looking forward to each class every week and there is a consistency of attendance for most students who showed genuine interest and willingness to be in the transformation process. The students’ are already demonstrating a mature outlook and moderate self-discipline with positive character traits.

**Recommendations**

The program needs to be revised and refined according to the students’ level of intelligence, adding more games and hands on activities. Perhaps there could be a team building games done out-door as part of the program. There is also a need for students’ profiling to determine as to whether there is a potential of learning disability faced by the individual, in vocational or university. This is recommended due to the fact that there is a
high distractibility and short attention span or lack of focus in some of the students enrolled in this pilot program.

Facilitators who are going to run the program needs to be trained and learn Neuro-Semantics NLP and Emotional Intelligence and go through the transformation process in order to be able to conduct the program. Learning the appropriate communication skills such as praise and encouragement for good behavior and appropriate reprimand for bad behaviour is crucial in grooming the students.

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THE OJEG RIDER GROUP AS A NEW SOCIAL GROUP IN THE CHANGING SOCIETY: A STUDY ON THE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF OJEG RIDER GROUP IN 2009 AT UNIVERSITAS PADJADJAAN JATINANGOR CAMPUS

Soeganda Priyatna

Abstract

Technological advancement has been proved to have great impacts on not only the everyday lives of people across the globe, but it has also more significantly changed the cultural and social system of values and norms. One impact that is clear in the context of Indonesia is the shift from agricultural society to the industrial society. Among the impacts of the shrinking opportunities offered by the agricultural sector, along with the advancement of technology, is the massive shift of human resources to industrial sector, which leaves many unemployed. In the context of the advancement of transportation technology, the easy access to motorcycles in Indonesia has caused the emergence of a new social group consisting of ojeg [motorcycle] riders, who provide transportation for the public, which to some extent has instigated the development of a social pathological condition called anomie. The paper argues that in the context of Indonesia, the anomie among the ojeg riders even leads further to violence (anomic homicide), a problem which needs to be appropriately responded. Working on ojeg riders in and around the Universitas Padjadjaran’s campus in Jatinangor, this paper further argues that while this condition is critical, some measurement can be conducted to deal with the situation.

Introduction

Since the decade of the 1990s, a new ‘profession’ began to emerge, namely ojeg riders who provide motorcycle transportation services. This occurred since the functions of motorcycles were slowly changing from private vehicles to vehicles that can be utilized as public transportation.

Further observation shows that this phenomenon is apparently applicable in Thailand and the Philippines but is seemingly not in Singapore and Malaysia. There is a high possibility that economic factor is the reason behind it. However, I will not dwell upon the
issue further. I will instead focus the discussion on the transformation process of a new group in Indonesia, and most specifically on the ojeg rider group at UNPAD campus in Jatinangor.

The root of this transportation services has actually been in existence in Indonesia since decades ago, namely the service to take somebody for a ride, mostly bicycles), within the sea port (particularly Tanjung Priok). At that time, cars were not allowed in the area of the port despite the relatively long distance, thus the development of that particular type of transportation. There is the speculation that the name “ojeg” actually comes from the abbreviation of “ongkos jegang” (the cost for sitting with legs spread apart) because that is the practice of being taken passenger in a bicycle. Of course that practice was not easily followed by women who are supposed sit to one side of the motorcycle. However, at that time there was virtually no woman using this service. This labelling was then adopted and still remains so till today for motorcycle transportation services.

The emergence of this ‘profession’ has apparently given impacts on the social interrelation related to transportation needs and services. This can be argued within the context of “changes of values and norms, behavioural patterns, social institutions’ structures and organizations, social strafications, authority and power, social interaction, etc.” (Soerjono, 1982 : 303). On a different end, Astrid Susanto focuses the aspect of change in the context of the causes and argues that “the cause of social changes are among others, science, technological advancement and uses by the people, communication, transportation, urbanization, and increased expectations and demands” (Susanto, 1998 : 157). These two theories are used in this paper to explain the phenomenons occurring in the formation process of new social institutions/organizations, which at this context is called “kelompok tukang ojeg” or “ojeg rider group”
The activities of ojeg services under research in this paper is those conducted in and around the Universitas Padjadjaran’s campus in Jatinangor. These group not only caters for the needs of students, but also lecturers and the public visiting the campus in general.

**Background**

During the great monetary crises in 1998, Indonesian economic fell to the lowest possible level and has not really showed any progress or improvement. Indonesia’s economic growth which previously achieved the level of 7.2% is now moving sluggishly at the level 3-4%, perhaps even lower, for example in 1999 which only reached 0.23% (Halwani, 2005: 209, 398). A high number of companies fell bankrupt and were forced to conduct massive severance causing high level of unemployment and increased level of poverty to the extent that raised a lot of concerns.

Poverty used to be caused by the reduced employment opportunities in agricultural sector which led human resources to industrial sector. However, apparently the industry was not large enough to accommodate such a pool of human resources, especially the unskilled ones. Gradually, a new urban society was formed. This group of people who are taken from their root; their agricultural root. These poor urban people are mostly absorbed in informal sector, such as becak drivers, street sellers, food peddlers, seasonal traders, travelling traders, “polisi cepek” (informal traffic wardens), even sex workers and pimps. This is quite a rapid change, which Susanto argue to affect the development of “depersonalization, frustration, apathy, conflicts about values and morals which used to be considered absolute” (Susanto, 1998: 57)

The prolonged monetary crisis along with the misunderstanding of reforms and democracy has accelerated the worsening of the situation the ways in which the social pathology called anomie spread at a very fast pace. Syahra argues that “[A]nomie can be understood as a condition in which cultural norms and values of a person or any group of
people fail to signify the changes occurring and which always occurs in every social change (Syahra, 2000: 2 - see also Ritzer & Goodman, 2005: 21 and Wardi, 2006: 89).

On the other hand of social development, it is quite observable that there has been an increased social dynamics and mobility. To obtain the increased demands and expectations, as proposed by Susanto (1998), the society strives for higher mobility. The rate of public transportation, for example, has become so fast the ways in which such growth has become not only obstruction to other street users, but the passengers of the public transportation itself. As a result, the conflict between public transportation drivers themselves with other street users and even among the drivers of public transportation themselves has become an everyday spectacle.

It is not quite documented who started running the ojeg services commercially but it must be noted that that ojeg is a living reality now as quite a significant public transportation activities. That is precisely what is happening in the campus of Universitas Padjadjaran Jatinangor. This ojeg service can function as the competitor for the public transportation operating in campus.

As a reality, ojegs in this campus have played the role of the saviour for students, lectures and the public in general. Ojegs can accelerate the trip to the many places of activities, both for attending and giving lectures as well as for other activities. On the other hand, the chaos these ojegs which run almost without rules and regulations cause have contributed greatly to the disorderly conduct in the in-campus streets. The high speed, irresponsible behaviour, and the fight over passengers that are potential to harass the dignity of passengers are a daily problem that is difficult to deal with by the leaders of the university. The fact is many parties, including law enforcement and even students and the institutions are involved in this vicious circle, thus it is not easy to untangle the situation.
Ojeg Rider Group, Quasi Organization From the Marginalized People

According to MacIver and Charles H. Page this group of ojeg riders can be classified at the primary category, namely the unity based on the similar interest without a permanent organization (Soerjono, 1982: 115). In the effort to get customers use their services, these ojeg riders at the UNPAD campus in Jatinangor have to compete or even are exposed in conflicts among themselves or as in latin we know the saying *homo homini lupus*, which refer to human beings as the wolves to other humans.

This group has from the very beginning been in the condition of anomie, that is without clear regulations or/and without clear ground. Technological advancement has caused these ojeg riders to face the situation of being in control of a modern equipment (motorcycle).

Without having the full understanding of the regulations related to the use of vehicles, they immediately work as ojeg riders. They do not really pay attention to the formalities such as the vehicle documents, nor do really care about traffic regulations. They are aware that because of the fierce, if not violent, competititon, they need to have protection for the different possibilities of job loss, both for individual reasons and the possible job closure.

Unlike the agricultural community that will discuss their collective affairs and choose somebody they look up to, the noble (bueracrate) or the children of these class, or somebody they regard to be wise, to lead them, these ojeg riders have no clear cultural root. These ojeg riders come from different classes and groups in the community; the unemployed who consider the job as a profession, students who use and make use of their spare time to earn extra money, laid off factory workers, farmers who are deprived of their land, ex white-collars, some of them having been in prestigious positions, even active civil servants who use their spare time out of their office hours, even during their office hours, to earn some extra money. However, they are basicaly marginalized group of people.
Under normal circumstances there are a number of characteristics of ideal leadership, which is in general acknowledged to be able to lead the organizations or groups towards advancement and progress. Samual C Certo (1997: 351), for example, proposes the following characteristics:

1. **Intelligence, including judgment and verbal ability.**
2. **Past achievement in scholarship and athletics.**
3. **Emotional maturity and stability.**
4. **Dependability, persistence, and a drive for continuing achievement**
5. **The skill to participate socially and adapt to various group**
6. **A desire for status and socioeconomics position**

In our community, the people in Java Island particularly, what are considered to be the duty of the leaders are what was proposed by Ki Hajar Dewantoro, “Ing ngarso sung tulodo, ing madyo mangun karso, tut wuri handayani” (Soerjono, 1985 : 289). It is quite a philosophical saying, which in short it means that the duties of a leader is at the front s/he gives role models, in the middle s/he builds dreams and spirit, in the back s/he pushes and motivates.

However, in the condition of anomie, such attributes of a leader cannot be considered to be within the horizon of expectations. They actually feel safe when they can be provided with protection from somebody or a group of people (indonesian: preman) who can protect them and defend them from threats both from their fellow ojeg riders or from the people outside the group. This threat can also be originated from the other group having other interests, the drivers of public transportation, for example. It can also be manifested in the form of law enforcement or the university authority that attempts to straighten things up.
The measurement of the leadership is more on the person who has the ability to fight in the case of threat, and less likely on the person who is expected to be able to supervise their organizational management. Therefore, there is no formal organization established. What they have is only pseudo organizations or quasi organizations tightly bound to the strongest preman, other members are those who are supposed to pay for the protection.

This condition can be paralleled with the relationship of mafia bosses with people/companies whose security they guarantee. The rule of the game of this group is not established as it is in economic organization, even though in reality is grouped based on economic interests, but is determined by someone whose position is the strongest. From the sociological point of view, this condition is considered normal, especially considering the fact that the grouping is only within the context of pseudo organization (Fukuyama, 2005: 188)

If we put this reality within the context of the ideal condition, we can observe some unique points. The only characteristic of leadership according to Certo, for example, that can be attributed to this ojeg rider group is the one in number 6, namely “the desire for status and socioeconomic position”. Maybe it can be considered that it includes the aspect intelligence of assessing and evaluating the situation and the capability to convince people.

From the perspective of javanese culture, the duty or the characteristic of ing ngarso sung tulodo can be considered to be the type of leadership performed by the leaders of tukang ojeg. However the model of is that of readiness to fight, whether it is for the wrong or the right reason, as long as they show some bravery. In leadership, according to Moekijat, the only factor that needs to be fulfilled is “the energy, the physical readiness to confront problems” (Moekijat 1989: 350)

In a human group, no matter how diverse, there is always a desire for the members of the group to imitate the characteristics of their leaders. For this ojeg rider group, this
characteristic of readiness to fight has arguably caused them to compete in showing their ‘bravery’ by riding crazily breaking every existing rule. They take pride in breaking rules, for example when they ride the wrong way or when they ride against ‘no entry’ roads.

These events of breaking the rules are potential boasts among their friends. Even when they get caught by the law enforcement, they would boast about how they managed to get out of the legal charges. Emile Durkheim, as discussed by Syahra (2006), proposes that moral system consists of “different elements, norms, and values that are established by a group of people and that is used as a guidance in how to behave within the group and with people outside the group.

Within the ojeg rider group, there have been changes and loss of values and norms, which affect their interrelationship within the individual group. Within the moral system, these changes can be measured by using four measurements, namely content, related to the number of symbols originated from the religious and secular thoughts which are part morality; volume, that shows values and norms considered to be the shared morality; intensity, that shows the extent to which collective morality and consciousness have the power to lead the thoughts, attitudes and behaviour; determinateness/clarity, that shows the determining level of each component of morality.

In the said situation, behaviour sociology theory that studies the relationship between the impact of the behaviour of an actor on the environment and the the impact of environment on behaviour of the actor (Ritzer & Goodman, 2005 : 356). Once the members of the ojeg rider group return to their community, we will be able to see the impact of their behaviour on their environment and the impact of the environment on them. The general public, however, have become used to [witnessing of] the violatin of laws, regulations and norms due to economic and other social issues.
The community has come to the conclusion that the law and regulations do exist but in reality, the enactment of those laws and regulations are very much her dependent on the law enforcement. This can become worse as there have been cases where it is the law enforcement that actually breaks the rules or imposes the double standard the ways in which they benefit their own interests.

From the aforementioned exposition, I can argue that such condition has effectively led the social pathology called anomie, in which cultural norms and values of individual persons and/or groups can no longer provide significant meanings towards the changes and development occurring in the various aspects of life. Likewise, it can also be argued that the interrelations between the members of ojeg riders and their individual social groups will collectively strengthen the formation of said anomie. The level of trust for regulations will be fading and the regulation violating acts will be considered as greatness, if not heroic.

The survey conducted by PMB LIPI shows that in West Java, the dissatisfaction caused by the different perceptions of right and wrong in the society are increasingly blurred is endorsed by 85% of the respondents. In this light, people’s orderliness and discipline are also considered falling considerably, which is endorsed by 84.0% of the respondents. This is a highly critical condition. Social changes such as discussed, as Durkheim argues, can actually lead to suicidal behaviour called anomic suicide.

What is ‘interesting’ about this social changes in Indonesia is that it leads to the opposite way from what is proposed by Durkheim. What happens in Indonesia is that people suffering from anomie, namely those who are not happy with their disorderly condition, tend to hurt other people, hurt the society and even to kill other people, or homicidal anomie (Syahra, 2000)
Considering the recent social development, it can be argued that we have come close to what can be considered as a moral crisis as argued by Durkheim. The following are some phenomenon that evidence that we are indeed nearing such a state.

a. various elements of morality are eroding
b. part of the members of the society are no longer bonded by moral rules
c. morality weakens in a way that is can no longer control the attitude and the behaviour of the society
d. moral outrage is no longer ignited in the case of the violation of morality

This phenomenon is observable in the ojeg rider group as the survey on anomie by PMB LIPI shows that 74% people in West Java considers the moral and ethics of the people to be worse than previously. “Moral” can be understood as a rule of habits established by the agreement of a specific social group which functions as the points of reference and measurement about what are considered to be good for the interrelationship within the group as well as between the members of the group with those outside the group. The obedience of the individual group will ensure the peaceful life within the group.

In the case of the aforementioned ojeg rider group, moral measurement is not the measurement that can ensure peace. Peace is kept by the leaders who exercise violence and threats to impose their power. The deviation of attitude and behaviour from the collective social rules will be considered as violation against moral. In the normal society, such violation will result in social sanction imposed based on collective agreement which will be followed by the imposing of the same sanction for the same violation.

In the marginalized group such as that of the ojeg riders, the frequently conducted different types of violation will give rise to the establishment of new values accepted within the group. The previously practiced value of sharing in making a living is quickly becoming obsolete because new values of fighting for customers by using any means available to beat
what are now considered as rivals and competitors are now in practice. This new value is now becoming established and those who fail to beat others are considered weak, and even ‘sissy’.

Analysis

The first social changes that incited the emergence of ojeg rider group as a part of the whole society is the advancement of technology and its use by the people. In this case, the advancement is the easily obtained motorcycles, which sell at a relatively affordable price by the middle lower class. This advancement enables the attainment of the newly-found demand for high mobility. The unexpectedly easy access to such advancement in a way attributes to what can be considered as a culture shock.

Philip Gyford, argues that through technological innovation process people develop new devices to fulfill their physical needs in accordance with their own perception. Furthermore, Gyford also argues that these devices invented will in turn affect their environment in a way that can actually be unexpected and unwanted.

The overwhelmingly high growth of motorcycles among the people in Indonesia is arguably far too fast compared to the understanding of the values of the use of such technology. As a consequence, the formal legal aspects of the ownership of the vehicles are effectively denied. Even far worse, there is still a very strong tendency for traffic regulations and ethics to be completely ignored.

The situation is made even worse as motorcycles are used not only for personal purposes but also for commercial uses, which in its easiest extent is by making it an ojeg. This profession is growing very rapidly because it can absorb a large number of human resources in a very practical and unconditional way except for the demand to be ‘brave’ and ready to face the tough competition with other means of public transportation and other ojeg riders.
Looking into the varied background of the ojeg riders, I find it unsurprising that the ojeg rider groups can be composed of the totally different groups of people. Thus, the changes of values and norms, made even worse by harsh, even brutal, competition leading to depersonalization, frustration, apathy and conflict in relations to values. The social change occurring within the said group is becoming easily observable as it is becoming more and more visible. The competition among themselves causes a lot of unrest, frustration and conflicts.

In normal social situation, people will form an organization properly to protect collective interests. Of course people will also choose leaders among themselves that are considered to be able to protect and help avoid and deal with conflicts as well as develop organizations in orderly manner. In the situation of anomie, what happens is a person of very big power will take control of the group, defend and even challenge the law enforcement and the public in general to ‘secure’ the interests of the members. This person is the one who sets the conditions and rules of the membership. A leader is not the person who fulfills the criteria as proposed by Certo or Ki Hajar Dewantoro, it is the person who can go to a battlefield at any time for temporary objectives.

What then arise as a problem is that, as the survey conducted by PMB LIPI shows, the society is on the verge of falling to the condition of anomie with symptoms of it emerging and becoming easily observable. Truth is no longer an objective fact, rather it is determined by power, both that of anarchical physics or financial power. The rich can use their money to win ‘the truth” as they want. At this point, it is quite clear that it is quite difficult to expect the people in general to resist the new values developing within the group of ojeg riders.

With the condition of people whose level of orderliness and discipline is increasingly falling, it is morally expected that influential and moral enforcement, such as teachers, religious teachers, to help ease the situation. However, the reality shows that these group of
moral enforcement is slowly becoming blurred as well. Teachers are seriously losing their charisma, both because of the fact that many actually choose to be teachers merely as a job rather than as the potential moral supervisor and role models. Likewise, the mass media is not making it any easier by indulging telling the stories of failures performed by the teachers.

It can only be imagined how the interrelationship among ojeg riders and their original community, instead of filtering the deviation, actually strengthens and endorses the deviated values. The developing anomie demands our attention, particularly the government that is supposedly to have prepared with the ground to deal with the problem. However, apparently this has been missed quite considerably. More than just the tendency to lead to anomic suicide, the condition has, as I have argues before, led to anomic homicide, as observable through the increased of violence, harassment and despoilment.

Moral enforcement has become a crucial matter in the community like this, particularly for the local community. Moral can be defined as the habits and regulations that were initially agreed collectively and are imposed as the points of reference for attitudes and behaviour considered proper and right for the members of the community and the member of people in other communities/groups. By holding on to the agreed values and norms, it is expected that the peace within the group can be maintained.

In the group of ojeg riders, moral measurement is not the measurement that can be used to maintain peace. Interrelational peace among them is kept by the absolute power a la mafioso. The question is whether such a model of leadership can be switched into a more democratic leadership as is the practice of real organizations as part of the society. This may sound difficult, but it is certainly nothing impossible. The law enforcement should not stop at getting them caught, but more importantly facilitate a more organized structuring of the group with formal and democratic practices being endorsed by themselves and by referring to the existing rules and regulations.
University leaders should cooperate with law enforcement, if necessary with the military, to start with the approach because as Durkheim suggests, the condition of anomie existing now is going to lead to moral crisis which will cause a much worse situation with potential social cost having to be born by the society.

I argue that the first step to be taken is by having them in uniform and make them proud with it. The uniform may just be in the form of a vest, but they will develop the sense of belonging both to the specific group of ojeg riders as well as to the community in general. The pride derived from the vest is expected to also create a sense of being within the law, thus they have to obey the rules.

I would also suggest that their uniform should also be completed with their names and numbers. This will give them some identity and personification to deconstruct their state of being depersonified, as Susanto (1999) suggests. It is argued that the gradual approach of personification can reintroduce them to the social values and morals, particularly in the context of organizational discipline. Organizational rules and should be established and enacted. Any act deviating from the rules and moral must be appropriately sanctioned, which may cost them financial loss.

Along with that, the pride of being in uniform will remind them that there is an undeniable connection that cannot be easily broken off among them. With that, it can be expected that esprit de corps will develop which can potentially lead to the establishment of real democratic organization. While the old leaders can very well nominate themselves, other members have the right to set their own choice.

There should be a will power and the voluntary spirit to help the reintroduction the norms and values among ojeg riders. It is expected that they can also become the role model for other social groups. Of course, the solution is not that simple, there will be challenges
ahead, and it will take a long time, intensified attention from the law enforcement and anyone who share the concerns in this matter.

However, as the saying goes, “better late than never”. It’s time for us to move on, to make the first step, to make our rubbish become fertilizer, to build the stereotypically considered hopeless group of people to become the people’s role models. We can use the different theories on social changes to help approach the situation. Is this simply a utopia? Hopefully not.

**Conclusion and Recommendation**

Indonesia’s social situation is becoming highly critical; poverty, monetary crisis and the overrated reform have all caused the society to be in the state of pathological anomie. The people can no longer signify the changes occurring in their lives.

It is time for the government to pay a more serious attention to this problem because the failure to address this problem properly will result in serious social cost. A small part of the problem lies in the group of ojeg riders, which has become a national phenomenon. Casually speaking, the ojeg riders around the campus of Universitas Padjadjaran can be considered to be the changing social groups in the context of values and moral. The growing of new values which are often conflicted with the old ones need to be addressed properly, for example the celebration of violation of rules, which need to be put back in the correct perspective.

It takes a lot of efforts to understand the changes occurring that tends to be more on the negative side and to direct it to the more positive side. Apart from the physical efforts to actually organize the groups and humanize them, it takes also open mind and wisdom to understand the changes happening in the different social groups, among others the ojeg riders as I have discussed in this paper. It is high time that the Minister of Social Welfare and other scholars to have serious and further studies on the matter, to conduct researches and to find
solutions the problems. While there are areas of concerns for this issue, it highly critical that these often marginalized group of people should be made proud of themselves, to have a sense of belonging to their community by obeying and observing the rules and regulations, as well as the values and norms of the society.

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A SOCIAL WORKER’S ANSWER TO “WHY ME?”
Surendran Rajaratnam, Sukhveer Daljit and Moon Oon Hooi Fen

Abstract

Working in an oncology setting, social workers are often confronted by patients and their family members who are uncertain about the patient’s current state, their treatment modalities and its outcome. This tumultuous period necessitates the role of a social worker to help them cope with the complex interplay of stressors in order for them to adapt to their “new normal”. However, due to the limited number of medical social workers in Malaysian Government hospitals, these roles are found to be discounted for. The purpose of this paper is to explore the concerns of people with cancer who seeks treatment at the Government hospital and the potential role of medical social workers in addressing these concerns. Contextual research on the literature will be employed to shed some light on this issue which is understudied in Malaysia. It is hoped that this study is able to contribute to the existing literature on understanding the importance of the services of medical social workers in the patients and family transition from ‘why me” to “try me”.

Introduction

Cancer is one of the major health problem in Malaysia (Chin, 2002) and many other parts of the world (Jemal et al., 2009). A total of 18,219 new cancer cases diagnosed and registered at the Malaysian National Cancer Registry with breast, colorectal, lung, nasopharynx, cervix, lymphoma, leukemia being among the leading cancer types among Malaysian population in 2007 (Zainal Arriffin, & Nor Saleha, 2011). Increasing population and longer life spans contributes to the rise of cancer and it is estimated that one in four Malaysians will develop cancer by 75 years old (NCSM, 2010).

The occurrence of cancer diagnosis is universally feared due to its correlation with mortality and its potential impact on all spheres of life (Wells & Turney, 2001). Patients who receive a diagnosis of cancer are in a position of extreme uncertainty and vulnerability as patients believe that the diagnosis is tantamount to a death sentence (Sardell, 2006).
Subsequently, cancer patients have to go through a series of treatments such as chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and surgery which are harsh and painful, with the hope to prolong their lives. Thus, it is unavoidable for them to undergo several common side effects from the treatments, such as feeling nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, loss of appetite, fatigue, and mouth ulcer (Ahmad Kamal, n.d.). It also includes multiple physical needs, intense psychological distress manifested by pain, anxiety and depression and restrictions in social and sexual functioning (Nijboer et al., 1998). Apparently, cancer and cancer treatment affect cancer patients physiologically and psychologically. Not only patients but the key members of his/her family are affected by the disease, particularly when it becomes a chronic illness (Blum et al., 2001). Patients and family members embark on the treatment journey upon diagnosis hesitantly as they will be spell bounded by the series of events. During this tumultuous time, the oncology social worker helps patients and family members cope with the complex interplay of stressors, developing a unique bond with patients and families (Knapp, 2007).

**Social Work in Oncology**

Social work in health care has been established for more than 100 years and has developed into a major sector of the profession in countries around the world (Auslander, 2001). In their early days, social workers have been helping people get their basic needs met by understanding that physical health is strongly affected by a lot of things such as where a person lives, education, employment and emotional well-being (Fildes, 2006). However, recent times has seen social workers being presented in oncology setting where they intervene during periods of acute stress and disorganization as well as providing services designed to have an impact on long-term quality of life (Blum et al., 2001). Oncology social workers address various psychosocial issues with regards to oncology through their assessment and intervention suited for individual client’s needs. They are primary providers
of psychosocial services in major oncology treatment centers and community health care settings throughout the world, both because of their knowledge about cancer and its psychosocial impact, and because of their practice versatility (Smith et al., 1998).

However, in Malaysian Government Hospitals, medical social work profession is still relatively in its infancy with the hospitals having limited resources in terms of manpower, budget, equipment and even office spaces (Lim, 2007). These social workers are found to be doing multiple tasks including administration and clerical duties and have no time for therapeutic social work intervention (Ibid.). Having to serve needy patients and their family members from every single department in the hospital, they would not be able to provide a comprehensive assessment and appropriate intervention for their referred clients, especially from the oncology ward as it was found by Lim (2007) that there are insufficient numbers of social workers in Malaysian Government hospitals. In addition, social work posts have not been exclusive for social work graduate as graduates from other disciplines such as general social science or the humanities can equally be filled for the position (Crabtree, 2005). Even though hospitals recently employed new social work recruits with either graduate degree or even post-graduate degree in social work in the course of formalizing the position, the efforts taken are still inadequate to address the current social needs of the disadvantaged members of the oncology community. Among the point where social workers are needed in the oncology community are during breaking of the bad news.

**Potential Roles of Oncology Social Workers in Malaysia**

Healthcare professionals upon confirmation of diagnosis are obligatorily forced to break the news to patients and/or their family members. Breaking bad news is a complex communication task that requires expert verbal and non-verbal skills (DHSSPS, 2003). The presence of a social worker makes a significant difference at the point of news breaking. The social worker upon breaking the news would be able to organize family support groups to get
the patient and his/her family in contact with similar patients and their families (Onyeka, 2010). Patients who are introduced to other patients who have been surviving the disease might be able to come in terms with their emotions better than if they don’t know any such people. As such a meeting would increase the medical knowledge on the disease condition, allow the exchange of experiences, as well as promote good interpersonal and family relationships of the patient (Ibid.). They will be able to express their feelings and thoughts to someone who would be able understand them instead of untrained individual who tends to put forth their thoughts and beliefs to the patients.

**Assessing the Patients**

Assessment is an important component of social work practice. As for the field of oncology, it is crucial for social worker to assess patients not only in the medical setting, but also consider the patient’s role at home. They must be flexible, must have knowledge of the disease process, and must possess an understanding of how illness and treatment can affect individual’s psychosocial wellbeing (Blum et al., 2001). Their basic medical knowledge will enable them to devise appropriate and customized intervention for individual needs as it differs across patients’ stages, age group, and financial and cultural background. They will be able identify if these patients and family members needs only financial assistance or other types of support such as emotional, religious and spiritual and even bereavement support. These professionals are also responsible to help other healthcare professionals to understand how a patient will cope with the diagnosis and treatment and what interventions will be helpful for the patient (Ibid.). A lucidly created service plan would serve to define their role more apparently within the oncology community.

However, this ideality of social worker to work in partnership with the primary healthcare providers from the initial stage which is the breaking of the news and assessment is difficult to achieve as there exist top-heavy and non-egalitarian teamwork relationships as
revealed by Crabtree (2005). The researcher through her experience in Malaysian medical social work practice found that the consultants who by the virtue of their imposed authority decide on behalf of other disciplines on whether referrals need or not to be made to them. Unless referrals are made, patients will not be able to or might not even know the existence of other service providers within the hospital especially social workers. Thus, it is important for relevant healthcare providers not limited to physicians, social workers, nurses, dieticians and psychologists to work together in order to deliver effective and comprehensive care to patients and their family.

**Working as a Multidisciplinary Team**

Multidisciplinary team service has been put into practice in cancer care systems throughout much of Europe, the United States, and Australia to ensure that all patients receive timely treatment and care from appropriately skilled professionals, that there is continuity of care and that patients get adequate information and support (Taylor, 2010). The team work which is effective, according to researchers improved clinical decision making, more coordinated patient care, improvement to overall quality of care, more evidence based treatment decisions and improved treatment (Ibid.).

Although an improved quality of care could be achieved, issues of authority, roles, boundaries, leadership, responsibilities and decision making may potentially arise subjecting patients and families in adversities (Cox & Stovall, 2001). Much effort and resources are thus needed for multidisciplinary team work to be effectively implemented in Malaysia. Trials could be conducted in the initial phase before formalizing the introduction of multidisciplinary team.

**Empowering Patients and Family Members through Social Work Intervention**

When a diagnosis of cancer is confirmed, from the beginning of the screening process till the end of treatment, the focus remains on the disease, its severity, potential impact on the
person’s life and the likelihood to survive from it. Nevertheless, it is utmost important to shift the focus of the patient inwards, in another word, to find their inner strength, to empower them so that they would be able to find a meaning of their experience. Consequently, an individual’s existential outlook may be changed in terms of believes related to life, death, and religion, bringing different world views and life structures (Wells & Turney, 2001). Thus, it is highly imperative for a social worker to provide their psychosocial services as these professionals possess significant knowledge of cancer, the resulting psychosocial issues, and the intervention strategies for addressing such issues (Shroepfer, 2011). According to Blum et al. (2001), social work interventions must be based on an understanding of the patient’s specific cancer diagnosis and treatment plan, as well as on the patient’s emotional and social situation.

As a diagnosis, staging of disease and treatment plan of individual cancer patients may vary, it may have differing impact on the life of these individuals. Social workers thus have to be knowledgeable on the medical aspects of the patient’s disease so that appropriate intervention plan can be devised to suit the patient’s emotional and social needs. The services offered by social workers for cancer patients and their families should also be accessible (Ibid.). Selective referrals to social workers done by consulting specialists would halt the immediate support seeking mechanism by those in need and would place them under the authority of the said specialists. Therefore, a direct access to social workers would enable them to receive immediate support during the time of crisis. The support services on the other hand, offered by social workers in oncology should also be designed to help patients and their families feel more in control of the situation that predictably makes them feel helpless and out of control (Ibid.). Feeling in control than being controlled by their disease would ensure effective coping as they would work towards adjusting to their ‘new normal’. With
these measures taken by social workers who specialize in oncology, patients and family members would be empowered to face the challenges that the diagnosis brings along.

**The Way Forward**

The issues faced by social workers which prevents their services to be extended to oncology is due to insufficient supportive infrastructure in the government and in the community. To resolve this insufficiency, the Department of Social Welfare (DSW) together with the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development (MWFCD), the Malaysian Association of Social Workers (MASW) and the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) are spearheading the introduction of a new era of professionalism in social work premised on competency-based international best practices (MASW, 2010). This initiative aims to enhance the delivery of social work interventions in Malaysia. To do this, the Cabinet approved several proposals by the MWFCD on 23rd April 2010. They are to establish the National Social Work Competency Standards; for the Ministry of Higher Education to standardize the curriculum in social work education in institutions of higher learning which offer the social work degree course; to enact the Social Workers Act; to establish the Social Work Council to regulate social work practitioners and educators; for the Public Service Commission and the Public Service Department to recruit qualified social workers into the public sector; and to upgrade the Social Institute of Malaysia and other accredited institutions to offer social work courses at the certificate and diploma levels (Ibid.). With the said implementations, it is hoped that social workers would be able to intervene and reach out to provide a comprehensive service and thus make a significant contribution in the community by empowering patients and their family members throughout their cancer trajectory. With adequate support received, patients would be able to transit from ‘why me’ to ‘try me’.
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WOMEN MARGINALITY AND WID PARADIGM:
EXPERIENCE FROM BANGLADESH

Tahmina Akhtar

Abstract

Women-in-development- WID for Short have been a very widely used term in now-a- days, development literature. Over the last three decade has been a dramatic increase in concern with the women marginality, gender and inequality in development process. Research in women in development as eventuated the consensus that gender is a fundamental organizing principle in human societies and in cultural production. Women constitute nearly 50% of the population of Bangladesh. Their situation has traditionally been adverse. In Bangladesh, women bear many of the marks of a “disadvantage minority” in the social, economic and political realms. The traditional society of Bangladesh is permeated with patriarchal values and norms of female subordination, subservience subjugation and segregation. The reality of the women of Bangladesh, is remained a vulnerable, marginalized group and they are found at the “bottom rung of poverty, illiteracy landlessness and powerless”. National awareness regarding gender and development challenges in Bangladesh has largely been influenced by international trends of focusing on gender issues in the contemporary world affairs. The gender/ women related development issues, however, are yet to get preponderance in both academic circles and policy desks of Bangladesh. A number of constraints prevent women from playing their potential role in enhancing development of the century. The present article aims to respond, to two most important questions: a) whether such socially constructed stereotypes can be revised and b) whether a new development paradigm can be constructed in which both men and women can be a mutually integrating and inclusive development Paradigm. The authors argue that the development in interlinked with men and women need to be Intertwined and interconnected to development attachments. Methodology: This work is based principally on secondary sources of materials that include books and research articles written on gender and women. The data and statistical references used in this work have been taken from Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBSS) World Bank, Asian Development Bank, United Nations and other authentic sources. Analytical Roadmap: This article attempts to analyze four aspects in woman’s marginality and WID. Paradigm of Bangladesh. The first aspect is the opening which includes an introduction, methodology and the analytical frame work. In the second by explaining the multifarious such as education, social Economic and political situation for gender asymmetry and marginal position
prevailing of women in Bangladesh. Thirdly deals with the causes and existing challenges those constraints, the way of gender Equality fourthly to analyzed the institutional framework of women in development (WID) to initiative by the Government of Bangladesh.

**Introduction**

“We while women represent 50% of the world’s adult population, and one-third of the official labor force, they perform nearly two thirds of all working hours receive only one-tenth of the world income and own less than 1% of the world is property” (United Nations, 1980)

Women represent around fifty percent of the world population and south east Asia regions of the developing country, their contributions is immense in all the sectors of development. But still in today’s globe, women’s position and condition are not the same as their male counterpart. Due to gender based discrimination, socially constructed subordination, patriarchy, inequality and poverty; women have inferior status everywhere in all the aspects of life. The most extreme adverse situation and discrimination can be seen in the third world countries. There is a widely propagated idea that the women’s backwardness and deprivation resulted in women’s marginalization in the development process which caused by social, political and cultural discrimination and patriarchal preconceptions that have engulfed world societies particularly developing countries in the globe. Out of the total population, 48.90 percent are women of whom nearly 86 percent live in rural areas. Although in Bangladesh the vast majority of rural population are under privileged, poor and illiterate, women are the poorest among the poor, marginal position and have a much lower literacy rate than men; compared to a 60 percent rate of literate men only about 38.10 percent women are literate (BBS, 2001). Child mortality for male (i.e., 36.90 per thousand) is less than that of female children (i.e., 47.0 per thousand). The legal official mean age of marriage of
women in Bangladesh is at present only 18 years, but women are often married off at much earlier age which is much lower than that of man, i.e., 27-8 years (Haque, 2000).

The problems affecting the economic and social status of women in Bangladesh are vast and complex. Women are the most affected by negative impact, social discrimination, inequality, deprivation of access to all opportunities and benefit, in family and societal life such as education, health facilities, labor force and politics. The total life situation of a woman in Bangladesh is highly dependent on her status within the family as a daughter, wife, mother, and the material base of her family in the society. As a whole in Bangladesh women are dominated by a patrilineal and partilocal kinship system which enforce the dependence of women on men (Khan Salma, 1985) and this regulates the role and relative status of women. In other word, sexual inequality is established through socio-economic inequality and distribution of authority. Moreover “Purdah” or seclusion denies her access to many opportunities and as much traditionally have remained totally outside the power structure. Economic segregation due to non-accessibility to resource base keeps her away from income earning opportunities strengthening her subordination to male authority (Khan Salma, 1993)

Although at the initial stage of the independence of Bangladesh the role of women in development was not recognized, their participation in the overall development process of the country began to be emphasized with the utmost significance from the late 1975. National awareness and International initiatives of focusing on gender issues and human capital development context, the government of Bangladesh endorsed that development objectives such as accelerated economic growth, poverty alleviation, Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), employment creation and sustainable development cannot be achieved without the contribution and participation of women. But still now the women in Bangladesh have always been dominated by social, political and culturally biased stereotypes and patriarchal preconceptions that have been the result of women’s marginalization,
backwardness, and deprivation in the development process. There may be some truths to this claim, viable preventive measures may be adopted to provide and sustain women’s freedom and voice from shackles. The present article aims to respond to two most important questions: a) Whether such socially constructed stereotypes can be revised and b) Whether a new development paradigm can be constructed in which both men and women can be mutually integrated in sustainable development paradigm. Toward that end the paper is an attempt to analyze women’s marginality and Women in Development (WID) paradigm of Bangladesh from the critical point of view.

**Methodology**

This work is principally on secondary sources of materials that include books and research articles written on gender and development, the archives and documents preserved by government and non-government agencies have widely been consulted. The data and statistical references used in this work have been taken from Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS), Planning Ministry of government, World Bank, Asian Development Bank, United Nations and other authentic national and international sources. The women in development (WID) framework has been constructed after reviewing the prevalent development theories that have dominated development literatures in last fifty years.

**Theoretical/Analytical Framework: Conceptualizing Women Marginality and Women in Development (WID) Paradigm in Bangladesh.**

Marginality is generally used to describe and analyze socio-cultural, political and economic spheres. Where disadvantaged people struggle to gain access to resources and full participation in social life. In other words marginalized people might be socially, economically, politically and legally ignored excluded or neglected and therefore, they are most vulnerable group in the society.
The concept of ‘women’s marginality’ may be defined indispensable for an analysis of gender inequality, patriarchy, lack of access to resource, power, limited access to education, politics, healthcare, unpaid work environment and development activities which create to make in individuals and/or groups inadequate deprivation, vulnerability, powerlessness and subordinating position in the society.

**Conceptual/Analytical Framework of Women Marginality**

Factors responsible for women’s marginality and downgraded status of the women in Bangladesh are given by author in a summarized way.

**Patriarchal Values and Superstition**
- The Family
- Religious values, norms and malpractice
- The Legal System
- Economic Institution
- Political System and Institution
- Media
- Educational Institution and Knowledge System
  - Gender Inequality

**Gender Inequality**
- Mortality Inequality
- Natality Inequality
- Basic Facility Inequality
- Special Facility Inequality
- Professional Inequality
- Ownership Inequality

**Women and Poverty**
- Powerlessness
- Vulnerability
- Isolation
- Physical and Mental Weakness
- Created Male Dependency, Dominating and Subordinating Position
- Lack of Control Resource
- Limited Participation in Social, Political

**Sex Division of Labor**
- Lack of Equal Access to Labour Market
- Gender Division of Labour
- No Recognition of Women’s Contribution in Productive Activities
- To Unpaid Family Work and Intra Household Activities
- Wage Discrimination
- Limited Access to Inherent Property, Resources, Legitimacy and Authority

**Individuals Aptitudes**
- Lack of consciousness
- Lack of Self Esteem, Self Confidence, Belief and attitudes
- Low Participation in Development Activities
- Religious Fanaticism
- Fear, Anxiety, Inferiority

**Educational Backwardness**
- Less important is given towards women education.
- Early marriage
- Poverty and male dependency
- Insecurity
- Negative attitude
- Limited number of educational institutions

**Political Backwardness**
- Lack of Awareness in Politics of Socialization Process
- Negative Attitudes of Male Counterparts to Involving Women Politics
- No Sphere Time to Give for Politics
- Economically Dependency / Have no Money for Politics

**Dilemma in Women Marginality**

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Additional content (if any):
The Women in Development paradigm is derived from understanding various approaches and perspectives of development which has been one of the most popular and widely used terms in different branches of social sciences. The integration of women in overall development discourse is the basic premise of the proposed WID paradigm. WID requires that women are associated with development activities and an environment is created to make their participation possible (Islam Sirajul, 2003). It is based on liberal feminism which generally treats women as a homogenous group and assumes that gender roles will change as women gain an equal role to men in the development of education, employment and health services (Ramji, 1997). Ester Boserup introduced the approach of women in development in her book, ‘Women, Role In Economic Development (1970)’ where she argued that modernization theory in agrarian societies resulted in a gendered division of labor which relegated women to caring out subsistence tasks. She confirmed her point of view that the modernization approach to development had helped men only and the poor women were kept out of its purview (Mahtab N, 2012, Naz Farzana, 2006)

The term women in development was coined in the early 1970, by the three renewed international organizations 1) The United States Women’s Movement 2) The United Nations Commission on the Status of Women (UNCSW) 3) The Society for International Development (SID). The United States Women’s Movement demanded equality in three areas, These are 1) Equality in granting suffrage rights to women, 2) Equality in education and 3) Equality in employment opportunities.

On the other hand the UNCSW since its inception in 1946 has been demanding to hold an international conference on women. The first world conference on women was held in 1975, organized by United Nations and the theme was given as equality, Development and
peace. Next, the Society for International Development (SID) organized and formed a WID group who were interested on women’s issues and developing a bibliography on women’s work. However, the significant fact was that bibliography Ester Boserup who was the first women to have contributed to the idea “That women have a positive contribution in the economy of any country which needs to be recognized and valued” The idea of holding the world conference had to be notified to the U.S. Department of state and after conference they proposed a change in United states foreign policy for rendering aid to developing countries.

However, almost all development theories have recognized the multidimensional aspects of development but theorists have differed, at various times, on the extent and priority of development. Increased production was largely emphasized in the development strategies of the 1950 and 1960, the focus shifted to basic needs approach in the 1970. The development goal in the 1980, and 1990, included, among other things, alleviations of poverty, reduction of social inequality and development of human resources.

Following the UN Millennium Summit in 2000, the World Bank first endorsed the millennium development goals (MDGs) that envisaged a poverty focused operation. The key factors that the bank takes into consideration for development are good governance, participation, empowerment and environmental sustainability along with economic growth and social health (Yoshimura, Y, 2004).

The incorporation of non-economic factors into the development framework gave birth to a new thinking of development which largely influenced the flourishing of the gender development paradigm. In 1970, the general assembly included a phrase in the International Development Strategy for the Second Development Decade, which stated ‘The importance of encouraging full integration of women in the total development effort’ The UN declared the year 1975 as international women’s year and the period between 1976 and 1985 as the “Women’s Decade” having the objectives of peace, equality and development. The
Women development was not confined to its economic agenda, rather it included non-economic elements including empowerment efficiency, equity and justice and women attempted to integrate in the development process.

The WID school of thought flourished in Bangladesh through the UN Women’s Decade from 1975 to 1985. It was accompanied by a simultaneous rethinking of a development strategy of the trickle-down approach of the modernization paradigm and the beginning of the Basic Needs approach. Through this new approach, women along with landless and other target groups were selected as the beneficiaries of development process (Heltne, B 1990).

The debate/dialogue/dichotomy between men and women have not been only about the conditions, roles or theories of women but also on the practical approaches should be adopted to focus on women’s development. The key approaches in women in Development (WID) were originally classified by Buvinic (1983:12) as Welfare, Arti-poverty and Equity. Later on during the 1990, Moser, in her classification of policy approaches in the context of third world countries incorporated two more classification identified as ‘Efficiency and empowerment Approaches’ (Moser: 1993, 55). All these five approaches have become very influential in ascertaining WID initiatives through the years.

The gender paradigm of development outlined in the present work has been designed keeping in view above issues related to development thinking. WID needs to be understood ‘As a multidimensional approach that encompasses the various aspects of women’s life including economic, social, political, cultural, intuitional development and equal rights in all spheres’. The present study concentrates on a holistic approach of Women in Development (WID), which is shown in the following diagram/chart. The diagram is an exposition of the consideration of women development based on the holistic model that encompasses the multidimensional and institutional aspect of human which transformation from the backward
to the advance stages. The holistic model of women development is supported by Baran’s “far reaching transformation of a society’s economic, social and political structure, of the dominant organization of production, distribution, and consumption” and Todaro’s there core values life sustenance, self esteem and freedom from servitude (Baram, Paul, 1957, And Todero Michel P, 1990).

The WID Diagram: Towards a Holistic Model Conceptual Framework of Women in Development -

**Economic Development**
- Equal employment opportunity
- Resource mobilization
- Providing training and enhancement
- Access to resources and information
- Ensuring job environment and eradication sexual

**Collaborative actions by the state organization and groups**
- Equality in rights
- Equal inherent property and resources
- Law, customs, norms and policy change and reforms
- Mainstreaming in gender in all development activities
- Providing and ensuring human rights, combating violence against woman

**Individual Achievements**
- Autonomy
- Increase social status support
- Control over resources
- Greater mobility
- Increase decision making power and freedom
- Giving voice
- Increased self sufficiency
- Increased income and independency

**Increase Political Participation**
- Significant proportion of women should be increased in all political parties.
- Proving security
- Create positive attitude towards women politics
- Increase reserve seat in parliament and member of cabinet
- Change the traditional masculine political culture
- Giving scope for the selected women in decision making process

**Individual Levels increasing or changing of**
- Attitudes/Beliefs
- Self esteem
- Self confidence
- Participation in development process
- Desire and changes

**Capabilities increasing of**

**Social Development**
- Providing and increase to access the education system
- Addressing health and reproductive health
- Addressing environmental degradation and vulnerability.

**Ensuring Women Empowermentand Gender Equality**
Source: Constructed by the Author, November 2012

The paradigm suggests that women need to be given change to play their role to fulfill the requirement of socio-economic and political indicators of development. Economically; they must contribute to capital accumulation, industrialization, trade, and agriculture. Socially they should be provided with require education training and health opportunities, politically measures need to be adopted to empower women to exercise their efficiency, leadership and freedom in order to create a gender balanced society. Thus the issues of women development or challenge of gender discrimination of Bangladesh should not be treated in a piece meal manner through isolated project or scattered program. Gender exploitation needs to be understood within the broader context socio-economic cultural and political atmosphere of the society.

**Gender Asymmetry in Development: Social, Economic and Political Aspects**

The WID paradigm that has been devised as the theoretical foundation of the present study concentrates on the critical evaluation of the role vulnerability and potentials of women in various sections of development activities. This discussion reveals whether there exists a gender asymmetry in the socio-economic structure of our society. In this section making review of the characteristics and features of gender situation prevailing in social, political and economic spheres in Bangladesh.

**Social Aspects: Disparity in Education**

In the initial years following our independence women were largely ignored in the field of education. Since the late 1970, things began to change and the necessity and role of women in this sector were recognized. The Beijing declaration stated ‘Education is a human right and an essential tool for achieving the goals of equality, development and peace issues for development. Not only that MDGs, Social Development Summit, Universal Compulsory
Primary Education or any declaration for social development women’s education has given priority to consider as key factor to become empowerment. Despite this recognition, the status of women education is still for more backward than that of male education. Female literacy rate is much lower in rural areas compared to urban areas in Bangladesh. The literacy rate of Bangladesh is 55% where male constitute, 60% and female 49% (World Bank. 2004)

The enrolment of girl students at the primary, secondary and college level, increased over the year. In 1973, a total of 26, 00,000 girl were enrolled at the primary level whereas in 1984, the figure increased to 3900,000 and 81, 34,437 in 2007. The relative rate of increase at the primary level enrolment between 1991 and 1994 was 34 percent for male and 58 percent of female. Now, in 2011 the primary level enrollments are male 50.13 percent and female 49.87 percent.

At the secondary level, the enrolment of girls increased from about 500,000 in 1973 to 755,000 in 1984. The female male ratio has increased from 51 in 1991 to 88 in 1998 and the enrolment of the female students has doubled. In terms of net secondary enrolment the female ratio in 2003 is 47 percent and in 2011 is 49 percent (BBS, 1984-85 and 2011). In 2012 the Junior School Certificate Examination (JSC) girls have been participated more than the boys. The ratio is 58% for girls and 48% for the boys. So parity is achieved in primary and secondary education level among the boys and girls education in Bangladesh.

Although the enrollment rate for girls has increased significantly in recent year both at the primary and secondary levels, the dropout rate continues to be higher at the secondary levels. It is about 46% (UNESCO, 2008). Only 37% of the students at the higher secondary school levels are girls. The highest dropout rate is at the level of x. At this level, the total dropout is 19.0 percent.

Higher dropout rate of female at higher secondary level is critical concern for women’s education. Marriage, divorce, social insecurity like sexual harassment on the way to
and from school impede girls participation in public life. Further more parents like to invest on son’s education rather than on daughters education. Specific concern critical issues, which are impediments to women’s education has discussed the later on.

In the field of higher education the basis statistics collected so a reveals a very dismal picture. In average only 24% of women are in higher education the general universities like the agriculture and engineering constitute 12% and 11% of female students respectively; while in case of degree levels, there are about 31% of female students comprising of 35% in medical colleges, 38% in dental college, 4.4% in BIT, 9% in agricultural college and 16% in law college (Mahtab Mazmunnessa, 2012). However, one significant development worth mentioning is that the member of women receiving higher education form colleges and universities is increasingly remarkably. Table shows the overall educational enrollment of male and female in primary, secondary, colleges and universities. (1991 and 2010 census).

Literacy rate for both male and female in Primary, Secondary and Higher Education in Bangladesh.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria of Education</th>
<th>Primary Education</th>
<th>Secondary Education</th>
<th>Higher Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Boys (%)</td>
<td>Girls (%)</td>
<td>Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>79.58</td>
<td>20.42</td>
<td>1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>50.13</td>
<td>49.87</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table -2: Number of teacher and student by type of University and sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Type of University</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>6921</td>
<td>1085</td>
<td>5836</td>
<td>116397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>5638</td>
<td>798</td>
<td>4840</td>
<td>88669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>7905</td>
<td>1435</td>
<td>6470</td>
<td>124129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>124237</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Economic Sector

Today, Bangladeshi women do contribute to their household and to the country economy. Traditionally, women have been recognized for their reproductive role and discouraged or prevented from participating in public life. However with increasing poverty, the breakdown of the supportive kinship umbrella, increasing female headed household, and also due to the demand generated by some sectors of the economy, women’s participation in the labor market has been increasing during the mid 1980.

Women in Various Employment Sectors

Agriculture sector: Unpaid female labor

A large amount of national economy depends on agriculture. The key role women play in our economic production is best exemplified in the agriculture sector. They not only dominate the process of food production but also involved in growing cash crops and other agriculture related activities. The majority of the women who belong to the category of small farmer, tenant and landless household, work as wage labor usually in post-harvest agricultural activities as well as non-farm activities as casual labor during off season. The participation of women in agriculture sector depends on their class stratification and family land ownership pattern (Mc Carthy, 1981). Approximately 57.3% of the total population in engaged in agriculture while 46% of female are in this sector. The following table-3 shows how share % of activity of economy in terms of male and female and nature of work.

- Most of the rural women are involved in agricultural sector, but this work are no recognition and contribution, low, wages, some cash crop and considered as a family help in the production.
• Rural women in Bangladesh work long hours of the day on domestic chores, tending the domestic animals, growing fruits and vegetables besides participation in post-harvest activities. The women work 52 to 60 hours and man 37 to 40 hours a week in productive activities. (Barhat-E-Khuda 1989). The study of Wallace et.al (1986) have mentioned that the women are involved 14 hours a day devoted to directly and indirectly productive work (Khan Salma, 1994)

• Post-harvest activities women are also largely involved is food processing, horticulture, pisciculture, basket and khata making as utility items.

• Approximately 47.77 percent of the women workers were engaged in non-farm activities in the categories of non-agricultural, self employed, non-agriculture labor and domestic servant compared to 30-0 percent of men.

**Employment sector**

The graph under chart below shows that the female activities included agriculture, manufacturing, construction trade, public administration, education, health, community service and so on. Out of these activities, concentration is dominant in agriculture (46%) community service (19%), manufacturing (18%) and trade (16%).

Table – 3: P.418 Women participation in major sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial no</th>
<th>Women participation in major sector</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01.</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02.</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03.</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04.</td>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05.</td>
<td>Public administration</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06.</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07.</td>
<td>Health</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08.</td>
<td>Community services</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09.</td>
<td>Others sector</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Human Development Report-2005
This figure shows a remarkably increasing trend in the economic participation and employment of women; however, their statistical increase does not necessarily substantiate gender equality in these sectors. A sharp gender inequality is seen from Table 4 and 5 which shows in discrepancy between males and females in terms of economy activity and labor force participation.

Table – 4: Gender Inequality in Economic Activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Items</th>
<th>Gender sharing</th>
<th>2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employment by economic activity (%)</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Services</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributing family workers</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Human Development Report, 2005, P-313

Table – 5: Civilian Labor force by sex (in Million)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002-2003</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>16.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


According to the table employment of women in agriculture (age 15 and above) in 2005 is 77 percent, 9 percent in industry and in service only 12 percent. In terms of contributing family activities in the same period, female rate is 81 percent. But it is seem that in 2002-03, 2005-2006 and 2010 the participation of civilian labor both male and female are increasing but still now gender inequality and discrimination are existing in formal
employment sector. It is great to be mentioned here that for household activities, women are not paid. Had there been payment for the household work the women could have earned which would make them economically empowered.

**Industry Low Paid Female Workers**

Participation of women in industrial labor is a recent phenomenon (except in some areas of cottage, industries and garments) in Bangladesh mainly due to very slow growth of industrialization and partly due to socio-cultural pattern. Of all women workers in rural industries, 55.9 percent are involved in agriculture, foresting and other related activities and the remaining 40 percent are involved in other industries. In urban areas women are found to be employed in some specific labor intensive industries like garments, bakeries, pharmaceuticals, textile, electronics and chemicals. A considerable number of women are also employed in assembly plants dealing with electronic equipment and fish processing industries. However the growth of garment industries from 1980 onwards which created a tremendous impact of female employment in the industrial sector of Bangladesh. Till 1985 women’s share of employment in garment industry of the country was 85 percent and since 2008 their share further increased to 90 percent.

This phenomenon has brought about a significant change in the urban labor market. At present the garment factories in Bangladesh alone absorb 1.5 million workers of which 90% are women constituting almost 70% of the total employment in the manufacturing sector. In public sector industrial cooperation, the female employment in these enterprises is extremely peripheral, most of women occupy low level and low paid positions. Rural industries are mainly family based enterprise in handloom weaving, jute, handicrafts, coir rope making, mat making, pottery, oil pressing and lime-making. Women usually performed the onerous and tedious, unskilled and semi skilled.
Table – 6: Male-Female participation in industries in Bangladesh

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of industries</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Female as % of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All industries excluding garments and tea</td>
<td>7,62,993</td>
<td>36,507</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garment industry</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>22,500</td>
<td>90.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tea Industry</td>
<td>72,243</td>
<td>76,080</td>
<td>51.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8,60,236</td>
<td>3,37,587</td>
<td>28.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Calculated on the basis of labor statistics provided in the Statistical Year Book, Bangladesh Garments Manufacturer and exporters Association and Bangaldeshiyo Cha Sangshad.

On the basis of the above table analysis as set of data has been presented to determine the extent of female participation in industries. The table-6 has been compiled on the basis of data supplied by the inspector of factories and Establishment, BGMEA and Bangaldeshiyo Cha Sangsad. It is revealed from above information women constitute over 28 percent out of the total industrial labor forces.

**Women in administration (Percent Situation)**

The participation of women in decision making and administration remains very slim. As a result of this lack of opportunities to intervene at the policy and decision making levels, women have a minimal impact in the planning, management and implementation of policies. The number of women holding class-1 positions in ministries/division’s departments/directorates and autonomous bodies/corporations is only 5,066 compared to 73,619 men. This means, that only 6.44% women are occupying class 1 positions compared to 93.56% men. Women’s representation at the higher levels of the civil service are secretary, additional secretary, joint secretary and Deputy Secretary are almost negligible (Table-7). At the regional level only 4 women have been appointed to serve as the head of the district administration out of 64 district.
Table - 7: Representation of Women at Different in the Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total officer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secretary</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional secretary</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint secretary</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy secretary</td>
<td>1248</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>1418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior assistant secretary</td>
<td>1221</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>1492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant secretary</td>
<td>695</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3768</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>4503</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Political aspect: Gross Discrimination in Decision-making**

The Bangladesh constitution promotes the representation of women in local government and provides for reserved seats for them in the parliament. Four parameters, namely Parliament, cabinet, Union Parisahd and Political parties are discussed bellow to analyze women’s role in political parties and decision making.

**Women in National Assembly: Jatiya Shamshad**

Although the participation of women in national assembly election and their success stories are increasing over the years, but their contribution and achievements in this area not satisfactory. Table-8. Shows the participation of Women in National Parliament Election during the 1973-2008 period.

Table – 8: participation of Women in National Parliament Election

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of election</th>
<th>Percentage of women candidates</th>
<th>Percentage of women elected in general seats</th>
<th>Percentage of women elected in reserved seats</th>
<th>Percentage of women against the total seats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>......</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>14.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>19.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Nazma Chowdhury: “Bangladesh:
i) Gender Issues and Politics in a Patriarchy and Nazma Chowdhury (eds) ; Women in Politics Worldwide, Yale University Press, 1994

ii) Election results 2002 and

iii) Election results-2008

National Parliament of Bangladesh consists of 300 general seats filled by direct election. In the Parliamentary election held 2008, women candidates won from 18 electoral constitutes and caphered 6.0%. In 2007, 1996 and 1991 women won 2.0%, 2.36% of the general seats respectively. It is clear that from 1979 to 2008 less than 6% of the candidates standing for parliamentary election were women. If percentage of women’s participation in the parliament stands at 10 to 20% only when reserved seats are included Table-8).

**Women in Union Parishad (Local Government)**

It is important to mention that for the first time in the history of the country direct election for women representation was provided in the local government tier, the Union Parishad. The women elected the reserved seats completed their first term of office in December 1997, and the second elections to the rural local bodies was held from January 2003 to March 2003.

Table-9: Women’s Participation in Election of Union Parishad

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elections of Union Parishad</th>
<th>Number of Union</th>
<th>Women candidates</th>
<th>Number of women chairpersons</th>
<th>Women candidates as members</th>
<th>Women members elected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>4,352</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>4,352</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>4,400</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>863</td>
<td>Inf. NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>4,401</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Inf. NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>4,450</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1135</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>4,472</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>43969/4;56*</td>
<td>110*/128;82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>4,472</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>43764/6;17*</td>
<td>85*/1268;4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Election Commission Office Report 2003, Bangladesh women contested and elected to the general seat.
Women in Cabinet

Statistics on Bangladesh politics reveals that the women participation in cabinet is not much improving. Table-10 shows portrays the number of women ministers during different political regimes. There is a very insignificant number of women in the ministries. In spite of being half of the total population, women had no participation in running the affairs of the state and decision-making. Important posts were not given to women. Women entry into higher position has dependent on the wishes of male political bosses and elites. But nowadays situation is improving.

Women in Political Party Arena

The role and involvement of women in political parties may be viewed as members, as party works and as political leaders. Although there are few women in leadership positions there is limited involvement in party hierarchical structures, with only 5.1% of women in the decision-making bodies of all political parties.

Table – 10: Women in Political Parties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Political Parties</th>
<th>Structure of political Parties</th>
<th>Total % of members</th>
<th>Female member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BNP</td>
<td>National Standing Committee</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BNP</td>
<td>National Executive Committee</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awami League</td>
<td>Presidium and Secretariat</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awami League</td>
<td>Working committee</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jatiya Party</td>
<td>National Standing Committee</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jatiya Party</td>
<td>National Executive Committee</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamat-i-Islam</td>
<td>Majlish-e-Shura</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamat-i-Islam</td>
<td>Majlish-e-Shura</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 1) In comparison with the total number of members, it is found that women are not only lagging behind in politics, their number is very insignificant in the important committees of different political parties. 2) In Jamaat-e-Islami party committee there are no women members 3) It also reveals that the proportion of female to male in the higher election of the main stream political parties is minimum.
Causes and Challenges for Gender Discrimination and Women’s Marginality

This section provides a vivid picture of gender discrimination existing in all spheres of women’s life in Bangladesh. Critics identified a number of intrinsic and extrinsic constraints that are attributed to the marginalization of women in the society.

1. Patriarchy

The first and the foremost constraint is related to ‘patriarchy’. Patriarchy is analysed and identified as the main reason for women’s subordination and inequality. Kate Millet labels patriarchy as a “Universal mode of power relationship”. It determines inferior poison for women and superior position for men; it declares men’s knowledge as women’s knowledge and replaces women’s voice by men’s voice (Sultana, Abeda 2002). The traditional patriarchal society of Bangladesh is family based. The father or in his absence, the next male kin is the head of the household. As a result, both decision-making power and the economic control are vested in the hands of men. Patrilineal system in Bangladesh has given high value to sons as potential providers and they receive preferential treatment and access to education better health care and all necessary requirements for betterment of life. But women on the other hand are generally viewed in their reproductive roles, and are given a subsidiary state as nonproductive members of the family, daughter have little access to education, healthcare, resources and outside work.

Patriarchy is composed of six structures which identified to create inequality in following areas: a) patriarchal mode of production b) Patriarchal relations in paid – work c) Patriarchal relations in the state d) Male violence e) Patriarchal relations in sexuality f) Patriarchal relations in cultural Institution.

According to noted gender activist Kamla Bhasin, in a patriarchal system women’s lives controlled by men in the following areas a.Women’s Productiveor Labor power, b.
Women’s Reproduction, c. Control Over Women’s Sexuality, d. Women’s Mobility, e. Property and other economic Resources

2. Inequality and Women:

Over the last three decades, there has been a dramatic increase in concern with the meaning and explanation of gender. Today it is also widely accepted that “gender—— like class and race/ ethnicity is a source of inequality”. In many societies around the world, women are discriminated against by law and by custom, rendering them among the vulnerable, disadvantaged and powerlessness group. *Noble laureate Amartya Sen* (1991) has identified seven levels of Inequality of women. These are 1) Mortality Inequality 2) Natality Inequality 3) Basic Facility Inequality 4) Special Facility Inequality 5) Professional Inequality 6) Ownership Inequality 7) Household Inequality. Inequality in all its aspects derives from cultural patterns that perpetuate the lower states accorded to women in the family, the workplace, the society and the state. It deprives women of the opportunity of full and equal participation as citizens within their own societies and within international society *(Chinkin, 1999).*

3. Women and Poverty (Feminization of Poverty)

“Poverty is tied to a lack of access to productive resource, physical good and income which result in powerlessness. It has various manifestations including hunger and malnutrition, ill health and limited or no access to education, health care, and safe housing and paid work environment. It also includes experiences of economic, political and social discrimination. The experience of poverty is both shared and distributed within families but women suffer more than men. Today it implies that women as a class is likely to be poorer than men under the present capitalistic economic system especially in third world countries like Bangladesh.
Over the years, similar claims have been made for countries in the ESCAP region (ESCAP, 2000). ADB and UNDP have also described poverty as having a “woman’s face”. Of the 1.3 billion people in the world living in poverty, 70 percent are women (UNDP, 1997). Two-thirds of the poor in Asia are women (ADB, 1995). Between the period 1965-1970 and the mid 1990, the number of rural women living in poverty increase by 30 percent in the same period. At the same time in Bangladesh there has been an in creased of female headed household due to separation, divorce, migration of male labor, incapable of male, illness of husband, family breakdown, dowry etc.

4. Some Hindrance Affecting Women’s Participation in Employment Sector

A healthy and congenial work atmosphere is not only necessary for better productivity but also a pre-requisite for occupational satisfaction and safety. In Bangladesh female laborers and office employees face a number of problems in this regard. In factories and offices women often do not have a separate rest room, toilet or dining areas, canteen, sick-room and child care facilities. Data reported from a survey conducted by Bangladesh Unnayan Parishad also reveals that facilities as separate toilet, rest room and in-service training arrangement, are lacking in most industries. These problem are i) No appointment letter giving by the authority,  ii) Transport and Accommodation Problem, iii) Child care facilities, iv) Role conflict, v) Wage Discrimination. Mohsin (2004) observes that psychological insecurity is closely linked to physical insecurity. Most of the factories are ill-planned and there is inadequate provisions for air and ventilation; fatigue and tiredness are common complains of factory workers (mohsin, amena, and abul kalam, 2004)

5. Insecurity and Violence Against Women

It is another important problem is a women’s personal insecurity that range from her psychological to physical domains in Bangladesh. Today the concept of ‘human security’ is considered as a necessary condition for achieving development and peace. Women can
experience physical or mental abuse throughout their life cycle, in infancy, childhood, adolescence adulthood or older age. In Bangladesh violence against women has become a common phenomenon, rape, murder, acid throwing, trafficking, polygamy, sexual harassment, eve teasing in women and children have increased at an alarming rate. A cross country comparison found that the incidence of domestic violence against women in Bangladesh was very high, with 47% of adult women reporting physical assault by a male partner (UNFPA, 2000: UNDP, 2002). The beating of women within household is widespread through Bangladesh. Dowry also has become a part of wedding and cultural practices for various reasons. Most of violence against women have occurred related to dowry reason, violence against women has appeared so widespread that women feel totally insecure in all aspect of their lives. In this context gender based violence emerges as a primary ‘human security’ concern for women and thus as a critical development challenge.

The experience and fear of violence are ‘thread’ in women’s lives that interwine with their most basic human security needs at all levels …. personal, community environmental economic and political (Bunch, Carillo, Shore, 1997).

Table – 11: Factors Contributing to Violence against Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical Torture</th>
<th>Sexual Harassment</th>
<th>Dowry</th>
<th>Eve Teasing</th>
<th>Acid Throwing</th>
<th>Women and Child Trafficking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Women are not habituated to protest</td>
<td>• Are not habituated to protest male’s evil approaches</td>
<td>• As a social culture</td>
<td>• For being beautiful</td>
<td>• Refusing love offer</td>
<td>• Parents selling their Daughters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Patriarchal mentality of the society</td>
<td>• Patriarchal mentality of the society</td>
<td>• Unemployment provokes in demanding dowry</td>
<td>• Lack of punishment for such behavior</td>
<td>• Anger</td>
<td>• Greed for money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Dowry and Early marriage</td>
<td>• Lack of proper actions happen against the criminals in area</td>
<td>• Lack of Education and Awareness</td>
<td>• Joblessness of youths makes them doing evil</td>
<td>• For not getting dowry</td>
<td>• Negligence of guardians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Less compromising attitude of man</td>
<td>• Getting alone at</td>
<td>• Brides’ family often consider of giving dowry as an issue of prestige</td>
<td>• Revenge</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Husbands sells wife for not getting dowry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Drug</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Proposing of employment offer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

...
addiction
• Economic dependency of women on men
workplaces or home
• Love-trap of bad boys
• Evil notion of male towards girls and women
• Conflict between husband and wife
• Poverty
• Not registering the marriage
• Infertility
• For wife’s being sick or ill-character
activities
• Lack of education
• No restriction of parents towards young boy
being punished
• Pretending/trapping in the name of marriage
• Lack of education and orientation on trafficking
• Sever poverty
• Lack of knowledge on law

6. Constraints and Obstacles to Women Participation in Education

No society has ever liberate itself economically, politically or socially without a sound base of educated women, (Mahbub-ul-Huq, 2000). Education is the prime factor to consider become women empowerment as well as breaking the vicious cycle of exploitation, poverty and ignorance. In Bangladesh women are lagging behind men in all stages of education. Higher dropout rate of female at secondary levels is critical concern for women’s education. According to various studies three main aspects of interrelated and interacting factors that impede women’s equal participation in education. These are

Table – 12: Constrants in Participation of Women in Education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-cultural constraints</th>
<th>Poverty</th>
<th>Systematic Constraints</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender Discrimination In family As manifested In Unequal Allocation of Resources and Opportunities for Women Education</td>
<td>Pressure to engage in wage work for poor girls</td>
<td>Limited Number of school and facilities in rural areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● Gender Stereotyping In Socialization</td>
<td>Need to help in domestic chores in poor families</td>
<td>● Inadequate Number of teachers and poorly trained women and men teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● Lack of Safely and Security</td>
<td>Hidden cost in education, for example Uniform, Books, Coaching fees, transport</td>
<td>● Lack of Congenial Environment, and proper Equipment/Material</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Constraints and obstacles to women’s Healthcare facilities
It is widely accepted fact that in comparison to men women, women suffer low status. Low status of women adversely affect the health and well being of women, mostly in South Asia. Female births are unwelcome, inequalities exist in care, in dressing, in feeding, in the provision of medical care, early marriage and pregnancy are negatively affected women’s health. In Bangladesh women are more disadvantaged than men in terms of access to healthcare and health care received.

There are many constraints existing to access the proper health facilities in Bangladesh, these are:

- Inadequate of safe delivery facilities and antenatal facility all complications relating to birth.
- Women do not have to choice of contraceptives, treatment in cases of complications and counseling, no freedom in deciding the number of children, spacing of children etc due to male control and subordinate position of women.
- Lack of information about reproductive health, rights and sexual disease are also related to reproductive rights. This topic is under addressed in our country, as it a social taboo and not talked about this matters with the women.
- In sufficient funds should be allocated for the Health lack of implementation of health policy
- Lack of highly trained health service providers TBA Training program, Low quality of health service and materials and separate women’s health unit
- Poor address occupational health hazards and harmful impact of environment degradation

8. Loopholes in Policy Implementations

Another important reason is the lack and loopholes in policy implementation. In order to reduce discrimination against women, Bangladesh government has undertaken certain
legal, institutional and policy reforms. These reforms did not change the position and states of women. These are i) the state relegated women to a secondary position by certain specific laws, Such guardianship law, citizenship law, marriage law, and divorce laws, inherent properly law and reservation of CEDAW; very interesting in Bangladesh women relating law has taken under the name of personal law which basis on religion and social custom that is the tool of instrument the women.  ii) The functions of Ministry of Women and Child Affairs (MoWCA) are of very general nature entrusting it to deal with anything relating to women and not clearly defining its area of activity relating to women issues. But in reality the MWCA has failed to play the advocacy and advisory role at the policy level and coordination at the implementation level. Since each ministry department or organization now formulates its own policies without having a direct link with the MoWCA this not only result, in overlap and duplication of program but also leaves some important gaps in the area of women and development. Bangladesh Jatiyo Mohila Sangstha (BJMS), the main agency under MoWCA which was established as the apex organization of women to federate and coordinate women’s organization, also failed in attaining its objectives because it never achieved its independent character. However women’s development programs are limited to meet the needs of women, mostly concentrated in a few activities such skill-development program, micro-credit and self employment awareness, primary health care and cover much smaller number of beneficiaries. Another important constraints to the women in development that there is no systematic documentation of women’s stratus and gender based data due to a lack of initiative of Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics Division, Policy makers and planners and same also failed to responsible of MoWCA. It is necessary to turn ones attention to the creation of a systematic data base.
9. Socio-Cultural Constraints

Finally some critics talk about socio-cultural and religious issues as major barriers to women development. Women live in a social system where socialization process embodying. Social norms and role expectations prescribes for women an inferior and subordinate position in society. Each human being is born and brought up into ongoing socio system and nurtured by the cultural pattern, within which he/she is brought up. Her behavior is determined the culture environment within which he/she lives. In Bangladesh, women participative in socio-economic and political activities has, for long been unofficially forbidden by their male counterparts. It is also alleged that religious beliefs and doctrines have veneered the societal negative attitude toward women’s participation in activations outside home. Women in Bangladesh being in a predominantly Muslim society, Majority people believe that Purdah prevents women to participate in social economic and political activities to empower themselves. ‘Fatwa’ is one kind of religious bindings and malpractice by male counterpart in the Bangladesh society. Extremist religious leaders/ Elites provide unethical punishment against women in the name of religious and its also controlled of women’s mobility freedom and women’s participation in decision making at all level as well as cultural program. It also creates injustice toward women.

**Institutional Framework of Women in Development (WID) to Initiative by the Government of Bangladesh.**

Bangladesh government since its independence in 1971, has taken several initiatives; undertaken and implemented several programs and policies regarding women, but altogether those have not been very promising and successful. Governmental Interventions for the Advancement of Women have taken i) legal measures ii) institutional initiative, and iii) policy reformed legal measures
a) Constitutional Guarantees
b) Legislative Measures

a) Constitutional Guarantee

The constitution of Bangladesh guarantees certain rights and privileges to women fundamental rights. The clauses on women’s rights and their basic freedom were ensured in the constitutions. Article 27 of the constitution states that “All citizens are equal before the law and are entitled to equal protection of the law”. Article 28 (1) of the constitution states “The state shall not discriminate against any citizen on grounds only religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth” According to Article 28 (2) “Women shall have equal rights with men in all spheres of the state and of public life” Article 28 (3) states “No citizen shall, no ground only of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth, be subjected to any disability, liability, restriction or condition with regard to access to any place of public entertainment or resort or admission to any educational institutions”. Article 28 (4) states “Nothing in this article shall prevent the state form making special provision in favor of women and children for the advancement of any backward section of the population”. Again Article 29 (i) states “No citizen shall, on ground of sex be ineligible for, or discriminated against in repent of any employment or office in the service of the Republic.

b) Legislative Measures

To safeguard the various constitutional rights, the government has enacted various women related legislation. Notable among these are i. The Child Marriage Restraint Act-1929, amended in 1984, raising the age of marriage of a girl 18 years and a boy 21 years and makes offences under this Act punishable. ii. The Dowry Provision Act-1980, amended in 1986 has made the custom of dowry an offence which is punishable by fine and imprisonment. iii) The Muslim Family Law Ordinance-1962 and its amendment in 1986, regulates personal aspects like inheritance of property, marriage and divorce, guardianship and custody of children etc. iv) The Family Court Ordinance-1985 has served women by
establishing family courts at the District and the Thana levels. v) The Child Marriage and Divorce Registration Act-1974 provides for raising the legal age and registered every marriage, divorce and birth. vi) The Suppression of Violence Against Women and Children (Amendment) Act-2003 has been enacted to combat the crime of violence against women. vii) The Acid Control Act-2002 and The Acid Crimes Control Act-2002 have been enacted to control the crimes relating to acid violence. viii) The Prevention of Family Violence Act-2010 has been taken to control family based violence and also these crime are punishable.

2) Institutional Initiatives

a) Institutional Review of WID Capability of GOB

The institutional review of WID capability of the government of Bangladesh was designed to assess whether the mechanisms, information, skills and commitment required to address issues of women’s equality and development have been put in place within government and to identify further steps that should be taken.

b) National Action Plan (NAP)

According to Beijing platform for action reservations the Bangladesh Government has taken national action plan which sets a. To make women’s development as integral part of the national development program. b. To established women as equal partners in development with equal roles in policy and decision-making in the family, community and nation at large. C. To remove legal, economic, political or cultural barriers by undertaking policy reforms and strong affirmative actions. D. To raise/create public awareness about women differential needs, interests and priorities and increase commitment towards women.

c) National Policy for The Advancement of Women

In March 1997 the Bangladesh government declared the national policy for development of women. The objective of the national policy are comprehensives in scope
and rest on the basic commitment to develop women as a human resource; establish women’s human rights; eliminate all forms of discrimination against women; recognize women’s contribution; eliminate poverty among women; establish equality between men and women in administration, politics, education, games and other socio-economic spheres, ensure adequate health, creative positive image for girl child and women and eliminate all forms of oppression against women.

d) Five year Development Plans

During the first five year plan (1973-78) no specific role was visualized for women except rehabilitation of war affected women. In the two year plan (TYP, 1978-80) which was formulated during interim period, women’s development was first considered from a different angle and a separate issue. The plan gave a high priority to women’s development and for the first time national development envisaged positive measures to ensure equal access of women to development. The Second Five Year Plan (1980-85), The Third Five Year Plan (1985-90) and The Fourth Five Year Plan programs for women’s covered diverse field such as skill development nutrition, childcare, literacy, self-employment, microcredit, rehabilitation of deserted women and poverty alleviation etc.

Promoting gender equality and realizing the constitutional goal of equality between all citizens- women and men ,was a major aim of the Fifth Five Year Plan (1997-2002).

e) National Council for Women’s Development (NCWD)

A 44-member national council for women’s development (NCWD) has been established. The responsibilities of NCWD are a. Formulate rules and regulations for the development work of different ministries, divisions and other agencies b. Formulate laws and
regulations to ensure women’s legal rights and to prevent of oppression against women, c. Take measures to preserve women’s interest in all areas.

**f) Ministry of Women and Children Affairs (MoWCA)**

The MoWCA is regarded as the nodal ministry for facilitating the tasks designed for the advancement of women. Its roles focuses on national policy formulation, implementation of all programs, addressing the needs of the rural poor, distressed, disadvantaged and deprived women, registration and coordination of women’s voluntary organization collaborating with other agencies maintaining links with the international donor agencies and supervision and monitoring the women’s development programs.

**g) Department of women’s Affairs (DWA)**

This is the implementing arm of the ministry of women’s and children affairs. It operate through its headquarters at the national level and field based office located at the District and Thanas level. This department is implementation all the projects programs activities related to women issues such as National Policy, National Action Plan (NAP), legal aid support in affected women, Five Year Plans and Programs and Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

**h) Others National Machineries on Women**

- Parliamentary standing committee for MWCA.
- Inter-ministerial coordination and evaluation committee.
- WID focal points at different Ministries
- WID coordination committee at the District and Upazilla level.
- Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women(CEDAW)
- Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)
- Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)
3) **Policy Reforms Included**

a) Partial withdrawal of reservation to CEDAW (1977), b) compulsory birth and death registry campaigns (1997-98), c) Repeal of law barring women form police service, d) Local government bill (1997) providing for direct election to 1/3 women’s reserved seats in local government e) Increase reserved seats in parliament from 30 to 50 f) introduced entry to increase women’s representation in senior decision making positions g) Emphasis to attention all development programs should be designed women’s interest. However these reforms and institutional mechanisms did not change the position of women and are not enough to conduct the minimum required to bring about women’s development and quality between men and women. Action plans and programs relating women have been taken mostly in as documentary and namely but reality is different.

**Conclusion**

This study starts with an objective of investigating the sources, patterns and features of gender asymmetry existing in Bangladesh over the years and devising the means and ways to whether away that ever escalating asymmetry. Despite a great many initiatives on the part of the government as well as on other development organizations, this study found parity achieved in education section at primary and secondary level but disparity in higher education, unequal employment and income earning opportunity and gross discrimination in administration, ministerial portfolio, local government and other decision making bodies. A number of reasons behind gender inequality have been indentified such as traditional patriarchy male dependency, assertive masculine prejudices, insecurity and vulnerability gender blindness and above all socio-cultural constraints. It is observed that the laws and policies that have been enacted at various times cound render great contribution to the reduction of gender discrimination. Unfortunately the lack and loopholes in policy implementation could not serve as remedial measures. It should be also mentioned here that
the constitution of Bangladesh has given the equal rights but existing women relating laws have been adapted under the personal laws on the basis of religions, customs and social norms which are encouraged to enforce patriarchy and male dominated made society.

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MALE ABUSERS OF INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE

Tsang Wai-Hung

Abstract

Based on clinical practice for the male abusers of intimate partner violence, those male abusers still have their yearnings for rebuilding their relationship with their children even though the marital and father-child relationship have been ruined by their violent behavior. With this yearning, these abusive fathers have their motivation to stop their violence against their intimate partners. Therefore, rebuilding positive fatherhood for male abusers is one of the crucial elements of abusers counseling. Grounded on this, group treatment of positive fathering for male abusers is the recent development of abusers counseling service in Hong Kong. Apart from enhancing the fathers’ awareness of child-centered fathering, the group strives to increase their awareness and responsibility for abusive fathering, and to motivate their practice of co-parenting with their partners. Ultimately, the treatment can facilitate those abusive fathers to build up healthy and non-violent environment for their children to grow up. In the long run, we find that the interruption of intergenerational cycle of violence can be anticipated. From 2008 to 2012, a total of 96 sessions for 84 fathers who had the history of violence against their intimate partners or children. Quantitative outcome measurement using the ‘Stage of Change’ questionnaire indicated 66% of the fathers reached the participation stage of which they had concrete ways to try child-centered fathering approach. Results from Conflict Tactic Scale (CTS-2) revealed that 68% & 72% of the fathers reduced in their physical violence and psychological violence against their intimate partners and their children respectively. This new initiative for abused fathers is recommended for further promotion in Chinese community so as to prevent the intergenerational cycle of violence. Further longitudinal studies of the effectiveness of the group can be conducted to examine the positive impact on the up-bringing development of their children.

Introduction

Although there is increasing trend for fathers in Hong Kong taking up more responsibility of child rearing, the women are still shouldering up the major responsibility in child-care. Meanwhile, fathers are still taking up as the breadwinner role in most of the
Chinese families even though many women are increasingly in their labor force participation in this decade of years.

Needless to say, the active and positive participation of fathers in rearing their children should have crucial and positive effects on the children’s psychosocial development. When the fathers can build up their positive fatherhood in their families, the children can have positive role model, and thus should have better learning abilities, social relationship and emotional management.

However, some fathers have their abusive behavior on their partners and their children. Their abusive acts not only have detrimental impact on their relationship with their partners, but also have negative effect on their fatherhood and subsequently destroy the relationship with their children.

Based on clinical practice for the male abusers of intimate partner violence, those male abusers still have their yearnings for rebuilding their relationship with their children even though the marital and father-child relationship have been ruined by their violent behavior. With this yearning, these abusive fathers have their motivation to stop their violence against their intimate partners. Therefore, rebuilding positive fatherhood for male abusers is one of the crucial elements of abusers counseling.

**Importance of Addressing Fatherhood in Abusers Counseling**

Fox and Bruce (2001) conducted in-depth interview for eight abusive fathers who joined the abusers counseling program. Shameful and guilty feelings were commonly found in their narrative discourse about the harm to their partners and children due to their abusive behavior. Those abusive males who have engaged violence against their partners, most often struggled in the dilemma of which their wish of being ‘good’ father and the detrimental effect of ruining the positive fatherhood. Nevertheless, those abusive fathers were still
having their yearnings to rebuild their relationship with their children, and this might be one of the crucial motivational forces for them to stop abusing their partners and children.

Comparing the male abusers against their intimate partner with those non-abusers, indicated that those abusers had higher tendency to use rigid, corporal punishment, and other violent methods to handle the parenting issues. As such, there was greater tendency for the abusive men against intimate partners, to have abusive behaviors against their children also (Fox and Benson, 2004).

Perel and Peled (2008) further explored the understanding towards ‘fatherhood’ among those men battering against their partners who were recruited from the domestic violence counseling centers. They commonly expected their fatherhood role as being the provider of materialistic needs and happiness for their children. On the contrary, they came across psychological and external barriers, such as the feelings of ‘absence’ father or the experience of being abused happened in their childhood, and thus hindered their thinking and behavior of being a father in their families actually. As such, there were usually significant discrepancy between their ideal expectation towards ‘positive fatherhood’ and their actual behavior of acting out the role of fatherhood (Perel & Peled, 2008).

With a view of reducing the discrepancy between their expectation and their actual behavior, the fathers might try to adopt constricted views towards the fatherhood. Perel and Peled (2008) identified several kinds of constricted views, which were ‘the controller’, ‘the breadwinner’, and the residual parent’. For those fathers having ‘controller’ views, the presence of fathers has become one-dimensional as a result of the frequent exercise of power and control, and thus resulting in greatly impairing their ability to maintain a close and intimate relationship with their children. The ‘breadwinning’ view was adopted by those fathers who spent most of their time at work and most often absent from the home, resulting in the gradual reduction in connection and commitment to their children psychosocially.
Their perception of breadwinner role as their central aspect of ‘good father’ enabled them to fulfill their own expectation as providing all the materialistic contribution to the family members. The ‘residual’ father perceived their partners as the dominating role in parenting, and thus drove them away from the parental responsibility in the families (Perel & Peled, 2008).

Despite of the fact that these constructive views could enable the fathers to struggle between their ideal expectation towards good father and their actual behavior, all these constrictive thinking would definitely ruin their healthy relationship with their children. Therefore, helping those fathers to address on their positive thinking towards fatherhood and facilitating them to achieve the goals of positive fatherhood through proper actions, are very crucial elements in male abusers counseling.

Scott & Crooks (2007) conducted a qualitative intervention research for 34 fathers who joined the program ‘Caring Dad: Helping Fathers Value Their Children’, and indicated that the group could help them reducing the hostile feelings and controlling behavior towards their children, and relieving stress in parenting.

All the above research findings pointed to the fact that addressing positive fatherhood of male abusers was one of the crucial means to address on the safety issues of the victims as well as the needs of the fathers in re-building positive father role in their families.

**Western Experience in Launching Programs for Positive Fatherhood**

There were some programs of addressing positive fatherhood for male abusers launched in US and Canada in these ten years, which were ‘Carind Dad Program’, ‘Fathering After Violence’ and ‘Men Care’.

‘Caring Dad Program: Helping Fathers Value their Children’ has been launched by Changing Ways in US since 2001. It was a group curriculum with 17 sessions, which addressed on understanding the impact of abusive behaviors on children, adopting child-
centered parenting and re-building collaborative relationship with the partners (Scott, Francis, Crooks & Kell, 2006).

‘Fathering after violence’ ⁴ was launched by Family Violence Prevention Fund since 2002. This program advocated the responsibility of male abusers for their abusive behavior. They also focused on building up the guidelines for the professionals in addressing fatherhood for male abusers, such as safety and risk assessment guidelines for visitation centers.

‘Men Care’ ⁵ was launched by Promundo, Sonke Gender Justice and Men Engage Alliance collaboratively. It advocated the promotion of positive fatherhood, non-violent and respectful parenting and intimate partner relationship.

**Addressing Positive Fatherhood for Male Abusers – Hong Kong Experience**

The advocacy and promotion of positive fatherhood for male abusers of intimate partner violence in US and Canada, do have its crucial importance in male abusers counseling. The effort in addressing positive fatherhood not only helps in protecting the safety issues of female victims and the children, but also building up the responsibility of fathers in developing positive parenting for their children.

Grounded on this, group treatment of positive fathering for male abusers of intimate partner violence was the recent development of abusers counseling service in Hong Kong. We do believe in our effort in addressing positive fatherhood for this target group can enhance their functioning in the families in positive ways, promote healthy development of their children, and build up their abilities of child-centered parenting. We ultimately strived for our greatest effort to prevent the intergenerational transmission of violence in those families with family violence (Tsang, 2011).

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⁴ *Fathering After Violence: The Reparative Framework*  
Apart from enhancing the fathers’ awareness of child-centered fathering, the group strived to increase their awareness and responsibility for abusive fathering, and to motivate their practice of co-parenting with their partners. Ultimately, the group treatment could facilitate those abusive fathers to build up healthy and non-violent environment for their children to grow up (Tsang, 2011).

Our experiences in the group treatment for promoting positive fatherhood do have our concern towards the safety issues of their female intimate partners as well as their children (Scott, Francis, Crooks, Paddon & Wolfe, 2006). Because of this, careful risk assessment on abusers’ attitudes towards using of violence, extent of taking up responsibility over their violence, and their motivation of change are needed. Through monitoring their belief and behavior throughout the group process by means of group leaders’ observation, informations from partners contact, as well as psychometric instruments. Those psychometric instruments used were, Chinese version of Conflict Tactics Scale (Chan, 2005), Chinese version of Parent Child Conflict Tactic Scale (Chan, 2005), and Stage of Change (Prochaska & DiClemente, 1992).

The group was consisted of 8 sessions addressing on four different aspects which included, understanding violence behavior, understanding the impact of violence on partners and children, adopting child-centered approach parenting, and rebuilding trustful and collaborative manner with their partners (Tsang, 2011).

From 2008 to 2012, a total of 96 sessions for 84 fathers who had the history of violence against their intimate partners or children. Quantitative outcome measurement using the ‘Stage of Change’ questionnaire indicated 66% of the fathers reached the participation stage of which they had concrete ways to try child-centered fathering approach. Results from Conflict Tactic Scale (CTS-2) revealed that 68% & 72% of the fathers reduced
in their physical violence and psychological violence against their intimate partners and their children respectively.

**Implications & Conclusions**

The group treatment of the rebuilding positive fatherhood of male abusers could help those male abusers to adopt child-centered parenting, and thus could help them to reduce their abusive behavior against their intimate partner and children. This new initiative for abused fathers is recommended for further promotion in Chinese community so as to prevent the intergenerational cycle of violence. Further longitudinal studies of the effectiveness of the group can be conducted to examine the positive impact on the up-bringing development of their children.

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INNOVATIVE SOCIAL WORK TEACHING AND EFFECTIVE SOCIAL WORK LEARNING

Tulshi Kumar Das

Abstract

Despite social work education being claimed as practical one, it is hard to make others believe that the discipline has a concrete practical curriculum which is being successfully taught for producing capable professional social workers. The way the entire social work education is designed and imparted to the students marks no significant difference from any other discipline introduced at the university level. So the specialty of social work education is neither accepted nor practically proven. But social work education has huge potentials to grow as a practically vibrant discipline that can effectively handle the social ills with the appropriate use of the hidden strength of human beings. In order to do that, innovative reforms must be brought about in the curriculum of social work as well as in the method of social work teaching itself. Effective social work learning can only be ensured through innovative social work teaching based on a concrete, but a practical curriculum with a solid and fundamental theoretical knowledge. Apart from that, field work which is mandatory for the students in social work education needs to be restructured, reconstructed and reformed so that students could be genuinely benefited. The current nature of field work being performed by the students brings nothing but frustration, confusion and a feeling of meaninglessness. It has to be addressed immediately. A well planned, context based, fully practical and theoretically rooted field training can make the students highly interested, competent, academically confident and endlessly loaded with physical and mental energy to work with the people for bringing about positive changes in their lives. Comprehensive but unambiguous, very scientific and goal-oriented manual on field training may be developed for...
social work education which will help produce accomplished social workers in a country like Bangladesh.

**Introduction**

Social work education in Bangladesh was at first introduced in mid 1950s according to the suggestions and recommendations proposed by United Nations experts who came to visit Bangladesh (then East Pakistan) to see the chaotic situation created due to the partition of India resulted in two independent countries namely India and Pakistan (Das, 2012, p. 45; Samad, 2009, p. 174; Shawkatuzzaman, 2006, p. 279-80; Islam; 2005, p. 122; Akbar, 1965, p.202). Before the independence of Bangladesh in 1971, two prominent universities e.g. University of Dhaka and University of Rajshahi took significant steps in order to offer social work education at undergraduate and graduate levels (Islam; 2005, p.123; Sarkar & Ahmadullah, 1995, p. 367). After the independence, social work education has spread further as three more public universities have opened department of social work at undergraduate, graduate and post graduate levels. Now social work education has been offered in five public universities and also at least in five more private universities. The spread of social work education is still not very encouraging as only five public universities out of thirty four and five private universities out of around sixty have so far introduced social work education in their respective university. Social work is yet to be recognized as a profession in Bangladesh. Although social work education has been running in the country almost for the last sixty years, public perception about it could be described frustrating as not too many people have very clear idea in relation to the nature of this academic discipline (Das, 2012; Das and others, 2008, p. 09).

There may be number of reasons because of which social work education could not make any niche in the public affairs. Among them, social work fails to prove itself as an independent and vibrant academic exercise which is capable of bringing about huge
materialistic gain in the lives of those who study social work at university level. Social work graduates are not seen involved in the formulation of social policy and planning as social workers. They are not directly engaged as social workers in the development activities. Even social work graduates are not recognized and prominent as social workers in micro social work practice like working with mental patients, disable people, disturbed family members, troubled women and children etc. There is no single field where social work graduates have been declared mandatory to be recruited to serve a specific group of people. It means the knowledge and skills gained in social work are not considered as that much valuable or special which may be essential to shoot the problems of people or could be applied in bringing about positive changes in the society. Social work educators teaching at university level also have miserably failed to institutionalize this academic discipline as a prestigious one like economics, law or even sociology. A very few number of social work educators are found engaged with frequent research activities, and exchange of knowledge between and among social work educators and practitioners are almost non-existent. National and international seminar, conference, workshop, symposium etc on the issues relating to social work have rarely been organized by the department of social work at the university level. Bangladesh Council for social work education (BCSWE, 2007), an organization for social work education and profession, has recently come into being as a ray of hope due to the efforts mostly made by the Institute of Social Work and Research, University of Dhaka. BCSWE established in 2007 has already organized quite a few national seminars/conferences on the issues relating to social work where social work educators from different universities and colleges, social work practitioners, development workers met each other and shared their experiences. It’s a beginning and hopefully it will go on and on.

The reasons stated above may be held responsible for low status of social work as an academic discipline in a society like ours. Therefore, meritorious students generally do not
feel encouraged to take admission in social work, instead they opt for economics or law or public administration. Many of the students who have already been enrolled in social work are not found satisfied with the discipline. The students who have taken admission in social work because their first choice was social work also feel frustrated in the course of studying social work as their hopes and dreams remain unfulfilled. Students studying social work very often go through the experience of feeling bad as other students studying some other discipline in the university generally undermine social work as an academic discourse. But social work discipline has lots of potentials which are yet to be explored and nurtured in a developing country like Bangladesh (Das, 2012, p.45). The major responsibility in this regard should be shouldered by social work educators themselves who can explore and innovate number of strategies through which social work discipline can genuinely be made prestigious, worth studying and very much functional in the context of our society. Social work practitioners, development workers, students and others concerned should also come forward to stand on one platform to fight for the cause of this discipline. Some of the strategies in connection to upgrading the position of the discipline may be placed for academic debate and arguments in the following discussion.

**Social Work as an Applied Social Science**

Social work is often described as a practical social science discipline. It means the knowledge and skills learnt in social work could be directly applicable at field levels while working with different categories of people. Therefore, social work is of course applied. Social work is also considered as a branch of social science since knowledge and skills studied in social work are mostly borrowed from different branches of social science, especially from sociology and psychology (Das, 2012, p.46; Ramachandran, 1983; Gore, 1981). But it is not only sociology and psychology which have founded the knowledge base of social work, rather the discipline is based on many other branches of knowledge,
sometimes it goes beyond social science. It truly adopts a multidisciplinary approach in its action. Before emphasizing the applied nature of social work discipline, the theoretical part of it should also be strongly grounded. An applied discipline cannot be successfully applicable without the foundation of theoretical knowledge. The components of theoretical knowledge are truly tested directly at field level under an applied discipline aiming at bringing about welfare for the mankind.

But the problems could well be identified with the curriculum of social work introduced at university level in Bangladesh. The curriculum is neither theoretical nor practical one. The whole exercise put together in the curriculum may at best be described as superficial one; neither has it fulfilled theoretical requirements nor the practical demands of an applied discipline. There is no denying the fact that lot of reforms have been introduced in the curriculum of social work in the recent years; but still it does not seem to be adequate, a long way to go. The theoretical foundation of the discipline must be made solid aiming at achieving the objectives of it. Many believe that social work lacks theoretical perspectives without which an academic discipline is simply an empty vessel, bound to be unsuccessful toward achieving its goals (Das, 2012, p. 50; Beckett, 2007, p. 32-36). That is exactly what happened in case of Bangladesh. Social work curriculum did not include relevant theoretical perspectives considered essential in a practice situation even a few years back. This was another setback for social work discipline which affected the status of the discipline further. Some of the relevant theoretical orientations have been included in the curriculum of social work in the last couple of years, but they are incomplete and in few cases inconsistent and inappropriate. Consensus among the social work educators regarding inclusion of theories into the curriculum of social work is yet to be reached. It is probably important to believe that without any theoretical background the practice of social work may become quite difficult in a particular context. Understanding a context or understanding an individual or a group from...
multiple angles is very much essential in meaningful social work practice; and this understanding could be in-depth, concrete, factual and sustainable only if the situation is analyzed with theoretical explanations (Sheldon, 1995, p.112; Bandura, 1977; Seligman, 1975; Skinner, 1974). It is therefore noted that theoretical perspectives facilitate successful social work practice. There are different theories which are also called practice theories frequently used these days by social work practitioners in order to make the practice result oriented and more effective (Beckett, 2007, p. 40-47; Howe et al., 1999; Bowlby, 1998).

Number of examples may be cited to realize the usefulness of theories in social work practice. The application of systems theory in social work practice has been widely shown by Pincus and Minahan in their much celebrated book (1973). The essence of system approach is that people with problems usually intend to depend on different systems existing in their immediate social environment for resolving problems and having normal life. So the systems need to be focused in social work practice. There are three types of system which may be helpful for the people with problems. Family, friends, relatives, fellow workers may be considered as informal or natural systems; community, groups, trade unions may be treated as formal systems and hospitals, schools, community centers, correctional services, day care centers etc could be described as societal systems. People seeking help from the social workers may not be aware about the systems or they may be unable to utilize the systems effectively or they may be having some other problems (Payne, 1997, p. 141; Pincus and Minahan, 1973). The social worker will assess the situation taking the systems into consideration and extend help to the client accordingly. Systems theory could be used from a Marxist perspective too as they can help to understand different institutions working in the society and their interrelationship, and facilitate a radical thinking toward bringing about a basic change in the systems (Leonard, 1975, p.48). Pincus and Minahan have talked about
four basic systems useful in practicing social work with the target people and they are: change agent system, client system, target system and action system.

Psychodynamic theory is considered useful in micro social work practice. Social workers can use psychodynamic theory for better understanding of human emotions, interactions and interrelationships, internal responses to the outside environment (Woods and Hollis, 1990; Preston-Shoot and Agass, 1990). Cognitive-behavioral theory may be very much useful for the social workers to intervene with the mentally ill individuals to improve their psychological functioning. William Bradshaw (1997) could effectively handle the clients with deep-rooted stress as he used both behavior and cognition theory to teach them stress management skills and social skills. He was also successful to make the clients understand as to how negative thoughts could be replaced by using both the theories. Stress theory helps the social workers to perceive that people with social supports experience comparatively lesser distress than that of those without social supports (Sands and Goldberg-Glen, 2000; Engel & Schutt, 2005, p. 39). Resource dependency theory is applied by Wernet and Austin (1991) in order to explain adaptive nature (coping mechanism) of organizations to respond to changes in their greater environment. The situation of poverty may be better understood with the explanations of power theory, human capital theory, class conflict theory, culture of poverty theory, functionalist theory etc (Engel & Schutt, 2005; Das, 2003; Haralambos & Heald, 1995; Giddens, 1994; Lewis, 1968). So, theoretical base needs to be solidified and strengthened for meaningful, effective and successful social work practice in any context or situation.

The practical nature of social work discipline is in fact undermined in the context of Bangladesh by social work educators themselves and others involved in the entire design of social work education. Social work is much publicized and frequently claimed as applied knowledge system which is of course difficult to prove since the curriculum designed for it
hardly reflects this claim. Not more than 5% of entire course curriculum of social work represents practical activities for the students. Students are sent to different social welfare agencies for field training only for 60 working days meaning 2 months in the terminal semester at undergraduate level and once again in the terminal semester for same period of time at graduate level. That is the practical activities performed by the students in 4 years duration to earn undergraduate degree and in 1 year duration to earn graduate degree in social work. It is definitely insufficient for an applied discipline like social work. One should not forget that social work is the only discipline in the entire social sciences which can create ample opportunity for those trained in social work to work with different individuals, groups and communities practically to benefit them, to empower them. Social workers can learn more while working in the field than they learn in the classroom or from the book. That is why social work is to a greater extent learning by doing. Social workers are not expected to work for themselves but always for others. But very unfortunately huge potentialities of social work discipline are yet to be explored because of lack of appropriate planning, lack of sincerity and also indifferent attitude of social work educators. Therefore, claiming social work as applied discipline does not carry any significant meaning. Field training proposed in social work curriculum has lots of limitations as it does not specify the kinds of activities students are expected to perform while in the field. It is therefore students mostly relax during field work and some of the students who are found serious feel utterly frustrated.

So, theoretical as well as practical part of social work curriculum need to be redesigned, restructured and reconstructed based on the needs and the nature of our society. Theoretical and practical part of social work should be very much relevant and mutually substantiated to each other, and that has to be reflected in the curriculum of social work. Efforts are to be made immediately on these two fronts for making social work a vibrant discipline.
Innovative Social Work Teaching

Teaching methods adopted by social work educators at university level in Bangladesh may not be described as fully functional. Social work should not be treated like some other discipline e.g. sociology, political science, economics or law. It is basically practically based knowledge system directly connected toward scientific and systematic activities supposed to be performed by those trained in social work while working with the people. The way lecture is delivered by a sociologist in the classroom where sociology is taught, social work educators should not deliver the lecture same way like a sociologist in the classroom of social work. The lecture on the topic of social work may not be confined within the four walls of the classroom, rather each topic under discussion need to be made connected with practical activities directed toward resolving problems of individuals, groups or communities or undertaking development activities for empowering vulnerable groups of people living in any society. For example, as a teacher of social work you are teaching ‘power structure’ in the classroom. You explain power structure in detail and show how power structure matters in social work practice. If possible take the students to a nearby community to experience the impact of power structure practically. You can also ask the students to study a power structure in a particular community and submit a report to you. Students may also be asked to arrange a meeting with formal or informal power structure where exchange of views between the two parties on needs and problems of community people and the role played by the power structure could be discussed. Many more examples may be cited. What is important is one should be innovative in this regard. A teacher of social work is the best person to decide upon how a topic could be practically taught to the students so that they can learn something by doing. One of course can raise questions about the time that is required to teach social work practically. But time management has to be kept in mind while designing the entire curriculum of social work and there is no room to become idle for those involved in social
work education. The curriculum of social work must include and accommodate as many relevant topics as possible that are required to practice social work. It does not mean that one should be over ambitious, but the requirements need to be fulfilled.

Social work educators need to adopt participatory approach in teaching. It means teaching social work cannot be one-way process; rather it should be two-way process where students must be allowed and encouraged to participate in the discussion which is initiated by the teacher in the classroom. Students can enrich the discussion by sharing their experiences and opinion on a particular topic with the teacher through which both the teacher and the students could be benefited. Sometimes students prefer not to ask any question to the teacher about the lecture that is being delivered or complaints are also received from the students that teachers discourage the students raising questions. If it really happens, then social work teaching is unlikely to be fulfilling.

Students may be divided into different groups in a classroom, and each group can be assigned with a topic for presentation; the topic which has already been discussed by the teacher. Each group of students may be asked to prepare the assignment on the basis of the first hand data to be collected directly from the field. The whole exercise of preparing the assignment should be supervised by the teacher himself or herself. At last each assignment has to be presented in the classroom where students and teachers are expected to be present to participate in the lively discussion on the assignment. This strategy of teaching social work could be quite effective.

Camping for the students of social work may be another innovative strategy through which the students can gather practical experience about the life style of the people living in a community. This is called social work camping which is introduced as a course in social work curriculum in many schools of social work across the world. Under this course, students are taken to a particular community for staying in the camp nearby the community
for a certain period of time. Students closely interact with the community people; discuss different issues relating to the needs and problems that affect daily lives of those living in the community. They are also asked to help the community people from social work point of view so that the common people can build up confidence and feel empowered. Building rapport, holding interview, adopting the principle of acceptance, recognizing self-respect and self-dignity for the people etc could be practically learnt during social work camping. It is a complete learning process for the students of social work. Students are asked to submit a report about their social work camping at the end.

Social work students should be made volunteers too. A non-credit course may be proposed in the curriculum under which each student will have to serve as a volunteer in a service based organization for a few days. A student can involve himself or herself in voluntary activities at least once in the whole duration of study according to his or her convenience. Each student will earn a certificate as a volunteer from the organization after performing voluntary activities for the given time.

Teachers can take the students to a distressed community like a slum, or a small village, or a cornered ethnic group or a place where low income families belonging to a particular occupation live together. Students may form different groups with concrete objectives under the supervision of the teacher; and each group could be helped from group work perspective so that the group objectives are achieved. There may be many issues like adult education, health care, family planning, small trade enterprise etc on the basis of which group objectives are to be designed. Students can also organize the community people, holding meeting with them, showing video clippings, carrying placards with community members, distributing leaflets in order to raise awareness among them regarding different issues like preventing early marriage of the girls, discouraging eve-teasing, prevention of HIV/AIDS, opposing dowry system during marriage, inspiring parents for sending children
to school etc through social work strategy called community education. Even the students can organize common people in different communities on pressing issues like protesting violence against women, protecting the children from being abused, curbing corruption, protecting religious and ethnic minorities etc in order to draw the attention of the government or the concerned authorities so that legal action may be taken or social legislation may be enacted in the parliament to protect the vulnerable. These activities are performed by the social workers using an auxiliary method of social work called social action. Social work educators are expected to encourage and inspire the students to be involved in these activities that could be very much instrumental in bringing about a positive change in the society.

Social work educators can motivate the students for making a bridge with the neighboring communities located beside the university campus. Efforts could be made by the students under the supervision of the teachers toward creating ideal communities here where the problems of the community people may be resolved one by one through systematic steps undertaken by the people themselves with the active helping role played by the students as facilitators. The students will have to ensure participation of community people in different activities aimed to shooting the problems that remain irresolvable for a long time in the community. There may be many problems of that sort like problem of early marriage of girls, parents not interested to send their children to the school, disinterested to avail the opportunity of taking available medical treatment for health care, problem of dowry in marriage, putting less emphasis on girl’s education, different types of conflict between and among groups, problem of illiteracy, disorganized youths, disinterested toward adopting family planning methods etc which may be harmoniously resolved with the efforts of community people. Apart from that students can try to establish a school or a health care centre in the community with the help of community people if needed. Resources necessary for this kind of initiative could be managed from the community as well as from outside.
sources that may be from government or non-government sources. Students will have ample opportunity to make relationship with the local people living in the community, working with them, sharing ideas and experiences with them and helping them fulfill their needs. It is like learning from the ground from the part of the students.

Poverty is a major issue in Bangladesh. The knowledge and skills of social work will have to be utilized to alleviate poverty here. Questions may be raised that whether existing knowledge system of social work is sufficient and capable of handling the situation of poverty. There should not be any doubt that social development perspective needs to be advocated in social work program in developing and least developed countries. Although this line of thinking which is generally described as development model of social work has been accepted widely, the curriculum and content of social work has hardly been developed accordingly (Jha, 2001, p.352). Social work education in Bangladesh is no exception to that. If the development perspective of social work is to be emphasized in the context of Bangladesh, then the curriculum of social work should include more relevant courses from the social sciences to achieve its goals, especially courses from development economics, organizational behavior and sociology (Gore, 1981; Ramachandran, 1983). Social work educators are expected to be trained in those courses so that they can adequately show the students about the importance of applying knowledge acquired from social sciences in development activities to be undertaken by the future social workers. The students of social work need to be taught not only to support and work for maintaining the status quo in the society, but also make efforts to change the system (Desai, 1985). So the curriculum of social work may be designed taking diverse perspectives into consideration.

Lecture on social work could be prepared and delivered through power point presentation which will help the teachers accommodate more discussion on a topic and the students can also enjoy the presentation in a better attentive mood.
Effective Social Work Learning

Teaching and learning are interdependent and interrelated in any knowledge system. Teaching must ensure effective learning, especially it is utmost important in an applied discipline like social work. Since social work is considered as a profession, therefore learning should be mostly practical. The practical aspect of social work in Bangladesh is still not up to the mark. Field training, only practical aspect which is proposed as field work in the curriculum of social work at university level, may be described as aimless, insignificant and full of ambiguity causing helplessness, meaninglessness and depression for the students. Therefore, students learn little from field work (Das & Ahmed, 2012; Das, 2012). If field work is found non-effective in social work education then social work learning is bound to be incomplete, partial and less functional. Effective social work learning is therefore heavily dependent on its field work part which needs more attention to be paid immediately for the benefit of the students. Classroom learning needs to be coordinated with field practice to achieve the objectives of social work education (Akber, 1992, p.2; Islam, 1992, p. 34).

Students sent to different agencies for performing field work often fall into dark as they are inadequately instructed by the department of social work and the agency supervisor in relation to the activities that they are supposed to perform during field training. This is one of the reasons for the students involved in field training as to why they feel frustrated, confused, ill-skilled and sometimes being misled ( Das, 2012; Singh, 2010). In most cases, agency supervisor lacks social work background, even some of them are found who have come from pure science background, do not have much knowledge about social work. It is understood that students in these cases indeed struggle to learn anything from the agency and the field. The departmental teacher assigned as the internal supervisor for a group of field work students fails in many cases to supervise the students adequately and skillfully. As a
result, social work learning for the students remains to a greater extent incomplete and less successful (Das, 2012).

A considerable number of social work scholars have pointed out that American model of social work which is basically followed in Bangladesh is not that much applicable in our contexts. Students therefore find difficulties while trying to apply social work knowledge and skills at field level, feeling constrained to learning social work in full. The scholars have suggested that efforts should be made to develop and innovate indigenous knowledge or social work needs to be indigenized taking the ground reality of our contexts into account (Nagpaul, 1996, p. 151-153; Halim, 1992, p.47; Islam, 1992, p.28; Heraud, 1970, p.280-281). Immediate attention in this regard may be drawn to the concerned so that social work learning for the students could be made enjoyable, satisfying and above all knowledge fulfilling.

Coordination and exchange of views between the supervising teacher and the agency supervisor are generally considered very important for field work students to learn the application of social work practically. Department of social work should also take initiative to hold discussions about field work with the agency supervisors and the students assigned to the agencies in the beginning, mid-way through and at the end of field work for students’ effective learning (Gomez, 1992, p.40; Rahman, 1992, p.55; Sadeque, 1992, p. 34; Brown and Gloyne, 1966, p. 68-69). In many cases these strategies for effective learning and field practice are not followed causing mismanagement in the planning of field work and helplessness of the students. Sometimes too many students perform field work under one supervisor and in one agency which again put a barrier toward effective learning for the assigned students (Das and Ahmed, 2012). Supervisory meeting between and among the supervisors and students from time to time is another important component for successful field practice. Different groups of students performing field work at different agencies may
be encouraged to hold talks with each other periodically which will create another opportunity for the students to learn application of social work from each other based on their practical experience.

Seminars or workshops at the end of field practice may be arranged regularly where students can show practice of social work as they experienced it during field practice by presenting video footage. For example, students’ practice of case work or family case work or practice of counseling or application of group therapy etc performed during the period of field practice may be presented through video shows. This strategy could be quite instrumental for effective social work learning. Close monitoring by the supervisors over the activities performed as field practice by the students may bring about better results with regard to social work learning as the students remain sincere, regular, attentive and serious. Even the teachers of social work, especially the younger colleagues need to be appropriately trained up about the supervision of students performing field work so that field work students can receive proper guidelines and instructions from the supervising teacher during field practice. Both concurrent and block field work policy need to be introduced in which the students can attend theoretical class may be 3 days a week and practical class e.g. field work 2 days a week under concurrent field work; and block field work may be performed in the terminal semester. This strategy of exercising field practice probably can strengthen the overall learning process of social work practice for the students. More importantly, it is to be pointed out unequivocally about the kinds of activities that are to be performed by the field work students without which effective social work learning cannot be ensured. A field work manual based on social work knowledge and skills that are to be applied in a context where social work is planned to be practiced must be developed for the students to understand the nature of field practice the students are supposed to undertake very specifically (Das and Ahmed). The manual of field work, if appropriately planned and formulated, could be a
milestone for those studying social work for their effective social work learning in the context of Bangladesh. There are examples of poor students found unable to bear the expenses required for performing field practice. These students mostly lose their interest and enthusiasm in field work and naturally do not work hard to learn the application of social work at field level because of financial constrains. Field work students need to be supported financially, especially during the time of visiting fields under the agency. Students with field work allowance may feel encouraged to perform field work with an inquisitive mind that will help the students learn social work more effectively.

**Conclusion**

Social work education in Bangladesh may be identified with many fundamental problems, but the applicability and relevance of social work here in our contexts seem to be quite high. Reforms in the curriculum of social work needs to be introduced in terms of including relevant theoretical perspectives along with well coordinated and vibrant practical assignments that will help the students learn application of social work knowledge and skills in a more scientific and systematic way. The practical nature of social work knowledge system may fail to achieve its goals without a solid theoretical foundation; and that is what exactly found happening in Bangladesh. Despite social work being an applied discipline and its knowledge and skills are to be applied directly while social workers working with people, the curriculum of the discipline does not reflect its practicality much as the proportion of practical aspect of it in the curriculum is negligible. Social work discipline in Bangladesh is therefore neither fully theoretical nor completely practical. A well combination of relevant theory and practice seems to be required in the curriculum of social work according to the cultural milieu of our society. Practical part of social work discipline that has been included in the curricula of social work at university level in Bangladesh needs to be increased substantially so that the students can learn social work practice on the basis of their direct
experience gained during the time of their internship. Change is needed in the method of social work teaching too as it should be more practical or the lecture delivered in the classroom could be more practice oriented. Students of social work should be given enough space to participate actively in the discussion of a social work topic initiated by the class teacher. Field practice in its current nature undertaken by the students does not seem to be beneficial, rather confusing, misleading even frustrating for the students. Many of the students in fact do not know what they are expected to learn during field work or they struggle to find out specific works relevant to social work need to perform in the assigned agency or at the field level. A well planned and well designed field work manual specifying the activities to be undertaken by the students during the time of internship may be developed to help internee students resolve many deep-seated problems they face while being sent for field work. Social work education needs to be designed and redesigned according to the needs of the society; innovative social work teaching and effective social work learning can produce skilled social workers committed to successful social work practice aimed at bringing about positive changes in the lives of the people. Social work indeed can bring change.
References


DISCRIMINATION AGAINST PEOPLE WITH HIV/AIDS IN PANGKALPINANG
CITY BANGKA BELITUNG PROVINCE INDONESIA

Umi Salamah

Abstract
The study describes the situation of HIV / AIDS in Pangkalpinang city and how People With HIV/AIDS (PHA) living under the shadow of discrimination made by many parties. Discrimination give fear and discomfort also secretly cause the spread of HIV / AIDS infection are widespread. Discrimination is not only given by a few people but by almost all people because of the strong stigma against PHA. Discrimination makes PHA as if no right to live and bring powerlessness.

Introduction
The number of PHA in the city of Pangkalpinang is quite high. VCT clinic attendees in 2010 showed an increase up to 227 people, from the previous year only 28 people. Of 227 people tested for HIV, 80 tested positive (35.242%) and 30 people had entered the stage of AIDS (37.5%). Calculations of cases prevalence put Bangka Belitung Province climbed from twelve to eighth rank nationally.

Stigma
Factors that strengthens the stigma few amongs are cases founding in community, and job characteristics. Pangkalpinang society has strong ties brotherhood, for centuries they live in two major cultural assimilation, Muslim (Malay tribe) and Tiong Hoa (Chinese tribe). This assimilation forming the character of the society which one of the character is has strong rejection toward deviant. Do not be surprised if the homoseksual, transgender, biseksual as example their existence will never be accepted in any form. This factor reinforces stigma where discrimination is the only way to treat them even they are family because it is considered as ignominy.
Livelihoods of people mostly at industry, trade and services. HIV / AIDS cases are found a lot in the informal sector than the formal, so this giving off a stigma when men were working at the office and paid by the government they are all clean, while for the informal sector work, especially the bosses (mostly chinese) suspect has been infected with HIV. In fact this belief is not proved yet.

Other community stigma opinion about PHA are People with HIV are said identic with "naughty" and depraved or immoral because it was first infected amongst the prostitute and risk men. People who are HIV positive is a cheap, no honor, dirty, sinful as it deserved to be punished, to help people living with HIV means helping those who are being punished by God. HIV is highly contagious, do not go near nor touch, try not to talk, if you care you are playing with death. HIV = death, no hope. HIV / AIDS has no cure, so if you see people who are positif, you just see walking corpse. Do not buy something from PHA, PLHA because it is not hygienic. If any one of them (PHA) in your neighbourhood, expel it. They are bad people and despised, bad model for our children. We are good people, won’t infect by such a shameful disease. Those infected hit are "rogue", who can not keep lust. They (PHA) were the people who deviate, if they helped, you just spoiled them, too good for them. Just let it, do nothing, let be the punishment for their sins.

Facts of HIV / AIDS

The case which first appeared was the discovery of AIDS cases in the two men in Pangkalpinang in 2002. In 2005 AIDS cases increased to 22 cases, an increase of 90% in just of 3 years span. Aware if the phenomenon of HIV / AIDS like an iceberg, with a fact ratio of about 1 in 10, in 2011 with a population of 175,000 people for Pangkalpinang, an estimated 17,500 people have been infected with HIV.

The rapid transmission affected by natural resources of mining and tin. Some or suction dredger ship from Thailand proved became carrier of HIV virus, the Pangkalpinang
City Department of Immigration record that 1319 people is foreign workers, mostly from Thailand and China (Radar Bangka: April 28, 2012).

The main factor of contagion is through heterosexual transmission (risk behavior / prostitution) 64.22% larger than any other factor, and then through IDUs. First, HIV / AIDS cases are found in people with high risk behavioral but, the current finding found as much as 20.17% were housewives beating prostitutes that were only 6, 14%, and within a month was found 2-3 babies are born HIV positive. In ten interval, the most infected age group is 30-39 years.

**Discrimination**

Discriminative behavior highlighted in this study are in Basic Social Services Field, in Family setting and in Community setting.

Discrimination in the Field of Basic Social Services, includes discrimination in the areas of health care services, discrimination in correctional setting, and discrimination in employment and workplaces, discrimination in religious institutions, discrimination in education and discrimination in the field of HIV / AIDS programme.

*Discrimination in The Areas of Health Care Services.* Discriminative form that occur are additional charging administrative costs to patients, patients are not checked, unresponsive service, patients are untreatments, excessive precaution, burning the corpse of patients, rejection of patient care, act and verbal which negative by officers, separation from other patients, officer afraid to deal with patients, patient's secret leakage.

*Discrimination in Correctional Setting.* Forms of discrimination that occurs: threat to leak hiv status of offender by officer, other offender limit their physical and social contact to positive offender, avoidance interaction by environment, the reluctant using former goods of positive offender, reluctant to be in the same cell with positive offender, compulsory HIV
testing especially for whom in drug cases, act and verbal which negative from officers and polices, isolation of offender.

**Discrimination in Employment and Workplaces.** Forms of discrimination that occurs: Act and negative verbal from colleagues, being treated different in contrast to non-positive, no one wants to buy goods especially foods from PHA and PLHA, not having the opportunity to be employed, termination of employment due to their HIV status.

**Discrimination in Religious Institutions.** Forms of discrimination that happens: the body of PHA who has passed away is not be prayed (one of funeral ritual by Muslims), expelled from worship places, rejection for PHA involvement in religious activities.

**Discrimination in Education.** In this setting, there is no reported cases of HIV/AIDS yet. The cause, first, fear of disclosing status and second schools covered the cases to maintain their reputation. The opinion on how if students and the parent know if there is PHA in their school, the answer are: maintain a distance with PHA, students keep stay away from PHA, students afraid of PHA, the parents are not willing their children make friends with PHA, the parent will make complaint for PHA to be moved or expelled from the school.

**Discrimination in the Field of HIV / AIDS Programme.** Programmes which is running still focused on changing the high-risk behavior and are clearly divided their work into two groups, the population of deviant (biseksual, transgender, heteroseksual) and the general population.

**Discrimination In Family**

Characteristics of families in Pangkalpinang City mostly are ekstended family, those strengthened the resistance. Forms of discrimination that occur: severe quarrel between the couple (particularly those with wives who infected from her husband), lying to their couple (fear of disclosing), divorce, termination of brotherhood bond, burned or removed the former PHA goods by family members, exile and expulsion from the house.
Discrimination in Society

Pangkalpinang City society living in the cultural assimilation that has lasted so long between Malay culture and China. In plain view, it may look absolutely peaceful, but there is also possibility of latent conflict potency for which then reinforces the stigma. Most cases are found in people of TiongHoa descent, and the bosses (who lots Chinese) blamed as virus spreader. Forms of discrimination that occurs: Throwing PHA into unpeople island (PHA are considered as deviant population and problems, so when the population is exiled to an island, it must be solved the problems), negative verbal from the community, expulsion and the most extreme is to burn the house of PHA, in the last five years, reported four houses had been burned.

The Impact of Discrimination

The impact when PHA firstly know their status is Self-discrimination, blaming themself and God. They feel fear to go out place of services, let themself for not take the medicine, afraid of being humiliated, do not eat and hoping for death earlier, locked themself in their room, refusing to talk to anyone, did not want to seek treatment or even commit for suicide, and as complement when they heard that PHA are treated bad by environment they fear to be known by other people. They will keep confidential of their status until death, it is even fear of unhappened discrimination that has been received by their friends who might happen to them. Further, the risk people do not want conducting an HIV test in reason not ready to be discriminated. They feel unfair, insulted, threatened, powerless, they want a revenge with transmit the virus to as much as people they can to show their power. Discrimination makes them living in anxious and uncomfortable, moved into other house frequently, hiding drugs in powder, pocket, and a bottle of vitamins. Sector of jobs which less risky for them is the informal sector. Physical limitations and discrimination brought them in poverty.
Resolution

Research shows if discriminative act in Pangkalpinang city is relatively strong. In qualitative measures by comparing the case of acceptance and rejection, refusal cases that led to the violation of PHA rights are bigger than the reception cases. Acceptance of PHA is still limited in the level of family and organizational levels. Wider acceptance need to be done.

In problem approach where the stigma of being the main root, it needs awareness repeatedly to straighten the false beliefs. Counseling and increased knowledge to limited people still not able to eliminate discrimination. Therefore, the problem solving approach alone is not the answer to solving the problem holistically. Necessary to create an environment that is conducive to eliminating discrimination.

Based on systems approach where public acceptance should be encouraged is community-level problem solving. Public participation in tackling social problems is not the original idea. Community participation is the basis of the value of the macro social work. Thus, increasing public acceptance and respecting the principle of participatory can be realized by establishing a caring community forums of HIV/AIDS which within will be applied values, knowledge and skills of social work. The establishment of this forum requiring social assistance within a certain time until finally considered independent and can be organized locally.

Based on human rights approach, consider the way of solving problems through advocacy. Advocacy by pointing to make regulations or agreement to not discriminate PHA is entering point to create the conditions to achieve social functioning of PHA.

In conclusion, in order to eliminate discrimination, analytical approach clarify two things. Elimination of discrimination should be done in two ways, internal and external.
Internal way is to perform repetitive awareness as effort to streamlining stigma. External way by creating conducive conditions and environment, and not to discriminate PHA in two ways, legislative way and community way. Legislative way is to create an environment of policy that does not discriminate PHA. Community way by creating an community environment that does not discriminate PHA by making forums concerned with HIV/AIDS.

References


MAKE PENANG BREASTFEEDING FRIENDLY: A SOCIAL CAMPAIGN BY VOLUNTEER MOTHERS

Vasumathi Subramanian and Sabrina Sunderraj

Abstract

Mother to Mother Peer Support (MMPS) is a registered non-governmental organization (NGO) initiated by a few women to provide voluntary support for breastfeeding mothers. After being active for 5 years, the group realized a need to create public awareness on the importance of a breastfeeding friendly environment. Hence the group initiated a community campaign called Make Penang Breastfeeding Friendly (MPBF). This paper examines initiation process, efforts taken and the challenges endured by these volunteer mothers in promoting and supporting breastfeeding in the state of Penang.

Introduction

Breastfeeding is an important part of nourishing and nurturing a child, according to the World Health Organisation (WHO) exclusive breastfeeding for the first six months of life is the recommended way of feeding infants, followed by continued breastfeeding with appropriate complementary foods for up to two years or beyond. Breastfeeding provides the perfect and ideal food for the healthy growth and development of a baby. It also strongly contributes to bonding between mother and baby which lays the foundation for a sense of security, belonging and ultimately the unconditional love that the child need. Often, breastfeeding is perceived as something that only benefits the child and not the mother. Contrary to this belief, the benefits of breastfeeding are unlimited and involve everyone.

For the baby, breastfeeding reduces susceptibility to common childhood illnesses and better resistance to cope with them. Breastmilk provides sufficient antibodies to protect the baby from bacteria and viruses which can attack a new-born’s immune system.

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7 Ibid
Exclusively breastfed children are less likely to be affected by ear and respiratory infection\(^8\)(Allen & Hector, 2005). They seldom fall sick and this translates to a happier and healthier family condition.

From the mother’s perspective, breastfeeding is an essential part of the reproductive process with implications for her health\(^9\). Breastfeeding ensures a speedier recovery from the birthing process and expedites weight loss; it protects mothers from post-partum depression, provides natural family planning process and reduces the risk of breast and ovarian cancer\(^10\)(Dermer, 2001). The hormones released during breastfeeding, mainly oxytocin and prolactin\(^11\)(Palmer, 2002) creates natural bonding between mother and the child. By choosing breastfeeding, the entire family will be able to reduce medical costs via fewer visits to the doctors and importantly the family finances are secure since there is no spending on expensive artificial/formula milk. In totality, breastfeeding creates a well-balanced family environment that eventually leads to a harmonious society\(^12\); therefore, breastfeeding has a tremendous potential impact on the social, economic and cultural aspects of a society.

According to WHO, the mother and baby are an inseparable biological unit and the health of each cannot be separated from the health and nutrition of the other\(^13\). However, in today’s world, breastfeeding has become a secondary choice, overwhelmed by the artificial

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\(^12\) WABA 2008 World Breastfeeding Week Action Folder, *Mother Support Going For The Gold*.

\(^13\) Global Strategy for Infant and Young Child Feeding, World Health Organization, [http://www.who.int/nutrition/publications/gs_infant_feeding_text_eng.pdf](http://www.who.int/nutrition/publications/gs_infant_feeding_text_eng.pdf)
substitute: - formula milk. Professor Anwar Fazal\textsuperscript{14} (Fazal, 2010), Director of Right Livelihood College, says:-

“This natural way of nurturing the future was unfortunately, wickedly, irresponsibly and even, some would say, criminally undermined by those who unceasingly hunger for profits promoted so-called “breastmilk substitutes” carelessly and callously all over the globe. Many thousands of babies die each year because they did not enjoy the benefits of breastfeeding, and multiples of thousands more grow up deprived of the many wonders of this special gift of God, of nature and of the mother.”

Innocent babies are being deprived from their birth right – having mothers milk! Women are reluctant to breastfeed for many reasons and even if they choose to breastfeed, they face challenges from family members to the community at large. Breastfeeding is perceived as abnormal while formula milk feeding is seen as the normal way to feed a baby. This is far from the truth and to change these perspective women and their families need correct knowledge, awareness and support to breastfeed. Realising this situation, several movements and organizations actively participate in three major aspects of breastfeeding promotion which is protecting, promoting and supporting breastfeeding. Some of the predominant organizations spearheading these efforts are United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF\textsuperscript{15}), WHO, World Alliance of Breastfeeding Action (WABA\textsuperscript{16}), International Baby Food Action Network (IBFAN\textsuperscript{17}) and La Leche League International (LLL\textsuperscript{18}).

\textsuperscript{14} Anwar Fazal (Director Right Livelihood College, Chairperson Emeritus, World Alliance For Breastfeeding Action, Penang), Foreword Speech, The State of Breastfeeding in 33 Countries 2010, Tracking Infant and Young Child Feeding Policies and Program Worldwide, Pg vii.
\textsuperscript{15} UNICEF is an agency devoted to the welfare of children and cooperates with the World Health Organization. \url{www.unicef.org}
\textsuperscript{16} WABA is a global network of organization and individuals concerned with the protection, promotion & support of breastfeeding worldwide and work in collaboration with UNICEF and WHO. \url{www.waba.org.my}
\textsuperscript{17} IBFAN is consists of public interest groups working around the world to reduce infant and young child morbidity and mortality. IBFAN aims to improve the health and well-being of babies and young children, their
In Malaysia, the Third National Health and Morbidity Survey (NHMS III)\(^{19}\) (Saadiah, A, Imam, & Faudzi, 2010) reports that the overall prevalence of exclusive breastfeeding below six months was only 14.5% whereas the overall prevalence of infants initiated breastfeeding within the first one hour of birth was at 63.7%. The report also states, the prevalence of exclusively breastfeeding was highest among infants younger than two months at 26.7% dropping rapidly to 11.7% in infants aged between two to three months. The prevalence further declined by almost half to 6.1% in infants between the ages of four to five months. It was also noted that the percentage of infants who stopped breastfeeding increased rapidly in infants 4 months and above.

These statistics begs the questions: What is the fundamental reason for women to stop breastfeeding once they are discharged from the hospital? What is causing the huge drop in breastfeeding rate within the first six months? Is she getting enough support at home or is she lacking valuable information on “how” to breastfeed? From our work at MMPS we find that the constant primary reasons have so far been the (a) lack of access to correct information, (b) improper preparation before birth, and (c) lack of a breastfeeding support system for a mother from family to community. For a mother to succeed in breastfeeding in an environment that does not put a premium on breastfeeding as the natural way to feeding a baby the challenges are doubled. Thus, breastfeeding is no longer only the prerogative of the mother; it is a community effort and must be high on the agenda of public health.

We, the volunteer mothers of MMPS, faced the same challenges like every other mother to breastfeed our children. The difference was, we were able to battle the challenges and overcome it and this was simply because we had “support” – some of us from our

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mothers and their families through the protection, promotion and support of breastfeeding and optimal infant feeding practices. [www.ibfan.org](http://www.ibfan.org)

\(^{18}\) LLLI is an international, nonprofit, nonsectarian organization dedicated to providing education, information, support, and encouragement to women who want to breastfeed. [www.llli.org](http://www.llli.org)

spouses, some from family members, some from a doctor who believes in breastfeeding benefits and many from other mothers who had breastfed. What women need most is correct information and a supportive system to breastfeed – with these two, she develops the confidence to succeed no matter what.

Having recognised this need a local paediatrician and lactation expert initiated a move with WABA to provide peer counsellor training to a group of mothers who were passionate about breastfeeding and its benefits, but needed to know how to respond to questions and needs of other mothers. This first training was conducted by Ms. Sue Saunders\(^{20}\) for three days in December 2007. Equipped with the knowledge of peer counselling, Mother-to-Mother-Peer-Support a voluntary mother support group was born in Penang and had their first support group meeting in March 2008. Later, other mothers attended the Malaysian Breastfeeding Peer Counsellor Training (MBPC) which is an on-going Malaysian program conducted every year by Susuibu\(^{21}\), funded by UNICEF and supported by WABA. With this knowledge, these volunteer mothers provide necessary support for women to breastfeed within a local proximity.

MMPS holds support group meetings every 1\(^{st}\) Saturday of the month where mothers get to learn and share knowledge about breastfeeding. At these meetings, a mother gets free one-to-one counselling or group counselling depending on what she and her family are comfortable with. Our guide and advisor to the group is a paediatrician and lactation consultant who is available at most of our meetings; she also helps with medical cases voluntarily. MMPS particularly encourages fathers, mothers, mothers-in-law and/or

\(^{20}\)Sue Saunders is the Director of Professional Development in International Lactation Consultant Association. She has a general nursing, midwifery and breastfeeding counseling background and has been an IBCLC and ILCA member for over 20 years. In 2007, she served as the inaugural ILCA Fellow at WABA in Penang and was appointed the ILCA WABA Liaison in 2009, before commencing the current post of Director of Professional Development.

\(^{21}\)Susuibu.com – is a breastfeeding support center that focuses on providing breastfeeding consultation services, education and training to the healthcare workers and the public. www.susuibu.com
confinement lady to attend the sessions because these are the key people who will be around a mother post-delivery phase.

On a daily basis and as much as possible in real time we communicate through our blog site\textsuperscript{22}, Facebook\textsuperscript{23}, e-mail\textsuperscript{24}, telecommunication both via voice calls and text messages. For telephone calls we prefer the mother or father to call us as our volunteers cannot always afford to make the calls. We sometimes do home visits and confinement centre\textsuperscript{25} visits free of charge and only when needed to support a special case mother after delivery. Some of our mothers also give their excess milk to babies who need it, such as in the case of a mother who tragically passed away a few hours after baby’s birth and the father called us for providing breastmilk for his baby. We have provided this service since last year.

We are also invited to give talks at factories, shopping malls, places of worships and confinement centres. These activities requires tremendous amount of time, energy and effort to be invested by MMPS’s volunteer mothers. In February 2012, MMPS was registered as a Non-Governmental Organisation; however it has no office space and is run by mothers from their homes. Many are working mothers, running their own businesses; working at offices full-time or part-time and some studying (like this author!).

One of the core values in MMPS is to render service to mothers on a voluntary basis with no monetary incentives. We were motivated by passion and the spirit to help others. We don’t sell any breastfeeding information because we believe breastmilk is nature’s ‘free gift’ hence the information should also be free.

We are in our fifth year and over time and experience we believe that an enabling environment for mothers to breastfeed must be created and this should involve family and

\textsuperscript{22}MMPS blog \url{http://pgmmps.wordpress.com/}
\textsuperscript{23}MMPS is on the social networking site Facebook as Mother to Mother Peer Support \url{http://www.facebook.com/group.php?gid=7797557166}
\textsuperscript{24}MMPS e-mail pgmmps@gmail.com
\textsuperscript{25}Confinement center is a place a mum stays for a period stipulated time after she delivers her baby and often she have to pay for the service rendered.
community, the health care system, government and legislation, workplace and employment, public spaces and importantly a socially responsible media.

The environment has the highest influence in a person’s performance in life. According to Social Systems Theory\(^{26}\) (Teater, 2010), a person (systems) influences other systems around them and in reverse those systems will also affect the person. The theory focuses on the development and transformation of systems, the interaction and the relationships between them. Based on this theory, if a woman is in the middle of a system, there are other multiple systems which encourage or discourage her to breastfeed. The component of the system that affects her could consist of her partner, her family, her doctor, the hospital in which she seeks treatment (pre-post natal), her child’s paediatrician, babysitter, her work place and external system such as the information she gets from the media, community practises and perceptions. If our focus is to encourage women to breastfeed, all the systems related to her needs intervention. This was the push-factor for us to engage in a macro level advocacy on breastfeeding, we could no longer function within our original scope which was micro level individual support. Till date it has been policy makers and other top-level individuals representing major organisations that have been at the forefront of the breastfeeding movement, we mothers feel it’s time for mothers to support ourselves – there are several studies that prove every now and then that a mother’s milk is perfect for a baby and excellent for a mother’s health and for a better and healthier community, but we mother do not know about them and we do not engage enough at decision-making tables that make decisions about us. We need to be counted in and we need to make ourselves heard.

**Strategy and Implementation**

Thus the idea of “Make Penang Breastfeeding Friendly” was first called for at World Breastfeeding Week 2010 where the State Exco of Youth, Sports, Women, Family and

Community Development, Yang Berhormat Lydia Ong Kok Fooi was the main sponsor and Chief Guest. This set in motion a request from the Exco to MMPS to develop a proposal with help from WABA. WABA’s expertise in policy making and worldwide implementation contributed to develop a phased proposal for Breastfeeding promotion, while MMPS’s comprehension of immediate needs of mothers and direct access to the target group i.e. the mothers contributed to making it an action based process. After multiple rounds of meetings and discussions, the proposal of “Make Penang Breastfeeding Friendly” (MPBF) took shape and was endorsed by the State of Penang for 2012.

MPBF is a project that requires consistent partnership and collaboration among various entities in both government and private sectors. The primary objective of the campaign is to provide an enabling environment for mothers to breastfeed in the State of Penang. The duration of this project is estimated to be 6 years (2012 ~2017) and the implementation is separated into 3 phases. We are now in the process of engaging the Exco for year 2013; State funding is decided on a yearly basis therefore as of now we do not know whether the endorsement will continue. Our line of reasoning is that for a change in perception and attitude to occur in a community needs time and persistence and therefore a programme like MPBF needs to be continuous to reach full impact.

**Phase One (2012-2013)**

In Phase 1, we have completed year 2012 and MMPS has bid for endorsement for 2013. There are 3 main goals for this phase.

- Increase visibility of breastfeeding related messages via public promotions.
- Increase number of breastfeeding supporters and peer counsellors.
- Increase networking and partnership with employers, other NGOs and target groups.

Each of the goals required specific objectives to be formulated towards successful implementation. It required multiple activities planned to reach targeted group via support
from various entities. Details of the implementation during this phase are described in Table 1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Objective:</strong> To support mothers who breastfeed by creating an enabling environment.</th>
<th><strong>Activities</strong></th>
<th><strong>Expected output</strong></th>
<th><strong>Target</strong></th>
<th><strong>Stakeholders</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create nursing stations/breastfeeding corners at government offices, malls, public places, and workplaces.</td>
<td>More working mothers will continue to breastfeed/express breastmilk Breastfeeding will be ‘normalized’ among the society/community.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>State government Employers Business premise owners</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breastfeeding hotlines/help for mothers to obtain information and help.</td>
<td>Mothers choose/continue to breastfeed because of available help and encouragement.</td>
<td>Mothers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengthen Mother support groups.</td>
<td>Mother support groups will be able to sustain/main help and counseling to breastfeeding mothers.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Objective:</strong> To raise awareness and educate the public about breastfeeding.</th>
<th><strong>Activities</strong></th>
<th><strong>Expected output</strong></th>
<th><strong>Target</strong></th>
<th><strong>Stakeholders</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collaborate to incorporate breastfeeding related information in all state level ongoing programs and campaigns (e.g. International Women’s Day, anti-obesity campaign, Greener Penang campaign).</td>
<td>Breastfeeding is placed in a larger context of issues. Breastfeeding is seen as women’s and child’s health issue, environment issue and among the public domain.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>State government Other NGOs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness campaign using brochures, posters etc. on benefits of breastfeeding and risk of formula feeding in schools, public places and work places.</td>
<td>Students, employers and the public will have accurate information on breastfeeding and may act as proponents of breastfeeding promotion, protection and support.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>State government Employers Schools University Hospitals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorporate World Breastfeeding Week as a state level event and have activities (breastfeeding talks, simultaneous nurse-ins, arts/performances) for the whole month of August.</td>
<td>Wider information outreach among the public that will enable parents to make informed choices on infant feeding.</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>State government Business premise owners Other NGOs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Objective:</strong> To increase recognition on breastfeeding support and initiatives.</th>
<th><strong>Activities</strong></th>
<th><strong>Expected output</strong></th>
<th><strong>Target</strong></th>
<th><strong>Stakeholders</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create a logo to indicate Penang</td>
<td>Breastfeeding will be accepted</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>State</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Baby Friendly program that will be given to public premises, workplace, hospitals etc. that have breastfeeding facilities and normalized in all public places. More women will breastfeed anytime, anywhere due to available space/facilities. government Employers Business premise owners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Implementation strategy during Phase 1 (2012-2013)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

In 2012 we have achieved outreach to a greater number of women and their families through taking part in exhibitions, talks, seminars and holding free ante-natal classes aside from our regular 1st Saturday of the month meetings. We know that we have reached more women from the increase in the number of families coming to our 1st Saturday of the month meetings and the number of members in our Facebook is now above 2000. People are aware of our group much more and this translates to the public wanting to know more about breastfeeding and seeking a support group like ours. For more on what we have done see page 16.

State funds were also used to create and print relevant materials on Breastfeeding information that were given away freely to the public. We also made a signature bookmark that elucidates the 6 Steps to Make Penang Breastfeeding Friendly, we have thus far collected over 1000 signatures supporting our cause. Our current project is the creation of a Breastfeeding Book that will be unique as it includes not only information on how and why to breastfeed, but also on how to practically support a mother.

At each WBW celebration MMPS has been holding 1 Minute Simultaneous Breastfeeding with hospitals, confinement homes and individual mothers online from all over Malaysia breastfeeding their babies for 1 minute at the same time. This is our grassroots outreach strategy, from having 66 mothers the very first time to crossing the 1000 mark was a highlight and goes to show persistence is important in such community based work. We have seen that some hospitals actually display the certificate we mail out to them for their participation. In the future this could be part of the Baby Friendly Hospital Initiative (BFHI)
implementation process.

**Phase Two (2014-2015)**

There are two primary goals for this phase.

- First, strengthen the support and build capacity of various stakeholders who are involved in breastfeeding.
- Second to implement measures to ensure breastfeeding support is available widely in workplace.

Achieving these goals requires substantial amount of effort invested in collaboration with various organisation such as hospitals, NGOs, media, government and private sectors.

Table 2 below summarises the implementation plan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives: Build capacity of health care professionals and increase outreach with media.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitate effective training of postnatal health care nurses and child care providers on breastfeeding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training for mother support and peer counselors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campaign to address problems of marketing strategies and company promoters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workshop/training for media on breastfeeding related issues and advocacy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives: Institutionalize breastfeeding friendly campaign initiative in hospitals and workplace.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give incentives to healthcare facilities and employers to adopt Breastfeeding friendly campaign initiative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage corporate sectors to support and have breastfeeding programs at workplace under corporate social responsibility projects.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: Implementation strategy in Phase 2 (2012-2014)**
**Phase Three (2016-2017)**

The final phase of the implementation is expected to begin in early 2016. The goals during this final phase are categorized into 3 major areas.

- Advocate for change in law that requires employers to provide nursing breaks and breastfeeding corners.
- More private hospitals participate in the Baby Friendly Hospital Initiative (BFHI).
- Regular assessment of the breastmilk substitutes code.

Phase 3 strategic objectives and implementation plans are still being crafted pending the outcome and success from both previous phases. We also found that at times what we planned for in Phase 2 tends to happen in Phase 1 because the opportunity presented itself and it would be ridiculous to let it pass by. At the end of each phase, we re-examine the successfulness and the impact of each initiative thus allowing us an opportunity to re-strategize or manoeuvre our plans. Our ultimate goal is to leave a long lasting impact into the social fabric of this society. We aim to achieve this impact in the following six areas:

- Family and Community
- Health Care
- Workplace and Employment
- Government and Legislation
- Media
- Public Spaces

**Family and Community**

Breastfeeding is a collective effort of a family and not just the mother. The process of breastfeeding starts even before the arrival of the baby as mental preparation is vital. A supportive partner is vital in this process of learning and decision making. Therefore, seeking the correct information is important to a successful experience in breastfeeding. Information can be obtained from hospitals or clinics that she visits for her prenatal check-ups, doctor or
medical practitioners, friends who have breastfed or are breastfeeding, attending antenatal classes or joining a breastfeeding support group.

This support is even more needed after the baby is born. This is the time where the mother will be physically weak, tired and mentally depressed because of all the changes that are happening in her body. An encouraging word from her partner will motivate her to breastfeed her child. Her family can provide practical support for her by preparing a healthy and nutritious food, providing help with household chores and helping in the care of older children.

Teresa Pitman\(^{27}\) (Pitman, 2008) a LLL Leader asserts that:

> “What mothers need most from family and friends is not breastfeeding advice or cans of formula. They need practical help with housework, meals and caring for older children, because learning to breastfeed can take up a lot of time in the early days and weeks. They need encouragement and reassurance. Knowing that the person around her feel confident in her ability to master breastfeeding makes the mother feel more confident as well.”

**Health Care**

Health care systems can functions in two ways. First; providing a breastfeeding friendly environment for their own employees. Second; play a critical role in supporting their clients (mothers) to breastfeed. By providing a breastfeeding friendly environment for their employees, the health care institution will be leading by example. Mothers working in the health care facilities need to be given adequate breastfeeding breaks, breastfeeding rooms/space to express milk and clean storage facilities. This will create a breastfeeding spirit among the employees and they will promote it to other mothers who are coming there as clients/patients.

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Hospitals should put effort into promoting breastfeeding as well. Early initiation of breastfeeding or breastfeeding in the first hour of birth is important to establish a steady breastfeeding process. Mothers and babies who begin breastfeeding immediately after birth are more likely to successfully establish and sustain breastfeeding throughout infancy and early childhood\(^\text{28}\) (INFACT Canada).

More health care facilities should obtain BFHI which clearly indicates 10 steps to be followed by health care systems to promote breastfeeding. The objective of BFHI is to empower women to make the right choice on feeding and to create conducive conditions in hospitals to breastfeed. The 10 steps are:

- Have a written breastfeeding policy that is routinely communicated to all health care staff.
- Train all health care staff in skills necessary to implement this policy.
- Inform all pregnant women about the benefits and management of breastfeeding.
- Help mothers initiate breastfeeding within one half-hour of birth.
- Show mothers how to breastfeed and maintain lactation, even if they are separated from their infants.
- Give new-borns infants no food or drink other than breastmilk, unless medically indicated.
- Practice rooming in - that is, allow mothers and infants to remain together 24 hours a day.
- Encourage breastfeeding on demand.
- Give no artificial teats or pacifiers (also called dummies or soothers) to breastfeeding infants.
- Foster the establishment of breastfeeding support groups and refer mothers to them on discharge from the hospital or clinic.

Malaysia adopted BFHI policy since 1993. As of 2009, out of 316 hospitals there are 125 BFHI hospitals in Malaysia which is inclusive of 115 government hospitals, 2 army

hospitals, 2 university hospitals and 6 private hospitals\(^{29}\)(Ministry of Health Malaysia). In Malaysia, the Third National Health and Morbidity Survey 2006 (NHMS III)\(^{30}\)(S, Saadiah, A, Imam, & Faudzi, 2010) reports that the overall prevalence of infants initiated breastfeeding within one hour of birth was 63.7\% compared to 41.4\% in the Second National Health and Morbidity Survey which was conducted in 1996. This increment could be the results of the BFHI implementation and therefore more health care facilities should work on achieving the status. Malaysia’s Health Minister, Datuk Seri Liow Tiong Lai also stressed that more hospitals especially private hospitals should be encouraged to earn the BFHI status in order to increase the breastfeeding rate in Malaysia\(^{31}\), however the details on what exactly would encourage private hospitals to become BFHI was not discussed.

**Workplace and Employment**

Support from workplace is very important for women to continue breastfeeding because it helps her to combine her reproductive and productive work\(^{32}\)(IBFAN, 2010). Facilities or privilege such as paid maternity leave, non-discrimination, breastfeeding breaks, breastfeeding facilities (space to express milk and storage), crèches and etc. are vital in creating a breastfeeding friendly environment.

In Malaysia, government employees are entitled for a customised maternity leave between 60 days to 90 days\(^{33}\) whereas most private sectors provide 60 days of maternity leave in compliance with Malaysia’s Employment Act 1955\(^{34}\). This duration is far too short

\(^{29}\) BFHI A Part of Global Strategy, Ministry of Health Malaysia  
\(^{32}\) *The State of Breastfeeding in 33 Countries 2010, Tracking Infant and Young Child Feeding Policies and Program Worldwide*, 2010 Pg 32, Publisher IBFAN (Africa, Asia, Latin America and Caribbean) .  
\(^{33}\) Public Service Department of Malaysia. www.jpa.gov.my  
\(^{34}\) Malaysian Employment Act 1955: Part IX Maternity Protection: Every female employee shall be entitled to maternity leave for a period of not less than sixty consecutive days (also referred to in this Part as the eligible
than the duration of exclusive breastfeeding which is 6 months. This leads to a situation where women have to make a choice between breastfeeding and their paid job. A sudden drop in breastfeeding rate after 2 months (from 26.7% for infants below 2 months to 11.7% for infants aged between 2 to 3 months)\(^35\) (S, Saadiah, A, Imam, & Faudzi, 2010) proves that returning to work has a negative impact on breastfeeding. Penny Van Estrik\(^36\), one of the pioneers of the breastfeeding movement says:

“Women are empowered by asserting the value of both their productive and reproductive work. Women should never be forced to make a choice between motherwork and other work. Conditions supportive to successful nurturing are conditions which reduce gender subordination generally by contradicting negative images of women and emphasising the value of women’s reproductive work.”

On the other hand, Mr. Youssouf Oomar\(^37\), UNICEF representative to Malaysia also emphasised on providing breastfeeding support for working women:

“We must establish a culture of breastfeeding as the normal, natural and preferred method of feeding infants and young children and to provide specific measures to enable working mothers to continue breastfeeding.”

Therefore employers need to provide a longer maternity leave or sufficient facilities for a mother to express and store her milk. A clean and comfortable breastfeeding room/space/corner needs to be allocated for easy expression of milk. If breastfeeding breaks are not provided adequately, than a nearby or in-house crèche should be made available. This


will create a very positive environment for a mother to continue breastfeeding while performing her paid job.

An effort taken by National Union of Bank Employees (NUBE) and Malaysian Commercial Banks Association (MCBA) brought good news for mothers working in banking sector, thus enjoying a 90 days paid maternity leave since 2010\(^{38}\). Similar efforts need to be taken by other organisations in providing breastfeeding friendly environment.

**Government and Legislation**

Government sector can contribute in multiple ways for enabling a breastfeeding friendly environment:–

- By providing breastfeeding room/space for their employees and customers.
- Including or incorporating breastfeeding into curriculum.
- Give impact to International Code of Breastfeeding and Breastmilk Substitutes\(^{39}\).
- Recognising and supporting other organisations that supports breastfeeding

Each of the action above will collectively create a supportive environment for breastfeeding both by increasing the awareness and also reducing the promotion of formula milk. In fact government have a strong say in all the key areas discussed above; health care, employment, family & community.

To pioneer this effort, Penang State Government has allocated a room in their office at Komtar, 47th Floor\(^{40}\). More government offices should adopt this policy in order to create a breastfeeding friendly environment. Education system should also include breastfeeding information in the curriculum. Early exposure to breastfeeding especially on the benefit of breastfeeding will encourage younger generation to be aware of breastfeeding when they

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\(^{39}\) The International Code of Marketing of Breastmilk Substitutes is an international health policy framework for breastfeeding promotion adopted by the World Health Assembly (WHA) of the World Health Organization (WHO) in 1981. The Code was developed as a global public health strategy and recommends restrictions on the marketing of breastmilk substitutes. [http://www.who.int/nutrition/publications/code_english.pdf](http://www.who.int/nutrition/publications/code_english.pdf)

become parents in future. Mothers need to know that distribution of free formula milk is a violation of the Code against the Marketing of Breastmilk Substitutes. A crucial contribution that a government can do is to recognise an organisation that supports breastfeeding. They can reward workplaces, media, organisations, public spaces through government incentives and other means of recognition.

**Media**

Media plays an important role in commercialising any product or services. Hence, media should disseminate the correct information about breastfeeding from all aspects. They can always assure that promotion of commercial baby foods, feeding bottles and teats do not violate the International Code of Marketing Breastmilk Substitute. Media can always lead a breastfeeding campaign by engaging celebrities and/or prominent figure in promoting and supporting breastfeeding.

**Public Spaces**

Breastfeeding is a noble act of a mother in providing food for her child. A mother should not be punished, discouraged or chased for feeding her baby in public. Public spaces such as restaurants, malls, highway stops, airports, places of worships should provide breastfeeding rooms for mothers to breastfeed their babies in dignity. By providing more facilities to breastfeed, breastfeeding will be an accepted norm and the whole society will move towards a pro-breastfeeding environment.

**Accomplishments and Challenges**

Since 2012, the team has managed to initiate many activities and program. Some of our key accomplishments are summarised in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Locations</th>
<th>Aim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Breastfeeding Flash Mob + Information Booth</td>
<td>Gurney Plaza, Queensbay Mall, Gurney Paragon, Sunshine Farlim, Kolej Damansara Utama (KDU), Penang Times Square,</td>
<td>Make Breastfeeding a norm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breastfeeding Talks</td>
<td>Altera, Jelutong Sri Veerama Kaliyaman</td>
<td>Information on why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Information Booth + talk</strong></td>
<td>Osram, Gurney Paragon</td>
<td>Correct information on BF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Breastfeeding Classes</strong></td>
<td>Penang Youth Park Training room May 2012</td>
<td>Prepare mothers and fathers on BF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appreciation</strong></td>
<td>Recognition during World Breastfeeding Week Celebration for workplaces and public spaces which provided breastfeeding room – 13 facilities (10 Manufacturing companies, 2 Malls, 1 Temple)</td>
<td>Encourage those who support BF to continue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Breastfeeding rooms built</strong></td>
<td>Komtar 47th Floor Jelutong Sri Veerama Kaliammman Temple</td>
<td>Support mothers and make BF a norm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Information sharing and counselling</strong></td>
<td>Support Group Meeting every 1st Saturday of the month.</td>
<td>Share correct information on BF and provide a support system to rely on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Government and Legislation</strong></td>
<td>Local government (MPPP and MPSB) has passed bill to have breastfeeding room in all future buildings.</td>
<td>Government leading by example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Collaboration with media</strong></td>
<td>GSC Cinema screening of UNICEF’s BF promotion video “Baby Bubbly” for two months Advertisement on Rapid Bus, Penang (in progress)</td>
<td>Media / Advertisement creating BF awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Creation and printing of Breastfeeding Information Materials</strong></td>
<td>Freely given at talks, seminars, exhibitions, Saturday gatherings, WBW celebrations etc.</td>
<td>For mothers and fathers to get the right information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Activities done during Phase 1 of the implementation**

Although the group has managed to create an impact in small but effective ways, it has been tough going on the team’s time and resources. For one, it is very demanding on the time of women who work 9-5 or in part time jobs, care for their family members, babies and toddlers, complete household chores and ensure food is on the table on time. So the core mothers work at night, sometimes at odd hours to do write ups and proposals, then sneak out some time from work or university to make or take calls, attend key seminars or talks, taking leave from work or requesting a professors help to accommodate. We do this for no salary;
it’s simply a passion to reach out as much as possible and truly make Penang the first Breastfeeding friendly state in Malaysia. Our deepest hope is that all of Malaysia will follow suit and we will truly be caring country.

Some of the key challenges to MMPS are centred on finance and resources constraint. Securing a proper and sustainable funding for any social works remains a major challenge. We were heavily dependent on the State government to provide the funding to carry out major part of the project and the remaining would be supported through public fund raising. The core mothers of MMPS also contributed their time and effort voluntarily which reduced the overall cost of implementation.

Another common issue we faced was lack of manpower in carrying the event effectively. Some of the implementation had to be distributed and done in stages due to the shortage of resources. Since most of the efforts were done voluntarily, we were not able to expedite or shorten any of project implementation timeline.

Despite these challenges and many more, the team is still very determined to proceed forward with their plans in a slow but steady manner. We have also started to broaden our networking and seeking to extend our collaboration with other NGOs and government bodies. We believe these efforts coupled with increasing support and awareness from the public will be able to help us reach our goal of living in a world where breastfeeding our children is a norm.

**Conclusion**

In summary the Make Penang Breastfeeding Friendly campaign is a mammoth effort that is being tackled by small group of volunteer mothers. From a humble beginning of just providing support to a small group of mothers in need, MMPS is now embarking on a journey to leave a lasting impact in the social fabric of the State of Penang. Detailed planning coupled with implementation strategies which have been segmented into phases are being
executed in a coordinated manner. The year 2012 has seen an increase in women contacting our group and seeking information on Breastfeeding. Achieving the end state is fraught with challenges but with sheer determination and selfless voluntarism, MMPS can make it happen. We intend to get our message across to a broader audience and learn from others by presenting our work at major conferences and through publication thus expanding beyond Penang State.

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PUBLIC INTEREST LITIGATION AS A TOOL OF SOCIAL ACTION: A SOCIAL
WORK PERSPECTIVE

Yasir Ellathody

Abstract

Social Work professionals use different methods and strategies for the better life of the individual and society. Social Action volunteers in democratic states employ various tools to achieve the desired results. Public Interest Litigation (PIL) is one of such powerful tools. PIL has been given high regard by the Indian social and judicial system. It has been extensively used by social workers for various objectives. PIL is principally different from other forms of litigations and judicial procedures. It is a social device of a social activist rather than that of a judicial activist. In its true sense PIL was not given due attention by the social work professionals in the past. The present study is an academic attempt to view PIL through Social Work outlook with a strict Indian context. The paper has attempted to connect PIL with public advocacy and Social Action. Relevant cases are also cited to get a comprehensive understanding of the topic.

Introduction

Social Work emerged as a profession early in the twentieth century and today it fulfills the social welfare mandate of promoting well-being and quality of life. Thus social work encompasses activities directed at improving human and social conditions and alleviating human distress and social problems. Social Work profession consists of three main methods vis. Social case work, Social Group work and Community organization/Work and three ancillary methods such as social action social research and social welfare administration.

In the context of Social Work, the term ‘Community Organization’ was first used in America just before the first World War and was included in the Social work curriculum in 1940 (Rengaswamy). The main objective of CommunityWork was to assist the needy through various assistance programs. In different countries it was developed in different
contexts and took different forms. Social Action is considered as a method of Community Organization practiced in various countries in its various forms. As the definition of social action varies in different contexts, so do the scope, tools and the methods. Social Action is a group or collective effort to bring about social and economic changes.

Social Action Volunteers employ all options at their disposal to make the authorities sit up and take notice to their concerns. These organizers may play various roles as, activist, agitator, broker or negotiator activist and usually go ahead until the powers that be meet the popular demands. Public Interest Litigation is considered as one of such tools that helps catalyze the Social Action process.

The intention of this paper is neither to examine the legal aspects of PIL, nor is to sit a ‘how-to’ manual of PIL, but to examine PIL as an advocacy tool of social action and social change.

**Definitions of Social Action and PIL:**

According to Friedlander, W.A. (1963) "Social Action is an individual, group or community effort within the framework of the social work philosophy and practice that aims to achieve social progress, to modify social policies and to improve social legislation and health and welfare services".

To Peter Lee (1937) Social action seems to suggest efforts directed towards changes in law or social structure or towards the initiation of new movements for the modification of current social practices (5).

Tressie Aranha (1984) describes Social action as one of the forms of social work intervention, where the change agent system (individual/group/organization) acts on behalf of the client system, to redress the injustice it is suffering, by seeking through a legitimate authority to bring about change in the social structures that are causing injustice.
In Indian law, Public Interest Litigation (PIL) is a device to protect the interest of the public. PIL may be introduced in the court of law by the court itself (*suomotu*), rather than the aggrieved party or another third party. It is not necessary for the victim of the violation to personally approach the court for the exercise of the court's jurisdiction. The third party can be Social workers, journalists, an NGO, an institution, or an individual. Upendra Baxi (1985: 290f) prefers to use the term 'social action litigation' because he sees it as primarily serving the needs of India’s deprived masses.

Though there are quite a few definitions for Social Action, the three definitions above clearly draw out the Intervention aspects of Social Action and give space for socially motivated litigations and legislations in the ambit of Social Action and at the same time, it aims at bringing in social progress, modifying social policies, improving social legislations and leveling out social injustices. This is the aspect in which public advocacy and third party litigation become relevant in the framework of Social work / Community Work.

During three decades, such advocacies and litigations have noticeably given ways to the pronouncement of remarkable judgments by courts and drafting of several new parliamentary legislations at the centre and state assemblies.

**Social Action, Public Advocacy and Public Interest Litigation (PIL)**

As the method of social intervention, one can find the roots of Social Action to centuries-long Indian freedom struggles and social reform movements. A corresponding thread can also be seen in the sphere of public advocacies in the Indian social arenas throughout centuries. John Samuel (2007) has rightly observed this fact while saying:

“The concept and practice of Public Advocacy in India can be located from three different streams; firstly, from the history of socio-religious reforms movement and nationalist struggle for the Indian independence; secondly, from the dynamics of political culture and social systems prevailing in the..."
country for the last fifty years. And finally, the prevailing practices of Public Advocacy by non-party political formations, social action and public interest groups. The entire arena of Public Advocacy becomes functional and meaningful in relation to the constitutional framework, character of the State and the operating political culture. In the Indian context, the process of public advocacy can be better understood by locating it in the historical, political and social practices and analyzing it in relation to a representative parliamentary democratic constitutional framework”.

Public advocacy involves planning and organizing efforts to productively influence the public policies and to get them effectively executed for the ultimate benefit of the aggrieved and marginalized segments of the society. Democracy and non-violent constitutional means are the instruments of public advocacy exercises in any democratic framework. It is a value-based political course of action. It is as good as a political process because it advocates changes in the existing unequal power relations in favor of the socially, politically and economically marginalized sections.

Public Advocacy involves resisting unequal power relations (like patriarchy) at every level—from personal to public—from family to governance, engaging institutions of governance—to empower the marginalized, creating and using ‘spaces’ within the system—to change it, strategizing the use of knowledge, skills and opportunities—to influence public policies and bridging the micro-level activism and macro level policy initiatives.

In almost all these aspects, PIL has been widely recognized as a device for playing corresponding roles.

Public Interest Litigation or Social Action Litigation, as it was termed in India, is recognized as one of the very powerful devices of Social Action to bring in immediate and desired changes in the social arenas and system of governance.
PIL was an innovative judicial remedy, fashioned essentially to safeguard and protect the fundamental rights of those people, who because of economic and social handicaps and disabilities are unable to approach the court themselves to enforce their rights. The origin of PIL can be traced to the American judicial system of the 1960s. The phrase ‘public law litigation’ was first prominently used by American academic Abram Chayes to describe the practice of lawyers or public spirited individuals who seek to precipitate social changes through court-ordered decrees that reform legal rules, enforce existing laws and articulate public norms.

It would be more accurate to say that Social Action Litigation (SAL), one of the most important innovations in the Indian Judicial system has a distinguished identity from the American definition of Public Interest Litigation (PIL) in several dimensions. In the words of P. N. Bhagawathi “There is a new movement for peace and justice growing out of India. But this time the messenger does not wear a loincloth or spin at the wheel. The modern day prophets are judges, lawyers and social activists interested in the non-violent social change. The new movement is called Social Action Litigation.

However, the emergence of SAL or PIL in India has contained several distinctive features. The credit of placing the Indian Judiciary on the world judicial map goes to PIL as being innovative in interpreting the law, developing hurdle free judicial procedures and making the justice accessible to the common man. The connotation and growth of PIL took a distinctly different route. It made the justice more accessible to the disadvantaged sections and ensured adequate human rights.

In three decades time, PIL has grown from its embryonic stage as a social action litigation to cover a wide range of diversity of its scope - in terms of issues, practitioners, strategies, resources, magnitude of change in reality.
Setting up of many institutions by Central Government to address various issues, such as National Human Rights Commission, National Commission for Women and even Consumer Courts, Green Bench in Supreme Court etc. to exclusively attend to the environment related litigations can be said to have developed through various PILs in the country (Rao, Anuradha 1999).

**Evolution of the Public Interest Litigation in India**

PIL has been evolved through three phases in India. The first phase is characterized by directions and orders passed by the Courts primarily to protect fundamental rights under Article 21 of the marginalized groups and sections of the society who because of extreme poverty, illiteracy and ignorance cannot approach Supreme Court or the High Courts. The second Phase deals with the cases relating to protection, preservation of ecology, environment, forests, marine life, wildlife, mountains, rivers, historical monuments etc. The third phase deals with the directions issued by the Courts in maintaining the probity, transparency and integrity in governance.

The professional Social Worker or a Social Action volunteer has a key role in all the three phases. Several such strategic Social Work interventions and historical judgments and complementary legislations corresponding to these interventions can be cited to substantiate the argument.

**Constructive Features of PIL**

In common man’s view PIL is distinct for its layman-friendly procedure. The prime difference PIL carried from other litigations was its effortless commencing proceedings. Since the intention was amelioration of social conditions, the courts allowed social activists and advocates to file litigations on behalf of the poor and those ignorant about the court procedures. In numerous cases the Supreme Court, the apex court in the country, and the
High Courts (highest courts in the states) have accepted even letters written to the sitting judges and news appeared in the dailies as litigations.

*In Public Interest Litigation (PIL), the nature of proceedings itself does not exactly fit into the accepted common-law framework of adversarial litigation. The courtroom dynamics are substantially different from ordinary civil or criminal appeals. While an adversarial environment may prevail in cases where actions are brought to highlight administrative apathy or the government’s condemnation of abusive practices, in most public interest-related litigation, the judges take on a far more active role in terms of posing questions to the parties as well as exploring solutions. Especially in actions seeking directions for ensuring governmental accountability or environmental protection, the orientation of the proceedings is usually more akin to collective problem-solving rather than an acrimonious contest between the counsels.* (Balakrishnan K.G. Js.2008)

“The majority of the people of our country are subjected to this denial of ‘access to justice’ and overtaken by despair and helplessness, they continue to remain victims of an exploitative society where economic power is concentrated in the hands of a few and it is used for perpetuation of domination over large masses of human beings...... The strategy of public interest litigation has been evolved by this Court with a view to bringing justice within the easy reach of the poor and disadvantaged sections of the community”.

PIL in India has a wide range of success stories to its credit. I would like cite a few of relevant instances for the benefit of international audience. That the courts have been brought much closer to the disadvantaged sections of the society such as prisoners, destitute, child or bonded laborers, women, and scheduled castes/tribes is the most remarkable of these success stories.

By taking on the issues touching these people, PIL in fact has become instrumental effecting a societal revolution through constitutional means, something that the founding
fathers had hoped. PIL has also played an equally important role in expanding the jurisprudence of fundamental or human rights in India. Though the Directive Principles of State Policy (DP) are not constitutionally enforceable, the apex court and the high courts have imported some of these directive principles into the Fundamental Rights (FRs) thus making various socio-economic rights to be treated at par with various FRs.

These developments have resulted in getting wide scope and impact in the spheres of Social Work and Social Action, especially in terms of Community Work.

In the second phase, the PIL played pivotal role in promoting rule of law, demanding fairness and transparency in governance, fighting against corruption in administration, and improving the overall accountability of the government agencies and services. This has obviously strengthened constitutionalism—a consistent aspiration of the civil society to keep government powers under check and balance. This has resulted in the judiciary giving directions to the government to follow its constitutional obligations. Furthermore, thanks to PIL, judiciary also set off legislative reforms and bridged many legislative gaps in important areas.

Just to illustrate, the Supreme Court in the Vishaka case laid down detailed guidelines on sexual harassment at the workplace. Similarly welcome, were guidelines on arrest and detention laid down by the Court in Basu. To what extent these guidelines have been successful in achieving the intended objectives and whether courts were justified in acting like a legislature are moot points. Nevertheless, such guidelines, which were totally in consonance with the mandate of the Indian Constitution as well as various international covenants ratified by the Indian government, helped in enhancing sensitivity to these issues. The Indian judiciary, courtesy to PIL, has helped in creating consensus on a few controversial policy questions on which the society has been sharply divided. The reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (two constitutionally safeguarded
backward sections of Indian society) and other backwards classes in employment or education institutions, the shift in the government policies of liberalization and privatization, and the contested height of the Narmada dam (another hot issue of national importance for decades) as examples of this kind of contribution.

All the above issues, one or the other way, have wider implications for professional social workers in the context of Indian subcontinent.

Enforceability of Directive Principles of State Policy, the socio-economic rights enshrined in the Indian Constitution, is a long standing dream of Indian social workers, the absence of which will put the modern Indian under the shadow of doubts in the face of any economic developments. To safeguard educational and economic rights of the individuals, protection from harassment, especially for women workers, to draft a noncontroversial reservation policy for the marginalized segments of the society and to ensure sustainable development without depleting the environment are some of the major issues which come under the purview of core social work practices. This is the common thread which would bind the professional social work practice and social action in the form of PIL.

One positive contribution of PIL in India, which has extended outside India, deserves a special mention. The Indian PIL jurisprudence has also contributed to the trans-judicial influence--especially in South Asia--in that courts in Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh and Nepal have cited Indian PIL cases to develop their own PIL jurisprudence. In a few cases, even Hong Kong courts have cited Indian PIL cases, in particular cases dealing with environmental issues. Given that the civil society that is following the development of PIL in China is familiar with the Indian PIL jurisprudence, it is possible that Indian PIL cases might be cited even before the Chinese courts in the future.
PIL Cases Pertaining to Social Action

During last three decades, the public has approached the Supreme Court and High Courts through PIL to redress a variety of issues, not all of which are related to the violation of FRs. The judiciary, for instance, has addressed issues such as lack of access to food, deaths due to starvation, prohibition of smoking in public places, investigation of alleged bribe taking, employment of children in hazardous industries, rights of children and bonded labors, extent of the right to strike, right to health, right to education, sexual harassment in the workplace, female foeticide and infanticide through modern technology.

To the surprise of those uninitiated to the PIL cases in India, in all the cases above, the judiciary has entertained these PILs and treated them with common wisdom instead of going deep to the legal and meritorious aspects of the cases.

For example, a journalist, Ms. SheelaBarse, took up the plight of women prisoners in the city of Bombay. She asserted that they were victims of custodial violence. The Court took cognizance of the matter and directions were issued to the Director of College of Social Work, Bombay. He was ordered to visit the Bombay Central Jail and conduct interviews of various women prisoners in order to ascertain whether they had been subjected to torture or ill-treatment. He was also asked to submit a report to the Court in this regard. Based on his findings, the Court issued directions such as the detention of female prisoners only in designated female lock-ups guarded by female constables and that accused females could be interrogated only in the presence of a female police official.

Another far liberal approach of judiciary in PIL can be cited in the emergence of ‘epistolary jurisdiction’, perhaps for the first time in the history of Indian judiciary. Through this, Public interest litigation acquired a new dimension with the decision in the case of Sunil Batra v. Delhi Administration. It was initiated by a letter written by a prisonerto a Judge of the Supreme Court. The prisoner complained of a brutal assault committed by a Head Warder.
on another prisoner. The Court treated that letter as a writ petition, and, while issuing various directions, opined that: “...technicalities and legal niceties are no impediment to the court entertaining even an informal communication as a proceeding for habeas corpus if the basic facts are found”.

The public interest litigation in India is exceptional because it not only takes up issues like gender justice, labor issues, educational and health rights of the citizens, prevention of environmental pollution and ecological destruction but also leads towards finding social and political space for the disadvantaged and other vulnerable groups in society. Apart from these, several judicial directives have been issued to form legislations in cases pertaining to different kinds of entitlements and protections such as the availability of food, access to clean air, safe working conditions, political representation, affirmative action, anti-discrimination measures and the regulation of prison conditions among others.

For instance, in People’s Union for Democratic Rights v. Union of India, a petition questioned the employment of underage laborers and the payment of wages below the prescribed statutory minimum wage-levels to those involved in the construction of facilities for the then upcoming Asian Games in New Delhi. The Court ruled that it is a violation of constitutional guarantees.

Similarly, in BandhuaMuktiMorchav. Union of India, the Supreme Court pronounced verdict against the widespread incidence of the age-old practice of bonded labor which persists despite the constitutional prohibition.

In the Shriram Food & Fertilizer case where the Court issued directions to employers to check the production of hazardous chemicals and gases that endangered the life and health of workmen. A new strategy of awarding monetary compensation for constitutional wrongs such as unlawful detention, custodial torture and extra-judicial killings by state agencies was the result of PILs.
A careful understanding of the above cases will make one realize that all cases above fall under the scope of Social Work practices.

\[\text{Conclusion}\]

PIL requires a high level of commitment from the advocates of Social Action and sympathetic professionals. This will help further enjoyment of this device by many thousands for whom otherwise justice will remain a remote dream.

Though the PIL as a system of liberal judicial practice has been subjected to several abuses in India, it still continues to be the most powerful tool of justice at the hands of common man and social workers and it will hopefully remain so at least for some more time to come. Measures should be chalked out to curb the wide misuse of PILs and its proper use is to be promoted simultaneously. Governments should come forth to develop ways of harmonious coexistence of PIL and good governance, instead of seeking measures to restrict its uses.

Social Workers have enormous lessons to learn from the Indian experiences of social interventions through PILs. It is high time that democratic states experimented with devices of social interventions such as PIL, Right to Information Act etc. International legal and social work bodies should find ways to utilize the PIL to play an active role in spreading social awareness about human rights, providing voice to the marginalized sections of society, and allowing their participation in good governance and the decision making process.
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PERSONAL FINANCIAL LITERACY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Zaibedah Zaharum, Norlina M. Ali, and Ruziah A. Latif

Abstract

Personal financial literacy is important to understanding the basic financial issues that most individuals and families must deal with in our modern society. Interest in exploring the issues of personal finance, particularly money management, has tremendously increased in recent years due to the society’s awareness on its importance. Money management skill is a vital element in disciplining them to achieve a quality life as young students because young students spending habits in school will influence the way they manage money throughout their lives. Looking at the previous literatures from researches outside of Malaysia reveals that financial literacy among students is needed to curb any future problems that may arise due to lack of knowledge on individual financial management. Hence, researchers hope there will be measures taken to overcome this scenario. The populations involved in this research are all secondary students in Johor. This research stresses on the importance of personal finance literacy among students, by looking into the student’s background, financial attitude, financial knowledge and family. The data are obtained from questionnaires and analyzed using SPSS. The recommendations and limitations are included to assist those future researches who are interested to study further on this topic.

Introduction

Financial literacy has garnered greater attention especially in current times of economic crisis and distress for individuals, families, organizations, and communities. Much of this attention is due to the compelling evidence that indicates an association between financial literacy and financial well-being (Gudmunson and Danes, 2011; Gutter and Copur, 2011; Joo and Grable, 2004). Although “financial literacy” has no official definition, it has been described in several recent studies. Mason and Wilson (2000) defined financial literacy as an individual’s ability to obtain, understand and evaluate the relevant information necessary to make decisions with an awareness of the likely financial consequences. Other than that, Vitt and Anderson (2001) defined financial literacy as the ability to read, analyze,
manage and communicate about the personal financial conditions affecting material well-being. It includes the ability to discern financial choices, discuss money and financial issues without discomfort, plan for the future and respond competently to life events affecting everyday financial decisions, including events in the general economy. Financial literacy seems more important now than ever – and not just to family and consumer economics professionals. Financial institutions, the student loan community, financial professionals and educators, and others have identified personal financial management education as a priority.

Money management skill is a vital element in disciplining them to achieve a quality life as young students because young students spending habits in school will influence the way they manage money throughout their lives. Even if an individual has a defined benefit plan that will hopefully meet most of the financial needs of one's retirement years, that person still will spend a lifetime dealing with issues related to mortgages, insurance (including automobile, home, life, and health), personal credit management, income tax, and all of the other financial considerations that are part of modern life in our society. Regrettably, many research studies outside of Malaysia report that the level of personal financial knowledge especially among secondary students is substantially below the level that would be desirable (Davidson, 2006; Mandell, 2004)

**Objectives**

The objectives of this study are to explore the personal financial literacy of secondary school students in east coast of Johor and to examine how much their financial knowledge and their attitudes towards personal financial management. In the case of Malaysia, too little attention has been given on these issues. Therefore, this study will provide some findings on secondary school students’ knowledge and attitudes towards personal financial management.
Review of the Literature

Various international studies (Berti and Bombi, 1981; Beverley and Burkhalter, 2005; Varcoe, Martin, Devitto and Go, 2005) have supported the notion that children should be exposed to specific financial education sooner rather than later. Children who lack financial knowledge have increased financial difficulties that continue into later years. Once they have abundance of money, they simply use it out on necessary expenses and some which are not necessary. This spending pattern clearly shows the lacking of financial literacy among children which need to be changed. We must improve the financial knowledge of our children. There is a need to start the training from high schools and comprehensively in colleges and universities. Chen and Volpe (1998) found that students with less financial knowledge had more negative opinions about finances and made more incorrect financial decisions. They pointed out that having a low level of financial knowledge limits student’s ability to make informed decisions.

Consumer and Financial Literacy (CFL) Treasury Taskforce (2004) reported that financial literacy level among university students and young adults were poor and lead to various financial situations which include more students working part-time job, increase cost of financing higher education and other. Sharma (2004) explained further, those aged 18-24 lack of financial literacy is linked to lack of financial education offered to them after graduation. Mandell (2004) in his study of graduating high school seniors found that high school seniors typically are not financially literate, their overall average score and the average score of each subscale was less than 70%. He further pointed out that high school seniors’ financial literacy level had declined over time. High school seniors’ graduate high school and enter university having the same financial literacy level they had upon graduation. If these students are not introduced to financial literacy education while in university, they will ultimately become financially illiterate college graduates.
Older children have little knowledge to be financially independent contrary to what most parents expected. Danes and Hira (1987) indicated that college students only knew general not specific facts on money management topics that explained their low levels of knowledge in overall financial management areas. Poor financial literacy among college students is associated with ineffective financial behaviors, including low savings (Sabri and MacDonald, 2010), poor record keeping (Chen and Volpe, 1998), and more credit card debt (Norvilitis et al., 2006). It is a wondrous how parents transferred their money management knowledge and attitudes about money to children within families. There is scarcity about the financial socialization of children or the transfer of financial attitudes, values, standards or behaviors within the context of the family (Danes, 1994, p.127). Involvement with important aspects of family finance improved knowledge and experience about money management among Malaysian college students (Sabri et al., 2010) confirming previous findings which reported that the more parents talked about money matters with their children, the more knowledgeable the children felt about personal finance as college students.

Greater practical exposure of students to financial planning at earlier stages of education and life is necessary (Tennyson and Nguyen, 2001). Greater dialogue between parents, educators, financial institutions and policy makers needs to be fostered to develop an effective collaborative national financial education framework. Sabri, Cook and Gudmunson (2012) found that childhood consumer experiences such as savings habits contribute to students’ financial well-being (money saved, current financial situation, and financial management skills). Financial socialization agents, for example, through parents and religion sources could increase college students’ financial well-being. As agents of socialization, parents are a key source of financial information for teens and college students. Parents have the most significant influence on children as the children gone to their parents for financial information. Gudmunson and Danes (2011), in a study of financial literacy of teens and their
parents, found the way young people learn about financial matters is likely to be a combination of intentional and unintentional strategies by parents and other key adults in their lives. Furthermore, parents play a significant role in shaping a child’s financial habits and values.

Higher education is viewed by the public as an environment that prepares students to be fully functioning and productive members of society. The public expects university graduates to develop maturity, organizational skills, self-direction, self-discipline, critical thinking skills, problem solving skills and the ability to manage on their own (Immerwahr, 2000). These expectations transcend a student’s academic life and incorporate their personal and financial lives. As a nation, if we do not prepare our most educated members to fully participate in society then the nation becomes a part of the problem. It appears that there is an urgent need to raise financial literacy standards by integrating some form of personal finance education into school curricula. Children need more specific skills, attitudes and fundamental knowledge about financial literacy now more than ever, because of changes in employment patterns, retrenchments and the high unemployment rate in several countries “Personal Finance Education” (2005). One could infer from the above that it has been established internationally that it is essential for learners to acquire a basic knowledge of personal finance at an early age, if they are to stand a chance of becoming financially literate adults.

**Methodology**

A questionnaire consisting of questions pertaining to demographic information, financial attitudes and financial knowledge were distributed to the secondary school students from various classes and ages in secondary schools in east coast of Johor. The target students were included all genders and age group below 19 years old. This research recruited a sample size of 100 secondary school students. The questionnaire used in the survey was developed based on the relevant literature. Section A of the questionnaire focused on obtaining the
general information concerning the background of the financial literacy and students’ characteristics. Section B of the questionnaire seeks to obtain information on student’s attitudes towards financial management. Finally, section C of the questionnaire seeks to obtain the financial knowledge among the students. Data from the questionnaire were coded and entered accordingly into the SPSS statistical software. The descriptive statistics such as frequency distribution were used to analyze the data and interpret the results.

Findings and Discussion

Respondent’s Demographic Profile

Table 1 displays the characteristics of the 100 students that participated in the survey. As shown in Table 1, 66% of the students were female and the remaining 34% were male. Of the 100 students, 60% were 17 years old and in Form 5, 22% were 16 years old and in Form 4, 10% were 18 years old and in Lower 6, 8% were 19 years old and in Upper 6. In terms of pocket money, 51% spent RM50 per month, 33% spent RM100 per month, 7% spent RM150 per month and only 9% spent more than RM150 per month. As indicated in Table 1, 51% received the pocket money from their father, 44% from their mother and 5% from others.

Table 1: Respondent’s Demographic Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>16 years old</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17 years old</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18 years old</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 19 years</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>Form 4</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form 5</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower 6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Upper 6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Respondent’s Knowledge towards Personal Financial Management

Table 2 represents the student’s level of knowledge towards personal financial management. In terms of personal financial knowledge, 57% of the students read books related to topic in finance whereas the remaining 43% of the students prefer not to read in order to increase their personal financial knowledge. From the table it showed that 66% of the students do their personal budget before they went shopping and 63% of the students tracked each single penny that they had spent on shopping. It was surprising that 85% of the students compared the price of the products or services that they wanted to buy. Thus, it can be concluded that most of the students were obligated to compare the price of the products or services before they decided to buy. Furthermore, 61% of the students have been educated at school on how to manage their money properly compared to the remaining of 36% of the students that have gained the knowledge from their family. Eventhough they have gained the knowledge on how to manage their money properly from schools, 72% of the students thought that the greatest influence was from their family.

Table 2: Respondent’s Knowledge Towards Personal Finance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I read to increase my financial knowledge.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I compare prices when shopping for goods.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I make personal budget when shopping.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do tracking my spending.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| How much is your pocket money per month? | RM50   | 51 |
|                                         | RM100  | 33 |
|                                         | RM150  | 7  |
|                                         | More than RM150 | 9 |

| Who always give you a pocket money?    | Father | 51 |
|                                       | Mother | 44 |
|                                       | Others | 5  |
Respondent’s Attitudes Towards Personal Financial Management

Table 3 displays the respondent’s attitudes towards personal financial management. As shown in the table, 45% of the students rated that they are certain about their ability to manage their own personal financial. It also showed that 97% of the students interested to increase their personal financial knowledge and only 3% of the students were not interested. From this result it showed that increasing financial knowledge was so important and necessarily in order to improve the personal financial behavior. Majority of the students (84%) said that they will take a personal finance course if offered in schools or financial institutions both public and private. Moreover, there are only 33% of the students who have possessed ATM cards while the remaining 67% of the students do not possessed any ATM card. The amount of saving reflected in the students’ deposit account have shown only around RM1 to RM30 since the number of ATM card holders were small (47%). Besides that, 57% of the students borrowed some money from their family or friends to buy something they need. It shows that majority of the students were less interested and still lacking in managing their money since the number of the students who borrowed money are still high. However, if the students are given the opportunity and encouragement certainly they can change their perception towards personal financial management.

Table 3: Respondent’s Attitudes Towards Personal Financial Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particulars</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How sure do you feel about your ability to</td>
<td>Very sure</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manage your own financial?</td>
<td>Sure</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Option</td>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How interested are you in increasing financial knowledge?</td>
<td>Most interested</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interested</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not interested</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would you take a personal finance course if offered?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have an ATM card?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How much is your saving every month?</td>
<td>RM0</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RM30</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RM50</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than RM50</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you often ask your family members for money?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you ever borrow money to buy something?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

This study attempted to explore the personal financial literacy of secondary school students in east coast of Johor and to examine how much their financial knowledge and their money management skills. It was founded that some secondary school students are not managing their finances well because they have not adopted the set of recommended practices. Although there are no doubt deficiencies in the assessment of students’ financial management practices, the result suggest that some secondary school students are financially at-risk, and thus there continues to be a need for on-school financial education.

The findings from this research also have important implications with respect to the need for more educational resources for parents. Overwhelmingly, students reported that their parents influenced their money management behaviors. Parents need to be aware of the major role that they play in the financial socialization of their children and that this process occurs at a very early age. Resources are needed to educate parents about how to constructively talk to their children about financial management issues such as online...
resources and “one-stop” shop, where parents could go to find information and resources on financial aid and other financial topics.

Braunstein and Welch (2002) argued that an increase in financial knowledge does not necessarily lead to improve financial behavior. However, in this study we found that the students were very interested to increase and received financial management information through the school. As a result, students are capable to manage, control, tracking and improved their financial behavior. Future research may examine these issues in greater details, in for example, to investigate the differences of knowledge level and attitudes towards personal financial management between students in urban and rural areas. In Malaysia, studies on personal financial literacy among the age group 7-12 years are very limited therefore it is prudent to suggest that future research should be concentrating on this age group below than 12 years so that this group should be exposed to the specific personal financial education.

References


CREATING PUBLIC SUPPORT ESPECIALLY AMONG YOUTH TO BAN CIGARETTE DISPLAYS AT POINT-OF-SALES USING SOCIAL MEDIA IN MALAYSIA

Nur Atheeqah Hamzah, Nur Safinaz Mukhtar, Nur Azimah Mohd, Maizurah Omar, Rahmat Awang, Halilol Rahman Khan, Fifa Rahman and Yahya Baba

Abstract

Introduction: Malaysia implemented a comprehensive ban on tobacco advertising both directly and indirectly since 2003 except the displays of cigarettes at point-of-sales. Since then, advertising at point-of-sales have become more and more prevalent and aggressive. This channel of communication used by the tobacco industry to current, former and potential smokers have compromised the public health messages about the harm of tobacco used. Thus, banning cigarette displays at point-of-sales is deemed crucial and urgent. An effort to get public support for the ban is being planned and this paper will discuss the role of social media as one of the options that have been identified. Social media and the multimedia network provide a platform for engaging youth and youth adults across diverse contacts in a manner that support different forms of creative expressions. This platform is highly utilized in Malaysia. Malaysia has internet users of about 16.9 million which is about 64.7% of 26.1 million Malaysian populations. Out of this, 75.5% of internet users have Facebook. Among users of Facebook, the largest age group is between 18-24 years old with a total number of about 4.47 million users. This followed by users in the age group of 25-34 years old.

Objectives: The project is to garner support among public especially youth to ban cigarettes displays at point-of-sales in Malaysia using social media.

Methodology: A 3- minutes video will be developed intended to create awareness and stir emotions among the public. The video will highlight how displays of cigarette advertisement especially at point-of-sale stimulate or encourage youth to take up smoking, inform them on harms caused by smoking and support for banning such advertisements. The video will be placed on the internet (e.g. YouTube) for public viewing. Public will be informed through Facebook and twitter and will encourage to complete an online survey support for banning displays of cigarettes at point-of-sales throughout Malaysia.

Conclusion: Support for movement towards a ban on cigarette displays at point-of-sales by youth is crucial in order to get Malaysian government to implement such policy. Social media network can prove to be a useful platform for youth to garner this support.

Introduction:
Malaysia implemented a comprehensive ban on tobacco advertising both direct and indirect since 2004 except the displays of cigarettes at point-of-sales. Since then, advertising at point-of-sales have become more and more prevalent and aggressive. This channel of communication used by the tobacco industry to current, former and potential smokers have compromised the public health messages about the harm of tobacco used. Thus, banning cigarette displays at point-of-sales is deemed crucial and urgent. An effort to get public support for the ban is being planned and this paper will discuss the role of social media as one of the options that have been identified. Social media and the multimedia network provide a platform for engaging youth and youth adults across diverse contacts in a manner that support different forms of creative expressions. This platform is highly utilized in Malaysia. Malaysia has internet users of about 16.9 million which is about 64.7% of 26.1 million Malaysian populations. Out of this, 75.5% of internet users have facebook. Among users of facebook, the largest age group is between 18-24 years old with a total number of about 4.47 million users. This followed by users in the age group of 25-34 years old. Objectives: The project is to garner support among public especially youth to ban cigarettes displays at point-of-sales in Malaysia using social media. Methodology: A 3- minutes video will be developed intended to create awareness and stir emotions among the public. The video will highlight how displays of cigarette advertisement especially at point-of-sale stimulate or encourage youth to take up smoking, inform them on harms caused by smoking and support for banning such advertisements. The video will be placed on the internet YouTube for public viewing. Public will be informed through facebook and twitter and will be encourage to complete an online survey support for banning displays of cigarettes at point-of-sales throughout Malaysia. Conclusion: Support for movement towards a ban on cigarette displays at point-of-sales by youth is crucial in order to get Malaysian government to implement such policy. Social media network can prove to be a useful platform for youth to garner this support.

Introduction

Article 13 of the World Health Organization- Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHO-FCTC) requires Parties to implement effective measures against tobacco advertising, promotion, and sponsorship. Elaboration of guidelines for implementation of Article 13 of the WHO-FCTC stated that

“Display of tobacco products at points of sale in itself constitutes advertising and promotion. Display of products is a key means of promoting tobacco
products and tobacco use, including by stimulating impulse purchases of tobacco products, giving the impression that tobacco use is socially acceptable, and making it harder for tobacco users to quit. Young people are particularly vulnerable to the promotional effects of product display. To ensure that points of sale of tobacco products do not have any promotional elements, Parties should introduce a total ban on any display and on the visibility of tobacco products at points of sale” (WHO FCTC Conference of Parties (COP3), 2008)

However, globally, point-of-sale is the least regulated channel under comprehensive ban of promotion and advertisement (Henriksen & Lisa, 2012). Malaysia, being a party to WHO FCTC has also implemented a comprehensive ban on tobacco advertising for both direct and indirect since 2004 except the displays of cigarettes at point-of-sales. Since then, advertising at point-of-sales have become more and more prevalent and aggressive with bold and colorful brand designs of cigarette packs being displayed. The displays usually found behind cashiers, near sweets, children toys and close to newspapers and magazines shelves.

Research related to marketing strategies of the tobacco industry showed significant post-ban increases in point-of-purchase marketing in the period following the billboard advertising ban in the US suggests that the tobacco industry may be shifting at least some of the expenditures once spent on billboard advertising to the advertising and promotion at the point-of-purchase (M Wakefield, et al., 2002)

WHO-FCTC Conference of Parties documented the above issue clearly in their overview report document as below:

“A ban on tobacco advertising, promotion and sponsorship is effective only if it has a broadscope. Contemporary marketing communication involves an integrated approach to advertising and promoting the purchase and sale of
goods, including direct marketing, public relations, sales promotion, personal selling and online interactive marketing methods. If only certain forms of direct tobacco advertising are prohibited, the tobacco industry inevitably shifts its expenditure to other advertising, promotion and sponsorship strategies, using creative, indirect ways to promote tobacco products and tobacco use, especially among young people”. (WHO FCTC Conference of Parties (COP3), 17–22 November 2008)

**Smoking prevalence in Malaysia**

Tobacco incurs heavy financial burden in terms of the management and treatment of tobacco-related diseases and at present, Malaysia is being confronted with this serious epidemic. Over the past 2 to 3 decades, the escalation in the number of smokers is now being followed by a burdensome increase in tobacco-related morbidity and mortality (ITC Malaysia National Report, 2012). The ITC Malaysia national report documented smoking prevalence with reference to the Malaysian National Health and Morbidity Survey and the Global Youth Tobacco Survey. Among adults 18 years old and older, the prevalence rate has decreased from 24.8% in 1996 to 21.5% in 2006. However, smoking prevalence is still extremely high, particularly among men. In Malaysia, almost half (46.4%) of all men smoke, whereas few (1.6%) women do. Smoking prevalence among young people indicates continued high rates of future death and disease due to smoking. The 2009 Global Youth Tobacco Survey found that 19.5% of 13 to 15-year-olds use some form of tobacco products with 18.2% smoking cigarettes and 9.5% using other tobacco products. Patterns of use among Malaysian youth reflect adult trends. For example, cigarette prevalence among adolescent males is significantly higher (30.9%) than among adolescent females (5.3%). However, the 5.3% is much higher than the 1.6% rate among adult women, which raises the
ominous possibility that smoking rates among women will increase significantly in the future (ITC Malaysia National Report, 2012).

**Tobacco Advertising: Findings from the International Tobacco Control Policy Evaluation (ITC) Malaysia Project**

Despite a national ban on direct advertising of tobacco products in 2004, tobacco product advertising is still highly visible in Malaysia among adults and youth (ITC Malaysia National Report, 2012). The ITC Malaysia Survey findings indicate that smokers are still exposed to tobacco advertising, despite a national ban on the direct advertising of tobacco products. At Wave 4 (2009), 22% of adult smokers “often” or “very often” noticed advertising and pictures of smoking that encouraged or made them think about smoking in the last six months. Adult smokers noticed cigarettes or tobacco products being advertised most commonly in coffee shops (30%), and in stores (25%) where tobacco is purchased. Although only 6% of youth “often” or “very often” noticed advertising and pictures of smoking that encouraged or made them think about smoking, findings from the ITC Malaysia Wave 4 Youth Survey (2009) show that many young people are still subjected to tobacco advertising in various public venues:

- Almost half (42%) of youth reported noticing tobacco advertising in shops or stores.
- Approximately one-third (32%) of youth noticed tobacco advertising in coffee shops, and on or around street vendors (28%).
- Almost one-quarter (23%) of youth 20 years of age or older noticed tobacco advertising in discos, karaoke bars, and other entertainment venue.

**Deception of Point-of-sale marketing strategy**

Tobacco companies view cigarette packaging as an integral component of marketing strategy and a vehicle for (a) creating significant in-store presence at the point of purchase, and (b) communicating brand image (M Wakefield, Morley, Horan, & Cummings, 2002). In
a review of industry documents by Cummings et.al (Cummings K M, 2002) to evaluate the claim that the tobacco industry does not market its products to youth revealed undeniable interest in marketing cigarettes to underage smokers. The industry’s marketing approaches run counter to and predicate methods for tobacco prevention: (i) keep the price of the product high; (ii) keep product placements and advertising away from schools and other areas with a high volume of youth traffic; (iii) make cigarette advertising (that is, themes and visual images) unappealing to youth; (iv) make product packaging unappealing to youth; and (v) design the product so it is not easy to inhale (Cummings K M, 2002). Point-of-sale cigarette displays have the potential in stimulating impulse purchase. In one research that assess the extent to which point-of-sale cigarette displays stimulate impulse purchases showed that this can still happen even among those not explicitly intended to buy cigarettes and those trying to avoid smoking as a result from seeing the cigarette displays (M Wakefield, D Germain, & L Henriksen, 2007). The presence of cigarette pack displays in stores may make it more difficult for smokers to quit smoking successfully (D Germain, 2010). A research review of 10 peer-reviewed studies that focused on children found statistically significant association between exposure to tobacco promotion at point-of-sale and smoking initiation or susceptibility to smoking (Paynter & Edwards, 2009). This research is consistent with the notion that greater exposure to tobacco displays at the point-of-sale increases youth smoking, and suggest that displays bans are needed (MacKintosh, Moodie, & Hastings, July 19, 2011) (Paynter, Edwards, Schluter, & McDuff, 2009; Perez, et al., 2012). In another research with adolescent, advertising at point-of-sale have the potential to increase positive brand user imagery directly in the situation where a product purchase can take place, and hence the potential to increase the likelihood of impulse purchasing (Donovan, Jancey, & Jones, 2002). By creating a sense of familiarity with tobacco, cigarette advertising and bold packaging displays in stores where children often visit may help to pre-dispose them to smoking. An
experimental research with school children viewing POS advertising with and without cigarette being displayed showed that those children who saw the cigarette advertising perceived it would be easier to purchase tobacco from these stores and that it would be less likely they would be asked for proof of age, and also tended to think a greater number of stores would sell cigarettes to them compared with respondents who saw no tobacco products being displayed. Respondents who saw displays of cigarettes tended to recall displayed cigarette brands more often than respondents who saw no cigarettes (Melanie Wakefield, Germain, Durkin, & Henriksen, 2006). Cigarette advertising similarly influence students, and tended to weaken students’ resolve not to smoke in future. Retail tobacco advertising may have adverse influence on youth, suggesting that tighter tobacco marketing restrictions are needed (Henriksen L, 2004).

Examples of point-of-sales of cigarettes displays in Malaysia.

**Public concern on the influenced of Point-of-sale**

Virtually any shop owner that wants to sell cigarettes in Malaysia is allowed to do so by applying license to sell and this is not difficult. However, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to prevent youth from exposure to displays of cigarettes at point-of-sales. This channel of communication used by the tobacco industry to current, former and potential smokers have compromised the public health messages about the harm of tobacco used. This has accumulated huge concern among tobacco control researchers, advocates and health
professionals. Thus, banning cigarette displays at point-of-sales is deemed crucial and urgent. An effort to get public support for the ban is being planned and this paper will discuss the role of social media as one of the options that have been identified.

**Banning Point-of-sale of cigarette displays is popular**

There are many research papers documented on compliance and support for banning cigarette displays and its positive impact of individual and population. For example in Ireland, following the banning of cigarette displays at point-of-sale, compliance was very high and the law was well supported. This research also revealed that recall of displays dropped significantly among adults and teenagers post-legislation and there were encouraging signs that the law helped de-normalise smoking (McNeill, et al., 2011). In another research, retailer’s compliance with point-of-sale display ban in Norway was also high, and the ban was well supported in the population. Consumers believed that the ban could contribute to preventing smoking initiation among young people and to some extent also support cessation efforts (Scheffels & Lavik, 2012).

**Social Media Network Option**

Social media and the multimedia network provide a platform for engaging youth and youth adults across diverse contacts in a manner that support different forms of creative expressions such as advocacy efforts to influence policy change, particularly in (i) recruiting people to join the cause, (ii) organizing collective action, (iii) raising awareness and shaping attitudes and (iv) communicating with decision makers (Thackeray & Hunter, 2009).

Malaysia has internet users of about 16.9 million which is about 64.7% of 26.1 million Malaysian populations. Out of this, 75.5% of internet users have facebook one of a social network sites. Among users of facebook, the largest age group is between 18-24 years old with a total number of about 4.47 million users. This followed by users in the age group of 25-34 years old (Marita Hefler, 2012). To join facebook, a person creates personal account
profile which becomes the person’s page. On personal profiles, people share factual information about themselves, including preferences and the causes or groups they support in various format such as text, photos and videos.

**Objectives:** The project is to garner support among public especially youth to ban cigarettes displays at point-of-sales in Malaysia using social media.

**Methodology:** A 3- minutes video will be developed intended to create awareness and stir emotions among the public. The video will highlight how displays of cigarette advertisement especially at point-of-sale stimulate or encourage youth to take up smoking, inform them on harms caused by smoking and support for banning such advertisements. The video will be placed on the internet YouTube for public viewing. Public will be informed through facebook and twitter and will be encourage to complete an online survey support for banning displays of cigarettes at point-of-sales throughout Malaysia. Data will be collected and analysed. The findings from the work will then be compiled and brought to the attention of various stakeholders. A policy recommendation will also be drafted for consideration by the Ministry of Health.

**Conclusion:** Support for movement towards a ban on cigarette displays at point-of-sales by youth is crucial in order to get Malaysian government to implement such policy. Social media network can prove to be a useful platform for youth to garner this support.
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SUSTAINING THE LIVELIHOOD OF SINGLE MOTHERS IN THE GLOBALIZED WORLD: MALAYSIAN CONTEXT

Farhana Kamarul Bahrin, Azlinda Azman and Paramjit Singh Jamir Singh

Abstract

Single mothers have grown in recent decades in developed and developing countries. Also known as female headed families, this population is becoming more common in Malaysia. From the 2010 Population and Housing Census of Malaysia, there were 831,860 single mothers in Malaysia. According to the Department of Statistics, Malaysia, single mothers refers to women who become heads of households because of divorced, died and remains unmarried. Primarily, single mothers experience financial abilities for survival. In many cases, single mothers are left without sustainable financial sources to restart their newly single life. One of the important ways to help the single mothers is to set up programs and trainings to provide them the necessary knowledge and resources, thus improve their competency in the job market and helping them to gain financial independence. In sustaining the livelihood of the single mothers, government has introduced several financial assistance schemes to this target group. There is financial assistance for children under their care, apprenticeship allowance and launching grant for specific living purposes. This paper discuss in more in-depth about some the struggles faced by the single mother, the available programs in helping the single mother and how the various programs able to help them sustain their livelihood.

Introduction

Single mothers have grown in recent decades in developed and developing countries. Also known as female headed families, this population is becoming more common in Malaysia. From the 2010 Population and Housing Census of Malaysia, there were 831,860 single mothers in Malaysia. According to the Department of Statistics, Malaysia, single mothers refers to women who become heads of households because of divorced, died and remains unmarried. Primarily, single mothers experience financial abilities for survival. Today, the phenomenon of single mother is no longer a personal issue but has become a social problem that requires cooperation from various parties to overcome it. In many cases,
Crafting Symbiotic Partnership and Collaboration in the Asia Pacific Region

Single mothers are left without sustainable financial sources to restart their newly single life. One of the important ways to help the single mothers is to set up programs and trainings to provide them the necessary knowledge and resources, thus improve their competency in the job market and helping them to gain financial independence.

In sustaining the livelihood of the single mothers, government has introduced several financial assistance schemes to this target group. There is financial assistance for children under their care, apprenticeship allowance and launching grant for specific living purposes. This paper discuss in more in-depth about some the struggles faced by the single mother, the available programs in helping the single mother and how the various programs able to help them sustain their livelihood. The financial burden is further magnified for single mothers living in urban areas where cost of living is becoming increasingly high. Money is needed to cover from shelter to food, children’s education and health care.

Willicox (2003) in a study on “The Effect of Widowhood on Physical and Mental Health, Health Behavior and Health Outcome,” found that women who were recently widowed reported substantially higher rates of depressed mood, Poor social functioning and lower mental health and physical functioning than women who were widowed more than a year.

In Malaysia, among the most commonly associated with poverty are female-headed households consisting of single mothers. Rohayu et al. (2010) states according to Syahrizat Abdul Jalil women constitute 16 per cent or about 887 thousand heads of households from 5.7 million heads of households in the country. Household head in existence when the woman divorced or divorced, living dead, abandoned by their husbands, have a husband who can not afford to support a family as imprisonment or women who bear the family as the husband migrated permanently or temporarily.
Struggles faced by single mothers in Malaysia

Most of them have practically no savings, married at a young age and have never worked before. They lack the necessary education, skills and experience to allow them to enter formal workforce. This may press them to accept poorly paid jobs or long hours to make ends meet.

One of the greatest challenges for single mothers is to play both the father and mother figures for their children – father being the instrumental role as provider for the family while mother the nurturing role such as supportive and caring. The responsibilities are even greater when there are many children in the household, or if the children are very young.

Besides taking care of their food and education needs, single mothers also have to ensure the safety of their children, and be mindful of their children’s activities and social circle to prevent them from mixing in bad company. Often, children of single parents may initially have difficulty dealing with drastic changes in the family. However, they should be able to cope once they accept and adjust to the new family structure. In fact, it could be better for children to live in a peaceful and stable single-parent family than in a home where there are constant conflicts, hostility and violence.

There are general perceptions that children from single-parent families are from “broken homes”, and that single parents are less capable of coping with problems in life. These are mostly based on prejudiced viewpoints, remarks Datuk Dr Zulkifli, past President, Malaysian Paediatric Association, & Chairman, Positive Parenting Management Committee.

“Single parenting does not necessarily equate to a broken home; children from single-parent families also do not necessarily develop emotional and behavioural problems.”
It is true that the relationship between a single mother and her children may be jeopardized, as she has to work hard to make ends meet, and thus has lesser time for her family. However, single mothers can still form a close and loving parent-child relationship with their children if they know how to manage the situation appropriately.

The emotional life of the single mother was also affected by their single status. Single mothers had to go through a lot of new situations every now and then; they were continuously under some tensions. Majority of the single mothers felt lonely, helpless, hopeless, lack of identity and lack of confidence. Most of the single mothers believed that emotional problems occurred due to condition of economic hardships, worries regarding children and their future.

Single mothers tend to suffer from a feeling of hopelessness and lack of identity after divorce/widowhood. This is especially true of women whose identity was formerly associated with that of their husbands. In many women, feelings of guilt, shame, resentment, anger and anxiety about future are so dominant, that they bring out personality changes.

Financial crises are a standing situation with most of the single parent families. It becomes difficult in meeting the basic needs of children such as food, clothing, school fees, maintaining the previous standard of living and meet personal expenses.

De Bowman (2000) found that single mothers became a better person and were able to contribute significantly to the society through their economic and public activities. Poverty weighs most heavily on urban children who live in the growing number of single parent, female-headed households, where low wages and unemployment make life an increasing economic battle (Ascher, 1988). However, as stated by Emily (2009) for women and girls in particular, their socially prescribed role as careers can undermine their rights and limit their opportunities, capabilities and choices, posing a fundamental obstacle to gender equality and well-being.
Undoubtedly, there are many challenges and imperatives faced by single mothers in their daily life after the absence of her husband by themselves. Economic problem is a major challenge for single mothers. For the housewife, it is not a simple matter to enter labor market. In addition, for those who do not have qualifications.

**Some of the programs in helping the single mothers**

For low-income single mothers who are facing financial struggles, a welfare assistance scheme is available from the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia. Under this scheme, monthly monetary aid is given to those who are eligible. This helps to ensure that single mothers are able to continue to support their children’s basic needs and necessities. One of the important ways to help this group of single mothers is to set up programs and trainings to provide them the necessary knowledge and resources, and thus improve their competency in the job market, helping them to gain financial independence.

**Single Mothers’ Skill Incubator program (I-KIT)**

The I-KIT program, run by the Malaysian Women, Family and Community Development Ministry, is a core program outlined in the 9th Malaysian Plan. Its objective is to provide skills and entrepreneur training to single mothers, and ultimately reduce poverty and improve the quality of life in this group of women. Some of the skills trained in this program include sewing, handicraft, child care and food processing. Single mothers are also taught basic business knowledge, financial management, and how to seek for financing provided by government agencies.

**The Financial Assistance Scheme for Single Mothers provided by government**

Among the financial assistance schemes provided by the Department to be considered a single mother assistance are as follows:

1. Financial Assistance for Children
   - Min: RM100 for each person, monthly.
- Max: RM450 per month to family of more than four (4) in one family
- To assist underprivileged, needy children so they could continue living with their family and get affection,
- To nurture and strengthen the family institution so that parents can become independent and continue
- For families who are taking care of their children;
- Children under the age of 18 and below;
- Children who are orphan; and
- Children with parents / guardians who are incapable to care for them or who have lost their source.

2. Financial Assistance for Foster Care Children
- Min: RM250 for each child, monthly
- Max: RM500 for each family who cares for two (2) or more children, monthly
- To encourage children to living in their community and not be admitted into any welfare institutions;
- To place children from welfare institutions into foster families so that they can experience the attention
- To recognize the rights of the child for protection and assistance when living with foster families; and
- To recognize the role and responsibility of foster families who are entrusted to take care of the children.
- Children under the age 18 and below;
- Children who are orphaned;
- Children who are staying with foster families;
- Children who are not placed under the Child Adoption Act 1952; and
- Children who are placed under foster Care Scheme;
- No Fixed income limit for foster families.

3. Public Assistance (for the Federal Territories of Kuala Lumpur, Labuan and Putrajaya)

- Min: RM100 for each person, monthly
- Max: RM350.00 for each family with more than 4
- To give assistance to the target groups of the Department who are underprivileged, to temporary lighten - Those with income of less than the eligibility criteria for financial assistance;
- PWD's who are needy;
- Abandoned persons;
- Destitute persons;
- Women and young girls who are under court cases, etc
- Underprivileged families

4. Public Assistance (for the state)

- The amount for the Public Assistance differs in each state.
- To give assistance to the targeted group of the Department who are underprivileged, in order to temporary
- Each state has its own Public Assistance and eligibility requirements. Allocation of funds also varies - Assistance will be given to underprivileged families who are needy

5. Apprenticeship Allowance

- RM200.00 for each person, monthly
- To assist youth who are children of financial assistance recipients of the Department of Social Welfare
- Children of Department of social Welfare financial assistance recipients;
- Former inmates of institutions under the Department of Social Welfare;
- Those under supervision for delinquent cases, under the Department of Social Welfare;
- Other clients of department

6. Launching Grant

- RM2,700 (one-off)

- To provide financial assistance to the target group who are keen and have potential to be enterprise JKM encourage beneficiaries to self-reliant and improve their standard of living without depending on • Receiving a monthly assistance or family members
- Persons with Disabilities (Disability), currently acquired service from the Department
- Former trainee of the Welfare Institutions
- Probation supervision cases

**Entrepreneurship program among single mother in Malaysia**

With reference to the 9th Malaysia Plan there are many economic, social and training programs undertaken by government and NGOs to reduce the occurrence of poverty among women, including single mothers or female-headed households. Through the programs, the number of poverty among female-headed households declined from 12.5 percent in 2002 to 11.5 percent in 2004. Under the loan scheme initiative undertaken by Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM), a total of 67,000 women from low-income groups are involved in micro credit enterprise. Women in rural areas were also provided with workshops and small business outlets premises to facilitate their involvement in small businesses. Single Mother Special Scheme established by the AIM in 2001 allows single mothers to pursue activities that generate income by providing easy access to them for financial assistance. A total of 2800 single mothers benefited from this scheme.
Conclusion

Single parenting is a tough job, so it is important that single parents have the resilience to overcome challenges and a strong believe that they will succeed just like anyone else. Support from family members, relatives and friends plays an important role in determining their success.

It is time to focus on building the positive effects of single parenting, instead of highlighting the negative aspects. By providing single mother with proper aid and support, such as easily accessible childcare centers or providers, they can strike a balance between work and family, and develop the capability to provide a stable and loving environment for their children to grow in.

The role of a single mother requires that the parent takes on responsibility that may have been shared by their spouse. Single mothers experience additional role strain as a parent. In addition to becoming the primary wage earner, a woman is forced to shoulder other responsibilities of her husband. However, the lack of structure, and inconsistent enforcement of parental standards, children who are living with single mother have a home life that is different from children living with both the parents.

So, it could be concluded that majority of single mothers faced economic, emotional and social problems. Single mothers worked hard and tried their best to rear their children. Thus, single mothers deserve greater attention and need intervention and treatment efforts to improve their economic and social outcomes.
Reference


SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT: COPING STRATEGIES FOR URBAN POOR HOUSING

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Abstract

Urban housing reform in Penang has dramatically changed the urban landscapes and has impacted the social dynamic. In addition, it has also contributed to the uneven effect on urban housing population. While the living standard of a significant proportion of urban residents has improved, a sizeable group of households has been left behind and became a new social class - the urban poor. There is a close association between poverty and housing needs. Along with job security, housing is the most important element of the social welfare system. In this, the linkage between urban poverty and housing has been largely overlooked. The major concern of this paper is on coping strategies of the urban poor in transition and the associated problem of urban poverty due to the non-affordable housing. This paper aims to look into the social development changes brought forward in Penang, mainly on the Island as well as focusing on the problem of urban poor and low-income communities in Penang.

Introduction

Home as a Necessity

One of life’s basic needs, like food and water, is shelter. The provision of housing and associated services does extends across virtually all of social work’s various arenas of endeavor, from providing foster care to neglected, finding homes for persons leaving treatment facilities, helping refugees find their “place” in a new country and on addressing homelessness itself. Social work research related to housing reflects the wide array of interest in the field in finding the best way to meet housing needs while helping client build a new sense of belonging, pride of ownership, and sense of self-sufficiency.

Perhaps nowhere else are both the micro and macro social work approaches to meet human needs by addressing both people and their environment better displayed than in the housing services field. Housing or lack thereof reflects the individual’s economic
environment, and quality housing reflects the level of a community’s social development. The provision of housing needs is a further reflection of society’s meeting the needs of its most vulnerable residents.

Helping to provide well-brought-up housing for urban poor and low income household is a worldwide challenge to a government especially in countries where citizens are well educated. However, it would be suitable to use the term strategies on donating the public policies concerning the housing situations in most countries particularly dominated by free markets (Downs, 1969). Authorities simply do not have well reasons, realistic, long-range policy on coping with housing needs. Nevertheless, for the purpose of analysis, it is useful to view the public effort to improve the housing of the urban poor in each nation as resulting from at least an unspoken strategy.

**Social Development**

There are numerous clear statements by the Malaysian government calling for a balanced development which will bring about holistic development. However, for a majority of policy drafters and maker’s the thrust is only mainly focusing on economic growth and returns. There is therefore an urgent need to recapture the balanced approach in social development especially in Penang. Holding this balance at the level of policy formulation and direct implementation is necessary in making a difference for Penangites.

Social development is central to national and community development. Authors believed that each and every community in Penang would love to share the state prosperities and strive for the attainment of a better quality of life. Social development is used in a broad sense to encompass economic, educational and social wellbeing. The orientation is not so much welfare focused but one that advocates for social justice and equal opportunities especially for the urban poor in Penang.
As in this, there is an urgent need for the state to strengthen the institutional capacities of agencies and institutions to ensure that the social development agenda is further enhanced for all Penangite. Perhaps, these would include creating new avenues for urban poor to have a say especially in social development and be effectively able to participate in social welfare dialogues.

Urban Poverty

Issues of urban poverty have attracted increasing attention among Penangites and academics in the last few years. Studies have been carried out to establish the links between unemployment and urban poverty (Zhu, 1998; Zhang, 1999). Regional variations in urban poverty, the relationship between poverty and family income, employment types and economic sectors have also been investigated. These studies have led to new policy development and some change in social welfare provision. At the international level, the literature on urban reform and transition has also grown rapidly over the last few years. Published material addresses a wide range of issues, including:

- The economic and industrial changes occurring in cities as part of the country’s re-emergence on the world stage (Solinger, 1993)
- The physical and cultural transformation of Chinese societies (Davis et al., 1995)

The theme of poverty especially urban poor and low incomers also has been one of the major areas of authors concern in this paper. Penang has made tremendous progress in this area of poverty reduction, but it seems to be the policy makers are refusing 'to see the new trends and dimensions especially in highly urbanized and modernized nations of Penang'.

Throughout some articles, the findings of two urban poverty conferences and the impact of urban poverty lays a strong claim that urban poverty must be urgently and seriously addressed in society, six key areas have been heavily debated and many innovative
policies and programmes have been launched by the Malaysian Federal Government (Jayasooria, 2008). Academicians and civil society leaders have been part of the deliberations.

The first is the National Social Policy. This was formulated as an umbrella policy giving a balance between economic and social development, between infrastructure and human capital development. Second is PINTAS which is a social action plan which provides the framework for integrating the various components of social development in the country. This social action plan was developed by Prof Dato Dr Wan Halim and his team. Millions of ringgit had been spent as well as a pilot project was launched at the district level. However, the sad reality is that there is not even a single reference of PINTAS in the 9MP. It was a major highlight in the 8MP and even in the Mid Term Review.

Third is the Social Referral Centre (Pusat Rujukan Sosial). The original intention was for these centres to be located in 'high risk neighbor hoods'. Fourth is the Social Impact Assessment (SIA). Field research was undertaken and foreign consultants recruited to provide input and framework. However while the reports were being done and the policy formulated, this dimension was not given much emphasis in the implementation.

Fifth are the professional development of social workers and the recognition of social work as a profession. Even teachers and nurses are certified but any one can be a social worker or can even use this term. While anyone can be a volunteer but due to the complex nature of social problems and issues, there are basic competencies needed for social work practice. Only trained social workers are best equipped to handle complex social situations. While sixth aspect is the National Social Institute and its role in not only undertaking research but also to train social workers with the basic competencies required. The institute must provide the content for professional development.
There is an urgent task to recapture all the work done in the above six areas. One major step would be to recall all the academicians, civil servants and civil society people who were involved in conceptualizing the social agenda. The attempt will be to form a resource team of experts to truly provide the intellectual base for fostering a social agenda which will truly bring about balanced on social development.

**Housing the Urban Poor**

Housing and living conditions are important indicators of household poverty. Housing provision in Penang looks had been dominated by the private sector developers. In this, along with job security, housing was the most important element of the welfare system. As a result of insufficient investment, housing conditions were generally poorer over the period. Since a part of the urban economic reform and the transition to a market economy, important changes had been made to urban housing provision system. Commercial property developers emerged as the main housing providers. Many urban families now live in purpose-built flats. The reality is that the key problem of urban housing reform was the material linkage between housing and employment.

**Housing the Urban Poor in China**

As in China, in order to speed up the process of housing commercialization and monetary distribution, a major decision was made by central government in 1998 to stop public sector employers’ role in direct housing allocation. A deadline was set up to allow current housing building projects to finish. Thereafter, the housing needs of all public sector employees were to be met directly by property developers or the housing market rather than by employers. Employers, however, were allowed to issue housing subsidies to help employees to buy their house in the market or through the government-supported affordable housing scheme (Wang, 2000).
Affordable housing was identified as a key source of new housing for low- and middle-income groups. The government planned to make this type of housing accessible to most urban residents (70–80 per cent). Higher-income households in urban areas (10–15 per cent) were encouraged to obtain high standard housing through the market; and poor urban families (about 10–15 per cent) were to be given subsidized rented housing by their employers or the city government (State Council, 1998). These reform policies have brought important changes in urban housing provision. A few years ago, most new commercial housing was bought by employers and then distributed to their employees. By 2002, 80 per cent of public housing had been sold to the occupiers. About 95 per cent of new housing was sold directly to individual families.

While housing for the poor moved forward very slowly, high-standard and sometimes luxury commercial housing for the rich dominated housing developments in large cities, though there had been serious oversupply of this type of housing. In September 2003, five years after the 1998 policy document, the State Council issued new policies which aimed to rebalance the market development and provision system. Strict controls were to be imposed on the development of luxury villas and cottages. More emphasis would be given to the development of ordinary commercial housing, government-supported affordable housing and social-rental housing (State Council, 2003). Despite this policy change, affordable and social-rental housing required more government investment and effective regulation of the housing market. Under the liberal market economic philosophy and the continuous pursuit of commercialization of housing provision, a large scale increase in public housing investment and social housing stock in the near future are unlikely.

Social Support and Policies

For a betterment of arrangement on coping strategies for urban poor housing in Penang, authors believed that social support and policies need to be highlight as soon as
possible. Under this arrangement, state government could effectively decentralize the social welfare services to the sub-potential parties. In this, perhaps it will minimize the burden and the functions of state government and can focus more related to production management than service provision. With the introduction of the arrangement, welfare provision by work units will reduce substantially in order to improve production of urban poor housing effective and efficiently.

On the other hand, new social support policies should be introduced to fill some of the gaps between the old and the new policies. These included policies aimed at creating more job opportunities to reduce urban unemployment, and several social security systems established to protect the weak and unemployed in the cities.

Furthermore, public policy can make a radical difference. Unlocking land banks for affordable housing is critical to reducing the price of houses for the urban poor, whom are increasingly being driven out of the city environs. Beyond supply of house, government enforcement of existing laws against house profiteering would be a valuable start and long-term home mortgage finance for the urban poor a breakthrough.

Making markets like informal housing more efficient and effective for the urban poor. Markets that they are already tapping, is a better approach than destroying markets through large indiscriminate subsidies that are not sustainable. A major part of the solution is building institutions’ that work for the urban poor and enable them to enter the formal economy – reducing their cost of living and doing business and expanding their opportunity for creating new social welfare.

In addition, enabling small group of communities to have a role in investing in the markets looks to be very necessary. This will in return, enable them to create social wealth and have a boost in their social welfare as indirect.
The Future and Struggle of Urban Poor

Historical and inherited problems such as the disabled people, the pursuit of full employment in urban areas and overstaffing in the public sector, were important causes for urban poverty. However, these historical problems did not result in serious poverty under the well planned economic system. The number of poor people inherited from the previous period was also relatively small.

In addition, the struggle of urban poor communities in Malaysia for housing and land rights is closely related to the development and history of the country. After the British colonial period, Malaysia’s priority was to develop its economy by focusing on the manufacturing and export industry in urban areas. This resulted when people from rural areas migrating from village to the city, in search of opportunities and to fill the workforce demand. Most of the urban migrants would build their own house near the manufacturing factories, because the surrounding lands were unoccupied and unused. With hard work and their own resources they would clean the area (wilderness) and build houses; this would encourage the development in the area and hence they are known as urban pioneers.

Reform and the marketization of the urban social welfare and economy, particularly the reduction of universal benefits and rising unemployment, are new causes of increased incidents of urban poverty. Adult unemployment, laid-off workers and poverty among pensioners were all related to the process of marketization and the reform in the old state-owned public sectors. To project the future of urban poverty, we need to focus on the main factors, which determine the future course of urban development.
References


ENGAGING UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN ADVOCATING FOR A TOBACCO-FREE ENVIRONMENT IN THE UNIVERSITI SAIN SYMAKASIA CAMPUS

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Abstract

A tobacco-free learning institution promotes a healthier environment for its students’ mental health and general well-being. In Malaysia, under the Control of Tobacco Product Regulations 2004, Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), as an institution of higher learning, is required by law to ban smoking in the campus. However, the lack of awareness on the negative effects of smoking and poor enforcement to curtail the habit has not put the ban into practice. To address this shortcoming, the Clearinghouse for Tobacco Control (C-Tob) at the National Poison Centre introduced a tobacco-control training program to bring about greater awareness, build capacity and leadership among students to empower them to advocate for tobacco-control and a smoke-free environment. The training module incorporates the VIPP (Visualization in Participatory Program) approach, structured in a manner to encourage students’ participation and interaction. The trained students subsequently formed a group called Green Lung carrying a mission to create and support a tobacco-free campus through mobilizing, engaging and empowering other undergraduates as an agent of change. Collaborating with other departments in the university, the Green Lung has embarked on a number of tobacco control activities in the campus such as awareness campaign, capacity building workshops, recruitment of new volunteers and cigarette butt inspections around the campus. The advocacy efforts of Green Lung and its partnership with other campus departments are now recognized and USM is currently moving towards officially adopting a comprehensive tobacco-free policy by 1 January, 2013.

Introduction

In 2011, tobacco-use killed almost 6 million people, with nearly 80% of these deaths occurring in low and middle-income countries. Tobacco use in any form is dangerous and is the single most preventable cause of death. Secondhand smoke, also known as environmental
tobacco smoke, is also responsible for deaths caused by tobacco-related diseases even for those who have consciously chosen not to smoke. The Western Pacific region has the highest rate of secondhand smoke exposure, with more than 50% of men, women, and children exposed to secondhand smoke in 2004 (Eriksen, Mackay, & Ross, 2012). An estimated 600,000 individuals died from exposure to secondhand smoke in 2011, and the majority of secondhand smoking deaths occurred in women and children.

Smoking prevalence among young people is a warning indicator that high rates of future deaths and diseases caused by smoking can be expected. The 2009 Malaysian Global Youth Tobacco Survey (GYTS, 2009), found that 19.5% of 13 to 15-year-olds use some form of tobacco products with 18.2% smoking cigarettes and 9.5% using other tobacco products. Patterns of use among Malaysian youth reflect adult trends. For example, cigarette prevalence among adolescent males is significantly higher (30.9%) than among adolescent females (5.3%). However, the 5.3% is much higher than the 1.6% rate among adult women, which raises the ominous probability that smoking rates among women will increase significantly in the future.

The recent Malaysian Global Adult Tobacco Survey (GATS, 2011) reported that the prevalence of smoking is 23.1% (4.7 million adults) of which more than 40% were men. Out of 10 adults who worked indoors, 4 were exposed to tobacco smoke at the workplace.

The World Health Organization (WHO) Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC) (WHO, 2010), a public health treaty signed by more than 173 countries including Malaysia, states that one of the most effective demand reduction measures in controlling the tobacco epidemic is to protect people from exposure to tobacco smoke. Article 8 of the FCTC calls for the adoption and implementation of effective legislative, executive, administrative and/or other measures, providing for the protection from exposure to second-hand smoke (SHS) in indoor workplaces, public transport, indoor public places and other
public places. In July 2007, Guidelines for Article 8 implementation that called for 100% smoke free public places were unanimously adopted at the second Conference of Parties (COP2) to the FCTC.

In Malaysia, under the Control of Tobacco Product Regulations 2004, one of the places where smoking is prohibited is “any area in an educational institution or a higher educational institution” in which Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) is included. A tobacco-free learning institution promotes a healthier environment for its students’ mental health and general well-being. However, the lack of awareness on the negative effects of smoking and poor enforcement of policy among students and staff members in the campus community to curtail the habit has not put the ban into practice. Because of these loopholes, smoke-free agenda was chosen to be the main focus of the training workshop. Other reasons which supported the choice were:

- Smoke free environment generate support for a broader tobacco control agenda.
- Smoking restrictions send a powerful educational message and provide an activity around which to build community advocacy and empowerment.
- Smoke free campaigns provide opportunities for partnerships and inter-sectoral collaboration.
- Protection from second-hand smoke links to other highly visible agendas, such as maternal and child health.

The training program fulfills the objectives of creating, build capacity, and develop leadership in students to empower them to advocate for a tobacco-free environment in particular, and tobacco control issues in general. Vygotsky [1896-1934] (1962) in his Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) Theory (Vygotsky, 1978) defined ZPD as the distance between the actual developmental level (independent problem solving) with the potential development level that can be achieved with the help and guidance of adults or support from
more capable peers. Vygotsky believed when youth are at their ZPD for a task, with particular encouragement and support, will boost their ability to perform these tasks. This could be achieved through training programs that adopt the principles of health promotion (WHO). Eventually these youths will be more self-independent in planning and implementing health promotion programs in partnership with other relevant organizations, both government and non-government.

The objective of this study is to describe the training provided and achievements of the Green Lung, a student-led group which was formed after the training program conducted by the Clearinghouse for Tobacco Control (C-Tob) of the National Poison Centre. The knowledge and interest inculcated as well as the technical and the financial assistance received through partnership and collaboration with other departments in the university, has helped propel Green Lung to advocate for a tobacco-free campus.

**Method**

The C-Tob at the National Poison Centre (NPC) introduced a training program in tobacco control to create awareness, build capacity, and develop leadership in students to empower them to advocate for tobacco-free environment in particular, and tobacco control issues in general. The engaged students comprised of pharmacy undergraduates from USM’s School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, who had interest in tobacco control issues. They were trained with the main objective of developing tobacco control youth leaders among themselves who can help in strengthening tobacco control programs in the USM campus to prevent uptake of smoking and encourage cessation as well as inculcate denormalization of the pro-tobacco culture in the community. The workshop program was conducted using the Visualization in Participatory Program (ViPP) approach which proved to be successful in eliciting participants’ interest and participation to meet the project’s objectives.
At the end of the training program, the students were expected to achieve the following:

- Increased awareness among the undergraduates on smoking-related issues.
- Changed attitude and perception towards smoking behavior.
- Display of enthusiasm and willingness to create action plans towards implementing a smoke-free environment, starting with university campuses.
- Interactions and group activities, within the university or combined, led to more synergized planning and action.
- Students’ ability to formulate, organize and implement tobacco control activities in their respective university.
- Engaging and empowering undergraduates to engineer action plan for policy change.

Outcome

Following the training program organized by the Clearinghouse for Tobacco Control (C-Tob) of the National Poison Centre, and funded by the WHO, in May 2009, the trained students formed a group called Green Lung. This voluntary student-led movement promotes and advocates for a tobacco-free campus by mobilizing, engaging and empowering other undergraduates as an agent of change. Through the program, they had proposed several tobacco control activities that correspond to the health promotion pillars. The engagement continued when the Green Lung collaborated with other departments in the university. The Green Lung has embarked on a number of tobacco control activities related to health literacy, advocacy, capacity building, networking and research implemented in stages over a 3-year period. These are:

1. Health Literacy

The health literacy activities are intended to create awareness among the USM community on the hazardous effects of smoking and secondhand smoke, as well as the
importance of a smoke-free environment to protect human health from tobacco smoke. C-Tob, as one of the main thrust of the National Poison Centre in addressing issues pertaining to tobacco use is the main partner providing reliable references and database to the Green Lung for them to produce evidence-based educational materials such as brochures and reference kit on tobacco control facts and smoking cessation to be used in their advocacy activities. Some reference materials provided are the “Jeritan Batinku” and the “Myths and Facts: Communicating the Evidence for Tobacco Control” booklets.

2. Community Empowerment

The first Green Lung Awareness campaign was held during the convocation week in August 2009. This campaign successfully promoted the Green Lung’s vision and mission to the USM community and visitors. Other activities held in conjunction with the week-long campaign included sales of Green Lung T-shirts, recruiting new members, and exhibition of anti-tobacco messages. Their very first advocacy work received a strong support from the university with funding from the Healthy Campus Secretariat and was launched by the then Vice-Chancellor, Y.Bhg. Tan Sri Professor Dzulkifli Abdul Razak. The encouraging support received enabled them to organize a 3-day Green Lung Carnival (Picture 1.b). The carnival was opened for participation to the Penang state and it received funding from the state government. Since then, the Green Lung is championing on to advocate for a tobacco-free environment through various media channels including social media such as the website and Facebook (Picture 1.a). The group also organized a creative advocacy activity, namely USM Freeze (Picture 1.d), with a core concept to create abnormal phenomenon to attract the eyes of the public. They gathered to “freeze” themselves for about 4 minutes as a sign to protest tobacco smoking. USM Freeze was a great achievement as it was able to engage other students, the university administrative department and the mass media to advocate for a tobacco-free campus. Green Lung was also on the Penang Bridge Run (Picture 1.c) and
Community Outreach Program to spread advocacy messages on tobacco-control to communities within reach.

3. Capacity Building and Networking

Capacity-building is one of the core activities that have sustained the existence and growth of the Green Lung. Following the training, half of the group underwent a one-week attachment (Picture 2.a) in the National Poison Centre to learn about proposal writing. During this time they were also exposed to other tobacco control activities in the C-Tob.

In order to expand their network and collaboration, the students were invited by the Malaysian Council for Tobacco Control (MCTC) to participate in the 3rd Malaysian Conference on Tobacco Control, 2009 in Kuala Lumpur (Picture 2.b). On this occasion, the group had a chance to learn more about tobacco control issues in a broader perspective and build network with experts both locally and internationally.

Other than the various trainings received, the Green Lung also joined forces with the C-Tob to organize their own training programs which included internal training and interaction days. They went on to organize “on the road” and “hands-on” programs (Picture 1: a) Green Lung’s Facebook, b) Green Lung Carnival, c) USM Freeze, d) Bridge Run.)
2.c and 2.d) beyond the campus to apply the gained knowledge and putting them into practice.

To engage more meaningfully, garnering support from the USM community and higher authorities was crucial to influence policy changes. Summarily, networking and collaboration were established with various departments in the university. This included the Division of Students Affairs & Development, Healthy Campus Secretariat, Division of Industrial & Community Network and C-Tob, National Poison Center.

![Picture 2; a) Capacity Building, b) Green Lung attended the Third Malaysian Conference on Tobacco Control, 2009 in Kuala Lumpur, c) Community Outreach Program, d) Green Lung Interaction Day.]

4. Research and Evaluation

On research and evaluation activities, the Green Lung set up an inspection team to monitor smoking activities in the campus by counting cigarette butts and mapping the zone according to number of cigarette butts found (Picture 3). This activity was carried out periodically for evaluation and progress-monitoring as part of the group’s effort towards achieving a 100% tobacco-free campus. The monitoring was to provide relevant evidence for enforcement.
Discussion

The results of the training program conducted and the technical assistance provided were very encouraging. This may be due to the various contributing factors: the high quality of the participating students; their keen interest and capacity to absorb and apply knowledge on tobacco control; their positive attitude towards the ViPP approach adopted in the training program and the fruition of partnership and collaboration from supporting departments within the university throughout the 3-year period since 2009.

In addition, the versatile training module which incorporated ViPP as a medium to empower, stimulate creative thinking and leadership among the Green Lung members was also a major contributing factor for the success. This method generalizes the interaction between individuals giving equal opportunity to express their opinion, share their knowledge and experiences in planning programs. The content of the module is comprehensive and includes local experiences. Upon completion of the training, the students were required to complete a survey which evaluates their knowledge, attitude and practice on tobacco control in general and tobacco-free issue in particular.

Green Lung has established their own network of members from a small group of less than 40 to more than 200 at present since its inception in 2009. The group’s membership encompasses different disciplines, though the majority is from the School of Pharmaceutical Sciences. Green Lung recognizes the importance of ensuring long-term sustainability and this is done through continuous building capacity programs for its members, imparting knowledge, skills, and leadership along the way.
Another contributing factor to the sustainability of the Green Lung is the surrounding support system which provides the expertise, technical and financial assistance to the group. Being in USM, an APEX (Accelerated Program for Excellence) university that focuses on ensuring a sustainable tomorrow, the Green Lung’s mission to advocate for a tobacco-free environment blends with the APEX agenda. The collaboration established with the various departments in USM including the Division of Student Affairs & Development, the Healthy Campus Secretariat, the Clearinghouse for Tobacco Control of the National Poison Centre, and the Division of Industrial & Community Network further enhanced the supportive infrastructure available.

**Conclusion**

The advocacy efforts of the Green Lung, its partnership and collaborations, with other supporting departments in the university are now recognized. Their collective role in promoting and advocating for a tobacco-free environment is vital to ensure that health promotion components are well integrated in every program organized for effective implementation. Nonetheless, the need to further strengthen this student-led organization in the university, particularly in leadership capacity, requires more involvement and commitment from other related agencies to ensure that the Tobacco-Free USM agenda can be fully realized by January 1, 2013.
References


SOCIAL WORK AND THE ROLE OF A COUNSELOR

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Abstract

Among the characteristics of distinguish a social worker is the possession of various roles that have to be played in various setting. One of these roles - the role of a counselor - has been questioned if it is a title of qualification or a title of merely a skill. This article reviews several studies and argumentative essays that discuss the boundaries a social worker needs to respect in acting as a counselor. Some agree that a social worker should have the capacity to be a full-working counselor, because at some point of their training, they would be trained to do things that a counselor does in their job such as emphatic listening and unconditional positive regards. But others argue that a counselor is a specific and qualification-bounded term that needs to be dealt with properly. A typical counselor would have to be trained for more than 2 years of courses, training classes, and internship that give them the distinct qualifications. Several related issues such as qualification, training, and responsibilities are discussed in current article.

Introduction

Social work has its own “specialties” in terms of job scopes and responsibilities, but it cannot stand alone (Higham, 2006). Along with other “helping” professions, social work helps individuals, groups, and community to enhance their well-being and social functioning. Social work practitioners are also defined by their various roles in services (Hepworth, Rooney, & Dewberr, 2010). These roles give social workers the guidance in which what skills and knowledge to possess in order to ensure high-quality services.

However, different arguments and perspectives have been given when it comes to the role of a social work practitioner as a counselor. Some authors say that counselor is one of the roles of a social work practitioner (Higham, 2006; Hepworth, Rooney, & Dewberr, 2010), while others argue that one of the roles of a social work practitioner is to direct a client to a counseling service given by a qualified counselor(Seden, 2005).
Social work practice concentrates on the cooperation and respects between the social workers and the clients along with the latter’s environments. This forms a professional relationship between social worker and clients. Evaluation in practice should include analysis on the clients’ weakness and strength in handling the existing problems and issues due to their interaction with their social environment (McWhirter & Hawley, 1994). Basic skills needed to ensure practice effectiveness should start with the skills to identify the issues, collect and analyze information, plan and construct the contract with clients, identify the alternative to choose effective intervention, implement the appropriate actions, run the best research procedure to control and evaluate intervention’s result until the skill to supervise the termination process is formed, which is to terminate the contract and intervention with clients.

All of these processes somehow include interaction that should be therapeutic for the clients, and this means that counseling skills should also be possessed by social workers. But counseling is a broad term that that encompasses more than a set of skills, it is also a designated profession, a career, and a qualification. Therefore, it is warranted to have the questions of whether it is rightful for a social worker to also call him- or herself a counselor. But what is a counselor and what is counseling?

Counseling is an interaction process that allows individuals to understand themselves and their own issues. This process provides as a way for the clients to be enlightened which is important for a decision making that will have to be made by the clients themselves (McWhirter & Hawley, 1994). Counseling is also a face-to-face meeting (while counseling can be conducted in many other forms such as telephone or e-mail, McWhiter and Hawley argued that a face-to-face meeting is always more effective) interaction process between the counselor and client that cause the changes to client. Counseling is not just aimed to help clients to adapt with society, but also to help the client understand the real situation – the
strength and weakness; what the client can or cannot do; or what the client might have difficulties in doing.

Counseling is referred as a process when a client is given a chance to explore self and life aspects that create problems and difficulties. This exploration will provide awareness to the client and the options that he or she has. This process helps the client to trace threat and identify the skill and ability to enhance the social functioning.

**Arguments for Social Workers as Counselors**

There are various definitions which can be a bit challenging in differentiating between a counselor and a social worker since each is quite different. Most of social workers do not have the qualification in counseling but yet because of the nature of their job, require them to apply the art of counseling in solving the client’s problems and issues. Even though social workers do not have the qualification, they have informal training to utilize the counseling skills.

The importance of counseling in social work practice is absolute. Often, social workers will have to apply counseling skills in order to understand clients’ situations and issues and then be able to determine the relevant intervention sequence to help solve the identified problem (Jovaisa & Gurskiene, 2010). Although counseling and socialwork can be guided by the same concepts and skills, and a trained social worker needs to be equipped at least with the "basics of counseling", their aims can be different. Counseling and social work influence each other and are entwined in terms of abilities, knowledge and values. When observed carefully, the border between social work and counseling is very thin. At extreme opinion, all social services that directly deal with clients are counselor, whereas some social workers perceive every other professional can apply counseling in there line of work (Soitu, 2008).
However, there is no doubt that counseling activities can be applied in the social work task. Soitu (2008) notes those social workers are able to carry out and eventually solve various kinds of client’s situations by taking the role of a counselor and adapting its skills and knowledge. Moreover, Soitu (2008) added that a huge part of social work interventions will have to deal with people and there are no better instruments for a good communication and to break the ice other than to put counseling skills into action. Social workers who want to use counseling as one of the method in intervention process must know at least the basics about the operation of various therapeutic schools. It not, they will be unable to advocate for the clients and in the end incapable to help their clients.

Counselors do their job when clients have problems and take action to destruct or reduce the social problems (such as poverty, chance to gain rights and much more prejudice). This action is also taken by social worker that uses counseling and psychology to face the unrightfully and inappropriate that occur in society (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001).

This means counselor’s action and skills that are needed in counseling activity is similar with the skill needed by social worker in completing their job. Both of the fields have a commitment capacity in solving humanities problems (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001). They also use verbal and non-verbal communication skills to deal with client’s problem and to run interventions on individuals, groups and communities, and organization. Besides, social workers and counselors have the similar skills in evaluating and studying a given issue.

However, it is undeniable that there might be confusion for the social work practitioners and counselors when counseling skills are used in social work activities. Counseling skills are reputed as tools to run a social work intervention. Counseling’s role in social work is different based on client’s situation. This confusion can be reflected from a study that will be explained later.

**Arguments against Social Workers as Counselors**
Social work and the roles of counseling within it has been evolving, changing and progressing dynamically and tremendously since it has been practiced decades ago. However, there will always be differences on how counseling is practiced in social work, and the way social workers perceive and practice counseling skills according to geographical, social, cultural, economic, and political factors and the point of view from social workers themselves.

The magnitude of counseling in social work practice is undeniable. A part of the interventions process conducted by social workers will never run from applying the art of counseling (Jovaisa & Gurskiene, 2010). The questions here, are social workers qualified to give counseling to their clients? Are there any negative or setbacks of these practice towards their clients directly or indirectly?

In order to answer all these questions, first and foremost we must understand the place of counseling in social work and how to use this method in field practice or in real world. From the perspectives of social workers, counseling is one of the elements that is used in intervention process (Jovaisa & Gurskiene, 2010). When social workers fail to utilize this skill or method, it would be a huge loss not only for social workers themselves, for the clients and obviously for social work realm itself. The importance of the counseling as a method and as a means for an intervention in solving clients problems have made the profession part of social work activities. Indeed, to be a counselor one needs to be qualified and required a certificate from authorized agencies or institutions, but for social workers they only adapt certain set of skills and knowledge into their practice to enable them to carry out intervention process more effectively and efficiently.

This issue is highlighted in a study by Staniforth (2010). Looked from the perspectives and practice of counseling in social work in Aotearoa New Zealand and the main objectives of this research were to explore the social workers’ beliefs concerning
counseling in social work. Respondents were asked to indicate their degree of belief in various statements, and then, indicate the degree of counseling done in their roles as social workers. The researcher found that only 15% out of 1,000 respondents believed that social workers should not be involved in counseling in carrying their jobs. Moreover, disbelief of the questions increased as higher level of education achieved. Results shown social workers with postgraduate-level did not believe the question by 80%, while BSW graduates with 72% and for diploma-level graduates also did not believe with 64%.

Furthermore, Staniforth (2010) noted that 61% (majority of respondents) believed that social workers should be able to use counseling skills in their work but not doing counseling. This result shows that social workers can practice counseling skills and techniques in an intervention process but should not claim him- or herself to be a counselor because in order to be a counselor one should have certain qualifications. Additionally, Staniforth (2010) found 67% of respondents believed to be qualified enough or properly trained to perform the roles of counselor. When someone who does not have adequate or suitable skills and qualification do serious tasks, he or she will eventually be unable to perform at maximum capacity and more significantly will affect clients.

The point here is not only that, more importantly for the sake of the clients who receive services from incompetent personnel. These results further strengthen the argument for social workers to only practice counseling skills and techniques but should not assume the identity of counselor. As social workers, the ability to learn, adapt and practice and to master various sets of skills from different kind of profession or disciplines will provide an added advantage and values not only just for social workers but also for the profession of social work itself. This is because; social workers may act as a broker, facilitator, educator, housing personnel and so many other kinds of professions in order to cater to client’s needs or problems.
The practice of social work will be less effective or even worst; will not offer the same result without incorporating counseling skills and techniques in intervention process. According to Soitu (2008), there are strong connections between social work and counseling in term of abilities, knowledge and values almost the same. Nevertheless, the training, strategies and identities are different. These emphasize the distinction between social work and counseling. Nonetheless, in interventions process, skills and techniques can be utilized from both discipline; social work and counseling. He further noted that social workers can use some of the practices from counseling but not totally play as a counselor. Both discipline come under the same umbrella, which is to assist clients in finding solutions of their problems.

Soitu further noted, social workers can adapt and use the abilities and skills of counseling but yet should not totally practice it. He further claimed, all social work tasks or activities are at the basis of counseling skills.

Soitu further pointed out those social workers need to equip themselves with knowledge and outside resources that may be useful in helping their clients. Failing to do so, social workers may be unable to provide holistic and broad range of services. Soitu also stressed on some the basic counseling skills that social workers need to acquire and master before providing therapeutic process to clients including:

- Giving attention: active listening, non-critical acceptance;
- Paraphrasing, reflection, summarizing and verification;
- Awareness of using certain types of questions with a minimumof promptness, using alternatives to questions;
- Empathic understanding, creating connections, speeding up change;
- Challenging, confrontation, working with the defensive;
- Selecting aims, problem solving, focusing techniques;
Knowledge about one's own and the others' use of bodylanguage;

Avoiding judgments and moralizing answers;

Awareness of limitations, structuring techniques, ability to say difficult things in a constructive way;

Ability to provide feedback, defusing techniques, avoiding the creation or preservation of hostility.

The practice of social work has evolved after so many centuries, and these evolutions also alter and change the way the social workers do their jobs. Changes in performing social work duties are compulsory in order to cope with the 21st century problems and crisis. A multi-disciplines collaboration and co-operation are needed in order help clients in solving their problems or crisis.

Conclusion

Indeed, counselors and social workers have their own way or system to solve clients’ problem. Their educational background also differs. With these differences, an effort is needed to gain a long term understanding between them.

This paperwork calls for readers to think about the ability of social workers to become counselors in helping clients deal with their issues? Responsible parties need to form a committee to standardize job scope of social worker and counselor with a minimum professional level, education and training so that both of these fields are accepted at the same stage. Another suggestion is also to differentiate the social workers and counselors’ task to ensure there is no task redundancy (Arbuckle, 1967). With the differentiation, counselor and social worker should act cooperatively to help the clients’ problem. Social workers and counselors are able to use their own methods to solve client’s problems. Even when their methods are different, their aims are the same which is to improve and enhance client’s welfare and wellbeing.
References


Abstract

Introduction: Various health issues including cigarettes smoking and drug of abuse are considered very serious problems among youth in Malaysia. The nature of youth being energetic, inquisitive, rebellious, peer-loyalty, searching for self-identity and inner self-esteem makes them vulnerable and easily influenced by those who promote and sell those products. Likewise, if we could engage youth to be interested and motivated against using tobacco and drug of abuse, they could be mobilised to propagate and advocate towards pro-health. Working on tobacco control and prevention in drug of abuse by itself are not an interesting subjects to youth. However, it is crucial for us to look for a strategy or approach that could change their mindset, build and sustain their interest and motivation so that they can propagate and advocate for positive change. Visualisation in Participatory Programme (VIPP) is an approach that have been adopted by us in our capacity building programmes for adults. It helps build confidence, self esteem and capability to work in group effectively in an interactive and engaging manner. Objective: This paper is to share our 4 years experience of using VIPP in our capacity building programme for youth. Methodology: Using a VIPP module, several groups of 30-40 youth and school children were trained in our capacity building tobacco control and drug of abuse workshops every year. Each workshops were carried out in three days. Participants were subjected to several VIPPs tools and were video-taped for evaluation and reporting purposes. Results: Most participants in the workshops ended up with good understanding of tobacco control and/or drug of abuse issues and managed to solve various tasks given effectively. The workshops were able to motivate students leading them to form special groups according to age or subject matter. For example, a GreenLung was created among universities students to address tobacco control issues especially in the area of smoke free, while among school children ‘Don’t Break My Heart’ was created to address tobacco control as well as drug of abuse. Following this formation, they demonstrated their ability to apply their knowledge and skills through peer-based interactive programmes such as exhibitions, workshops, signature
campaign and development of social network portal at their respective schools and universities, capturing the interest of larger populations among peers. **Conclusion:** VIPP methodology has been found to be useful in engaging youth to be involved actively and effectively in tobacco control and prevention of drug of abuse. Based on these experience, VIPP could also be useful in other health promotion programmes.

**Introduction**

Today, Malaysian youth are open to various threats including those can affect their health from cigarette smoking and substance abuse. In this regard, the National Poison Center (NPC), established in 1994, have been involved in assisting the Tobacco Control Unit of the Department of Public Health, Ministry of Health on tobacco-related issues and the National Anti-Drug Agency, Ministry of Home Affairs on drug abuse related issues, particularly, in conducting programmes that are intended to create public awareness and as well conducting capacity building programmes for more than 10 years. Much of these programmes involved exhibitions, lectures and in some occasions, workshops. Appreciating the fact that young people are rebellious, energetic, always searching for self-identity and inner self-esteem, inquisitive and loyal to their peers make them an easy target among those who are involved in the promotion and sales of tobacco products and drug abuse related items, we felt that the approach to make youth to be more committed in our programme is to change we handle them in our training programmes. Not until recently, NPC started to introduce the Visualisation in Participatory Programme (VIPP) method in our training programme. This method is said to be able to enhance participants' cognitive and affective potentials but are mainly applied in adults (Maria Angelica Salas, Hermann J Tillmann, Neill McKee, & Shahzadi, 2007).

In ViPP, everybody is considered a knower. Thus, the trainer is just a facilitator that encourages the trainee to learn through the sharing of knowledge and experience from one another. Through this process, the trainee builds their self esteem, confidence and capability
to work in group effectively, in an interactive and more engaging manner. While the cognitive ability and the learning styles between two individuals may be different, the multiple intelligence theory introduced by Gardner, a developmental psychologist, said that the ability to think are many. Seven categories have been suggested which include visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, linguistic, logical – mathematical (Smith, 2002) and the VIPP addresses these intelligences and emphasizes them throughout the learning process. VIPP is felt to enable youth to actively participate and become engage in decision making. This is supported by theory of social constructivism introduced by Vygotsky in his Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) Theory (Vygotsky, 1978). He believed when youth are at their ZPD for a task, with particular encouragement and support will boost their ability to perform these tasks.

This is what we are trying to build through our capacity building workshops among youth. In this context, we hope to use VIPP as a tool to empower, stimulate creative thinking and leadership talent so that they can be transformed into strong advocates for health promotion, in particular addressing smoking- and drug abuse-related issues.

Objective

This paper is aimed at describing the applications of VIPP in youth capacity building programme specifically in tobacco control and drug abuse problems; and share the experience gathered based on a 4-year activities.

Methodology

In our VIPP method, we employed experiential learning strategy whereby participants' experiences and knowledge are exchanged and shared among the group with the hope that meaningful knowledge can be formulated and used to solve current issues. To optimise sharing of knowledge among participants visualization technique was used. This technique involved the use of colourful VIPP cards with different sizes and shapes for them
to express their ideas in texts, pictures, drawings, graphs and charts. Participants are not at all allowed to take notes during the session since this may interfere with their concentration. Upon completion of a session, findings from the event were collected and documented in pictures and videos which are then distributed to the participants.

**Picture 1:** (a) The VIPP kit and (b) VIPP cards. (c) Participants are required to write their ideas following rules of card writing to ensure clear visualisation. Shape and color of the card has meaning according to the participant's own interpretation.

We also utilise several VIPP methods namely, 1. “Written names”- an ice-breaking activity to create a friendly atmosphere while knowing each other; 2. “Topsy-turvy”- creative method used to dig hidden ideas in order to find new solutions of a problem; 3. “Rotating plenary”- a group work method that provides a space for participants to exhibit their planning proposal, experience, ideas, skills and products, thus promoting dialogue and exchange of views in a large gathering; 4. “Mind map”- creative method used to gather specific ideas from participants in the planning of activities or shared ideas; 5. “World Cafe”- group learning category that offer a practical yet creative way to develop capacity for thinking together and 6. “Body Outline”- an evaluation method used to focus on an assessment of an individual and help the processes of other assessment (Maria Angelica Salas, et al., 2007).
For each training programme, we normally take in groups of 30-40 youth and school children so as to ensure efficient and effective communication. The method of assessment used in our VIPP program is through facilitator’s observation and visualised evaluation. Observations were discussed based on five components: (1). Visualisation- ideas shared and demonstrated in visible forms; (2). Dialogue for example through verbal, gesture, group discussion, inspired by nature, using VIPP cards and others; (3). Facilitation whereby facilitators did not act as content experts but, hence facilitate to achieve their collective goal, (4). Participation whereby participants are seen to be directly involved in problem solving, and (5). Group dynamic based on action-reflection-action model (A-R-A) whereby participants were given sufficient opportunity to interact individually and discuss in groups. In addition, participants themselves were also given the chance to evaluate the process of facilitation and the whole programs by using either or combination of human scale, mood meter and multidot (Maria Angelica Salas, et al., 2007).

Picture 2: Examples of VIPP methods commonly used in capacity building workshops; (a) written names, (b) topsy-tuvy, (c) rotating plenary, (d) mind map, (e) world cafe and (f) body outline.
Altogether, there are more than 10 capacity building workshops that have been undertaken involving both youth among university students as well those from secondary schools. In all the programmes, the participants were seen to be actively engaged and none of them were excluded from contributing ideas. During the course of the workshop, VIPP assessment made showed that many of students felt happy with the way the workshop was handled. More than 80% of the participants said that they understood the issues being addressed will do something to address the issue and are committed to the plan developed by the group. The workshop created a lot of enthusiasm and commitment among the participants. Among the first batch of Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) students trained, "Green Lung" a name created by the group was established and a plan to push for a tobacco-free campus was formulated while for the participants involving school children, they created another group known as "Don't Break My Heart (DBMH)".

From the first workshop that leads to the establishment of Green Lung, more workshops were conducted leading to the expansion of the group to other universities including Universiti Malaya (UM), 2010, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM),

**Picture 3:** (a) and (b) is the method of visualized evaluation called “human scale” where the results are obtained immediately and responses from participants were visualized to plenary. (c) is one example of the mood meter which shows the feelings of the participants throughout the workshop.

**Results**

Altogether, there are more than 10 capacity building workshops that have been undertaken involving both youth among university students as well those from secondary schools. In all the programmes, the participants were seen to be actively engaged and none of them were excluded from contributing ideas. During the course of the workshop, VIPP assessment made showed that many of students felt happy with the way the workshop was handled. More than 80% of the participants said that they understood the issues being addressed will do something to address the issue and are committed to the plan developed by the group. The workshop created a lot of enthusiasm and commitment among the participants. Among the first batch of Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) students trained, "Green Lung" a name created by the group was established and a plan to push for a tobacco-free campus was formulated while for the participants involving school children, they created another group known as "Don't Break My Heart (DBMH)".

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**Picture 3:** (a) and (b) is the method of visualized evaluation called “human scale” where the results are obtained immediately and responses from participants were visualized to plenary. (c) is one example of the mood meter which shows the feelings of the participants throughout the workshop.
International Islamic University of Malaysia (IIUM), and Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM). Pre- and post evaluation on participants attended Green Lung capacity building workshop from 5 universities in Malaysia showed that knowledge of students regarding the dangers of second-hand smoke increased after the workshop. Almost all students knew that their university did not really implement a smoke-free policy even though it has been gazetted by the Ministry of Health Control of Tobacco Product Regulation. However, not all understand about the policy because some think smoking is allowed in some places. As a whole, their spirit and sense of responsibility to engage more students in advocating for a smoke-free campus increased after the workshop. Following the workshop, the Green Lung group demonstrated their ability to apply their knowledge and skills through peer-based interactive programmes such as exhibitions, workshops, signature campaign and development of social network portal at their respective schools and universities, capturing the interest of larger populations among peers.

In this program, the development of participants after the workshop continues to be monitored and action-reflection-action learning is accounted. Following VIPP training, the participants automatically becomes a member of the VIPP community of practice (COP) where sharing of information and opinion still continues even if each participant comes from different backgrounds.

**Discussion**

VIPP has made the learning process in tobacco control and substance abuse more engaging and fun. Youth are more motivated and have strong belief in themselves that they can do something to make a change in the future. Application of VIPP in this workshop has changed the traditional way of organizing workshops based on teacher-pupil relationship towards a more interactive and interesting way which emphasizes on visualization and participation. Each participant is free to share his/her knowledge and experiences. Youth
managed to express their ideas in the most creative way for example, each action plan was visualized in the most creative mind map. VIPP has succeeded in bringing the team together during the planning of future activities. Each team member has an equal contribution toward drafting the plans. Teamwork among all participants was demonstrated clearly during the group presentation when participants from different teams gave constructive suggestions towards improving the team’s action plans (traffic signs).

Based on observations after capacity-building workshop and follow-up programs, DBMH students; able to explain topics on tobacco control and drug of abuse. They are more confident (leadership, communication etc.), believe in their own capability, more independent (designing own programs and making decision) and feel responsible to implement smoke free school.

Based on the experiences that we have, we believed that VIPP can help create the necessary changes in a community. Involving and engaging people can motivate them to make their own healthy decision in order to improve their quality of life regardless of their background, race or even age differences.

Conclusion

VIPP is an established adult learning and poses a challenge for facilitator to conduct them for the younger groups. In this report however, we demonstrated how VIPP methodology can be a very useful tool to engage youth so that they can be involved actively and effectively in tobacco control and prevention of drug of abuse.
References


TOBACCO ADVERTISING AND PROMOTION THROUGH SOCIAL MEDIA NETWORK IN MALAYSIA

Mohamed Nazri Mohamed Tahir, Halilol Rahman Mohamed Khan, Rahmat Awang, Maizurah Omar and Azizan Daud

Abstract

Introduction: The total ban on advertising and promotions of all tobacco products since year 2003 by the Malaysian government has led to the emergence of tobacco products being advertised through viral marketing. Viral marketing are marketing techniques that use among others, the internet as a media for promotion and sales of products. It is one of the many newly emerged forms of marketing aimed primarily at young adults and teenagers. Pre-existing social networks like Facebook, Twitter, Friendster, Photobucket and others are frequently used for promotion of the cigarette brands.

Objectives: This paper presents the outcome of two years of monitoring of online tobacco promotions carried out in collaboration with the Southeast Asia Tobacco Control Alliance (SEATCA) under the Southeast Asia Industry Surveillance (SIS) project. The paper will focus on the promotions of cigarettes by the leading three companies in Malaysia and describe the extent and types of viral marketing of their brands.

Methodology: For the purpose of online monitoring, all the websites including the social networks were search through the internet especially the websites owned by the top tobacco companies in Malaysia. The search produced a total of 121 websites and almost 90% of these were from the social network. Others were from Youtube and online purchasing of tobacco products.

Results: Among the tobacco advertisements found from the social networks, 20% were owned by Malaysians. Facebook accounted as the most frequently used social network followed by Flickr and Photobucket. British American Tobacco appeared as the leading tobacco company and Dunhill was the leading cigarette brand promoted. Most of these promotions were direct promotions of cigarette brand names (97%) while others promote non-tobacco items that carry cigarette brand names (2%). There were also advertisements of old tobacco sponsored sports activities (1%) that have been uploaded recently or after Malaysia banned such advertising and promotions.

Conclusion: This paper clearly showed the loop holes in the current tobacco control regulations and possible action to overcome it will be presented.
Introduction

The total ban on advertising and promotions of all tobacco products since year 2003 by the Malaysian government has led individuals and groups to advertise and promote cigarette brands through viral marketing. Viral marketing are marketing techniques that use among others, the internet as a media for promotion and sales of products. It is one of the many newly emerged forms of marketing aimed primarily at young adults and teenagers. Pre-existing social networks like Facebook, Twitter, Friendster, Photobucket and others are frequently used for promotion of the cigarette brands. Studies that were carried out in other countries also show that the Internet has not only been used for promotions but also as a media to sell tobacco products (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2002). A study in the United States showed that the proportion of Internet users reporting exposure to online tobacco product advertising increased from 6.9% in 2001 to 17.8% in 2005 (Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, 2005). Studies conducted in Australia also show that internet and especially the social network like facebook has been used as a medium by the tobacco industry to promote their cigarette brands (B Freeman & Chapman, 2009; Becky Freeman & Chapman, 2010).

In Malaysia, there are three main transnational tobacco companies who control 94% of the tobacco market. They are British American Tobacco (BAT) Malaysia controlling 60% of market share, Philip Morris Malaysia (PMM), 18%, and Japan Tobacco International Ltd (JTI Malaysia) 16%. Collectively they sell more than ten leading cigarette brands.

This paper presents the outcome of two years of monitoring of online tobacco promotions carried out in collaboration with the Southeast Asia Tobacco Control Alliance (SEATCA) under the Southeast Asia Industry Surveillance (SIS) project. The SIS project aims to strengthen the capacity of ASEAN to effectively counter tobacco industry interference by de-normalization and documentation of industry tactics. To achieve these
aims, the SIS project established the Monitor-Alert-Counter [MAC] network to effectively monitor tactics and activities of the tobacco industry and its influence on governments in the region. The paper will focus on the promotions of cigarettes by three companies and describe the extent and types of viral marketing of their brands. The paper will also review the legislation in Malaysia covering this form of tobacco promotion and the make recommendations on what needs to be done.

**Methodology**

For the purpose of online monitoring, all the websites including the social networks were searched through the internet especially the websites owned by the top tobacco companies in Malaysia. To ensure promotions linked to or generated from Malaysia or by Malaysians, promotions in the national language were identified. Documentation of all the data gathered was made by taking screen shots of the websites together with their URL address, the cigarette brand promoted, the date where this promotion was seen and the information of the tobacco company was obtained. The information was entered into a database set up by the SIS project of SEATCA. When the online tobacco promotions were identified, the Tobacco Control Unit of the Ministry of Health was alerted through e-mails. Secondary information from tobacco industry reports were also reviewed to provide context and background for this study.

**Result**

Data on the tobacco industry showed the top selling brands in Malaysia are: BAT’s Dunhill, PMI’s Marlboro and JTI’s Winston. Dunhill has more than 40% market share over the years. Marlboro is the second most popular brand with more than 10% market share and from year 2004 to 2008. Winston was the third popular brand with more than 9% market share (Euromonitor, 2010). We found that the brands promoted heavily online were the top selling brands in Malaysia. This is illustrated in the examples provided below.
The search for online tobacco promotions through the internet produced a total of 121 websites and almost 90% of these were from the social networks. Others were from YouTube and online purchasing of tobacco products. Among the tobacco advertisements found from the social networks, 20% were owned by Malaysians.

Facebook accounted as the most frequently used social network followed by Flickr and Photobucket (Appendix 1). BAT appeared as the leading tobacco company (Appendix 2) and Dunhill was the leading cigarette brand promoted (Appendix 3). These social networks are operated by either individuals (40%) or by a group (60%). An example of the group is the Malaysian Dunhill Smokers’ Association (or PPDM) that actually promotes a cigarette brand. Most of these promotions were direct promotions of cigarette brand names (97%) while others promote non-tobacco items that carry cigarette brand names (2%). There were also advertisements of old tobacco sponsored sports activities (1%) that have been uploaded recently or after Malaysia banned such advertising and promotions.
Discussion

When tobacco promotions & advertising were banned in Malaysia, the internet became an alternative media for this activity. Cigarette packs that are posted in the internet do not carry any health warning labels. None of the packs posted by Malaysians or in the national language carry graphic health warnings. This does not reflect the reality as most countries require health warnings on cigarette packs with over 40 countries requiring graphic health warnings. The Malaysian Control of Tobacco Product Regulations 2004 (CTPR) states in Reg 4(1) that no person shall display or affix, or cause or permit to be displayed or affixed any tobacco product advertisement, distribute, or cause or permit to be distributed any tobacco product advertisement (Ministry of Health Malaysia, 2004). In addition, the Code of Content (2004) under the Malaysian Communications & Multimedia Commission (MCMC) also states that advertisements and promotions of all tobacco products & its accessories are considered to be unacceptable. Although this code is not legally binding, action can be taken against the promoters by banning the internet host server responsible for the promotion. However this could only be done if this server is operated from within the country. In Malaysia the tobacco companies are not required to disclose their advertising and marketing budgets. Currently the Internet is being used as an avenue for promotions. While the ban on tobacco advertising and promotions, through the CTPR comes under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Health, however regulation of the Internet is under the purview of the MCMC. It is therefore imperative that the Ministry of Health and the MCMC collaborate closely to implement the ban on tobacco promotions over Internet.

In this regard, Malaysia having ratified the World Health Organization (WHO) Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC) which clearly mentions the ban on all tobacco advertising, promotion, and sponsorship through the internet (World Health
Organization, 2005) has to identify and address any loop holes in the tobacco control regulation to ensure that the regulation remains effective and comply to WHO FCTC.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

This report has shown that cigarette advertising and promotions has gone online. It is imperative that the government must enforce the ban. While online promotions may pose some problems in being located outside Malaysia however action can be taken against this promotions that are being posted by Malaysians and from Malaysia. We make the following recommendations:

1. The Ministry of Health and the MCMC take immediate action to implement the ban on tobacco promotions on the Internet in the cases involving the posts from Malaysia and by Malaysians.

2. The posting by Groups – the MCMC take action against groups based in Malaysia who post cigarette advertising online.

3. FCTC Article 13 Guidelines call for Internet sales of tobacco to be banned as they inherently involved tobacco advertising and promotions. Besides minors can purchase cigarettes online. Impose a ban on sales on Internet.

4. A task force to be set up comprising of the relevant government agencies as well as non-government organizations working together to ensure that the online promotions activities are closely monitored and appropriate counter-actions are taken to curb these activities.

5. The Ministry of Health require the tobacco companies operating in Malaysia to declare their advertising and marketing budget

6. Online tobacco promotion is a cross-border issue and affects countries across the Globe. Malaysia should take a proactive role to raise this issue with the FCTC Convention Secretariat and the Conference of the Parties (COP) on Cross border advertising.
7. Further discussion is still needed to identify more effective ways for actions that can be imposed on individuals or organizations that are involved in these promotion activities.
References


Appendix 1

Online social networks used in tobacco promotions

Appendix 2

Tobacco Industries & their online tobacco promotions
Appendix 3

Online cigarette brand promotion
WHAT EFFECT TOBACCO TAX POLICY HAS ON PURCHASING BEHAVIOR OF CIGARETTES AMONG MALAYSIAN ADULT SMOKERS? STUDY FROM THE INTERNATIONAL TOBACCO CONTROL (ITC) POLICY EVALUATION SEA SURVEY

Noor Afiza Abd Rani, Rahmat Awang, Maizurah Omar, Ahmad Shalihin Mohd Samin, Nur Hanani Jasni and Anne C. Quah

Abstract

Background: In the last 5 to 10 years, the Malaysian government has adopted a series of tobacco control measures consistent with the World Health Organization - Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHO- FCTC) recommendations. This among others includes raising tobacco tax with the expected resultant in the increase in price of cigarettes and reduction in consumption. Objective: This paper is intended to examine the effects of tobacco taxes on the pattern of purchasing among smokers over a five-year period. Methodology: Data from four consecutive waves of the ITC surveys (2005 - 2009) were collected using stratified multi-stage cluster sampling design. Total number of respondents including replenished respondents who participated in each of the wave was 2,006 (Wave 1), 1,651 (Wave 2), 1,975 (Wave 3) and 2,067 (Wave 4). Respondent’s purchasing behavior was measured and cross-sectional descriptive statistics were applied on the weighted data using a complex samples package in SPSS 15 to account for complex sampling design. Result: This study found that there is a gradual drop from 33% to 16% in the percentage of smokers who smoked 16-20 cigarettes per day with a resultant increase from 16% to 28% in those smoking 11-15 cigarettes per day. The use of factory-made cigarettes remain high with a slight increasing trend from 82% to 90% while the use of hand-rolled cigarettes remained almost the same, ranging from 6% to 10%. Dunhill constitute about almost half of the cigarette smoke and this remains fairly constant through the years. The use of the 20-cigarette pack size decreased gradually from 62% to 34% while the 14-cigarette pack size increased from 16% to 58%. The purchase of cheaper priced cigarettes (<RM3/pack of 20) remained almost similar but consumption of higher priced cigarettes (>RM7/pack of 20) gradually rose from 47% in Wave 2 to 73% in Wave 4. Purchase of illicit cigarettes (based on Wave 4 data) was estimated to be around 20% which is about half of what the tobacco industry claimed. Conclusion: The current actions taken by the government to curb tobacco use through tobacco tax and price control have limited impact on tobacco
consumptions. While the government have ban the sales of 14 stick pack and set minimum price per pack, full potentials of the impact of tax policy could only be realized when strong enforcement and higher tax rate of not less than 65% of the retail price are being instituted.

**Introduction**

According to the World Health Organization-Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHO-FCTC), one of the most effective tobacco control strategy is by increasing taxes on tobacco products with the expected resultant in the increase in price of cigarettes that is consistent with Article 6 of FCTC. This strategy have been shown to not reduce overall tobacco assumption but at the same time increase government revenue. Malaysia ratified the FCTC in September 2005 and through the Control of Tobacco Product Regulations, first enacted in 1993, then strengthened in 2004, and again in 2008, the Malaysian government has implemented comprehensive tobacco control policies to fulfill its obligation including raising tobacco tax. Figure 1 represents the timeline of tobacco taxation in Malaysia. As shown, tax on tobacco products initially was based on weight. However, from 2005, excise taxes are charged as per cigarette. An excise tax of RM0.08 (US$ 0.02) per stick is applied to cigarettes produced and sold in Malaysia. Imported cigarettes are subjected to an import tax of RM0.02 (US$0.007) for international products and RM0.10 (US$0.03) for cigarettes from the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries (9). In 2007, excise tax duty was increased by 25%. As of 2010, tax constitutes about 54% of the retail price of popular brand cigarettes and these retail prices required the prior approval from the government. Minimum cigarette price was also set at a minimum price of RM6.40 per pack and price promotion banned. Although taxation has increased over the years, tax is still below the 65% of the retail price recommended by FCTC and also lower in comparison with other countries in Asia and also around the world [12].
Objective

The objective of this study is to explore the effects of tobacco taxes on the pattern of purchasing for smokers over a five-year period.

Methods

Sample and Data Collection Procedure

Data from four consecutive waves of the ITC surveys (2005 – 2009) were collected using stratified multi-stage cluster sampling design. Respondents were selected initially from a state in each of the six zones: Kedah, Selangor, Johor, Terengganu, Sabah and Sarawak. In each of the state, there was a secondary stratification of urban and rural districts. Sub-districts and communities were selected within urban and rural districts, with probability proportional to population size in the country for a total of 125 sampling cluster of about 300 households. Household were selected within each cluster using systematic sampling methods. Upon
identifying an eligible household and contact made, interviewers enumerated all household members. Where a household has more than one eligible respondent per quota cell, respondents were randomly selected by using a “Kish Grid”

There was a shift in data collection methods during the four waves. In Wave 1, the study was used face-to-face interview. In Wave 2, a substantial number of the continuing adult respondents were interviewed by telephone. In Wave 3, the majority of adult interviews were conducted by telephone, and, in Wave 4, all adult interviews were conducted by telephone. To evaluate the extent of illicit cigarette trade in the country, respondents of Wave 4 were asked to send an empty cigarette pack which they have smoked at the time the interview took place for verification. Respondents were paid RM 30 in token for participating in the study survey.

Demographic characteristic variables assessed included gender, age group, residence, race, level of education and income. To examine cigarette purchasing behavior, respondents were asked the following questions: (a) On the average, how many cigarettes did they smoke each day, factory-made (FM) and roll-your own (RYO) cigarettes. (b) Did they smoke only FM cigarettes, RYO cigarettes, or both. (c) On the last occasion that they bought cigarettes for themselves did they buy a carton, a pack, or a single stick, or was it hand-rolled tobacco. (d) What was the pack size. (e) How much did they pay for the pack. (f) When did they last buy cigarette or tobacco for themselves. (g) What was the brand last purchased? Every cigarette pack received from the smoker was analyzed according to specific criteria to determine whether they were genuine or illicit. Genuine cigarette packs are required to display all of the following characteristics: (a) One of the six pictorial health warnings covering 40% of the front and 60% of the back of each pack (b) Diamond mark security ink in blue (for imported cigarette packs) or pink (for duty-free cigarette packs) tax stamps (c) Diamond mark printed with security ink for all domestic cigarette packs (d) Text label
warning stating that cigarettes contain more than 4000 chemicals including tar, nicotine, and carbon monoxide that are harmful to health. (e) Text warning label prohibiting the sale of cigarettes to minors. (f) An info-line number for smokers who wish to quit smoking.

Descriptive analysis was applied in the study to examine the pattern of purchasing behavior. All the analyses were conducted on weighted data by using complex sample featured in the SPSS version 18 to account the survey design. Histogram and line charts were used to present the results.

**Result**

Table 1 presents the sample characteristics of adult smokers throughout the four waves. Total number of respondents including replenishment for each wave was: 2,006 (Wave 1), 1,651 (Wave 2), 1,975 (Wave 3) and 2,067 (Wave 4). Overall in the four waves, 95% of the smokers interviewed were males, mostly Malays, from the urban areas, with end level secondary education and generally of low income level (with annual income of less than RM 20,000.00).

**Table 1.0: Sample characteristic of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Jan-Mar 05</th>
<th>Aug 06-March 07</th>
<th>Mar-Sept 08</th>
<th>July-Dec 09</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>N=2004</td>
<td>N=1640</td>
<td>N=1957</td>
<td>N=2045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>94.5(91.5,96.5)</td>
<td>94.6(92.5,96.1)</td>
<td>94.4(90.0,97.0)</td>
<td>98.0(97.1,98.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5.5(3.5,8.5)</td>
<td>5.4(3.9,7.5)</td>
<td>5.6(3.0,10.0)</td>
<td>2.0(1.3,2.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Residential</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>N=2004</td>
<td>N=1649</td>
<td>N=1957</td>
<td>N=2045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60.1(33.7,81.7)</td>
<td>61.9(35.7,82.6)</td>
<td>69.9(44.7,87.0)</td>
<td>66.0(39.5,85.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>39.9(18.3,66.3)</td>
<td>38.1(17.4,64.3)</td>
<td>30.1(13.0,55.3)</td>
<td>34.0(14.8,60.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age Group</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>N=1968</td>
<td>N=1549</td>
<td>N=1901</td>
<td>N=2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16.3(13.9,19.0)</td>
<td>15.2(12.6,18.2)</td>
<td>20.9(17.3,25.1)</td>
<td>37.5(33.1,42.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-39</td>
<td>32.9(29.0,37.7)</td>
<td>33.0(28.9,37.5)</td>
<td>36.0(32.5,39.8)</td>
<td>32.2(27.8,36.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-54</td>
<td>31.0(28.7,33.3)</td>
<td>33.2(30.9,35.5)</td>
<td>27.2(23.2,31.5)</td>
<td>20.7(18.4,23.2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Above 55 19.9(16.2,24.0) 18.6(14.8,23.1) 15.9(11.9,20.8) 9.6(7.6,12.2)

Race  
N=2004  N=1632  N=1946  N=2039
Malays 57.2(47.5,66.5) 76.9(69.1,83.2) 80.6(73.0,86.4) 82.1(74.5,87.8)
Chinese 22.3(15.5,31.0) 6.8(4.5,10.1) 5.1(2.8,8.9) 5.6(3.3,9.4)
Indian 6.3(4.5,8.9) 3.0(1.7,5.1) 2.7(1.5,5.1) 1.6(0.9,2.5)
Other 14.2(9.2,21.4) 13.4(8.2,21.1) 11.6(6.9,18.9) 10.8(6.0,18.5)

Education  
N=1986  N=1618  N=1926  N=2004
No Schooling 6.3(3.8,10.1) 4.8(2.8,8.0) 3.5(1.9,6.2) 0.6(0.2,1.6)
Primary 20.4(15.4,26.5) 19.5(13.7,27.1) 15.2(10.5,21.4) 6.7(5.0,8.8)
Secondary 60.9(54.8,66.7) 57.2(50.3,63.9) 54.3(47.8,60.6) 50.2(46.4,54.0)
Tertiary 12.4(8.6,17.5) 18.5(12.7,26.2) 27.1(20.2,35.2) 42.6(38.1,47.2)

Annual household  
N=1846  N=1433  N=1576  N=1704
<RM 10,000 38.5(29.7,48.1) 39.1(30.4,48.5) 31.3(22.8,41.2) 18.2(14.1,23.2)
RM10,001-RM20,000 26.7(22.4,31.6) 23.4(20.7,26.4) 25.3(22.4,28.4) 33.3(28.5,38.6)
RM20,001-RM30,000 13.3(10.4,16.9) 12.7(9.5,16.8) 16.0(12.2,20.6) 17.6(14.8,20.9)
RM30,001-RM40,000 6.5(4.9,8.6) 6.8(4.4,10.4) 7.8(6.3,9.7) 9.6(7.4,12.4)
RM40,001-RM50,000 4.7(2.3,9.5) 3.8(2.6,5.5) 5.3(4.2,6.7) 7.3(5.6,9.3)
>RM50,001 10.2(6.1,16.6) 14.2(9.0,21.7) 14.2(9.9,20.0) 13.9(10.8,17.8)

Overall, a high percentage of smokers (81 - 90%) reported smoking FM cigarette and a smaller percentage used RYO (5-10%) and or both (4-10%). These rates did not differ very much for FM cigarettes but a small gradual decline in use of RYO either alone or together with FM cigarettes. The average number of cigarette smoked 16-20 cigarettes per day dropped gradually with a corresponding gradual increase in smoking 11-15 cigarettes per day from 16% to 31%. Smokers purchased both the 14 and 20 cigarettes pack size but the percentage of those who smoked 20-cigarette pack size decreased gradually from 62% to 34% while the 14-cigarette pack size increased from 16% to 58% throughout the 4 waves.
The average self-reported purchase price for a 20-cigarette per pack varied between RM 5.01 to RM 6.99 but this gradually increased to more than RM 7 from 2006 to 2009. However, 50% of smokers in East Malaysia reportedly bought them at RM 3.00 or less while in Peninsular Malaysia, there was a gradual increase in smokers buying cigarette more than RM 7.00 per pack throughout four waves. Based on the features present on the used pack, 19.2% of the smokers used illicit cigarettes. The type of places or venues where smokers frequently purchased the cheaper cigarettes includes street vendors (89.1%), supermarkets (41.60%) and independent vendor (41.20%).

Discussion

This study intended to explore the effects of tobacco taxes on the pattern of purchasing among smokers over a five years period. The purpose is to document whether the current tax increase by the government have resulted in the shift in the purchasing behaviour among smokers that is counter-productive that is, not resulting in the drop of overall tobacco consumption and/or loss of potential revenue for the government.

In this study, our sample population was males, lives in urban areas, are Malay, end level of secondary education and generally from the low income group. These characteristics of our sample are representative and consistent with the demographic of smokers in Malaysia. The demographics are also similar to that of Thailand where smokers are generally less educated with those living under the poverty line were more likely to smoke [16]. Higher income earners appear to smoke less and this could be due to the manner they value health [17].

In this study, we saw that most Malaysian smokers smoke FM cigarette. This is important because tobacco tax for cigarette is only imposed on FM cigarettes but not yet for RYO. The increase in tax over the 4 waves did not seem to change the pattern of cigarette smoked by the smokers. Smokers continued to smoke FM cigarette. Shifting towards
smoking RYO cigarette is not seen in this study even though RYO cigarettes are often less expensive than FM cigarettes and serve as “discount” options for smokers [18]. There was in fact a continued decline in the use of RYO either used alone or both with FM cigarette; with a corresponding slight increase in the use of FM cigarette. The possible explanations include the fact that firstly, most Malaysian smokers can still afford to purchase FM cigarette or the price they pay for the FM-cigarette is still considered not high. In fact, many smokers continue to retain smoking their popular brand like Dunhill despite the increase in price. The periodic increase in civil servants’ salary also helps to explain this trend since increase salary leads to increase affordability. Secondly, the increased in tax may actually resulted in smokers switching to buying from a 20-cigarette pack size to a smaller 14-cigarette pack which was less expensive. Correspondingly, the average number of cigarette smoked per day decreased from 16-20 to 11-15. Thirdly, the wide selling price differential for FM-cigarette available in the country with some cigarette brand selling as cheap as less than RM 3.00 may lead them to switch to lower-priced brands compared to RYO[19]. Fourthly, smokers may also resort to buying illicit cigarettes and in this study, we found approximately 20% of cigarette packs received were illicit and the selling price is often around RM3.00 or less. This figure however is half of what the tobacco industry had claimed. However unlike West Malaysia, in Sabah and Sarawak the use of illicit cigarette can be as high as 47%. The lack of enforcement in Sabah and Sarawak is believed to contribute to the rise in number of illicit cigarettes commonly smuggled out from Indonesia and the Philippines.

The continued effort of the Malaysian government to raise cigarette tax over the four waves of study period did not actually make significant change in smokers attempt to cut down tobacco use. The tobacco tax is also not optimal and does reach the recommended FCTC’s recommendation of the tax being 65% of the retail price. The highest tax rate achieved was 54% of the retail price and this is lower that what was achieved by both
Thailand (63%) and Singapore (64%) that actually achieved a decline in smoking prevalence over the last two decades [3]. Malaysian smokers also seem to have many options to overcome the effects of tobacco tax. The recent actions by the government in 2010 to completely ban the sales of the 14-sticks cigarette pack and the setting of minimum price per pack at RM6.40 in 2010 and then RM 7.00 are right steps towards strengthening the impact of tobacco tax on consumption. Strengthening the enforcement to curb use of illicit cigarette and as well as further raising tobacco tax at the level recommended by WHO-FCTC should be the next priority.

Conclusion

The current actions taken by the government to curb tobacco use through tobacco tax and price control have limited impact on tobacco consumptions. While the government have ban the sales of 14 stick pack and set minimum price per pack, full potentials of the impact of tax policy could only be realized when strong enforcement and higher tax rate of not less than 65% of the retail price are being instituted.

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IMPACT OF SMOKE FREE MELAKA CITY PROJECT ON PERCEPTION, ATTITUDE AND BEHAVIOUR OF PEOPLE IN MELAKA

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Anne Chiew Kin Quah, Haslina Hashim, Ahmad Shalihin Mohd Samin,
Noor Afiza Abdul Rani, Pete Drieze, Mary Thompson and Geoffrey T Fong

Abstract

Introduction: Globally, secondhand smoke (SHS) is responsible for 600,000 deaths in 2011, 75% of these affecting women and children. SHS is responsible for causing harm to the cardiovascular and respiratory systems. The only effective way to protect people from SHS is to provide a 100% smoke-free environment. In Malaysia, Melaka is the first state that has implemented a 100% smoke-free city since 15th June 2011. This article examines the impact of awareness, perception, attitude and behavior of smoking among people in Melaka following the Smoke-Free Melaka city (SFMC) policy and association of the awareness of the policy with perception of the social desirability of smoking and attitude towards smoking among adults. Methodology: A total of 1,039 adult survey from face-to-face interview was carried out in June 2012 within six zones in Melaka. Respondents were recruited using systematic intercept sampling. They were asked if they have noticed advertisements on SFMC and their perception about the social desirability of smoking. Changes of behavior of smokers were recorded. Descriptive analysis, univariate and multiple logistic regressions were applied by using SPSS version 18. Odd ratio and 95% CI were computed for each corresponding variable. Results: More than 70% of the respondents have noticed the Melaka Smoke-Free advertisements, namely, on posters/signage (92.5%), digital billboards (77.0%), newspaper/magazines (72.8%) and inside shop/store windows (73.8%). Multivariate analysis revealed that noticing the advertisements had significantly influenced discussion with family and friends (OR=1.21; 95% CI 1.12, 1.31, p<0.000) and implementation smoke-free homes and vehicles (OR= 1.09; 95% CI 1.01, 1.18, p<0.022 and OR=1.19; 95% CI 1.09, 1.30, p<0.001 respectively). In addition, significant association was found between discussion with family/friends and implementation of smoke free vehicles (OR=1.51; 95% CI 1.09-2.09, P=0.014). Following the implementation of the policy, most smokers said that they would not smoke in the presence of the children (83%), non-smoking family members (76.7%), older non-smoking person (78.2%) and policy officers (86.6%). Conclusion: The implementation of the SFMC project has resulted in positive impact on perception, attitude and behavior of smoking on people who live or visiting the Melaka city. This project has shown the potential to reduce exposure to secondhand smoke in both workplaces and home.
Introduction

Smoking is a serious threat to public health and the first single leading cause of preventable disease that contributes to significant morbidity and mortality (Bergen & Caporaso, 1999). Worldwide, tobacco is responsible for almost 6 million deaths, with more than 15% of deaths among men and 7% of deaths among women (Michael Eriksen, 2012). Smoking potentially produces harmful effects to almost all organs and systems in the human body by causing numerous diseases and reducing health in general (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2004). Unfortunately, it not only has direct effects on the smoker’s health but also on non-smokers as well. An estimated 600,000 individuals died from exposure to SHS in 2011 of which 75% of SHS deaths occurred among women and children (Michael Eriksen, 2012). The World Health Organization-Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHO-FCTC), the world’s first global health treaty ever developed to create measures to reduce the devastating health impact of tobacco emphasized on the importance of implementing a 100% smoke-free policy to protect people from exposure to tobacco smoke in all indoor workplaces and public places as well as all public transports.

Malaysia even though a signatory to the WHO-FCTC have yet to implement a comprehensive national legislation that protects all people from SHS, although sub-national jurisdictions do have the authority to implement laws that ban smoking in public places (Food Act 1983, 2004). Thus, some workplaces and public places have partial smoking area: for example, one-third of location designated as smoking area in air-conditioned restaurants, public transport terminals, and designated smoking rooms in airports. As a result, an estimated 7 for every 10 adults (8.6 million) in Malaysia are exposed to secondhand smoke in public environment and 4 for every 10 adults (7.6 million) are exposed to secondhand smoke at home (Malaysia, 2011).
Not until recently however, there have been some interests to implement smoke-free projects in different locations in the country. In June 2011, Melaka became the first Malaysian state that initiated a 100% smoke-free project in some of its cities. The idea of creating a Smoke-Free Melaka city (SFMC) was mooted by the Malaysian Women’s Action for Tobacco Control and Health (MyWATCH) and the Southeast Asia Tobacco Control Alliance (SEATCA) in December 2008 with the aim of protecting the health of non-smokers especially women and children living with smokers. However, it was not until 7 April 2010 that a proposal to implement the project was prepared and accepted in the Meeting of the Melaka State Council and later announced by the State’s Chief Minister of Melaka on 11 April 2010. Following this, a series of meetings including a strategic planning session were carried out involving a number of government departments and agencies including the Clearinghouse for Tobacco Control, National Poison Centre, Universiti Sains Malaysia (C-Tob, USM) and the Malaysia Health Promotion Board (MySihat). In order to ensure the participation of non-governmental organizations in the state, an alliance known as GaNMBAR was established and their role in the smoke-free project was clearly spelt out in the report of the strategic planning. Two MOUs were signed related to the project: 1) between MySihat, the funder of the Smoke-Free Melaka project, and GaNMBAR and 2) between GaNMBAR, MySihat with USM to evaluate the impact of the project. Enforcement of non-smoking zones in the Melaka state came into effect on 15 June 2011.

**Figure 1.0: Conceptual framework for the evaluation of smoke free policy**
The evaluation of SFMC project was planned based on the conceptual framework for the evaluation of smoke free policies (Figure 1.0) from the IARC Handbooks of Cancer Prevention (IARC, 2007). The main objective of smoke free policies is to reduce secondhand smoke exposure to further improve health outcomes. Three studies were planned based on this framework: 1) intercept study to observe immediate impact of the smoke-free policies which is compliance, 2) indoor air quality study to evaluate secondhand smoke exposure and, 3) cohort study to observe changes in psychosocial behavior over time among those with ongoing relationships with Melaka.

**Objectives**

The objectives of this study are 1) to examine the outcome of this project particularly on awareness, perception, attitudes and behavior of people in Melaka and 2) to evaluate the association between awareness of the SFMC policy with perception on the social desirability of smoking and attitude towards smoking among adults.

**Methods**

**Sample and data collection procedures**

The intercept survey took place in June 2012 through face-to-face interview co-ordinated by a team of experienced interviewers from the Research Call Centre of CtoB, USM, and the Melaka State Health Department. A total of 1,039 respondents were interviewed in this study. The survey covered workers, students, housewives and tourists from a range of public places within the smoke-free areas. Sampling included both smokers and non-smokers aged 18 years old and above. The six sampling areas were: Jonker Walk, Jalan Kota, Melaka International Trade Centre (MITC), Bandar Warisan Dunia, Jasin City Centre and Alor Gajah City Centre. All these have been gazetted by the Melaka State Government as smoke-free areas. Respondents were interviewed at all types of venues, indoors and outdoors. Every fifth person passing an interview station was approached to take
part in the survey, if eligible. If the selected person does not fulfil the criteria or refused to participate, the following person passing the station was approached. The interview took approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. All respondents received a token for participating in the survey. The questionnaire used in the survey was adapted from Woodstock, Ontario, Canada outdoor smoking ban and from the International Tobacco Control Policy (ITC) Smoke Free Evaluation. Questions were selected according to the objectives of Smoke-Free Melaka. The original questionnaire was developed in English and translated into local Malay language. The developed questionnaire was validated through Delphi Method process (a panel of experts in the field of tobacco control particularly smoke free evaluation) and pilot testing of the questionnaire was conducted with 30 respondents prior to the survey. Two versions of the questionnaires were available: Malay and English.

**Measures**

**Demographic Characteristic**

Demographic characteristic variables assessed included gender, age group, race, level of education, presence of children at home and smoking status. In this study, age was generated in years and then grouped into one of the following four categories, 1) 18 to 24 years old, 2) 25 to 39 years old, 3) 40 to 54 years old and 4) 55 years old and above while level of education were categorized as primary, secondary and tertiary. Respondents were considered smokers if they had smoked 100 or more cigarettes or other tobacco products in their life and smoked at least once a week.

**Awareness of advertisement of Smoke-Free Melaka**

Awareness of advertisement of the SFMC was assessed using the following questions: (1) in the last 6 months, have you heard or seen anything about the SFMC campaign? and, (2) in the last 6 months, have you noticed a Smoke-Free Melaka advertisement, or, information on the dangers of smoking, or quit smoking messages from
the radio, posters/signage, billboards/digital billboards, newspaper/magazines, in shop/stores windows or inside shop/stores, on public vehicle or printed on T-shirts. Both of the questions required a: “Yes, I have seen”, “No, I have not seen” or “Never heard anything”. If the answer is, “Yes, I have seen”, the respondent was marked for corresponding questions and summed in total to produce an index score (0-9), the composite measure of having the knowledge about SFMC policy (independent variable). The distribution of the index was very highly skewed, then recoded into a dichotomous item by median split (median=6), “no” (score<6) and “yes” (>=6) for use as outcome.

**Discussion about Smoke Free Melaka city policy among family or friends**

Discussion about Smoke Free Melaka among family or friends was assessed with the question: ‘Has any of this advertising and campaign led to discussion on SFMC among your family or friends’. This question had a ‘yes’ and ‘no’ option.

**Perception regarding norms of smoking**

Perception regarding norms of smoking was measured with the question ‘Has this advertising and campaign made smoking less socially desirable’. This question consists of three responses; 1) Yes, a little, 2) Yes, a lot, and, 3) No, not at all. This variable was recoded into a dichotomous outcome variable; “Yes” (a little and a lot) and “No” (No, not at all).

**Policy enhanced smoke-free home and smoke free private vehicles**

Smokers were asked to describe smoking inside their homes and vehicles respectively after the implementation of smoke-free policy by the Melaka state government. These questions had three response options; 1) smoking is not allowed, 2) smoking is allowed only in some areas/vehicles and 3) no rules or restrictions. Response of “smoking is not allowed” was indicated as “positive reaction” and response for “smoking is allowed only in some areas/vehicles” and “no rules or restrictions” were recoded as “negative reaction”. These dichotomous variables were treated as separately outcomes in this study.
**Statistical analysis**

SPSS 18 was used for all analyses. McNemar test were applied to see the difference of attitudes among people in Melaka prior and after implementation of the policy. Univariate and multivariate were applied in the study to test the association. Odd ratio and 95% CI were computed for each corresponding variables. P value less than 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

**Results**

In total, 1,039 respondents were interviewed in this study (Appendix 1). Overall, 76.7% of them were male and aged between 25 to 39 years (36.3%) followed by 18 to 24 years (34.6%) and 45 to 54 years (20.0%). Majority of the respondents were of secondary (57.5%) and tertiary of education level (33.5%). 57.8% of respondents were reported as smokers whereas 42.2% were non-smokers. Respondents were predominantly permanent resident of the state (68.1%), visitors 24.0% and temporary residents 7.9%. Overall, respondents (94.5%) reported that they have seen or heard something about the Smoke-Free Melaka campaign in the last six months, mostly from posters/signage (92.5%), billboards/digital billboards (77.0%), shop windows/inside of shops (73.8%), newspaper/magazines (72.8%), on buses (63.3%) and radio (60.8%). The study also revealed that advertising and campaign does not result in the topic being discussed among family or friends (60.6%) but majority said it made smoking less socially desirable (70.5%). After the implementation of the SFMC, more than 50% of the respondent said that smoking was not allowed inside their homes (55.1%) and vehicle (63.0%). Univariate and multivariate tests for association between demographic characteristic and awareness of the SFMC campaign and advertisement showed that among the demographic factors examined, race, level of education and status of residency were found to be associated with noticing the campaign and advertisement (Appendix 2). Logistic regression analysis showed that there was an
association between being aware of the SFMC campaign and advertisements and discussions with family and friends (Appendix 3). Being aware of the SFMC campaign and advertisement was significantly and positively associated with the desire to make homes and vehicles smoke free (Appendix 4). Implementation of the policy also resulted in significantly higher number of smokers committing to not smoking in the many of the situations listed below: if non-smokers are present (from 44% to 60%), if a non-smoking family member is present (from 67% to 77%), if an older non-smoking person is present (from 69% to 78%), if a policy officer or by-law officer is present (83% to 87%), if other smokers are present (from 14 to 27%) and if there is visible signage reminding you that it is a smoke-free area (from 70% to 75%). The number of smokers not smoking in the presence of children continues to be high before and after (81-83%) the implementation of this policy (Appendix 5).

**Discussion**

This is the first study conducted in Malaysia to examine the impact of the SFMC Project in particular Melaka on the awareness, perception, attitudes and behavior of its people and visitors; and to evaluate the association between awareness of the policy with perception on the social desirability of smoking and attitude towards smoking in adults. In this study, the awareness of the SFMC project was very high, with most respondents noticed the message in various media channels. The most frequent channel where advertisement caught their attention was from posters or signage followed by billboards/digital billboards, shop windows/inside of shops, newspapers/magazines, on buses, radio and trishaws. Respondents also noticed information printed on T-shirts worn by people in Melaka. This finding suggests that the project was very well promoted and supported by the people. In addition, local residents, Malays and those that have higher education seem to be more sensitive to the message. While it is expected that the local residents tend to be more aware
about the project because they frequent or pass through these places more frequently, a large proportions of non-resident and foreign visitors were also aware of this project, again suggesting that the project have been very well promoted and executed. Regarding those that have higher education being more aware of the project, there are research to suggest that media campaigns are more effective among higher educated group (Niederdeppe, Kuang, Crock, & Skelton, 2008) and that this group learnt more from the media than the less-educated group (Tichenor PJ, 1970).

Awareness of this SFMC project has also been found to lead people to discuss among their family and friends. This finding is in agreement with existing theories and empirical research findings that describe the role of media in promoting interpersonal discussions about smoking with such discussions being seen as a positive developmental steps towards changing smokers’ attitude and behavior (Wakefield M, Flaty B, & Nichter M et al, 2005). The project also have brought about changes in the thinking of people that smoking is not socially acceptable. This finding is consistent with that of a study conducted in Massachusetts, in the US, where strong smoke-free regulations were associated with smokers’ perceptions that smoking was socially unacceptable (Albers, Siegel, Cheng, Biener, & Rigotti, 2007). It has also been suggested that smoke free policies do change the perceived norms related to smoking in a community, making smoking less socially acceptable (Levy & Friend, 2001). The study also showed SFMC project has an effect on both implementation of smoke-free inside homes and vehicles. These results are consistent with previous studies indicating exposure to smoke-free policies in some public places has led smokers to institute voluntary smoke-free home policies (Borland, et al., 2006) and another study in New Zealand where 76% adult smokers disagreed that it is “okay” to smoke around non-smokers inside cars even when there are windows down (Gillespie, Milne, & Wilson, 2005). This finding suggests that awareness about harmful effects of smoking generated through campaign such
as the SFMC campaign/advertisement can be an important factor that pushes people to want to implement smoke-free homes and vehicles. Another important result of the SFMC project was the findings that there is significant increase in the number of smokers who would take effort not to smoke at all social settings. This finding is partly in agreement with the Wellington study where 51% of the respondents did not smoke around children and a further 17% smoked less when they were around children (Al-Delaimy, Luo, Woodward, & Howden-Chapman, 1999).

**Conclusion**

This study provides further evidence in support of the anticipated effects of implementation a smoke free project particularly with respect to the protection of people from secondhand smoke. Even though the SFMC project has just started over a period of less than 3 years, we have started to see the changes that happen to the people who are exposed to the project either directly as residents or indirectly as visitors. Clearly, we see a change in perception, attitude and behavior both non-smokers and smokers in support of this initiative.

**References**


### Appendix 1

Table 1.0: Sample characteristic of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender (N=1039)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>76.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Group (N=1039)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24 years</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-39 years</td>
<td>36.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-54 years</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 55 years</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race (N=1038)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malay</td>
<td>76.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other specify</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education (N=1037)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residency status (N=1037)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resident</td>
<td>68.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitor</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary resident</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoking status (N=1039)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Smoker</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoker</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having children below than 18 years at home (N=1035)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>49.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seen or heard anything about Smoke Free Melaka Campaign in the last six months (N=1030)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Noticed Melaka Smoke Free advertisement or information that talks about the dangers of smoking, or encourages quitting:

- On posters/signage (N=967) 92.5%
- On billboards/digital billboards (N=960) 77.0%
- On shop windows/Inside shops (N=951) 73.8%
- On newspaper/magazines (N=938) 72.8%
- On side buses (N=928) 63.3%
- On radio (N=927) 60.8%
- On t-shirts (N=943) 32.0%
- On trishaws (N=866) 27.6%

Has any of this advertising and campaign led to discussion amongst your family or friends about Smoke-free Melaka? (N=954)

- No 60.6%
- Yes 39.4%

Has this advertising and campaign made smoking less socially desirable? (N=973)

- Yes, a little 56.8%
- Yes, a lot 13.7%
- No, not at all 29.5%

Which of the following best describes smoking inside your home? (N=1034)

- No rule/allowed in some indoor areas 44.9%
- Smoking is not allowed in any indoor area 55.1%

Which of the following best describes smoking inside your vehicle? (N=992)

- No rule/allowed in some vehicles 37.0%
- Smoking is not allowed in any vehicles 63.0%

Appendix 2
Table 2: Logistic regression results showing association of demographic characteristic with noticing Smoke Free Melaka campaign and advertisement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREDICTORS</th>
<th>Noticing of Smoke Free Melaka Campaign and advertisement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Univariate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adj OR (95% CI)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic characteristic</td>
<td>N=947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Ref&lt;sup&gt;NS&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1.21(0.90,1.62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group</td>
<td>N=1030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 to 24</td>
<td>Ref&lt;sup&gt;NS&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 to 39</td>
<td>0.99(0.74,1.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 to 54</td>
<td>1.14(0.81,1.61)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 55</td>
<td>0.73(0.46,1.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>N=1029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malay</td>
<td>2.42(1.80,3.26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>Ref&lt;sup&gt;****&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>N=1029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Ref&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>2.25(1.43,3.53)&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>1.07(1.19,3.05)&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have children under 18 at home</td>
<td>N=1026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Ref&lt;sup&gt;NS&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1.001(0.78,1.29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status of smoking</td>
<td>N=1030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Smoker</td>
<td>Ref&lt;sup&gt;NS&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoker</td>
<td>0.80(0.63,1.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residency</td>
<td>N=1028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resident</td>
<td>1.71(1.08,2.71)&lt;sup&gt;*&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 3

Table 3: Logistic regression results showing the association of noticing Smoke Free Melaka campaign and advertisement with discussion with family and friends and perception regarding norms of smoking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREDICTORS</th>
<th>Discussion with family and friends</th>
<th>Perception smoking less socially desirable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Univariate</td>
<td>Multivariate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adj OR (95% CI)</td>
<td>Adj OR (95% CI)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noticed Smoke Free Melaka</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campaign/Advertisement</td>
<td>1.28(1.19,1.37)**</td>
<td>1.21(1.12,1.31)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=954</td>
<td>N=1022</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CI=confidence interval; OR=Odd ratio; *p<0.005, **p<0.001, ***P<0.001
Adjusted odds ratio for the other variables in the table plus the following variables not reported in the table: level of education.
### Appendix 4

#### Table 4: Results showing the association of noticing Smoke Free Melaka campaign and advertisement with policy enhanced smoke free home and smoke free private vehicles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREDICTORS</th>
<th>Implementation smoke free inside home</th>
<th>Implementation smoke free inside vehicle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Univariate (Adj OR (95% CI))</td>
<td>Multivariate (Adj OR (95% CI))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=1025</td>
<td>N=891</td>
<td>N=983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noticed Smoke Free Melaka Campaign and Advertisement</td>
<td>1.06(1.01,1.12)**</td>
<td>1.11(1.05, 1.174)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception smoking less socially desirable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, a little</td>
<td>1.48(1.11,1.97)**</td>
<td>1.41(1.03,1.92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, a lot</td>
<td>2.30(1.49,3.54)***</td>
<td>1.92(1.20,3.09)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not, at all</td>
<td>Ref ***</td>
<td>Ref**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion with family or friends</td>
<td>N=950</td>
<td>N=932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Ref **</td>
<td>Ref NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1.38(1.06,1.80)**</td>
<td>1.28(0.95,1.72)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.69(1.28,2.24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.51(1.09,2.09)*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CI=confidence interval; OR=Odd ratio; *p< 0.005, **p<0.001, ***P<0.001

Adjusted odds ratio for the other variables in the table plus the following variables not reported in the table: gender, race, level of education and having children below than 18 years at home.
**Appendix 5**

Table 5: Reported attitude of smokers in different social settings before and after implementation of Smoke Free Melaka City Policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>Before implementation of Smoke Free Melaka city policy</th>
<th>After implementation of Smoke Free Melaka city policy</th>
<th>P Value&lt;sup&gt;MC&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If non-smokers are present</td>
<td>N=595 N=263 (44.2)</td>
<td>N=594 N=354 (59.6)</td>
<td>P=0.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If children are present</td>
<td>N=595 N=482 (81.0)</td>
<td>N=599 N=497 (83.0)</td>
<td>P=0.305&lt;sup&gt;NS&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If a non-smoking family member is present</td>
<td>N=594 N=397 (66.8)</td>
<td>N=597 N=458 (76.7)</td>
<td>P=0.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If an older non-smoking person is present</td>
<td>N=594 N=408 (68.7)</td>
<td>N=593 N=464 (78.2)</td>
<td>P=0.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If a policy officer or bylaw officer is present</td>
<td>N=586 N=485 (82.8)</td>
<td>N=596 N=516 (86.6)</td>
<td>P=0.008**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If other smokers are present</td>
<td>N=596 N=85 (14.3)</td>
<td>N=600 N=159 (26.5)</td>
<td>P=0.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If there is visible signage reminding you that it is a smoke-free area</td>
<td>N=592 N=409(69.1)</td>
<td>N=596 N=446 (74.8)</td>
<td>P=0.006**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: The reported responses was based on those who answered as “would not smoke”.*,<sup>MC</sup>

*McNemar test, *p< 0.005, **p<0.001, ***P<0.001*
STAKEHOLDERS VIEWS TOWARDS INTERVENTION AND APPROPRIATE TREATMENT FOR AMPHETAMINE-TYPE STIMULANT (ATS) DRUG USERS: A QUALITATIVE STUDY IN SABAH

Peter S. K. Voo, Ismail Baba, Azlinda Azman, Vicknasingam Balasingam and Paramjit Singh

Abstract

In general, this qualitative study was to examine the stakeholders views towards intervention and appropriate treatment for ATS drug users. A total of seven respondents participated in this study through purposive sampling technique. The study found that CBT therapy was suitable, as well as spiritual approach. The findings in this study found that the majority of respondents have their own views about the appropriate intervention and treatment of ATS users. All their views on intervention and treatment for ATS users are intended for the benefit and change of ATS users. More extensive studies should be made on the HR interventions to get a feedback on the effectiveness of interventions for ATS users. The feedback of the research can provide an opportunity for agencies to explore all approach to ensure that ATS users get the best intervention services.

Introduction

The issue of drug use amphetamine-type stimulant type stimulants (ATS) has increased dramatically around the world and used more than drug use cocaine and opiates (UNODC, 2010). ATS is included in a group of amphetamine, methamphetamine and Methylendioxymethampetamine (MDMA) or ecstasy. ATS is easy to produce, easy to be obtained at a cheap price and difficult to control, it infiltrates almost every region of the world, including Southeast Asia (Chouvy & Meissonnier, 2004; McKetin, Kozel, Douglas, Ali, Vicknasingam, Lund & Li, 2008).

ATS is a drug stimulants name given to a group of drugs that produce significant stimulating effect on the brain and central nervous system as well as to stimulate physical activity, these synthetic drugs had an effect on the central nervous system to produce high
levels of dopamine, adrenaline, noradrenaline and serotonin, it produces feelings of euphoria, increased energy and intractable (Barr, Panenka, MacEwan, Thornton, Lang, Honer & Lecomte, 2006; Scott., Woods, Matt Meyer, Heaton, Atkinson & Grant, 2007). However, long-term use can lead to confusion, paranoia, depression, violent behavior and extreme delusions (Barr et al, 2006; Scott et al, 2007). Studies have also shown that the use of ATS cause increased libido, enhance sexual pleasure, and prolonged sex (Green & Halkitis, 2006; Halkitis & Jerome, 2008; Semple, Patterson, Grant, 2004; Volkow, Wang, Fowler, Telang, Jayne, Wong, 2007)

Problem Statement

ATS drug abuse in Sabah would be an alarming level and is a problem that began to threaten the mental and physical health of users. Sabah scenario shows the percentage of synthetic drug abuse is increasing and alarming situation for those who take the ATS can give harm to themselves due to the high dose. ATS continued use can lead to a person experiencing severe mental health problems because of drugs attacks the brain's nerve of the ATS users. Given this fact, there should be preventive and remedial efforts to curb this problem from spreading and becoming increasingly severe.

Based on the elements of the current global use of ATS, it is therefore necessary to plan an intervention and appropriate treatment for ATS drug users and meets the needs of ATS users. Studies show that the majority of drug users of amphetamine-type stimulants ATS is an experimental user (just to try) and they do not need intensive treatment. Instead, they need information and counseling to enable them to assess the potential risks arising from the use of ATS and take steps to reduce this harm (Wild, 2006).

Methodology

A qualitative approach was practiced in this study as it suits this research question. Suitable qualitative study based on systematic data collection techniques and analysis of
continuous and critical view of the right to study drug abuse (Lambert, 1990). Qualitative research approach also provides an opportunity for researchers to explore in-depth views on the implementation of HR programs to consumers ATS. In this study, the case study design is chosen to obtain the data needed to answer the research questions. A total of seven respondents participated in this study through purposive sampling technique.

**Finding**

Therapy is said to have a potential way to treat drug users who intend to quit drugs, especially ATS users. Through manual therapy treatment approaches, drug users will undergo a process according to the procedure in the therapy. Until this period, it has yet to have any form of medical treatment to prevent or replace drug intake for ATS users, compared with the use of methadone for drug opiate users. Hence, the recommended way is to use cognitive behavioral therapy. Cognitive Behavior Therapy CBT. This model seen fit in the form of ATS user through psychosocial techniques to educate the client or ATS drug users to break the dependence on drugs ATS with specific techniques and methods, as described by the respondents who have experience in the treatment

“ATS users are not yet available in the form of medical treatment such as methadone for opiate user. The current practice is using CBT Cognitive Behavior Therapy. Using the program in the form psychosocial educate for client through early recovery and relapse prevention.”

“I think the appropriate treatment such as CBT, coping skills and counseling. Doctors will recommend CBT when there is a need to see the condition of ATS users who have the condition due to the use of ATS.”

The study also found that there is an option for the treatment of ATS users, is to use spiritual approach. This is expressed by the respondents when asked what else the best way
to treat or provide interventions to ATS users. This religious approach can be applied according to the respondents according to their own religion:

“Another way....can also use a spiritual approach according to their own religion.”

“for me .... no other way to deal with it ... the key is that we must have faith to the religious emphasis ... that do not involve themselves with drug use.”

**Discussion and Conclusion**

One of the approaches that were suggested by the respondents in this study is an approach to therapy, respondents see this approach that has been practiced and proven effective, this technique is said to have the effect of treating drug users who intend to stop taking drugs ATS. Yet some of the processes and procedures to be followed in the specified period of ATS users who follow this therapy program (National Drug Research Institute, 2007). Among the recommended way is to use cognitive behavioral therapy means Cognitive Behavior Therapy CBT. This method is shown to be efficacious to consumers in the form of ATS through psychosocial techniques to educate the client or ATS drug users to break the dependence on drugs ATS. These findings supported the study conducted by Knapp, Soares, Farrel, & Lima, (2007), Rawson et al, (2004); Rawson, Gonzales, & Brethen, (2002); Shearer, 2009) that cognitive behavioral therapy CBT is effective in the treatment of ATS dependence on drugs.

As an option for treatment and intervention to ATS users, respondents in this study also suggests spiritual techniques. This approach can be applied according to the respondent religion. Alternative approach to the treatment of religion in the ATS user can be used if all the methods used are no longer effective to ATS users. Prevention program from the outset is important if the spiritual approach. Strong religious upbringing can be given since childhood
again and it is key to create awareness to prevent this happening. By using a series of lectures and sermons about the dangers of drug abuse. These findings are consistent with research conducted by Meer, Oliveira, Nappo, (2008), who found that religious education was important in the life and practice of human life.

References


PROMISING ETHIC ISSUES AND COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Prihartono, Muhamad Fadhil Nurdin, Mohd Khairul Kafiz Omar and Mahathir Yahaya

Abstract

This paper is the first to explore the promising ethic issues and competitive advantage of the Polytechnic as a higher education. Promising ethic issues based on research in service marketing triangle context in the Polytechnic can be met if performance improves product attributes and implements promotion mix as well. Promises ethics of the Polytechnic can be achieved optimally and be given the implications for competitive advantage of the Polytechnic. The purpose of this study was to analyze and determine the influence of product attributes and promotion mix on promises ethics in service marketing triangle and its implications on competitive advantage of the polytechnic in West Java and Banten, Indonesia. The results in this studies, show that: (1) Product attributes, promotions mix, promises ethics in service marketing triangle context and competitive advantage of the Polytechnic in West Java and Banten are categorized as good; (2) Product attributes and promotion mix influence on promises ethics in service marketing triangle context of the Polytechnic; (3) Product attributes and promotion mix influence on the competitive advantage of the Polytechnic; (4) Promises ethics in service marketing triangle context influence on competitive advantage of the Polytechnic; (5) Product attributes and promotion mix through promises ethics in service marketing triangle context influence on competitive advantage of the Polytechnic. However, based on this study, the arguing issues that institution of higher education can increase their competitive advantage as a result of a stronger are created from a based view of the management strategy. Secondary issue based on data resources that could be used for testing by managers and academicians are identified, and to create a potential advantage for future higher education in regional and global collaboration.

Introduction

Conceptually, in the present age the era of ethics, promises ethics is widely discussed and stirred phenomenon in development and social science discourses today. Promises ethics can used by many professionals. The promises ethics guides by placing a focus on human behavior and contractual with other professionals whose job duties affect others’ lives.
usually receive, as part of their formal training, courses that address ethical issues common to their professions. In many countries, promising ethic issues and competitive advantage of the Polytechnic as a higher education, suggests that social consciousness, if not conscience, has awakened to the questions of ethics. However, the promising ethical issues in higher education, polytechnic or college teaching as part of human ethics in regional and global collaboration. This writing essay based on studies about the influence of product attributes and promotion mix on the promises ethics and its implications on competitive advantage of higher education (A Survey on the Perception of Polytechnic Students in West Java and Banten, Indonesia).

**Background of Study**

The condition of higher education (PT) in Indonesia is currently facing competition not only local, but also regional and global competition. Globalization has led to competition for educational institutions that is not only local or regional, but also international. Global competition impacts in the education sector, one of the internationalization of higher education, which is manifested through the four forms, namely: (1) the opening of branches of universities in other countries (like the class extension), for example, American universities to open a branch in Asia; (2), the cooperation between the universities of the country with universities in other countries that offer degree programs, (3) lecture remotely through both print and virtual media over the internet. A number of leading universities in the United States, Europe, and Australia offers degree programs through this model, and (4), the comparative study of the quality of higher education that produces college ranking compared to some other college. The global competition will inevitably be faced by universities in Indonesia, both public and private.

Competitive conditions also occurred in West Java and Banten. Of the total number of new admissions were captured as many as 363,198 students nationally, and for West Java-
Banten region, it is received only 52,605 students outside the college admissions lane country. With this amount, any program of study (study program) can only obtain 20 new students. The amount per study program is the average. The facts is, there is a study program at a private university (PTS) can acquire new students up to hundreds or even thousands of people, or vice versa, there is a study program that only 2-5 people interested new students (Directorate General of Higher Education Ministry of National Education, 2011).

Competition faced by the private universities will be heavier and tighter. Currently in Indonesia there are about 3,147 colleges with 15,819 courses. Of these, as many as 15.6% or 491 colleges located in West Java and Banten. With that number, West Java has the highest number of colleges in Indonesia. Recent data, in 2010, of 115 private college (PTS) in West Java - Banten nearly 40% of them in an unhealthy condition due to lack of students (Kopertis of Region IV, 2011).

Competitive advantage to be owned by polytechnics should be tailored to the potential and variety of its resources. The ability to generate superior value that is deemed worthy to polytechnic believed in vocational education. Vocational education programs believed to be an option to boost the skills and practical skills according to related field; benefits, quality, product-specific attributes, events product use, the position of the competitor's product and product class classification. However, the promotion mix should also be managed properly in order to achieve the expected target. The phenomenon of the use of the promotion as part of the marketing strategy in polytechnic colleges in particular lately, progressively increased with the installation of banners on campus, and even in the streets of strategic, advertisements in newspapers, radio advertising, putting up posters, sending fliers to the address of prospective students, put leaflets in places frequented by the public and so on.
Thus, referring to the need to know the position of ethics in service marketing triangle context, the identification of empirical support for the general theory of marketing ethics and ethical phenomenon, product attributes and the promotion mix, and competitive advantage on polytechnic education programs, research needs to be done to clarify the relationship between these aspects. However, the promises ethics in service marketing as part of philosophy and human ethics of business and development.

**Literature Review**

Grand Theory used in this study is the theory of consumer behavior. Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) argue that consumer behavior is an individual activity in finding information, purchasing, using something, evaluating against products and services in the hope of satisfying his desire. The essence of consumer behavior includes two elements, namely (1) the decision making process (decision process) and (2) the act or physical activity. Everything involves individuals in assessing, acquiring and using goods and services. Middle Range Theory or the theory used in this study is the theory of Strategic Marketing for educational services with the applicable theories (*Applied Theory*) relating to services marketing mix theory, the theory of competitive advantage, and the theory of marketing ethics. According to Kotler and Fox in Strategic Marketing for Educational Institutions (2000:5), educational institutions realize that they have a lot of marketing issues, ranging from the declining number of students who enroll, small grants for education and other sources of income, while operating costs continue to rise. It is reminded that the educational institutions are also thinking about the reliance on markets where they are. Many educational institutions are in the face of changing expectations and needs of students, while increasing competition to acquire new students and new funding sources.

The results which are relevant to the performance of product attributes can be summarized as follows: (1) Iversen (2002) concludes that one way to achieve competitive
advantage is by continuing to produce and elaborate synergies between the assets and facilities owned by the company, because the use of assets provides efficiency, when the company has different products with competitors' assets, it will be different, (2) Broun (2006), concludes that the differentiation of the packaging gives a unique impression on the product, (3) Raduan and Haslinda (2009) concludes that organizational capabilities include Informational, product development, relationship building associated with competitive advantage, (4) Yusuf Abdullah (2011), concludes that the product strategy and value creation affect competitive advantage. Product attributes in this study is the overall product or item that is offered by the seller, in this case, polytechnic, to be noticed, requested, sought, bought, used, or consumed in the market in terms of students as the fulfillment of a need or desire of the relevant market, it is seen from the 6 (six) dimensions, namely: (1) Product benefits including: accuracy benefits according to need, peculiarities of benefits, and the benefits diversity, (2) Quality of products including: high-quality products, products that are free of defects, and guarantees of quality consistency, (3) Specific product attributes, including: facility compliance with the basic nature of the product, complete facilities, and compliance of facilities benefits with an additional fee, (4) Current use of the product, including: the accuracy of the event use of the product; (5) The position of products towards the competitor including: the relative accuracy of the product compared to competitors, and (6) Classification of products class, including: product accuracy with the classification of product class (Kotler and Keller, 2009; Aaker and McLoughlin, 2010).

The process of promotion mix that utilizes all forms of promotion to create maximum impact. As with any study of Schultz, Tannenbaum and Lauterborn (Alma, 2011) and Jeans (Alma, 2011), the primary emphasis of this study is the understanding and the use of communication tools in a holistic manner. The study by Kotler and Keller (2009) reveals that promotion mix as a concept that underlies the company's efforts to integrate and coordinate
the various channels of communication carefully in order to deliver a clear, consistent and persuasive about the organization and its products. Kotler's study is used as an indicator of advertising, public relations, personal selling, sales promotion, direct marketing, and online marketing.

Promises, in the view of the promises ethics, are a specific obligation that forms engagement with other parties who receive the promises. This engagement morally raises obligation that the promises made by others should be kept. Berry stressed that the basis for maintaining relationship in services is the promises that has been made to the customer. For service providers it has implications for the three activities namely make unrealistic promises, keep and fulfill the promises at the time of the delivery the services with an effort to allow the promises on the service system being built to meet those promises (Bitner, 1995). The three important marketing activities to do the efforts are external marketing, interactive marketing, and internal marketing. The concept shows a linkage group that work together to develop, promote and deliver services that are referred to as key actors.

![Service Marketing Triangle](Source: Valerie A. Zeithaml dan Mary Jo Bitner. 2000. p 16 (adapted))

**Figure 1: Service Marketing Triangle**

Various studies relevant to the promises ethics can be summarized as follows: (1) Binter (1995) concludes that the activities of the company to attempt to meet promises has been given to the customer has something to do with the skills, abilities, motivation and
system, (2) AMA (2004) concludes that the commitment of providers ethics in delivering the promises and sense of responsibility effect on the willingness to fulfill the promises, (3) Schwepker, (2005) concludes that honesty is a part of fairness and openness, and communicating it properly with the aim of creating trust for the other party, (4) Bertland (2009) asserts that ethical policies relating to the development of ethics in the organization that enable organizations to carry out their responsibilities, (5) Taufani (2010) concludes that the most important ethical aspects that play a role in making promises is the clarity in the promises delivery. The most important ethical aspects that play a role in enabling the most promises is the seriousness and responsibility of MM (Magister Management) program in providing the system for students. Here is the compiled research paradigm:

![Figure 2 Research Paradigm](image)

**Methods**

This research is descriptive and verification conducted in 2011 to students in polytechnics in West Java and Banten. The unit of analysis in this study was the students of the polytechnic in West Java and Banten. In this study, it was used a range of time (time
horizon) which was one shoot with the type of cross-section data. The descriptive hypotheses test used Weighted Mean Score / WMS. In the verification study with the approach in modeling and solution techniques to be used as a tool of analysis was a method of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) based on a variant or a component, namely the Partial Least Square (PLS).

The data and information in order to uncover the full number of variables was completed with the concept, dimension, indicators, measures, and measurement scales. The main study variables (Latent Variable) are: (1) The independent variable, which is the variable of product attributes and the promotion mix, (2) The dependent variable, which is the variable of competitive advantage of the polytechnic, (3) an intervening variable, namely promises ethics in service marketing triangle context. The indicator and measure used in this study was ordinal measurement scales 1 through 5.

The population in this study is the overall characteristics of the study variables perceived by the students of the Polytechnic. The unit of analysis is 31 Polytechnics, while the unit of observation is the active students at the private polytechnic in West Java and Banten. The sample size was determined in accordance with the number of samples required for the variant or component-based structural equation model (Structural Equation Model / SEM), namely Partial Least Square (PLS). The sampling method used is proportional Simple Cluster Random Sampling Method (Cochran, 2010) to all students of a private polytechnic as the population unit. From the results of these calculations, the sample size in this study is 385 respondents. The data obtained from the questionnaire spreading and the secondary data collection was carried out in 4 steps, namely coding, editing, processing the data and then analyzing the data. The data from the questionnaire spreading which is as a measure of the research variables was obtained from the answers score having ordinal level of measurement. For the descriptive analyzes, it was used Weighted Mean Score, with the aim to describe
each respondent's answer to the question which is determined from each variable studied. Weighted mean scores was obtained from the following formula:

$$\text{WMS} = \frac{\sum \text{AS}}{\sum \text{IS}} \times 100\%$$

(Source: Adoption of Murray & Stephens, 2007:49)

where:

WMS = Weighted Mean Score, which is the average of value weighted results, obtained from the ratio of total actual score with the total ideal score.

$\sum \text{AS}$ = Actual Score, which is the total score obtained from multiplying the number of respondents, the number of questions, and the scores achieved by respondents

$\sum \text{IS}$ = Ideal Score, which is the score obtained from multiplying the number of respondents, the number of questions, and the maximum score for each question.

**Research Findings**

Based on the results of research, discussion and problem solving, it can be concluded as follows:

1. The picture of product attributes, promotion mix, promises ethics in service marketing triangle context, and competitive advantage of the polytechnic in Kopertis Region IV of West Java and Banten is categorized as good.

2. Product attributes and promotional mix have a significant influence on promises ethics in service marketing triangle context in the Polytechnic in West Java and Banten (for 67.41%) and it is in the high category.

3. Product attributes and promotion mix have a significant influence on the polytechnic competitive advantage in the West Java and Banten (for 87.44%) and it is in the very high category.
4. Promises ethics in the context of service marketing service directly influence the competitive advantage of the Polytechnic in West Java and Banten (66.75 %) which is categorized as high.

5. Product attributes and promotion mix through promises ethics significantly influence on the competitive advantage of the Polytechnic in West Java and Banten (for 33.22%) which is in low category.

Based on research findings, the promising ethic issues and competitive advantage of the Polytechnic as a higher education in service marketing triangle context in the Polytechnic can be met if performance improves product attributes and implements promotion mix as well.

**Promising Ethic Issues**

**Achieving Higher Education thru Regional and Global Collaboration**

Globalization has led to competition for educational institutions that is not only local or regional, but also international. Higher education collaboration is characterized by mutual understanding and consensual decision-making resulting in creative solutions that are enhanced and altered from those that any team member would produce independently, and by common action. The collaborative process has been described from a number of perspectives including the action research paradigm, from the co-operative group process perspective and from special education's multidisciplinary team approach. The competitive advantages of the process which seem particularly applicable to inter-institutional collaborative partnerships in curriculum and practicum design, and teacher education include increased sharing of material and human resources across professional disciplines, facilitation of liaison activities among institutions, and cost effectiveness; the generation of unique solutions and better decision-making that results from the pooling and recombination of resources. The regional and global competition will inevitably be faced by universities in
Indonesia, both public and private. The condition of higher education (PT) in Indonesia is currently facing competition not only local, but also regional and global competition.

However, inter-institutional collaborative partnerships, by definition alternative approaches to solving educational problems or improving educational practice, have an element of innovation. The central focus of this collaboration between these universities is on interdisciplinary and multi-level approaches to industrial based initiatives practicum that will help to foster happier and healthier. These multi-level and multi-cultural initiatives accentuate important core issues related to the field of industrial development practicum. These include leadership growth and development, enhancement and capacity building, partnership, collaboration, empowerment and sustainability in an array of sectors.

**Competencies and General goals required for practicum**

Polytechnic students undergoing practicum may be placed in settings in which they are engaged in direct practice or indirect in industrial and developmental settings. In achieving this mission, proactive measures need to be taken into consideration and a task force need to be form. These include the application of the ethics on industrial and developmental practice; the use of critical thinking to guide decision-making; the acceptance and understanding of diversity in practice; the participation in the development of policies that impact on human development.

The general goals of in industrial and developmental practicum at both universities is to ensure equip future graduated who possess the knowledge, skill and value base for effecting change at the local, national and global levels. A major emphasis is the development of the ability in students to apply critical thinking skills in industrial sectors and to help them to encourage citizen participation in addressing issues of economic and industrial development. A further goal is the preparation of students for pursuing graduate level education; and to improve the quality of their professional practice. Additionally,
faculties from both universities also develop effective cooperative and collaborative partnerships with industrial factoring and government scenario.

**Program Evaluation Procedures**

Evaluation is essential for ongoing and are necessary to ensure effective collaborative effort. The criterion on which an evaluation of a collaborative effort is based is needed from the outset. Collaboration is a necessary part of contemporary industrial development, and the collaboration’s activities benefit the students through the provision of clear information being presented to the field instructors. Having joint orientations and field-related trainings enable field instructors to gain information regarding the commonalities and distinctions between the programs.

**References**


PRN INFORMATICS FOR COMMUNITY HEALTH: BUILDING LOCAL TALENTS IN ICT AND MULTIMEDIA FOR POISON EDUCATION AND PREVENTION

Rosman Ahmad, Maizurah Omar, Rahmat Awang, Mohd Asyiek Mat Desa and Zulham Hamdan

Abstract

The National Poison Centre of Malaysia (PRN) like any other poison centers (PCs) around the world was established with the primary mission to improve management and care of poisoned patients by providing information on poisons and antidote availability and conducting toxicology laboratory tests and analysis. In addition, PRN is also expected to fulfill its public health mission in toxico-surveillance, environmental health monitoring and poison education and prevention. PRN is also a WHO designated Collaborating Center for Drug Information (Western Pacific Region) as well as a Clearinghouse for Tobacco Control carrying out activities consistent with the roles and mission of PCs. This paper highlights a creative approach undertaken by PRN in its effort to provide a sustainable public education and awareness program on the dangers of chemicals. The approach involves integrating talents from two different disciplines - science (health) and arts (visual literacy) to address health literacy. Appreciating the availability of local talents in ICT and multimedia from both public and private colleges, PRN created a laboratory known as "Informatics for Community Health" with the goal of refining the skills of community college students and graduates in ICT and multimedia while producing educational materials related to the needs of PCs. Students participating in the training are asked to engage directly with content providers and partners to boost their confidence, self-esteem and communication skills. So far more than 100 students/graduates from 10 colleges have been trained and their products include various interactive multimedia educational that can be made accessible through the Internet or CDs or as apps used in i-pads and androids. Through this platform, PRN sees the potential to build stronger partnership both nationally and internationally in its effort to contribute effectively in global poison education and prevention through its unique position and relationship with international government and non-governmental agencies.
Background

The establishment of the National Poison Centre has a long history. It began in 1982 as a small research project financed by the Universiti Sains Malaysia Short-term Research Grant. The project was set up with the objectives of (a) collecting, evaluating, integrating and organizing information related to drugs, poisons and public education, (b) providing for a rapid, accurate and discriminate retrieval system, and (c) promoting better patient care through an effective and efficient drug and poison information services. The project, better known as the Integrated Drug and Poison Information Service (IDPIS), also charted a number of milestones. In 1988, the capability of IDPIS, was put to test when the nation was shocked by the deaths of a number of schoolchildren after consuming 'loh see fun' in Ipoh. After being contacted by the Ipoh Hospital, for the first time, IDPIS demonstrated its usefulness in meeting the request for information from various agencies, namely information regarding boric acid and aflatoxin - both being suspected to be involved in this fatal poisonings. (Awang, 1991)

In 1989, it initiated a unique videotex system, hailed to be the first in Asia, if not internationally, in terms of relaying drug and poison information to both the professionals and members of the public alike. It is a direct electronic information service using the National Videotex Service of Malaysia called TELITA [an acronym for TELEKOM (national telecommunication provider), LIHAT (see), TAHU (know)]. Through this medium, an on-line service was launched nationwide in mid-1989 whereby users can get access to various databases for examples Drugline and Poisonline. The former deals with important aspects of drug use, particularly its purpose, correct usage, dose regimen, side-effects for drugs registered in the country, as well as their manufacturers. The latter, integrates information concerning poisons including pesticides, agrochemicals, household and industrial chemicals. This database also provides information on poisoning signs and
symptoms, treatment modalities and poison prevention. Proper usage, classes of poisons, antidotal information and emergency treatment procedures are also included. Both of these databases are inter-related and duly integrated to maximize the relational information provided for the benefit of the end users (Razak, Latiff, Majid, & Awang, 1997). This service could be viewed as a forerunner to the establishment of the National Poison Centre.

It was not until mid-1994 that IDPIS, finally being recognized as the National Poison Centre following a Cabinet decision. It is now called "PUSAT RACUN NEGARA" or PRN for short. It is in this context that Pusat Racun Negara (PRN) defines its scope of activities. Like its counterparts worldwide, PRN was established with the primary mission to improve management and care of poisoned patients by providing information on poisons and antidote availability and providing toxicology laboratory tests and analysis. In addition, it fulfills its public health mission through toxico-surveillance, environmental health monitoring and poison education and prevention.

Specifically, PRN, with its vision of 'creating health,' has set its mission 'to reduce the mortality, morbidity, occurrence and cost of poisoning in a manner that strives for excellence, compassion and innovation.' This is done by making available services that can assist in reducing the risk and occurrence of poisoning, and by encouraging optimum treatment of poisoning cases by (a) providing information on poisons and advice in poisoning cases on a 24-hours, 7 days per week basis, (b) conducting research and documenting poisoning incidences, (c) coordinating and conducting poison awareness and prevention education, (d) carrying out analytical tests and interpretation of laboratory results, and (e) embracing creative and innovative information dissemination by utilizing current technology. So far, since its establishment, PRN have been consulted for more than 25,000 poisoning cases around the country involving a wide range of poisons including pesticides, pharmaceuticals, household products and natural toxins (Maklinaco & Awang, 2005). On a
proactive level, it carries out various health promotion activities including awareness, advocacy, capacity building, community engagement and established various linkages and partnerships with national and internationals agencies and non-governmental organizations (Othman, Awang, Ibrahim, & Hamdan, 2003) (Bakrin, Awang, & Zakaria, 2004). In recognition of its unique role and contribution in public health, PRN was designated as a WHO Collaborating Center for Drug Information (Western Pacific Region) in 1998 and provided funding by the Rockefeller Foundation to set up a Clearinghouse for Tobacco Control in 2001.

Almost all of PRN’s functions have used ICT as its backbone: collation, management and dissemination of health information. Initially, PRN was greatly involved in the development of computerized system focused at enhancing efficiency in delivering its services such as providing drug and poison information. This evolved over time towards building interactive health educational tools mainly to support government agencies and communities, either for use in health-related capacity building program and/or multimedia packages for individual self-learning (Majid, Hussin, Awang, & Razak, 1997). This provision is in-line with the vision and expectations of the Ministry of Health as explained in its 2020 Malaysia Health Vision (MOH, 2008). The vision states that Malaysia is to be a nation of healthy individuals, families and communities, through a health system that is equitable, affordable, efficient, technologically appropriate, environmentally adaptable and consumer-friendly, with emphasis on quality, innovation, health promotion and respect for human dignity, which promotes individual responsibility and community participation towards an enhanced quality of life. This vision was made known in 1989 during the time when Malaysia introduces its Multimedia Super-corridor (MSC) Tele-health projects in which ICT is believed to the enabler.
Objective

The purpose of this paper is to highlight a creative approach undertaken by PRN in its effort to provide a sustainable public education and awareness program on the dangers of chemicals.

What is PRN Informatics for Community Health (PRN-ICH)

Health Informatics by itself is a field that integrates information, computer science and health care involving resources, equipment, and methods to optimize the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information in health and biomedicine (Tercyak, Abraham, Graham, Wilson, & Walker, 2007). This field has undergone immense growth and focuses on the development of information systems to support the health system or the processes of providing medical care. The focal point has since shifted to developing computer and telecommunications system to support consumers and patients directly.

This new field of study is known as Consumer Health Informatics (CHI). The works of CHI may intersect with other disciplines such as health education, health promotion, public health, pharmacy, library science and communication science. PRN-ICH follows the principles and emphasis laid-down in CHI but priority is given to support communities as agent of change of people in their locality (Laverck, 2006). This initiative integrates two crucial disciplines of the health (Science) and literacy (Arts) for future sustainability under one umbrella, Health Literacy (CHCS).

Philosophy of PRN Informatics for Community Health

While the main purpose of establishing PRN-ICH is to be able to produce various health educational and health promotional materials for use by the communities and consumers, the approach to be undertaken will also take into consideration the building of local human capacity in ICT and multimedia (Lin, Fawkes, Lee, Engelhardt, & Mercado, 2009).
Establishing a pool of experts to support the initiative

In this initiative, PRN integrates talents from two major but different disciplines, a) science that can be represented by people in the health-related sectors as well as in computer programming and, b) arts, that can be represented by people in the field of visual literacy, new media as well as communications. This is achieved by PRN seeking and establishing collaborations with experts from different centers and schools within the university. To date, at least 10 persons from different schools and centers within the university have lend their expertise to support the program.

In addition, PRN-ICH has at least another 8 staff, most on contractual basis who can support the production of excellent multimedia packages. They include graphic artists and designers, animators, photographers, videographers, storyboard writers and programmers. Currently, PRN-ICH has the capacity to develop a range of training materials from interactive multimedia used in personal computers to i-pads/androids as well as mobile phones (Laverack, Munodawafa, Aggrawal, & Chatterjee, 2009).

Developing interactive multimedia packages or kits to meet the needs of the community

PRN is currently actively engaged at national and international level to provide assistance development capabilities on various educational and promotional materials related to rational use of medicine, poisoning and chemical safety and tobacco control. Over the last decade, PRN has worked closely with international agencies including the World Health Organization and its agencies and units such as the United Nation Environment Programme (UNEP in Geneva), International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPC) and national agencies such as the Malaysian Health Promotion Board. These collaborations demand very targeted multimedia products and trainee students supervised by PRN are given opportunities to help develop the products.
Infrastructure support

PRN-ICH has a computer laboratory with online computer networks and other necessary components for the development of its multimedia products. Its laboratory can accommodate at least 20 students and any excess can be housed at its partner laboratory located at the Knowledge, Information and Communication Centre. All training rooms are equipped with essential training facilities adequate for the development of quality multimedia products. In addition, there is the availability of a reasonably size green screen room where photography and video recording can be made. The products are mainly short educational videos superimposed with animations and pictures or graphics about health issues. The unit also maintains a number of servers to host a number of websites such as PRN’s own website, Quitline System, the C-TOB, VNDIS and others (Majid, et al., 1997).

Providing Wide Ranging ICT and Multimedia Training Opportunities

Under this programme, hands-on training from PRN and USM’s experts on Graphic Design, Layout Design for Print, Illustration, Script-writing for Animation, Animation, Coding, Audio and Video Recording and 3D Animations provided.

Experiences

Efforts of the ICT and Multimedia Unit PRN to train students have received enthusiastic response from both public and private academic institutions. In the last 10 years, more than 10 colleges have sent their students to be trained. These are mainly from Infotech MARA group of colleges and Community Colleges around the country. In fact, most of the ICT and Multimedia team members are former students of these institutions (Ahmad, 2011). In 2010 a contract was signed between Community College and USM to formalize an agreement that grants graduated students from Community Colleges to undergo industrial training in PRN. This programme is called Community College Graduate Employability Program.
In Malaysia, there are 6 Community Colleges that offer a multimedia creative animation course. PRN is keen to enhance the potential of these students to a higher level (i.e. to be able to design and develop products acceptable at national and international levels) as well as to help them attain soft skills such as elevating their self-esteem and career aspirations. To date, 3 Community Colleges have participated in this programme: Kolej Komuniti Kepala Batas, Kolej Komuniti Selayang and Kolej Komuniti Kuantan. A total of 19 graduates from these community colleges have successfully completed the programme.

Programme Objectives

Improving Community College graduates' skills in the production of various ICT and Multimedia products through their direct involvement in "USM Health Promoting ICT and Multimedia Initiatives".

Products To-date

Below is a list of products produced through this initiative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Client</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MPower Training Package</td>
<td>WHO Western Pacific Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity-building in Tobacco Control for Non-Government Organizations</td>
<td>MySihat, Ministry of Health Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toxicology in The Classroom (Omar &amp; Awang, 2009)</td>
<td>UNEP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genetically Engineered Rice</td>
<td>Pesticide Action Network (PAN)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity-building To Create Tobacco Control Youth Leaders among Undergraduate Students in Malaysian Universities</td>
<td>WHO Malaysia (Country Office)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living With the Enemy (Knowing Poisonous Product at Home)</td>
<td>National Poison Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kajian Terhadap Profil Karektor dalam Isu Merokok</td>
<td>National Poison Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound Management of Pesticide and Diagnosis &amp; Treatment of Pesticide Poisoning</td>
<td>WHO-UNEP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

The information age has changed the way information is being communicated throughout the world. Current communication technology allows sophisticated information in various formats to be delivered with just a click. The availability of laptops, smart phones, tablet devices along with good data communication have further facilitated the dissemination of information. PRN has been active in developing information and educational materials for the public with the help of these technology.

While budget is always a constraint to PRN as in other departments in the university, PRN initiated an effort to explore the possibility of producing multimedia works through a medium-term training programs offered to multimedia students within and outside the university including private colleges.

The programme gives an advantage to graduates who have completed their training to have an exposure to create and develop multimedia products specific to health aspects. These students could be the experts in developing future product for the Ministry of Health Telehealth project and others as well.

Besides learning experiences, the training and exposure to teamwork will better equip the students to greater self-confidence. Direct interactions with experts, designers, multimedia developers and collaborative partners will also allow the students to gain hands-on experience from people in the field.

Last but not least, involvement in national or international parties projects will benefit graduates’ portfolio and hopefully qualify them for a more gainful of employment. PRN shall continue exploiting IT technologies by contributing services to the State and society in general. The ICT and Multimedia unit is PRN’s response to the challenges of Malaysian Health Vision that acts as a conduit of information and education to the public on wellness,
healthcare, treatment and prevention. It endeavors to publish as much as possible through the medium of Multimedia Training Kits and increasing capacity for long-distance teaching.

PRN has identified and bound partnerships with external agencies both nationally and internationally. Co-operations established with the WHO, UNEP, IUPAC and also APAMT must continue to ensure that resources in their fields of expertise can help in publishing modules and distance learning training kits - these materials include monographs, pamphlets, posters, flip charts, DVDs, websites and other related multimedia materials. Being a WHO Collaborating Centre for Drug Information also gives this advantage to PRN. It has been entrusted with the responsibility to help train professionals from other countries from Western Pacific Regions on Drug and Poison Information. Advantageously, it enables PRN to be able to continuously secure projects and grants to sustain its works.

References


REQUIREMENTS OF SIGN LANGUAGE AND BRAILLE READING SKILL
IN SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

Syazwani Drani, Azlinda Azman and Masarah Mohamad Yusof

Abstract

Social work is a field of real professional assistance which may help to reduce problems in a holistic way effectively. Based on the credibility and skills possessed by a social worker, it is not surprising that every task and responsibility in solving client problems can be implemented with care. Working in a variety of settings, social workers are claimed to have a variety of skills. In addition to working in the setting of gerontology, correctional, women and children, social workers also work with people with disabilities. Thus social workers should have competent skills in the use and handling Braille reading and sign language skill to facilitate communication in the process of delivering information. This method of communication used by people who with disabilities of visual impairment can not hear (Deafness) and they can not speak (Mute). Through mastery and skillfully of Braille and sign language, this may enhance the neglected fate of people with disabilities.

Field of social work practice really holds on to the aspects of health, welfare, management and policy development in order to reduce the arising problems. Discrimination that often occurs to this group of people shows that the need for Braille and sign language skills are very important in social work practice. Thus, in this paper work a number of recommendations addressed to ensure social workers have the high proficiency skills in Braille reading and sign language.

Issues and Needs in Social Work Practice

Regarding on the plight of people with disabilities are certainly come with problems and discriminatory caused by various factors. This group is often being the spotlight upon the occurrence of discrimination and violence against them. They should be helped in the fight for equal rights as normal people. Among the problems that often occur to these people is the right to get a job, problems of their needs and the basic amenities specifically for the disabled, communication problems and so on.

According to statistic issued by the Department of Social Welfare Malaysia (JKM) in
In 2011, the total number of people with disabilities (OKU) who registered with the Department are 331,606. Among those registered person, people with learning difficulties is the highest number of 126,000 people, followed by physical disability (115,000), hearing (40,915), vision (28,732), others (14,462), mental (5,873) and speech (505). Besides that, according to figure released by the World Health Organization (WHO), in a country with an estimated population of 20,000 people, about one percent of the population is made up of the people with disabilities.

Table 1: The statistics of the Registered Disability in the Department of Social Welfare 2011 (By category)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Total (people)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning Difficulties</td>
<td>126,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical handicapped</td>
<td>115,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing Problems</td>
<td>40,915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision Problems</td>
<td>28,732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>14,462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental Disorders</td>
<td>5,873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech Disorders</td>
<td>505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>331,606</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The challenge of a life as disabled people gives them the spirit to the twists and turns of life. No doubt there are also disabled who are unable to accept the challenge and finally crash in life. They are opting for public sympathy for their livelihood, as a beggars. This is different with those who use whatever they still have to make a living, such as the blind person who use their skill to play musical instruments to entertain the crowd on the sidewalk.

Every single disabled person never ask to be born in a poor condition. If given the
opportunity, they also want to enjoy a life as a normal human being and a freedom of movement, smooth communication, and quick thinking. Their disabilities should not be derisively and disputed by the society, and even worse consider them as a burden. Positive presumption should applied in mind every time evaluating these special people who also known as persons with disabilities (OKU).

Special groups are also faced with the problem of getting employers to hire them to work. Until now the Labour Officer in Labour Department in Penang targeting a total of 900 people with disabilities to be absorbed into the job market. This target is consistent with the code of practice for the Employment of Persons with Disabilities (PWD Code) and managed to provide employment to 917 people with disabilities in Malaysia.

Their main problem is the difficulty to interact. Therefore, employers should try to get an interpreter to facilitate communication runs smoothly. Employers need to give them a three-month trial opportunity to show skills. Communication barriers that prevented them from withdrawing prefer, aloof, and live in their group only. More unfortunately, many deaf people do not have good language skills. Weaknesses that cause them to fail to understand a direction well. Perhaps, the disabled should be given the opportunity to develop themselves in this globalized world. In addition to the government, the community must also think positively every time evaluating the disabled.

Based on the problems on the discussion above, it appears that the disabled increasingly exposed to a variety of issues. Social work is a profession that is seen to help in decreasing existing social issues. Real social work stick to the basic fundamentals which aims to improve health, welfare, management and policy development to help reduce the social issues. Growing social problems indicate a greater need for social work in providing relevant interventions. Social workers are necessarily requires a new orientation, direction, solutions and actions to be more effective in meeting this challenge. Hence, this paperwork
attempts to address the social work that can be put forward in producing a social worker in a holistic accountable. Among the things that need attention are addressed and the mastery of braille and sign language use by social workers in helping the disabled.

**Mastering the Braille and Sign Language / Social Work Specialization.**

Focus on a particular specialization in social work need to be addressed if the social work profession wants to continue as cornerstone of the development of human well-being. Produce a competent social workers require a new phase in the ability and skills in mastering the use of sign language and braille. Good mastering enable social workers to work more efficiently when facing social problems among people with disabilities. Besides focusing on the basic aspects of social work, social worker skill levels is required to develop to enable students of social work and social workers can provide more effective interventions. In other words, the mastery of the skills is being the great value in developing social work knowledge in practice with various target groups.

Processes of learning and study of social work based on learning of elective field contains learning theory, theory and practical application of field work. To produce social workers who have the skills and high proficiency in the use of sign language and braille, the contents in elective fields must be added to mastery the skills. This is to enable social work students mastering skills as described above. Value added is a benchmark that not only the social work profession is in standard professional level but even more than that.

If social workers are trained in the relations of these skills, the results to be obtained is a social worker who is efficient, effective and competitive and accountability in providing social services and assistance to improve the social and psychosocial function who are often being the victims of discrimination. Therefore, the need to upgrade the skills of social workers in the field of sign language and braille are also the basis for the existence of a more prosperous society. This is because the stability of the target group is the core of the harmony
and the development of a community according to their capacity and capability to act.

In addition, student social workers should be brought to the curriculum, to increase their understanding in relation to people with disabilities. This allows them to better internalize the importance of sign language proficiency skills and Braille. This included the method of presenting the information to disabled people who can not see, talk and hear. Social workers are trained to assist the disabled community to develop support for discrimination against them dismissed allowing these people improve their well-being without having to feel inferior with lack of belonging.

Field services to people with disabilities is not an easy thing to be coordinated because it is closely linked with other services such as transportation, housing, and long-term development. The role of social workers in providing services to people with disabilities is a link to the latter to obtain the necessary resources such as medical assistance, employment, finances, and home care for those in need. Social workers are needed to help these people get the mentioned requirements.

In addition social workers who mastery the skills can help reduce dependence, improve the autonomy and quality of life of the disabled and provide counseling services. Regarding the welfare, social workers not only focus on the physical aspects of the mental and emotional rather should also be taken into consideration because it directly affects the lives of the disabled. Sign language proficiency and good Braille allow communication of the disabled happened smoothly. In fact, the information required to be delivered accurately.

**Requirements Skills / Specialization**

The importance of the skills discussed above is seen particularly noteworthy in making the improvement of effective social work curriculum. Each social work programs offered in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Malaysia have examined the importance of braille and sign language skills that have been suggested above can be given special
These improvements will attract social workers to involve themselves with the problems of the disabled. This is because social workers do not have to worry about the barriers of communication with persons with disabilities who use sign language and Braille as a language to communicate. The importance and presence of social workers has been recognized by the whole community. If the profession of social work to achieve an efficient standard skills, this is no longer contribute doubt against the disabled in employing the help of social workers. It also contributes to the expertise of social workers to help deliver information to this group.

In order to realize this proposal, higher education institutions that offer social work programs should always been supportive and give positive response in researching improvements in the social work curriculum. As it is known, higher education institution is engaged in a process of education that prepares students for professional practice and for leadership roles in profession of social workers. This field can also prepare students to venture into the professional level in social work sector.

Preparation of specific classes deepen and enhancing the skills of sign language and braille must be implemented. This item allows social work students have the skills discussed in line with the need to help clients consisting of a cluster of people with disabilities.

Learning these skills can be subject to the core so that all students are no exception to learn these skills. One semester should be allocated for learning and studying these skills which may improve student confidence of social work to communicate with people with disabilities and help improving the functionality of their lives.

Therefore, the higher education institution should provide qualified instructors who have a good skills of sign language and braille to train and teach social work students. Expertise and skills of teaching staff is crucial to ensure that every student is able to master attention.
the learned skills well. Mastering the mentioned skills is a good starting point on the confidence and professionalism of social workers when face to face with situations that require them to use sign language and braille.

The main purpose is to put all the IPT on the quality and quantity at the same standard. Thus it can determine welfare services and social work for the better and effective based on professionalism. If this was not done by now, it is worried that the social workers would not help people with disabilities very well. If the process is done, the field of social work will continue to be accepted and implemented, then the profession will achieve increasing levels of professionalism in the field of social work. This point also reflects the ability of social workers who have their own aesthetic value in helping to resolve issues and social problems to the global stage.

**Conclusion**

Mastery of sign language and braille can ensure social work profession is widespread and produce high quality graduates who are competent in addressing various social issues. In-depth training in the skills discussed above can improve the marketability among students of social workers to enter the field or a variety of settings. Social problems demands an understanding and commitment to be tackled as well. It clearly requires consensus and the contribution of various parties, including among social workers trained. Other than that, this suggests that social workers are trained to help reduce this burden. To ensure the proposal is successful, reforms must be made immediately in order to achieve the desired objectives and targets.
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THE NEED FOR COLLABORATIVE INTERVENTION FOR PSYCHOSOCIAL WELLBEING: A STUDY OF FEMALE HEADS OF HOUSEHOLDS IN RESETTLING NORTHERN SRI LANKA

T. Thirumayuran

Abstract

It is a well-known fact that wars affect men and women differently. Those differential experiences of war endured by men and women have serious consequences in both recovery and development. But this difference is not reflected in most research studies due to their gender-blind approach. While addressing this lacuna in the literature, this study looks into the complex war and post-war situation that had created severe psychosocial problems among the people. Among those thus affected, women, particularly female heads of households in the northern Sri Lanka are continuing to endure acute psychological distress—a traumatic situation with significant physical and psychological symptoms. This study primarily explores the situation of women, particularly the female heads of households in post-conflict northern Sri Lanka. The multiple waves of conflict, displacement, and militarization caused by the ethnic conflict had led to the multiplication in the number of Female heads of households particularly in the war-affected zones. Many of these Female heads of households who had not been able to withstand the strains and stresses of their new responsibilities had apparently succumbed to the traumatic war situations and the post-conflict resettlement strains to need urgent psychosocial solutions to their problems. Sexual assault, rape, suicide, security problems, unemployment, lack of family and social support continue to cause serious psychosocial problems to those women in Northern Sri Lanka. The conflict has damaged and torn the social fabric of the district leaving many females to head households most unexpectedly. The usual support from their own social network was disrupted leaving the Female heads of household’s particularly vulnerable in the post-war period. Using mainly the qualitative methodology with data gathered through semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion and case studies, this study examines the effective collaborative model for the intervention for psychosocial problems and challenges encountered by the Female heads of households in the post-war period in Sri Lanka. The collaborative and partnership dynamics espoused by the social workers is recommended as a solution suitable to the local situation.
Introduction

Individuals, families and communities in Northern Sri Lanka have undergone more than twenty five years of war trauma, multiple displacements, and loss of family, kin, friends, homes, employment and other valued resources (D. Somasundaram, 2012). In situations of armed conflict a major shift in gender roles often takes place in terms of scale and nature of atrocity and the numbers affected. In other words it is the women who suffer the most heinous violations of human rights during such periods. During the period of over three decades of civil conflict in Sri Lanka women suffered the most severe forms of abuse with a significant number becoming heads of households particularly in the Northern and Eastern Provinces of the country. The war also led to many other social, political, economic and cultural upheavals in the country. The most alarming consequence of all these changes was the incredible rate at which a number of women became breadwinners, challenging the social institution of the male headship in the family.

This study concentrates on the aftermath of the protracted ethnic conflict experienced in Sri Lanka for over three decades. Within this context this study explores the situation of women particularly the female heads of households in post conflict northern Sri Lanka and the interventions being carried out to resolve their psychosocial conditions. The multiple waves of conflict, displacement and militarization caused by the internecine warfare between the feuding parties namely the freedom fighters and the State left behind a trail of destruction with hundreds of thousands of people killed and many more left destitute including women. This led to the multiplication in the number of Female heads of households particularly in the war affected zones. Many of these Female heads of households who had not been able to withstand the strains and stresses of their new responsibilities had apparently succumbed to the traumatic war situations and the post conflict resettlement strains to need urgent psycho social solutions to their problems. In this context it became necessary to identify suitable
intervention methods in order to maximize the impact of the intervention undertaken in the form of aid as resources available were found to be limited.

Despite such a situation, many such women from northern Sri Lanka looked after their families single-handedly (19,000 women headed households), filling in for the absent male in what had been up to then, traditional male roles (Somasundaram 2003) They rode bicycles in greater numbers, went to the shops, met and argued with authorities, took their children to schools and temples, and generally ‘kept the home fires burning’ during this crisis in our society. They were thus under considerable stress and more vulnerable to breakdown”

This situation was universal A certain number of people mainly including females were identified to have been subject to such mental disorders identified to be somatization disorder followed by anxiety, depression and psycho-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Suicidal tendencies were also detected

**Research Design and Methods**

The primary objective of this study was to study the psycho-social problems endured by the Female heads of households in post conflict Northern Sri Lanka. In the exploratory process adopted the study attempts to examine the psychosocial challenges encountered by the female heads of households in the resettled areas and to examine the intervention methods adopted with the special focus on the models of collaborative intervention.

Using mainly the qualitative methodology the data was gathered through semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion and case studies. This study examines the psychosocial problems and challenges encountered by the Female heads of households and the intervention methods adopted to resolve the problems created in the post war period in Sri Lanka. The setting was Northern Sri Lanka in early 2012. Semi-structured interviews were held by mental health and psychosocial workers, teachers, government and non-governmental (NGO) officials, priests and community leaders. Focus groups discussions
were carried out with mental health and psychosocial community workers in Jaffna. Case studies were carried out by the author with the primary target group at the resettle locations of Jaffna. Triangulation was done through literature survey of media and organizational reports.

To identify the samples of Female heads of households the purposive sampling method was used Analysis of the data used qualitative techniques drawn from case studies, phenomenology, grounded theory and discourse analysis. Research was carried out under extremely difficult, risky and sensitive situations. Thus, in this study the names of participants, assistants, sources of information and organizations have been left anonymous.

Findings

Female Heads Of Households, Problems And Need

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>District</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mannar</td>
<td>2602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Vavuniya</td>
<td>4064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kilinochchi</td>
<td>5572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Mullaithivu</td>
<td>3273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Jaffna</td>
<td>29742</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Widows in North 2011

a) Contextual background

The Household Income and Expenditure Survey of 2009/10 (HIES), estimates that out of every 5 million households, in Sri Lanka, 1.1 million households or 23% of the households were headed by females. Majority of the Female heads of households were in the age group of 40-59 years. Of the total female heads of households, in Sri Lanka, more than 50% were widows while a small percentage (4.5%) is reported as never married. But
the statistics related to the female heads of households is different in the North. The percentage of female heads is high in the war affected Northern Sri Lanka than the National percentage.

b) Situation of Women, Female heads of households in Northern Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka’s predominantly Tamil-speaking north has been facing a desperate lack of security in the aftermath of the protracted civil war. Gender-based violence continued to persist in the northern Tamil community, partly due to security and economic issues. Not like in the past (before and during the war), now women have been forced into prostitution or coercive sexual relationships in the resettled locations. Pregnancies among teenagers increased significantly. According to the Government Agent Jaffna, there were 346 teenage pregnancies were reported in 10months in 2011. Fear of abuse has further restricted women’s movement and impinged upon their education and employment opportunities. Among those women who suffered the impact of the conflict most were the Female heads of households encountering endless problems from many quarters. They form the most vulnerable among the women in the region. Since their males/husbands were abducted and went missing; they are categorized as widows for special support which is limited. They continue to live in fear of violence with no economic security.

In the war’s final stages in 2008 and 2009, hundreds of thousands of civilians including large number of Female heads of households who were held in the northern Vanni region suffered multiple displacements and injuries through months of shelling by the government forces. Several hundred held hostage by the LTTE, were eventually herded into closed government camps. Most lost nearly all possessions and many of their family members. Significant numbers among them were missing or detained as suspected LTTE cadres. When the families eventually returned to their villages, they found the lands deserted, destroyed and made barren or encroached by others. (Crisis Group 2011)
Within the Northern region the district of Jaffna has recorded the highest number of Female heads of households. Women who had lost their male bread winners such as husbands/fathers/brothers or whose male bread winners had become incapacitated by the war or by illness taking control of the households as heads. In certain families, unmarried daughters who took the responsibility of their family due to their parent’s death had to take charge of their families as heads.

Female heads of households, in particular had endured severe problems in their attempts to ensure their survival and that of their dependents (Somasundaram 2003). The female heads of households and war widows certainly carry extra burdens as compared to the average women in the Sri Lankan society. Apart from their traumatic experience, daily stressors such as poverty, family conflict, health problems, unemployment, social isolation and harassments exert a severely contribution to significant effect on their stress levels. Some widows take care not only of their children but often of their extended family as well. Their common issues were;

1. Lack of security and protection (both physical as well as psychological)
2. Lack of income and employment opportunities
3. Poor health (Physical and mental)
4. Social stigma
5. Cultural restrictions
6. Persisting psychological stress due to past traumatic experiences
7. Lack of opportunities to share experiences
8. Lack of resources for their children’s education
9. Uncertain future
Need For Collaborative Interventions

Many women had been displaced multiple times and families have been separated, while many men were killed or yet interned, leaving many families to be headed by women. The displacement has had a devastating effect on the people’s ability to restore their lives. In addition to losing all material possessions, these people have also lost all social networks, structures and positions that had allowed them to make their own decisions and choices for their own wellbeing. It is expressed by the primary target group in the study that “being in relevant societies, networks and groups provided support and positive thought and confidence in many occasions. we could ensure the mutual support (Oruvarukku oruvar aaruthal) and empathically supported while we are in supportive groups”. Several studies showed similar recommendations. Small groups have been effective tools for the alleviation of poverty among poor women in Sri Lanka (Rasanayagam et al 2000) It could therefore be inferred that the use of small group dynamics could serve as effective tools of psychosocial interventions to resolve psychosocial problems endured by the female heads of households who are considered in this study.

Besides the medical resolutions resorted to, no concerted efforts had been taken socially to rehabilitate and help the war affected return to normalcy. In practice partnership and collaboration seemed to pay better dividends as very useful techniques to build that trust for collaboration to develop mutual aid systems among the female heads of households. The assistance of service providers and aid agencies is very essential to initially develop a common intervention frame work before building such a, mutual aid system to provide that support for the female heads of households. Such collaborations would eventually help do away with duplications of aid. assistance This outcome came up in many instances of interviews of the service providers to say that “service users could not enjoy the benefit of aid by the lack of coordination among agencies, beneficiaries were confused and depressed by
repeated assessments, and data collections carried out by the agencies while they have the opportunity to use the same data. This happened since they failed to develop and put in place a successful partnership and collaborative intervention”.

Since the female heads of households in the north had mentioned the importance of self help group and mutual supports, developing collaborative interventions would not be difficult to develop successful mutual aid systems which would eventually ensure the sustainability of the aid system too.

Proper small groups should therefore be established through partnership efforts of the female heads of households in order to provide opportunities for sharing and mutual caring. As a helpless and lonely group the women heading families would certainly benefit if such arrangements are made to help them exchange their thoughts among themselves better.

Creation of network is an important requirement for this methodology espousing group dynamics and this could be achieved through the application of partnership and collaborative models; It can vary from resource networking to delivery networking. For such arrangements service providers appointed from the government sector, in each divisional secretariat such as women development officer, counselor, early childhood development officer, social service officer, samurthi officer, and other staff from NGOs sector could be utilized to establish an efficient hierarchy to manage the system. There must be a coordination mechanism in place in the community to facilitate such a network. The concept of the social care centers mooted by the Ministry of Social services may provide the necessary institutional support for such networks (Ariyasena K 2010) Issues and problems particularly related to psychosocial wellbeing could be effectively addressed through these networks. The core group model of Shanthiham (a local NGO in Jaffna) is an excellent example in this regard. Psychosocial problems in the war affected villages were handled through the core group methods which were developed through collaborative aspects.
Partnership and collaborative intervention models were found useful in establishing mutual aid system among female heads of households in northern Sri Lanka to deal with several issues. According to Gitterman (2004), mutual aid is often erroneously understood as simply the exchange of support. Mutual aid is better conceptualized as multidimensional with at least 10 types of processes or activities that occur amongst and between members, including: sharing data, the dialectic process, discussion of taboo topics, as an `all in the same boat’ phenomenon, developing a universal perspective, of ` mutual support, mutual demand (including confrontation), rehearsal of new skills, individual problem solving, and the strengths in numbers’ phenomenon

**Conclusions**

Many of the females heading households in the war ravaged district had succumbed to the strains and stresses of the traumatic situations of the war and to the strains of post conflict resettlement needing urgent psycho social solutions to their problems. Many of such problems were found to be compounded further among women due to certain social and cultural impacts that worsened the state of the affected female heads of households through feelings of guilt, remorse and aloofness.

Overall, this study has demonstrated that some of the war traumatized females heading household had very strong levels of resilience to withstand the devastating impact of war while multiple layers of psychosocial problems endured by the females heading households with empirical data is not available to the public readers. . The positive impact was achieved through partnerships and collaborative interventions in certain cases. Methods and models of social work were found to be useful as strategic intervention methods from micro level to macro level. Out of the intervention techniques the group method developed through partnership and collaboration seemed appropriate in helping the female heads of households deal with difficulties related to social stigma and psychosocial problems. In the
case of service users like the female heads of households application of symbiotic partnership and collaborative models in formulating social work interventions may ensure better coordination and networking in the delivery of the relevant services.

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ABILITY AND METHODS TO MAINTAIN RECOVERY WHILE SERVING CURRENT USERS: THE EXPERIENCE OF ADULT RECOVERED DRUG USERS

Azahah Abu Hassan Shaari and Paramjit Singh Jamir Singh

Abstract

According to Friedman, Maslow, Bolyard, Sandoval, Mateu-Galebert and Neaigus (2004) and Latkin, Hua and Davey (2004), recovered and serving current users would be a powerful step for individuals due to two factors. First, given the previous experience of drug addiction, they have skills and comfort to have an in depth discussion about drugs issues by providing information about their previous struggles with drug dependency to current users. Second, familiarity with traditional culture, ethnic and geographical area gives an advantage to recruit recovered drug users to work with current local users (Kumar, Mudaliar & Daniels, 1998; Sergeyev, Oparina, Rumyantseva, Volkanevskii, & Broadhead, 1999). However, it is evident that there is still no research that specifically focuses on the topic of exploration on ability and methods perceived by recovered drug users in maintaining their own recovery while serving current users. Thus, the current literature review underscores the importance of understanding this topic. However, a literature review does reveal three themes that occur within this topic; (1) the ability to maintain drug recovery, (2) the methods to maintain drug recovery, (3) recovered and involvement in addiction field. This literature review hopefully will broaden our understanding about some potential disconnects between the ability and methods to maintain recovery while serving current users.

Introduction

From review of relevant empirical literature, it is evident that there is still no research that specifically focuses on the topic of exploration on ability and methods perceived by recovered drug users in maintaining their own recovery while serving current users. Thus, the current literature review underscores the importance of understanding this topic. However, a literature review does reveal three themes that occur within this topic; (1) the ability to maintain drug recovery, (2) the methods to maintain drug recovery, (3) recovered and serving current users.
Ability to Maintain the Recovery

Drug recovery would be achieved only by an individual who has the ability and resources to maintain their recovery. Hser (2007) studied drug recovery and summarized five resources needed to enhance the ability to maintain drug recovery: (1) Self-efficacy, regarding how much confident recovered drug users were not being addicted again. (2) Stress coping strategies, positive ways of recovered drug users coped with stressful situations. (3) Social support, provide support for relapse prevention and intervention. (4) Self-rated health status, advantages and disadvantages among younger and older recovered to maintain recovery. (5) Methods for maintain drug abstinence, spare time activities to maintain recovery. However, current studies from Best, Ghufran, Day, Ray and Loaring (2011) and Hansen Ganley and Garlucci (2008) expand these five resources by suggesting social capital such as establish financial and secure job as the other important resources needed to enhance ability to maintain recovery.

Ability to maintain recovery was documented to be influenced by three factors. First, motivation will encourage recovered drug users to maintain their recovery by supporting the growth of strong self-esteem (Best et al., 2011; Grandfield & Cloud, 1996; Hansen et al., 2008; Hser, 2007). Consequently, higher level of motivation contributes to longer length of recovery. Second, the use of social networks provides the social support needed to maintain the recovery because the experienced of recovery was viewed as complex and often reliant upon external support (Best et al., 2008; Best et al., 2011; Bone et al., 2011; Granfield & Cloud, 1996; Heslin, Hamilton, Singzon, Smith & Anderson, 2011; Hser, 2007; Laudet, Savage & Mahmood, 2002; Pardini, Plante, Sherman & Stump, 2000). Findings showed that the ability to maintain recovery and social network were positively related to participation in a mutual support group and community drug program by engaging in social activities with other recovered and non-users (Cleveland, Haris, Baker, Herbert & Dean, 2007; Heslin et al.,
Finally, age can be a factor that will influence the ability to maintain recovery. Studies from Best et al. (2008), Grandfield and Cloud (1996) and Hansen et al. (2008) suggested that older recovered drug users were able to maintain recovery because they wanted to display appropriate identity parallel with their age. In contrast, Cleveland et al. (2007) and Hser (2007) viewed younger recovered drug users have higher ability to maintain recovery because they are more likely to be healthier, and have a better chance at improve their quality of life by attending college or school.

Each of these factors contributes to greater chances of improvement in recovered drug users’ life, as demonstrated by Best. et al., (2011), “Right now I see myself as a different person, a new person, a better person and can relate to a lot of people differently than what I did when I was on drugs” (Best et al., 2011, p. 367). Two qualitative studies by Bone, Dell, Koskie, Kushniruk and Shorting (2011) and Hansen et al. (2008) that were conducted in United Kingdom and Canada provided in depth understanding of maintaining recovery and improvements in life by comparing current and previous life events. On the other hand, quantitative studies by Hser (2007) and Sanchez and Nappo (2008) that were conducted in the United States measured the improvements in quality of life and by mentioning the improvements quality of life and will encourage recovered drug users to achieve meaningful goals in life.

There are imbalance numbers of conducted studies to investigate the ability to maintain the recovery between male and female drug users (Snow & Anderson, 2000). There are six studies that conducted research on maintaining recovery among recovered drug users participated by majority of male participants (Best et al., 2008; Best et al., 2011; Hansen et al., 2008; Hser, 2007; Granfield & Cloud, 1996; Sanchez & Nappo, 2008). In contrast, there are only three studies that used an equal number of male and female (Heslin et al., 2011; Laudet et al., 2002; Pardini et al., 2000). Adult male recovered drug users received broader
attention compared to female recovered drug users. In addition, previous diagnosis such as depression and history of relapse (Best et al., 2008; Best et al., 2011; Cleveland et al., 2007; Hser, 2007; Laudet et al., 2002) are also effects the ability to maintain the recovery. Recovered drug users with previous major depressive disorder and alcoholism may have higher risk to relapse compared to recovered drug users who did not have previous of alcoholism. Although different individual experienced different ability in maintaining recovery, some similar themes emerged in regards to methods in maintaining recovery.

Methods in Maintaining Recovery

Recovery can become an on-going life experience rather than a single event (Best et al. 2011). Consequently, recovered drug users used different types of methods to sustain this on-going process. Due to growing interest in the topic of drug recovery, current available knowledge on drug recovery methods provide tremendous information about treatment type, therapy, program and policy by offering further explanation on what works, for whom, and under what circumstances.

Current empirical literature explained counseling can be one of method to maintain recovery (Bowser & Bilal, 2001). Hansen et al. (2008) and Hser (2007) suggested that counseling should address stress coping strategies for individuals to achieve and maintain stable recovery, while Bowser and Bilal (2001) and Snow and Anderson (2000) concluded that cultural and gender appropriate intervention would enhance the ability to maintain recovery among recovered drug users. In addition, counseling would allow the exploration of recovered drug users’ strength and goals to sustain recovery (Best et al., 2011; Bowser & Bilal, 2001; Hser, 2007). However, because the use of counseling services is goal-oriented and time-specific, use of counseling in maintaining recovery would be limited in a short-term period. Recovered drug users would chose to actively participate in mutual support group as
an after care treatment after the counseling session ends (Cleveland et al., 2007; Crape et al., 2002).

Support groups are the most common methods used by recovered drug users due to feasibility to access and to maintain the on-going process of recovery (Best et al., 2008; Cleveland et al., 2007; Hansen et al., 2008; Heslin et al., 2011; Laudet et al., 2002). Studies by Best et al. (2011), Cleveland et al. (2007) and Crape et al. (2002) mentioned recovered women use support group more than male recovered drug users to maintain recovery. Support group enhanced the ability to maintain recovery by allowing information exchanged about stories and life experiences with other recovered drug users.

To date, there is few, but intensive research that examines the use of religion practices to maintain recovery. Studies by Sanchez and Nappo (2008) and Pardini et al. (2000) suggested religion practices were similar with the participation in other support group. However, rather than sharing and expressing personal feelings during the group meeting, the concept of religion practices was viewed as more of healing process expressed by fasting and praying to God (Sanchez & Nappo, 2008). Studies by Best et al. (2008), Cleveland et al. (2007) and Pardini et al. (2000) mentioned religion practices are closely related to the spiritual practices that can be expressed by praying to God and appreciation of nature. These acts were viewed as more ‘spiritual’ rather than ‘religious’. Recovered drug users use religious or spiritual activities to maintain recovery because it provides self-strength for the followers to decrease drug craving (Cleveland et al., 2007; Pardini et al., 2000). Additionally, the recovered drug users feel a higher degree of acceptance among the ‘cult’ or religious group compared to the acceptance by the community (Sanchez & Nappo, 2008). While other studies from Best et al. (2008), Cleveland et al. (2007) and Hansen et al. (2008) found religious or spiritual practices as one of methods to maintain recovery despite the support received from family members and friends.
The concept of natural recovery was studied by Granfield and Cloud (1996). It offered insight into how people successfully sustained their recovery without using any professionals or groups. Natural treatment is the choice for recovered drug users who are decided not to disclose their previous history of drug dependency due higher level of stigma perceived from community (Granfield & Cloud, 1996). However, this concept was reoccurred in recent studies from Best et al. (2011), Bone et al. (2011), Hansen et al. (2008) and Hser (2007). However, since these studies used only small sample size of middle class male recovered drug users who have established financial, employment (Hser, 2007) and strong support from family members (Best et al., 2011; Bone et al., 2011, Hansen et al., 2008), it would suggested that natural recovery is still not a choice for many recovered drug users to maintain their recovery compared to participation in professionals or group recovery treatment.

**Recovered and Serving Current Users**

Recovered and serving current users would be a powerful step for individuals due to two factors. First, given the previous experience of on drug addiction, they have skills and levels of comfort to have an in depth discussion about drugs issues by providing information about their previous struggles with drug dependency to current users (Friedman, Maslow, Bolyard, Sandoval, Mateu-Galebert & Neaigus, 2004; Latkin, Hua & Davey, 2004). Additionally, studies by Best et al. (2011), Hansen et al. (2008) and Laudet et al. (2002) suggested the decision to take first step to stop drug dependency was influenced by friends and peers who already recovered and were able to maintain recovery for several years. Second, familiarity with traditional culture, ethnic and geographical area gives an advantage to recruit recovered drug users to work with current local users (Kumar, Mudaliar & Daniels, 1998; Sergeyev et al., 1999).
Different individuals use different methods to maintain recovery and each of methods received during the recovery can enhance the ability to maintain the long term recovery (Best et al., 2008; Hansen et al., 2008; Hser, 2007). There are findings about the recovered drug users who are helping currents user others’ (Best et al., 2011, Cleveland et al., 2007; Crape et al., 2002; Sergeyev, et al., 1999), As mentioned by Hansen et al. (2008), “When I reach that goal [recovery]-then what? And then I heard somebody in meetings say ’you can’t keep what you have without giving it away.’ And I became very involved in service” (Hansen et al., p. 269).

However, the topic of recovered drug users that are currently serving current users was not analyzed further. This topic has not yet received attention nd until today, there are only three studies by Best et al. (2008), Kumar et al. (1998) and Sergeyez et al. (1999) that used recovered drug users who were working in the addictions field as their sample. However, these studies only examined the behavioral changes among the clients to promote their interventions and programs. The concept of giving and receiving support to clients who are in recovery has been studied by Roberts, Salem, Rappaport, Toro, Luke and Seidman (1999), however, the implications of this concept is limited on recovery among group of people that have limited mental capability by examining the psychosocial adjustment and feelings of self-value by providing support to other members. It creates opportunities to reinforce strategies in dealing with their own problems. Given that recovered abusers while serving current users can contribute to positive strategies to cope with their own recovery, it was assumed that recovered individuals might better be able to maintain their own recovery when they are serving current users.
Conclusion

The contribution of qualitative and ethnographic research to the understanding the lived experiences of recovered drug users. It contributes to the tremendous amount of knowledge about drug recovery process. However, an exploration of the experience on ability and methods to maintain recovery while serving current users has not been studied yet. This literature review hopefully will broaden our understanding about some potential disconnects between the ability and methods to maintain recovery while serving current users.

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CRITICAL FEMINIST THEORY: ANALYSIS OF WOMEN LIVING WITH HIV/AIDS

Azahah Abu Hassan Shaari and Paramjit Singh Jamir Singh

Abstract

The HIV has begun to spread rapidly among women around the world, and it has increasingly been identified as a feminized epidemic by the national governments, international organizations, donors, and non-governmental organizations that have come to constitute the global response to the problem (Simoni, Davis, Drossman, & Weinberg, 2000; Tufts, Wessell, & Kearney, 2010). Around the globe, HIV/AIDS is the leading cause of death for women in age range of 15-49 years old. Sexual intercourse remains the leading route of HIV transmission among women around the globe, and the proportion of AIDS diagnoses reported among women in the United States has more than tripled since 1985 (United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, July 2012). Feminist theory can be referred to different kinds of works, produced by movement activists and scholars from interdisciplinary fields, such as philosophy, politics, economics and sociology. Chafetz (1997) outlined the theoretical development of feminist theory that include but are not limited to the: 1) discussion of how societies and relationships ought to be structured, their current inequities, and strategies to achieve equity, 2) critiques of androcentric classical theories, concepts, epistemologies and assumptions, 3) epistemological discussion of what constitute appropriate forms, subject matters, and techniques of theorizing from a feminist perspectives, and 4) explanatory theories of the relationship between gender and various social, cultural, economic, psychological, and political structures and processes (p. 97). This paper will use feminist theory to inform a critical analysis of women living with HIV/AIDS, including how the gender and health inequalities affect how women perceived their life experiences with the HIV/AIDS. It also will address how the status of HIV positive can perpetuate stereotypical images of women living with HIV/AIDS, including the involvement with prostitution and substance abuse. Feminist theory can be used to integrate the consciousness or awareness with choice and participation in creating change for women’s freedom. For women living with HIV/AIDS, this theory will provides opportunity to examine their personal experiences and give them sense of freedom and self-determination.
**Introduction**

This paper will use feminist theory to inform a critical analysis of women living with HIV/AIDS, including how the gender and health inequalities affect how women perceived their life experiences with the HIV/AIDS. It also will address how the status of HIV positive can perpetuate stereotypical images of women living with HIV/AIDS, including the involvement with prostitution and substance abuse.

**Leading theorists in the feminist theory and their contributions**

The theoretical construction of feminist theory was heavily influenced by feminist movements that aimed to acknowledge the gender inequality. There are three different period of feminist movements: first wave, second wave and third wave movements.

The first wave movement was started in the late 18th century in the United States and Europe, and Sarah Margaret Fuller, the author of *Women in Nineteenth Century* (May 23, 1810 – July 19, 1850) advocates for the rights to the women’s education, emancipation of slavery and right to employment. Susan Anthony B (February 15, 1820 – March 13, 1906) is another feminist leader during the first wave movement that was inspired by Margaret Fuller to fight for the right to universal suffrage and demand an equal rights for men and women (Jacob & Licona, 2005).

The second wave of feminism emerged during the 1960s to 1990s by focusing broader issues of gender inequalities, such as antidiscrimination policies, equal privileges, and issues of social class and race (DeVault, 1996). This is the period for the emerging discussion of the feminist methodologies, a field of inquiry rooted in feminist activism and feminist critique by a group of sociologists. The second wave movements most notably inspired from feminist writers, minority women and lesbians that, determined second-wave goals, ideologies, and strategies (Jacob & Licona, 2005). They wanted to re-examine the men’s and women’s social roles, address the antidiscrimination policies and request more
equal privileges among men and women (Vernet, & Butera, 2005). The book from Simone de Beauvoir (9 January 1908 – 14 April 1986), *The Second Sex* gained attention by providing detailed analysis about women’s oppression. Betty Friedan (February 4, 1921 – February 4, 2006) wrote *The Feminine Mystique*, a book that discuss the concept of “the problem that has no name” to tell the stories of hidden problems for women during the 1963. In addition, Patricia Hill Collins (born May 1, 1948) expands the concept of inequality by explaining that this concept is different within race, class, gender and sexuality. According to Collins, the gender inequality particularly in the African American women is a result of male coercive power. Patricia Hill Collins’ books, *Black Feminist Thought: Knowledge, Consciousness, and the Politics of Empowerment* (1990) infused feminists of color with renewed inspiration.

The third feminist wave started from the mid-1990s onward and the third wave describes efforts by feminists such as Nomy Lamm, Ellen Neuborne and Rebecca Walker to take feminism from what they perceived as “an exclusive concern with dichotomous notions of gender toward consideration of the multiple identities of age, class, race, and sexual preference” (Laughlin et al., 2010, p. 77). They claimed that the intersecting aspects of identity and systems of oppression are the starting point for third wave politics (Fixmer & Wood, 2005; Laughlin, Gallagher, Cobble, Boris, Nadasen, Premilla, et al., 2010). In addition, third feminist wavers, Baumgardner and Richards (2000) state that third wave feminist movement as a politics that emerge from people’s everyday lives, because “the personal is still political” (Baumgardner & Richards, 2000, p. 18).

These three feminist movements, albeit using three different periods to examine the gender issues, share the same objective: to address gender inequality by examining the effect of the patriarchal system and domination that contributes to the women oppression and discrimination.
Feminist theory definition of construct/concepts

Feminist theory can refer to different kinds of works, produced by movement activists and scholars from interdisciplinary field, such as philosophy, politics, economics and sociology. Chafetz (1997) outlined the theoretical development of feminist theory include but are not limited to the:

(a) discussion of how societies and relationships ought to be structured, their current inequities, and strategies to achieve equity, (b) critiques of androcentric classical theories, concepts, epistemologies and assumptions, (c) epistemologies discussion of what constitute appropriate forms, subject matters, and techniques of theorizing from a feminist perspectives and (d) explanatory theories of the relationship between gender and various social, cultural, economic, psychological, and political structures and processes (p. 97).

The interdisciplinary field of feminist theoretical development offers a rich discussion to study gender issues and their affect to the environment. Feminist theory has been used in sociology to understand the gendered nature of social life and to offer important critiques for inadequacies of other traditional theories by viewing the gender issues in wider perspectives (Walby, 2000).

Gender inequality, patriarchy, oppression, social justice, and empowerment are some of the key themes for the critical feminist theory. Arsenault and Fawzy (2005) underline three assumptions of feminist theory to study the course of female subordination

(1) male patriarchy has permeated much of written and spoken discourse to the effect that it subordinates the experiences of women; (2) women’s experiences are different than men’s, not only in terms of biological experiences, but also in terms of their sex-role socialization; and (3) women’s experiences are not reflected adequately in culture, in that experiences of women are traditionally suppressed.
Patriarchal and Women’s Bodies

Patriarchy refers to a type of family structure, an ideology (religious and/or secular), and one or more properties of the economy and/or polity (Chafetz, 1997). Critical feminist theory can be used to understand how the patriarchy of privileged men can discriminate against women by showing that women’s experience of health is socially constructed rather than built directly upon biology or the materiality of the body. The patriarchal system prevent the women to advocates their own autonomy in health and health care by assuming that the female body as ‘deficient’ associated with illness, with lack of control and with intuitive rather than reasoned action in comparisons with the ‘standard’ male body (Annandale & Clark, 1996). This system usually constructs the women body as inferior and that discriminates against women (and favor men).

Sexuality Role and Social Roles for Women

Critical feminist theory is an appropriate theory to explain the issues of sex-role socialization (Campbell & Bunting, 1991). It argued the notion that women sexuality are socially and culturally constructed. Women’s social roles are limited to the ‘nature’, such as mothering and child rearing and domesticity, such as cooking and cleaning, while men have broader roles, such as ‘culture’ and the public sphere (Chafetz, 1997). This social roles construction will give men wider access to the outside resources such as job opportunities, health care and well-being compare to women.

This theory provide a knowledge within-group diversity and consider the experiences of those whose sexuality has been ignored or misinterpreted as a leads to seek more inclusive information and to bring in the voices of those in marginal groups whenever possible. Sexuality, through the feminist lens, is not only the sexual practices, but what people believe about sex: particularly what they think is natural, proper, and desirable. Sexuality also
includes people’s sexual identities in all their cultural and identity (Holland, Ramazanogle, Scott, Sharpe & Thomson, 1990).

The definition of feminist theory is not only limited to a narrow conception of feminism by focusing only on male-female issues, but this theory is an attempt to explain the nature and complexities of gender inequality within the society. Inequalities, from the lens of feminist theory is taught, discussed and read in relation to a range of questions and debates in feminism regarding the social position of women.

**Feminist theory to explain the problem of women living with HIV/AIDS**

*Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome* (AIDS) is a pandemic caused by the *Human Immunodeficiency Virus* (HIV). The *Highly Active Antiretroviral Therapy* (HAART) is a current medical treatment that combines three or more different drugs: *nucleoside reverse transcriptase* inhibitors (NRTIs), *protease inhibitor* (PI), and a *non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase* inhibitor (NNRTI) that aims to repress the replication of HIV in the human body.

The HIV has begun to spread rapidly among women around the world, and it has increasingly been identified as a feminized epidemic by the national governments, international organizations, donors, and non-governmental organizations that have come to constitute the global response to the problem (Simoni, Davis, Drossman, & Weinberg, 2000; Tufts, Wessell, & Kearney, 2010). Around the globe, HIV/AIDS is the leading cause of death for women in age range of 15-49 years old. Sexual intercourse remains the leading route of HIV transmission among women around the globe, and the proportion of AIDS diagnoses reported among women in the United States has more than tripled since 1985 (United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, July 2012)
**Patriarchal system and women living with HIV/AIDS**

The imbalance of power relations between men and women, and the unequal social structure in health care systems contributes to the negative impacts for women in controlling their own physical and mental health. According to Annandale and Clark (1996), patriarchal systems make the definition of ‘women’ come into limited roles. For example, women living with HIV/AIDS are still expected to take care of other family members, including partners and children. For those who have financial constrain, they will also need to work to earn income. They will carry the caregiver task and the breadwinner. At the end, they will need to jeopardize their own health status due to the inabilities and limitations to receive proper medical care and support.

Patriarchal systems in the health care contribute to the women’s oppression (Baber & Murray, 2001; Bredstrom, 2006; Chafetz, 1997). In health care settings that are dominated by a male, women living with HIV/AIDS will have difficulties to express their concerns and thoughts of dealing with the HIV/AIDS. The invisibility of women’s voice creates difficulties to address the root of the problem for women living with HIV/AIDS. In many times, the life experiences of how the women perceived the HIV/AIDS and how they cope with this problem are left without a proper attention.

**Social constructions of women living with HIV/AIDS**

The early social construction of HIV/AIDS tends to locate women as either guilty or dangerous: prostitute versus promiscuous women, or as innocent victims-sexual partners of hemophiliacs or bisexual men (Holland, Ramazanoglu, Scott, Sharpe & Thomson, 1990). Until today, the central analysis of women living with HIV/AIDS did not put women as women, but as women that have relation to their sexual partners, as mothers of babies who may be born HIV antibody positive, or as caregivers for people living with HIV/AIDS (Bredstrom, 2006; Devries & Free, 2010; Garcia-Calvente, Hidalgo-Ruzzante, Rio-Lozano,

The social constructions of women living with HIV/AIDS are the women who have moral issues, unable to pregnant and are able transfer the HIV to their own baby and responsible to prevent the HIV transmission (Garcia, et al., 2012). In many part of the world, condom has been use as main HIV prevention method. Through this method, women need to negotiate with their partner to use condom during the sexual intercourse. However, the unequal power between men and women make this method failed to prevent transmission of the HIV virus. In this case, women will be blame for not being an effective to prevent the HIV transmission.

The social construction of women living with HIV/AIDS tends to portray them as a perpetrator rather than the individual who needs support and treatment. Feminist theory can address the issues of gender inequalities by providing ways to improve women’s health and health care by making a basic distinction between men and women, reproduction and production, home and work, emotion and reason and so on” (Ananndale & Clark, 1996). Women are the experts who can tell the stories of their own using their perspectives and their stories might help to understand the forces and conditions that prevent them to achieve full expression of health and well-being.

**Strengths and limitations the feminist theory to advance social work practice**

**Strengths**

Feminist theory advocates women’s autonomy and individuality by reinforcing the strengths in individual, especially women who have been ordinarily ignored or dismissed by the mainstream society. Feminist approach can guide social workers to reinforce strength and empowerment for women by putting a special attention to examine women’s needs and concerns. In regards to the issues of women living with HIV/AIDS, this theory argued to
eliminate the patriarchal system to help the clients to overcome their oppression including shame and guilt due to their HIV status.

Feminist theory can advocate social worker to find positive qualities that can serve as important resources to advocate their clients. It can be used to integrate the consciousness or awareness with choice and participation or involvement in creating change for their freedom. By focusing on the life experiences of women living with HIV/AIDS as a central analysis, it can provide the opportunity to examine the women personal experiences and the connection between the institutional that confer power, privilege, and resources can affect the capabilities for the women to advocates their full access to the services and treatment.

**Limitations**

Feminist theory has been prove to effectively address the gender inequalities of men and women. However, the important question is, can we totally eliminate gender inequalities? What will happened if the women view the inequalities as normal rules that they need to follow? The applications of feminist theory might be effective only if the surrounding society can challenge patriarchal cultural patterns, including the problems of prostitution, multiple partners among men or ‘silence’ culture among women that can contribute to the spread of HIV.

Feminist theoretical approach has prove that the gender and health inequalities among women can be address by using a gender-specific health policy (Bredstrom, 2006). Hence, the need to develop a social policy and programs that not only focus on challenging the patriarchal system and the male domination, but also need to look at the other social divisions, such as race, class and ethnicity. Better understanding of gender and health inequalities among women living with HIV/AIDS with these social divisions will develop effective HIV/AIDS policy for them.
Conclusion

Feminist theory can be used to integrate the consciousness or awareness with choice and participation in creating change for women’s freedom. For women living with HIV/AIDS, this theory will provide an opportunity to examine their personal experiences and give them a sense of freedom and self-determination.

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SOCIAL WORK, SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND GLOBAL CHALLENGE:
A COLLABORATIVE REVIEW
Hery Wibowo, Muhamad Fadhil Nurdin and Mohd Haizzan Yahaya

Abstract
Urban housing reform in Penang has dramatically changed the socialist urban landscapes and the social aspect is one of the most dynamic systems. However, social reform has had a very uneven effect on urban housing population. While the living standard of a significant proportion of urban residents has improved, a sizeable group of households has been left behind and became a new class (the urban poor). There is a close association between poverty and housing in intermediary societies. Along with job security, housing was the most important element of the social welfare system. In this, the linkage between urban poverty and housing has been largely overlooked. The major concern of this article is on coping strategies of the urban poor housing societies in transition and the associated problem of urban poverty due to the non-affordable housing as the market price of a home are away too expensive when compared with other states. Under this broad theme, the article aims to look into the social development changes brought forward in Penang, mainly the island side by the state’s on-going reform programme. It focuses particularly on the problems of urban poverty and low-income urban communities in Penang.

Introduction
Social work will soon enter the 21st century. The globalization and digitalization are rapidly increasing, and has changed the face of the world. The high rate of internet use has changed the behavior of individuals and communities everyday. People have become more connected and more intelligent, since almost all of the information and knowledge can be found easily on the internet. As a result, their demand for quality of service and professionalism are also higher. Besides, they will also have the ability to solve their own problems, ranging from individuals setting, organization, communities and even nations. So, the big question is, how does the existence of leading social work? Is it possible the role of
social work will be eroded? So, the big question is, how does the existence of leading social work?

On the other hand, the development of social entrepreneurship, growing rapidly and is recognized worldwide with services or activities in contact and intersect with social work practice (Bornstein 2005, Nicholls 2008). Their existence is widely considered have positive impact to society (Swa Magazine, 2008) How could social worker deal with the development trend of social entrepreneurship are growing rapidly? Is the development of social entrepreneurship a threat or an opportunity for social workers? This paper will discuss the development of social work and social entrepreneurship in the era of globalization challenges ahead. Not only that, this paper also will explore the possibility of synergy between social entrepreneurship and social work in order to increase creativity and innovation in order to increase social services better

Globalization has changed the face of the world. The impacts and implications of globalization, both positive and negative, have been increasingly felt by the citizens of the world. The increasing number of the middle class and increasingly interlinked global citizens by Internet technologies, is one of the characteristics of globalization has swept almost all countries in the world

Thomas Friedman is one of the leaders who argue that times have changed so much through his famous book The World is Flat. Today's world is a place / location flat and vertical, where the entire population of the world very easily be interconnected and exchanging ideas. This makes the exchange of understanding of what is happening in the world, is relatively balanced and equitable, resulting in increased intelligence, insight and concern for what is happening among the people of the earth are also relatively increased almost simultaneously. It is, of course, become a global power together, which has never been seen before.
Furthermore, the Nomura Research Institute (Delee 2012:3) explains that, 

“Creativity will be future economic activity, replace the current focus that dwell on the information. Historically, agricultural, industrial, manufacturing and information is the dominant economic activity of man. Predictions put creativity in the category of historical paradigms that shape human economic history from the beginning of time. Then, just as the industrial revolution replacing agriculture as the dominant economic activity, creativity would be replacing the information age as the dominant focus global economy.”

According to the narrative in advance, it is clear that our world is entering a new era, the era of creativity. The implication is simple, individual, organization or country that is not creative will not be able to survive and thrive. This opinion was reinforced by Richard Florida (2005:3)

*Over the past two decades, though, creativity has become the driving force of our economy, and the creativity has become the driving force or our economy, and the creative sector has exploded, adding more than 20 million jobs.*

So, no doubt that we are human beings living in a different era with previous ages, where creativity becomes a key determinant of success to live and work. Besides century wave of creativity that is sweeping the world, as-disclosed upfront, some developing countries, one of which Indonesia, also is experiencing growth in the middle class income massively.

A special report in Tempo Magazine (February, 26/2012) stated that,

“The number of middle-income people of Indonesia is growing rapidly in less than ten years. If the size of the World Bank were used, namely, that this group is that they are spending per capita per day U.S. $ 2-20, there are at least 130 million people. With higher income levels, consumption patterns
shifted—they began to buy goods and services that can fulfill the desire for
entertainment, tourism, education and health.”

Furthermore, Satryo (2012) stated that Income (Indonesia) now 3000 U.S. dollars
(USD 28.45 million), 2025 is expected to be U.S. $ 15,000 (Rp 142,275,000). Based on the
narrative upfront, it appears that the number of middle class Indonesia, which has earned
more than just subsistence is now the number has more than 130 million people. This new
consumer class. This is exactly the market potential or prospective clients of social workers
to anticipated future more wisely and carefully.

Renald Kasali (2011:1) stated that Indonesia has entered the era of the so-called new
era of Indonesia. It is said that Indonesia is a new economy with income / per capita of U.S. $ 3000
and marked the birth of hundreds of thousands or even millions of new middle class.
Indonesia is also characterized by new social networking community that continues to grow
and more and more crowded, and high entrepreneurial passion.

This development, of course, sociologically, potentially overturning social patterns
adopted over the years. Area-based groups, such as the neighborhood, village or regional
village / district level of familiarity to be reduced compared with group-based social network.
In contrast, today's society is much more familiar, close and familiar with the community or
groups of their own faction of the social networking group. Through the media and social
networking technologies, people are now more aware of the news colleagues, family or
colleagues that are tens or even hundreds of miles from home, compared to the conditions
and the current situation of the neighbor next door. This is certainly a consequence the level
of public concern and how we deal with it.

That is, people (as potential clients) are no longer facing the old, backward, and had
no access to information. Instead, people faced by social workers today are more advanced
society, more connected, have access to almost unlimited information and has a better
opinion. This is certainly a consequence the changing mindset of the people, that they are becoming more intelligent, critical, connected and increasingly require professional services to meet the needs of rational, emotional and spiritual.

This paper will discuss the development of social work, social entrepreneurship and how collaborative perspective view this globalization era.

Social Work

As an introduction, this paper will begin with a definition of social work by National Association of Social Workers:

“Social Work is the professional activity of helping individuals, groups, or communities to enhance or restore their capacity for social functioning and to create societal conditions favorable to their goals. Social work practice consists of the professional application of social work values, principles, and techniques to one or more of the following ends: helping people obtain tangible services; providing counseling and psychotherapy for individuals, families and groups; helping communities or groups provide or improve social and health services and participating in relevant legislative processes.”

The explanation of the International Federation of Social Workers (2004) is as follows

“The social work profession promotes social change, problem solving in human relationships and the empowerment and liberation of people to enhance well-being. Utilising theories of human behaviour and social system, social work intervenes at the points where people interact with their environment. Principles of human rights and social justice are fundamental to social work.”
Next is a description of the CSWE which states that social work. Committed to the enhancement of human wellbeing and to the alleviation of poverty and oppression (CSWE, 1995).

“The attention of Social Work profession is efforts to provide assistance to people to improve their ability to perform the function of social interaction and the ability to relate to others (Budhi, 2010). That is, as long as there are human beings, then this profession will always be needed, and the more complex human life, the more importance the profession.”

The purposes of Social Work are (DuBois, 2010):

1. Enhancing people’s capacities to resolve problems, cope and function effectively.
2. Linking clients with needed resources.
3. Improving the social service delivery network.
4. Promoting social justice through the development of social policy.

According to the narrative upfront, because this profession is related to human life, it can be said that social workers need to be very attentive to the changing times and the development of human life. As in the know, the development of technology, the development agreement between the state and others, are potentially affect human lifestyle, and in turn change the mindset, behavior patterns and the patterns of human interaction. So, if it is changed, it is certain shared values related to cooperation, mutual help relationships, the level of intimacy and the like are also a little much will change.

Along with the progress of time, of course, the necessary mindset to adjust to the progress of time. This includes how we think about social work profession itself. Cathrine McDonald (2006) stated that the need to change the mindset in dealing with project / job or professional practice in the present.
“In other words, it is very difficult to think about something when the mind set is that most commonly adopted by representatives of the phenomenon or context under investigation. To facilitate the capacity of readers to think critically about social work, it is helpful to adopt a position which understands it as a set of strategic activities of a group of people located within and responding to a particular set of (historical) circumstances. Here, we can reflect on all the varied activities and practices which make up what we understand as social work as a professional project.”

That is, it takes a new mindset puts more contextual social work practice in accordance with the demands and environmental conditions. Further studies related to future challenges social workers also submitted by Diana (1990)

“...Another equally plausible scenario envisions a postindustrial society characterized by a thriving service economy and an extremely high level of computer technology. With the exception of agricultural products, most goods would be produced in third-world nations. Social services would be directed toward those person who are not able to accommodate to the shift in the economy. Social work would emphasize narrow specification, primary in clinical and computer skills...”

Or in other words, it takes a social worker who is responsive to the situation (change or social problems) is happening, and be able to think innovative and solution-related businesses to be able to adapt well to the changing times.

Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is an issue that was never cracked by age. Since its emergence were partly driven by the industrial revolution in Europe, progress and development to this day has not stopped. Various studies began to come to the conclusion that the absence of a developed
country, is determined by the number of entrepreneurs in the country, capable of promoting economic progress and hold employment.

Meaning of the terminology of entrepreneurship itself was increasingly widespread. In simple terms, the author (Hery Wibowo, 2010) divides the concept of entrepreneurship, into two major dimensions: (1) pattern of thinking (mindset) and (2) the pattern of behavior (method). Mindset, regarding our outlook for something, being optimistic, unyielding, inisyatif, innovative and others. While the pattern of action with regard to how to implement it's own entrepreneurial activities such as production management, marketing strategy, finance etc.

People with entrepreneurship mindset, believed to be able to view the problem as an opportunity (problem as opportunity), not otherwise see the opportunity as a problem. They are also characterized by the ability to see the doors (opportunities) on each wall, not seeing the wall in each door (opportunities). Therefore, with this mindset, they are always ready for the challenge after challenge to realize the hope and goal. That is, they are fully aware that there is no success (either money / position / position) that fell from the sky. They do not believe in instant process. Rather than descend from the sky, all the dream must be pursued through a hard struggle, full of optimism and never give up. So what is the result obtained from the sweat itself blessed by the Creator.

Entrepreneurial mindset least instill in us the belief that: (1) Anyone who works hard, then he will reap the rewards, (2) Allah Almighty has bestowed abundant natural resources are virtually unlimited and can be processed by humans, (3) to be able to process the wealth God has given the stock a rate thought, though the flavor and sport, which distinguishes man from other creatures.

Furthermore, entrepreneurial pattern of thinking synonymous with creativity. Identical to the effort to find new things, with new solutions to address the problems,
challenges and changing conditions. This mindset among others depart from Einstein who said that insanity is a different problem trying to rise in the same way. That is, people with mental entrepreneur always aware that he needs all the time encouraging creativity in order to find innovative business challenge or solve problems.

**Social Entrepreneurship**

Studies related to social entrepreneurship will begin with a review of the definition of the terminology of entrepreneurship social entrepreneurship itself, which is usually attached to the three main the terminology of entrepreneurship of social entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship and social enterprise. Here is the opinion of the London (2010)

“Social entrepreneur are motivated by a passion to help others and themselves. They believe in their own ability to overcome barriers and accomplish good deeds. They have skill to motivate and influence others to volunteer, make contribution, and make a decision to bring about change. Social entrepreneur see a problems, and are motivated to do something about it, usually finding ways to involved those who stand to benefit from the advocacy processes. Goals may focus on environmental cleanup and protection, health and wellness, poverty or education.”

Based on various studies and teaching experience as well as take part in the world of social entrepreneurship, the author tries to describe social entrepreneurship as follows:

“Based on the narrative upfront appears that social entrepreneurship is a broad terminology and is not limited to financial transactions or social events only. However, its scope is on patterns of thinking and action. Based on this explanation, it can be said that the patterns of thinking and action of social entrepreneurship was not contrary to the profession of social worker. Instead contrary, it is actually both have similarities and isirsan clear.”
Social work education social entrepreneurial character, true education is to educate prospective social workers, who were also trying to develop the mindset and capabilities of the method of social entrepreneurship. This is something that is very convenient and worth fighting for considering some of the following study:

Here is the urgency of why social workers need to have the spirit of social entrepreneurship

<table>
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<th>No</th>
<th>Urgensi dan Kebutuhan memiliki jiwa kewirausahaan sosial</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The conclusion of the 7th International Society for Third Sector Research Asia Pacific Regional Conference: Social Business and the Third Sector Responsibilityl 24 to 26 November 2011 Sanur Paradise Plaza, Bali-Indonesia declared Non Profit Organization that era will end soon and replaced with social enterprise. Thus, the alertness necessary to be able to adapt to this development. This is because the social worker is one of the important components of social service agencies. The hope is that in the coming years, social workers have had the mindset and methods of social entrepreneurship can provide color and contribute to the social service agencies, both to strengthen existing or establish new institutions as well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Many of the nuances of social work practice, has been done by those non-educational social worker. This happens because they are much more alert, observant and agile in capturing opportunities. This certainly needs to be addressed wisely considering that almost every person has an equal opportunity to take part in the 'social'</td>
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Furthermore, as has been related characteristics upfront dikemukan new Indonesia, following some of the challenges social workers in a New Era of Indonesia (and also possibly in the world?)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Tantangan Pekerja Sosial di Era Indonesia Baru (juga dunia?)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>• The number of middle-drastic increase (130 million according to the World Bank)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• People are increasingly connected to each other memalui social media networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• People are increasingly open to access to information, so that they become more intelligent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• The impetus for entrepreneurship in general has increased</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Social workers should be much more familiar with the characteristics of the new Indonesia (and also the new world?) Are increasingly connected, informative and improved economy. Approximately 130 million of these people are critical and well-educated population, has a high purchasing power, as well as a low tolerance level of quality service mediocre. These are the ones who are ready to pay top dollar for premium quality and 'ready to protest &quot;against poor service. If not try to dive, the social workers it will be more 'alienated' by the public (prospective clients)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social workers are required to know and explore the practice of social media networks, to be more 'in tune' with the existing development. It also meant that the potential for social services through social networks can be further</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
exploited. As it is known that it's been more and more facilities freemium (but premium free and high quality) that can be used for the maximization of social services, such as blogs, websites, and others.

3. Some types of services 'typical social worker' (as well as from various other professional services) can be accessed and studied by himself through the abundance of information from books and the Internet network. This makes an effort to introduce whom 'social worker' is actually becoming more severe and challenging. Differentiation (key differentiator) social worker profession as a differentiator from other professions have been the primary focus of thought associations.

Here are some examples of events / activities are considered quite successful, in relation to interpret and utilize the opportunities of the new Indonesia

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<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Peluang yang termanfaatkan</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td><strong>Fakta Indonesia baru</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emerging organization that collects zakat, infak and sodakoh of society. This organization proved successful collecting billions of funds from the public, and succeeded also in distribution, such as for emergency response, economic empowerment, education facilities and support others.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The raising movement of The middle class

Crafting Symbiotic Partnership and Collaboration in the Asia Pacific Region
| 2 | Passion to communicate | Many IT vendors who have benefited through various variants of mobile phones, smart phones, and other gadgets. |
|   | Through social media | |

| 3 | Increased Passion | Many Internet service providers, computer courses, computer books publisher who reap the success of this phenomenon |
|    | Entrepreneurship. | Emerging youth who start and developing business online |

| 4 | passion to have connection and contribution through social media is increasing | Increased collection of opinions and funds through social media groups in large quantities who had never imagined before. The process of providing assistance to recipients subject to soar and increased in terms of quantity and quality. |

Various situations upfront, apparently missed / not fully utilized by social workers as part of the practice of social work as well as part of the effort to provide the widest possible social usefulness to society. So as a consequence, increased ability to transform a problem into an opportunity for social welfare science graduates, especially those associated with the context of the present life

Social Worker

Demanded better able to see the situation more observant and take advantage of the changing patterns of society and technologies in development that can simplify and streamline the practice of social work

Various situations upfront, apparently missed / not fully utilized by social workers as part of the practice of social work as well as part of the effort to provide the widest possible social usefulness to society. So as a consequence, increased ability to transform a problem...
into an opportunity for social welfare science graduates, especially those associated with the context of the present life

Based on the picture upfront, probably be drawn some conclusions that the new condition of Indonesia (also the world?), Actually offers many alternative choices and new opportunities. That is, the social worker Indonesia also face many challenges, but also a number of alternative and new opportunities for mengefesienkan and effective social work practice. A number of these challenges can be addressed with better course for social workers has a passion creativity and innovation high. Because in reality, technological developments and the current conditions, it facilitates our lives as human beings.

Collaborative outlook

Globalization, inevitably changed the face of the world. That is, the necessary strategies and new ways to deal with a world that has changed this. As has been explained in advance, the information age has started to turn into a century of creativity. That is, only those who are creative will mengusai world. One form of creativity is to use the network and existing resources, which in an earlier era has not been touched or not true. One of the possible collaboration is with the social entrepreneurship movement:

1. The collaboration of the social entrepreneurial mindset, which combines creative and innovative thinking in social work practice. Social entrepreneurship, synonymous with creative and innovative mindset. They hit the limit that already exists and is always thinking about new ways of doing things. They were not satisfied with existing conditions and achievement.

2. Collaboration of the methods of social entrepreneurship, which combines the practice of social entrepreneurship in the social service agencies to apply the practice of social work. For example, an understanding of social entrepreneurship, it can begin to change the practices of non-profit social service organization into a social enterprise.
Furthermore, the understanding of social entrepreneurship can also be used to change or encourage CSR program to establish community enterprise.

3. Collaboration with the practice of social entrepreneurship that already exist. This can be done by joining the institute / institutsi certain social entrepreneurship, to be contributed from the practice of science-based social services and social work. This can be done with the assumption that social entrepreneurship organizations have more power than the business side (generating revenue), while social workers have an advantage in providing social services.

Furthermore, the practice of collaboration can be done with the third sector, the first sector (government), the second sector (private / business) and the third sector (social economy / NGO / NGO). This collaboration will require high creativity and innovation to produce optimal results.
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DEALING WITH DRUG RELAPSE USING SPIRITUAL APPROACH

Nurhazlina Mohd Ariffin and Azlinda Azman

Abstract

There are many approaches or methods that have been discussed when dealing with the issues of relapse among the drug users. Many of the approaches deals with issues related to psychological and physical aspects of the addicts themselves including experiencing cognitive and emotional distress, internal conflicts, social pressure as well as symptoms of physical discomfort. In Malaysia, relapse among the drug users are still on the high risk. In the year 2011, the number of relapse cases was reported at 4,238, just a little decrease of 6,404 from the year 2010. Based on this reported cases, it is the objective of this paper to discuss how the spiritual approach can be used in helping drug relapse among the drug addicts in Malaysia. The spiritual approach mainly focuses on the internal elements of the ex-drug users which includes the concept of divinity, own desire, and the influence of environment that helps to build spiritual well-being as well as improving social functioning of the individuals from returning to drugs. Discussion will also emphasize on some of the issues arise when introducing spiritual approaches in dealing with relapse cases.

Introduction

Over the past centuries, many attempts have been made by the government to combat large-scale drug. However, drug is still a country biggest enemy when drug addiction particularly drug relapse deepened over in Malaysia.

Drugs, according to Scozelli (1987) is any psychoactive chemical substances, natural or synthetic that will change the original function in the body system which uses individual, resulting in continued dependence on the substance of addiction, and ultimately threaten individual well-being and social functioning, family, community and country.

In Malaysia, drug refers to a type of psychoactive chemicals that can be classified into five main features as follows:

i. It has the most significant effect on the central nervous system (brain and spinal cord);
ii. Used not for medical purposes, and its use is prohibited;

iii. Illegally obtained;

iv. Lead to physical and psychological dependence, and increase resistance to the drug, and

v. Cause negative effects or danger to the users’ health and social function (p. 46. Gan, 1993).

**Drug Relapse and Intervention Programs**

While the term relapse or recurrence is simply a situation where a former drug addict uses drugs again after a pause or completion of the drug treatment and rehabilitation process. According to Fields (1995), relapse is a situation in which an individual continues to use drugs again after stopping for some period or upon completion of the program of treatment and rehabilitation in any rehabilitation institutions. Among the factors that are often discussed as the cause of drug relapse namely (i) Things (needles, syringes, injection tools), (ii) Times (always take drugs late at night), (iii) People (peers, lovers, family relationships), (iv) Place (pot, nightclubs), (v) Emotion (angry, frustrated, depressed, bored, fun). This situation has often been approached by drug withdrawal symptoms (withdrawal symptoms) such as body tremors, dizziness, sweating, feeling difficult to breath, and heart moving fast when drug abuse memories are suddenly triggered due to certain factors.

The phenomenon of drug addiction is still seen as a very serious problem and last longer. Drug relapse scenario in particular is seen as the cancer at a critical point and incurable once it develops in line with the modernization and development of the country which is moving towards a borderless world (Maznah Ismail, Choo and Hoo, 1992; Saedah A. Ghani, Zainah Ahmad Zamani, Roseliza Ab. Rahman, Zainal Ariffin, and Wan Shahrazad Wan Sulaiman, 2008).
Hence, various programs have been developed to eliminate drug to the zero level in line with the National Drug Policy's main mission. National Drug Policy has been drafted and approved on June 11, 1996 aimed at reducing the demand and supply of drugs as well as to create Malaysian society that is free from drugs. To implement the policy mission, the National Drug Agency (ADK), which is now known as the National Anti-Drug Agency (AADK) has been established under the Ministry of Home Affairs in cooperation with various government agencies such as the Royal Malaysian Police, the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Youth and Sports and the like, and other voluntary organizations to take responsibility for all aspects of the country's anti-drug action through the implementation of programs in forms of prevention, treatment and rehabilitation, evaluation of the effectiveness of the programs and creation of regional and international cooperation.

In addition, various programs have been designed and implemented by the government in collaboration with the relevant agencies to tackle the problem of drug addiction in Malaysia since the 1970's namely Therapeutics Community Program (Therapeutic Community) in rehabilitation centers (PUSPENs); detoxification and replacement therapy treatment using methadone in Cure and Care Clinic; surveillance program, temporary shelter, outreach, drop in, and intervention by Cure and Care Service Center (CCSC); daily service centers and community rehabilitation at Home Community; clusters supported by voluntary help; prevention campaigns (fight drugs, drug enemies, avoid drugs and others), talks and exhibitions awareness in schools, higher education institutions, government departments and the public, and traditional healing and religious treatment (using the approach of the Qur'an for Muslims) in the non-government centers (National Anti-Drug Agency, 2010).

However, according to Saedah A. Ghani et al. (2008), a decrease in the statistics for drug addiction seems to be impossible when the problem of drug addiction especially drug
relapse is still an alarming rate over the years. For example, statistics released by the National Anti-Drug Agency (2010) for 2008 to 2010 also reflect the position of the drug issue being at risk when a total of 34,092 people are drug addicts who have been successfully tracked throughout Malaysia. While drug relapse detected for three years is at a total of 12,528 people approaching half of the detected new addiction.

Drugs Annual Report 2008 to 2010 by PEMADAM (2008) and the National Anti-Drug Agency (2010) has examined that the number of new and repetitive drug addicts in Malaysia reported at 10,977 for 2008. While the number falls sharply to 2,823 people in 2009, and it rose again to 20,292 in 2010. The very large increase in the gap between 2009 and 2010 are probably due to no successful arrests in the past. This means that the issue of drug addiction with a concern in drug relapse is yet to be for granted by all parties.

The efforts undertaken by the government for this much help in addressing the issue of drug addiction and relapse. However, it rather emphasizes the physical or external approach where apparent modus operandi as well as direct contact with drug users themselves. But what is the main focus in this article is to help in addressing the problem of drug addiction through internal self of former drug users themselves through a spiritual approach.

The Need for Spiritual Approach

According to ‘Kamus Dewan’ by Oxford University Press (2005), spirituality is defined as spirit, inner self and soul in an individual. It also refers to things other than material or anything visible through the physical or human eyes. Based on a study conducted by Miller and Bogenschutz (2007), the element of spirituals has been proven to reduce the risk of the use or drug addiction, particularly alcohol addiction.

Spiritual approach is actually an internal aspect of the abstract and cannot be seen with the naked eye because it emphasizes the element of belief, practice, and individual
relationship with the divine concept which will eventually provide awareness in the individual to return to the right path by not going back to drug addiction which is not only forbidden in Islam, but also criticized by other religions in Malaysia, including Budhha, Hindu, Christian, and Sikh (Anti Narcotics Task Force, the National Security Council, & Prime Minister's Department, 1992).

Oman and Thoresen (2007) also echoes that of the spiritual (Spirituality) is indeed a strong influence to the health aspects where studies have shown that individuals often involved in work related to religion will not do unhealthy behaviours such as suicide, smoking, drinking, free sex and comply to road laws because they believe that the consideration of God over every wrongful. Besides, individuals who are not fit either of the physical, psychological and social are seen as effects of punishment by God. Similarly, the phenomenon of drug abuse particularly the drug relapse where any individual is involved again with drug abuse may be due to low levels of spiritual well-being within oneself. This is because the concept of spirituality is an internal process, and hidden which depends on how one form symbols and concepts within oneself as a result of three components (belief, practices & models) of spiritual key as mentioned above.

Accordingly, the spiritual elements should be emphasized in the development of a treatment and rehabilitation program for drug addiction trauma as it is also one of the potent drugs that can give a new ray of consciousness and life to the ex-drug users through the concept of reward and sin as well as the concept of right and wrong. Consciousness arises in the individual will indirectly restore the social functionality of former drug users and thus increase the spiritual well-being in themselves for living healthy life (Morgan 2009).

But what becomes an obstacle in providing interventions to former drug users using this approach is dependent on the self. The concept of spirituality cannot be forced, but it can be formed to improve the well-being because it requires honesty and commitment in the self
to be aware of the feelings of the offense committed and to be consistent in maintaining the relationship with God through the practices religious and spiritual recovered in each respective religion over the years. Responsible parties such as social workers can provide appropriate interventions to stimulate the self-awareness of internal and ex-drug users as well as assisting them in building and improving the spiritual well being in themselves in restoring their social functionality to continue independent living without drug addiction.

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