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Introduction

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Originally before the 19th century healthcare facilities incorporated spirituality and religion (SR) aspects in clinical practice, including for mental health treatments (Oxhandler & Parrish, 2018). However, SR was gradually rejected in the psychology discipline in the early 1900s when pioneers of psychotherapy, such as Freud, criticised religion as a universal neurosis (Hofmann & Walach, 2011). Moreover, SR was completely discarded and ignored from mental health treatment when behaviourism and cognitivism blossomed between the 1920s and 1980s (Barnett & Johnson, 2011). Therefore, clients often chose to suppress their spiritual or religious beliefs out of fear of being pathologised by mental health professionals as explained by South African psychologists (Brown, Elkonin, & Naicker, 2013).

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What is spirituality and religion?

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Numerous definitions and understandings of spirituality and religion have been developed since its revival among mental health professionals in the 1990s (Patel & Shikongo, 2006). Generally, spirituality is understood as a transcendent personal experience and religiosity as a communal-denominational worship ritual (Harris, Randolph, & Gordon, 2016; Passalacqua & Cervantes, 2008; Shafranske & Cummings, 2013). The connection between these two terms is complex because they encompass unique yet overlying dimensions; for example, an individual may be religious, spiritual, or both (Barnett & Johnson, 2011; Frazier & Hansen, 2009; Hofmann & Walach, 2011). Therefore, in the present study these terms are used conjointly unless a specific term is needed to explain a particular context.

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Other terms used in this study are spiritual-religious healers (SRHs) and spiritual-religious therapy (SRT). The SRHs term covers all non-conventional health professionals who use SR in their practice. Specific terms such as ‘spiritual healer’ are used when describing a contextual situation. Additionally, a spiritual healer may be referred to within

53 specific cultures by a range of indigenous names (Liem & Rahmawati, 2017), e.g. *balian*
54 (Balinese spiritual healer) or *dukun* (a term used across many areas of Indonesia, referring to
55 indigenous healers of both a physical and spiritual nature). Meanwhile, the term 'religious
56 healer' is used to cover clergy and religious leaders without referring to a particular religion.
57 The SRT term encompasses therapy, practiced by SRHs or conventional health professionals
58 that contains any spiritual-religious philosophy, teaching, or activity in the process.

59 **The holistic approach**

60 The multidiscipline collaboration in contemporary psychiatric services has seen SR
61 being included more often as part of a holistic care approach (Ramakrishnan et al., 2015).
62 This approach emphasises the wholeness and multidimensional needs of clients and their
63 families (Rochmawati, Wiechula, & Cameron, 2018). In this approach, the interrelation of a
64 client's mind, body and spirit is recognised by acknowledging biopsychosocial-sociocultural
65 factors that influence a client's condition (Brown et al., 2013; Suryani, Lesmana, &
66 Tiliopoulos, 2011). Previous studies found that addressing or integrating SR into mental
67 health services had significantly increased clients' coping skills, resilience, and well-being
68 (Chaudhry, 2008; Kalra, Shah, Deakin, & Bhugra, 2015); and helped clients with post-
69 traumatic stress disorder in renewing hope and re-finding life purposes (Harris et al., 2016;
70 Rochmawati et al., 2018).

71 These positive outcomes have led to prolific quantitative studies to survey mental
72 health professionals' attitudes towards SR in secular nations. The results showed that
73 psychologists in the USA (Shafranske & Cummings, 2013; Shafranske & Malony, 1990), UK
74 (Crossley & Salter, 2005), and Germany (Hofmann & Walach, 2011) had positive attitudes
75 towards SR and some of them had integrated SR into their therapy. Additionally,
76 psychologists in the USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand self-reported for being more
77 spiritual than religious (Delaney, Miller, & Bisonó, 2007; Harris et al., 2016). However, one

78 study in the USA also showed that psychologists had the lowest positive attitudes towards SR
79 and the fewest professional courses about SR when compared with nurses, social workers,
80 counsellors, and marriage-family therapists (Oxhandler & Parrish, 2018). These four
81 professions had been prepared better than psychologists to integrate SR into their practice
82 through cultural competency training, including SR aspects, in their professional education
83 (Barnett & Johnson, 2011).

84 **The current study and SR in Indonesia**

85 Despite abundant surveys of psychologists' attitudes towards SR, how psychologists
86 address SR in their practice is the most under-examined topic in this area (Crossley & Salter,
87 2005). Also, the results of study in developed-secular nations may be different compared with
88 those in developing or non-secular nations due to sociocultural variations (Chaudhry, 2008;
89 Javed, 2015). Therefore, the current study aims to explore how Indonesian clinical
90 psychologists (CPs) address aspects of SR, particularly their attitudes towards and experience
91 of it, in a mental health context using qualitative methods. This exploratory study was part of
92 a national survey of complementary-alternative medicines (CAM) among Indonesian CPs
93 using a mixed-method design. From the nationwide survey, CPs in Indonesia reported that
94 SRT was the most commonly used CAM method both for personal and professional purposes
95 (Liem & Newcombe, 2019).

96 Indonesia is unique because it is neither a secular nor a religious nation, represented by
97 the nation's official "Five Founding Principles" (known as the *Pancasila*); the first of which
98 states that Indonesia is founded on the "belief in one supreme God" ("*Ketuhanan Yang Maha*
99 *Esa*") (Ropi, 2017). Additionally, there are six recognised religions and more than 100 *aliran*
100 *kepercayaan* (traditional faith) in Indonesia, though the population is predominately (87%)
101 Muslim (Rochmawati et al., 2018). However, the percentage of population depends on the

102 local culture and area; for instance, in Bali more than 83% adhere to Balinese Hinduism
103 which differs from Hinduism in India (Suryani et al., 2011).

104 A national survey conducted by the Indonesian Ministry of Health discovered that more
105 than 67% of people in Indonesia came to SRHs because of their tradition/culture, felt it was
106 more effective, and felt conventional medicine was hopeless (Kementerian Kesehatan RI,
107 2013). Therefore, a holistic care approach was particularly important for mental health
108 treatment in nations with strong SR influence such as Indonesia (Suryani et al., 2011).
109 Previous studies among health professionals in Indonesia showed Indonesian physicians
110 (predominantly Muslims) were significantly more religious, more spiritual as well as more
111 willing to integrate SR into their practices than Indian physicians (predominantly Hindu)
112 (Ramakrishnan et al., 2015); palliative care staff in Indonesia also provided SR support to
113 their clients and families, *i.e.* by praying together, which was perceived as culturally
114 contextual and may be controversial in secular nations (Rochmawati et al., 2018).

115 **Methodology**

116 Data were collected through semi-structured, face-to-face interviews using an interview
117 schedule revised based on the pilot interview (Liem, 2018). This study had been reviewed
118 and granted ethics approval by the Ethics Committee of School of Psychology at the
119 University of **Queensland**. The sampling for maximum variation was used in this study to
120 recruit CPs in all 43 PHCs from two districts in Yogyakarta Special Region Province,
121 Indonesia. The only inclusion criterion applied was “Participant is willing and able to give
122 informed consent for participation in the study.”

123

124 **Procedure and participants**

125 Interviews were conducted by the first author between November 2016 and January
126 2017 in two sub-districts of Yogyakarta Special Province: Yogyakarta City and Sleman.

127 These two of five sub-districts were chosen because the integration of psychological services
128 into public health centres in Indonesia were initiated here (Setiyawati, Blashki, Wraith,
129 Colucci, & Minas, 2014). Before having the face-to-face interview, participants were given a
130 chance to ask questions related to the research and asked to sign the consent form. All
131 participants voluntarily agreed to be interviewed and audio-recorded at their suggested time
132 and place. Each interview lasted for between 30 and 100 minutes, with an average of 55
133 minutes. Participants ranged from 25 to 42 years old with an average age of 34 years old and
134 they were from Java, Sumatra, and Borneo Island. There was only one male participant and
135 therefore 'she' is used to discuss all interview responses in this study to maintain participants'
136 anonymity.

137

138 **Interview schedule**

139 An interview schedule (a guideline for conducting interview) was used because the
140 interviewer has more flexibility, compared with interview protocol, when using it as a
141 guideline (Bantjes & Van Ommen, 2008; Dikko, 2016). Three areas of SR were explored
142 among participants through interview schedule. The first area was participants' experiences
143 of spirituality and religion in both personal and professional settings. The second area of
144 interview focused on participants' attitudes towards SRHs. The last area explored
145 participants' attitudes towards SRTs, especially related to its integration into psychological
146 services. The results of this interview schedule development and pilot study had been
147 reported elsewhere (Liem, 2018).

148

149 **Data analysis**

150 Interview transcripts were analysed using thematic analysis due to its flexibility to both
151 report and examine explicit and latent contents (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Deductive thematic

152 analysis (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012) was particularly used because this follow-up
153 qualitative study aimed to explain specific quantitative findings. The steps of analysis
154 followed guidelines from previous studies (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Guest et al., 2012). The
155 data analysis was then undertaken based on the checklist for reporting qualitative health
156 research (Tong, Sainsbury, & Craig, 2007) to improve the report's quality.

157

158 **Trustworthiness**

159 The trustworthiness of this qualitative study was ensure principally through the
160 selection of deductive thematic analysis where the author recognised the influence of
161 previous studies in developing this current research. The researcher (the author)
162 acknowledged that researchers cannot completely free themselves from a theoretical
163 framework (Braun & Clarke, 2006). To increase the credibility, all of the interviews were
164 conducted by the same interviewer (the author) and all of the transcripts were double-checked
165 by comparing them with the audio recordings. Lastly, the author consulted with a senior
166 lecturer of Indonesian study who is also an expert in qualitative methodology to improve the
167 conformability of the analysis and interpretation (Smith & Wu, 2012; Vaismoradi, Turunen,
168 & Bondas, 2013).

169

Results

170 A thematic analysis of the 43 interviews generated ten sub-themes which were merged
171 into three central themes which is presented in Figure 1. The first theme focused on clients'
172 and participants' experiences related to SR, particularly in their sociocultural context. The
173 second theme concentrated on participants' clinical experiences related to SR integration. The
174 last theme highlighted the efforts made by participants to create holistic mental health
175 services. Extracts and quotes are presented by participant number and transcript line, for
176 example, (28-120) means a transcript from Participant 28 on line 120.

177

[Insert Figure 1]

178

179 **Unfolding clients' and clinical psychologists' stories**

180 This first theme—clients' and participants' experiences of SR—covered four sub-
181 themes, starting with the reason why clients visited SRHs first and then conventional health
182 centres. It was also found that family played a vital role in decision-making around mental
183 health treatment for clients. In addition, SR as part of Indonesian cultural and belief systems
184 could not be detached from both client's and clinical psychologist's lives. However,
185 participants as professional helpers should be able to differentiate their practice from that of
186 SRHs by relying on conventional psychotherapy processes. In the last sub-theme, it was
187 explained why participants showed more favourable attitudes towards religious healers than
188 spiritual healers.

189

190 **The journey of clients and their families.** Participants highlighted that understanding
191 clients' behaviours, particularly the reason why they went to SRHs, is an essential foundation
192 for comprehending SR in an Indonesian mental health context. Figure 2 displays participants'
193 explanation of their clients' decision-making processes related to SRHs and conventional

194 health services visits. Generally, clients visited SRHs in the first place because of several
195 reasons. For example, clients from remote areas often went to SRHs because the location was
196 closer than conventional health services. The cost included both the long distance and time
197 taken to visit conventional health services; there was also potential financial loss because
198 clients and their families in villages were usually paid daily for their labour. Therefore, if
199 they must travel far away, they would receive no income for the day. Participants also
200 observed that mental health information in remote or suburban areas was insufficient. Also, a
201 client's parents who may be perceived as elders or authority figures in their area will most
202 likely bring their child to a SRH first because they do not trust conventional health services.

203 It was discovered that family members are often intensely involved in a client's mental
204 health treatment. Participants explained that most parents of child clients, and husbands of
205 female clients, often brought their child or wife to meet a SRH before finally coming to
206 conventional health services. Extended family members, particularly in rural areas, could also
207 be actively engaged in a client's treatment. For example, the family might bring the client to a
208 SRH in one single meeting or leave them at *pondok* (inpatient SRT care), especially if the
209 client has a psychotic disorder. Family members might leave the client at *pondok* because
210 they do not have enough resources (time, money, and persons) to take care of the client at
211 home (28-120).

212 Clients or their family members came to conventional health services, PHCs or
213 hospitals, after they showed no progress or when their condition became worse. At the
214 conventional health services, clients were prescribed medicines, particularly for severe
215 mental disorders. Some family members brought clients back again to a SRH without telling
216 the conventional health practitioners because they did not want the client to become
217 dependent on drugs (41-48). Another reason for bringing a family member to a conventional
218 health service was that they were only interested in methods that would have the fastest

219 effect. Participant 19 added that if client could not do the rituals requested by the SRH, the
220 rituals still could be done by their family members, for example, praying at midnight. This
221 flexibility in therapy, which could not be conducted in conventional medicine, additionally
222 inspired the family to bring clients to SRHs. In some cases, clients might relapse because of
223 numerous reasons and, when this happened, they preferred to go to the SRHs again instead of
224 returning directly to conventional health services. In another scenario, some families might
225 lock up or restrain clients at home and clients would be brought to conventional health
226 service again after their condition was very severe or when their neighbours encouraged them
227 to do so (26-83).

228 Participants said that CPs might maximise this family involvement in conventional
229 mental health care. For example, CPs can consistently educate the family about mental
230 disorders and ask them to actively participate in a client's treatment. CPs might also organise
231 family gatherings for clients with severe mental disorders. Some participants had applied this
232 strategy and used the family gatherings to develop social support for clients' families as
233 caregivers.

234 [Insert Figure 2]

235

236 **SR as part of culture and belief.** All participants stated that SR, including mystic and
237 supernatural forms, is part of Indonesian culture and beliefs, and part of people's daily lives.
238 Therefore, it is still common for Indonesian people, particularly in villages, to think that
239 supernatural forces can cause physical illness and mental disorders. Participant 37 gave an
240 example where one family insisted on bringing a client while being critically ill with dengue
241 fever from a PHC to a SRH because the family believed that the cause of his illness was evil
242 spirits in the room. Unfortunately, the client died on the way when his family was bringing
243 him to the SRH in a different city.

244 Participants did not judge clients or their families because SR can be perceived as two
245 sides of the same coin. It may act as a protective factor by facilitating aspects of Indonesian
246 collective culture and providing a space for individual needs. For example, *sholat Jumu'ah*
247 (Friday prayer) in Islam and Sunday mass in Christianity are opportunities for community
248 gatherings; *sholat Tahajjud* (late night prayer) and confession to a clergy member in
249 Catholicism can be used for individual catharsis.

250 On the other side, SR can also be a risk factor for mental health treatment. For example,
251 SR beliefs may maintain stigma towards people with mental disorders, making their family
252 ashamed of the client and locking them up at home. Additionally, people may also be
253 unfamiliar with the psychology profession and suspect psychotherapy contradicts religious
254 teachings, as discussed by Participant 39. This stigma and unfamiliarity possibly cause clients
255 and their families to distrust CPs by not disclosing if they have visited SRHs. Participants
256 also explained that CPs will never win when competing with SRHs so that it is better to make
257 a dialogue with them as an ally. Hence, participants cannot apply psychotherapy rigidly as
258 written in textbooks because they need to adjust their therapy methods according to local
259 culture, as explained by Participant 38. Although, if a CP chooses not to integrate SRT into
260 their practice, the CP must be aware of the client's SR beliefs so that the psychotherapy will
261 not contradict these beliefs.

262 SR is also part of health professionals' lives in Indonesia, as participants shared
263 numerous stories of their colleagues at their PHC. For instance, as told by Participant 19,
264 nurses believed that hysteria was caused by bad spirits so that they invited SRH into the
265 emergency room. As another example, some colleagues at the PHC asked participants about
266 *ruqyah* (Islamic exorcism) practitioners because they believed that supernatural forces had
267 caused the mental disorders experienced by their family members. Participants' colleagues
268 did not want to bring their family members to the PHC because of the stigma associated with

269 the treatment administered there. Also, they felt ashamed and afraid that their co-workers
270 would gossip about them.

271 Participants as people with religious faith also acknowledged that they could not be
272 completely free from their religious values and personal bias. For example, they agreed that
273 the primary mental health treatment should be conventional medicine through bio-
274 psychosocial intervention. However, they highlighted that it should also be complemented
275 with spiritual efforts, such as praying. Also, participants believed in supernatural forces,
276 including people with special gifts to communicate with creatures from different dimensions.
277 Participant 32 mentioned that she could recognise the difference between clients experiencing
278 clinical hallucinations and those who had this special gift. She admitted, however, that it was
279 difficult to explain her observation scientifically.

280 Moreover, religion and science cannot be separated, as emphasised by Participant 12,
281 “Doing my [CP] profession is also part of worship. I can’t and wouldn’t separate these two
282 things.” (12-70). This condition created a dilemma for some participants as exemplified, “In
283 the professional oath we must be neutral, should not bring religion into it. But I found it is
284 difficult to implement the oath in our religious society where SR is part of everyone’s life.”
285 (1-48). Thus, participants strongly suggested that psychology faculties should address this
286 issue in educational training and that professional organisations should establish a standard
287 operating procedure (SOP) for SRT integration in psychotherapy.

288

289 **What makes CP and SRH different?** Apart from integral SR in participants’ lives, many
290 people recognised three aspects that differentiate participants and SRH when doing SRT, as
291 presented in Table 1: assessment and treatment plans, intervention types, and communication
292 style. Participants assess a client’s core problems and what efforts the client has done, then
293 writes a psychological assessment report. Based on the assessment results, they set up

294 intervention goals and plan the treatment together with the client. SRT will be integrated into
295 psychological treatment only if a client needs it. Participants will not use SRT if the client
296 shows symptoms of having a severe mental disorder and directly refers them to hospital. On
297 the other hand, participants perceived that SRHs do not have a framework to assess client's
298 problem and plan the treatment based on their faith only.

299 For interventions, participants explained that if they use a SR activity, it has to be part
300 of conventional psychotherapy. Participants will explain to clients the psychological benefits
301 and scientific reasons for using the SR activity. Moreover, the SR activity which is integrated
302 into the conventional psychotherapy should be a simple and basic one. For example, a CP
303 may ask a client to do *zikir* (Islamic chanting) as part of a breathing relaxation technique.
304 Also, participants will educate their clients that psychotherapy will not instantly solve their
305 problems so that they must be patient and actively participate in the process.

306 SRHs, by contrast, will apply SRT to every client's situation, including for clients with
307 psychotic symptoms. SRHs will also ask clients to read specific bible verses or to perform
308 rituals to rid them of bad energy or evil spirits. In addition, SRHs tend to communicate with
309 clients using dogmatic and doctrinal styles while participants apply micro-counselling skills
310 and show empathy with their clients. For example, Participant 12 shared her story about an
311 adolescent client who was sent by the client's teacher at an Islamic boarding school to a SRH
312 because the client was experiencing a sexual identity crisis. Because of the client's religious
313 background, she used Quranic chapters not for preaching but for explaining that the Prophet
314 Muhammad's character was a gentle and loving man: this was used to help the client so that
315 he needed to not worry about being a gentle and sensitive man.

316 [insert Table 1]

317

318 **Participants' attitudes towards SRT and SRHs.** Some participants expressed doubt
319 towards the effectiveness of SRT conducted by SRHs, and even by participants' colleagues or
320 senior CPs. Participants hardly ever found research articles to support the SRT used by them.
321 Also, their colleagues or seniors did not explain clearly the scientific reasons of incorporating
322 SRT into their practice. Hence, they assumed that SRT effectiveness might only be a placebo
323 effect. However, participants accepted that their clients met SRHs in order to deal with a
324 condition for which they also sought help from conventional health services. Participants
325 requested that clients inform them about what interventions were given by SRHs, especially
326 herbal remedies, to avoid adverse-reactions.

327 Participants generally showed more favourableness towards religious healers than
328 spiritual healers. Participants perceived spiritual healers, and also some religious healers,
329 performed methods and asked clients to do behaviours that deviate from religious teachings
330 and that did not have scientific supports. In addition, participants questioned the efficacy and
331 scientific logic of the methods. For example, one participant expressed her doubt about the
332 efficacy of such methods when recounting a story of a spiritual healer who had applied
333 chicken blood to the vagina of her client with a psychotic disorder because it was believed to
334 remove her bad luck (24-96). In addition, participants also found that their clients spent a lot
335 of money to pay and buy objects requested by the spiritual healers, as exemplified, "She
336 spent millions, even borrow from the bank, for treatment with *orang pintar* [traditional
337 healer] and buy requested stuffs like special oil." (43-64). In some cases, religious healers
338 also did unscientific methods which were against conventional medicine practices. For
339 example, as told by Participant 37, one religious healer performed *ruqyah* (Islamic exorcism)
340 but, in the process, he spat in the client's face; he also stated that prescription drugs were
341 toxic for the client's body and then ordered the client to stop taking them and instead to soak
342 in the creek at midnight.

343 Unfavourable attitudes towards spiritual healers were also triggered by previous
344 incidents experienced by participants or their clients. For example, Participant 36 had a client
345 with breast cancer who initially only came to her spiritual healer and was given prayer water.
346 The cancer became worse and made the client depressed so she went to the Participant.
347 However, it was too late because the cancer had reached the Stage 4 and finally the client
348 died. Some methods performed by spiritual healers could also be categorised as sexually
349 predatory behaviours. For example, Participant 29 said that her teenage client was
350 manipulated by the spiritual healer into having sex with him and developed depression
351 because she became pregnant. Knowing this story, the Participant told the client's parents and
352 encouraged them to report the case to the police.

353

354 **Practical experiences from integrating aspects of SR in psychological services**

355 This second theme begins with the description on how far aspects of SR could be
356 integrated into a CP's clinical practice. This is followed by participants' experiences of how
357 they integrated SR into their practice. The efforts made by participants to improve their SRT
358 knowledge and skills are presented in the last sub-theme.

359

360 **Boundaries and limitations of SRT integration into psychology practice.** Participants
361 indicated that the boundaries for how far SRT could be integrated into psychological
362 intervention was marked by three sources: the client, the CP, and the particular SR activity.
363 SRT could be applied if it was needed by clients and they showed an interest in applying it as
364 part of a particular intervention and their lives. Participant 37 emphasised that CPs cannot
365 force clients to do SR techniques if the clients are not ready or willing to do it. Clients should
366 also understand the religion and practice religious activities in their daily lives for SR to be an
367 appropriate method.

368 The SR activity to be integrated into the intervention should be understood
369 comprehensively and practiced daily by the CP. This is important because CPs need to be
370 able to explain it in details; when CPs practice the SR activity in their life, clients will build
371 trust with the CPs. Nonetheless, participants also warned that CPs need to be careful with
372 potential bias from their personal values and religious understanding. Therefore, CPs need to
373 have specific SRT skills and competency to integrate SR methods into their conventional
374 psychotherapy. Participant 41 highlighted that CPs must take part in SRT training which is
375 accredited by psychology and medical professional organisations before they can integrate it
376 into their practice. However, other participants expressed their concern about some CPs using
377 SR in their practice; they viewed a CP using SR as performing a double-role, creating a
378 challenge for the individual to draw a line between what they do as a CP and as a religious
379 person or clergy member. For example, Participant 30 expressed her confusion about some
380 colleagues and senior CPs who were also clergy members, commenting that they often
381 integrated SR activities into their practice, even when it was not needed by their clients.

382 SR activity is often integrated into conventional psychotherapy and is expected to be
383 part of basic practices and is not perceived to deviate from religious teachings. More complex
384 or advanced SR activities, *i.e.* bible interpretation, should be conducted by a clergy member.
385 Participants also emphasised that SR activities need to be connected with psychological
386 theory and only be offered as a complement to conventional psychotherapy as exemplified
387 by, “For example, cognitive or behaviour therapy has been given initially, and then we insert
388 this [SR activity] as a complement.” (43-74). Participants also underlined that SR activities
389 based on scientific evidence should be integrated into psychotherapy.

390 Besides boundaries for when SRT could be integrated into psychological practice,
391 participants also acknowledged the limitations of SRT. Based on participants’ observations,
392 SRT was not effective for clients with severe mental disorders because they might interpret

393 religious teaching mistakenly or it was potentially worsening their condition. Participants
394 strongly suggested limiting SRT integration only for clients with mild mental disorders and
395 those only experiencing the stressors of daily hassles. Participants also concluded that SRT
396 was not useful for children and adolescent clients. Clients of that developmental age have not
397 developed a comprehensive understanding and interpretation of religious teachings so that it
398 would be difficult for a CP to explain the benefit of SRT. In addition, participants said that
399 children and adolescent clients were mostly experiencing pervasive developmental disorders
400 such as autism which would be more effectively treated with conventional medicine rather
401 than SRT.

402

403 **Integration of SR into psychological practice.** Participants integrated aspects of SR into
404 their practices in two ways. First, participants talked about SR concepts, *i.e.* forgiveness, with
405 clients showing an interest in SRT during the counselling process. Participants also often
406 inserted SR concepts into family and marriage counselling because these are often also part
407 of religious teachings. Second, some participants integrated SR activities as part of
408 psychotherapy, especially for sleep disorders, anxiety, depression, for elderly clients, and for
409 clients with chronic illnesses and those under palliative care. Participant 30 gave an example
410 involving her religious client with post-traumatic stress disorder from sexual abuse. The
411 client used to be a member of her church choir and the participant asked the client to try this
412 activity again to rebuild her client's confidence and self-esteem. Participant 20 illustrated a
413 different case where she had a client who insisted on asking for *ruqyah* (Islamic exorcism).
414 The participant did not have the skills to perform a *ruqyah* so she invited her colleague who
415 was also a CP and able to conduct the *ruryah*. The client felt better after the *ruqyah* and
416 continued the conventional psychotherapy as planned.

417 The majority of participants were Muslims and their clients were also predominantly
418 Muslim. Therefore, Islamic teachings and activities were the most common integrated
419 religion into participants' practice, even by non-Muslim participants when explaining an
420 activity's benefits and psychological effects to clients. However, Participant 19 highlighted
421 that she, as a non-Muslim CP, did not give behavioural SRT, *i.e.* *zikir* (Islamic chanting),
422 because it might be incorrect or make the client uncomfortable. On the other hand, Muslim
423 participants described briefly particular Islamic teachings or activities and asked non-Muslim
424 clients if there was any similar things in the client's own religion. Participants then
425 encouraged clients to do the religious activity or discuss it with a member of the clergy from
426 their religion. Both Muslim and non-Muslim participants agreed that there are universal
427 values, such as compassion, in every religion's core belief system. These universal values
428 might be called spirituality which has a more profound meaning than religion and thus can be
429 incorporated into SRT with the many religions and faiths of clients.

430 Participants underlined the importance of assessment before integrating SR into
431 psychological therapy because each client has a different level of interest in SR. Three
432 methods were used to assess a client's interest towards SR integration: their outfit, content of
433 the discussion, and the client's habit of practising religious activities. Clients were
434 predominantly Muslim women wearing hijab so that it could be perceived as a sign that
435 religion was important to them. However, not all clients with religious outfits were interested
436 in integrating SR into their psychotherapy because they wanted more concrete action, as told
437 by Participant 11. Clients who frequently initiated discussions about SR or who mentioned
438 their habit of practising religious activities in their daily life were most likely to be interested
439 in integrating SR into the psychotherapy process.

440 It was found that not all participants integrated aspects of SR into their practice because
441 of three reasons. First, some participants considered SR beliefs belong to private domain and

442 everyone has their own religious interpretation and faith. For example, Participant 41
443 explained that there are several streams within Islam itself and she was practising a non-
444 popular stream in Indonesia. Hence, even when she meets Muslim clients, they may have
445 different belief systems and understandings of Islamic teachings. Second, some participants
446 or their family members have had negative experiences with SRHs or SRT such as *ruqyah*
447 (Islamic exorcism) and so they did not want clients to have the same experience. Lastly,
448 participants acknowledged that they did not have the competency for conducting SRT so they
449 preferred practising conventional psychotherapy techniques only.

450

451 **Recommendation and referral of SR.** Some participants gave non-clinical
452 recommendations related to SR activities and explained the psychological benefits for them.
453 For example, they recommended that Muslim clients should continue to do *shalat* (Islamic
454 praying) regularly. Participants advised some clients to meet members of their clergy because
455 they often asked about, or were deeply interested in theology, *i.e.* bible interpretation, in the
456 counselling process. On the other hand, some participants did not recommend anything
457 related to SR because of several reasons: the client had a different religion, SR was perceived
458 as not part of conventional psychotherapy, they had insufficient knowledge and research
459 articles about SRT, and they did not have personal experience of SRT especially for *ruqyah*.

460 Many clients quite often inquired the participants whether they knew any SRH,
461 particularly *ruqyah* practitioners. Most of the participants did not have such networks or
462 knew SRH so they never made referrals. Participant 41 even asked their clients to search for
463 SRH on Google. Additionally, some participants mentioned that they could not refer clients
464 to SRH because it was outside the PHC and would not be covered by the insurance. However,
465 some participants did a non-clinical referral to clergy members or to more senior CPs with
466 more advanced religious knowledge and SRT skills. In addition, Participant 15 referred some

467 clients to her partner who studied theology because clients wanted to discuss religious
468 teachings more deeply.

469

470 **Improving SRT knowledge and skills.** Participants tried to develop their SRT knowledge
471 and skills from various sources: mass media, TV programs, workshops, mentoring with
472 senior CPs, and assisting in a clinical trial of *zikir* (Islamic chanting) therapy. In addition,
473 SRT was also taught at Islamic universities in three ways as told by some Muslim
474 participants. First, SR content was blended in the introduction to conventional psychotherapy
475 course. Second, students were taught an Islamic Psychology course which also covered
476 Islamic healing concepts. Lastly, practical courses about Islamic religious therapy techniques
477 were taught only at the master's level. Participants also explained that some of their
478 academics discouraged students from learning or practising yoga and meditation since these
479 two methods are rooted in other religions, Hinduism and Buddhism respectively. Despite this
480 prohibition, participants explained that CPs need to know the core concepts of other religions.
481 This knowledge is essential so that CPs can better understand their clients from different
482 religions and faith. Participants added having cultural awareness and competency is a must
483 for CPs because their clients were not from one religion or belief system only.

484

485 **Shaping holistic mental health services**

486 Despite unfavourable attitudes towards spiritual healers, participants agreed that aspects
487 of SR could not be isolated from psychological services. Participants perceived that the
488 integration of SR into clinical practice would make mental health services more accepted in
489 Indonesia. Therefore, this last theme presents two sub-themes of participants' efforts towards
490 creating, and suggestions for creating, sustainable holistic mental health services.

491

492 **Applying a client-centred focus.** Participants may have their own spirituality and religious
493 views and may disagree with a client's choice or views. Participants emphasised, however,
494 that they had to behave as professional helpers by respecting their clients' beliefs. For
495 example, participants respected their clients' rights and decisions when they or their family
496 members stopped coming to conventional health services and went only to SRH. This client-
497 centred focus is important because participants did not want to make clients feel judged or
498 blamed, which may break trust with the clients and obstruct their psychotherapy process.
499 Moreover, participants perceived what clients or their family did, by visiting SRHs, as an
500 effort that needed to be appreciated. Additionally, participants explained that clients who stop
501 seeing SRH because of being forced to by their CP, may lose social support from family
502 members because it might be perceived that the client does not trust their family anymore.

503 Therefore, participants usually educated clients and their families about mental
504 disorders and holistic mental health treatments from a conventional medicine perspective. For
505 example, Participant 16 informed their clients in rural areas, who believed mental disorders
506 were caused by supernatural forces, that any supernatural forces were in fact negative energy
507 which was damaging clients' bodies and minds. Hence, clients needed some form of stronger
508 energy to defeat it and they could increase their energy by coming to conventional health
509 services, doing psychotherapy and physical exercise, and complement these treatments by
510 visiting SRHs for spiritual support. Participants also frequently encouraged clients and their
511 families to do self-critical thinking. Some topics and questions that often raised were whether
512 there were any health benefits or side effects from visiting SRHs and what the cost had been.
513 Clients and their families usually gained insight from these questions, including that not
514 much progress had been made after visiting a SRH multiple times and that these visits cost
515 them a lot because the insurance did not cover this treatment. After realising these facts,

516 clients and their families mostly came to conventional health services regularly and visited
517 SRHs just for spiritual support.

518 The client-centred focus was also applied when participants observed their clients'
519 problems. Participants said that SRT was mostly effective for elderly clients because their
520 problems were generally rooted in spiritual issues such as questioning their meaning of life
521 and fear of dying. Participants also noticed that SRT was more suitable for clients with low
522 education levels and socio-economic status (SES) compared with clients from high education
523 level and socio-economic backgrounds. For example, *murratal* (reciting Quran in semi-
524 singing style) was recommended to clients with low SES as part of relaxation techniques and
525 listening to classical music which they were not familiar with. Participants also considered
526 integrating SRT for clients with formal religious education backgrounds such as those
527 graduated from *pondok pesantren* (Islamic boarding schools, typically for Year 7 to 12)
528 because clients usually would then be more engaged with the psychotherapy process.

529

530 **Collaboration with multiple stakeholders.** Participants suggested that a credible SRH
531 should be considered an ally rather than a rival with whom to develop beneficial collaborative
532 work. Participants positively welcomed this potential collaboration because they had
533 experiences where some clients visited PHC because they were requested by the SRH that
534 clients met before coming to the PHC. Participants perceived this phenomenon as an
535 opportunity to improve mental health services in Indonesia and to make them more holistic.
536 The collaboration might start from dialogue and mutual understanding, especially about
537 mental disorders and treatments from a combined biopsychosocial-spiritual perspective.
538 Moreover, CPs should have communication with trustworthy SRHs to avoid contradictive or
539 overlapping SR activities if they work together in the future.

540 Participants considered that they could not establish holistic mental health services by
541 themselves. Therefore, collaboration should also be developed between several stakeholders.
542 First, the collaboration could be made with other health professionals, particularly physicians,
543 where CPs may inform them if clients are taking herbal remedies from SRHs in order that
544 any adverse-drug-reaction can be avoided. The second proposal was to collaborate with *kader*
545 *kesehatan jiwa* (mental health cadres/MHC, volunteers who act as mental health sentinels in
546 the community) and local leaders. Participants explained that these stakeholders are more
547 respected and trusted than CPs by people in the area so that CPs should involve themselves
548 when organising events to educate the community about mental disorders. Also, local leaders
549 should know credible SRHs that CPs can invite for collaboration. Lastly, participants advised
550 making collaborations with schools because some child clients visited PHC after the teacher
551 persuaded the children's parents to not only go to SRH but also to meet a CP.

552 Discussion

553 This study aimed to explore how CPs address aspects of SR in Indonesia. The particular
554 aspects examined were their attitudes towards and experiences of SR in a mental health
555 context. In answering this question, participants initially explained the reasons why clients
556 often visited SRHs first before seeking help from conventional health services when a client's
557 condition became worse. It was found that the client's decision to visit a SRH was influenced
558 by complex sociocultural factors as is often found in psychiatric care in Asia (Chaudhry,
559 2008; Kalra et al., 2015). Additionally, the finding from this study supported the results of
560 another study into SR integration in palliative care in Indonesia that the family is often deeply
561 involved in a client's health treatment (Rochmawati et al., 2018).

562 Part of culture and belief

563 The current study found that SR cannot be separated from mental health treatment
564 because it is part of culture and belief in Indonesia. SR in Indonesia is not only embracing

565 one official religion and obeying God; it is also one of rich heritage of traditions from local
566 belief systems that have existed since before the eighth century (Ropi, 2017). On the positive
567 side, SR was perceived to help improving client's mental health and well-being as found in
568 previous studies (Brown et al., 2013; Ramakrishnan et al., 2015). Nevertheless, at the same
569 time, SR might also hinder conventional mental health treatment because people believe
570 more in SRHs than in the treatments offered by CPs. The psychology profession may also be
571 misinterpreted because of people's unfamiliarity with it.

572 Moreover, participants explained that during the first year of being placed at the PHC
573 (initially in 2006-2007), they only had a few clients because the stigma surrounding mental
574 disorders was so intense, a phenomenon found across many Asian contexts (Chaudhry, 2008;
575 Javed, 2015). People in the city nowadays have a greater level of understanding of mental
576 disorders and the psychology profession, but the case is less with people in remote areas.
577 Therefore, people who visited SRHs mostly came from rural areas or villages, as found in a
578 previous study in Bali (Suryani et al., 2011). This two-sided coin perspective was similar
579 with the CPs' views on SR integration in psychotherapy in South Africa (Brown et al., 2013).

580 Participants in this study admitted that SR is part of their lives and cannot be detached
581 from psychological services. This finding supports similar results among physicians
582 (Ramakrishnan et al., 2015) and nurses (Rochmawati et al., 2018) in Indonesia who also
583 genuinely integrated aspects of SR into their clinical practice. Additionally, it was difficult
584 for participants in the current study to hide their religious identity when meeting clients
585 because, for example, the majority of them were wearing hijab and others had Christian
586 names. Some participants felt a dilemma because they were afraid to break a professional
587 oath of neutrality. The same feeling was also found among Muslim CPs in South Africa
588 where Muslim clients preferred having sessions with them rather than with Christian CPs
589 because of a CP's Islamic name or outfit (Patel & Shikongo, 2006). Therefore, participants in

590 this study highly recommended SR integration to be addressed by psychology faculties and
591 professional organisations, as was also suggested in previous studies among CPs in the UK
592 (Crossley & Salter, 2005) and the USA (Shafranske & Cummings, 2013).

593 **Attitudes towards spiritual-religious therapy**

594 Participants showed mixed attitudes towards SRT, particularly regarding its
595 effectiveness. These diverse attitudes might be due to different interpretations of religious
596 teachings among them, even from those having the same religion. For example, Participant
597 29 supported her client to do *ruqyah* (Islamic exorcism) because she interpreted it as part of
598 Islamic healing techniques. On the other hand, Participant 22 discouraged her client from
599 doing *ruqyah* because she did not believe in it and *ruqyah* is a debatable issue among Islamic
600 scholars. This contradiction reinforced previous studies which found that spirituality is wider,
601 more unique and personal than religiosity (Chaudhry, 2008; Crossley & Salter, 2005; Harris
602 et al., 2016). Additionally, the difficulty in finding scientific evidence with a solid
603 methodology to support SRT effectiveness may also constrain participants in completely
604 believing in SRT efficacy, an issues which was also found among physicians and
605 psychiatrists in the USA (Lawrence, Rasinski, Yoon, & Curlin, 2014). However, participants
606 in the current study did not prohibit clients from visiting SRHs, but rather encouraged them to
607 come to conventional health services as well. This may be because the holistic mental health
608 approach is advocated for by participants, similar with African CPs (Brown et al., 2013) who
609 believe human health consists of physical, psychological, social, and spiritual aspects.

610 This study found that participants showed favourable attitudes towards religious
611 healers, but less favourable attitudes towards spiritual healers, which parallels a study among
612 British CPs (Crossley & Salter, 2005) and American psychiatrists (Lawrence et al., 2014).
613 The main reason was that the methods given to the clients were perceived as irrational and
614 risky, that would be eventually worsening a client's condition. In addition, Muslim

615 participants in this study said that some of those methods deviated from Islamic teachings so
616 that they had to warn clients as fellow Muslims. Muslim CPs in South Africa also alerted
617 clients about behaviours which deviated from Islamic teaching because they were afraid God
618 would punish them if they did not remind their fellow Muslims (Patel & Shikongo, 2006).
619 Catholic counsellors in Czech also felt that God was overseeing their counselling process
620 (Motalová & Řiháček, 2016). However, rather than warning client directly, they prayed to
621 God to forgive their clients' sins. These results showed that SR personal values might affect
622 mental health professionals' actions in their services.

623 **Experiences related to SR**

624 Though SR was used in participants' professional practice, they were still able to
625 distinguish themselves from SRHs by their adherence to conventional psychotherapy
626 procedures, as suggested in previous studies (Crossley & Salter, 2005; Motalová & Řiháček,
627 2016). It was discovered that participants felt more comfortable to do implicit rather than
628 explicit SR integration which parallels with South African CPs (Brown et al., 2013). This
629 means that participants would integrate SR activities as part of their psychotherapy but would
630 not overtly practice it with clients in sessions. Additionally, participants substantially
631 highlighted the importance of assessing the client's SR before integrating SR into the
632 psychotherapy, as suggested in practical guidelines for psychologists and counsellors in the
633 USA (Barnett & Johnson, 2011; Matise, Ratcliff, & Mosci, 2018). Participants in the current
634 study also highlighted their confusion about a double-role where some of their colleagues and
635 senior CPs acted as both psychologists and as members of the clergy. This multiple
636 relationship issue was also questioned by American psychologists (Barnett & Johnson, 2011,
637 p. 156) as illustrated, "Where does the role of mental health practitioner end and the role of
638 religious or spiritual leader begin?". The proposed alternative solution by participants
639 paralleled one previous study (Shafranske & Cummings, 2013) which was that clear

640 regulations or a SOP of SR integration in psychological therapy should be created by
641 professional organisations.

642 While all participants acknowledged that SR is important in Indonesian mental health
643 treatment, not all of them integrated it into their practice. As similarly found among British
644 and German CPs (Crossley & Salter, 2005; Hofmann & Walach, 2011), these participants felt
645 uncomfortable to raise SR in their psychotherapy or uncertain about the related ethical issues.
646 The majority of participants also did not recommend or refer clients to SRHs and asked
647 clients to search for such persons by themselves. It may be potentially risky for clients to find
648 SRHs independently because they could meet incompetent SRHs and worsen their condition.
649 Therefore, mental health professionals should establish a network with local religious
650 organisations or a credible spiritual healer association so that they can advise clients about
651 which SRH to consult, as suggested by psychiatrists in the USA (Lawrence et al., 2014).

652 Previous studies in Texas, USA, found that SR education or courses with SR content
653 were incorporated significantly higher in nursing, counselling, and marriage-family therapy
654 than in professional psychology education programs (Oxhandler & Parrish, 2018). Moreover,
655 more than 80% of German CPs reported receiving no SR education in their professional
656 training (Hofmann & Walach, 2011). In the current study it was discovered that the majority
657 of participants from Islamic universities were intensively taught about religious therapy
658 especially within an Islamic teaching context. Similar with recommendations from one
659 previous study (Shafranske & Cummings, 2013), education about SR in psychology curricula
660 can be delivered in three methods: incorporating SR into existing psychology courses;
661 training in SR and cultural sensitivity in clinical internships; and delivering special
662 workshops about religious therapy. However, professional organisations must supervise the
663 curriculum to prevent creating dissimilar competencies among CPs.

664 Interestingly, some lectures in Islamic universities dissuaded participants from learning
665 more about and practising some complementary-alternative medicine (CAM) methods that
666 are rooted in other religions, especially yoga. This might be because the *Majelis Ulama*
667 *Indonesia* (MUI, Islamic Council of Indonesia) prohibited Muslims from practising yoga in
668 2008 (Ramstedt, 2010). The prohibition was not the first because, back in 1984, the Islamic
669 Council of Singapore had issued a *fatwa* (non-binding Islamic legal pronouncement) to forbid
670 Singaporean Muslims from practising it; followed by Egypt (2004) and Malaysia (2008). The
671 reason was yoga was perceived to contain Hindu elements that might damage the foundation
672 of the Islamic creed. The condemnation of yoga practice also happened in American
673 Christian society because it was perceived as a demonic practice and spiritual invasion of
674 Christianity (Miller, 2008). Despite the discouragement, participants in the present study
675 expressed their interest in learning other religions' basic teachings as found among
676 Indonesian palliative care staff (Rochmawati et al., 2018) because their clients were from a
677 variety of religious backgrounds.

678 In achieving holistic mental health services, participants realised they have to work
679 collaboratively with multiple stakeholders. For example, the presence of MHC in every local
680 area should be an additional advantage in the collaboration because they are more respected
681 and trusted than CPs (Miller, 2012). Some participants emphasised that SRHs should be
682 perceived as an ally, as was also substantially advised in previous studies among American
683 psychologists for religious counselling and spiritual support if needed by clients (Delaney et
684 al., 2007; Shafranske & Cummings, 2013). However, the boundaries and communication
685 between professions have to be made clear to avoid unethical and overlapping practices.
686 Additionally, through consistent education about holistic mental health treatments, stigma
687 towards mental disorders may be decreased and encourage people to visit conventional health
688 centres beside SRHs, as was found in Bali (Suryani et al., 2011). Spiritual healers in

689 Indonesia were called by many names such as *orang pintar* (the wise person) and *dukun*
690 (shaman). Therefore, SRHs may be encouraged to educate their clients that SRT is part of
691 holistic mental health treatments and not like ‘a spiritual pill’ which will instantly solve
692 clients’ problems (Motalová & Řiháček, 2016).

693

694 **Limitations and suggestions**

695 Although this novel study provided rich findings from 43 CPs, three limitations should
696 be considered. First, the majority of participants were Muslims and all interviews were
697 conducted in Java. Thus, the results of the current study might not be entirely applicable in
698 different sociocultural settings and locations in Indonesia. Further exploration among CPs
699 from diverse backgrounds is needed, for example, CPs in Bali where Hinduism is the
700 dominant religion. In the international context, it might be interesting to conduct similar
701 explorations among CPs in other nations with similar cultural influences, such as Malaysia
702 and Brunei, and compare the results. **Second, there was only one male CP interviewed. Males**
703 **CP might address SR in their practice differently than females CP. Consequently, attitudes**
704 **towards and experience of SR in a mental health context among males CP may be explored in**
705 **the future study.** Third, definitions of spirituality and religiosity were not separated nor given
706 to the participants due to the nature of this exploratory study. Therefore, participants might
707 interpret spirituality and religiosity as overlapping or interchangeable. Future research is
708 needed to investigate CPs’ understanding and experience of spirituality and religiosity both in
709 their personal and professional lives.

710

711 **Implications for clinical practice and training**

712 Findings from the interviews may be used to improve clinical psychology practice and
713 training. First, professional organisations should establish regulations and standard operating

714 procedures to integrate SR or conduct spiritual-religious therapy in conventional
715 psychotherapy. Guidelines for SR integration from American psychologists and counsellors
716 (Barnett & Johnson, 2011; Matise et al., 2018) might be adapted according to participants' need
717 and culture in Indonesia. Professional organisations should also monitor CPs who play a
718 double-role as a member of the clergy and as a mental health professional to prevent unethical
719 practice. Second, psychology faculties should educate and train their students about SR, and
720 how to address and integrate it in their future practice as CPs. Professional organisations need
721 to oversee this education to ensure that every student will have the same SR competency when
722 they graduate. Lastly, CPs should proactively build networks with local religious organisations
723 or credible spiritual healers for discussion about SR or when a client needs a referral.

724 **Conclusion**

725 The most notable finding from this novel qualitative study was represented by an
726 excerpt from Participant 12 in the title, "Doing my profession is also part of worship".
727 Participants perceived SR as part of culture and belief among Indonesian people, including
728 CPs and mental health treatment clients. Participants genuinely acknowledged that they were
729 not able to completely detach SR from their professional practice. However, participants also
730 pointed out that they were different with SRHs and favourably welcomed future collaboration
731 with credible SRHs. This positive attitude embodied a holistic care approach that recognises
732 the diverse biopsychosocial-spiritual needs of clients. It also supports a previous study
733 among Germany CPs (Hofmann & Walach, 2011, p. 187) that highlighted, "psychology as a
734 discipline is secular, but psychotherapists as individuals often are not." Education of SR in
735 psychology curricula and the regulation of SR integration into conventional psychotherapy
736 are needed to achieve this holistic mental health services in Indonesia. Moreover, participants
737 highly advised CPs to collaborate with multiple sectors, *i.e.* other health professionals,
738 because they cannot work alone.

739 Author's short-bio

740 Andrian Liem is a PhD candidate (supervised by A/Prof Peter A. Newcombe, PhD and
741 Annie E. Pohlman, PhD) and a casual tutor at the School of Psychology, the University of
742 Queensland, Australia. Previously, he finished professional psychology training in clinical
743 psychology and Master of Psychology from the University of Gadjah Mada, Indonesia. His
744 research interests include clinical-health psychology, indigenous and cultural psychology,
745 cultural competency, gender and sexuality, drug abuse, HIV-AIDS, and interfaith dialogue.
746 Andrian designed the research, collected and analysed data (with guidance from Annie E.
747 Pohlman as his supervisor), drafted and finalised the manuscript.

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754 Conflict of interest

755 No conflict of interest to declare.

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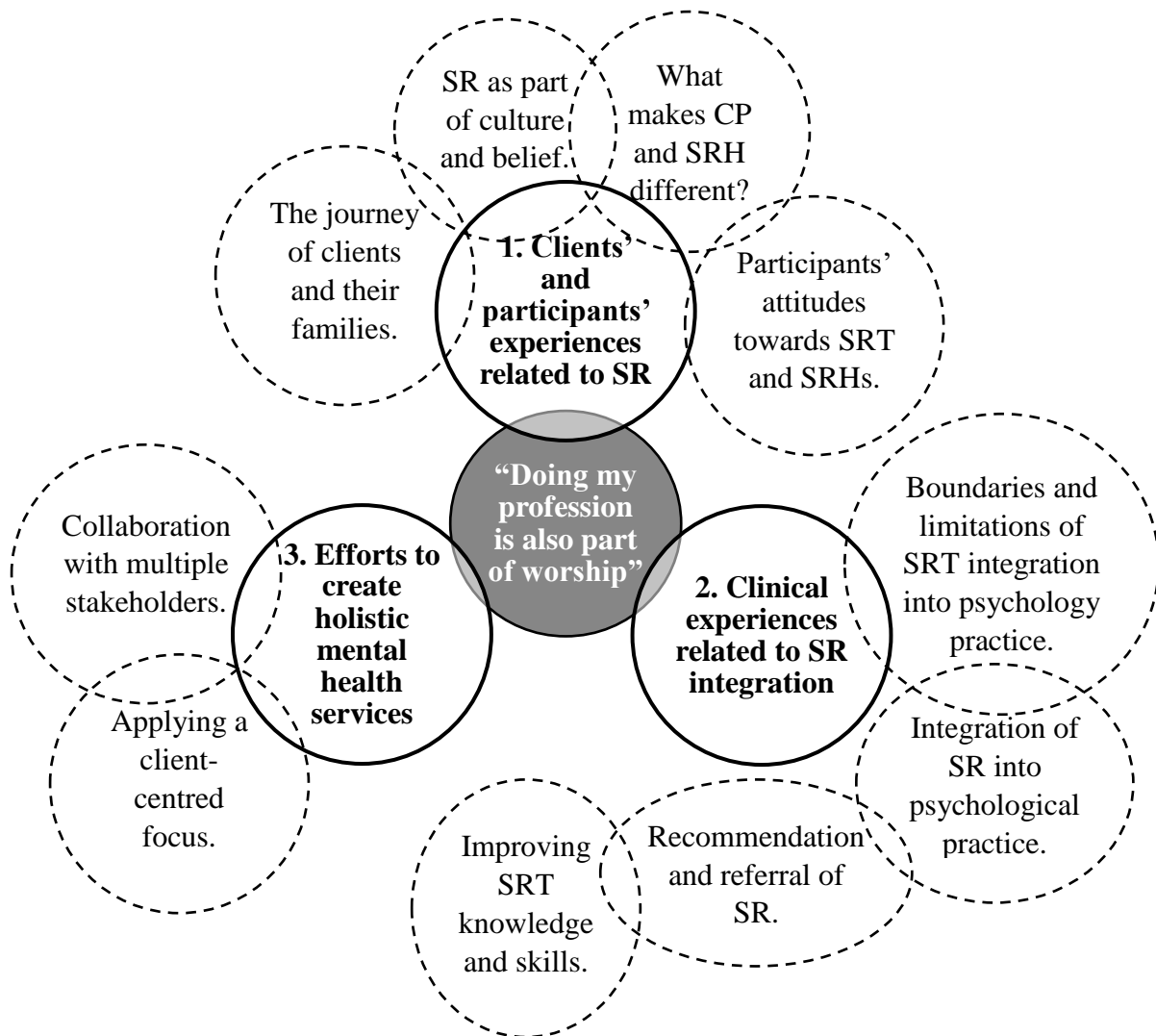
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759 views expressed are the author's own.

760 *Table 1 Comparison of uses of SR by CP and SRH*

Aspect	CP	SRH
Assessment and treatment plan	Structured and standardised	Not clear
Intervention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Simple and basic techniques based on scientific evidence • SR supports conventional psychotherapy and is integrated only if needed • The reason and psychological benefit from the intervention are explained scientifically 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Complex and advanced rituals or teaching based on faith • SR is the only technique used for whatever the problem is • The reasons and benefits of the intervention are explained using a theological approach or not explained at all
Communication style	Use micro-counselling skills	Dogmatic and doctrinal

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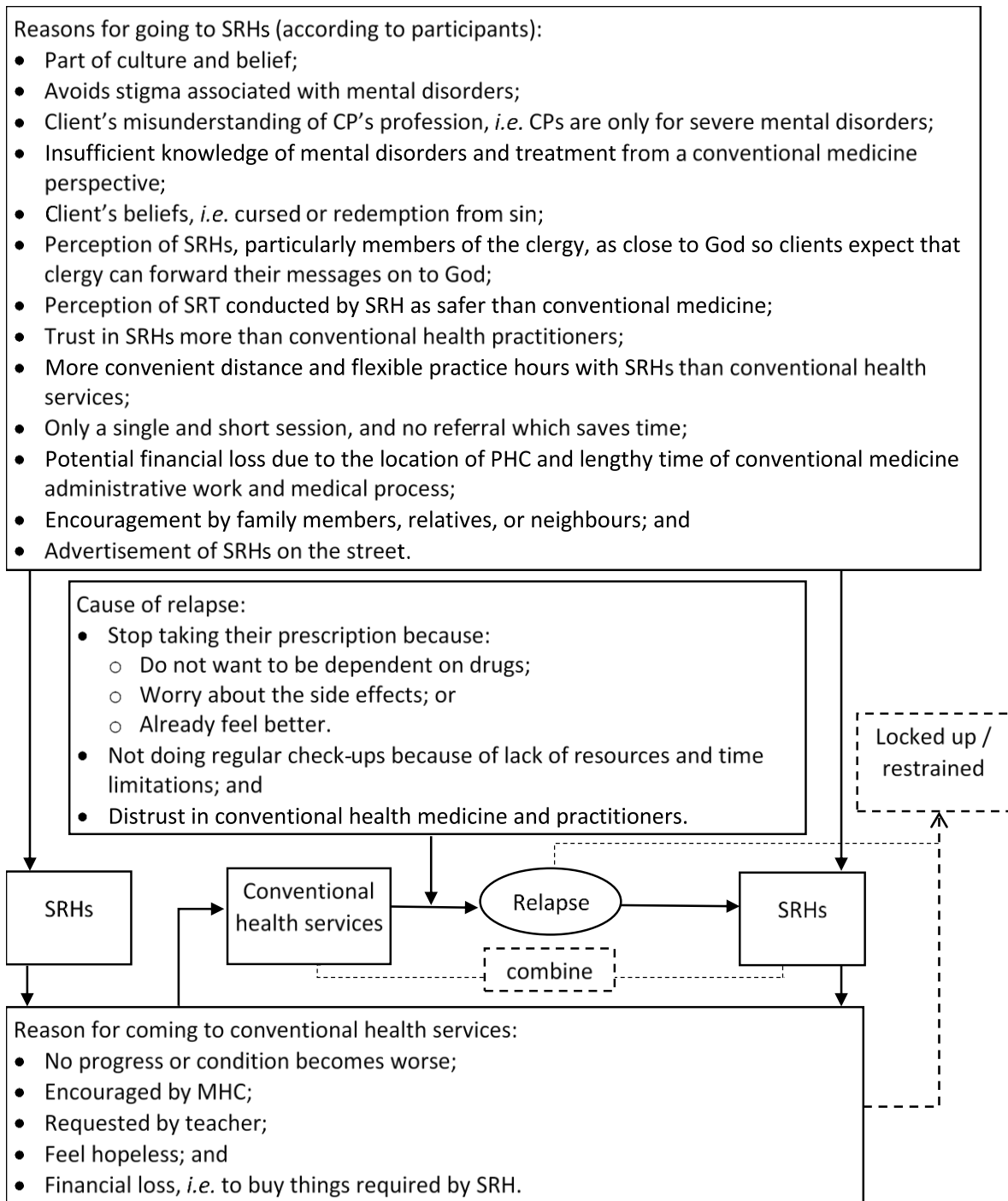
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Figure 1 A visual map of themes and sub-themes

Notes. CP = Clinical psychologist; SR = Spirituality and religion; SRHs = Spiritual-religious healers; SRT = Spiritual-religious therapy.



778

Figure 2 The pattern of client's behaviour in visiting SRHs and conventional health services
 Notes. MHC = Mental health cadre (volunteers who act as mental health sentinels in the community); SRHs = Spiritual-religious healers.

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