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Bahlil Lahadalia, S.E.
Minister of Investment;
Chairman, Indonesian Investment
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KARYA TERPILIH
PROGRAM AKUISISI
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BRIN
TIDAK UNTUK DIPERJUALBELIKAN

INDONESIA

POST-PANDEMIC OUTLOOK:

Social Perspectives

Editors:
Muhammad Ammar Hidayahtulloh
Irawan Jati
Dadan Sumardani

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Publisher's Note

As a scientific publisher, BRIN Publishing holds a high responsibility to enlighten society's intelligence and awareness through the provision of qualified publications available to the public at large. The fulfillment of this statutory obligation is one of the publisher's roles in promoting the educational and intellectual life of the nation as mandated by the Preamble of the 1945 Constitution. Furthermore, this book has encountered quality control mechanisms through the editorial process, including peer review.

This book is one of the four book series titled *Indonesia Post-Pandemic Outlook* written by Indonesian scholars abroad to offer multidisciplinary strategies for Indonesia to recover stronger post-pandemic. In the discussions of this book series, the contributors propose their policy recommendations by referring to the Sustainable Development Goals, Indonesia's Long Term National Development Plan (RPJP), and the United Nations Research Roadmap for COVID-19 Recovery.

This *Social Perspectives* series focuses on Indonesia's post-pandemic recovery effort from three main aspects: international political economy, socio-cultural perspectives, and insight for future education. Each contributor of this book employs a wide range of approaches and methods, making this book rich in theoretical and methodological values.

On this account, we hope that this book can offer valuable inputs and great recommendations for policymakers and stakeholders. Besides, it is expected that this book can provide knowledge and insight for the readers to be optimistic in aiming for a better post-pandemic future through collective actions and collaboration.

As a final note, we would like to deliver our heartfelt gratitude to everyone taking part in the process of this book.

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Foreword

Bahlil Lahadalia

COVID-19 has disrupted all aspects of human life through changes in how we work, how children study at school, and how we interact with others. Industrial Revolution 4.0 turned out not to become the primary driver of world change, but the invisible virus of Covid-19 has changed the world order.

COVID-19, in addition to causing disasters for humans and humanity, has also rendered economic vulnerability worldwide. Indonesia is very lucky because it was able to control the COVID-19 case, so economic conditions can slowly recover. The Indonesian economy experienced a contraction of 2.07% in 2020, but in 2021 the economy experienced an economic recovery by growing 3.69%. In the midst of global uncertainty following the wars between Ukraine and Russia, which increased world energy and food prices, Indonesia's economic condition is relatively stable and resilient. There are five primary sources of Indonesia's economic recovery: strong policies for COVID-19 containment, good policy coordination between fiscal (MOF)-Monetary (Bank Indonesia)-Financial (OJK), national economic recovery program, vaccination program, and windfall profit from commodity prices.

COVID-19 has encouraged us to immediately transform the Indonesian economy into a greener, digitized, inclusive, and sustainable one. The Ministry of Investment/BKPM (Indonesian Investment Coordinating Board) is transforming and committing to implement an inclusive investment, namely investments that benefit everyone in Indonesia. We are concerned that the realization of investment is not just a number but an impactful number. The investment has to create great value and prosperity for the people, equality between regions (Java vs. Outside Java), and promote sustainable development.

The transformation of our nation in the post-pandemic requires synergy and collaboration of all elements of the country. Reading a collection of writings about *Indonesia Post-Pandemic Outlook: Social Perspectives* edited by Hidayahtulloh, Jati, and Sumardani (2022) has made a more optimistic view about Indonesia's future because young people and students who are studying abroad still care about the fate of their country. The book, which comprises 15 main chapters, is fascinating in discussing Indonesia and COVID-19 recovery in the aspects of international political economy, socio-cultural perspectives, and insight for future education. This book feels different because it was written by young people who see Indonesia from the outside, not from the inside, so it feels clearer to see the existing problems. It can offer original, creative, and innovative solutions.

As a former student activist, entrepreneur, and now a Minister in President Jokowi's Cabinet, I always hope to the younger generation, "Never get tired of loving this country," keep moving, creative, innovative, and continue to work for Indonesia because on your shoulders the future of Indonesia is at stake. I am sure that young people will continue to write the history of Indonesia now and in the future.

Jakarta, July 29, 2022
Bahlil Lahadalia
Minister of Investment
Chairman, Indonesian Investment Coordinating Board

Opening Remarks
Coordinator of OISAA

The history noted that on October 25, 1908, Indische Vereeniging was established as an Hindia students' association in Leiden, Netherlands. In 1922, the name was changed to Indonesische Vereeniging or Indonesian Students Association, with Mohammad Hatta as one of its leaders (1926–1930). In Australia in 2007, the Indonesian Students Association, which has spread worldwide, agreed to declare itself as an alliance. Since then, this organization is called Overseas Indonesian Students' Association Alliance (OISAA) or Perhimpunan Pelajar Indonesia Dunia (PPI Dunia), becoming the most extensive Indonesian students' organization comprising 60 member countries spread across three regions: Asian-Oceania, America-Europe, and Middle East-Africa. In its journey, OISAA has contributed to various activities such as education, research/study, training/workshop, and community service as the commitment to achieving Golden Indonesia 2045.

In the OISAA Cabinet of "*Cendekia APIK*", we focus on the strategy and approach called "Penta Helix" strategy and approach

as a methodology for integrating multi-stakeholder and governance in response to all the current challenges and issues in Indonesia. With this model, OISAA has collaborated and synergized with the government, universities, industries, media, and community. It takes a strategic synergy between the whole elements of Penta Helix so that the goals of Golden Indonesia 2045 can be accomplished. These components are linked to the five directorates and three bureaus; one is the Directorate of Research and Policy Studies (Ditlitka), which focuses on facilitating Indonesian scholars to contribute their scientific knowledge to Indonesia's development.

The Indonesia Post-Pandemic Outlook Series is one of the most crucial works by Ditlitka of OISAA. The books highlight the persistent changes and impacts due to the outbreak of COVID-19. Not only that matter, but the essence of these books will also articulate the mitigation plans for the future pandemic or crises in Indonesia. Written and researched carefully by the authors, the books tell various topics within four categories: "Rethinking Health and Economics Post-COVID-19", "Social Perspectives", "Environment and Technology Role for Indonesia Development", and "Strategy towards Net-Zero Emissions by 2060 from the Renewables and Carbon-Neutral Energy Perspective".

Above all, what are the hope and possible solution to this global super-pandemic for all humanity, especially Indonesia? Those are the areas we are trying to address in these books, to see the outlook beyond COVID-19 in Indonesia based on the UN Research Roadmap for the post-pandemic recovery. These books will be presented and promoted to the government and related stakeholders such as scholars, policymakers, and, most importantly, society. This condition will ensure that the quintessence of these books will positively impact the nation towards the Indonesia's greater. I think this book series can be helpful as a beautiful masterpiece that provides valuable insights and mitigation plans for crises in Indonesia, in the same manner as we have learned from this super pandemic that caused the global disruptions.

In this opportunity, I greatly appreciate all the parties involved in finishing this book series, namely the authors, editors, reviewers, board of directors, commission chairs and members, and the National Research and Innovation Agency publishing house (BRIN Publishing). After all, the collaboration from all the parties who worked tirelessly has enabled the achievement of this critical goal.

Although many possibilities and challenges will happen in the future, I believe these books will encourage legacy to the scientific knowledge in Indonesia. Moreover, this legacy is proof of Indonesian students' awareness of their country, even though they live and study worldwide.

Faruq Ibnul Haqi, S.T., M.RgnlUrbPlan., Ph.D. (Cand.)
President of Overseas Indonesian
Students' Association Alliance (OISAA)

Opening Remarks
Directorate of Research and Policy Studies OISAA

The Directorate of Research and Policy Studies (Ditlitka) of the Overseas Indonesian Students' Association Alliance (OISAA), commonly known as PPI Dunia, focuses on facilitating Indonesian scholars to contribute their scientific knowledge to the development of Indonesia by promoting knowledge translation and evidence-based policymaking.

COVID-19 has ravaged the world's economy in the past two years, upended existing social support structures, and strongly impacted global geopolitics. Written by over 85 scholars from 22 countries, which are part of the Directorate's nine commissions, this book series titled *Indonesia Post-Pandemic Outlook* aims to present the perspectives of Indonesian scholars on the current pandemic and propose multidisciplinary strategies for Indonesia to recover stronger post-pandemic.

In brief, four books constitute the series as follows:

Rethinking Health and the Post-COVID-19 Economy by the Health, Economics, and Tourism & Creative Economy Commissions,

covering a wide range of topics, including digital health, virtual tourism, international corporate taxation, and green bonds.

Social Perspectives by the Education, Culture, and International Relations Commissions, covering a wide range of topics, including international relations, social and culture, and education.

Role of Environment and Technology for Indonesia's Development by the Environment and Technology Commissions covering a wide range of topics, including disaster and greening management, food defense, and security, waste and pollution management, as well as human resource and public service.

Strategy towards Net-Zero Emissions by 2060 from the Renewables and Carbon-Neutral Energy Perspectives by the Energy Commission, covering a wide range of topics, including renewable energy and carbon-neutral related strategies in achieving Net-Zero Emissions in 2060.

Through this book series, the Directorate strongly believes there are many lessons from the current crisis that provide valuable references as the guides for us to anticipate future pandemics and other crises. The books emphasize the need for comprehensive joint efforts between government agencies and the various components of our nation and the need for forward-looking policies to benefit future generations.

Written with policymakers and the public in mind, the books will be presented to the Indonesian government and relevant stakeholders such as academia, NGOs, and the media and made open access to the public. The authors have also aligned their policy recommendations with the Sustainable Development Goals, Indonesia's Long Term National Development Plan (RPJP), and the United Nations Research Roadmap for COVID-19 Recovery.

The completion of this series is a testament to what is possible when individuals work across siloes and push boundaries to support nation-building. While change and challenges are inevitable for any nation, we hope this series will leave a lasting positive impact on

society and promote a legacy of knowledge translation from OISAA *Cendekia APIK.*

On behalf of the Directorate, we extend our deepest appreciation and gratitude to all the parties involved—authors, reviewers, commission chairs and members, OISAA *Cendekia APIK*'s President and Board, national-level Indonesian Student Association chapters, and the National Research and Innovation Agency publishing house (BRIN Publishing) that made all of this possible.

Board of Directors, Directorate of Research and Policy Studies
OISAA *Cendekia Apik*
Muhammad Aswin Rangkuti
Radityo Pangestu
Anthony Paulo Sunjaya
Afifah Muharikah
David Firnando Silalahi

Chapter 1

Retrospect of COVID-19 Pandemic and Prospect to Recover

Muhammad Ammar Hidayahtulloh, Irawan Jati, & Dadan Sumardani

Since it became a global pandemic, COVID-19 has indiscriminately impacted worldwide livelihood and delayed the global progress of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Referring to the World Bank's Global Economic Prospect (2022), global growth shows a consistent slowdown. The growth slows from 5.5% in 2021 to 4.1% in 2022 and tends to reach 3.2% in 2023 (World Bank, 2022). The pandemic began with finding a new coronavirus variant at the end of 2019 in China. At the beginning of 2020, the Chinese health authority identified pneumonia cases caused by a novel coronavirus variant in Wuhan. At the end of January 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) announced the virus outbreak as a public health emergency international

M. A. Hidayahtulloh,* I. Jati, & D. Sumardani
*The University of Queensland, Australia, e-mail: m.hidayatulloh@uqconnect.edu.au

concern (PHEIC). In March, WHO declared a worldwide pandemic and named the new virus coronavirus disease of 2019, better known as COVID-19. WHO recorded 445,096,612 global cases, comprising 5,998,301 deaths as of March 7, 2022 (WHO, 2022).

The severe impact of the pandemic on the global economy left no option but to recover. While evading international cooperation due to national protectionism policy, there is hope from the global efforts to recover from the pandemic. In 2021, the United Nations (UN) set out a Comprehensive Response to COVID-19. The response includes a strengthened health response (led by WHO), a humanitarian response that leaves no one behind (under the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)), and a transformative and sustainable recovery (led by UN Sustainable Development Groups (UNSDG)) (UN, 2021). The international economic and financial institutions, such as World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), have provided the financial stimulus for the global recovery programs. World Bank has provided over USD 157 billion to facilitate the emergency health program, strengthen the health system, protect the poor and vulnerable, support businesses, and create jobs and green recovery (World Bank, 2022). Meanwhile, IMF arranges its members USD 250 billion of financial assistance and debt service relief (IMF, 2022).

Like any other country, Indonesia is experiencing an economic slowdown. Ing and Vadila (2022) estimate that the COVID-19 pandemic has decreased Indonesia's export value by 13.4%, while import value reduced by 25.9% in December 2020. For the people, the COVID-19 pandemic is another reality to face. The limitation of movement and 'lockdown' policy has cut off most people's sources of income. As a result, the Central Bureau of Statistics (2021) recorded an increase in poverty from 9.22% (24.78 million) in September 2019 to 10.19% (27.55 million) in 2020. Urban slum communities, women, persons with disabilities, low-income families, and traditional artists or entertainers are among the most affected groups by the pandemic's socio-economic impacts (Bessel & Bexley, 2021; Hidayahtulloh, 2021; Suryahadi et al., 2020; Lewis & Witoelar, 2021).

In mitigating the impacts of the pandemic, the Indonesian Government expanded its social protection programs, including the Family Hope Program (*Program Keluarga Harapan*/PKH), Groceries Card program (*Kartu Sembako*), Greater Jakarta Groceries Card program (*Sembako Jabodetabek*), Direct Cash Assistance of the Village Fund (*Bantuan Langsung Tunai Dana Desa*/BLT DD), and unconditional cash program, to name a few (Ministry of Finance, 2021). Additionally, the government endorsed government expenditure to speed up the realization of government programs (Nainggolan, 2020). Notably, Indonesian Central Bank (*Bank Indonesia/*BI) also lays out five economic recovery programs: opening safe and productive sectors, accelerating fiscal stimulus, increasing offer and demand credit, stimulating monetary and macroprudential policy, and digitalizing economy and finance (Herdiawan, 2020).

Based on these grounds, the Overseas Indonesian Students Association Alliance (OISAA) is interested in contributing ideas to support Indonesia's COVID-19 recovery efforts. OISAA invites Indonesian students abroad to publish a collaborated book series with a grand theme of Indonesia's Post-COVID-19 Recovery. OISAA takes two primary references that provide contributors with guidance for their writings. These two references are the OISAA's 2021/2022 Top-Five programs and the UN Research Roadmap for the COVID-19 Recovery (hereinafter: UN Research Roadmap, see Appendix). One of the Top-Five OISAA's program targets is to present research and strategic input for the policy development of the Government of Indonesia. OISAA also refers to the UN Research Roadmap as an additional source of information. The Center of the UN Research Roadmap is its focuses on SDGs. Furthermore, the UN Research Roadmap refers to SDG's Agenda, mainly focusing on goals affected by the pandemic. The UN Research Roadmap formulates five policy priorities: health systems and services, social protection and essential services, economic response and recovery, macroeconomic policy and multilateral collaboration, and social cohesion and community resilience (UN, 2020).

Focusing on those five COVID-19 recovery policy priorities, the body of this book comprises 15 book chapters which are structurally divided into three parts: Indonesia and COVID-19 Recovery: An International Political Economy Lens (three chapters); Indonesia and COVID-19 Recovery: Socio-Cultural Perspectives (six chapters); and Indonesia and COVID-19 Recovery: Insight for Future Education (six chapters). Despite such a division, this book should be understood holistically, considering that issues discussed in these three parts intersect—reinforce and compete—with each other. Apart from the diverse yet interconnected topics and issues discussed in each part, the contributors of this book also employed a wide range of approaches and methods, making this book rich in theoretical and methodological values.

The book's first part takes the view of international relations, particularly international political economy, in exploring priority number four of the UN Research Priority, macroeconomic policy and multilateral collaboration. Notably, the analysis focuses on how Indonesia could recover from the COVID-19 pandemic, given the structure of international affairs. Chapter 2, written by Naqsabandiyah, Arfah, and Ayubi, discusses Indonesia's role in utilizing Group 20 (G20) as an influential multilateral forum to stimulate the global post-COVID-19 recovery. In Chapter 3, Adityo analyzes how the government should implement the newly adopted carbon tax. He also discusses how the carbon tax may contribute to the post-COVID-19 recovery. Chapter 4—the last chapter of this part—which Gracianti contributed, examines the opportunity to implement green recovery as an alternative way to regain prosperity without sacrificing the environment.

The second part presents a rich discussion on how the COVID-19 pandemic has impacted our community from a socio-cultural perspective. Overall, the contributors to this part's six chapters have shown how the COVID-19 pandemic and its policy responses revealed and worsened social inequalities and injustices. Each of the six chapters looks at the vulnerable groups most affected by the pandemic. In

Chapter 5, Hermawan and Kurrahman assess the impact of social restriction policy on urban slums community. They do so by explicitly considering three development sectors: economy, health, and education.

The following three chapters (Chapters 6, 7, and 8) intersect in terms of the focus of their study subject, which is women. Women have been disproportionately affected by the COVID-19 pandemic in ways that adversely reverse the progress of gender equality in Indonesia and globally. Puspitasari and Mayangsari, in Chapter 6, discuss how the COVID-19 pandemic has worsened Gender-Based Violence (GBV) in Indonesia. They argue for the urgency of establishing a gender-sensitive, comprehensive prevention and mitigation framework to eliminate GBV. Considering that women are not a homogenous group, Hidayahtulloh, in Chapter 7, mainly explores the experience of Indonesian female academics during the beginning of the pandemic. Using a mixed-method approach guided by a feminist methodology, he argues that the COVID-19 pandemic and its work-from-home policy have deepened and reproduced gender inequalities through the re-enactment of traditional gender norms among Indonesian female academics (and their family), increasing the tension between care work and academic work and hindering their educational career advancement. In Chapter 8, Iberahim and Abadi examine the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on Indonesian migrant workers, who are predominantly women. By employing institutional analyses and scrutinizing social movement-state relations, their contribution sheds light on the critical role of Indonesian migrant workers (and their union) as an active player in policy development concerning migrant workers' rights in the country.

The last two chapters in this second part of the book (Chapter 9 and 10) focus on two vulnerable social groups often invisible across all stages of policy development: persons with disabilities and traditional artists, respectively. In Chapter 9, Rahmadian shows the disproportionate impacts of the pandemic on persons with disabilities in Indonesia in three areas of human development: economy, health,

and education. By critically assessing the Indonesian Government's COVID-19 policy responses for persons with disabilities, he argues for the need for disability-inclusive development. In Chapter 10, Utami focuses on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on traditional artists and traditional arts by using *Ludruk* and *Pencak Silat* as her case study. Her contribution shed light on how the pandemic disrupts the preservation of traditional cultures and arts.

Finally, the third part of the book focuses on the COVID-19 recovery efforts in the education sector. The six chapters in this part cover various educational perspectives for learning recovery. Chapter 11 is written by Qisti and Dika; they highlight the importance of imagining Community Learning Centers (CLC) and explain how community learning centers enable innovation in learning recovery. It is possible since the pandemic is seen as an opportunity to re-imagine and re-design education to rebuild a better future. Chapter 12 discusses hybrid learning for a better-quality education. Muharikah, Karnalim, and Natsir, in this chapter, review education challenges, including access to all levels of education for all people, quality teaching, and learning infrastructure. In addition, they also reveal the potential implementation of hybrid teaching after two years of dealing with the pandemic to recover from learning loss, which is the combination of face-to-face (f2f) and online learning.

Moreover, during the COVID-19 pandemic, educators were supported by technological development because it enabled teaching-learning activities at a distance. Dewi elaborates on the development of technology-enhanced learning in Chapter 13. The role of ICT is crucial in processing teaching materials as a form of information because of its possibility to generate teaching materials that are attractive, easy to accept, and easily accessible. The goal is that every student has the same opportunity to receive and understand the information. In addition, in Chapter 14, Sumardani and Sumardani explore the possibilities of learning using metaverse in facilitating remote learning needed in various emergencies, considering that pandemics and all kinds of crises are inevitable. Therefore, preparation is essential, in-

cluding enhancing the integration and effectiveness of the emergency management systems through education.

Two chapters (Chapter 15 and 16) in this part explore the different types of literacy important for educators in the COVID-19 recovery. In Chapter 15, Limanta and Widyasti focus on digital literacy. They consider freedom of speech a double-edged sword in this digital world if no proper precautionary action is taken. Meanwhile, in Chapter 16, Rangkuti and Hidayat explore the need for literacies such as reading and scientific literacy in society to end the COVID-19 pandemic.

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Chapter 2

Indonesia's Contributive Role in the G20 to Mitigate the COVID-19 Pandemic

Ayu Heryati Naqsabandiyah, Muhammad Ibrahim Arfah, & M. Solahudin Al Ayubi

A. Intergovernmental Organizations in the Contemporary Era

Globalization has induced transboundary problems around the world. These problems, such as climate change issues, terrorism, poverty, drug smuggling, human trafficking, and the spread of diseases, should be addressed multilaterally. Hence, after the end of the Second World War, many countries in various parts of the world are eager to join or form Intergovernmental Organizations (IGO),[1] both regionally and globally. IGOs have become one of the important actors in international relations afterward. In 2009, the former Secretary-General of the United Nations, Kofi Annan, encouraged all countries and society

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[1] Authors use the terms of IGOs, multilateral cooperation, and multilateral forums interchangeably.

A. H. Naqsabandiyah,* M. I. Arfah, & M. S. A. Ayubi.
*National Chengchi University, Taiwan, e-mail: ayu.hnaqsa@gmail.com

to collaborate to formulate long-term solutions to the global issues through Intergovernmental Organizations (Johnson, 2020).

Nevertheless, the legitimacy of IGOs has been challenged for decades to date. In 1999 a well-known event occurred when approximately 600,000 people held a demonstration against the World Trade Organization meeting in Seattle (Machida, 2009). Last year, thousands of citizens across the globe assembled in their respective countries to urge the world leaders to take immediate actions in combating climate change during the Conference of the Parties (COP) 26 summit. This worldwide march illustrated the disappointment of the world community over the slow handling of global warming under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) (Kottasová & Picheta, 2021).

The COVID-19 pandemic that emerged at the end of 2019 has become a further challenge for global governance. As a result, enormous countries have implemented lockdowns, closed their borders, and are occupied with crises within their respective countries. Indeed, this situation may encourage governments to be apathetic about global issues. Furthermore, public distrust of the global COVID-19 governance led by the World Health Organization (WHO)—such as the rejection of lockdown and vaccination—has further jeopardized the trend of multilateral cooperation that has been built over the last few decades. Considering this phenomenon, Intergovernmental Organizations are increasingly required to be a forum for discussion and provide solutions for their member countries.

One of the Intergovernmental Organizations vital in mitigating the COVID-19 pandemic is the Group of Twenty (G20). G20 was established in 1999, encompassing the nineteenth world's largest economies and the European Union. This multilateral cooperation was formed to be a forum for discussion related to the global economy and financial issues and policies. The G20 successfully overcame the Asian and global financial crises in 1998 and 2008. Therefore, the organization is expected to lead global recovery programs after the crisis generated by the COVID-19 pandemic.

Indonesia is one of the founding members of the G20. The country has contributed significantly to various programs run by the G20 after that. Currently, Indonesia is assigned to hold the G20 presidency for the first time. This chapter will analyze the contribution of the G20 to COVID-19 mitigation and its transformation to adapt to the changing world caused by the pandemic. Furthermore, this chapter will also elaborate on Indonesia's role, as a member, in the G20 transformation.

Thus, this chapter addresses how COVID-19 affects the identity of the G20. According to Peter Katzenstein, identity refers to '*the images of individuality and distinctiveness ("selfhood") held and projected by an actor and formed (and modified over time) through relations with significant others*' (Jepperson et al., 1996). Moreover, this chapter also discusses how Indonesia, as a member of the G20, contributes to shaping the identity of the G20 during the COVID-19 pandemic.

The authors answer these questions using a qualitative analysis approach with the case study method. Furthermore, this chapter also explores the transformations of G20 to adapt to the changing world conditions due to COVID-19 and how the Indonesian government participates in this transformation using Constructivist Theory. This study uses secondary sources, such as books, article journals, reports, news, government documents, and websites to collect the necessary data.

B. The Importance of Normative Structure in Inter-governmental Organizations

While the benefits and role of Intergovernmental Organizations in managing various global issues have been widely discussed, studies related to the normative structure adopted by the institution are often overlooked. According to Ruggie (1992), multilateralism has characteristics that distinguish it from other forms of cooperation. He further defines multilateralism as an institution where three or more states coordinate their action and relation based on general principles

regardless of their respective national interests. Additionally, Keohane describes the institution as 'persistent and connected sets of formal and informal rules that prescribe behavioral roles, constraint activity, and shape expectations' (Ruggie, 1992). Accordingly, the principle embraced by the multilateral institution serves as values that determine what is desirable and how the countries should behave across the situation (Beattie, 2019; Zelicovich, 2021).

The normative structure has been confirmed to influence the country's foreign policy. However, the programs and policies of Intergovernmental Organizations are rarely associated with the topic of values and norms. Indeed, political or economic power distribution is insufficient to explain why multilateral cooperation is formed and how to maintain it (Zelicovich, 2021). For instance, the United Nations was established based on several principles such as maintaining world peace and stability, sovereign equality of all its members, and equal rights and self-determination (United Nations, 2021). These principles work as guidelines for the United Nations and its bodies in determining the various programs to be implemented, such as human rights, gender equality, humanitarian aid, sustainable development, peacekeeping operations, and international law preservation.

On many occasions, an Intergovernmental Organization is conceived as a norm agency. The member countries are obliged to behave based on shared principles and follow the rules set by the institution (Grigorescu, 2002). However, a study by Finnemore found that the implementation of science policy bureaucracies by states around the globe was not catalyzed by internal demand. Instead, UNESCO encouraged all states to bear the responsibility for science (Finnemore, 1993). She further argues that the state's responsibility for science was developed within the organization since its inception (Park, 2006).

Furthermore, values and norms are crucial to maintaining the effectiveness and legitimacy of multilateral cooperation (Maull, 2020). The definition of legitimacy based on a normative sense means that the intergovernmental organization will be considered legitimate if it implements its authority based on equality, human rights, transparency,

accountability, and democracy (Tallberg & Zürn, 2019). Likewise, Barnett and Finnemore explain that the public organization may acquire legitimacy procedurally and substantively (Satoshi, 2009). The latter highlights the institution's ability to achieve its objectives under the community's values. Several international economic organizations, such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Trade Organization (WTO), were denounced by thousands of people in 1999 due to their failure to perform democratic values (Satoshi, 2009). In another case, the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) was also criticized as illegitimate. The organization has been dominated by five major countries with veto power, leading to an asymmetric position among member countries, particularly during the decision-making process (Frederking & Patane, 2017).

Another important non-material structure in establishing a solid intergovernmental organization is identity. Aside from confidence and shared interest, some scholars argue that collective identity is crucial for forming multilateral cooperation or international organization (Hemmer & Katzenstein, 2002). For example, the existence of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) after the Cold War era has ended. It is assumed due to the collective identity of its member countries as democratic countries. Even the organization enlarged its membership to spread democratic values (Sjursen, 2004). In a nutshell, normative structures such as values, norms, principles, and identity play a pivotal role in shaping, directing, and preserving the multilateral organization.

C. Constructivism and Intergovernmental Organizations Nexus

Constructivism Theory—which emerged during the end of the Cold War—has drawn the attention of international relations discourse to a new perspective. However, since the beginning, international relations have been dominated by materialistic thoughts such as realism and liberalism, which claim that states will statically struggle for power in an anarchy system and should cooperate to minimize conflicts.

Accordingly, these major theories have contrasting ideas on peaceful international politics. On the one hand, realism assumes that peace is unlikely to be achieved in a world full of conflicts and competition. Nevertheless, on the other hand, liberalism highlights the possibility of cooperation mechanisms to create perpetual peace (Viotti, 2013).

However, Constructivism—derived from sociological insights—stresses the importance of non-material structures. This approach argues that the international system and national interests are constructed by the beliefs, norms, and identities of states, as stated by Alexander Wendt that "anarchy is what state makes of it" and "identities are the basis of interests" (Burchill et al., 2005). Wendt emphasizes the dynamic of the international environment and actors' identities which are created, developed, sustained, or transformed during interaction among actors (Zehfuss, 2009). Christian Reus-Smith further explained that a state's decisions are intervened by human values—such as peace, understanding, freedom, justice, respect, and dignity—which ultimately shape world politics (Griffiths, 2009). Concisely, international politics and states' interests and decisions are subject to change following the alteration of states' values, norms, beliefs, and identities.

Similarly, the Constructivist approach contributes to the study of Intergovernmental Organizations. Based on the elaboration above on Constructivism, this study will explore how COVID-19 affects identity and the policies of the G20 to adapt to the current world's situation. Furthermore, this chapter investigates the Indonesian role as a member of the G20 transformations. Barnett and Finnemore describe institutional reform as an event that involves 'transformation in ideologies, norms, and appropriate standards of behavior' within the institution (Nielson, 2006). According to Constructivist scholars, a normative structure can catalyze an institution's transformation. Colin Hay argues that institutional change may occur when a new idea emerges, which causes the institution to be unable to function if the changes do not adapt to the novelty (Eleveld, 2016). Transitions experienced by Intergovernmental Organizations can also be induced

by endogenous factors or exogenous shocks or crises; as stated by Peter Katzenstein that the environment might affect actors' properties, namely identity, interests, and capabilities (Jepperson et al., 1996). In this case, COVID-19 is an exogenous factor likely to drive the transformation of G20 identity and policies.

D. The G20 Response to the COVID-19 Pandemic

For over 20 years, since 1999, G20 has been working on a discussion of economic policies to achieve international financial stability (Modak, 2021). These discussions aim to solve the financial crisis by involving several member countries, including Indonesia. The G20 first met in November 2008 to discuss the financial crisis in the US (Byrd, 2021). These meetings continue to be held every year to pay attention to policies that can control and overcome financial crises on a global scale.

At the end of 2019, the world faced a new challenge: the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic has impacted various sectors, including the stability of the world economy. According to International Labor Organization (ILO, 2020), the pandemic is estimated to have wiped out the equivalent of around 305 million jobs globally in the second quarter of 2020. This resulted in increased unemployment, drastic fluctuations in currency, commodity, and financial markets, and negative impacts on key economic sectors such as the service industry, exports, hospitality and tourism, aviation, retail, construction, and education. These phenomena contributed significantly to causing a worse economic crisis than any financial problems ever (Luckhurst et al., 2020a). Therefore, the G20 is uniquely positioned to assist in managing complex policy challenges and instituting multilateral preparedness and domestic, regional, and global resilience-building measures. Consequently, G20 should take various action plans and policies that can effectively maintain the stability of the world economy (Luckhurst et al., 2020b).

Global leadership and coordinated strategic decision-making and policy-making are urgently needed in response to the challenges and

consequences of COVID-19. The response aims at the complexity and preparedness of the world facing similar problems in the future, such as building institutional resilience and strengthening economic, social, health, and environmental stability. The G20 has become an influential committee in overcoming global financial crises, such as those experienced in 2008–2009 (Cooper & Thakur, 2013). The G20 can respond to the COVID-19 challenges by managing multifaceted difficulties, especially in coordination with the IMF and multilateral development banks. Moreover, the priority of cooperation based on health, economic, and financial consequences is one of the important components of the G20 Action Plan (G20, 2020).

Coherence, effectiveness, and speed of governance arrangements and policy-making steps respond to the global pandemic. However, the gaps in developing governance and these steps must address the multilevel effects of COVID-19 in national, regional, or international contexts. Some of the impacts caused by the global pandemic include a decline in trade, currency and financial market volatility, logistical distribution problems (medical supplies, food, and others), increased unemployment due to job losses, global recessionary pressures, and other indications of world economic instability. The country's unpreparedness exacerbates its difficulty in facing the challenges of the COVID-19 pandemic. In addition, several demographic groups are vulnerable to being disadvantaged, such as the elderly, the poor, specific ethnicities, to the gender aspect (WHO, 2020).

In addition, the global health agenda established by governance should be a top priority in responding to the COVID-19 pandemic and recovering the global economy. The commitment to the worldwide health agenda can be seen through the commitment and support from the leaders of the G20 summit. For instance, Dr. Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus, as a General Director of WHO, called upon the leader of G20 to commit and support for vaccination program to reach 40% of the population who are vaccinated by the late 2021 and 70% by the midterm of 2022 (WHO, 2021). Furthermore, there are four crucial things to produce better global health governance: an international

instrument that can strengthen global health cooperation, enhance the global pandemic preparedness, and increase the solidarity among nations; a more and better financial preparedness and responses for the national or international health governance; utilization of existing financial institutions for better outcomes and avoiding the fragment of the global health architecture; and full awareness of the sustainability financed to conduct the mandate of the organization (Modak, 2021).

Furthermore, the pandemic has placed a scenario of a country's security on its global health security. Global health governance is a new scheme that should be considered in responding to a pandemic by placing preparedness on broader health security. The crisis of COVID-19 has prompted the G20 to implement a global health defense by implementing global health governance and policies, including equitable access to healthcare systems and medicines, vaccine distribution, universal health coverage, capacity-building programs, training of medical professionals, and funding.

In contrast to the summit in 2019 in Osaka, which only dedicated 14% of its documents to health, the Summit in Riyadh in 2020 had placed 68% (half of the communication) of its discussions on the health aspect (Byrd, 2021). Moreover, in 2021, the Summit in Rome, Italy, also puts health as one of the priorities discussed. Then the G20 Summit in Indonesia places global health governance as a priority issue (G20, 2022a).

Global health governance uses a multilevel governance approach. A multilevel governance approach is an approach that informs and coordinates policy-making responses at multilevel stages: global, trans-regional, regional, national, and sub-state (Knight & Persaud, 2008). This means that global health governance must inform and coordinate policy-making responses and contingency planning at the multilevel level with broad and in-depth discussions on aspects of global health security by utilizing the principle of subsidiarity. In addition, the global health governance framework requires global resilience and preparedness coordinated by the G20 by involving various institutions, such as the Financial Stability Board (FSB), IMF, United

Nations (UN), World Bank, WHO, and other institutions. The aim is to test the resilience of an institution in responding to a pandemic of policy readiness to the mainstream in various governance settings. Moreover, this approach aims to address multiple vulnerabilities, especially in the health aspect, particularly in low- and middle-income states, and to achieve transverse synergies across various fields and institutional contexts (Knight, 2019).

E. Indonesia's Contribution to G20 Presidency

Indonesia has joined the G20 since 1999 in the Minister of Finance level formation. The activeness of Indonesia's participation can be seen through Indonesia's contribution and role to the G20, such as being co-chair of several working groups and the G20 task force. In addition, several records of Indonesia's contribution and position in the G20 can be seen significantly, such as the proposed security strategy for the financial sector, banking, and real sector defense at the Washington G20 Summit in 2008, the proposal for the establishment of a Global Expenditure Support Fund and global financial system reforms in overcoming the crisis at the G20 London Summit in 2009, the proposed development agenda as a priority issue of the G20 at Seoul Summit in 2010, as well as the proposed strategy for overcoming debt and fiscal exemption experienced by developing countries due to the COVID-19 pandemic at the G20 Saudi Arabia Summit in 2020, and the proposed strategy for the gap capacity among countries in accelerating responses and advocating for vaccine access and achieving Sustainable Development Goals at the G20 Italy Summit in 2021 (Hermawan, 2021).

In addition, Indonesia supports the financial sector at the G20 Presidency in Rome, Italy, through four things (G20, 2021). First, global support to countries vulnerable to the pandemic's impact through allocating special drawing rights, development bank financing facilities, and a debt reconstruction agenda (Kemenkeu, 2021). Second, support for infrastructure investment, digital infrastructure transformation, and private investment accelerate and enhance post-

pandemic infrastructure development (Kemenkeu, 2021). Third, support for sustainable finance and financing and carbon pricing to accelerate the recovery of the world economy that is environmentally friendly and sustainable. Fourth, support for strengthening and developing regulations through digital-based financial innovation (Kemenkeu, 2021).

On November 1, 2021, Indonesia was officially elected as the G20 Presidency for 2022. Inheriting the presidency from Italy, Indonesia is committed to realizing inclusive and sustainable growth under the proposed theme 'Recover Together, Recover Stronger' (G20, 2021a). In its implementation, the G20 presidency in Indonesia will focus on three main issues: global health architecture, digital transformation, and sustainable energy transition (G20, 2022b). The issue of global health architecture is coordinated with The Ministry of Health. Meanwhile, the digital transformation issue is under the coordination of The Ministry of Communication and Information Technology, while the issue of the sustainable energy transition is under The Ministry of Energy and Mineral Resources. Indonesia prioritizes health issues as the central issue in realizing economic recovery. The priority of this health issue is a parallel response to the impact caused by COVID-19.

First is the issue of global health architecture. The problem found in this issue is the financing gap for Prevention, Preparedness, and Response (PPR) (G20, 2022a). Consequently, Indonesia hopes that the G20 Joint Finance and Health Task Force (JFHTF) will be able to discuss modalities for developing an inclusive G20-based financing facility planning while emphasizing the critical role of the WHO (G20, 2021b). Three priority sub-agendas exist to achieve a more robust global health architecture: building global health system resilience, aligning global health protocol standards, and developing a global manufacturing and knowledge center for pandemic prevention, preparedness, and response (Rokom, 2021).

Indonesia develops a strategy to achieve the objectives of each sub-agenda. First, Indonesia cooperates with WHO and the World Bank in realizing the development of a global health system defense by

setting up a Global Health Fund mechanism (G20, 2022a). Indonesia also cooperates with various international companies and expands access to vaccines, medicines, and the prevention of future health crises. Second, Indonesia encourages the alignment of mechanisms and systems of global health protocol standards so that each country can comply with the global protocol standards that have been set (G20, 2022a). Finally, Indonesia encourages global manufacturing and knowledge centers for pandemic prevention, preparedness, and response (G20, 2022a). Indonesia emphasizes that the unequal distribution of knowledge, mitigation, competence, and response to the pandemic is the source of the worsening crisis; thus, it must be equal. This inequality can have implications for the worst impact of the problem, so redistribution of the manufacture of knowledge centers is compulsory.

Second is the issue of digital transformation. Disruption of digital technology, including digital gaps such as access to connectivity, people's digital skills and literacy, and the use of cross-border data, are the problems found on this issue (Permadi, 2021). On the other hand, digital technology advances have accelerated growth and development in various sectors during the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, Indonesia will lead the first Digital Economy Working Group in the G20 presidency in 2022. The Digital Economic Working Group (DEWG) can be a more comprehensive platform for discussing cross-sectoral digital issues under the G20. Thus, this priority issue aims to pursue a new cooperation landscape among nations to build a secure common in the digital age (G20, 2022c).

This issue has three main priorities: recovery and connectivity after the COVID-19 pandemic, digital skills and digital literacy, cross-border data flow, and free data flow with trust (Permadi, 2021). Consequently, prospective solutions to address the global and cross-cutting digital economy challenges in various countries are expected to result from the DEWG. Hence, Indonesia believes that DEWG can also accelerate Indonesia's Digital Transformation Agenda and strengthen collaboration between countries in supporting an equitable

and sustainable digital-based transformation for global recovery (Permadi, 2021). Indonesia's opportunity for the G20 presidency in 2022 is also well utilized, especially on the issue of digital transformation. Indonesia will present the Digital Transformation Expo through the Ministry of Communication and Information Technology (Kominfo, 2022). The exhibition aims to summarize the digital transformation journey in Indonesia in various sectors, such as trade, e-commerce, financial technology, digital education pioneers (edu-tech) to health (health-tech). Ministry of Communication and Information Technology plans to use metaverse technology in presenting the Digital Transformation Expo (Kominfo, 2022).

Lastly, sustainable energy transition. Indonesia holds the Energy Transition Forum in the Energy Transitions Working Group (ETWG) format to achieve a sustainable energy transition (VOI, 2022). The ETWG has three main priorities: access, technology, and funding. These three priorities are expected to reach a common agreement in the global energy transition and strengthen a sustainable global energy system and a just transition. In addition, Indonesia supports an inclusive global economic recovery policy through the world's collective efforts toward a global energy transition. G20 member countries have utilized 75% of global energy. Thus, they are responsible for using sustainable clean energy (Pribadi, 2022).

Furthermore, the ETWG also focuses on several topics such as energy security, access and efficiency, and the transition to a carbon energy system, including investment and innovation in cleaner and more efficient technologies (Pribadi, 2022). Indonesia is committed to realizing a sustainable energy transition by setting an energy mix target of 23 New and Renewable Energy (Energi Baru dan Terbarukan/EBT) by 2025, fulfilling Net Zero Emissions (NZE) by 2060, reducing and eliminating the use of Steam Power Plants (PLTU), implementing a carbon tax with a tariff of IDR 30 per kilogram CO_2e on April 1, 2022, and Carbon Capture Usage and Storage (CCUS) to reduce carbon emissions while increasing oil and gas production, routine flaring, optimizing the application of natural gas for households and

transportation, and reducing methane emissions (Pribadi, 2022). These efforts are expected to be able to realize a sustainable energy transition.

F. COVID-19, the G20 Identity, and the Role of Indonesia: Leading Global Health Actor

Based on the elucidation mentioned above, the authors found that COVID-19 has become an external factor that transformed the G20 as a global health actor through various health policies that the G20 has taken during the pandemic. This transformation is indispensable for the G20 to adapt to the current situation. As a prestigious international forum covering countries with the largest economies in the world, the G20 is certainly expected by the international community to take a significant role in helping other countries, especially underdeveloped ones, mitigate the outbreak of COVID-19. Although initially the G20 was formed as a forum for economic cooperation between member countries, the development of issues occurring in the world has become a factor that transformed the identity of the G20, one of which is the COVID-19 pandemic. Prior to the COVID-19 outbreak, the G20 had already pursued the universal health coverage principle[2] and improved the health system. This effort was induced by the G20's recognition of health issues as an essential sector to achieve sustainable development goals. In 2019 when Japan chaired the G20, this institution held a G20 Okayama Health Ministers' Meeting. It declared the urgency to improve health issues such as population aging, digital health, health worker advancement, antimicrobial resistance, and polio eradication (The G20, 2019). However, the outbreak of COVID-19 has further encouraged the G20 to strengthen its identity as one of the important actors in global health governance.

The process of bolstering this identity has been happening gradually since 2020. Under the presidency of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 2020, the G20 focused on three primary goals: empowering people,

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[2]   Universal Health Coverage is a principle which is promoted by the WHO that everyone can enjoy the health service regardless of how their financial condition.

safeguarding the planet, and shaping a new frontier. Concerning empowering people, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, along with other G20 leaders, has included enabling person-centered health system agenda (The Government of Saudi Arabia, 2019). Moreover, during the 2020 Riyadh Summit, the G20 incorporated strengthening health care systems, pandemic preparedness, and emerging threats to health, among other topics discussed in the meeting (The Government of Saudi Arabia, 2020).

Italian leadership in 2021 was not much different from Saudi Arabia. There were three visions during Italy's presidency: people-centered policy, planet resilience, and global prosperity (The Government of Italy, 2021). Nevertheless, on 21 May 2021, Italy—as the G20 president—and the European Commission held a Global Health Summit. During this meeting, the leaders of the G20 declared their support for boosting equal and affordable access to COVID-19 tools and vaccine distribution systems (G20, 2021b). Indeed, this summit demonstrated the increasing commitment of the G20 to contribute to global health management.

Finally, under the leadership of Indonesia, G20 explicitly mentions the health sector as one of its main agendas. The Indonesian government has proposed three priority issues implemented during its tenure in 2022: global health architecture, digital transformation, and sustainable energy transition. By strengthening the global health architecture, the G20 will significantly contribute to forming a more robust and equal global health system to deal with other pandemics in the future. In addition, the priority issue in the health sector advocated by the Indonesian Government is further shaping the identity of the G20 as a global health actor.

Table 2.1 G20 Policies Before and After the COVID-19 Pandemic 2019–2022

Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic	During the COVID-19 pandemic		
2019 (Japan)	2020 (Saudi Arabia)	2021 (Italy)	2022 (Indonesia)
The G20 generally declared the urgency to improve health issues such as population aging, digital health, health worker advancement, antimicrobial resistance, and polio eradication.	1. The G20 only slightly mentioned the person-centered health system agenda. 2. Discussed strengthening health care systems, pandemic preparedness, and emerging threats to health during the Riyadh Summit 2020.	The G20 declared their support for boosting equal and affordable access to COVID-19 tools and vaccine distribution systems during the Global Health Summit.	The G20 explicitly mentions the health sector as one of its main agendas, namely the Global Health Architecture agenda, introduced by Indonesia.

Table 2.1 shows that the G20 gradually involves the health agenda as its primary target and Indonesia's contribution in introducing the Global Health Architecture agenda. Here, the G20 member countries can play a vital role in establishing the fair distribution of COVID-19 tools, particularly vaccines. This is mainly due to several G20 member countries that are vaccine producers, such as the United States, Britain, Germany, Russia, China, and India. The G20 member countries also possess a high GDP rate compared to other nations, making them capable of ordering a massive amount of COVID-19 vaccine. According to a report by UNICEF, G20 member countries have received 15 times more vaccines per capita than low-income countries (UNICEF, 2021a). Hence, various parties encourage the G20 leaders to donate vaccines and other COVID-19 tools to developing countries, especially in Africa. In May 2021, countries in the region had only received approximately 1% of the 1.3 billion doses of global vaccine (Beaumont, 2021).

The G20—through the Global Health Summit—has pledged to encourage the equal distribution of vaccines to underdeveloped and low-income countries. However, the G20 has not established a particular scheme. Instead, its member countries have collaborated with the Covax Facility to implement this declaration. In addition, several member countries provide assistance and donations individually through bilateral cooperation or other organizations and programs such as UNICEF, Coalition Epidemic Preparedness Innovations (CEPI), Unitaid, GAVI Alliance, and WHO Global Funds (WHO, 2021a). For example, Germany donated 844,800 doses of the Astra Zeneca vaccine to the Philippines through the Covax Facility in October 2021 (WHO, 2021b). In November 2021, Canada also presented Covax Facility 1.9 million doses of Moderna to Uganda (UNICEF, 2021b). The contribution of the G20 countries in mitigating Covid-19 can be seen in Figure 2.1 which shows the United States and Germany are the member countries that provide the higher amount of donations compared to other members. However, as depicted in Figure 2.2, vaccines have the highest funding allocation from the G20 member countries. Thus, they have become the most donated COVID-19 tools for underdeveloped and developing countries.

It is noteworthy that this data was obtained from the Accelerator Commitment Tracker (ACT) by WHO; therefore, it is not impossible that G20 member countries also sent the COVID-19 tools and funding through other mechanisms such as bilateral cooperation and thus not recorded by WHO. For instance, considering its role as a major vaccine producer, the Indian government established a Vaccine Maitri Initiative campaign to supply the COVID-19 vaccine worldwide, including in low-income countries (Sharun, 2021). To implement this program, India provided a million vaccine doses to the Myanmar Red Cross Society in December 2021 and sent vaccines to Bangladesh, Bhutan, and Nepal (Bhattacherjee, 2021).
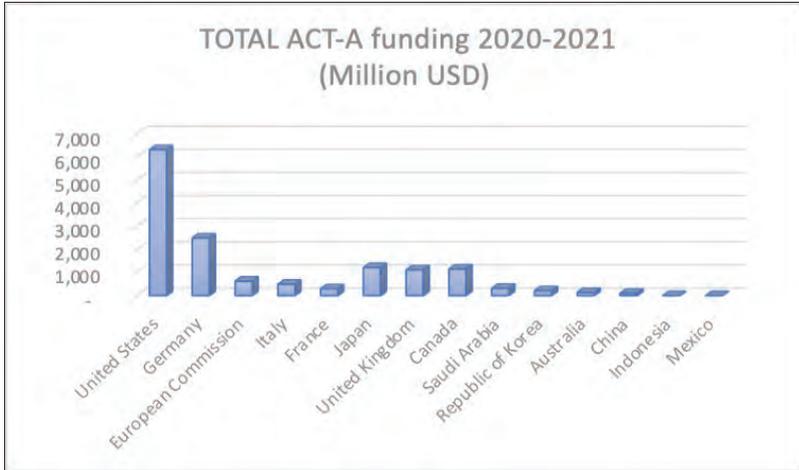
Figure 2.1 Access to COVID-19 Tools Accelerator (ACT-A) Funding Among G20 Member Countries 2020–2021
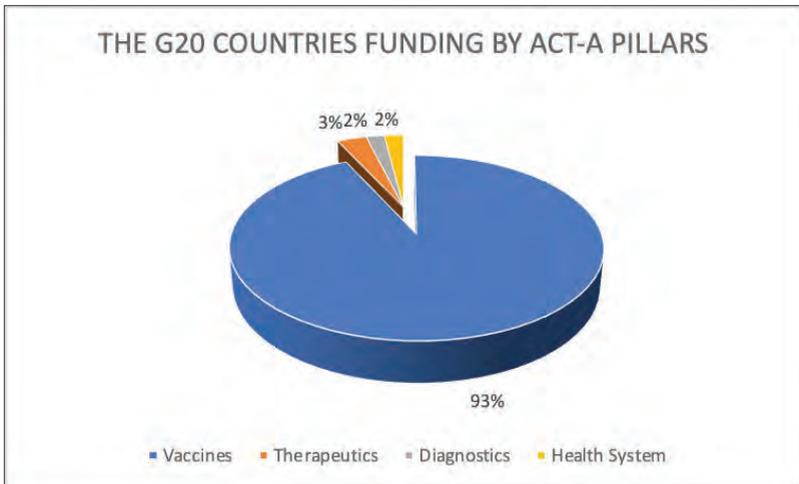
Figure 2.2 Allocation of Funding from G20 Member Countries by ACT-A Pillars

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Unfortunately, despite tireless efforts by world leaders, vaccination gaps remain unavoidable. The fully vaccinated rate in numerous African countries is below 30%, even only 1% in Ethiopia (BBC, 2022). This is not only due to this region's low distribution of vaccines. In November 2021, the Chinese President, Xi-Jinping, promised to donate 600 million vaccine doses to African countries and 400 million doses jointly produced by Chinese companies and African countries (Bloomberg, 2021). African countries have also started receiving vaccines in July and August 2021 through bilateral schemes, donations, and the Covax Facility (Schraer, 2021). Nevertheless, the slow progress of vaccination in Africa is also led by several other factors such as the lack of health facilities, lack of training funds for medical personnel to accelerate the vaccination process in Africa, the difficulty of reaching rural areas to distribute the vaccines as well as technology and internet issues for African society to register themselves to get vaccine injection (Mwai, 2021).

G. Conclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic plays an important role in shaping G20's new identity as a leading actor in global health governance. Indeed, the COVID-19 pandemic that severely affected global health and the economy has induced the G20 to take health policies, particularly regarding vaccine distribution. With respect to that, Indonesia has an opportunity to contribute to shaping the identity of the G20 as a global health actor. Before the COVID-19 Pandemic, the G20 included the health sector as one of its agendas. However, after the spread of COVID-19 to all countries worldwide, the G20 has significantly contributed to global health management to mitigate the pandemic. During the presidency of Saudi Arabia and Italy in 2020 and 2021, respectively, the G20 used to put the global health system as one of its concerns. Global Health Summit that G20 and European Commission held in 2021 is also important in forming G20 identity as a prominent global health actor. The priority issue of creating global health architecture proposed by the Indonesian government shows the

commitment of the G20 to creating a healthy world. Hence, G20 can be an alternative or complement to global health governance and the WHO, especially considering that the G20 encompasses 19 countries with considerable power and high GDP growth worldwide.

The Indonesian government is expected to maintain the previous positive trends of the G20 member countries. Moreover, Indonesia might invigorate the G20 to form specific programs that organize donations and funding from member countries to increase the institution's role in global health governance. Furthermore, in the light of some other facts that cause vaccination gaps in low- and middle-income countries, as well as most of the G20 member countries, contribute to supply the vaccines, Indonesia might motivate the G20 leaders to increase assistance in the form of other COVID-19 tools such as therapeutics, diagnostics, and health systems.

Indonesia may also urge the G20 to form a Nationally Determined Contribution mechanism that stipulates that all member countries should contribute to mitigating COVID-19 and improving the global health system, based on each country's decision and ability. The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) uses the nationally Determined Contribution mechanism to tackle the escalating climate crisis. The Paris Agreement Article 4 Paragraph 2 informs that 'each party shall prepare, communicate, and maintain successive nationally determined contributions that it intends to achieve. In addition, parties shall pursue domestic mitigation measures to achieve the objectives of such contributions' (UNFCCC, 2015). By determining each member country's contribution, the G20 is expected to solve health problems mainly caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. This instrument can also ensure that each member country has a role in mitigating COVID-19 and improving the global health system. Nonetheless, Indonesia can continue to be significantly involved in G20 health programs even after its tenure. Indonesia can be a representative that voices the health problems in developing and underdeveloped countries that need to be addressed by global leaders.

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Chapter 3

Indonesia's Grand Experiment in Implementing a Fair and Acceptable Carbon Tax

Alwin Adityo

A.   The Urgency of Carbon Tax

The economic recovery from COVID-19 should be used as an opportunity to implement policy reforms that will help climate change mitigation and adaptation. Climate change will cause economic and health issues if it is left unchecked. Efforts to tackle climate change must be made at the multilateral, regional, and national levels. At the multilateral level, 196 parties in Paris, France, on December 12, 2015, signed a legally binding international treaty on climate change. Commonly referred to as the Paris Agreement, the goal is to limit temperature rise between 1.5–2°C compared to pre-industrial times. Other multilateral initiatives include the Network for Greening the Financial System (NGFS), a network of 114 central banks and financial supervisors aiming to accelerate the scaling of green finance. Regional

A. Adityo
Harvard University, United States of America, e-mail: alwinadityo@hks.harvard.edu

policies to tackle climate change include the EU's launching of a green taxonomy, which seeks to improve money flow towards sustainable activities. The EU also plans to implement a Carbon Border Adjusted Tax Mechanism, which will equalize the carbon price between domestic and imported products. At the national level, individual countries and jurisdictions have various carbon-energy policies to meet their climate change commitments pledged in the Paris Agreement. One of those climate-energy policies is a carbon tax. A carbon tax aims to charge the carbon content of fossil fuels, increasing fossil fuel prices and driving demand for lower-carbon fuels (Parry, 2019).

There is an urgency in Indonesia to implement a carbon tax. Indonesia is the world's eighth-biggest greenhouse gas emitter and has pledged to cut back nearly one-third of its carbon emissions in 2030 with its efforts. Air pollution kills an estimated 120,000 Indonesians annually. Indonesia introduced a carbon tax as part of its most comprehensive tax reforms, including scrapping a corporate tax cut and introducing a higher income tax rate for wealthy individuals. These reforms are expected to increase the country's tax revenue in 2022 by IDR 139.3 trillion (USD 9.8 billion) and boost the tax ratio from 8.44% to 9.22% of GDP (Suroyo & Nangoy, 2021).

Introducing a carbon tax is a step forward for Indonesia to achieve its greenhouse gas emission reduction goals. The Ministry of Finance's next step is to issue a ministerial regulation on the carbon tax, which is expected to be in force in July 2022 after being pushed back from April 2022. Currently, the Harmonized Tax Bill broadly defines the tax rate for the carbon tax and the tax base. The tax rate is set at a minimum of IDR 30 per kilogram of Carbon Dioxide equivalent (CO_2e) or an equivalent unit. If converted into tons, this would mean the tax would be at a minimum of IDR 30,000 per ton, or a little over USD 2. As for the tax base, the government can impose tariffs on individuals or bodies who purchase goods with carbon content or conduct activities that emit carbon. The carbon tax is still a work in progress as the government must determine the final design of the tax, which is expected to answer critical questions such as the

scope of sectors included, how the rate will develop over time, how to determine the use of revenues, and how to ensure oversight and compliance.

Governments in 40 countries worldwide and another 16 state or provincial governments have been estimated to collect more than USD 28.3 billion in "carbon revenues" annually (Carl & Fedor, 2016). Through paired tax cuts or direct rebates, around 36% of such revenues have been returned to corporate or individual taxpayers. While 27% and 26% respectively have gone toward state general funds or used to subsidize "green" spending in energy efficiency or renewable energy. Despite that and the potential that carbon taxes have in reducing greenhouse gas emissions in the environment, governments around the world have experienced challenges when trying to implement a carbon tax that is technically correct, politically supportable, and organizationally implementable. There have been groups and constituents that have opposed carbon taxes. Policies that may broadly benefit society, in theory, have had a higher chance of failure if their actual or perceived costs are concentrated among a smaller group that is highly motivated to campaign aggressively against the policy (Olson, 1971). In the case of carbon taxes, such groups can be businesses or industries that produce fossil fuels such as oil and coal. Even successful implementors of the carbon tax, such as the British Columbia government in Canada, faced hurdles in passing the carbon tax despite having wide political, voter, and business support for the tax and an electricity system backed mainly by hydropower and carbon-free.

Stiglitz and Rosengard (2015) explain five characteristics of a desirable tax system. The first would be economic efficiency, meaning the tax system should not interfere with the efficient allocation of resources. The second would be the simplicity of administration, meaning the tax system should not be expensive and difficult to administer. The tax should make it easy for the tax base to voluntarily self-comply. The third would be flexibility, or the adaptiveness of the tax system to respond quickly or even automatically to changed economic circumstances. The fourth would be political responsibility

or the need for the tax system to be designed, so taxpayers know what they are paying and evaluate how accurately the system reflects their preferences. Finally, the fifth would be fairness in treating different individuals.

On these grounds, this chapter analyzes the complexities of implementing a carbon tax in Indonesia, including proposing measures to help implement the carbon tax. The article is structured by discussing international climate change policy, domestic climate-energy policies, and offering the design of the Indonesian carbon tax.

B. Climate Change Policy

Human activities such as the burning of fossil fuels, deforestation, and changes in land use since the Industrial Revolution have released large amounts of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases such as methane and nitrous oxide into the atmosphere, causing a level of greenhouse gases not seen in at least the past 650,000 years (Stern, 2006). Human influence on climate has outweighed the impact caused by natural factors such as changes in the sun's energy and volcanic eruptions (the United States Environmental Protection Agency, n.d.). Evidence of humans causing warmer temperatures and increasing pressure from the public to act against climate change have triggered governments worldwide to issue policies to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

From an economic point of view, climate-energy policies are needed to address the market failure of environmental externalities. Emitting greenhouse gases are detrimental because it imposes a social cost on the environment, such as pollution, which lowers the quality of life. The government can intervene and correct the market failure by issuing incentives to change the emission behaviors of individuals and businesses by making emitters responsible for the externalities caused by emissions (World Bank, 2017).

Climate-energy policies motivate greenhouse gas-reducing actions by individuals and firms and can be differentiated between non-compulsory and compulsory policies (Jaccard, 2020). Non-com-

pulsory policies attempt to convince people to voluntarily alter their technology choices and behavior for altruistic or financial self-interest, such as labels on vehicles and electronic appliances which state their emissions rating or energy usage, corporate social responsibility, or government policies to subsidize mass transit. Meanwhile, compulsory policies oblige entities to reduce emissions or shift to lower-emissions technologies.

Carbon taxes are a form of compulsory climate-energy policy and a cap-and-trade system. A carbon tax allows the government to impose taxes to match the carbon content of each fossil fuel, such as coal, natural gas, and gasoline. A carbon tax differs from a cap-and-trade system that sets an emission cap and distributes tradeable permits totaling the cap allocated. Meanwhile, a cap-and-trade system allows firms to decide how they value emissions. Firms that can reduce emissions in their production process can share their surplus quota with their competitors who cannot do so. Some jurisdictions, such as the E.U., combined carbon taxes with a cap-and-trade system, rarely carrying carbon taxes as an isolated or stand-alone policy. Instead, they are part of more considerable energy and excise tax reform efforts.

Carbon taxes effectively operate as Pigouvian or corrective taxes, as duties and taxes governments have long imposed on cigarettes because the costs smokers impose costs on others, such as higher health costs for second-hand smokers. Corrective taxes are attractive because they correct market failures aside from raising revenue. Proponents of punitive taxes argue why productive "good" economic activities such as savings and hard work are taxed, but "bad" economic activities such as pollution are not (Stiglitz & Rosengard, 2015). Thus, carbon taxes would mimic a payment for the increment of or marginal damage individuals caused by emitting carbon.

For this reason, compulsory policies are more practical in tackling climate-energy problems. On the other hand, non-compulsory policies are considered adequate if the harm is only caused to oneself. However, the damage caused by greenhouse gas emissions is a negative externality that harms others in society, so a compulsory policy that

requires climate change mitigation goals and transition to a lower-carbon economy must be established seriously.
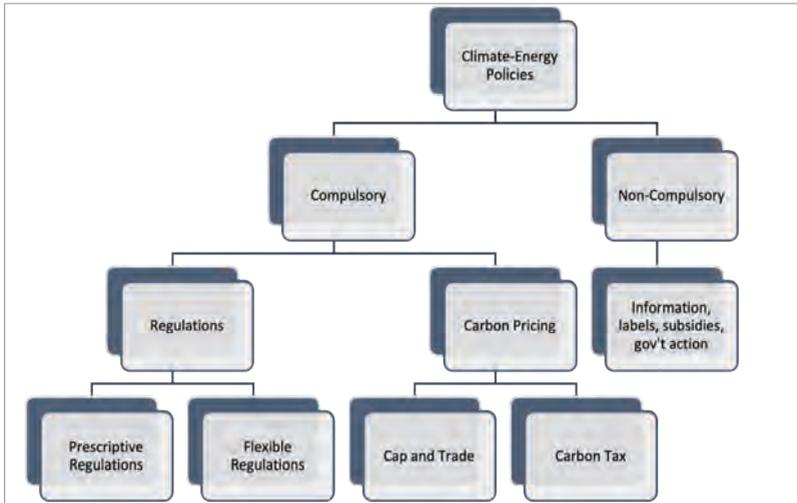
Figure 3.1 Breakdown of Climate-Energy Policies

In Indonesia's context, carbon taxes can be used by the Indonesian government to support achieving their emission reduction goals specified in their Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) under the Paris Agreement. Based on Indonesia's recently updated NDC, the energy sector is still expected to be the most dominant emission source of greenhouse gases in 2030, contributing to 1,669 million tons of Carbon Dioxide equivalent emissions in a business-as-usual scenario. From a purely environmental perspective, the scope of carbon taxes should be targeted at fossil fuels used in energy production.

Carbon taxes could also raise revenue to fund government expenditures for policies issued in response to COVID-19. Like most governments worldwide, the Indonesian government has issued several measures in response to COVID-19. In 2022, the Indonesian

government budgeted IDR 451 trillion (USD 31 billion) for the National Economic Recovery (PEN) program (Anggoro, 2022). This amount is on top of the near IDR 700 trillion (USD 49 billion) allocated in 2021 and IDR 579.78 trillion realized in 2020 (Antara, 2021). The stimulus measures were intended for the healthcare sector, social protection, tax incentives, and credit for businesses, SMEs, and State-Owned Enterprises (Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler-KPMG), 2020). The government temporarily relaxed the State Budget deficit policy to finance the PEN. The deficit can now be above 3% of GDP for the fiscal years 2020, 2021, and 2022 (KPMG, 2020).

In late March 2022, the Indonesian government announced it would push back the carbon tax implementation, citing the impact of rising global energy prices on consumers. It is not uncommon to go back to climate-energy policies amid global developments in the first quarter of 2022. The United States, for example, decided to temporarily allow the sale of E15 over the summer months, a cheaper but dirtier type of fuel that has raised smog concerns, to lower record-high fuel prices.

The revenue from the carbon tax, for example, could be "recycled" back to the public to stimulate consumer spending in the short term. However, most notably, in the long-term, a carbon tax could help a country avoid future risks associated with climate change, which could be more costly to reverse later (Burke et al., 2020). Indonesia is in the top third of countries that face a high risk of a changing climate because of its high exposure to all types of flooding, sea-level rise, and extreme heat (Asian Development Bank, 2021). Physical and transition risks are two significant future financial risks to the economy (Basel Committee on Banking Supervision, 2021). Physical risks are the economic costs and financial losses resulting from the increasing severity and frequency of extreme climate change-related weather events such as heat waves and long-term gradual climate shifts such as rising sea levels. Transition risk, meanwhile, occurs when the businesses cannot adjust to the policies issued by a government or change consumer sentiment in transitioning to a low-carbon economy.

In addition, transition risk is often associated with stranded assets. Before the end of its economic life, the transition risk can no longer earn a financial return because of changes related to the transition to a low-carbon economy. A carbon tax that is implemented gradually would likely soften the impact of transition risk, as demand for fossil fuels subject to the tax will not be highly impacted. However, the slower the transition means there might be increased physical risk as the earth continues to warm because of high-carbon activities.

C. Potential Design of Carbon Tax in Indonesia

The design of a carbon tax must consider a country's overall climate, energy, and fiscal policy framework. Designing the tax includes four components: (1) the tax base; (2) tax rate; (3) revenue use; and (4) oversight, compliance, and tax transparency (World Bank, 2017).

1.   Choice of Tax Base

The tax base determines who should be responsible for paying the taxes and where the tax will be collected. In deciding who will pay the taxes, the regulation must determine the sectors covered by the tax, greenhouse gases covered, and the point of collection. The choice of the tax base must be considerate of the government's resources to administer and enforce the tax collection. The tax base will determine the potential tax revenue and the degree of reducing emissions that can be achieved.

There is a dilemma in deciding the sectors included within the scope of the carbon tax. Including all sectors and emissions within the scope of the carbon tax would undoubtedly lead closer to achieving greenhouse gas emission reduction goals. However, including all sectors may be administratively burdensome and politically unfeasible. As a result, some countries have notably excluded some sectors within the scope of carbon taxes, such as agriculture, fishing, international maritime transport, international aviation, and fuels intended for exports. For example, agriculture is often difficult to include in many jurisdictions due to opposition from farmers who fear the increasing costs of their operations (Skolrud, 2019). In addition, sectors that

are exposed to international competition are often carved out from the carbon tax (Asen, 2020). As for emissions, the carbon content of the three primary fossil fuels (coal, natural gas, and oil) is generally ascertainable once extracted and placed into commerce (Hsu, 2014).

Other countries or jurisdictions have taken varied approaches in the scope of fossil fuels included in existing and planned carbon taxes. For example, British Columbia in Canada, France, Japan, Sweden, and the United Kingdom include all fuels. On the other hand, Norway only covers oil and gas, and the nine Northeastern U.S. states currently participating in the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative (RGGI) only cover 19% of all greenhouse gas emissions in the RGGI states (Plumer & Popovich, 2019; Congressional Research Service, 2019). India and Mexico, respectively, also only include coal and oil. In addition, countries in the E.U. Emissions Trading System (ETS) also exclude sectors within the ETS in the scope of the carbon tax.

There are three options for collecting carbon taxes on the point in the supply chain. One would be the collection in upstream industries. Under an upstream system, the tax would be levied on crude oil reaching the refinery, natural gas leaving the processor to enter a pipeline, and coal as it goes the mind (Horowitz et al., 2017). Under the midstream system, an excise tax would be levied on petroleum-based fuels when they leave the refinery or are otherwise sold for use as natural gas. It leaves local distribution centers and fuels used by electric generating facilities or other industrial users that have not been previously taxed. Finally, a downstream approach levies the tax at the point of consumption, making this approach usually the most visible to consumers. However, this approach is undesirable because psychological research has shown that given a choice among taxing mechanisms, people seem to prefer hidden taxes over transparent ones (Hsu, 2014).

Upstream industries are the easiest and most feasible approach to regulating and collecting the tax (Jaccard, 2020). Managing the tax in upstream industries requires fewer capacities for measuring, reporting, and verifying (MRV) of emissions. An example illustrat-

ing the difficulty of collecting the taxes at the downstream level is measuring Methane released from a pile of cow manure, which would be unfeasible (Jaccard, 2020).

By narrowing the collection point to the upstream industry, carbon content could be easily measured because the number of taxpayers would be relatively small. In Indonesia, if coal were taxed at the upstream, taxing coal mine mouths that produce coal instead of firms that consume coal would be more easily identifiable. Doing a quick online check, anyone can identify 90 coal-producing companies listed as members of the Indonesian Coal Mining Association (APBI ICMA) as of February 2020 (Indonesian Coal Mining Association, n.d.). However, taxing coal mining companies might be damaging both politically and economically. Indonesia is the world's biggest thermal coal exporter, and its export earnings from coal are roughly $3 billion per month, mainly going to power the industries in China, Japan, and South Korea (Nangoy, Christina, 2022). When Indonesia imposed an export ban on high-caloric coal, Japan requested it is lifted and already allowed five loaded vessels to depart for Japan (Nangoy, Christina, 2022). A regulation mandating producers prioritize the supply of coal to the state-owned utility company Perusahaan Listrik Negara (PLN) at a price below the market keeps retail electricity prices low, which is a popular move in a country where electricity fees account for a smaller share of household expenses in low-income households compared to similar households in the United States[1].

The sensitivities of taxing the coal industry directly based on their production may be a reason why Indonesia, in 2022, decided that the initial scope of the carbon tax would be on coal power plants. The aim is to assist coal-fired power plants in reducing their greenhouse gas emissions per unit of output that follow a unit of production,

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[1] Using households in Sumba as an example from Wen et al. (2022), which is considered in the study as a "profile of households in a deprived region of a developing country", households their pay monthly electricity fees amounting to 1.4–3.5% of their household income, which is lower than what low-income households in the United States who spend 8.1% of their income on energy costs according to American Council for an Energy-Efficient Economy (2020).

rather than an absolute cap on emissions (Tan & Muhammad, 2022). If coal power plants can produce electricity more efficiently, they can still burn more coal. This choice of a carbon tax for coal power plants is expected to balance energy generation and tackle environmental pollution (Che et al., 2019).

Further in Indonesia's context, coal still is the dominant energy source; therefore, directly taxing it would likely cause rising electricity prices. Unlike British Columbia, which generates most of its energy from hydropower, as of 2020, coal still energizes around 60% of Indonesia's power plants, while renewable energy sources only account for 19,5% (Endarwati, 2021; Al Faqir, 2020). Suppose coal that was taxed results in higher electricity prices for households, revenue from the tax may have to be used to offset the cost for low-income households. In South Africa, which relies on coal for 80% of its energy (Ellichipuram, 2021), the extra cost borne by energy users was found to be significant (Carattini et al., 2019).

After coal, Indonesia's gradual implementation of carbon taxes could be based on the most widely used energy sources. In Indonesia, they are oil, coal, and natural gas, whose carbon content can generally be ascertainable once extracted. In 2020, these three fuels contributed 37%, 32%, and 17% of total energy consumption (U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2021).

2. Tax rates

Carbon tax rates vary around the world. In USD per metric ton of CO_2 equivalent (CO_2e), Sweden has the highest rate at USD 137, while countries having the lowest rates include Argentina (USD 6), Chile (USD 5), and Japan (USD 3) (Statista.com, 2021). Indonesia's proposed carbon tax under the Harmonized Tax Bill specifies the minimum tax rate is IDR 30 per kilogram of Carbon Dioxide equivalent (CO_2e) or at an equivalent unit. In terms of a ton (1000 kilograms), this would mean the tax would be at a minimum of IDR 30,000 per ton, or around USD 2 at the current exchange rate.

Indonesia is using a gradual approach in determining its carbon tax rate carbon tax, which might be a necessary compromise for the policy to pass through. Still, it might be insufficient to meet its pledge to reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 29% with its efforts or 41% with international cooperation by 2030 as specified in its Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) document in the Paris Agreement. To meet that goal, Indonesia must impose a carbon tax between USD 50 to USD 70 per ton (Sterner et al., 2020). Indonesia could opt to set a progressive carbon tax rate which would impose higher tax rates on polluters. However, a more progressive tax has the drawback of potentially causing a more considerable deadweight loss as people consume less of the goods than if they were taxed at a lower rate, leading to lower tax revenues transferred to the government. The annual demand for oil, natural gas, and coal is predicted to increase by 4.2, 4.0, and 3.8%, respectively, from 2017 to 2050, based on a business-as-usual scenario (Malik, 2021).

A progressive tax would also be an unpopular political move, as businesses could lobby against this proposal in parliament. Although a flat tax rate of USD 2 per ton for all greenhouse gas emissions could be futile in meeting climate goals, it would be easier to administer and collect. Indonesia has a history of implementing taxes with effectively low rates but easy to administer. One example would be the property tax reform conducted in the 1980s, which adopted a single tax rate for all property uses in all locations for all values lauded for uniformity, simplicity, and generality (Rosengard, 1998). Other climate-energy policies may be needed to complement the carbon tax to help the country achieve its greenhouse gas emissions reduction goals.

Later, when the public has become more accustomed to the carbon tax, there is an option of increasing the tax rate over time to ensure the tax responds to changed economic circumstances. The argument for initially imposing a low tax rate would be to soften the blow of the transition, allowing firms and households to prepare and adjust for potential changes in demand. Both Sweden and British Columbia

increased their carbon tax rates over time. As more greenhouse gases are emitted into the atmosphere, the tax rate can be increased to reflect the increasing social costs resulting from the emissions.

3. Determining the Use of Revenue

Revenues obtained from carbon taxes can be explicitly directed to carbon mitigation programs and individuals through policies such as reducing income taxes or supplementing government budgets (Sumner et al., 2009). A carbon tax that is made revenue neutral can be more publicly and politically acceptable as it signals that the tax is not merely intended to raise additional revenue for the government but operates as a tax shift. One way to make carbon taxes revenue neutral is to offer reductions to corporate and income taxes. The authorities in British Columbia, Canada, for example, used the revenue from its carbon taxes to lower annual personal and corporate income taxes equal to the government revenue obtained from carbon taxes to deliver spill-over economic effects (Jaccard, 2020).

Revenue from carbon taxes could also be transferred by giving lump-sum payment(s) to low-income families and small businesses. This policy intends to clarify that the less wealthy would not pay for the increased price of goods due to the carbon tax (Banerjee & Duflo, 2019). The British Columbia government also gave three lump-sum payments annually to low-income individuals. The lump-sum payments are essential because less wealthy citizens do not emit as much carbon as more affluent individuals. In India, for example, the 7% of the poorest population in India emits just 0.15 tons of CO_2 per year per person, while the average person in South Asia emits 2.2 tons of CO_2e per year per person (Banerjee & Duflo, 2019). Additionally, a revenue-neutral carbon tax would allow businesses and households to decide to what extent their behavior would be altered against the rising cost of fossil fuels.

Increasing spending could be undertaken to support environmentally friendly initiatives, such as subsidizing the price of home insulation, electric cars, public transit, and wind turbines. Doing so

would reduce the green premium or the difference between the price of zero-carbon solutions compared to their fossil-fuel counterparts. The green premium has been blamed as one reason the world emits so many greenhouse gases (Gates, 2021). If the cost of greener products is higher, businesses and individuals would be reluctant to pay for them. For example, the price of battery or electricity-powered cars in Indonesia is nearly twice as much as their gasoline-powered counterparts. This may be why our incentive to give tax cuts for the purchases has not been effective yet. However, an argument against this policy is that carbon taxes already incentivize businesses and individuals to take actions that alter their behavior on consuming carbon-intensive goods.

One way to estimate the revenue the government could obtain is to calculate the projected energy consumption in metric tons of equivalent to the tax rate. Based on the projected consumption of the three most used energy sources in Indonesia (coal, oil, and natural gas) and assuming the demand would remain the same in 2030, a carbon tax of IDR 30,000 per ton would yield the government an additional tax revenue of over IDR 4 trillion. An estimation by the Indonesian Taxation Analysis yielded the projected revenue of the carbon tax to be at IDR 6.5 trillion (Simaputang et al., 2021).

Table 3.1 Greenhouse Gas Subject to Carbon Tax and Projected Consumption in 2030

Type of Greenhouse Gas	Projected Consumption in 2030 (in a million tons)	Projected Annual Revenue (in a million IDR)
Oil	110	3,330,000
Natural Gas	25	750,000
Coal	10	300,000

Source: Malik (2021)

After obtaining the projected revenue, the government must decide how to use the revenue. In Indonesia's case, an option would

be either cash transfers to low-income families or subsidizing the prices of green alternatives. The government could choose the latter to promote non-gasoline powered cars to reduce the chronic pollution present in the large cities. Sales of these cars have never really taken off because their cost tends to be twice as expensive as their gasoline counterparts and due to the lack of charging stations, despite incentives such as tax breaks and an exemption from Jakarta's odd-even traffic policy. However, assuming that the difference in sale price between a gasoline-powered car and its green version is IDR 200 million, the government would need to churn out a massive sum of money to ensure the cost is comparable. So instead, using the revenue for direct cash transfers seems to be a more feasible option that impacts more people.

Making the tax revenue-neutral is important for the public to view the carbon tax as a policy that would increase the burden of daily living costs, such as increasing electricity costs. Rising electricity costs could jeopardize the government's goal of ensuring universal energy access by 2030 and increase production costs in some industries, where electricity costs could account for as high as 80% of production costs (Simaputang et al., 2021). In British Columbia, the carbon tax did not significantly affect the price of electricity because most of the electricity was generated by hydropower, emitting fewer greenhouse gas emissions.

4. Oversight, Compliance, and Transparency

In determining oversight and compliance, the government should map the required roles and functions for administering the tax, determine whether needed parts can be carried out with existing capacities or if new roles and capabilities are required, establish clear procedures, and ensure coordination of crucial entities.

Administering the carbon tax in Indonesia would likely involve at least three ministries: the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Energy and Mineral Resources, and the Ministry of Environment and Forestry. Ideally, the carbon tax should be collected annually. It

can be enforced by either issuing a tax invoice similar to the one sent for property taxes to entities to which the carbon tax applies, such as coal mining companies. The companies would be easily tracked down because they have Taxpayers' Identification Numbers. They could pay the surcharge through several payment channels, such as bank wire transfers and e-commerce. What could be the challenge here is ensuring the consistency of the carbon content and CO_2 emissions produced by fossil fuel producers. Therefore, the Ministry of Finance would need to set up a mechanism with the Ministry of Energy and Mineral Resources to ensure the accuracy of the data collected. Ideally, after the emissions have been verified, the Directorate General of Taxes in the Ministry of Finance would send the tax invoice to the entities subject to the carbon tax.

For the tax to become transparent in ensuring revenue-neutral, the government can look at how the British Columbian government reports its carbon taxes each year. The British Columbian Ministry of Finance must file an annual report showing how tax proceeds are used (Carl & Fedor, 2016). This report will be subject to review and approval by the Legislative Assembly as part of a broader annual budget review process, and the government is also required to prepare a three-year plan on how to use the taxes.

Evaluating the carbon tax's effectiveness could use the following three indicators. The first is renewable energy investment and technological development (Dushime, 2021). The second is how significantly the tax affects economic growth, or what proponents of carbon taxes have argued is the elusive "Double Dividend" (Murphy et al., 2016). In this case, revenue from carbon taxes used for reducing taxes on labor or capital would reduce the economic cost of the tax. Thus, the carbon tax would simultaneously benefit tackling climate change and boosting economic growth. The third would be how would the carbon tax cause distributional effects across household income levels (Burtraw et al., 2020). An increase in energy cost due to carbon taxes would affect households directly (such as the cost of their electricity bills) or indirectly (such as the cost of goods like

food). Higher and lower-income households would likely see an increase in expenditures. However, low-income households may be more vulnerable to changes in energy prices because the expenses account for a larger share of their budgets, although they consume less energy. If energy expenditures consume more of the budget, programs such as cash transfers may be needed to offset the effect of carbon pricing on lower-income households.

D. Conclusion

Indonesia's carbon tax is a breakthrough measure to move closer to meeting its pledge to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. Based on estimates, the carbon tax could bring IDR 4 to 6.5 trillion in annual revenue to the government. Carbon taxes worldwide have historically faced hurdles in implementation despite gaining wide political, public, and business support.

Four factors to consider when designing a carbon tax are the tax base, tax rate, revenue use, oversight, compliance, and tax transparency. Indonesia has determined the tax rate and now must choose the other factors. The choice of tax base should be aligned with achieving climate change mitigation goals, which is the energy sector, specifically the oil, coal, and natural gas industries. However, when applying the carbon tax to these sectors, careful consideration must be taken not to reduce energy prices for consumers. Revenue obtained from the carbon taxes should be allocated for other purposes, such as corporate and personal income tax cuts or cash transfers to low-income households. Another option would be subsidizing the price of low carbon and more energy-efficient products to make them more mainstream and affordable. However, doing so may be costly for the government. Lastly, the tax must be easy to collect, which can be done by an annual collection to subjected entities, but a challenge exists in verifying the emissions produced.

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Chapter 4

Green Recovery for Global Economic Growth: Embracing the Opportunity and Redefining Prosperity

Giovani Gracianti

A. Build Back Better

In recovering from COVID-19, it is not a choice between economic recovery and a green agenda but an opportunity to achieve one while also achieving the other. Some see the post-pandemic recovery as an opportunity to accelerate the energy transition and other initiatives, yet some countries are not showing the case in their recovery budget. For example, in Indonesia, the allocation of green economy initiatives was less than 2% of the total pandemic response budget (Bappenas, 2021). One of the reasons why the green agenda is not prioritized in Indonesia's national budgeting process and the National Economic Recovery (*Pemulihan Ekonomi Nasional*/PEN) is because green economy initiatives are typically considered as long-term policy. Thus, they are perceived as less urgent.

G. Gracianti
University of Melbourne, Australia, e-mail: giovani.gracianti@gmail.com

To address the lack of urgency, we need to start with a vision recognizing our planet's finite nature and resources and humanity's pressures on the environment. Unexpectedly, the COVID-19 pandemic revealed the benefits of limiting production and consumption. Countries were forced to lock down their economies to save lives and prevent infections during the pandemic. The economic slowdown also led to a decline in greenhouse gas emissions. This opened the eyes of the world to work on a green recovery.

This chapter addresses how the global economy might recover without harming the environment by reviewing and reflecting on various literature and reports. The policy steps taken now are likely to have long-term consequences for the global economy and impact societies for decades. Therefore, the recovery period following a crisis is a critical time to enforce bold measures/policies and actions. In the current case, the aftermath of the pandemic can drive significant amounts of funding and support toward other green principles. This chapter first investigates the opportunities and necessity for collaboration to undertake green recovery. Second, I propose an idea of redefining prosperity and the three key things we must examine to achieve sustainable growth.

B. COVID-19 Recovery for Economy and Sustainability

Climate change is one of our economy and communities' most significant concerns. Thus, policy action to limit global warming to 1.5°C or less remains critical (International Monetary Fund, 2019). An economic recovery that overlooks environmental deterioration endangers global ecosystems. As a result, if the global economy fails to change away from business-as-usual once it has recovered, it may be impossible to avert future global environmental and economic disasters (Barbier, 2010).

Efforts to revitalize the global economy should go beyond replicating the historical pattern of global economic development. In this section, we first view COVID-19 recovery as an opportunity

to do things differently, to prioritize the process of tackling climate and related issues as an integral part of rebuilding our economies. Second, we highlight the importance of national activities as global coordination to achieve short-run economic recovery and other global challenges.

1. Green Recovery and Opportunity from the COVID-19 Crisis

A green recovery is an investment that drives economic growth and significant environmental and social benefits (UNEP, 2021). Countries can develop policies that boost the economy for recovery while addressing environmental and social concerns. The recovery focuses on policies that will stimulate the economy and accelerate the transition to sustainability, such as expanding the availability of sustainable bonds, promoting innovative technology, and transitioning to a circular economy (OECD, 2020b). Some current examples are Italy and Nigeria have increased subsidies and investment for solar home systems since the pandemic, then India and New Zealand allocate stimulus spending to nature-based jobs such as afforestation and control pests (Evans & Gabbatiss, 2021).

The green sector received over 16 % of the fiscal stimulus funds associated with the Global Financial Crisis (GFC), totaling over half a trillion dollars (Agrawala et al., 2020). Some green programs, such as the Korean Green New Deal of 2009, positively impacted the economy despite providing questionable environmental benefits. Others, such as the US Car Allowance Rebate System, decreased CO_2 emissions while having little impact on economic development and costing substantially more per job than other stimulus programs. These are only a few challenges we face in seeking economic recovery and environmental advantages.

The COVID-19 crisis should be understood as an opportunity to achieve green economic recovery in return for the lessons learned during the previous crisis. The ex-post analysis of green stimulus measures implemented during the GFC demonstrated that good policy design is crucial for minimizing rebound effects, preventing

market distortion, and ensuring that public funds are used correctly. Complementary policy tools that address underlying environmental externalities are also necessary to maximize the ecological advantages of green stimulus spending. Another major lesson from the GFC is the importance of consistently incorporating evaluation frameworks with defined criteria and robust methodology into green stimulus initiatives.

Many of the initiatives from the GFC are also being recommended as part of the COVID-19 recovery's greening. However, COVID-19 is taking place in a policy context vastly different from the year of GFC. Renewable energy, such as solar and wind, has shown the sharpest cost decline compared to conventional energy sources since 2010, making large-scale funding more economically feasible (International Renewable Energy Agency, 2020). Simultaneously, green public research and development assistance policies might now be directed toward technologies that can help solve the challenge of moving to renewables, such as energy storage (Rippy, 2021).

Since the GFC, there has been a greater focus on improving resource efficiency and transitioning to a more circular economy (European Environment Agency, 2019). Shifting away from unsustainable natural resource usage would not only lessen environmental consequences and supply problems but may also open new job possibilities. Repairability, reusability, remanufacturing, and recycling investments, which were notably omitted from the green parts of the GFC stimulus, can be included as they may aid value creation and economic resilience. These innovations provide additional motivation and opportunities for the COVID-19 recovery to be more environmentally friendly. Furthermore, due to the increasing awareness among the public about the importance of green initiatives and the international collaboration seen through Sustainable Development Goals, the green recovery from the current crisis should be proven more effective than the GFC recovery. However, the decision will be

up to the policymakers and the willingness of the government and industry to make it happen.[1]

Indonesia can enact these green recovery opportunities in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. One way to do so is to provide substantial stimulus funds to green transportation such as electric cars and encourage walking and biking as healthier traveling alternatives. Another option would be to increase renewable energy infrastructure and decrease the dependence on fossil fuels to combat climate change. One of the lessons from the spread of COVID-19 is that buildings need to have good ventilation, heating, and cooling system and achieve a health and safety rating for the sake of human health. Promoting healthier buildings for sustainable cities is a possible way of enhancing green recovery opportunities. In addition, the government can also create green jobs that will help protect national habitats and resources from biodiversity loss and decrease the chances of future pandemics.

2. The Needs for Green Recovery Collaboration

COVID-19 crisis has contributed to significant loss of life. The number of casualties continues to grow, leading to an enormous burden on public health and social infrastructure. The remarkably high economic and social impacts also continue to unfold. The unique characteristics of the COVID-19 crisis emphasize that many specific factors need to be considered when planning both the timing and scope of the response. Comparing the current and previous financial crises may give us more insights into economic recovery—the shock associated with the financial crisis developed from widespread economic stress, mainly in high-income countries. Still, the pandemic crisis was borne outside of the global economic system and appeared to be affecting most countries, high and low-income countries, equally (Schmidhuber & Qiao, 2020). Both crises have led to uncertainties and similar impacts on economies worldwide. However, a study of COVID-19

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[1] For more discussion on the effectiveness of green elements in stimulus packages during the Great Financial Crisis that is applicable to the present situation and how variations between the current crisis and the GFC affect the measures to green COVID-19 recovery, see Agrawala et al. (2020).

impact on the macroeconomic variables of the US economy discovers that the current pandemic crisis severely impacts industrial production, consumer spending, and unemployment compared to Global Financial Crisis (Li et al., 2021).

The difference in the pace of economic recovery across countries may be affected by the strength of its COVID-19 policy response and the success of its vaccination program (Ozkan, 2021). Since many poorer countries lack adequate healthcare and cannot expand public spending, the pandemic crisis has hit developing countries harder than advanced economies. The divergence in recovery is also influenced by the progress of national vaccination programs—as the OECD put it: "more jabs, more jobs" (OECD, 2021).

According to the UN Environment Program's Emissions Gap Report (2021), a green recovery could cut 25% off 2030 emissions and positively impact health and food security. However, there is no one-size-fits-all solution for policy responses. Developing countries face specific challenges during this pandemic due to inferior healthcare systems and limited financial capabilities. In addition, not every country benefits from the international standards and instruments set in the past few decades.

Although policy response will vary across countries, policy coordination is key to an effective response. Global Financial Crisis (GFC) teaches us that policy action has positive and negative externalities across countries. In terms of economic recovery, too, national gains are unlikely to be long-lasting if a significant part of the world remains behind. Agrawala et al. (2020) also state the potential for trade-offs between economic, environmental, and social policy objectives, necessitating cross-government collaboration to detect and reduce divergences between these policy objectives.

The fact that no single country, on its own, can solve the challenges was the driving motivation for the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the 2030 Agenda. This is a clear roadmap for an inclusive and prosperous world for the planet. The post-COVID era necessitates innovation, collaboration, and integration even more. The

SDGs can be a viable road map and become a long-term solution, a guideline for everyone from CEOs to governments to international organizations to civil society groups (Gomme & Jungermann, 2018). The international community has had a strategy in place since 2015—the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development—to prevent, address, and resolve the system failures, inequalities, and injustices that the worldwide COVID-19 epidemic has exposed. However, many organizations would benefit immensely from being better connected to all the SDGs' goals in terms of integration. If the goals are integrated and universal, so must the policies, programs, procedures, and governance structures used to attain them.
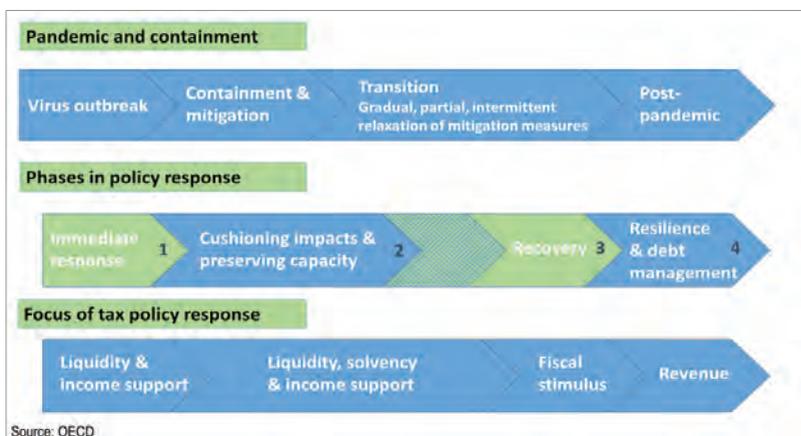
Source: OECD (2020a)

Figure 4.1 Schematic Policy Phases During and After the Pandemic

Figure 4.1 provides a framework for the phases of the COVID-19 crisis and the phases of policy response (OECD, 2020a). The immediate response and mitigation activities will dominate phases 1 and 2. In contrast, phase 3 addresses policy responses for economic recovery, where the country may need fiscal stimulus and recovery support to ensure investment and consumption. In addition, as economies have recovered from phase 3, governments will need to plan ways to

raise revenue to restore long-term fiscal sustainability. Finally, phase 4 will strengthen the resiliency of health systems and address other longer-term risks, including climate change.

The green agenda and sustainability cannot wait until phase 4 since we believe that bold action can slow global warming and prevent its most significant impacts, such as threats to health, livelihoods, water supply, and food security (New Climate Economy, 2018). While public health and social concerns will undoubtedly dominate phases 1 and 2, one environmental priority during the first two phases might not harm. In phase 3 (Recovery), opportunities for greening policy responses or green measures may become necessary as part of a stimulus package. Thus, it is not a choice between economic recovery and a green agenda in recovering from COVID-19 since catastrophic climate breakdown will be considerably more disruptive than COVID-19. Sustainable economic recovery includes supporting recovery measures that do no harm to the environment, ensure green, and are in line to limit global warming to 1.5°C. This agenda will require collaboration across sectors, economic systems, and a partnership with governments and civil society.

UN Research Roadmap for the COVID-19 recovery (2020) provides some ideas for executing economic recovery and a sustainable agenda. By progressing fiscal stimulus packages that best support natural infrastructure and green industry, the economic recovery can give a chance for transitions to greener and more sustainable economies. The recovery may also pave the way for new green economic prospects open to everybody. Governments and societies can encourage job-creation initiatives that promote economic growth and innovation for environmental sustainability, such as encouraging land restoration, creating resource-smart food systems, transitioning the energy sector to low-carbon approaches, and reducing environmental degradation by promoting the use of green space and active transportation. Fostering environmentally sustainable policies can further ensure the well-being of ecosystems that support all humans. Creating these

virtuous cycles will enable a sustainable recovery from COVID-19 and safeguard the planet for future generations.

C. First Things First: Redefining Prosperity

In this section, I propose three steps to regain prosperity without sacrificing the environment. First, we must understand what we mean by human needs to determine how to provide those needs sustainably. Secondly, we consider the boundary of our planet, which highlights the importance of sustainable principles in conducting businesses. Finally, shifting the measurement of economic performance to include nature and sustainability.

1. Redefining Prosperity: Satisfying Human "Needs", not "Wants"

We should not fall into the same trap. Therefore, we need to dig deep to find the root of green economics, rather than just looking for a quick manifestation on the surface. This approach is more than just economical, and it requires an understanding of human psychology, social relationships, and political economy. Indeed, this has both moral and philosophical dimensions. We would like to ensure the proper foundation at the start. The first fundamental question we should consider is "human needs" and following to realizing satiable needs. We will then understand the difference between needs and wants; needs may be satisfied, unlike wants. Distinguishing between a need and a want is critical when considering sustainability in economic theory (Mansvelt, 2010). This understanding is, in fact, the opposite of conventional economic wants or desires, which are infinite and insatiable. The voice of the Chilean economist Manfred Max-Neef phrases this beautifully: "The economy is to serve the people, not people to serve the economy."

Max-Neef et al. (1992) introduced a matrix of needs and satisfiers, including defining individual basic human needs and how these are satisfied. The nine needs are subsistence, protection, participation, understanding, affection, leisure, creation, identity, and freedom.

These needs come along with some ways in which these needs can be satisfied, called satisfiers. The satisfiers can contribute to the satisfaction of different needs, and more than one satisfier may be required to meet a need. Satisfiers can complete more than one need (synergistic), meeting one while detracting from another need (destroyers) or creating a misleading concept of meeting a need (pseudo-satisfiers).

Comparing Max-Neef's theory to the well-known Maslow hierarchy of needs: physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization (Maslow, 1943), Maslow's theory has predominance, meaning that only when the lower level is met does the following level become increasingly dominant. As a result, this theory implies that mankind continually strives to move upwards through the pyramid, with ongoing wants or desires rather than needs or necessities.

Needs are considered few, finite, classifiable, and universal across human history and society (Aamoucke, 2016). Max-Neef also believed that human needs are universal and constant throughout cultures and periods. What differs across countries or generations is not the needs but what is chosen to meet the demand. Culture determines which satisfiers are selected to fulfill the needs, not the needs themselves. Aamoucke (2016) studied that a failure to meet the needs is a source of poverty, with direct consequences for health and wellbeing. Here we understand that the concept of poverty moves beyond monetary measures, and countries should discover ways to satisfy human needs better.

2.   Redefining Prosperity: Economy for a Finite Planet

In his influential book, Tim Jackson (2016) said, "People can flourish without endlessly accumulating more stuff. Another world is possible." However, it is not always true that more is better. When we recognize that we live in a world with natural and social limits, we must redefine "prosperity". We are pursuing long-term prosperity in which people have the potential and opportunity to grow as human beings while not further depleting the finite world we share with other species and on which we depend for a home.

It can go hand in hand with the World Commission on Environment and Development's 1987 Brundtland report 'Our Common Future', which defines sustainable development as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (Brundtland, 1987). It aims to strike a balance between economic growth and the preservation of social and environmental harmony. This gives a long-term vision for sustainability in which economic growth is pursued while social cohesion and environmental conservation are mutually supported. This also aids in examining current strategies and identifying some unsustainable trends in numerous policies. Sustainable development requires the integration of the economic, social, and environmental dimensions. The recent agenda, the 2030 Agenda of the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP), has integrated those three factors in the global commitment to "achieving sustainable development in its three dimensions—economic, social, and environmental—in a balanced and integrated manner".

Sustainability principles should be incorporated into business models and government policies. Natural Step (thenaturalstep.org), a non-profit organization devote to attaining ecological, social, and economic sustainability, contributes to this endeavor. Max-Neef philosophy, they believe, may assist organizations or businesses in incorporating sustainability concepts into their business models and operational procedures. The way we value businesses will alter because of sustainability principles. The principles can assist in becoming a future-fit above and beyond financial gain.

3.   Redefining Prosperity: Beyond Short Term Performance

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is a significant measure because it provides information on the size and performance of an economy. This can be estimated in three ways: production, expenditure, or income, which should give the same result. An increase in GDP indicates that the economy is performing well in general. While GDP is adequate

for measuring economic activity in the short term, GDP overlooks natural capital and does not account for environmental damage caused by economic activities. Given the strong relationship between climate change and the environment, measuring economic performance through the lens of natural capital will be critical. Furthermore, economic growth should increase without damaging the environment, and therefore, extending beyond GDP growth is required to establish a more sustainable future and development.

Dasgupta (2021) states a strong argument in his review on the Economics of Biodiversity: "Government almost everywhere exacerbate the problem by paying people more to exploit nature than to protect it, and to prioritize unsustainable economic activities". He also argues that we need to change to "inclusive wealth" measurements, including natural capital and produced and human capital.

UN System of Environmental and Economic Accounting (SEEA) can be an option of a framework not solely based on GDP but also embeds sustainability. SEEA Ecosystem Accounting (SEEA EA) measures the ecosystem services, tracks changes in ecosystem assets, and connects this data to economic and other human activities (SEEA, n.d.). The framework incorporates concepts, definitions, and classifications congruent with the System of National Accounts (SNA) to integrate environmental and economic statistics. SEEA EA has already been used to support the agenda in a variety of policies and decision-making processes, for example (SEEA, n.d.):

a. Carbon accounts have been used in Indonesia to analyze the effects of changes in peatland ecosystems.

b. Ecosystem extent and condition accounts for rivers in South Africa have guided The National Water and Sanitation Master Plan

c. Species accounts in Uganda have presented the economic value of the indigenous Shea tree.

D. Conclusion

For a COVID-19 recovery, some principles, such as theories of universal human needs, need to be established to achieve long-term economic growth. A deeper understanding of human needs will make changes that improve people's lives in the long run. We should encourage a continuous examination of how serving human needs interacts with the environment and more discussions on meeting human needs sustainably, supporting responsible production and responsible consumption.

Social and environmental become the planetary boundaries that will help us redefine prosperity. Therefore, GDP that embeds nature and sustainability, which requires macroeconomic accounting models that integrate economic and environmental data in measuring economic performance, should be employed. The prosperity we would like to achieve is long-term human well-being ecologically safe and environmentally just, as proposed in the ten principles for a COVID-19 recovery by Wellbeing Economic Alliance (Büchs et al., 2020).

Fortunately, a framework that considers climate change prevention and more sustainable practices in using the earth's natural resources has been effectively defined through the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Government should provide effective incentives that reward businesses that make sustainable decisions and prevent over-exploitation of nature. New business opportunities will be unlocked, jobs will be generated, and a good ecosystem for all businesses will be established through this effort.

There are two options: one is to build back to pre-COVID-19 conditions, and the other is to seize the opportunity to make back better. Indonesia needs to choose the latter, meaning that the post-pandemic recovery is based on long-term economic, social, and environmental benefits for people's lives. Moreover, Indonesia can help drive innovation and investment in green recovery by accelerating large-scale hydropower development, green bonds, and other financial instruments to achieve a low-carbon economy.

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Chapter 5

Assessment of the Impact of COVID-19 Social Restriction Policy toward Urban Slum Population's Socio-Economic Condition in Indonesia

Cecep Hermawan & Taufik Kurrahman

A. The Socio-economic Consequences of COVID-19

COVID-19 brought developing countries into disarray as social security systems were unprepared to receive a sudden weight of hospitalizations, unemployment, and alternative education options. Despite the smooth national budget transition, Indonesia faced numerous challenges when implementing a social restriction policy. These challenges can be seen in the poverty gap index for the Jakarta region as the hotspot of the COVID-19 pandemic in Indonesia. In the second semester of 2021 (H2), the poverty gap index reached the number of 0.75 in comparison to H2 2019 at 0.40. The data is synonymous with the number of people living in poverty, which increased by 0.3% between March 2020 and March 2021 (BPS, 2021). The poverty gap index shows the distance between the spending of the poor population

C. Hermawan,* & T. Kurrahman
*Lund University, Sweden, e-mail: cecephermawan9997@gmail.com

against the poverty level reference, indicating that the conditions in most urban slums in Jakarta are more severe than reported.

The urban slums refer to a landscape area defined as systematic consolidation of informal settlements, with informal economies with its market dynamics, which largely escape from government care, and whose otherness is seen as an opposition to the ever-growing urban landscape of the city (Nuissl & Heinrichs, 2013). Urban slums can also be defined by their landscape feature as an area of poor housing, overcrowding, and the most impoverished part of the modern city. The area usually has a flawed education system, goods and services are primarily scarce, inadequate sanitation and occupied mainly by informal workers, and usually a nest for criminal and illegal activity in the city (Mayhew & Penny, 1992; Pangutta et al., 2021). Hence, by these two definitions, urban slums can be seen as the most vulnerable area in governance as they are barely controlled and usually forgotten by government services. This condition causes the high socio-economic vulnerability of slum dwellers, especially during the COVID-19 social restriction policy.

The severe socio-economic impacts on slum dwellers trigger a discussion about the efficiency of social security programs and how the distributional effect of social security programs has seemed to fail to cater to the needs of the existing and newly impoverished populations. Suryahadi et al. (2021) argued that the worsening socio-economic conditions due to COVID-19, which creates a diversified distributional effect on the greater population, cause increased levels of undetected poverty. The lack of coherent data reference could be the reason for various flaws in Indonesia's social security programs in off-setting the socio-economic impact of COVID-19.

The COVID-19 impact can be seen as a phenomenon that undoes Indonesia's economic achievements since the end of the Asian financial crisis in the late 1990s. However, a more severe socio-economic impact is observed in the urban region. While urban slums become more impoverished by the condition, the population on the borderline poor are impoverished due to decreased mobility that stops the

economy partially, if not entirely. This phenomenon is most likely to occur in developing economies. Gerard et al. (2020) explained four reasons why it is harder to handle the COVID-19 economic fallout in the developing economies: (1) more severe economic consequences; (2) government programs have limited scope; (3) many developing countries lack contingency plans, and building the assistance based on the existing underdeveloped social security systems; and (4) some vulnerable populations will remain uninsured due to incoherencies in the data of targeted people.

This chapter argues that this economic vulnerability during the COVID-19 pandemic among urban slum communities is significantly associated with implementing social restriction policy. In addition, the severe economic disturbance which massively strikes the urban slums' dwellers generated other major social issues, such as education and health problems. In this chapter, the impact of the COVID-19 social restriction policy on the urban slum population's socio-economic condition in Indonesia is assessed by further exploring three aspects: (1) the government's policy responses to COVID-19 pandemics during a national-scale social restriction period across three development sectors (economy, education, and health); (2) the impact of a social restriction policy towards urban slum population; and (3) social protection services and resources available for urban slum community.

B. Restriction Policy and Policy Responses

The Indonesian government began to implement a mobility restriction policy in late March 2020 under the name of Large-Scale Social Restriction (*Pembatasan Sosial Berskala Besar*/PSBB), later known as Community Activities Restriction (*Pemberlakuan Pembatasan Kegiatan Masyarakat*/PPKM), with four-level indicators from 1 to 4, with 4 indicating the heaviest restrictions. The social restriction can be seen as a successful move as it eventually reduced people's mobility by 25% in mid-July 2020 (Palma et al., 2022). Indonesia successfully avoided the further surge of COVID-19 cases within the said period. However, there is no back-casting data on the impact of

PSBB and PPKM on public health spending. The restriction policy decelerated the virus's spread within the population during the said period. Furthermore, in the following section, the chapter explores the government's policy responses during the COVID-19 social restriction period from the economic, social, and education perspectives.

Economically, lifting the mobility restriction regulation can be seen as an excellent policy to mobilize the economy to the pre-pandemic level gradually. However, these policy moves do not equally translate to all demographic groups. Some demographic groups are not recovered after the restrictions are erased. Consequently, there is intersectoral mobility between the formal and informal sectors, where formal workers who failed to retain their jobs during COVID-19 shifted their occupations to informal and part-time (Suryahadi et al., 2021). This transition toward the so-called 'new normal' period is also initially considered premature, as it exposes urban slum community that depends on the public space vulnerable to COVID-19. These rash transitions heavily endanger children and threaten informal workers because they lack resources to protect themselves from unfavorable conditions. The government's social protection programs are often lacking and mismanaged (Kusumaningrum et al., 2021).

However, as the government carried on with the reopening of the social restrictions in June 2020, the government argues that the COVID-19 social protection program, which utilizes National Economic Recovery Fund (*Program Pemulihan Ekonomi Nasional*/PEN Fund), is sufficient to off-setting these externalities arising from the COVID-19 dangers up to January 2022. Table 5.1 shows Indonesia's government PEN Fund allocation and realization in each program.

Table 5.1 PEN Fund Realizations (IDR Trillion)

Initiatives	2020			2021			2022
	Planned	Realization	%	Planned	Realization	%	Planned
Health	99.5	63.5	63.8	215.0	198.5	92.3	122.5
Social Protection	230.2	220.4	95.7	186.6	171.0	91.5	154.8
MSMEs and Corporate Financing	177.0	173.2	97.8	162.4	116.2	71.5	178.3
Priority Programs	67.9	66.6	98.1	117.9	105.4	89.3	
Business Incentives	120.6	56.1	46.5	62.8	67.7	107.7	
Total	695.2	579.8	83.4	744.8	658.6	88.4	455.6

Source: Ministry of Finance (2022)

Several insights can be learned from Table 5.1. First, from the budgeting standpoint, although the social protection programs almost always reach their target of realizations, this does not come without trouble. Despite the government's efforts to assure that the poor population will get social benefits during COVID-19, many parts of these demographic groups are left behind. In the case of DKI Jakarta, there are two main reasons: (1) the incoherent data between the central government and provincial government, which creates an overlap of data and double-benefit errors, and (2) the newly impoverished population that is unregistered within the Ministry of Social Affairs database (Sagala et al., 2021). Consequently, while some families did not receive any social protection program since they are not registered in the Ministry of Social Affairs database, other individuals who either passed away or moved to other regions are still registered in their old residential address. Therefore, it creates a possibility of double counting and mismanagement of the beneficiaries of the social protection packages. Furthermore, the timing of social protection delivery often differs from one district to another due to different bureaucratic processes and other logistical issues. It subsequently leads to budgetary constraints issues, as the number later becomes

inflated, and some goods are halted in warehouses due to unclear data between the government database and the actual beneficiaries in each location (Ao, 2021).

From a public health perspective, the frequently changing regulations appear problematic for COVID-19 management. Several public health experts have warned the government to lift the restrictions by considering various elements such as public health, not only its economic dimension. Some even suggest the government builds an agency similar to the American Center for Disease Control and Prevention (ACDCP) to avoid another future pandemic crisis (Suryarandika, 2021). The fact that Indonesia's COVID-19 cases often fluctuated from time to time further increases the need for better contingency management for future health crises. During the mid-2021, it is proven that Indonesia cannot hold the imported wave of Delta-variant. Consequently, despite the ongoing vaccination efforts, Indonesia was severely hit by the variant. This precedent should have been a lesson for the Indonesian government in handling the most recent COVID-19, the Omicron variant. In early January 2022, Indonesia took a preventative measure to avert the Omicron variant by extending the quarantine period and restricting entry for every foreign citizen, including temporary residence cardholders. However, despite this effort, considering the infection rate of the variant, the Omicron wave seems unavoidable. Hence, it will be back to the social protection measures to ensure that Indonesian citizens are insured during the COVID-19 restriction period. Understanding the social protection policy might distribute differently among demographic groups, it is essential to understand the policy response toward COVID-19 and its potential differential effect on the most vulnerable groups, such as urban slum residents who rely on the public space and government aid for their survival. The following section explains the policy responses in the economic, education, public health, and social protection sector regarding urban slum residents.

1. Policy Responses: Economy

The government's economic response primarily took the form of a national budget adjustment, firstly through the Government Regulation in Lieu of Law No.1/2020 concerning Monetary Policy and Stability of the Financial System in Response to COVID-19. These allocations are later known to become PEN Fund, as discussed previously (Sumarto & Ferdiansyah, 2021).

In the banking sector, the central bank of Indonesia adjusted various kinds of regulations to ease the business during the pandemic. Such laws include decreasing the 7-Day Reserve Repo Rate, mainly used as a reference for interbank lending to help commercial banks in their daily operations and reduce the wholesale lending rate and consumer lending rate. This policy affects the private sector and the middle-class family. They own consumer credit, such as credit cards, in which the regulation for the minimum payment and annual interest rate has been reduced almost by 75% until December 2021 (BI, 2022).

Economic assistance is also a prominent feature in Indonesia's monetary policy response to COVID-19. Besides the financing project for corporations and medium enterprises, the government, in cooperation with the local government, also disbursed cash to the micro-enterprises surviving the economic crisis. The amount is not significant and varies across the region. Nevertheless, it can be seen as little support assistance to help micro-enterprises. Based on the data from one of the local government agencies in Yogyakarta, the micro-enterprises in 2021 can receive the one-sum direct cash aid of IDR 2.4 million (roughly USD 167). The number will increase by 100% from 2020 cash aid (Diskop UMKM Yogyakarta, 2021). However, this number is insignificant as it could probably only let the business float for another one to two operational months. With the one-sum aid every year, it is hard for small businesses to survive. In addition, the lengthy process and numerous administrative requirements could hinder cash aid distribution since small businesses lack information about government programs.

From a more consumer perspective, three innovative economic policy responses affect the general public: accelerating the digital payment system through the increased capacity of the Quick Response Code Indonesian Standard (QRIS), digitalizing the banking services, and rising digital access for the Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) by accelerating the network of cooperation between commercial banks and financial technology company (BI, 2021).

Although the MSMEs largely dominate Indonesia's economy, these policies aim to jump-start the national economy by shifting the transaction from pop-up stores closed due to COVID-19 into digital space. However, the impact has a vast distribution factor. On the one hand, economically savvy or versatile entrepreneurs with a good grasp of digital technology can quickly adapt, while the other is lagging. Some evidence from Yusuf (2021) mentioned the distributional impact of Industry 4.0, which will generally benefit the manufacturing industry while leaving the agriculture industry behind. This shows that technological development can be a double-edged sword that needs to be taken seriously; in Indonesia's context, a distributional development factor can become a big issue. Conservatively, this distributional impact on development also reflected by the Gini ratio, which refers to the measure of income distribution across population, where the rural Gini ratio is always worse than the urban Gini ratio. It shows that the distributional impact can affect the development from the demographic perspective (Cameron, 2003).

These policies have a huge potential. However, inter-institution collaborations are still lacking. The dissemination of this technology is not spread well enough, especially to the middle-to-lower economic group. The utilization of this technology could probably make the financial assistance run more smoothly with a higher penetration rate. When it comes to urban slums, the impact could be imminent, as the informal sector is heavily cash-based. The transformation of the payment system for these marginalized populations could alter the journey of social assistance and open-up further opportunities for them. One of the examples of this is India's ICT4D (ICT for Develop-

ment) program, which aims to increase digital stewardship among the people living in urban slums. Its missions include (1) immersing the technology into the society; (2) evolving the socio-technical development; and (3) seeking a fit between the technology and development goals for the area (Rangaswamy and Nair, 2012). This program was a success and something that Indonesia can also follow in developing the quality of life in the urban slums as one of the most vulnerable communities and forgotten parts of the national development.

Further, the number of informal workers increases because of the increased unemployment in younger demographic groups. SMERU Research Institute reported that 1 out of 5 workforces in the younger demographic group were unemployed in 2020, and within this number, diploma and bachelor's degrees holders dominate (Rahman & Fatah, 2021). As the need for technical and digital skills immensely increases, the government put forward the Pre-employment Card (*Kartu Prakerja*), which aims to improve workforce competence by providing free and subsidized courses for these groups.

2. Policy Responses: Education

The significant changes in the education policy revolve around distant education. For this chapter's context, remote education is defined as the learning method where teacher and student are not located in the same location and are instead connected through third-party media, such as computers, smartphones, and other digital interface technology. Right after Indonesia declared a state emergency due to COVID-19 in late March 2020, the Ministry of Education and Culture released a policy that mainly instructs students to conduct distant education activities with relevant technology. This instruction was later supplemented by several incentives for teachers and students. The incentives are primarily in the form of free internet services and funds to procure relevant technologies such as computers for teachers and students who did not have them at the time of the pandemic (Kencana, 2020).

Winata et al. (2021) mentioned four instruction features that could essentially change the general principle of education in Indonesia. First, distant education and learn-from-home program shall not pressure students in terms of curriculum achievement or graduation. Second, the learning-from-home shall also focus on education about the COVID-19 pandemic, such as health measures and introducing the COVID-19 adaptation. Third, school assignments should be contextual based on the students' condition and learning-from-home capability. Finally, the feedback should be done in the form of qualitative measures without having any quantitative measures.

In this context, these changes in education could be a catalyst in providing equitable education for all Indonesian and increasing the quality of education in the non-urban area as high-quality education can be disseminated through online channels. This change could also push students' creativity and increase their willingness to study as the pressures are majorly decreasing.

However, the changes in Indonesia's education system have not come easily. The technological divide across the region remains the biggest challenge. Indonesian Association for Internet Providers (AP-JII) mentioned that only 73.7% of Indonesians had internet access in the second quarter of 2020. A challenge that the government is trying to solve following the COVID-19 distant-education policy (Lidwina, 2021). The implementation will be easy for urban regions, including Jakarta, Bandung, and other cities. However, performance in a remote area is more stagnant. Considering this possibility, the relevant institutions have agreed on several exceptions for these remote regions to have face-to-face classes instead of learning-from-home programs as the technology is not supported, exposing the student to the possibility of catching COVID-19.

3. Policy Responses: Public Health and Social Protection

Social protection programs have taken one of the most significant shares in Indonesia's annual PEN Fund since 2020. In 2022, the allocation for social assistance reached IDR 154.8 trillion, almost 34%

of the total economic recovery fund. The most vulnerable people's aid is distributed through four existing social assistance channels (See Suryahadi et al., 2021). First, Family Hope Program (*Program Keluarga Harapan*/PKH) is a conditional cash transfer targeting a family with a vulnerable family member (child under five years of age, pregnant women, elderly, or persons with disabilities). The second is Non-Cash Food Aid (*Bantuan Pangan Non-Tunai*/BPNT) which provides people with vouchers that can be used for food. Third is Cash Social Assistance (*Bantuan Sosial Tunai*/BST), generally used as the main channel for the COVID-19 unconditional cash assistance. Furthermore, the government introduced the fourth, Direct Cash Aid of the Village Fund (*Bantuan Langsung Tunai-Dana Desa*/BLT DD), or unconditional cash assistance, which utilizes the village fund, in 2015 (Suryahadi et al., 2021). These programs target 70% of Indonesia's 20% poorest households.

The social assistance program undeniably put small reliefs to the most vulnerable population. However, numerous problems occur in the distribution process. They are starting from the embezzlement of the allocated fund in early 2020 to the ongoing problem of data incoherencies about the recipients between the central government with the local governments. However, these administrative issues have a more significant impact on the recipients as many of the poor population are unaccounted for within the government's database for the targeting process.

Besides the distribution issue, Wahyuni (2021) mentioned the issue of logistics and human resources, which are not adaptable to the COVID-19 situations. Social assistance distribution often takes longer than the planning, putting pressure on the vulnerable population. As the custodian of these programs, the Ministry of Social Affairs acknowledged this problem and promised to update the social assistance recipients' data periodically. In addition, state-owned companies are also utilized to accelerate the distribution process. Although there is more to improve, Suryahadi et al. (2021) mentioned that with a high realization rate, the efforts could maintain, if not decrease, the poverty

rate in challenging economic times. By 2021, Pre-employment Card reached 11.4 million workforces across the country and has increased the number of entrepreneurs by 13% since its inception in April 2020 (Mola, 2021). This number further affirms that COVID-19 and its relief do not ultimately return the unemployed workforce to the formal sector, but the shift toward the informal sector is unavoidable.

C. COVID-19 Social Restriction's Impact on Urban Slums

The devastating impact caused by COVID-19 triggered the implementation of social restriction policies in many countries worldwide. As mentioned in the previous section, restriction policies in Indonesia mandated individuals to reduce mobility and stay home except for medical and considerate reasons, education, and work that cannot be remotely performed or exercised, and primary needs shopping (Jacob et al., 2020). To control and minimize the spread of COVID-19, the government established various decisions ranging from stay-home policy, public gathering restrictions, transportation, workplaces, and school closure. Moreover, the large-scale social restriction incorporates not only transportation, school, and business closure but also includes restrictions on mass gatherings, religious activities, public facilities activities, and socio-cultural activities (Purnama & Susanna, 2020; Suraya et al., 2020). Daghriri and Ozmen (2021) highlighted that the social restriction policy minimized the COVID-19 spread by decelerating space and reducing the number of active cases. The COVID-19 transmission, especially at the community level, can be significantly prevented by implementing physical and social distancing policies (Purnama & Susanna, 2020).

Further, the lockdown and social restriction protocols and policies are the most effective strategies to control the virus (Suraya et al., 2020; Dai-Kosi et al., 2021). A study on the impact of social distancing policies on people's mobility and COVID-19 case growth revealed that the social restriction policies significantly reduced people's mobility, where a 5% reduction in people's time spent away from residence able

to decrease 9.2% new cases, and 10% reduction in people's mobility was associated with a decrease of 17.5% new cases (Wellenius et al., 2021). There are great benefits generated by establishing social restriction policies in controlling the virus and reducing death cases. However, the socio-economic disruption caused by the policies cannot be neglected, especially within urban slum communities (Ahmed et al., 2020; Buheji et al., 2020; Mueller et al., 2020).

Urban slums community or slum dwellers refer to the under-privileged people with low-income settlements who lack the primary necessities to sustain a safe and healthy livelihood. Urban slum community is usually associated with socio-economic vulnerabilities, poor housing, insufficient public facilities and social welfare access, overcrowded and unsafe neighborhoods, and a polluted environment (Pongguta et al., 2021). These situations limit slum dwellers from having a quality life in everyday situations. Further, when crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic occur, these communities are susceptible to suffering more and are severely impacted harder than others because of their vulnerability. In addition, it is observed that the urban slum community's ability to comply with the restrictions and rules during the pandemic is significantly limited compared to the developed city areas.

From an economic perspective, most urban slum residents are daily hired workers, small enterprise owners, and private company employees who have high vulnerability and do not have an opportunity for telework. This condition has caused many urban slum residents to lose their jobs and increased the poverty rate since the social restriction policy was implemented (Mueller et al., 2020; Buheji et al., 2020). Meanwhile, from a social perspective, restriction policies caused slum dwellers' education issues. The lack of electricity and internet for households instigated problems toward school children's education within communities that are negatively affecting masses of the young generation for years ahead. Furthermore, the community's health is also disrupted by social restriction policies. The difficulties for urban slum communities to work in the informal sector that do

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not have the option to telework generate mental health problems and food insecurities (Pongguta et al., 2021). To overcome these challenges and formulate better problem solving, it is essential to critically discuss the impact of COVID-19 social restrictions on urban slums' socio-economic life.

1. Social Restrictions Impact on Urban Slums' Economy

Under vulnerable living conditions, slum dwellers are challenged to survive the impact of COVID-19's social restriction policies. Especially in the economic dimension, the social restriction policies caused huge working issues and pushed millions of people into poverty (Auerbach & Thachil, 2020; Sethi & Creutzig, 2021). The data from World Bank showed that in 2020–2021 poverty increased to 97 million people due to the COVID-19 and social restriction policies (Mahler et al., 2021). Especially among the urban slum residents, the vast majority work in the vulnerable informal sectors (Mueller et al., 2020). The informal sector is usually associated with the following categories of work such as domestic work (housekeepers, maids, nannies, and other care providers), home-based work (craft makers, repairers/mechanics, and sub-contractors for factories), street vending (retail kiosk and food stalls), waste picking, construction workers, and factories labors (Baker et al., 2020). These informal workers usually have higher vulnerability because of the lack of workers' protections and labor regulations, high exposure to health and environmental hazards, and lower wages. In this vein, the COVID-19 pandemic worsens the situation by increasing shocks and disruptions. Slum-dwellers working in the informal sector were highly exposed to rapid COVID-19 transmission due to the close contact working environment. Even those who do home-based work are still highly exposed to the crowded urban slums living conditions, making them vulnerable to the virus spread.

Due to the close contact and crowded urban slum working conditions, social restriction policies are formulated to reduce the virus spread. While it is evident that the social restriction policies significantly minimized the COVID-19 spread, they also caused

substantial economic issues for most vulnerable groups, especially those who live in urban slums. As aforementioned, the urban slum residents who are in the majority working in an informal sector are exposed to close contact working environments. The social restriction policies established by the government may constrain the urban slum community's working conditions. Moreover, the lack of opportunities for informal sector workers to telework instigated issues and caused numerous slum dwellers to lose their jobs while also increasing the poverty rate (Mueller et al., 2020; Pangutta et al., 2021). A report from the Central Bureau of Statistics (*Badan Pusat Statistik*/BPS) found that the poverty rate of urban slum communities is increasing to 13% of the total urban slum population in 2021 (Izzati, 2021). In addition, the social restriction policy also caused higher unavailability of job vacancies which impacted the people economically, especially those who live in urban slums. It is reported that 43.3% of adolescents cannot find jobs to support their lives, and 17.4% cannot secure a job (Baird et al., 2020). Therefore, it is concluded that the social restriction policy negatively impacted people economically, especially in urban slum communities.

2. Social Restrictions Impact on Urban Slums' Education

The COVID-19 social restriction policy disrupts the people's economy and impacts the education quality of young generations. The impact on education is noted as one of the biggest challenges caused by the social restriction policy due to the need to shift the education system built around physical learning into non-physical learning activities. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2020) highlighted that at the peak moment of the COVID-19 outbreak, 1.57 billion students, or 91% of enrolled students in over 188 countries, faced school closures to minimize the virus spread. Pongutta et al. (2021) argued that the social restriction policy constrains youth from accessing proper physical and financial education. These happen because of school closures in high-risk regions and the economic downturn during social restriction periods. Furthermore,

it is recognized that the extended school closures negatively impact youth development because of the isolated condition for education and social interaction (Pongutta et al., 2021).

This negative impact even strikes harder toward marginalized youth and slum dwellers. This condition affects urban slums' populations by widening literacy gaps and inequalities in accessing education. For instance, slum dwellers have lower access to the internet and digital technology, which has become a significant issue for marginalized children living in urban slums, producing inequalities and barriers to educational participation and activities. According to the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), 376 million young generations cannot afford internet access for conducting remote or online learning (UNICEF, 2020). Moreover, the limited engagement in remote learning systems also reduces the quality of education and potentially impacts the students' capability for extended periods. In sum, it is recognized that the social restriction policy negatively impacted the young generations' quality of education, especially those living in urban slums.

3. Social Restrictions Impact on Urban Slums' Health

Besides impacting the economy and education, the COVID-19 social restriction policy threatens the community's well-being and health, with health denoting the physical, social, mental, and spiritual well-being conditions (Vanclay, 2003). Pongutta et al. (2021) highlighted that due to the economic downturn and difficulties during the social restriction period, slum dwellers' health is negatively impacted by mental health problems and food insecurity. A study by Kaiser Family Foundation found that in the United States during the COVID-19 pandemic, 35.8% of adults faced symptoms of anxiety disorder, and 28.4% reported symptoms of depressive disorder (Panchal et al., 2021). Furthermore, prior studies found that during the lockdown and large-scale social restriction, most urban slum communities encountered food issues due to economic constraints (Auerbach & Thachil, 2020), leading to a reduced nutritional status that threatens the community.

Furthermore, the economic constraint facing slum dwellers generates food insecurity issues and is mentally problematic for the community. Prior studies discovered that the stress level significantly increased among those who lived in urban slums during the lockdown period. The stress level is mainly associated with income loss, economic constraints, and self-quarantine mandates (Pongutta et al., 2021). In addition, the crowded urban slums settlement, which instigated closed spaces and close contact with other people, coupled with poor sanitation and unavailability of health services in the remote areas where several urban slum communities live, is worsening their well-being and health (Mueller et al., 2020; Ahmed et al., 2020). Hence, this chapter argues that the COVID-19 social restriction policy negatively affects urban slum community's health and well-being.

D. Conclusion

COVID-19 has a significant distributional impact on the Indonesian population. The economic impact of the pandemic differs across the economic group, with people living in poverty being the most vulnerable. Therefore, the policy response and social protection net should also follow these spread of impacts. The social protection policy and economic incentives during COVID-19 should have been a pareto-efficient policy that benefits all parts of the economy without sacrificing the interest of any actors. However, despite the great effort from the government to realize equitable social and economic protection for its citizens, some vulnerable groups suffered dramatically during the pandemic.

Partly due to a lack of contingency plan in the current governance for facing unforeseen pandemic, followed by incoherent databases of the poor population between the central and local government, the social protection programs which aimed to off-setting the economic impact of COVID-19 failed to reach certain vulnerable groups, including the citizens living in urban slums. These populations are vulnerable from economic, social, and public health perspectives. Moreover, the nature of their economy, which relies on an informal sector, and their

poor living conditions have led to multidimensional problems which require inclusive solutions.

The government has taken steps to restrict and mitigate the spread of COVID-19 by making various decisions. However, inadequate policies that cannot protect people of all economic classes have become a significant issue, particularly for slum dwellers who experience multiple vulnerabilities. The guidelines established by the government generated economic, social, and even health issues in urban slum communities. The root causes of these issues are the insufficient economic incentives received by these communities, lack of support for technological needs, and restriction policies by the government. Therefore, better policies and assistance must be formulated to protect vulnerable communities. The government needs to establish policies that can control and minimize the COVID-19 spread while also considering the concerns of vulnerable communities, i.e., their needs and interests, to survive and improve their well-being. Considering these circumstances, the government can ensure that the pareto-efficient effect provides optimum benefits to all demographic groups.

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Chapter 6

COVID-19 and Gender-Based Violence in Indonesia: The Urgency of Prevention and Mitigation Framework

Widya Puspitasari & Fauziah Mayangsari

A. Shadow Pandemic: GBV during COVID-19

The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic has brought wide-ranging economic and social consequences, including the upsurge in gender-based violence (GBV). Prior to the pandemic, gender-based violence or violence against women and girls (VAWG) was already a global pestilence of its own, being the most pervasive yet least visible human rights violation in the world. According to the World Health Organization (WHO) (2021), approximately one in three women and girls worldwide have or will experience violence in their lifetime, either by their intimate partner or non-partner. This number has remained constant in the past decade. Rooted in the imbalance in power between women, men, and gender-nonconforming individuals, the existing inequalities such as crises and emergencies have strong tendencies to exacerbate and increase the risks of gender-based vio-

W. Puspitasari,* & F. Mayangsari.
*Europa-Universitat Flensburg, Germany, e-mail: jsempocahontas@gmail.com

lence. While GBV is known to prevail in all settings, extensive studies have demonstrated that crises disrupt existing protective structures and create multiple circumstances that can increase the risks of various forms of violence, abuse, and exploitation (Heise & Kotsadam, 2015).

Since the outbreak of COVID-19, emerging data and reports have presented substantial evidence of the increase in gender-based violence worldwide (Halim et al., 2020; Mittal & Singh, 2020). In addition to exacerbating existing inequities within the society, especially for marginalized populations, the pandemic has uncovered and furthered new societal vulnerabilities, particularly for women and girls. In recent months, high-profile advocacy on GBV has particularly highlighted the hidden epidemic of intimate partner violence (IPV) consequent of the COVID-19 outbreak. It is particularly exacerbated by the public health measures such as lockdowns and isolations to curtail the spread of the virus. The annual report by the National Commission on Violence Against Women (*Komisi Nasional Anti Kekerasan Terhadap Perempuan*/Komnas Perempuan) has shown an increase of 63% of GBV cases since the outbreak of COVID-19 (Komnas Perempuan, 2021a).

By drawing on critical reviews of various quantitative and qualitative literature and reports, this chapter explores the trend of gender-based violence during the COVID-19 pandemic in Indonesia. It utilized the various official statements from government agencies such as the National Commission on Violence Against Women (Komnas Perempuan) and data from local Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) to present trends of GBV during the COVID-19 outbreak. This chapter also discusses the institutional frameworks to prevent and mitigate GBV. Highlighting the importance of the third pillar of action in addressing GBV, this chapter argues that GBV risk mitigation in the context of COVID-19 is paramount alongside response services for GBV survivors and prevention efforts. Finally, the chapter investigates the role of NGOs in addressing the upsurge of GBV incidents throughout the stages of COVID-19.

B. Gender-Based Violence in Indonesia

Many scholars have argued that the root cause of GBV is the unequal power relations in heteropatriarchy norms embedded in the society; those who fail to conform are often excluded and marginalized (Dragojlovic, 2020; Tong, 2014). It includes an objectification and normalization of physical violation of bodies and limited accessibilities to economic opportunities. Similar to the condition anywhere in the world, GBV in Indonesia also occurs in this condition. However, before we delve into the discussion of GBV in Indonesia, it is necessary to clarify what we meant by GBV in this chapter. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), gender-based violence is when an individual experiences harmful acts because of gender (UNHCR, n.d.). In practice, GBV can include physical, sexual, mental, and economic harm, which causes long-time repercussions for the survivors.

Furthermore, in understanding GBV, we need to place the victims' experience and the violence's impact within a more extensive socio-political, economic, and historical condition. This approach is essential because, as Dragojlovic (2020) emphasizes, rather than perceiving GBV as a single-layered issue, we must see the interplay between gender, violence, and power behind the 'normalization' of GBV. In the Indonesian context, such a condition is inherent in its colonialism and racism history and its heteronormative structure (Dragojlovic, 2020).

Based on the 2016 study of Indonesian National Women's Life Experience, one in three Indonesian women have experienced GBV throughout their lives (BPS & KPPPA, 2017). It was also revealed that 15.3% of the respondents experienced sexual violence, 9.1% suffered from physical violence, and 9% had to share both. Despite its pervasiveness, gathering comprehensive data on GBV in Indonesia is quite challenging because there was no regular, systematic data collection. The 2016 national survey was the latest data collection done by the government. Other women's organizations, such as Komnas Perempuan (the National Commission on Violence Against Women),

regularly release an annual report on GBV in Indonesia. However, they need to rely on statements made by survivors whereby not all victims are willing to report their situation for various reasons, such as limited ability to seek safety place for an escape or, on a more fundamental basis, the cultural resistance of gender violence. According to Blackburn (2004), violence against women is often considered taboo because it has been connected to sexuality. Rape cases are often regarded as a humiliating condition, not only for the victim but also for the family. In addition, domestic violence is viewed as a private issue. Therefore, many GBV cases are unreported because the victims (and often the family) choose not to disclose them. Blackburn (2004, p. 195) argues, "there is great resistance to acknowledging structures of violence or a culture of violence, anything that appears to shift the blame from individuals to the wider society." The reluctance to report GBV, particularly domestic violence, can be linked to the heteropatriarchy structure in which family problems should only be discussed privately, making it difficult for women to seek help for harmony in the family.
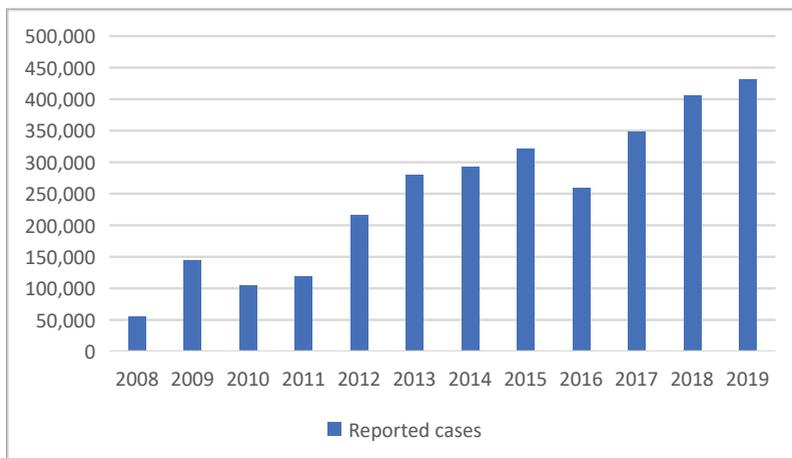
Source: Komnas Perempuan (2020)

Figure 6.1 Komnas Perempuan's Recorded Cases of Violence Against Women in Indonesia (2008–2019)[1]

Nonetheless, despite the challenge of collecting data on GBV in Indonesia, we can identify the general trends based on the existing data. In Figure 6.1, we referred to Komnas Perempuan's recorded case on GBV, which shows the increase of GBV cases every year—even before the pandemic. Within 12 years, there was an increase of 792%, from 54,425 cases in 2008 to 431,471 cases in 2019 (Komnas Perempuan, 2020). Still, in the report, Komnas Perempuan also recorded a 300% increase in online gender-based violence from 97 to 281 cases throughout 2019. This trend continues with significant growth during the pandemic, further discussed in the next section. However, it is also important to note that a more thorough reporting methodology might influence the increasing number; regardless, these concerning numbers show that GBV is a pervasive issue in Indonesia.

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[1] Diagram based on data from Religious Court and data on questionnaire forms received by Komnas Perempuan from year to year.

C. COVID-19 and Gender-Based Violence

There is overarching evidence that presents the immense impact the pandemic has on gender-based violence. Abundant research findings and media reports have supported this claim by highlighting the undebatable risks of gender-based violence that are exacerbated due to the COVID-19 pandemic (UN Women, 2020; Halim et al., 2020; Ghanbari et al., 2020; Myrttinen, 2021; Gulesci et al., 2021; Krishnakumar & Verma, 2021). It is not surprising given that extensive literature has demonstrated strong links between crises and surges in cases of gender violence (Enarson & Fordham, 2001; Fothergill & Peek, 2004; Palermo & Peterman, 2011). The increased numbers of gender-based violence during and after crises and disasters have been extensively recorded and observed. Pandemics are also not an exception to such links. For instance, reports have shown the rise in the cases of rape, violence against women, and sexual assault during the outbreaks of Ebola and Zika viruses in Africa (Yasmin, 2016). Similar to other disasters, infectious disease outbreaks leave particular groups — women and girls —vulnerable to violence. Currently, the COVID-19 global outbreak is an ongoing case in point. The pandemic has brought unprecedented economic and public health shocks, enticing wide-ranging social consequences, including the upsurge in GBV.

The surge in the trend of GBV can also be observed in Indonesia. Various government agencies and organizations in Indonesia have submitted and presented their data on the increase in GBV reports. According to Komnas Perempuan, throughout the year 2020, there have been 2,389 cases of VAW, with almost 90% of these cases being GBV cases. It is estimated that cases of GBV spiked by 63% during the pandemic in Indonesia. From January until October 2020, Komnas Perempuan received 1,617 complaints, with a significant increase in the number of GBV reports, particularly in domestic violence or IPV and gender-based cyber violence (Komnas Perempuan, 2021a). Presenting a similar trend obtained from an online survey, the Jakarta Feminist Association (*Perkumpulan Lintas Feminis Jakarta*) illustrated

that out of 315 survey respondents, 52.5% experienced gender-based violence during the virus outbreak. The Legal Aid Foundation of the Indonesian Women's Association for Justice (*Lembaga Bantuan Hukum Asosiasi Perempuan Indonesia untuk Keadilan*/LBH APIK) – also presented a rise in the number of reports. In 2019 they received 798 reports and complaints, while in 2020, they received 1,178 cases with 418 domestic violence cases and 307 cases of gender-based cyber violence (Perkumpulan Lintas Feminis Jakarta, 2021).

The increase in reports of GBV during the pandemic in various countries such as Indonesia regrettably does not come as a surprise. The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic has intensified and exacerbated the risks to the preexisting GBV, particularly against women and girls. While the pandemic alone does not directly cause GBV or violence against women (being the most prominent), the socio-economic issues stemming and intensified from and during the outbreak exacerbate existing conditions that allow violence to exist, making it more likely to emerge. Factors ranging from psychological and emotional stress, economic uncertainty, and insecurity as the unavoidable consequences of the crisis to the double-edged sword effect of quarantine restrictions have contributed to the exponential increase in GBV records (UN Women, 2021a).

The following section mainly discusses how various dimensions of COVID-19 have directly and indirectly exacerbated the risks to GBV and led to the exponential increase in the number of GBV cases worldwide. In addition, it also discusses how the pandemic has brought a new form of gender-based violence.

1. COVID-19 and Economic Insecurity

The pandemic's severe impact has led to the dramatic loss of human life worldwide and has extended to devastating economic and social disruption. The COVID-19 pandemic's far-reaching economic consequences inflict economic shocks on households in affected areas, with the most significant effects on the already economically vulnerable population. The pandemic's economic impact is projected

to increase poverty and unemployment globally due to the widespread closure of businesses and industries. It has been reported that most jobs lost in the COVID-19 crisis have been in low-paying industries whose majority of workers are women. In Indonesia, two out of three companies have stopped working due to COVID-19, including 2.5 million garment industry workers, most of whom are women (Jackson & Judd, 2020). With the outbreak of COVID-19, women stand at an even starker disadvantage since they work more in service and informal sector jobs with low wages and no unemployment insurance (UN ESCWA, 2020). Among other factors, the economic hardship heightened during the pandemic has increased women and children's vulnerabilities to violence at home. Being unemployed makes women financially dependent and more susceptible to domestic violence and intimate partner violence (IPV). According to OECD (2020), women in developing countries such as Indonesia are more vulnerable to job and income loss, which in turn exposes them to greater risks of confinement and economic insecurity, which are high exacerbating factors to GBV. The lack of financial empowerment affected by the loss of jobs makes it even more difficult for women to prevent abusive relationships, especially during crises where many sources of income are cut loose (UN Women, 2021a).

In addition, male unemployment due to the pandemic has also increased IPV, particularly physical abuse consequent to financial and psychological stressors. A study conducted by Bhalotra et al. (2019) has demonstrated evidence showing links between increased physical violence against women associated with male unemployment. Many have suggested that such a link can be attributed to gender social norms and the household's cultural context of power dynamics in the household (Awungafac et al., 2021; Tur-Prats, 2017; Anderberg et al., 2013). In a society with strong patriarchal values like Indonesia, feelings of inadequacy and emasculation can rise from unemployment as men feel failure in their ability to fulfill the traditional role as the family's breadwinner. It often leads to violence and abuse, targeting their partners and children in response to psychological and emotional stress (Awungafac et al., 2021). For instance, among a plethora of case

studies conducted, the research was undertaken by Tur-Prats (2017) in Spain has shown that in a setting of nuclear family tradition (social norm prescribing men as the primary breadwinner of the family), male unemployment is associated with the increase in IPV.

As the pandemic continues to create and increase emotional stressors in households, the risks of IPV and domestic violence also heighten. A survey carried out by East Asia and Pacific Gender Innovation Lab in 2020 found that 83% of the Indonesian respondents reported an increase in IPV in their community due to COVID-19, with household food insecurity among the strongest predictors of exposure to GBV (Halim et al., 2020). The disruption of livelihoods and the decrease in income will reduce access to basic needs and increase food insecurity, subsequently adding more tension in the household and potentially increasing conflicts and violence. Awungafac et al. (2021) have reported that the link between food insecurity and the increase in forms of GBV such as IPV perpetration at home stems from anxiety and depression that arise from concerns about the availability of livelihoods related to poverty and unemployment, secure access to health services, which are expected to increase because of the current pandemic. Such impact is significantly worse for societies already living below the poverty line.

2. Double-Edged Sword: Quarantines and Social Isolation

The pandemic's safety measures, such as the lockdowns and movement restrictions aimed at containing the spread of the virus, are some of the significant sources exacerbating the risks of GBV. The UNFPA estimates that, globally, in every three months of lockdown, an additional 15 million cases of GBV will be expected (UNFPA, 2020). Forced quarantines and isolation measures risk increasing GBV cases by advancing women and children's daily exposure to potential perpetrators. The risk is further intensified with the economic hardship due to COVID-19. The isolation measures added with unemployment as part of the pandemic's repercussions could result in perpetrators' more violent behaviors (Usta et al., 2021). Reports worldwide have recorded emerging patterns of increased violence and women experiencing

violence for the first time from their partners (Bami et al., 2020; Taub, 2020). The survey carried out by the Jakarta Feminist Association (2021) unveiled that 22% of their respondents have reported experiencing violence for the first time during the pandemic. Not only does the crisis increase the number of GBV cases, but it also increases their frequency and intensity. The increased stress and tension the pandemic is building in households, especially during lockdowns, is causing more women to be at greater risk of augmented violence and aggression. Under lockdowns, the perpetrators are more likely to be put on edge situations and may use violence to vent frustration (Harvey et al., 2013). It is also more likely to occur given the lack of access to usual stress-relieving mechanisms as they are closed during the pandemic. Furthermore, in light of physical distancing regulations, the disruption of general services and the irregularity of service provision have made victims of GBV more restricted, particularly in their ability to seek safety—including to escape, report, or seek support.

The pandemic and the subsequent current health measures to curb the pandemic from mobility restrictions, physical distancing, lockdown, and quarantine restrictions have also disrupted the availability and accessibility of various essential services for victims of GBV. As a result, the available information on services and the means to access them are limited. It may extend the suffering of victims who are forced to accept their situation given the lack of access and information to services that are essential in supporting them. Moreover, the lack of preparedness for the pandemic response and resource shortage, particularly technological facilities, have caused operational disruption of services for survivors of violence. UN Women (2020) has reported that survivors in various countries, especially Afghanistan, Cambodia, and Indonesia, have difficulties accessing shelters, helplines, and psychosocial services as these services are either closed or operate irregularly.

The health measures such as lockdown and movement restrictions also make it more difficult for the government or organizations to provide support and reach out to survivors. Yayasan Pulih –an association providing psychological support and services for victims

of domestic violence in Indonesia– has attested that throughout the COVID-19 period, it has been challenging to offer psychological support to victims of domestic violence as they are isolated from the systems providing to help them. Komnas Perempuan (2021a) also highlighted the difficulty in the process as, during the pandemic, the victims have brought negative COVID-19 tests to come and report, which may become additional constraints for victims and survivors to report their cases. In addition to the impeding quarantine measures, the financial impact of COVID-19 also potentially affects the frequency and capacity of local organizations to provide support for victims of GBV as well as in their advocacy for policy reforms. Local civil society organizations providing services essential for victims of violence have limited capacities and resources to deliver remote or online services.

The potential risk of virus infection has also forced a few GBV prevention and response services to be suspended or even closed. Although GBV service channels have taken the means to have digital and online services, victims of GBV in rural areas or without access to technological facilities may not be able to seek support. Taking into consideration the existing gender digital divide, the magnitude of this problem is furthered as many women and girls in many developing and underdeveloped countries may not have the capacity or access to mobile phones, computers, or internet access that would facilitate them in reaching for help through online services in times quarantine (UN Women, 2021b). Women and girls in many contexts often have less access than men and boys to the internet or other forms of technology, consequently impairing their ability to access remote services. Based on this fact, the issue is even more complex as risks would be further compounded in the cases of women and girls living in households affected by GBV. Perpetrators would likely limit the victims' access to various technology forms.

3. The Pandemic and the Rise of Gender-Based Cyber Violence

As the pandemic continues to wreak havoc, the world has become increasingly reliant on the digital world. With the increased use of

digital platforms, especially during lockdowns, emerging data and reports have witnessed the rise in gender-based cyber violence (GBCV). Komnas Perempuan (2021a) presented in its annual report that during COVID-19, GBCV cases in domestic violence increased by 920%, from only 35 cases in 2019 to 329 cases in 2020. In addition, complaints and reports of GBCV on social media have risen from only 126 cases in 2019 to 510 cases in 2020. Forms of reported GBCV are diverse and are mainly carried out by people known to victims, such as partners and/or ex-partners. The breadth of access in cyberspace also allows other parties to become perpetrators of such violence, such as friends, social media followers, or strangers. Komnas Perempuan also reported that the forms of violence vary from psychological, sexual, economic, or even all at once. The surge in GBCV cases highlights the emergence of new patterns of violence, which were triggered and intensified by the pandemic and its repercussions. Despite the gender digital divide, women and girls are still subject to online violence in various forms, such as physical threats, exposure to unsolicited pornographic content, revenge porn, and zoom-bombing. The impacts of cyber violence have been widely documented, with most being associated with psychological, social, and reproductive health impacts. The victims are exposed to experiencing higher levels of anxiety, stress disorders, panic attacks, and depression. These feelings are intensified and exacerbated in the context of the pandemic with additional sources of stress elements (UN Women, 2021b).

Despite the overwhelming evidence from reports and studies worldwide that the number of GBV cases has risen during the pandemic, it is essential to highlight that the current data present are most likely underestimating the real GBV cases and the magnitude of the issue. It is to be expected that, especially with all the limitations during the pandemic, many victims and survivors of gender-based violence do not report or may not be able to report to police, helplines, or other service providers. As previously discussed, the pandemic has increased the risks of GBV and the barriers to seeking support. The annual report from Komnas Perempuan (2021b) confirms this notion.

The report shows that the number of cases reported in 2020 decreased by 31%. Such a figure does not reflect the decrease in GBV cases but illustrates how the pandemic has furthered the shadow around gender-based violence. The sudden and inevitable changes as the pandemic's repercussions have forced various changes in the service provision system, particularly in gathering reports and reaching out to victims. Furthermore, various health measures curbing the virus, such as lockdowns and mobility restrictions, lack of technological resources, lack of digital literacy, and inaccessibility to online services, have contributed to the obtainment of an inaccurate number of cases and reports. Hence, in addition to mitigating the risks of GBV, it is also imperative to enhance reporting schemes that can adapt to times of crisis, such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

D. Prevention and Mitigation Framework

The urgency to address the issue of GBV is unequivocal, and the repercussions of the pandemic have made it abundantly clear that counter policies and actions are more than ever indispensable. However, complexities may arise considering the capacity of critical stakeholders, particularly the governments, social service providers, and non-governmental organizations in crisis settings. During crises, funds are limited and are most likely not prioritized for cases of GBV. Countries severely affected by the pandemic have available sources such as the health systems and national social services diverted to respond to COVID-19 cases, which lessen resources available for addressing GBV. As discussed above, the global economic impact of the virus outbreak has also taken its toll on the provision of services for various organizations to GBV victims and survivors. Subsequently, existing approaches in responding to cases of GBV may likely be disrupted in areas severely affected by the outbreak. Therefore, it is imperative and urgent to react to the shadow pandemic — gender-based violence — amid the COVID-19 pandemic with adaptative measures.

The advocacy for GBV prevention and risk mitigation in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic has come strongly from UN

Women and various international, national, and local organizations. In general, they have focused prominently on three areas: 1) bolstering the response services system for GBV victims and survivors; 2) enhancing prevention efforts targeting root causes of violence; and finally, 3) mitigating risks of GBV. Considering the vital link between crises and surge in GBV cases, the government must ensure available — if not increased availability and accessibility of service provision and improve the quality of responses. Such services include outreach centers, response hotlines, case management, temporary shelter, urgent medical care, and other forms of support to meet the needs of the victims and survivors. The UN Women (2020) has proposed the expansion of capacities for shelters and increasing staff or temporary operations. Considering the increased risk of IPV and domestic violence within the context of COVID-19, service providers should also ensure support channel for victims whose access to support are likely to be restricted by perpetrators. Similarly, considering the unprecedented nature of COVID-19, service provisions should also reach those situated in remote areas and may not have available facilities and resources for digital services. The government and local organizations should also ensure that information regarding available services and mechanisms for seeking help during the pandemic are widely disseminated throughout relevant networks.

As the pandemic has put socio-economic inequalities in the spotlight and their gender dimensions, enhancing GBV prevention approaches are required to address the root causes of violence and discrimination. There are various substantial contributions to such preventative work. The UN has recommended strengthening the advocacy and engagement of different actors to address GBV during COVID-19. Strong advocacy on the increased GBV cases during COVID-19 can help bring the spotlight to the issue and, therefore, pressure the policymakers and authorities to act and bring awareness to society. Formal and informal education is crucial in developing and strengthening social norms against inequality, discrimination, and violence. Raising awareness and sharing information regarding GBV cases through social media is highly lucrative in the context

of the pandemic. Media plays a vital role in portraying respectful and equal relationships and gradually altering harmful social norms. Integrating programs against gender-based violence into long-term pandemic preparedness should also be considered.

Alongside response and prevention efforts, GBV risk mitigation is highly imperative. Mitigation intervention helps reduce exposure to GBV and ensures the response action and services cause no harm or even increase the risk of violence (Inter Agency Standing Committee, 2015). The unique dimensions of the COVID-19 pandemic have significantly increased the exposure of victims or potential victims to perpetrators. Lockdown and quarantine measures implemented to curb the virus have forced victims to stay at home in close range with the perpetrator and limited their options to seek safety. As the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) (2020) estimated that violence increases by 20% during lockdown periods, it is more than necessary to have GBV risk mitigation applied across sectors ranging from health, food security, education, and the economy. Standard risk mitigation measures should be developed to adapt and fit the COVID-19 context (Sharma et al., 2021).

The Inter Agency Standing Committee (2020) has developed GBV risk mitigation strategies adapted to the current COVID-19 pandemic. The document presents GBV risk mitigation actions based on established good practices adapted to the unprecedented COVID-19 outbreak. For instance, food distribution can be implemented as mitigation efforts considering increased food insecurity during the pandemic. Moreover, food distribution can be used as an entry point for proactively disseminating information on available GBV services. Similarly, livelihood or cash programming can also serve as an important risk mitigation strategy, particularly during economic fallout throughout the outbreak. It also serves as a medium for information dissemination on GBV response services and feedback on safe and accessible assistance. Another important mitigation strategy is the establishment of Risk Communication and Community Engagement (RCCE). Such establishments must employ women and girls at their

core, particularly in planning and conducting outbreak surveillance. Provision of information and socialization on various "red flags" that may lead up to GBV in multiple forms, including online exploitation and harassment, is also a strategy to mitigate the risks of GBV. Integrating GBV risk mitigation into COVID-19 response measures with GBV prevention and response is crucial to effectively address the double pandemic (Sharma et al., 2021).

The following will lay out the past and present development and efforts by the national government and relevant organizations in tackling the GBV cases during the pandemic. It explores and assesses the existing tools, strategies, and measures that have been put in place to prevent and mitigate the GBV in the outbreak of Covid-19.

1. **Indonesia: National and Local Framework against Gender-Based Violence**

Indonesia has shown its national commitment to fight against GBV. The 2020–2024 National Midterm Development Plan (*Rencana Pembangunan Jangka Menengah Nasional*/RPJMN) places gender equity as a strategic issue needing to be mainstreamed. One of the four indicators mentioned in determining the gender equality issues in Indonesia is reducing the number of GBV, especially VAW. In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, the Indonesian government has quickly recognized the shadow pandemic of GBV and reacted to it. It is evident in the issuance of regulation from Indonesia's Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Children Protection (*Kementerian Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Perlindungan Anak*/KPPPA) No. 13 in 2020, explicitly addressing women and children's protection from gender-based violence in times of disaster such as the COVID-19. The regulation considers that women and children are particularly vulnerable to violence, including GBV, in times of crisis, and therefore the law aims to protect them. The regulation itself is based on a few principles, including 1) gender-responsive — service providers must be gender-sensitive when analyzing GBV issues in times of disaster; 2) non-discriminating — every woman and children have the right

to access GBV-related services; 3) mutual respect and equality; 4) confidential; 5) secure and comfort; 6) diversity; 7) non-judgmental; 8) sensitive to victims' background; 9) swift and straightforward in responses; and 10) empathy. The ministerial regulation is intended as a reference for relevant ministries and government agencies, local governments, and the community in protecting GBV during a disaster. While it is unclear how the regulation has been implemented, considering the lack of publication, the issuance of the regulation shows Indonesia's strong commitment to addressing the double pandemic, recognizing the issue of GBV in light of the outbreak (KPPPA, 2020).

On the other hand, the long-overdue legislative process of the Elimination of Sexual Violence Bill (*Rancangan Undang-Undang Penghapusan Kekerasan Seksual*/RUU PKS) has added another dimension to the battle against GBV in Indonesia. The bill has been proposed for almost a decade, and the fight for its legitimation as a legally binding tool to protect women in Indonesia against sexual violence has been a long tardy battle. The bill is imperative as it recognizes different types of sexual violence and protects victims by criminalizing the perpetrators. Moreover, the bill itself focuses not only on protecting the victims legally but also on supporting their healing process. Hence, with the most recent development presenting victory through the bill's enactment by Indonesia in April 2022, Indonesia has proved significant progress and accomplishment in its combat against GBV (DPR RI, 2022).

In addition to the legal tool, the KPPPA and UNFPA developed a protocol for handling cases of violence against women during the pandemic. The protocol has initially been implemented by the Integrated Service Center for Women and Children Empowerment (*Pusat Pelayanan Terpadu Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Anak*/P2TP2A) in the capital together with Yayasan Pulih and the Service Provider Forum (*Forum Pengada Layanan*). After the initial implementation, the protocol was modified and refined and became the national reference protocol for all service institutions at the provincial, city, and district levels, particularly in dealing with victims of GBV during the

COVID-19 pandemic with appropriate health measures and protocols (KPPPA, 2021). The protocol covers eight main areas focusing on response measures for GBV victims. For instance, within the protocol package, there is a protocol for complaints of GBV during the pandemic, a protocol regarding the provision of assistance services, protocols for referrals to health services and shelters for victims of GBV as well as protocols for psychosocial services, legal consultation, legal process assistance and finally protocols for victim rescue. The advocacy against GBV focuses on three pillars of action: response, prevention, and risk mitigation.

However, current national protocols addressing GBV during the pandemic lack the second and third pillars. Indeed, the protocol is very detailed in spelling out the guiding procedures for GBV response and service provision during COVID-19. While this is progressive and expeditious, it is insufficient. Preventive and mitigation efforts are crucial in the battle against GBV, especially during pandemics and future disasters. Furthermore, since the protocol is not legally binding to regional governments and only serves as a reference, it is either unclear or not mentioned whether it is widely implemented and correctly evaluated.

2. NGOs in Indonesia: Battling Gender-Based Violence in the Pandemic Time

The most pervasive yet least visible human rights violation globally requires collaborative work and strategies to respond, reduce, prevent, and mitigate the risk of GBV in Indonesia. In this case, NGOs play an essential role in addressing the problem of GBV, particularly in the sectors the government has failed to fulfill. NGOs have contributed to fighting against GBV through various ways such as advocacy, education and training, and direct assistance for the victims. As we have seen in the previous section, the pandemic has brought wide-ranging socio-economic consequences that exacerbate the existing conditions of gendered violence in Indonesia. The pandemic also forced people to adjust their ways of life, especially when lockdown and social

restrictions were put in place. Due to the pandemic, people's mobility is restricted, and many essential services had to shift their operational measures. The need to address the pandemic's effect on GBV is abundantly clear. However, the capacity of the actors—governments, non-government organizations, and social service providers—is much more complex. This section discusses the role of NGOs as one of the essential actors in fighting against GBV and the challenges they must face amid the pandemic.

Before the pandemic, unreported GBV cases were already an issue in Indonesia. As mentioned briefly, heteropatriarchy norms become barriers to services and resources for victims to access justice. The pandemic provides additional challenges as many countries do not recognize GBV prevention and response as essential (Oxfam, 2021). In some cases, the existing GBV programs or service provisions, such as shelters or safe spaces, were converted into COVID-19 response centers, further reducing the already limited availability of GBV services (CARE 2020). Furthermore, this condition affects the victims and the service providers—mostly women's rights organizations. A survey conducted by Oxfam (2021) of over 200 Women's Rights Organizations across 38 countries shows that 33% of these organizations had to lay off between one to ten staff members, and 9% of organizations have had to close their services. The same report revealed that pandemic provides significant challenges as they have to face significant funding cuts, operational problems, and mental health struggles for their staff (Oxfam, 2021). Such a condition is not ideal for the victim, particularly when they need help more than before.

In Indonesia, many women's organizations assist with services related to violence against women. For instance, an NGO network forum called the Forum of Service Providers for Women Victims of Violence (*Forum Pengada Layanan bagi Perempuan Korban Kekerasan/* FPL) consists of 112 members across 32 provinces in Indonesia. FPL members work in various forms of service for victims of violence, such as case handling, referrals, legal assistance, and shelters for the victims. However, the pandemic has significantly changed their services as

they have to shift from offline to an online system. In addition, many organizations and institutions such as KPPPA, Rifka Annisa, Yayasan Pulih, and others provide a helpline number for victims of GBV. As described in the previous section, this service is vital to respond to the increase of GBV cases enabled by the pandemic. However, the online service also does not come without a cost. Rifka Annisa, an Indonesian women's crisis center working on violence against women, confirms the challenging situation of the pandemic, particularly in providing online services for victims. There are various challenges with this system, such as the questions on how to provide a safe online environment for clients/victims, ensure accessibility for clients/victims, and most importantly, how to address the increase of reports despite the limited staff or resources in the organization (Rifka Annisa, 2020). On the other hand, Rifka Annisa still provides direct assistance in the form of shelter. However, they must ensure that the shelter abides by the health protocol requirements from the government. In other words, these NGOs must adapt quickly to be operational and ensure that the victims can access immediate help when needed.

Furthermore, in response to the increase in gender-based cyber violence, many organizations also provide specific assistance to help the victims of this type of violence. For instance, SAFEnet, an organization focusing on digital rights in Southeast Asia, launched *Awas KBGO* (Beware of gender-based cyber violence) in 2018. This initiative focuses on providing services such as assistance and accompaniment if victims want to report their experience to a digital platform and a consultation service on privacy and digital rights to prevent GBCV. Unfortunately, similar to the physical violence, victims of GBCV also have to face difficulties in seeking justice. According to SAFEnet, there are few reasons behind this situation. First, Indonesia does not have a law regulating GBCV (Putri et al., 2021). Second, lack of capability from police officers and its institution infrastructure in handling GBCV, primarily when the violence is conducted by anonym accounts (SAFEnet, 2021). Therefore, these NGOs have limited capability to assist the victims as they rarely receive the justice due to the absence of regulation. Nevertheless, organizations such as SAFEnet are actively

advocating for the protection against GBCV. They also regularly publish guidelines on issues related to GBCV on their websites, such as how to respond to threats and legal aspects to sue the perpetrator to give a capacity-building for people and the public in general.

To conclude this section, it can be said that the crisis brought by the COVID-19 pandemic has increased the complexity of addressing the issue of GBV. The core problem comes from the limited availability of services that respond to GBV. The economic impact of the outbreak has pushed governments to divert their priorities to several essential sectors but neglect GBV cases. As a result, many organizations lack government funding and support, which affects their operational activities. In addition, the national and local legal framework against GBV is still far from sufficient in protecting the victims. This condition has put a significant constraint on the NGOs aiding GBV victims because, despite the limitation, they must quickly adapt internally and externally to ensure that the victims are not neglected and receive the help they need.

E. Conclusion

Gender-based violence is a human rights concern. People who experience GBV suffer from different human rights violations, from the right to freedom from torture and degrading treatment, the right to safety and security, and the right to life. The global pandemic has further worsened the situation as it brings many socio-economic issues such as loss of jobs, psychological stress, and the double-edged sword effect of quarantine restrictions in making the violence against women intensify. Furthermore, as the government must quickly respond to the outbreak to secure its healthcare system and economic situation in the country, often—if not always—GBV responses must be put aside from their focus, limiting the availability of services for victims when they suffer from violence. Women, once again, must be marginalized during a crisis.

Indonesia is not an exception to such circumstances. As presented in this chapter, various reports made by organizations working on

violence against women show concerning numbers with the increase of GBV reports since 2020. This situation has called for an improvement in the quality of responses. However, it takes a collaborative effort from all actors—state and non-state—to reduce GBV. Non-state actors such as NGOs should continue to push the authorities to fulfill their duties to protect their citizens from any form of violence. This advocacy can also serve as an education platform for the public regarding GBV and the ways to mitigate them, exemplified by SAFEnet through its advocacy of gender-based cyber violence. However, the most critical tool to provide justice for the victims of GBV is through a legal framework.

The absence of laws and regulations to protect and provide justice for the victims is a huge barrier in the fight against GBV in Indonesia. The existing law is insufficient to protect the victims because Indonesia has been charging the perpetrators under the Criminal Code, the legacy of colonial legislation, which in many cases is not sufficient to accommodate the current needs and condition of violence against women in Indonesia. In addition, without such a legal framework, many victims must suffer a humiliating experience when reporting their situation to the authorities because the law officers do not demonstrate the capability to handle GBV cases. In other words, the unavailability of a legal framework to protect victims of violence is a form of negligence and a violation of women's rights as citizens. While it has been a tremendous accomplishment and a great milestone for Indonesia that the RUU PKS has been recently issued, the need to guide its effective implementation remains more critical than ever. With its passing and implementation, the law would prevent the victims' criminalization and prohibit law enforcement from degrading the victims as they were freed from the responsibility to provide evidence for their cases. With the state's protection through legal tools and support from various non-state actors, the victims would finally be able to receive justice for themselves.

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Chapter 7

Between Care Work and Academic Work: Indonesian Female Academics' Experience during COVID-19 Pandemic

Muhammad Ammar Hidayahtulloh

A. COVID-19, Gender and Academia

The COVID-19 pandemic and its policy responses have differently impacted men and women globally. Women are more vulnerable to the social and economic impacts of the pandemic (United Nations, 2020). These impacts include reduced economic income, limited access to sexual and reproductive health services, increased unpaid care work, and gender-based violence (United Nations, 2020; Hidayahtulloh, 2021). Regrettably, women's organizations across Europe and Central Asia reported that women and girls are widely excluded from the COVID-19 recovery responses (UN Women, 2020).

The Indonesian government officially announced the first case of COVID-19 on March 2, 2020. In responding to the national health crisis caused by the pandemic, President Joko Widodo (known as

M. A. Hidayahtulloh
The University of Queensland, Australia, e-mail: m.hidayatulloh@uqconnect.edu.au

Jokowi) introduced Large Scale Social Restrictions (*Pembatasan Sosial Berskala Besar*/PSBB) on March 31, 2020 (Cabinet Secretariat, 2020). Since then, Indonesian women have faced more significant social and economic consequences of the pandemic than men. For example, 83% of 4,144 Indonesian migrant workers who returned home in April 2020 were women (MoWECP Indonesia, 2020). Furthermore, the National Commission on Violence Against Women (*Komisi Nasional Anti Kekerasan Terhadap Perempuan*/Komnas Perempuan) reported a significant increase in the number of complaints concerning domestic violence (Komnas Perempuan, 2021). Many have associated the increase in gender-based violence with the lockdown measure imposed by the government. This situation demonstrates that the pandemic has widened pre-existing gender inequalities, and its policy responses have reproduced other forms of gender inequalities.

This chapter focuses on a particular group of women who are often overlooked in policy developments: women in academia. The literature on gender (in)equality in academia has shown that although women have made tremendous progress in higher education and are now acquiring more degrees than men, they remain underrepresented in academic leadership positions (Fitzgerald, 2014; Alcalde & Subramaniam, 2020; Farmer, 2022). At the time of the pandemic, recent studies have found that the pandemic has forced female faculty to 'face a short-term reorganization of care and work time' (Minello, 2020). More importantly, the pandemic also impacted their academic productivity, which in the long run, could affect their careers (Yildirim & Elsen-Ziya, 2020). It is reported that women academics have submitted fewer academic articles during the COVID-19 crisis, while the submission from their male counterparts has increased up to 50% (Frederickson, 2020; Kitchener, 2020; Squazzoni et al., 2021).

In this chapter, I explore the experience of female academics in Indonesia in navigating the impact of the pandemic after the PSBB was put in place. To do so, I draw upon my previous research conducted between March and May 2020, when the first wave of COVID-19 hit Indonesia. The research from which this chapter is

derived employed a feminist methodology (Hesse-Biber, 2015) and used a mix-method approach (Hodgkin, 2008; Jenskin et al., 2019), combining both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. To collect data, I conducted online surveys and an online group discussion. Online survey questions were designed to investigate the gendered nature of work (both care work and academic work) and to understand how policy responses to the COVID-19 pandemic (in this case, the PSBB) affect Indonesian female academics. There were 110 survey responses from Indonesian female academics with diverse backgrounds regarding of their ages, marital and parental statuses, geographical locations, and types of home organizations (public universities, private universities, and research institutes). Meanwhile, an online group discussion was conducted to understand how Indonesian female academics felt or thought about their experience during the pandemic. The discussion also explored the tension between care work and academic work and the hindrance to the career advancement of Indonesian female academics. There were 13 female academic respondents participated in the online focus group. Throughout this chapter, the respondents' identities are pseudonymized (i.e., P1, P2, P3…P13).

Two important insights can be learned from this chapter by exploring the pandemic's impact on female academics in Indonesia. First, the pandemic has increased the tension between care work and academic work among Indonesian female academics. Second, the pandemic has exacerbated female academics' challenges in advancing their career. It is argued in this chapter that while these gender inequalities existed even before the pandemic due to the pervasive patriarchal culture in Indonesian society, the PSBB imposed by the government has reproduced other forms of gender inequalities among Indonesian female academics. This policy measure has resulted in their reorganization of work (between care work and academic work) at home, increasing their care work responsibilities and decreasing academic productivity.

The remainder of this chapter is structured into five sections. Firstly, it reviews relevant literature by engaging with the existing feminist literature on care work and the studies on gender (in)equality in academia before and during the pandemic. The second and third sections discuss the diverse experience of Indonesian female academics during the COVID-19 pandemic based on the responses to online survey questions and focus groups. Then it is followed by a discussion on how the PSBB has reproduced gender inequalities among Indonesian female academics. Lastly, the conclusion highlights the contribution of this chapter and presents a critical reflection on what we can do to mitigate the gendered impacts of the pandemic on Indonesian female academics.

B.   Care Work and Gender (In)equality in Academia

In this section, I draw upon West and Zimmerman's (1987) seminal work entitled 'Doing Gender' and engage with feminist scholarship on care work and gender (in)equality in academia before and during the pandemic. This chapter considers the concept of 'doing gender' relevant to understanding care work and the division of labor. West and Zimmerman (1987, p. 126) defined doing gender as involving "a complex of socially guided perceptual, interactional, and micropolitical activities that cast particular pursuits as expressions of masculine and feminine natures." In a patriarchal society where men with their masculinity subordinate women with their femininity, care work has always been associated with women. The women's traditional gender roles naturalize care work as women's moral duties towards their families (Folbre, 2011). In this context, 'doing gender' at home for women in a patriarchal society is to do care work as it is a legitimate way of being a woman. If women fail to perform care work or do gender appropriately, they as individuals—not the patriarchal system—may be called to account. In this context, feminist literature on care work defines *care* as "a specific gendered practice that is based on gender norms and manifests in the asymmetrical distribution of paid and unpaid work between men and women" (Schmitt et al., 2016, p. 2).

With this in mind, Kabeer (2016) argued that (paid and unpaid) care work is linked with the existing capitalist economic system and continues to disadvantage women. In a similar vein, Agenjo-Calderón and Gálvez-Muñoz (2019) argued that unpaid care work and domestic labor, which women predominantly undertake, are embedded in the capitalist system of reproduction. They lead to gender inequality in the labor market and the gender pay gap. Therefore, feminist economists advocate the reconceptualization of the economy and put the care economy at the center of theorization (Schmitt et al., 2016). The recognition, reduction, and redistribution of unpaid care work are crucial to addressing the gender employment gap and gender pay gap (Elson, 2017).

In the context of Indonesia, the New Order era successfully engineered women's traditional gender roles as self-sacrificing, submissive wives and mothers, which Suryakusuma (1987) termed 'State Ibuism.' State Ibuism is a gender state ideology through which the notion of *kodrat wanita* (women's ideal/nature) was propagated (Suryakusuma, 1987; Wieringa, 2003). It normatively regulates women to submit to their husbands as wives and mothers, characterized by unpaid care work. Although the New Order era ended more than two decades ago, the legacy of State Ibuism remains evident in Indonesian society (Suryakusuma 2012; Wieringa 2015).

Considered women's nature, unpaid care work is a reality for Indonesian women, including those working in formal sectors, public services, and academia. However, it has been argued that women's unpaid care work becomes one of the barriers to women's career advancement in public services (McLaren et al., 2019). Similarly, female academics, particularly in science departments, face a dilemma in choosing their career over family responsibilities, leading to their underrepresentation in senior academic and full professor positions (Monroe et al., 2008). Although the gender gap between male and female academics is relatively tiny in Indonesia, 55.8% and 44.2%, respectively (Pusdatin Kemenristekdikti Indonesia, 2018), Kholis (2012) found that Indonesian female academics are widely underrepresented

in managerial and leadership positions. Additionally, female professors only accounted for 15% of the total professors in Indonesia. Kholis (2017) argued that female faculty face several barriers in advancing their careers: family-related barriers, including family responsibilities (care work) and spousal restriction, and organizational-related barriers, including gender bias and discrimination.

Since the World Health Organization (WHO) declared that the COVID-19 pandemic is a global pandemic, extensive research has examined its gendered impacts. While the UN (2020) reported the disproportionate impacts of the pandemic on women, resulting in widening gender inequalities, Alon et al.'s (2020) preliminary study argued that the crisis of COVID-19 may eventually promote gender equality in the labor market. In their argument, the potential long-term implementation of flexible working arrangements in business sectors and the increased fathers' role in childcare at home as many fathers work from home may close the unequal division of labor in domestic work and childcare.

However, Alon et al.'s (2020) findings were not corroborated in the recent scholarship on gender (in)equality in academia during the pandemic (Chitsamatanga & Malinga, 2021; Das et al., 2021; Minello et al., 2021; Ipe et al., 2021; Parlak et al., 2021; Pereira, 2021; Squazzoni et al., 2021; Yildirim & Eslen-Ziya, 2021). Sutherland et al. (2021) found that the development of many universities' COVID-19 policy responses in Australia has given little attention to the gendered dynamics of the crises. The pandemic and gender-blind policy responses from academic institutions resulted in the widening gender inequalities in academia. The emerging literature in this field found that the most reported challenge for female academics is incompatibly demanding domestic duties and professional responsibilities. Consequently, their academic productivity—often measured by the number of publications—decreases significantly compared to male academics (Ipe et al., 2021; Parlak et al., 2021; Squazzoni et al., 2021). Moreover, academic mothers experienced more severe impacts of the pandemic as they must take on more childcare duties (Minello

et al., 2021; Yildirim & Eslen-Ziya, 2021). It is further impacted by new online learning modes that require academics to adapt to the new system and prepare online teaching materials (Chitsamatanga & Malinga, 2021). Other challenges facing female academics as the potential consequences of the pandemic are mental health issues and difficulties in advancing their future careers (Das et al., 2021). These studies linked the impacts of the pandemic on female academics with lockdown or social restriction policies that resulted in the closure of childcare services and the impossibility of benefiting from informal care.

Despite the increasing number of research revealing the severe impacts of the pandemic on female academics, Pereira (2021) reminded gender scholars to be more careful in conducting research on gender (in)equality in academia by not reproducing some problematic assumptions about gender and academic work. She also highlighted many possibilities on how the pandemic can help us imagine and transform the new normal of academic labor. Miller (2021), through her reflection from the lens of the ethics of care, elaborated on how the pandemic has enabled her to positively develop caring relationships at home and reallocate her time for household responsibilities. Similarly, another female academic saw the potential of the pandemic to harness self-compassion and create resistance against the existing neoliberal universities (Newcomb, 2021). Meanwhile, Arnold (2020) described that creative writing had become a cathartic exercise for academics during the pandemic as the members of this community of practice engaged personally and professionally with one another in more meaningful ways.

By building on this literature, this chapter explores how Indonesian female academics experience the first pandemic wave during the PSBB by focusing on these two questions: (1) Does the PSBB increase the tension between care work and academic work among Indonesian female academics? (2) Does the PSBB further hinder the future career advancement of Indonesian female academics?

C.   Indonesian Female Academics and COVID-19 Pandemic

In this section, I will show that Indonesian female academics have diversely experienced the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. To do so, this section discusses the online survey responses from 110 Indonesian female academic respondents to explore whether the PSBB increases the tension between care work and academic work among Indonesian female academics and whether it further hinders their future career advancement. Regarding the first question, I operationalize the conflict between care work and academic work among the Indonesian female academics by looking at the recognition and redistribution of care work in households and the perception and experience of the respondents in performing their academic work when working from home during the PSBB. It is important to note that the term "care work" in this chapter describes both domestic works and caring for children, the elderly, and other dependents in households. The online survey responses on the tension between care work and academic work among Indonesian female academic respondents are presented in Figure 7.1.
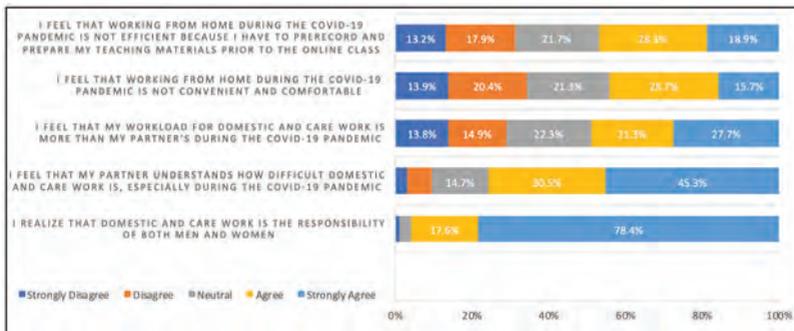
Figure 7.1 The Tension Between Care Work and Academic Work Among Indonesian Female Academics

From Figure 7.1, almost all respondents (96%) recognized that care work is the responsibility of both men and women. Similarly,

respondents generally agreed (30.5%) and strongly agreed (45.3%) that their partners understand how difficult care work is, particularly during the pandemic. However, despite the recognition of care work, the redistribution of care work remains a challenge. While 28.7% of respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed that they have more workload for care work than their partner's, almost half of the respondents (49% agreed and strongly agreed combined) claimed the opposite. This number resonated with a significant number of respondents (44.4%) who agreed and strongly agreed that working from home as an academician during the pandemic is not convenient and comfortable. However, 34.3% of them disagreed and strongly disagreed. Additionally, nearly half of the respondents (47.2%) agreed and strongly agreed that working from home is inefficient because they have to prerecord and prepare the materials beforehand. Most of these respondents were those who felt the inconvenience and discomfort of working from home.

The second question focuses on whether the PSBB further hinders the career advancement of female academics in Indonesia. Three different yet overlapping factors relevant to female academics' career advancement are considered in this chapter: academic productivity (i.e., teaching, research, and engagement), the capacity to write academic articles, and the adaptability of using technological tools, considering that technology has become an essential instrument in learning and teaching delivery during the pandemic. The online survey responses on the hindrance to female academics' career advancement are presented in Figure 7.2.
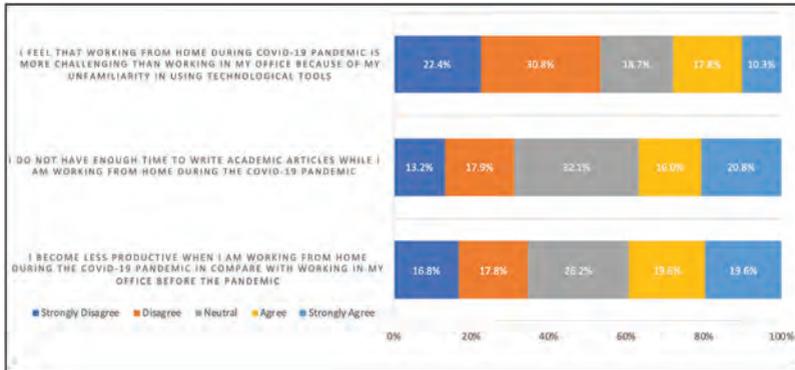
Figure 7.2 Hindrance to Career Advancement Among Indonesian Female Academics

As illustrated in Figure 7.2, it can be identified that, regarding the academic productivity of female academics, 39.2% of respondents agreed and strongly agreed that they are less productive when working from home during the pandemic. Meanwhile, the percentage of respondents who disagreed and strongly disagreed was slightly lower than the former, 34.6%. A similar trend can also be identified regarding female academics' ability to write scholarly articles when working from home. The percentage of respondents who agreed and strongly agreed that they do not have time to produce academic papers was relatively higher than those who disagreed and strongly disagreed, 36.8% and 31.1%, respectively. Meanwhile, regarding the adaptability of using technology to perform their academic work, more than half of respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed (53.2%) that they are unfamiliar with the technology for online teaching, and 28.1% of respondents felt the opposite.

The statistical data presented above provides us with an initial glimpse of how female academics in Indonesia have diversely experienced the pandemic. Generally, the PSBB, which required Indonesian female academics to work from home, has increased tension between care work and academic work despite a high level of partners' recognition of care work values. This gendered experience of Indonesian

female academics during the pandemic corresponds with the existing studies on how the pandemic has increased conflict between care work and academic work among female academics in Turkey (Parlak et al., 2021) and South Africa (Chitsamatanga & Malinga, 2021). In addition, the heightening tension between career and family responsibilities during the pandemic would potentially hinder women's career advancement during the pandemic because it reduces their academic productivity (McLaren et al., 2019; Monroe et al., 2008). It is evident that the pandemic has reduced female academics' productivity, measured by the number of papers submitted to journals and publications (Das et al., 2021; Squazzoni et al., 2021). As Chitsamatanga and Malinga's (2021) study suggests, another reason for their decreased academic productivity during the pandemic is the adoption of new online learning modes. However, among Indonesian female academic respondents, there was a pretty diverse response regarding the use of technology as the primary tool to perform academic work during the pandemic. These diverse responses are potentially caused by the diverse ages and geographical locations of respondents. Indeed, a recent study by the International Telecommunication Union (2016) found that age and geographical location (rural-urban) become essential factors in the gender digital divide. In the following section, I will delve into the diversity of COVID-19 experience among Indonesian female academics.

D.   Understanding the Diversity of COVID-19 Experience among Female Academics

By using insights from the online focus group, this section zooms into the intersection between gender and the diversity of participants' marital and parental status, age, and geographical locations to understand how Indonesian female academics diversely experience the COVID-19 pandemic during the PSBB. Two themes evident in the analysis of the online focus group are presented here: the reorganization of work at home and challenges for academic career advancement. Each of these themes addresses the two questions asked in this chapter.

1. Reorganization of work at home

Most participants reflected that working from home has forced them to face a sudden reorganization of care work and academic work at home. This reorganization of work occurred because, as my interlocutor (P1) explained, academic work and care work are situated in one site: home. She compared her experience with the situation before the pandemic: "…without working from home, everything [care work and academic work] seems manageable. After I finished my work in the office, I returned home. I can do the remaining house chores, which my partners and I did not share." Another participant (P7) expressed that relocating their academic work into their domestic space without having a personal office at home made her experience work-life unbalance during the beginning of the PSBB.

My respondents' experiences re-organizing their work at home during the pandemic vary depending on their marital and parental status and their capacity to employ domestic workers. For example, some married participants claimed that their partners recognize that care work is their shared responsibility due to similar educational and professional backgrounds. However, many shared similar experiences: they had more care work burdens than their spouses. For example, two participants (P2 and P9) expressed in the following way:

> Although my partner knows that domestic work is our responsibility and should be done together, working from home brings our academic work home. Moreover, when working from home, I find it difficult to focus on my academic work because there is always a time when I realize that I still have household responsibilities. (P2)

> I felt exhausted when I first started working from home because I had more work, such as cooking and preparing meals for breakfast, lunch, and dinner, which I was not used to before the pandemic. My spouse and I are not used to having breakfast, and we always have lunch on campus. I only live with my husband, so I occasionally cook because our campus provides food for lunch, and we often bring the food home, so I don't even need to cook for dinner. Now, because the campus is closed, I must automatically spare my time to cook. (P9)

From the previous two stories, I highlight that the pandemic has shaped different realities for academics, particularly women. It can be observed from P2's story demonstrates that academic work before the pandemic was perceived as something distant from, or outside of, their private sphere. Meanwhile, P9's story depicts a more dramatic change in academia's life after the lockdown was put in place. Before the pandemic, she minimally performed women's traditional gender role as a caregiver in her family (i.e., preparing and cooking meals) because other people or institutions (in this context, the university where both she and her husband worked) have compensated the domestic division of labor. Since the PSBB was implemented, the so-called 'new normal' was more about re-enacting traditional gender norms in their family, resulting in the increased amount of (unpaid) care work female academics had to bear.

However, the increased amount of care work they perform varies depending on their marital and parental status. The married respondents who did not have children (P8 and P10) felt less burdened because they did not have children to care for. Meanwhile, academic mothers expressed that they were overwhelmed with the amount of work (care work and academic work) they did at once (P1, P2, P4, P5, and P9). The reorganization of work at home was very challenging for an academic mother who hired a domestic worker before the pandemic. She described her experience in the following way:

> Prior to the pandemic, I employed a domestic worker. Nevertheless, because of the current situation, she returned home. That leads to the dramatic reorganization of work at my home. However, this situation does not change the whole tradition at home. My kids, who usually do their activities outside the house, cannot adapt well to the pandemic when they must stay home because they usually have someone to assist them. Also, my husband is a strict person who assumes that care work is a responsibility of a mother and a wife. (P4)

P4's experience demonstrates entrenched patriarchal norms within family structures in which women's primary role is to be good wives for their husbands and good mothers for their children.

Following her previous story, she added that she felt like a 'public enemy' at home as she did not conform to the norm.

> I feel like I am their public enemy. I always feel under pressure when sharing domestic work with my kids, such as tidying their bedrooms. They are not used to it because our domestic workers usually do it for them. So, they often shout at me… I also feel that I don't get enough appreciation for what I have done at home. I, honestly, can't cook, but since there is no one helping me to cook during the pandemic, I need to do it myself. And knowing that I can't really cook but still do it anyway, a warm appreciation from them like 'the food is yummy' from my family would make me feel comfortable at home. (P4)

The perception of P4 about herself as a public enemy shows that women who fail to conform to the gender norm that has pervasively confined their bodies in a domestic realm would be called to account. Furthermore, she added that even to do her academic work, she expressed that "a gaze from my surroundings simply speaks to me this is home, this is not your office."

However, P4's experience of re-organizing work at home was not shared by another academic mother (P5). For example, P5 shared that performing care work has made her happier.

> Since I work from home, it is not easy to manage my time for academic work because I find it more interesting to cook, clean the house, and teach my kids. However, I am happy psychologically because I am satisfied when the house is clean and everyone at home eats healthy food. I am also happy because I can assist my kids with their studies. I feel that I have achieved something, although it is not for my academic career. (P5)

The diverse experience of academic mothers (P4 and P5) coping with the pandemic shows a need to understand their social trajectories, particularly in navigating between making good parents for their children and performing care work (doing gender) for their families during the PSBB. Another important note on 'doing gender' is demonstrated by the married interlocutor without children (P10). She claimed that she chose to do domestic work instead of trusting her partner to do it due to her upbringing.

While married female academics—with and without children—experienced an increasing burden in care work, the single female academics respondents who lived by themselves generally felt that working from home changed how they performed academic work. However, it did not necessarily increase the amount of care work (P7, P11, P12, P13). P13, for instance, shared that she was unaware of the time when conducting her research at home. The reason for this is, she stated, "there was no time limitation when I work from home as if I was expected to work constantly without taking any breaks." Meanwhile, another single interlocutor (P3) who lived with her parents and siblings claimed that she shared similar experiences with married respondents about the increased amount of care work and believed that care work should also be shared equally among family members.

The main issue shared by most of the respondents, regardless of their marital and parental status, was how re-organizing work at home was stressful and harmful to their mental health. The strategies used by respondents to cope with stress were varied, ranging from exercising in the morning, staying connected with friends, and doing their hobbies such as learning other languages online and online shopping. The following theme discusses how female academic participants feel about the impact of the pandemic on their career advancement.

2. Challenges for academic career advancement

The second theme of the online focus group is challenging academic career advancement. It is also important to highlight how the participants defined their academic careers. For example, one participant (P3) distinguished between academic career (assistant professor, senior lecturer, associate professor, professor) and leadership rank (i.e., head of a department, dean, rector, etc.). P3 described that the former was adversely affected because the progress of academic positions relies upon academic achievements, including conducting research and publishing journal articles. Meanwhile, the latter was challenging to measure, given that acquiring leadership positions requires

long procedural processes. Under this second theme, I particularly highlight the challenges for female academics in advancing their academic positions.

As discussed above, female academics experienced an increased burden in care work and, therefore, reduced academic productivity central to their careers, including those still pursuing their doctorate degrees. P4 expressed this point in the following:

> These care work burdens reduce my productivity as an academic, especially in writing articles. Moreover, I am currently still pursuing my Ph.D., and since working from home, I do not make any progress on my Ph.D. dissertation, not even one page, because I can't focus.

Apart from the increased burden of care work, some respondents (P6, P11, P4, P7, P2) explained how the pandemic dramatically changed how they conducted research and teaching, primarily because of the reduced human interaction and communication and the difficulties in adapting with new technologies.

> The work-from-home policy limits human interaction and communication, significantly affecting our research projects. We designed our fieldwork and were forced to change it into online interviews and desktop research. We experience difficulties using new technologies, which challenges our research project. (P6)

In addition, P11, as a researcher, expressed that the pandemic has changed the research agenda of her home organization to focus more on the pandemic, resulting in the delay of the completion of her main research project. Adding to P6's statement, P4 pointed out that the reduced intensity of face-to-face human interaction and communication among academic colleagues consequently decreases the motivation that she gained from looking at the progress made by her colleagues.

> From my experience so far, I perceive one thing as 'dangerous' when we work from home. It is that we can't see the progress made by our colleagues. As an academic, I need to be physically present in the office

and know what other colleagues are doing to motivate me to continue doing research and improve my capacity. (P4)

On another challenge, which is the difficulties adapting to new technologies, P7 and P2 described their experience when they conducted online teaching.

Because of the pandemic, now teaching and learning processes are moved online. And we, as academics, also must adapt to new technologies. Before the pandemic, e-learning was something that we did flexibly four times in one semester. However, now, it is the current more of teaching. I am not used to operating e-learning features alone, and now I have to do it no matter what. (P7)

I am not a tech-savvy person. So, I have no idea about Zoom or Google Classroom when I need to conduct my class online. Before this pandemic happened, I conducted my class conventionally. It forces me to adapt, and my husband assists me in using these online applications effectively. But, because I live in rural areas in Maluku, having a zoom meeting like this with my students is extremely difficult, considering some of my students have a limited internet connection. Consequently, I do not deliver my materials through video conferences, so I just use Google Classroom to distribute my teaching materials. (P2)

Reflecting on P2's online teaching experience, I highlight the technological divide between men and women and urban and rural areas. Such a divide was also evident during the online focus group because some participants struggled using Zoom due to unfamiliarity with the software and the unstable internet connection.

While these stories show how the pandemic has impacted female academics in conducting their research and teaching and thus hindering career advancement, two participants (P7, P10) shared more positive stories. They shared their story about gaining new skills in operating new technologies and obtaining non-academic opportunities for their development, including attending online workshops and webinars as participants and speakers, calling the pandemic 'a blessing in disguise.'

> The pandemic has told us [academics] how to face the current disruption era of industrial revolution 4.0. that requires us to be technology-savvy and transform the way we teach and do things using technology. It is also needed to know the characteristic of the millennial generation, who are now more and more advanced in operating technologies. (P10)

> For me, there are some positive sides to the pandemic for my career, not in academia. As I am also a trained practitioner and consultant, there are many online learning platforms that I can use to make myself becoming more productive. It is a blessing in disguise. Soft skills, such as technological skills, are something that I gained due to the pandemic. So, I start sharing my knowledge and expertise with other people [the non-academic audience] using these video conference platforms. (P7)

Considering the participants' diversity, the two themes presented above—reorganization of work at home and challenges for academic career advancement—help understand better how Indonesian women in academia experience the pandemic. From here, I found that the experience of female academics in navigating the tension between care work and academic work during the beginning of the pandemic was diverse, with academic mothers as the most affected group and single female academics who live by themselves as the least affected. The implementation of PSBB that required female academics to work from home and the closure of universities and schools has forced female academics to re-organize their work at home. The lockdown re-enacted traditional gender norms, increasing the tension between academic work and care work among female academics, especially those who live with their family members—either the nuclear family or extended family. However, the reorganization of their work was perceived differently by them, entailing their different social trajectories.

I identified that the escalating tension between care work and academic work at home reduces the performance of female academics, especially in writing and publishing journal articles or conducting research. Apart from this, the PSBB implementation, which limits face-to-face human interaction and communication and the difficulties in utilizing new technologies, also contributes to

female academics' challenges in advancing their career. However, the pandemic also provided female academics with 'a blessing in disguise' such as obtaining new skills in operating new technologies and non-academic opportunities for their development. Having delved into the diversity of female academics' experiences during the pandemic, the following section discusses the PSBB and its gendered dynamic among Indonesian female academics.

E. The PSBB and Its Gendered Impact among Indonesian Female Academics

While lockdown measures (the PSBB) have unprecedented economic impacts, this chapter has demonstrated that we also need to be aware of how such measures have widened pre-existing gender inequalities as women are exceptionally affected, including female academics. From the discussion above, the PSBB implementation for female academics means juggling their time for care and academic work. Despite the recognition of care work from their partners, the amount of care work they carried out had increased when they worked from home. However, it is worth noting that the amount of care work they carried out varied across different marital and parental statuses.

The explanation for this phenomenon argued in this chapter is twofold. First, the existing social construction and patriarchal culture are not restricted to a particular group of women regardless of their jobs and academic qualifications. It has been shown in this chapter that West and Zimmerman's (1987) 'Doing Gender' is evident among Indonesian female academics during the COVID-19 pandemic. It is contended that the PSBB, as a policy response to the pandemic, has gendered impacts in ways that re-enact the traditional gender roles among female academics, illustrating the deeply rooted social construction of women's roles in Indonesia's context (Suryakusuma, 1987). While the first reason has long existed in Indonesian society, even before the pandemic, the worsening tension between care work and academic work is caused by the new working environment of female academics situated in a domestic setting we called 'home'.

There are no boundaries in this domestic space (home) distinguishing the time and space for female academics to perform care work and academic work, especially when they do not have a specific time allocated for themselves and a personal office to work. Combined with the entrenched patriarchal culture, female academics have no choice but to prioritize care work over their academic work. However, as this chapter has shown, it is important to note that the increased amount of care work carried out by female academic respondents varied across marital and parental statuses. More importantly, their perceptions about it were diverse, considering their different social trajectories.

Despite the diversity of Indonesian female academics' pandemic experience, the increased amount of care work they carried out during lockdowns generally reduced their academic productivity in conducting research and writing journal articles, further hindering the advancement of their academic career. Apart from this, limited human interaction and communication and the difficulties in using new technologies due to the PSBB implementation affect how they conduct research and teaching. These gendered impacts of the pandemic corroborated the previous studies mentioned earlier (Chitsamatanga & Malinga, 2021; Das et al., 2021; Minello et al., 2021; Ipe et al., 2021; Parlak et al., 2021; Pereira, 2021; Squazzoni et al., 2021; Yildirim & Eslen-Ziya, 2021). However, it is also worth noting that some female academic respondents felt that the pandemic was 'blessing in disguise' because they could explore non-academic opportunities and improve their soft skills in areas they were lacking. Although this chapter does not have any relevant data to understand the pandemic's impact on female academics' leadership careers, chances are—based on the existing Indonesian literature on female academics' career advancement (Kholis, 2012, 2017)—they would have less opportunity to advance their leadership career in academia than men, resulting in gender disparity in academia in the future. In this context, it is essential to highlight that if policy responses to the pandemic are not carefully designed to be gender-sensitive, they will potentially result in widening pre-existing gender inequalities between men and women in academia and generally.

F. Conclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic and its policy responses have undoubtedly widened and reproduced gender inequalities. This chapter has explored the experience of Indonesian female academics during the first wave of COVID-19. It has shown that Indonesian female academics diversely experienced the tension between care work and academic work and challenges in pursuing their academic career. By doing so, it has contributed to the emerging literature on gender (in)equality in academia in Indonesia. On that note, two important points need to be considered here. Firstly, given a limited study in this field in Indonesia, this chapter would enrich our understanding of the gendered nature of work (both care work and academic work) in Indonesia. Secondly, it is also important to acknowledge the limitation of the research informing this chapter, particularly in terms of its small number of samples and the short research period. Future research can expand on the insight from this chapter and examine gender (in)equality among Indonesian academics post-COVID-19 pandemic.

Reflecting on the gendered impacts of the PSBB as a policy response to the pandemic, we learn that if policy responses to the pandemic are not carefully designed to be gender-sensitive, they will potentially result in widening pre-existing gender inequalities between men and women in academia and generally. To mitigate the gendered impact of policy responses to the pandemic, this chapter concludes by recalling Elson's work (2017) to help us imagine and transform the new normal of academic labor. It is not only recognition of care work that matters, but reduction and redistribution of care work need to be done. Designing gender-sensitive policies in the post-COVID-19 pandemic to reduce and redistribute care work between men and women is central to an effort to narrow gender inequalities and recover the economy.

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Chapter 8

Living on the Borders: Social Protection for Indonesian Migrant Workers during COVID-19 Pandemic

Muhammad Maulana Iberahim & Mansurni Abadi

A. COVID-19 and Indonesian Migrant Workers

COVID-19 has challenged Indonesia's social protection mechanism for migrant workers overseas, whereby, left unaddressed, it would undermine its commitment to the international and regional frameworks on migration, subvert the legal bases it has established, and exacerbate the migrant workers' conditions. The living and working conditions of migrant workers during the pandemic have been further aggravated because many employers did not pay for the work that migrant workers had done and terminated the contract without compensation (HRWG, 2021c). In addition, many have had to stay without a job for the reasons mentioned above, as the authorities issued travel restrictions and discriminatory policies against migrant

M. M. Iberahim,* & M. Abadi
*Thammasat University, Thailand, e-mail: iberahims@live.com

workers, requiring them to find exploitative work without proper documents.

COVID-19 also exposes different treatments toward migrant workers regarding health protection, between essential and non-essential workers who work in dangerous, dirty, and demanding jobs. Such a dichotomy, in effect, makes non-essential migrant workers disproportionately affected by the pandemic due to poor working conditions and inequitable protection (Reid et al., 2021). Consequently, they are deported from the country where they work due to lack of income and contract termination. In addition, many have had to stay without a job because the authorities issued travel restrictions, requiring them to find exploitative works without proper documents. Liem et al. (2020) argue that migrant workers, who have limited legal support in their host countries, could negatively affect their physical, financial, psychological, and social well-being.

Preexisting migration policies that already undermined migrant workers' rights further justify anti-immigration regimes amid the pandemic. Travel restrictions and bans for some countries with high domestic cases and a low vaccination rate have disrupted transportation networks and labor markets (Moroz et al., 2020). Besides, travel restrictions may lead to a labor shortage and inflict anti-immigration policies. Therefore, these conditions, coupled with marginalization, have resulted in insecurity, further implicating adverse socioeconomic impacts of COVID-19 on migrant workers in different stages of the migration cycle.

The detrimental impacts of the pandemic on Indonesian migrant workers then lead to a question: have Indonesian migrant workers received adequate social, economic, and health protection before, during, and after they migrated? The protection of migrant workers during the pandemic has attracted a plethora of studies. These studies focus on different subjects, levels, and units of analysis. Samad et al. (2021), for example, use normative qualitative research, building on several laws underpinning the protection of migrant workers in three stages: before, during, and after placement. Similarly, Witono (2021)

also analyzes the policy of migrant worker protection in the migration cycle. The government has launched a series of packages to relieve the adverse impacts affecting the working class and aspirant migrant workers through its available mechanisms. Besides, social movement, especially among migrant workers and non-state actors who engage in transnational networks, has yet to be analyzed and is overlooked.

However, the focus of this literature addresses state-centric analyses, which have provided insights into the role of regulatory actors in protecting migrant workers during the pandemic. The implication of this scholarship, as suggested above, is that migrant workers are situated as if they are helpless. These structural factors must also be revisited by considering the bottom-up approach as non-state actors are involved in the COVID-19 responses. A statist approach and securitizing migrant protection responses will only lead to deliberately disregarding the interest of migrant workers alliance and other humanitarian actors in the policymaking.

Bal and Gerard (2018) called for a new level of analysis by putting forward a compelling argument using social class and class-based analysis that theorized institutionalist and right-based approaches to explaining the underlying problem of migrant workers and that policymakers' 'migration paradigm' is flawed. However, this chapter is not interested in explaining the social class conflict, which may or may not describe the root problem migrant workers face during the COVID-19 pandemic. That those policymakers adopting migration as a development and livelihood strategy, Bal and Gerard (2018) argue, is based on 'free-market principles, public austerity and free trade' at the expense of the well-being of migrant workers is, however, not the focus of this chapter. Instead, this chapter focuses on the social movement analysis, whose function is to pressure the state to commit to the migrant worker protections while ratifying international and regional frameworks, instruments, and standards in the wake of better institutionalizing migrant workers' protection during the pandemic.

Against this backdrop, this chapter fills in the gap in Indonesian migrant protection scholarship by identifying the situations faced by

Indonesian migrant workers during the pandemic and unpacking the institutional arrangement of labor migration, including international and regional frameworks supporting migration governance. This chapter will also focus on the social movement and how the state—defined as a social relation that presides over a competing interest—can better institutionalize migrant workers' protection during and after the pandemic through a rights-based approach.

B. Social Movement and Migration

The salience of highly politicized migration issues, especially in the host countries, has often sparked lengthy political debates. In the last couple of decades, the rise of radical right-wing populist parties bringing anti-immigrant agenda due to either social integration or economic issues has presided over social movements which promote inclusion. However, migrants are often absent from the scene. Instead, it is the institutional actors who dominate it. Although the world has seen an increase in the mobilization of social movements about migration, including in Indonesia—and both major destination countries and sending countries—factors that explain why such mobilizations occurred need to be closely examined. Classical social movement theory, through its class-based approach, especially in this context where migrant workers can be categorized into one, might explain why such a movement exists. On the other hand, collective action, often led by NGOs that may or may not necessarily share the same class, is also gaining importance.

Social movement theory demonstrates that the three variables include the extent to which the internal organization of movement can grow, how social and political actors frame migration issues, and the political opportunities that allow such collective challenges (Eggert & Giugni, 2015). The three factors, therefore, lay the foundation for migration issues that could be affected, although not directly dependent. Eggert and Giugni (2015) assert that the organization of the movement, which refers to the first factor, affects how migration issues can be directly applied to the policy context. Secondly, how

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these movements present migration issues in the public domain could also determine whether or not the objective is achieved. Third, the political and institutional climate is perhaps the most decisive factor in how the state could generate an inclusive policy product for migrant workers.

However, it is also important to note that social movements represent non-state actors who, by definition, compete over interests to achieve their end goal, i.e., a policy change that is migrant inclusive. However, other actors are, including but are not limited to extreme-right groups, anti-racist and pro-migrant, and migrants themselves (Eggert & Giugni, 2015). Eggert and Giugni (2015) show that there is also a divisive view between right- and left-wing movements on migration issues. While the former tends to take in the form of political parties and electoral channels, the latter are more vocal through various channels and social movements, both on the field and in the electoral process.

As such, the intensification of social movement organization, coupled with the awareness building of migrants' unionization and a growing transnational network among migrants, often backed up by research institutes in favor of migrants, are gaining momentum to compete for their interest and bring the agenda nationally, bilaterally, and multilaterally. Further studies indicate that using migrant precarity as a lens to analyze the social mobilization for migrants led by civil society has helped identify the cause of such collective actions (Piper et al., 2017). This is due to the experience of migrant workers who are working in poor and unregulated work with insecure legal and residential status. Piper et al. (2017) put forward the concept of precarity to explain why inequality and injustice have become the driving force of many collective actions. In the next section, this chapter will explore Indonesian migrant workers' situation amid the pandemic.

C.   Indonesian Migrant Workers and COVID-19

The National Board for the Protection of Indonesia Migrant Workers (*Badan Perlindungan Pekerja Migran Indonesia*/BP2MI) in 2020

reported that 113,173 Indonesian migrant workers comprise 32.5% of formal and 67.5% of informal workers (BP2MI, 2021a). BP2MIa alone shows that women migrant workers reached 90,500 individuals or almost 80%. Most Indonesian migrant workers travel to Hong Kong, Taiwan, Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei, and Saudi Arabia. The structure of migrant workers consists mainly of domestic workers, caregivers, general workers, plantation workers, and operators. However, migrant workers who travel abroad in 2020 decreased vis-à-vis 2018 and 2019, reaching 283 and 276 thousand, respectively. Nevertheless, it is essential to note that many undocumented migrant workers irregularly travel to other countries without proper documents. Data reported by civil society organizations (CSOs), on the other hand, far exceed that of the government. The lack of aggregate data shows discrepancies and flaws in data processing (Muhammad & Nour, 2021).

During the pandemic, it was recorded that more than 120,000 migrant workers returned to Indonesia after losing employment overseas (IOM, 2021c). The contribution of migrant workers, through remittances, has been significant to development back home (IOM, 2021b). However, COVID-19 has negatively affected these remittances, which dropped significantly. Remittances sent by Indonesian migrant workers to home in 2018–19 account for 1.05 and 1.02% of total Global Domestic Product, amounting to 10,000–12,000 million USD (IOM, 2021c). However, since the pandemic started, the percentage dropped below 0.9%. IOM's finding suggests that the decline in remittances is caused primarily by a weakened exchange rate and foreign worker bans in countries migrant workers travel to.

In December 2021, 11 migrant workers died in a shipwreck off the coast of Johor Baru, Malaysia, while 27 people were still missing. This accident is only a mere example of how undocumented labor migration, which illegal brokers facilitate, could have destroyed migrant workers' lives and their families. Many migrant workers, especially those in the fishing sector, engage in difficult, dirty, and dangerous jobs with poor working conditions and are prone to exploitation (Muhammad & Nour, 2021). However, it is essential to

note that undocumented migrants who travel overseas do not occur in a vacuum. The lack of domestic labor markets and the mismatch between skills and opportunities have contributed to labor migration. On the other hand, financial debts and lucrative careers abroad have also driven aspirant migrant workers to find jobs overseas.

Although Deputy Insp. Gen. Achmad Kartiko of BP2MI already recognized that crimes against Indonesian migrant workers are extraordinary crimes (Fadli, 2021); difficult situations—financial insecurity and debts back home, often arising from loss of job due to the pandemic—still forced aspirant migrant workers to find work abroad in the hope of getting a better income. However, because getting a job overseas may generate higher income, they encounter irresponsible and illegal brokers who lure false promises that working abroad could solve their financial problems.

A study conducted by Human Rights Working Group (HRWG), a key NGO in the region working on migration issues, shows that the impacts of COVID-19 on Indonesian migrant workers have been detrimental. For example, 95% of Indonesian migrant workers in Hong Kong and Singapore were experiencing increased workload resulting in exploitation without appropriate pay rise (HRWG, 2021c). This comprehensive study, focusing on major destination countries rather than the sending country, has provided an initial insight into what and how COVID-19 has impacted migrant workers. Furthermore, analyzing the preexisting migration policies and COVID-19-specific measures targeting migrant workers reveals how migrant workers in several countries in South and East Asia have been exploited.

Migrant workers are also excluded from economic stimulus packages, such as wage subsidies, unemployment benefits, and other social protection measures—most of which are only enjoyed by citizens and long-term residents. Most migrant workers are not eligible to receive any financial support and economic stimulus package because there are strict requirements as to who can apply for such schemes (HRWG, 2021c). Typically, aside from the national citizens, it is those who have gained permanent and long-term residency permits that are eligible.

Meanwhile, migrant workers are excluded because migrant workers are situated in precarious working conditions—i.e., unregulated and exploitative working environments. Therefore, migration and legal status—including visa and, in some cases, the residency permit—had affected migrant workers who found their hands tied in a protracted precarity.

Some discriminatory instances demonstrated by major destination countries, whose economy is structurally dependent on migrant workers, include one-sided contract termination because the government forced employers to prohibit hiring migrant workers to reduce dependence on them. This leads to unemployment of migrants and labor shortages. It poses another risk to migrant workers who might have lost their jobs and increases the possibility of detention.

As Indonesian migrant workers have been disproportionately affected by the pandemic and the socioeconomic complications it has brought, the protracted precarity which exhibits forced labor and modern slavery, in this sense, needs state intervention for two reasons. However, the deepening neoliberal economy searching for cheap labor, culminated by COVID-19, has also resulted in unethical recruitment and indecent work, against which social movements have repeatedly advocated. Therefore, to mitigate those predicaments, the state is first encouraged to adopt international labor and migration standards that, in turn, can supervise the practices undermining migrant workers' rights. Second, because of such pervasive malpractices, it is necessary to enforce legal standards based on the available mechanisms.

D. Legal and Institutional Arrangement for Labor Migration Governance

Labor migration governance has been mainly regulated through neoliberal logic by which the interaction between state and market is designed so that the former could provide training for and send migrant workers to the latter. In the recruitment process, states are incentivized to prepare and guarantee the migration workers' rights for the private sectors—such as the recruitment agencies and brokers

(Karim, 2017). In this sense, Bal and Gerard (2018) also show how the livelihood and well-being of migrant workers are based on free markets and public austerity. This perspective, however, confoundedly perceives migrant workers as mere commodities ready to be sent to other countries.

Until the 1960s, there was no formal institutional arrangement for labor migration in Indonesia, despite Indonesia's deep-rooted history of labor migration during the colonial period in which the Dutch brought about 32,986 individuals between 1890 and 1939 (BP2MI, 2021c). It was only until 1970 that the Soeharto's New Order regime issued Government Regulation 4/1970, which laid out the schemes of Inter-regional Works (*Antarkerja Antardaerah*/AKAD) and Inter-national Works (*Antarkerja Antarnegara*/ AKAN). Although the regulation during Soeharto's era centrally administered migrant workers' affairs, Karim (2017) argues that the government had a more significant role in the recruitment process in the post-authoritarian period—while activists blamed the private sectors.

The fundamental change to the protection of migrant workers resulted from multiple demands by CSOs after democratization, which led to the enactment of Migration Workers Protection Law 39/2004, legislated under President Megawati (2002–2004), during which many Indonesian migrant workers were deported. This law was the first national legislation to provide a legal basis for migrant worker protection, which previously only existed under governmental and ministerial regulations. This law also allowed the government to intervene in the recruitment process, which the previous administration overlooked and often violated.

This law also led to the establishment of the National Agency for the Placement and Protection of Indonesia Workforces (*Badan Nasional Penempatan dan Perlindungan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia*/ BNP2TKI), which was directly responsible to the president through Presidential Regulation No 81/2006 under Yudhoyono's administration. This agency was the institutionalization of an ad hoc body established by Habibie during his administration (1998–1999). However,

Karim (2017) and Palmer (2016) argue that BNP2TKI's institutional design was flawed due to political compromise and accommodation and was a symbolic politics. This is because the ambiguity of the system in place has set out a way for BNP2TKI to pursue aims that are contrary to that of the Ministry of Manpower. Palmer (2016) argues that the institution's capacity to act beyond its legal constraint has characterized Indonesia's migration governance due to political structure and actors in multi-level government.

The dissection between BNP2TKI and the Ministry of Manpower, although the logic follows a textbook division of labor, has resulted in overlapping responsibilities between operator and regulator (Palmer, 2016). Before 2007, the Ministry of Manpower was the main institution with which migrants and recruiters engaged. After BNP2TKI was set up, the Ministry of Manpower authorized personnel to offer a duplicated service and rival service to issue recruitment services. The Ministry of Manpower, which previously had the ultimate role in issuing permits and license for private recruitment agencies, had indeed opposed and were forced to accept BNP2TKI, preferring to reform its internal bureaucracy through a controversial ministry regulation by creating a new directorate, the directorate for placement and protection of overseas workers (Karim, 2017; Palmer, 2016). This conflict also arose from the patron-client relationship characterizing Indonesia's lousy governance, given that former high-ranking bureaucrats had private recruitment agencies (Karim, 2017). This horizontal institutional rivalry between the Ministry of Manpower and BNP2TKI affected labor migration governance dynamics while confusing private recruitment agencies and aspirant migrant workers.

Due to ineffective enforcement of and flawed institutional design stemming from Law 39/2004, coupled with poor performance over migrant workers protection, a series of protests demanded the law reforms. After a long process, Law 18/2017 on the Protection of Indonesian Migrant Workers (hereinafter: Migrant Workers Protection Law) was, in many ways, an achievement for many activists, human rights advocates, and most importantly, the migrant workers, whose

living conditions, human and labor rights, and legal protection have been deteriorated due to multidimensional issues.

Migrant Workers Protection Law also replaces BNP2TKI, through the Presidential Instruction No 90/2019, with the National Board for the Placement and Protection of Indonesia Migrant Workers (*Badan Perlindungan Pekerja Migran Indonesia*/BP2MI). The use of 'migrant worker' for its institutional name symbolizes a different lexicon, indicating its awareness of the pejorative term *'tenaga kerja,'* which commodified migrant workers. It also changed its paradigm by putting together its new mission: War against Syndicates of Unprocedural Indonesian Migrant Workers Placement (BP2MI, 2021c).

This institutional dynamic and rivalry reflect the current labor migration governance in Indonesia. The fact that migrant workers are still suffering from the pandemic begs the question of whether the migrant protection law could be enforced and applicable in the context of crises such as the pandemic? As many Indonesian migrant workers' rights have been violated because of layoffs, unpaid wages, working extra hours without incentives, fear of being arrested by authorities due to irregular status, and food and financial insecurity (Samad et al., 2021), closer reading on specific articles of Law 18/2017 is thus required.

Migrant workers, as stipulated in Article 6(1)l, are entitled to the protection of their safety until they return. Article 8(1) specifies technical protection, including social safety nets. Article 29 also states that the social safety net is intended to improve the lives of Indonesian migrant workers and their families. As stated in Article 21, during the placement, migrant workers are also entitled to the protection mechanism during the placement, which includes fulfillment of rights, facilitation of dispute, advocacy and mediation, and repatriation. Further, the mechanism by which the government could protect migrant workers' rights is regulated based on government regulation.

Article 22 provides the basis of the labor attaché, which is regulated by Presidential Instruction and has diplomatic status in the countries with which Indonesia has diplomatic relations. Migrant workers'

protection is the responsibility of the central and local government by providing legal, economic, and social protections. Legally speaking, the Migrant Workers Protection Law offers adequate mechanisms to guarantee the rights of migrant workers. However, in practice, migrant workers' protection is far from ideal. In carrying out this function, the government, through a one-stop service aimed at integrating the government's responses, has been criticized by migrant worker alliances and CSOs for their ineffectiveness and poor coordination.

E. The Nexus between Frameworks on Migration and COVID-19

Both international and regional frameworks have underpinned the guidance on labor migration, building on different standards and rights-based approaches. However, the context of the pandemic forced policymakers to focus beyond the scope of the existing frameworks on migration (HRWG, 2021c). Thus, the question arising from the ongoing pandemic presents itself: how can the frameworks on migration, both international and regional, be of assistance to Indonesian migrant workers? Rights-based approaches to address the precarious experience that Indonesian migrant workers face during the pandemic, as advocated by many social movements, are also being undertaken through the frameworks on migration, which both regional and international mechanisms favor. Therefore, it is necessary to briefly account for these frameworks and why CSOs are for and against them.

The 2016 UN General Assembly marks an essential milestone on the importance of global governance of migration and refugee issues, signaling the political message that migration and refugees are now an international agenda (IOM, 2021a). The New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants, which came into being on September 19, 2016, was followed by the adoption of the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly, and Regular Migration (GCM), which Indonesia is a champion country. Decades earlier, the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members

of Their Families (ICPRAWMTF) was the international framework providing a basis for migrant workers' protection law.

The policy brief presented by the United Nations Network on Migration argued that well-governed migration, inclusive societies, and stimulus for strong socioeconomic recovery are the preconditions of an effective COVID-19 response (UNNM, 2021). GCM also provides a practical framework for international cooperation, which member states can leverage in responding to COVID-19. For example, Multi-Partner Trust Fund, provided under the GCM scheme, is a critical component in the capacity-building mechanism as a start-up fund for migrant workers hit by the pandemic the most.

Aside from the international frameworks for the global migration governance and protection, it is worth taking into account the ASEAN Consensus on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers in 2017 (hereinafter: ASEAN Consensus), given the pervasiveness of intra-labor migration in Southeast Asia, in which Indonesian migrant workers mostly migrate. However, since the ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers of 2007 (Cebu Declaration), the establishment of the ASEAN Committee on the Implementation of the Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights Migrant Workers (ACMW) in 2007 and ASEAN Forum on Migrant Labour (AFML), up until the ASEAN Consensus in 2017, no substantial progress has been made (HRWG, 2018).

As has been widely studied, the impasse over the negotiation underlies a different and more profound understanding that requires a country-specific context as to why the adoption is slow. On the one hand, realist and normative approaches, arguing that there is a clash of national interests and that the non-interference and consensus decision-making hinder the agreement, could not fully account for this impasse (HRWG, 2018). Besides, the institutionalist approach also contends that the sending country lacks the institutional capacity to administer labor migration governance. On the other hand, using a critical political economy lens, Bal and Gerard (2018) argue that

there is a class conflict between those who advocate for and oppose migrant worker rights.

The disagreement over three issues—whether the instrument is legally binding; it would cover irregular migration, and the families of migrant workers and migrants not from ASEAN countries—has halted further convergence. ASEAN Forum on Migrant Labor, intended to facilitate dialogue between government officials and CSOs, has also become a forum that only involves CSOs who are policy supporters instead of contesting the negotiation (Bal & Gerard, 2018). HRWG (2018) states that ASEAN member states do not have firm commitments toward protecting the rights of migrant workers.

The non-legally binding nature of the ASEAN Consensus is also one aspect that many CSOs have criticized. HRWG, Migrant Workers Alliance (*Jaringan Buruh Migran*/JBM), and other CSOs believe that a legally binding instrument is key to fully protecting migrant workers' rights (HRWG, 2018). They also deem the ASEAN Consensus flawed because it allows ASEAN member states to tailor their national laws and regulations, which do not comply with international human rights standards.

It is imperative in the context of the pandemic because the human rights-based approach used in this chapter bridges the academic research to practical recommendations. Moreover, these frameworks reinforce the political commitments of sending and receiving countries to respect the labor and human rights of migrant workers, which are not fully appreciated during the pandemic. Besides the government's intervention, civil society, business sector, youth, academia, humanitarian, and other non-state actors can play in promoting labor and human rights of migrant workers is vital as part of the check and balance mechanism and monitoring mechanism. Non-state actors can also pressure the government actors to immediately comply with the

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existing standards and the agreed frameworks for better migration governance.

F. Indonesian Migrant Workers Movement during COVID-19

Social movements are considered critical intermediaries between citizens and policymakers. Social movement analysis is often configured based on a rights-based approach. However, this chapter contends that a rights-based approach is still indispensable as many migrant workers face difficulties in settings where their human rights are not fully respected, including work environment, living conditions, and legal status. Bal and Gerard (2018) argue that policymakers' migration paradigm is inherently flawed. Nevertheless, their account suggests that the state per se is homogenous and does not willingly respect human rights. In contrast, this chapter argues that the state is a complex social relation with competing interests. While many government officials—including key institutions and officials such as the labor attaché, BP2MI, and Ministry of Manpower—have been promoting and protecting the interest of migrant workers, there is an institutional fracture among ministries and authorities over overlapping responsibility working on migration issues (Karim, 2017). It, therefore, may lead to disagreement among government actors over which migrant workers' alliances might exert influence.

The Migrant Workers Alliance (*Jaringan Buruh Migran*/JBM), consisting of 28 organizations, both in and out-country, emerged from the same concern on the lack of protection for migrant workers from the policy perspective. Since 2010, JBM has devoted its advocacy to national legislation. Civil society engagement in democratizing the legislation concerning migrant workers' protection and rights is instrumental because the experience shared by the migrant workers, complemented by other components such as labor unions, migrant alliances, academics, and CSOs, provides insightful input to the policymaking. Through this network, social movements led by migrant workers can bring fruitful outcomes.

Despite internal divisions and cleavages, CSOs can play an instrumental role in strengthening social protection mechanisms. CSOs and the transnational network can contribute to protecting migrant workers by providing the latest data to the government, which can then respond to the first-hand experience of Indonesian migrant workers amidst the pandemic. Madeline Berma, Commissioner of the Human Rights Commission Malaysia, stated that CSOs could play a role in educating grassroots movements, especially aspirant migrant workers and their families, about social protection policy and mechanisms. This effort led to the public discourse on populist politics practiced by the elites who did not commit to migrant workers' protection and strengthened the international cooperation in the labor market and migrant workers system.[1]

One of the key NGOs working on migration issues and advocating migrant workers' rights is the Human Rights Working Group (HRWG). On the International Migrant's Day (IMD), HRWG emphasizes that human trafficking is still a protracted issue, noting that the number of complaints received by the Indonesian government in 2020 was the highest in the decade. The number of human trafficking cases, especially among women, increased by 255, according to the National Commission on Human Rights (HRWG, 2021a). To commemorate the IMD, the migrant workers' alliance demands the government to:

- Ratify four implementing regulations of the migrant workers' protection law, including Presidential Instruction on Labor Attaché; Government Regulation Bill on Ship Crew; Head of Agency Regulation on Pre-employment Requirements; and Ministerial Regulation on One-stop Integrated Service because of the expiry date.
- Establish a supervisory mechanism at villages, district/city, province, central, and destination countries levels.
- Establish an integrated information system from the village to the central government levels.

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[1] Personal interview with dr. Madeline Berma, Commissioner of Human Rights Commission Malaysia, in 2020.

- Provide access to the participation of migrant workers organizations concerned with migrant issues in every policymaking and its implementation at villages, regional and national levels.

The account of social movement theory asserts that the organization of social movement, the framing of migration issues, and the politico-institutional context have put together the necessity to provide a comprehensive protection mechanism for Indonesian migrant workers, who are experiencing precarious working conditions amid the pandemic. It is a truism that the poor conditions experienced by Indonesian migrant workers overseas, which are heightened during the pandemic, cannot be denied. Through the 'precarity' lens, the organization of social movement has driven collective social actions to advocate for migrant workers.

The growing transnational network of migrant workers—for example, JBM comprising 26 organizations—has achieved many accomplishments, including ones that advocate for the rights of Indonesian migrant workers. The advocacy of the rights of migrant workers is also taking place through different mediums, including policy recommendations, research projects, and protests in the field. One should note that the direct involvement of social actors from diverse backgrounds—researchers, policy analysts, NGOs, lawyers, and of course, migrant themselves—through this network demonstrates how influential this network has been. One of the examples of JBM's achievement was overseeing the amendment of the Migrant Workers Protection Law while conducting lobbying and hearings with the parliament members, government officials, and religious organizations.

The precarity lens through which the alliance has utilized has also become the foundation to frame migration issues. This allows a broader network to empathize with the migrant workers in hopes that the government will respond immediately. Director for the Protection of Citizens, the first person under the Foreign Minister responsible for protecting Indonesian citizens abroad, has often been invited to dialogues organized by the alliance. While the government agrees with

and sees the conditions experienced by Indonesian migrant workers abroad through the conceptual lens of precarity, the government is also facing a challenge in mapping out migrant workers' needs due to its inability to collect comprehensive data, partly because of many undocumented migrations.

However, there is another challenge facing the network. Aside from the non-legally binding consensus adopted by ASEAN, the international frameworks on migration, such as the GCM, which has yet fully been implemented, the challenge comes from the state actor per se from the political will and the enforcement of the Migrant Workers Protection Law. Therefore, these social movements must call for an inclusive and accommodating social protection mechanism for Indonesian migrant workers. Because political and institutional contexts are essential, state actors, regulators and operators, need to consider a few alternative options to provide social protection for migrant workers.

G. Social Protection for Indonesian Migrant Workers

As suggested earlier, while the existing studies on Indonesian migrant workers' protection focus on the role of the state and regulatory actors and the positive law of migrant workers' protection, this chapter aims to expand the scope by which the roles of non-state actors can be of importance. First, meaningful participation and engagement are the only effective ways to protect not only migrant workers but society as a whole (HRWG, 2021b). It means that any concerns and recommendations that emerge from the bottom must be comprehensively addressed by the states, which have the ultimate authority and the resources, budget, and power to protect migrant workers.

Second, based on the human rights approach, the importance of proactive protection mechanisms proposed by the grassroots movements to the states is paramount. Therefore, building on the proposed guideline derived from the study by HRWG (2021b) that used a rights-based approach, we situate Indonesian migrant workers

as active actors and beneficiaries for which the government should assist. It also lays out the working mechanism for migrant workers who are still residing overseas, already repatriated, and whose families and dependents rely on remittance.

The social protection mechanism laid out here is also a product of social movement in the form of research whereby collective actions forged by many non-state actors can accommodate the interest of Indonesian migrant workers. However, the variable of the politico-institutional context of Indonesia in accommodating the interest of migrant workers still needs to be revisited because the state's role is requisite to creating conducive and migrant-inclusive policies, practices, and laws.

Although the Migrant Workers Protection Law (No 18/2017) is a milestone that provides a legal basis, its enforcement in the context of the pandemic has not been effective if not administered (HRWG, 2021a). HRWG asserts that not all implementing regulations are enforced, and their implementation lacks supervision. Secretary-General of JBM, Savitri Wisnu, stated that the problems facing Indonesian migrant workers are primarily rooted in the upstream, which is the pre-departure phase.

In this scenario, the Indonesian government is responsible for formulating migrant-focused policies to mitigate the adverse impacts COVID-19 has caused on Indonesian migrant workers. As indicated in the Migrant Workers Protection Law, it includes all stages of labor migration journeys—from pre-departure, working, to reintegration. Some concerns and mechanisms presented below stemmed from migrant workers' first-hand experience.

1. Protection for aspirant migrant workers

The nature of Indonesia as a migrant workers' sending country is fundamental as it implies that the state's role in permitting licenses for private recruitment agencies and giving training and administrative support for aspirant migrant workers is crucial. Besides, most prob-

lems occurred in this stage, as hinted by Savitri Wisnu, the National Secretary of JBM (HRWG, 2021a).

In responding to the pandemic, the Ministry of Manpower issued a ministerial regulation No 151/2020 on Temporary Halt to the Placement of Indonesian Migrant Workers on 20 March 2020. This regulation temporarily stopped sending migrant workers overseas. However, it did not outlaw aspirant migrant workers who already have working visas and transportation tickets to the destination country, so long as the country did not close its border (Witono, 2021).

The government's chief aim of this ministerial regulation is for 'security' reasons (Witono, 2021). Such a paradigm, although it seems justifiable, is problematic. First, it implies that migrant workers are a threat to security. Although many countries had closed their borders in the early stage of the pandemic, partly due to uncontrollable infection rates when the border was open, a migration ban could signal law enforcement to securitize their responses, further delegitimizing migrant workers and migration in general. Secondly, the legality that the ministerial regulation administers would perpetuate the precarious migration workers situation in which the dichotomy between legal and illegal labor migration is prolonged—even though international communities, such as the UN system, have repeatedly advocated for labor migration regardless of their legal status.

However, there was an exception to the ministerial regulation. The Directorate-General for Work Placement and Employment Opportunity Expansion implemented a regulation that exempted 12 countries (later updated to 23 countries) where Indonesian migrant workers are allowed to work.[2] As a result, 34,644 aspirant migrant workers failed to travel abroad. The government, in turn, allocated

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[2] The Directorate General implemented decision No. 3/20888/PK.02.02/VIII/2020 initially included 12 countries where Indonesian migrant workers can travel. The 12 countries are Algeria, Hong Kong, South Korea, Maldives, Nigeria, Uni Arab Emirates, Poland, Qatar, Taiwan, Turkey, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. However, the decision was updated in the following months under decision No. 3/33236/PK.02.02/X/2020 added Saudi Arabia, Ghana, Hungary, Iraq, Japan, Russia, New Zealand, Serbia, Singapore, Sweden, and Swiss to the list—23 countries in total.

IDR 110 trillion from the state budget as a safety net, which is directed to seven main programs. These include Family Hope Program (*Program Keluarga Harapan*/PKH), Cash for Work (*Padat Karya Tunai*/PKT), Direct Cash Aid (*Bantuan Langsung Tunai*/BLT), Non-cash Food Assistance, Pre-employment Program, conditional electricity subsidies, and special assistance to those residing in Jakarta, Bogor, Tangerang, and Bekasi. Although all programs are not explicitly addressed for aspirant migrant workers, they could taper down the COVID-19 impacts.

Of seven, two of which—the Pre-employment Card and PKT—could provide a temporary solution for aspirant migrant workers who could not travel. In a collaboration between the implementing management and BP2MI, the former program offers a training program, both hard and soft skills, intended to increase the competency of pandemic-hit aspirant migrant workers (VOA Indonesia, 2021). Aside from temporarily providing the tools and equipment to run a small business, they also receive incentive funds by participating in the program.

In this stage, migrant workers and their communities can also play an important role by collectively creating better information dissemination. Former migrant workers who have already returned can also train aspirant migrant workers. Better informed aspirant migrants can make better decisions before traveling abroad, especially in COVID-19, which unprecedentedly affected working visa approval, host countries' policies, job contracts, etc.

A lesson can be taken from the Philippines migrant worker community, which successfully empowered their community before and after returning to the Philippines. Based on Rother (2022) research, migrant workers CSOs in the Philippines have consistently contributed to the 'gold standard' of Philippines migration policies despite internal divisions and cleavages. Another finding from Opiniano (2021) suggests the Philippines' bureaucracy and migrant policies have mastered managing overseas migrant workers because of the support from civil society. Finally, international communities have praised the Philip-

pines government for how well it manages labor migration (Eder, 2016). Moreover, they claim that the country has one of the most sophisticated systems in the Asian region. In addition to increasing the economic empowerment of Filipinos and their families abroad, the new Philippine future depends on capturing a 'diasporic dividend' by pushing for additional investments from overseas migrants' savings via active collaboration with civil society (Opiniano, 2021). During the pandemic, based on our interview with a representative of the Association of Overseas Filipino Workers in Malaysia (AMMPO), the Philippines migrant community plays a vital role in combating narratives that continuously portray the Filipino migrant workers as a potential threat to national security and being detrimental to the country's long-term social and economic development.

2. Protection for migrant workers and their working conditions

The importance of establishing a professional labor attaché whose paradigm is not administerial but promotes human rights is instrumental to migrant worker protection. Labor attaché is a mandate based on the Migrant Workers Protection Law that has yet fully been regulated. JBM highlights that there are three underlying problems concerning the labor attaché. The first problem concerns structural factors and governance which regulate low-wage laborers. Second, it relates to administrative documents. Notably, a study conducted by HRWG in Hong Kong, Malaysia, and Singapore in 2017-18 revealed the third problem, showing that a good governance perspective binds labor attaché instead of a rights-based approach (JBM, 2021). Good governance here refers to institutionalism; the positivist approach used to deal with migration issues, such as the establishment of complaints and crisis centers. Therefore, the institutionalist approach to protecting mechanisms in lieu of human rights promotion is problematic.

JBM argued that the labor attaché does not have sensitivity toward the victims. The approach chosen by the government seems to be detached from the experience facing Indonesian migrant workers

during the pandemic. Moreover, the limited labor attaché and budget due to non-existent institutional support and regulation prevent ideal protection mechanisms (Ministry of Manpower, 2019).

Although the embassies worldwide have assisted and monitored Indonesian migrant workers, the state's role is principally limited to assisting, if not facilitating, repatriation indicates its negligence to prevent migrant workers from being exploited and suffering from the pandemic. For example, since the beginning of the pandemic in 2020, Indonesia repatriated 12,019 individuals from Malaysia and 145 vulnerable Indonesian migrant workers in the following year; 172 Indonesian ship crews stranded in Fiji, two of whom died on board; 60 Indonesians from Suriname and Guyana; and 19 fishers who were treated in Perth, Australia (BP2MI, 2021b; MOFA Indonesia, 2021a, 2021b, 2021c, 2021d, 2021e).

These examples show that the government is reactionary, if not late, in responding to the needs of migrant workers. Although repatriation is regulated under Article 27(1)f, where migrant workers can be repatriated if the pandemic occurs, COVID-19 specific measures that exclude migrant workers have already had damaging impacts, including on their psychological experience. The state must also ensure that policies, regulations, and public discourse do not contribute to stigmatization, discrimination, and xenophobia. Gathering bans were erected in some major destination countries, and strict control and securitized measures targeted migrant workers who were deemed virus carriers (HRWG, 2021c).

A government-published journal also indicates that migrant workers should protect themselves (Witono, 2021). It is very problematic. For example, migrant workers have minimal rights and access to appropriate healthcare. Their employers often do not give proper healthcare protection, let alone insurance. HRWG (2021c) study indicates that the pandemic has heightened the number of domestic migrant workers who suffer from abuses and exploitation.

The phrase 'the devil is in the details' is quite relevant to the problems migrant workers may face daily. Whereas certain media

headlines involving smuggling and human trafficking can grab many's attention, social protection for migrant workers is not only related to preventing or mitigating human trafficking. Moreover, multifaceted problems that occurred during the pandemic thus required migrant workers to proactively unionize to bridge their concerns to the states.

The complaint mechanism provided by BP2MI is an important step in governing labor migration better. It also provides a grievance mechanism if any crisis occurs, which migrant workers can seek help from the government, which is also regulated in the Migrant Workers Protection Law. However, it is inadequate without the firm commitments of the states to address migrant workers' situation during the pandemic.

3. Protection for migrant workers returnees and their families

The government's interventions to remedy the impacts of COVID-19 on returned migrant workers and their families who relied on remittance are imperative. Economic aid and the stimulus package, such as the Pre-employment Card that has benefitted 110 thousand retired Indonesian migrant workers who, according to a survey which reveals that the 92.6% of the beneficiaries gained knowledge, can use the skills they acquired in the workplace or business—such as customer service, domestic workers, and other entrepreneurial sectors (VOA Indonesia, 2021).

The government's policies in responding to returning migrant workers were to quarantine migrant workers without any fees charged, including accommodation, food, and transportation. It is crucial as many migrant workers lose their jobs and sometimes lack financial resources. On the other hand, those who work as ship crews—including in the fisheries and cargo sectors—are under the responsibility of their principal or their companies. The government would also bear the cost charged to migrants who were deported and not registered in the recruitment agencies and the BP2MI.

A report produced by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP),

and the Indonesian Migrant Workers Union (Serikat Buruh Migran Indonesia/SBMI) that returning Indonesian migrant workers could play a significant role in the development of villages so long as they are protected (IOM, 2021b). Louis Hoffmann, IOM Indonesia Chief of Mission, also suggests that strengthening village-level capacities is necessary—both returning and departing migrants—to ensure end-to-end protection and an effective remedy to the impacts of the pandemic.

H. Conclusion

Does Migrant Workers Protection Law provide enough basis for migrant workers' protection during the pandemic? One could argue that the lesson learned for the government is to create flexible policies as the pandemic is still ongoing (See, for example, Witono, 2021). Activists and migrant worker alliances, on the contrary, would argue that the government is negligent in its COVID-19 measures targeting Indonesian migrant workers. As we have suggested earlier, the government's policies have been reactionary rather than preventive, resulting in many vulnerable migrant workers who suffered from the pandemic, such as modern slavery, wage cut, anti-immigration policies, and detainment are heightened during the pandemic (HRWG, 2021c).

It is also argued that the pandemic opened a new paradigm that the government must transform itself: from good governance to a rights-based approach. While the government of host countries and Indonesia have realized the urgency of implementing rights-based measures for migrant workers, exemplified by the adoption of the ASEAN consensus though not legally-binding as well as the international framework such as the GCM, the implementation of rights-based policy is far from sufficient. Since the adoption of the GCM in 2018 is relatively new, the governments have pledged their initiatives to transform themselves, not to contribute to discriminative policies against migrant workers.

Nonetheless, the ultimate role still belongs to the state actors who can enforce the regulations and implement the rights-based

approaches at all levels. On the other hand, the capacity of non-state actors who constantly oversee and advocate for the rights of migrants, especially during the pandemic, is in line with recommendations advocated by many CSOs and migrant workers alliance who shared first-hand experience during the pandemic. It also aligns with the social movement theory that the transnational network surrounding migrant workers can help migrant workers achieve their interests through various mediums. The concept lens of precarity also encourages these social movements to promote justice and fairness through various products, mainly research projects.

The role of non-state actors who collectively acted and formed social movements, including CSOs, is vital, especially in the context of humanitarian assistance, in responding to the growing needs of migrant workers. Civil society's work is also critical in preventing discriminatory and restrictive policies against migrants by advocating various recommendations. For example, some progress such as the complaints toward the national human rights institution in both host and home countries, coordination and hearings with the overseas protection directorate under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the demand to revise and add additional provisions in the Migrant Workers Protect Law, have been made. However, some challenges still loom the movements, i.e., the politico-institutional settings and many actors involved domestically and internationally. Another challenge lies in the nature of employers who need to comply with the regulations. However, undocumented and unlicensed recruitment agencies are still pervasive.

Analyzing the social movement pressing the government through a bottom-up approach offers new insight into how the government could respond to these demands. Many activists argue that the institutional reform and the legal basis the state already has set up are insufficient. Political commitments with concrete actions to protect migrant workers' rights and their families in all stages of the migration cycle, based on the available international frameworks and standards, and the proposed guideline must be reinforced.

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Chapter 9

Barriers to Inclusion: COVID-19, People with Disabilities, and Indonesia's Policy Responses

Faris Rahmadian

A. COVID-19 and People with Disabilities in Indonesia

The COVID-19 pandemic has infected millions worldwide and severely impacted social, health, and economic conditions. Persons with disabilities are among the most vulnerable communities disproportionately affected by COVID-19. The United Nations (UN) defines persons with disabilities as "those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others" (UN, 2006). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), more than a billion people live with a disability globally. Around 80% of them are in low and middle-income countries. It corresponds to about 15% of the world's

F. Rahmadian
Wageningen University & Research, Netherlands, e-mail: farisrahmadian@gmail.com

population (WHO, 2011). The UN adopted The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) in 2006, a comprehensive international human rights framework to protect and fulfill the rights of persons with disabilities. The CRPD declares that all persons with disabilities have rights to equality, education, housing, employment, dignity, and independence (OHCHR, 2014). The treaties also eventually shifted the 'charity approach' paradigm to 'the human rights approach.'

However, although the government has signed and ratified the CRPD, there are still many challenges to fulfilling the rights of persons with disabilities. Based on Hussey et al.'s (2017) study, the state must reform policies and systems to comply with the CRPD. The government of Indonesia ratified CRPD in 2011, which then translated into Law No. 8/2016 on Persons with Disabilities. According to Law No. 8/2016, persons with disabilities experience physical, intellectual, mental, and sensory limitations in the long term. They may encounter obstacles and difficulties in interacting with the environment to participate fully and effectively with other citizens based on equal rights. It is evident in the law that Indonesia started to use a more inclusive definition and recognizes the rights of persons with disabilities as human rights.

Based on the National Socio-Economic Survey (*Survei Sosial Ekonomi Nasional/*Susenas) by the Central Bureau of Statistics (*Badan Pusat Statistik/*BPS) in 2018, the total population of Indonesia with disabilities is 30.38 million or 14.2% of the total population of Indonesia. Nevertheless, Indonesia faces many obstacles and challenges in fulfilling the rights of persons with disabilities. According to Nusantara Disability Activists Network (Dewi, 2020), years after Law No. 8/2016 was passed, not much has changed regarding fulfilling the rights of persons with disabilities. The person with disabilities still faces many daily problems, from structural to cultural ones, such as stigmatization. This condition got worse, especially when COVID-19 entered Indonesia in March 2020. Not long after that, the government introduced a policy that limits activities in the public space and had consequences for communities in Indonesia, especially for persons

with disabilities: from the economic, social, and health to education aspects. Therefore, this chapter discusses how COVID-19 affects persons with disabilities and Indonesia's policy responses.

The structure of the chapter is as follows. Section 1 provides the background, context, and aim of the chapter. In Section 2, I review the impact of COVID-19 on people with disabilities in three aspects: economic, health, and education. In Section 3, I further discuss the policy response of the Indonesian government, specifically in responding to COVID-19 for persons with disabilities. It briefly presents the policy response as of 31 December 2021. Finally, in Section 4, I outline the recommendation to improve inclusion strategies for people with disabilities, especially in the COVID-19 situation.

B. The Impacts of COVID-19 on People with Disabilities

The impact of COVID-19 is pervasive and multi-dimensional, especially for persons with disabilities. It can be said that persons with disabilities are among the hardest hit by COVID-19. Even before the COVID-19 pandemic, persons with disabilities were already at greater risk of difficulties accessing healthcare, economic accessibility, and daily living activities (Kweon, 2020). The COVID-19 situation has intensified inequalities and even produced new threats for persons with disabilities. In the COVID-19 pandemic situation, not only have many disabled people been at greater risk of contracting the virus (Shakespeare et al., 2021), but they also have been at greater risk of the impact of the pandemic on economic, social, and psychosocial aspects (Mbazzi et al., 2021; Wong, 2022). Shakespeare et al., (2021) argue that persons with disabilities have been differentially affected by COVID-19 because of three factors: the increased risk of poor outcomes from the disease, reduced access to routine health care and rehabilitation, and the adverse social impacts of efforts to mitigate the pandemic. However, this chapter will identify three main sectors, economic, health, and education, in which persons with disabilities are adversely impacted.

1. Economic impact

COVID-19 has substantially altered the Indonesian economy. Based on BPS data, Indonesia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth experienced a steep decline in 2020, with -2.07% compared to 5.02% in 2019, as shown in Figure 9.1. There has never been a decline such as this, aside from the financial crisis in 1998, which shows how COVID-19 has affected the Indonesian economy.
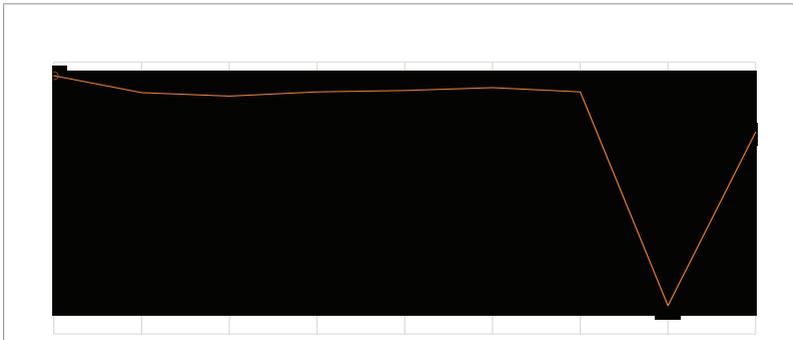

Source: Kusnandar (2022)

Figure 9.1 Indonesian Gross Domestic Product (GDP) Growth 2013–2021

According to a survey in November 2020, almost 74.3% of Indonesian households experienced a decrease in income from what they received in January 2020 (SMERU Research Institute et al., 2021). For people with disabilities, this condition further increases inequalities in the economic sector. There are several reasons for this. First, persons with disabilities often face various barriers in accessing the labor market. It is partly because persons with disabilities face multiple stigmas and discriminations that prevent them from being in the labor market (Kaye et al., 2011). For example, in the COVID-19 situation, the stigma increases and worsens. It is because persons with disabilities are already stigmatized for being disabled, and then they can get another stigma for getting COVID-19 (Satriana et al., 2021). In other words, persons with disabilities experience a 'double stigma.'

Second, the employment rates of persons with disabilities are lower than those without disabilities. Most disabled workers work in the informal sector, making employment positions vulnerable. BPS (2020) data shows that the self-employed and non-permanent employee sectors are dominated by persons with disabilities (see Figure 9.2).
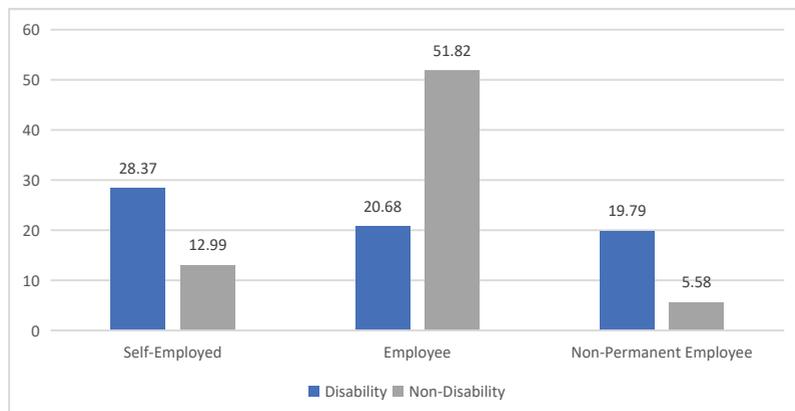
Figure 9.2 Employment Sector Comparison Between Persons with Disabilities with Non-Disabled Persons

According to Satriana et al. (2021), persons with disabilities primarily work with high uncertainty and have unstable and irregular incomes, resulting in income insecurity and poverty. Furthermore, the informal economy generally is a very vulnerable sector, and it has been estimated that the COVID-19 pandemic has caused 60% of its workers' earnings to decline (ILO, 2020). According to OHCHR (2021), COVID-19 has generated 36.5% of persons with disabilities to be economically inactive. This is ironic because the motivation for work is generally higher among persons with disabilities, but unfortunately, their job opportunities remain very limited (Aichner, 2021). The results indicate a mismatch between job opportunities, skills, and interests, especially for those with disabilities.

In addition, the lockdown policy also hurts persons with disabilities. First, the mobility of people with disabilities is minimal compared to persons without disabilities. Therefore, it can prevent them from accessing jobs and economic opportunities. Second, remote work (work from home) can also significantly impact people with disabilities. Although remote work is usually considered an option for persons with disabilities (Cirruzzo, 2020; Morris, 2021), its implementation in Indonesia is still challenging. Based on the 2018 Susenas data, technological divides and limited access to information are highly prevalent among people with disabilities. For example, the usage of cell phones or laptops for persons with disabilities is only 34.89%, compared to 81.61% for persons without disabilities (BPS, 2018).

2. Health impact

Due to the social restriction and lockdown policy, people with disabilities usually have limited mobility and choice of healthcare services and facilities. To anticipate that, the Ministry of Social Affairs (*Kementerian Sosial*/Kemensos) already has several social assistance programs for persons with disabilities. According to a survey from the Ministry of National Development Planning (*Badan Perencanaan Pembangunan Nasional*/Bappenas), Mahkota, and Kompak (Satriana et al., 2021), persons with disabilities in Indonesia received several forms of social assistance in varying amounts and frequency: Cash Social Assistance (*Bantuan Sosial Tunai*/BST), Direct Cash Aid (*Bantuan Langsung Tunai*/BLT), Electricity Subsidy, and Basic Food Program had the most excellent coverage among respondents, while Family Hope Program (*Program Keluarga Harapan*/PKH) constituted a smaller coverage. There are also insurance schemes under the Social Security Program (*Badan Penyelenggara Jaminan Sosial*/BPJS). Although the program is supposed to be accessible to all, according to the Indonesian Disability Network's survey, the Indonesian social assistance program has not reached all persons with disabilities (Nilawaty, 2020). Data availability and precision are two significant constraints preventing Indonesia's equal distribution of social assistance.

In terms of health facilities, hospitals have also been disrupted by the massive number of COVID-19 cases. Due to the outbreak of COVID-19, many hospitals have reduced their staff's availability. It is mainly because many hospital staffs have been redeployed to other hospitals or crisis centers dealing with COVID-19 and because of pandemic burnout.[1] It could affect the supply of essential health care equipment and services (Satriana et al., 2021). It is worsened because the ratio of hospital beds in Indonesia is meager, only 1.17 per 1,000 population. In other words, Indonesia only has one hospital bed per 1,000 population (Jayani, 2020).

With the closure of rehabilitation centers and lack of hospital facilities, persons with disabilities may experience worsening conditions that require more medical attention. Especially for persons with intellectual disabilities, the impact of COVID-19 and social restriction may induce mental stress, which eventually causes an escalation in behaviors, placement breakdown, and increased psychotropic medication use (Courtenay & Perera, 2020). COVID-19 also severely impacts persons with disabilities because adults with disabilities are three times more likely than adults without disabilities to have heart disease, cardiopulmonary issues, diabetes, or cancer than adults without disabilities (Jumreornvong et al., 2020).

COVID-19 also poses a huge barrier to access to health information. It is because persons with disabilities usually rely on others to inform them about their health information, including COVID-19 and how to reduce their risk of contracting it. However, since access to rehabilitation and health centers is restricted, they need other resources. Therefore, web accessibility and disability-friendly websites are required. Furthermore, individuals with visual or hearing impairment may also be at risk due to inadequate information about the illness, including COVID-19 (Kuper et al. 2020). Unfortunately, on

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[1] According to report from the Faculty of Health, University of Indonesia. In 2020, at least 83% of Indonesian Health Workers experience moderate and severe burnout syndrome during the COVID-19 pandemic. https://fk.ui.ac.id/berita/83-energi-kesehatan-indonesia-mengalami-burnout-syndrome-derajat-medium-dan-berat-during-masa-pandemi-COVID-19.html

the Ministry of Health website page, as of 15 January 2022, only eight articles were explicitly published related to disability, most of which are associated with implementing vaccinations.[2] Similarly, the website of the Health Crisis Center of the Ministry of Health, which has the primary function of managing information and prevention, mitigation, preparedness, and facilitation of emergency response in health crises as of 15 January 2022, only publishes two articles containing information related to COVID-19 and disability as seen in Figure 9.3.[3]

Source: Pusat Krisis Kesehatan Kementerian Kesehatan RI (2020)

Figure 9.3 The Ministry of Health's Poster on the Article "How to Help Persons with Disabilities During COVID-19"

Persons with disabilities experience a multi-layered impact caused by COVID-19 in the health sectors, from limited access to information to healthcare facilities. There are also barriers that persons with disabilities face in the vaccine services. For instance, the process of providing vaccine injections for persons with disabilities has not been comprehensive and easily accessible due to the lack of data (Evandio, 2021).

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[2] This information is accessed through the main website of the Ministry of Health. https://www.kemkes.go.id/

[3] This information is accessed through the main website of the Health Crisis Center of the Ministry of Health. https://pusatkrisis.kemkes.go.id/

3. Education impact

According to the 2018 Susenas, about 3 out of 10 kids with disabilities never attend formal school, and only 56% of those with disabilities finish elementary school. This condition shows how access to education is still complicated for persons with disabilities, and this problem has been made worse by COVID-19. According to Satriana et al. (2021), COVID-19 disproportionately impacts students with disabilities, especially since many have experienced various barriers and educational disadvantages since the pre-pandemic. A survey taken since the outbreak of COVID-19 shows that 23.38% of children with disabilities dropped out of school, compared with only 10.34% of children without disabilities (BPS, 2021). It is clear that there are many factors contributing to this, but in a survey conducted by UNICEF on 938 children aged 7-18 years who dropped out of school as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic, 74% said it was because of economic reasons (Jayani, 2021).

Infrastructure was also a contributing factor to this condition. According to the Ministry of Education, out of the 1.6 million students, only 18% of Indonesian students with disabilities receive inclusive education services (Harususilo, 2019). This can be interpreted in two ways: first, the lack of educational infrastructure for persons with disabilities because different stages of education require other skills and support as well as foreign teachers. This includes the fact that schools or education establishments are not always accessible or disability-friendly; second, the government's inability to promote access to and participation in education for persons with disabilities. Furthermore, the Save the Children organization conducted a survey that found that at least 85% of parents of children with disabilities are worried about their children not returning to school once the pandemic is over, primarily because the pandemic creates new barriers to accessing education (Ritonga & Helmy, 2021).

The impact of COVID-19 on persons with disabilities in the education sector is very multilayered and even created great concern for parents. In addition, finding solutions to COVID-19's impact on

the education of persons with disabilities can be difficult. For instance, remote learning cannot be a practical solution because there are still challenges from technology to teaching mechanisms. Gayatri (2020) states that elementary-age children struggle more than older children with remote learning. Many scholars believe that the shift from in-person to remote education has been very challenging, especially if it involves students with disabilities requiring high levels of regularity or having different focus abilities (Shuck and Lambert, 2020).

C.   COVID-19 and Indonesia's Policy towards Persons with Disabilities

Given the many negative impacts caused by COVID-19, public policy in Indonesia should accommodate and anticipate the prolonged effects of COVID-19, especially for persons with disabilities. Almost two years since the first COVID-19 outbreak, in 2021, Indonesia released the National Action Plan for Persons with Disabilities (*Rencana Aksi Nasional Penyandang Disabilitas*/RANPD),[4] a planning document to protect and fulfill the rights of persons with disabilities. It should be noted that even though the RANPD idea had been initiated before COVID-19, its release around the time of COVID-19 makes it even more important and relevant since persons with disabilities are among those most affected. In addition, the document makes specific mention of disability-inclusive development, a concept that increases its importance, especially for persons with disabilities. The document states that disability-inclusive development is a "development that integrates the mainstreaming and involvement of persons with disabilities as actors and beneficiaries of development in all stages of development including planning, budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation" (Ministerial Regulation of Bappenas No. 3/2021, 2021, p.5).

At the implementation level, RANPD also mandates the preparation of the Regional Action Plan for Persons with Disabilities (*Rencana*

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[4]   The RANPD document is part of the Ministerial Regulation of Bappenas No. 3/2021 on Implementation of Government Regulation no. 70/2019 on Planning, Implementation and Evaluation of Respect, Protection and Fulfillment of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

Aksi Daerah Penyandang Disabilitas/RADPD). Both documents serve as an implementation framework for disability-inclusive development at the national and regional levels. There are seven strategic targets of RANPD which is part of the National Master Plan of Persons with disabilities (*Rencana Induk Penyandang Disabilitas*/RIPD): (1) Data collection and inclusive planning; (2) A barrier-free environment for persons with disabilities; (3) Protection of rights and access to justice; (4) Empowerment of persons with disabilities; (5) inclusive economy; (6) Education and skills; (7) Access and equitable distribution of health services. To support the implementation process, each of the strategic targets of RIPD also contains strategies to achieve disability-inclusive development.

In this part, the author identified and explored the disability-inclusive development strategy in RANPD with the circumstances in 2021, when the study took place. There are at least three underlying barriers to inclusion for persons with disabilities. This condition causes persons with disabilities to be increasingly excluded and impedes the implementation of disability-inclusive development. The three barriers are (1) lack of disability-disaggregated data, (2) shallow definition of human rights, and (3) ambiguity in coordination and policy design.

1. Lack of disability-disaggregated data

According to UNDP (2018), disability-inclusive development intersects the CPRD and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The concept of disability-inclusive development acknowledges that all development processes focus on reducing inequality and improving the quality of life for persons with disabilities. Nevertheless, disability-inclusive development is a complex concept. According to Johnson and Anderson (2012), inclusive development is a process of structural change which gives voice and power to excluded and marginalized groups. Thus, data availability is critical for the government to identify and integrate those groups into the development process.

Unfortunately, data on persons with disabilities in Indonesia is still unclear and often overlaps. Existing data on persons with dis-

abilities are generally derived from the Susenas, which the BPS carried out. On the other hand, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Social Affairs also collected data on persons with disabilities separately. However, the Susenas and two ministries' data are different,[5] indicating a problem with data collection and coordination between state institutions.

Kemensos, for instance, collected data through its Information System for Persons with Disabilities (*Sistem Informasi Manajemen Penyandang Disabilitas*/SIMPD), which was integrated into their social protection program. However, there have been data discrepancies between Kemensos and BPS since early 2000, mainly because Kemensos and BPS used different variables to collect data on persons with disabilities (Irwanto et al., 2010). A similar situation occurs between the Ministry of Health and BPS, where differences may result from different sets of questions they used to identify persons with disabilities: Ministry of Health refers to recommendations and modules developed by UNICEF, WHO Disability Assessment Schedule, and Barthel Index of Activities of Daily Living (ADL), whereas BPS relates to the recommendations of The Washington Group on Disability Statistics (Hastuti et al., 2018).

There is no definitive reason why BPS, Kemensos, and the Ministry of Health used different methodologies. It may be due to the beneficial interests of each institution: Kemensos needs the data to be later linked to social and poverty alleviation programs, and the Ministry of Health needs the data to gather health information. At the same time, BPS focuses more on a larger picture. According to the RANPD document, one of its strategies to achieve disability-inclusive development is data harmonization, of which Kemensos has been explicitly in charge[6]. According to RANPD, Kemensos also has to issue a Ministerial Regulation on the guidelines for collecting disaggregated data on persons with disabilities. However, until 2021, Kemensos only

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[5]   According to SUSENAS 2018 total persons with disabilities in Indonesia is 30.38 million people, while the SIMPD data (retrieved on January 5, 2021) is 212 thousand people

[6]   This statement appears in Annex 1 of Regulation of the BAPPENAS 3/2021

issued one regulation regarding disability, namely Ministerial Law No. 2/2021 on Cards for Persons with Disabilities (*Kartu Penyandan Disabilitas/*KPD). KPD is an identity card for persons with disabilities to access services and social assistance. This regulation is not entirely new; it revises the previous law on the same subject, which was issued in 2017. There seems to be a contradiction since Kemensos has issued a newly revised regulation for data-based social assistance; however, it is not part of the RANPD mandate and doesn't provide any guidelines regarding how to identify and collect disaggregated data on persons with disabilities. This shows that the RANPD's sense of urgency is still not as apparent as it ought to be, and state institutions seem more concerned with their concrete institution interests.

The situation has also become more complex under COVID-19. In Indonesia, COVID-19 is primarily handled by the Ministry of Health. However, the Ministry of Health faced several problems, including inaccurate data about people who contracted COVID-19 (Putri & Maulidar, 2021) to poor vaccine distributions (Wiryono, 2021). For instance, in 2021, there are inconsistencies in data between the local government and the Ministry of Health regarding the number of positive COVID-19 cases (Mantalean, 2021). The condition continues in 2022 as there have been significant differences in the number of deaths (about 16.000 deaths) between data provided by the Ministry of Health and the COVID-19 independent monitoring community (Supriatin, 2022). Persons with disabilities are increasingly excluded and invisible due to this condition. In November 2021, at least 16,638 persons with disabilities were vaccinated, but this number still falls short of the 30 million total persons with disabilities in Indonesia (Alamsyah, 2021). Siti Nadia Tarmizi, the spokesperson for COVID-19 of the Ministry of Health, also stated that the vaccination of persons with disabilities could not be carried out accurately due to the lack of data (Alamsyah, 2021).

Therefore, specific disaggregated data related to persons with disabilities is a matter of great urgency, which has also been mandated by RANPD even though its implementation has not been carried

out ideally. The government cannot design effective strategies and interventions for persons with disabilities without disaggregated data, as we need more than just *numbers* from the data, but rather specific characteristics so that government can determine what support is required for every individual on the different spectrum of disabilities, which has different needs.

2.   Shallow human rights approach

The Indonesian government often emphasizes the importance of Law No. 8/2016, which marks a paradigm shift in how people with disabilities are treated in Indonesia. This paradigm shift (from a charity approach to a human rights approach) is in line with the concept of the CPRD, which states that the government should not treat persons with disability as 'charity objects.'

Bickenbach (2012) claimed that the historical origins of disability policy have always been related to a sense of compassion and orientation to charity. In Indonesia, the source of its disability policy can be traced back to 1997. The first regulation about disabilities in Indonesia is Law No. 4/1997. In this law, the government still uses the term 'handicapped' and implies that persons with disabilities 'need to be fixed' (see Table 9.1).

Table 9.1 Comparison Between Law on Persons with Disabilities in Indonesia

Aspects	Law No. 4/1997	Law No. 8/2016
Concept	Handicapped person	Persons with disabilities
Categories	Physical handicapped; mental handicapped; and physical and mental handicapped	People with physical disabilities; people with intellectual disabilities; people with mental disabilities; and people with sensory disabilities
Rights	Education; Work; Equal treatment; Accessibility; Rehabilitation; Rights to develop talent and ability	Free from stigma; Privacy; Justice and legal protection; Education; Work; Health; Political; Religion; sports; Culture; Well-being; Accessibility to public services

Aspects	Law No. 4/1997	Law No. 8/2016
Orientation	Protection and reha-bilitation of a handicapped person	Respect, security, and fulfillment of the rights of persons with dis-abilities
Approach	Charity approach	Human rights approach

Based on Table 9.1, there has been a paradigm shift regarding the definition and the implementation of the law related to persons with disabilities in Indonesia. The paradigm shift was mainly because of the Ratification of the CPRD by the Government of Indonesia in 2011. Although still relatively new, CPRD has brought about a significant paradigm shift in how disability policy is implemented: from an understanding of disabled persons as charity subjects to a new understanding of disabled persons as human rights subjects. Thus, it can be concluded that before 2016, the Indonesian government's paradigm was the medical model, and post-2016, the Indonesian government adopted the human rights model. In the human rights model, disability is no longer synonymous with health and physical impairment. Instead, disability results from unequal power relations in society that prevents people with disability from attaining their human rights. Article 1 of the CRPD states that the treaty's purpose is "to promote, protect and ensure the full and equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms by all persons with disabilities, and to promote respect for their inherent dignity."

However, the extent to which this paradigm shift is implemented is another critical issue. During the commemoration of the International Day of Persons with Disabilities 2021 (IDPD), the Minister of Social Affairs, Tri Risma Harini, stated that not only was IDPD a celebration, but it was also a momentum to eliminate discrimination and encourage increased accessibility of persons with disabilities. However, as an institution with a significant role toward persons with disabilities, Kemensos still follows the "medical model approach," despite the government's commitment to the "human rights approach," as mandated in the RANPD document. There are at least two reasons for this:

First, the inclusion strategies of Kemensos do not specifically address disability-inclusive development strategies, particularly when defining the concept of 'inequality.' Kemensos associates the idea of 'inequality' more with the extent to which technology can help persons with disabilities, and technological innovation is one of the leading solutions for reducing inequalities for persons with disabilities. For example, she described how people with cerebral palsy receive biotechnical wheelchairs, and those with sensory impairments receive adaptive crutches (Kemensos, 2021). In 2021, Kemensos distributed more than 7.900 assistive devices. Out of these, 315 are electric wheelchairs and three-wheeled motorcycles, which are expected to be used by persons with disabilities to start their businesses (Dewi, 2021). Again, Kemensos seems to reduce the meaning of 'inequality' to a problem of technology and a matter of distribution of assistive devices. In fact, what's needed is a shift in the understanding of disability from traditional approaches, which centered around physical and technological assistance, to empower persons with disabilities and assist them in gaining control over access and resources.

Second, one of the essential concepts of disability-inclusive development is the concept of empowerment. Besides the tendency to highlight technology as the leading solution for inequities among disabled people, Kemensos also lacks comprehensive empowerment strategies for persons with disabilities. It is still common for their public statements to imply a top-down approach; for example: "(Kemensos) continues to encourage and strengthen the space for leadership and development of the young generation of persons with disabilities" (Kemensos, 2021), which fails to address the structural barriers and how active participation of persons with disabilities is essential for creating that space. This situation indicates that they seem more concerned with empowerment's external and technical aspects, which revolves around 'improvement' rather than 'power-sharing.' Therefore, 'power sharing' is missing from the concept of empowerment itself, which is fundamental and critical (Nasdian, 2014).

The situation is becoming more complex under the COVID-19, with social assistance programs (in the form of providing money or necessities) being prioritized over empowerment programs and serving as a symbol of the government's commitment to fulfilling the rights of people with disabilities (Nurcahyadi, 2021). Thus, it is not impossible that in the post-COVID-19 era, the meaning of empowerment will be reduced or even lose its significance as in many other cases (Weidenstedt, 2016). Moreover, empowerment and equality are fundamental concepts in the COVID-19 situation, not only as long-term objectives but also as strategies that ensure the active participation of persons with disabilities in development so that we do not become bound by shallow definitions of the "human rights approach."

3.   Ambiguity in coordination and policy design

Disability is a multi-sector and multi-institutional issue. Law No. 8/2016 and RANPD clearly state that each institution and ministry has a responsibility to accommodate the needs of persons with disability. At the national level, apart from the RANPD, there is also the National Action Plan for Human Rights (*Rencana Aksi Nasional Hak Asasi Manusia*/RANHAM), which also includes strategies to accommodate the needs of persons with disabilities.

In the last three years, there have been at least nine Government Regulations (*Peraturan Pemerintah*/PP), and two Presidential Regulations (*Peraturan Presiden*/PERPRES) issued to accommodate the needs of persons with disabilities (Table 9.2). However, this situation is 'new' for Indonesia because before 2016, very few policy changes at the government or presidential level were issued related to persons with disabilities.

Table 9.2 List of New National Regulations Concerning Persons with Disabilities

No.	Subject	Year
1	PP No. 27/2019 on Facilitate Access in Reading and Using Braille Letters, Audio Books, and Other	2019
2	PP No. 52/2019 on the Implementation of Social Welfare for Person with Disabilities	2019
3	PP No. 70/2019 on Planning, Implementation, and Evaluation of Respecting, Protecting, and Fulfilling the Rights of Persons with Disabilities	2019
4	PP No. 13/2020 on Adequate Accommodation for Students with Disabilities	2020
5	PP No. 39/2020 on Adequate Accommodation for Persons with Disabilities in the Judicial Process.	2020
6	PP No. 42/2020 on Accessibility to Settlements, Public Services, and Protection from Disasters for Persons with Disabilities	2020
7	PP No. 60/2020 on the Disability Service Unit in the Employment Sector	2020
8	PP No. 75/2020 on Habilitation and Rehabilitation Services for Person with Disabilities	2020
9	PP No. 67/2020 on Procedures for Giving Awards and Fulfillment of Rights of Persons with Disabilities	2020
10	PERPRES No. 68/2020 on the National Commission for Disabilities	2020
11	PERPRES No. 1/2020 on Ratification of Marrakesh Treaty to Facilitate Access to Published Works for Persons Who Are Blind, Visually Impaired, or Otherwise Print Disabled	2020

Since 2019, the government has issued eleven new regulations for persons with disabilities. However, in December 2020, President Jokowi stated that "the regulatory umbrella of persons with disabilities is sufficient, (but) if it is needed, I am ready to issue more regulations" (Setneg, 2020). Despite the impressive number of regulations issued, the implementation and synergy of these policies are still unclear and full of ambiguity. This ambiguity occurs due to at least two factors.

First is the internal coordination aspect. Aside from the eleven new regulations, the government also has two other sets of National

Action Plan: the RANPD and RANHAM. Both unsurprisingly specify other responsibilities for different ministries and agencies in Indonesia. Due to the number of regulations, this situation resulted in a 'policy boom.' A condition where the ministries and agencies in Indonesia must develop and adapt to new (and sometimes overlapping) policies and procedures. This complexity of regulations also adds to the confusion regarding the institutional responsibilities and division of roles between national law, government regulation, presidential regulation, and national action plan.

Although each law and regulation have stated the roles of the various ministries and agencies, the lack of coordination among multiple stakeholders resulted in an institutional void. According to Hajer (2003), an institutional void is a condition where policies are developed but with high ambiguity and the absence of clear definitions of institutional roles and responsibilities. At least three factors also drive this situation:

a. There are few regulations issued at the ministerial level to respond to Indonesia's 'policy boom' on persons with disabilities. For instance, the Ministry of Health did not have a specific regulation on disability. Moreover, Regional Action Plan for People with Disabilities is still not available for most regions in Indonesia. This condition eventually led to a void within the policy process.

b. Kemensos is still perceived as the ministry in charge of the disability issues. For instance, Law 8/2016 states that Kemensos is primarily responsible for data collection and implicitly for 'coordination' regarding disability issues. This condition produces another void, where the government somehow still relies on a specific ministry even though there has been a division of roles between ministries and agencies. However, according to a report by The SMERU Research Institute (Hastuti et al., 2020), "the Ministry of Social Affairs is not strong enough to guarantee the functioning of cross-sectoral coordination that guarantees the fulfillment of the rights of persons with disabilities."

c. There are still several overlapping roles with the newly established National Commission of Disabilities (*Komisi Nasional Disabilitas*/ KND). However, although the roles and responsibilities of KND have been stated in Law No. 18/2016 and PR No. 68/2020, KND already has some constraints and controversies. First, due to its attachment with the Kemensos, KND is not solely independent as mandated by Law No. 8/2016. RANPD has stressed that the issues of persons with disabilities are no longer handled by Kemensos but by all levels of government. Therefore, there is a potential conflict of interest and dualism in the KND's leadership. Second, the roles of KND have been mentioned since 2016 in Law No. 6/2016 and PR No. 68/2020. Nevertheless, the role of the KND is not included and mentioned in both five-year plans of RANPD and RANHAM (2021–2025), released in 2021. It is unfortunate because the role of KND is vital, as it carries out various responsibilities, such as monitoring, evaluating, and advocating for the rights of people with disabilities.

Second, the external coordination aspects. Law No. 8/2016 states that participating persons with disabilities in all activities and programs is an obligation. However, the participation of persons with disabilities and Disabled Peoples' Organizations (DPOs) is minimal. As stated by the Chairperson of the Indonesian Women with Disabilities Association, drafting regulations and policies in Indonesia still tends to be one-way. Consequently, some rules and guidelines are not communicated to the DPOs and do not match the needs of persons with disabilities.

One of the most critical issues that need to be addressed is the lack of sufficient human resources to reach and facilitate persons with disabilities effectively. According to RANPD, Kemensos has a significant role in strengthening the capacity of facilitators (such as social workers, village community empowerment cadres, village facilitators, and youth organizations) and encourages the involvement of persons with disabilities in various agendas. However, Kemensos only has 38 rehabilitation centers that provide direct services to persons (Integrasi

Layanan Rehabilitasi Sosial Kementerian Sosial, 2018). In fact, on the IDPD 2021, the Minister of Social Affairs also stated that one of the obstacles at the field level was 'limited resources.' In addition, the lack of coordination between the various government agencies and ministries has ultimately contributed to the institutional void.

D. Conclusion: Overcoming Barriers

Persons with disabilities have been the most negatively affected since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic. Economically, persons with disabilities are affected by increasing inequalities in their livelihood because of limited access to the labor market. Persons with disabilities also experience a double stigma that makes them even more marginalized and difficult to find jobs during the pandemic. In addition, due to the pandemic, many health facilities and services for persons with disabilities were temporarily closed. It could cause persons with disabilities to experience worsening conditions. Moreover, disabled-friendly websites to provide health information to persons with disabilities still tend to be limited.

In the education aspect, since the pandemic started, the data revealed that the dropout rate for students with disabilities was higher than that without disabilities. In addition, mobility and access to education are also significant issues for students with disabilities. In this vein, remote learning cannot be a practical solution because there are still challenges from access to technology and technical issues for students with disabilities. This condition is getting worse because it turns out that the government's policy response has not been able to incorporate COVID-19 data and make it the basis for protecting and fulfilling the rights of persons with disabilities.

In general, there are three main barriers: (1) lack of disability-disaggregated data; (2) shallow definition of the human rights approach; (3) ambiguity in coordination and policy design. To overcome those barriers, this chapter proposes three strategies. However, these three strategies can only be implemented if the three main preconditions have been met. First is the availability of comprehensive, accurate, and

up-to-date disaggregated data and information on Indonesian persons with disabilities. At this level, local DPOs play a significant role in providing quantitative and qualitative data to be later assessed by the Government of Indonesia. It is critical because, without accurate data on the population, categories, and characteristics of persons with disabilities, the interventions and approaches taken can be biased and misleading. Data must also not overlap between institutions and should be integrated with national COVID-19 data.

The government must also increase the human resources for rehabilitation and disability centers to enable persons with disabilities to be accommodated at all levels. The government should also support and promote community-based rehabilitation (CBR) programs to provide the necessary services and accommodations for persons with disabilities. Third, the government of Indonesia and other stakeholders must work together with a sense of crisis and within the framework of intersectionality. If the three main preconditions have been met, then the three strategies for inclusion can be implemented. The three strategies are as follows.

The first is creating an inclusive environment. This chapter problematizes Kemensos strategies for 'strengthening' an inclusive environment; instead, it recommends the government of Indonesia and other stakeholders 'create' a more inclusive environment in multiple sectors: education, infrastructure, health to economic sectors. There is also a need for all stakeholders to understand that the fulfillment of rights for persons with disabilities is not centralized in Kemensos but distributed, and every stakeholder has a role to play. There are three critical steps to achieve a disability-inclusive environment: identifying the roles of the government of Indonesia and other stakeholders, eliminating the structural and cultural constraints, and repositioning the DPOs and persons with disabilities as the main subject of development. The government of Indonesia must also conduct a holistic evaluation to truly shift the charity approach to the human rights approach to disability and ensure that everything is in-line with the principle of disability-inclusive development.

The second is improving healthcare and social protection coverage. Indonesian healthcare and social protection programs must be expanded to cover a broader range of persons with disabilities. Based on accurate and up-to-date data on persons with disabilities, the government can target the un-registered persons who are yet to enroll in social and health assistance programs. The government also must realize that persons with disabilities are not monolithic. For instance, persons with mental or intellectual disabilities are probably the most excluded and 'untouchable' disabilities (Goodrich & Ramsey, 2013). Therefore, all staff must be fully trained to understand the concept of disability and its complexities. They also need to understand the concept of respect, protection, and fulfillment of the rights of persons with disabilities. Healthcare and social protection should not only be provided in times of crisis. They should be sustainable sustainably and can ensure that the rights of persons with disabilities are fulfilled.

The third is developing a cross-sectoral and multi-stakeholder network. The government of Indonesia needs to collaborate with a wide range of stakeholders to build a cross-sectoral and multi-stakeholder network for monitoring, evaluating, and improving the living conditions of persons with disabilities. This cross-sectoral collaboration should involve persons with disability and DPOs as the central decision-makers. The network is not a government entity. Instead, it is designed to be an independent and separate entity that encourages DPOs to participate more actively in the policy process. The network must also be developed in a participatory, inclusive, and collaborative framework.

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Chapter 10

Traditional Artists in the Time of COVID-19: A Case Study of *Ludruk* and *Pencak Silat* Artists

Diah Febri Utami

A. When COVID-19 Meets Artists

Issues regarding COVID-19 are no longer pure medical questions such as 'how quickly the virus can spread' or 'how effective vaccines work.' Its conundrum is even about social interaction during the pandemic. Before the pandemic, shaking hands was common for greeting or parting, and gathering into the general crowd was also a part of social life. However, due to COVID-19, one tends to be paranoid; people are such a threat to each other. Bentley (2020) formulates those phenomena rightly: "What has changed, though, is that many forms of interaction, a lot more problematic and harder to take for granted than they were a year ago."

One might imagine that tourism has been the sector hit hardest by the crisis. It is not only due to the inhibition of interactions

based on regulation, but the disintegration of the tourism industry elements such as accommodation and cultural activities cause this lousy fortune. For instance, in March, the turn of the *Saka* year, with *Melasti* and *Pengrupukan*[1] ceremonies, was an annual mandatory event. The ceremony is a field for some artists to exhibit their skills; for sculptors through *ogoh-ogoh,*[2] *karawitan* artists by creating the accompaniment of gamelan *Melasti*, or dancers who express themselves fragmentarily. However, due to the pandemic, everything must stop (Mariyana, 2020).

Melasti is definitely not a single case. The Indonesian Art Coalition (2020) noted that at least 234 art shows had been canceled since the Large-Scale Social Restrictions (*Pembatasan Sosial Berskala Besar/* PSBB) regulation, which started from March 16 until April 21, 2020. Many are music concerts (113 tours and festivals), while 46 events are performing arts (pantomime, puppets, and speech arts). The Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy stated that at least 44,295 artists had adversity due to pandemics. Most of them are under the status of 'being housed' and have been laid off, while others are 'informally affected' (Iskandar, 2020). It should be noted that being 'at home' is no less worrying than being laid off (Sandi, 2020).[3]

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1   *Melasti* and *Pengerupukan* ceremonies are the precursors to *Nyepi*. According to Bali Editorial Team (2022), *Melasti* is incredible importance to the annual (and sometimes more) rites of the Balinese Hindu. "During this ceremony, lines and lines of local Hindus will journey to the sea or a holy spring for a special purification. As the term purification suggests, the goal of *Melasti* is to remove impurities. Still, unlike the *Melukat* ceremony, it isn't the 'self' that is being purified, but rather of a village, its deities (through their earthly representations) and other external components."

2   *Ogoh-ogoh* is a kind of giant doll as a representation of the *Buta-Kala*. They are paraded before the Pengrupukan night and then burned. Genies fandom contends *that Buta-Kala* (plural) are considered the immediate cause of all detrimental to human joy and comfort, physical and mental, natural and social. Wars, catastrophes, anger, sadness, and probably also COVID-19 itself are signs of their presence

3   Law No. 13 of 2003 concerning Manpower clearly stipulates the definition and the rights and consequences of laid-off employees, but not for those who are 'being housed.'

COVID-19 disproportionately hits all working classes financially, but artists, especially traditional ones, seem to have more hardship than others. Before COVID-19, they struggled from zero point; seemingly, their step had to retreat toward minus during the pandemic. Many conventional arts are on the way to extinction because of many factors. Modern arts might overshadow the fame of traditionalists. While from 'inner' traditional skills themselves, many are still strict to the conventional way, whether its timing or how a performance should be. As stated above, *Melasti* and *Pengerupukan* can only be presented before *Nyepi*, so *ogoh-ogoh* could not just be burned without being paraded. There is also a paradigm that the traditional artist is usually more idealist than the new one, in the sense that they tend to view art as binding to their tradition and culture. The way they do art, thus, is more of a method of contemplation rather than merely fulfilling economic needs.

Besides those assumptions, the digital divide is perhaps one of the most substantial impacts on traditional artists. Since the pandemic, it is a reality that we have been 'forced' to work or interact remotely. Migration to the digital space certainly requires fluency in digital platforms and adequate internet access. However, as I stated earlier, traditional arts maintain the old standards, which are usually occasional, require the involvement of many people, and are presented directly in front of the audience. In addition to that, most traditional artists are older than new ones. Kartawi points out: "Millennial interest in traditional culture and art is meager. As a result, many traditional artists are old, and only a few are young artists" (Adi, 2020).

The consequence of that facts relates to the current situation regarding digital needs during pandemics, raising some questions: How do traditional artists survive during pandemics, especially with this bump between their conventional way to the digital ones? Does digital penetration obscure the essence of conventional performing art because 'taste transfer' is lacking from the performer toward each other or to the audience? What is the government's role in responding to the emergency of traditional arts amid the pandemic? Are digi-

talization and economic assistance and development given equally to all artists? Then how is the role of the arts community in making traditional arts sustainable? Is COVID-19, for the whole situation, just a disaster for the old master?

In this chapter, I would like to discuss these issues. As presented in earlier paragraphs, traditional artists feasibly are in-between existence contra extinct and idealism versus needs (i.e., digitalization). Rather than the modern artist, the new one seems more adaptive to the situation since digitalization is already a part of their market. The subjects of this case study would mention some kinds of traditional art, such as *Ludruk* (performing art) and *Pencak Silat* (martial art).

Before going any further, I choose *Ludruk* and *Pencak Silat* as the case study is not without any particular reason. As explained briefly in the following section, Indonesian traditional art has many categories, from the perspective of time or based on how the art is performed. Performing art has its roots in ritual and serves as folks' entertainment. Rather than other traditional performing arts, *Ludruk* and *Pencak Silat* are the famous ones. There are some similarities between them, such as using some attributes and local languages, elements of song and dance are involved, accompanied by *tetabuhan* (regional music) on the stage, and there is an intimacy between the players and the audience. Amidst the pandemic, those elements should be adjusted.

The main discussion is provided in several sections. First, definitions of arts and artists are discussed. Second, I elaborate on how *the COVID-19 pandemic in Indonesia impacted Ludruk and Pencak Silat artists*. Third, I discuss how the Indonesian government (including at the local and community level) responds to the crises and the outcome of the government's pandemic responses. I conclude this chapter by providing recommendations on how Indonesia should navigate the post-pandemic world.

B.   Defining Artists and Creative Workers

Paying attention to the notion of traditional art requires me to clarify some terminologies and briefly describe the sub-categories of art.

What is art? I adopted the definition by the Ministry of Education and Culture: "Art is an individual, collective, or communal artistic expression based on cultural heritage or on the creativity of new creations that are manifested in various forms of activities and or mediums" (Kemendikbud, 2017). Who is an artist? According to The Indonesian Dictionary (*Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*/KBBI) (2016): "An artist is a person who has artistic talent and has succeeded in creating and presenting works of art." This broad definition allows 'artists' to mingle with other terms, such as creative industry workers.

Creative industries are processes of creation, creativity, and ideas from people who can produce work without exploiting natural resources and can be used as financial products (Gie, 2020). Therefore, artists who process their work based on this definition can be categorized as creative industry workers. The Ministry of Trade of the Republic of Indonesia has classified 14 creative industry sectors; some of the sub-sectors are contributed by the arts cluster, such as crafts, design, music, and performing arts (Idrus et al., 2020).

In addition, there is also a classification of art that distinguishes art based on the form of its products. For example, the Ministry of Education and Culture divides arts into performing, fine, literary, films, media, martial, and functional arts. For this chapter, let me explain just the two of them (Kemendikbud, 2017).

Performing arts, or other sources mentioned as Indonesian theater, is a type of art in the form of drama performances staged and displayed in front of large crowds. As mentioned earlier, Indonesia's performing arts have their roots in rituals and serve as folks' entertainment. It exhibits ritual dances and dramas retelling the ancient epics, legends, and stories. *Wayang* and *Ludruk* are two famous examples of performing art. Besides them, there are also *Barong, Kecak, Jaipongan, Kuda Lumping, Reog,* and many others. Meanwhile, Indonesian martial arts include various fighting systems native to or developed in the Indonesian archipelago, both the age-old traditional arts and the more recently developed hybrid combative. Besides physical training, martial arts often include spiritual aspects to cultivate inner strength,

inner peace, and higher psychological ends (arts and culture). Besides *Pencak Silat,* some other of Indonesian martial arts are *Debus, Kuntao, Caci, Cakalele* and *Fitimaen.*

C. *Ludruk* and the COVID-19 Pandemic

Ludruk, like any other Javanese theatrical form, is based on the religious ritual ceremony (Geertz, 1959, p. 306). Many chronicles in Maisaroh (2019) noted that the word "*Ludruk*" first emerged in the early 20th century. Indeed, there were quite a lot of *Ludruk* performances in this period. But a long time before, some data describing theatrical forms similar to *Ludruk* were found in the 13–14th century during the Majapahit era—the greatest empire ever to exist in the Indonesian archipelago. At least there are two kinds of *Ludruk* based on its performance. First is the *Ludruk Bandan*, which emerged in the 13–15th centuries (Hefner et al., in Maisaroh, 2019). It refers to a Hindu-Javanese religious, mystical performance in which a person in a trance performs several feats. For instance, the actor cut his skin off with a knife, but he is not bleeding, set his body on fire, but his body did not burn, or he can set his body disappear suddenly, and other similar bizarre actions based on mystical power. Another *Ludruk* type is *Ludruk Besut*, which will be presented in this chapter. Unlike the former *Ludruk, Ludruk Besut* offers in the form of drama accompanied by gamelan chants, *Pengremo* (a dance that shows the courage of the main play, such as a prince), *Bedayan* (at least five people, contains jokes). Peacock (cited in Maisaroh, 2019) explained, "A Ludruk troupe usually performs six jokes with six different stories, as well as three types of *ngeremo* for 20 consecutive performances." One performance of *Ludruk Besut* involves the actors, actresses, and the crew, such as the master of ceremonies, make-up artist, sound, and lighting.

Fitri and Abdillah (2021) stated that the *Ludruk* performance was strong; it could be seen in various activities before the COVID-19 pandemic. Several *Ludruk* associations hold performances in multiple regions and fill government or private celebrations. One is Ludruk Armada, which had ten shows before the pandemic. Before the

pandemic, their members usually do not return to their homes due to their busy schedules and rehearsals for the following events.

Ludruk's performance schedule must be annulled like other activities due to the COVID-19 outbreak. During that time, there was no stage for them. It is mainly due to the Malang district government, which did not permit the event though it was in the green zone. As a result, many members of the Ludruk Armada temporarily switched professions. Ludruk Armada leader, Eros Djarot Mustadjab, rented a vehicle to transport sand, bricks, and other building materials. Previously, the vehicle was used as a carrier for gamelan and *Ludruk* properties. Some move to another job, such as salons or trading, whereas the rest are jobless. It is hard to find a new formal job at their age. Besides the situation, more terminated employees than open new job vacancies.

Another example is Cak Kartolo, who has played *Ludruk* since the 1970s. The COVID-19 situation forced him to sell his house because there was no show during the epidemic (Taufiq, 2021). As in Malang, the government restricts social activities and prohibits performing arts. Beforehand, Kartolo admitted that he and the team had recorded their performance in the 1980s and 1990s under Nirwana Records' label. There were 79 episodes during that period. One of those audio recording snippets has gone viral in the last two years and has been widely used as a meme on many social media. The famous one is "*angel..angel is tenan pitakonmu*" (complex, your words are entirely complicated). Unfortunately, all royalties go to the record label, and nothing is left for the artists or production crew involved.

Moving to a new circumstance for Ludruk Armada's members, so does Kartolo with the royalty theme, is just a small illustration of how COVID-19 reveals a new angle for them. Before the pandemic, most traditional artists were more involved in the creative process than monetizing or generating the financial aspects through virtual spaces (Yulianto, 2020). They move solitary and pay less attention to aspects of promotion management. In contrast to modern musicians, traditional artists have not optimally mastered the virtual space.

Not only about the commercial and management sector, but the rush toward digitalization also hits the essential things of the way they do 'art.' Ahead of time, stages were a magical place for *Ludruk* artists to transfer their sense to the audience directly. Every angle or distance between them is a part of the message of the whole drama. Changing the medium from the live stage to the online platforms is not just a matter of recording. The atmosphere differs via online medium, with no clap or laughing sound. Unfortunately, compared to functional art, performing arts are not represented by 'concrete' products, such as *batik* or *keris*; its meaning lies in the transfer of feeling between the players and the audience. The actress plays their role, and the gamelan musicians add different music based on the audience's reaction. The sense is supposed to be delivered reciprocally in this way. It would be worse if there were an option to do the creative process separately; the sound of gamelan in the studio while the actors and actresses play their roles from home. One could say it might be like cooking veggies and the water separately for making soup, even though optimism through this method still should be appeared. Massive migration from physical to online apparently perplexed a show that could be presented live (Yulianto, 2020).

The pandemic situation is very detrimental, but fortunately, there is still a rainbow after the rain falls. Some creative processes have been born amidst pandemics. An instance comes from Ludruk Meimura. Their members realize that cooperation, mutual help, and care for others are communal values to confront the virus. Reflecting on the traditional way, Ludruk Meimura carries out dynamics from a cultural activity to a social movement with a spirit of critical thought. They break down the limitations of action into an activity carried out to fight COVID-19 among the people of the City of Surabaya. The group uses traditional markets as a media for performance space to convey a message of awareness of the importance of being alert to COVID-19 and promoting a culture of wearing masks (Rahma, 2020). In addition, they also play a situational drama about how people easily believe hoax news or how important vaccination or washing hands

is. Whatever the stories are, their goal is to engage directly with the current situation and amuse the audience facing the pandemic. They change the script, which usually brings folks' tales, into art that can provide inspiration, understanding, appreciation, and aesthetic experience through a process of reflection (Rahma, 2020).

D. *Pencak Silat* amidst the COVID-19 Pandemic

Similar to *Ludruk*, COVID-19 has two different impacts on *Pencak Silat*. Before considering that correspondence further, let me briefly elucidate what *Pencak Silat* is. *Pencak Silat* is the indigenous martial art of Indonesia. *Pencak* means artistic body movements for self-defense, while *Silat* stands for actual fighting. It comprises many styles, which vary depending on the region and ethnic groups where each type originated. However, the common elements of all styles are smooth movements, resembling and influencing traditional dance, and fighting application as self-defense. Smooth movements targeted at redirecting and using the enemy's force are the typical elements of *Pencak Silat*. Their goal is to transition the movements smoothly instead of opposing a counterforce. According to Pencak Silat Anak Harimau (2022), *Pencak Silat* is a system that trains body and spirit equally and which always consists of four aspects: (1) the mental-spiritual aspect (ethics), (2) the aspect of self-defense, (3) the aesthetic and artistic aspect, (4) the sports aspect, including power, endurance, flexibility, and coordination. *Pencak Silat* today consists of traditional styles continuing the ancient roots, but also modern styles, organized around the globe, which focus on sports and competition elements.

COVID-19 does not only change the status of many *Pencak Silat* teachers as unemployment. Switching communication to online doesn't necessarily keep these activities smoothly running. As stated earlier, one of the significant aspects of *Pencak Silat* is flexibility and coordination. Angga (2021), a *Pencak Silat* artist, admitted that the quality of online training was neither optimal nor effective. Pencak Silat is not only moving the body like a dance, but the elements of flexibility and focus must still be maintained. Practicing alone may

be like fighting with imagination; it is still worth doing, though its essence should not be decreased.

Pieces of training coordinated by a city service must also be stopped. For example, Boyke Santoso, the General Secretary of the Indonesian *Pencak Silat* Association (*Asosiasi Pencak Silat Indonesia/* APSI), said, *Pencak Silat* communities admitted it was challenging to find a place for training. Schools with extracurricular *Pencak Silat* have not allowed their students to participate in *Pencak Silat* training (Ariyanto, 2021). The situation got even more complicated when the Education Office instructed that all school students were not allowed to practice or hold extracurricular activities. Santoso emphasizes: "If anyone participates in extracurricular activities or training inside or outside the school environment, that extracurricular will be dormant" (Ariyanto, 2021). The exact impact also applies to competitions. *Pencak Silat* competitions with the scale of national or international such as the National Student Sports Competition (*Kompetisi Olahraga Siswa Nasional/*KOSN) (20–26 September 2021) or the International Pencak Silat Arts Championships (28–30 November 2020), still be held virtually. However, the sub-category was only a single played; there was no competition for doubles or team categories due to limited physical contact. Some trouble also occurs during online matches, such as a bad connection, problems with the projector screen, or imprecise angle, so the player's dynamic is rarely seen. Things like that make the game less than optimal.

COVID-19 may bring down various activities of *Pencak Silat*, but do not forget that there is also the mental-spiritual aspect to it, as stated above. With this spirit, some communities hold an activity called "*Indonesia Tangguh dan Tumbuh dengan Tempaan Pencak Silat*" (Indonesia is Tough and Grows with *Pencak Silat*). With all of the limitations, they organize the activity online, as joint training or just distance-gathering. Arifia, as a committee of that program and the chief of the Salamun Alaikum Pencak Silat Community, stated, "During the pandemic, *Pencak Silat* becomes pertinent. It is not only a past culture hailed as a cultural catalyst. But *Pencak Silat* needs to

be cultivated to make Indonesia strong and growing." He adds that Pencak Silat is not merely beating, hitting, or performing. He quotes what Djatnika Nanggamihardja—a figure of bamboo's conservator—said, "For those who pass through this crisis, he or she is the truly a warrior." The hope is that people come out of this conjuncture as physically and mentally healthy warriors through *Pencak Silat.*

Like the previous activity, the PSHT community (Pencak Silat Persaudaraan Setia Hati Ternate) pursued an alternative following the local government's decision, which stopped all training until the pandemic ended. They use social media platforms to share exercise videos. The targeted parties are not only athletes but also the wider community. They aim to ensure and maintain people's physical fitness amid COVID-19. Renaldi, one of the members, emphasizes that they undertake this approach due to the lack of public knowledge about arranging physical exercise or body fitness programs at home (Renaldi, 2021). In addition, this community also forms groups via the WhatsApp application as a medium of communication, online guidance, and evaluation to determine the effectiveness of the exercises that have been carried out.

E.   The Indonesian Government's Policy Responses

Then how is the central government's response to traditional artists regarding the impact of COVID-19? On April 3, 2020, the Directorate General of Culture of the Ministry of Education and Culture, Hilmar Farid, opened an online form for collecting data on art workers affected by COVID-19. The Ministry of Education and Culture provided assistance funds of IDR 1 million for cultural actors affected by the COVID-19 pandemic during the Community Activities Restrictions (*Pemberlakuan Pembatasan Kegiatan Masyarakat*/PPKM). The government allocates IDR 26.5 billion to support 26,500 artists, including the traditional ones whose livelihoods have been affected by this condition (Stevani, 2021). Mattalitti, as the Chair of the Regional Representative Council (*Dewan Perwakilan Daerah*/DPD), admitted that the aid funds were relatively small because traditional arts and

cultural activities were not prioritized and categorized as the essential or critical sectors (Stevani, 2021). However, some local governments have imitated the central government's aid promotion. One is the West Java Regional Government, which allocated IDR 50 billion for social assistance toward street vendors and modern and traditional artists. In addition to cash funds, food packages were also given.

Related to *Ludruk* and *Pencak Silat*, unfortunately, some artists admit that the assistance has not been evenly distributed. Ludruk Meimura members admitted that they had never received a social grant from the central government during the pandemic, similar to their *Ludruk* artists' fellow in East Java (Perdana, 2021).

There are more than a thousand *Ludruk* artists in East Java. Maybe they have not received help because they did not get information or because they had returned to their hometown. However, assistance must be obtained as soon as possible. On average, *Ludruk* artists are old. If they have to change professions, it is no longer possible to do manual labor, such as construction workers or farming.

However, Meimura, as the Chairperson of Ludruk Meimura, admitted that he had received Direct Cash Assistance (*Bantuan Langsung Tunai*/BLT) worth IDR 300,000 from the Surabaya regional government. The funds were used to build a small stage in his house. He bought bamboo as a decorative fence with the remaining money. The stage was intended to be a small show property that he showed virtually via YouTube.

On the other side, as the chair of Ludruk Tobongan Suromeng-golo, Eka received assistance from the Lembeyan Police and the Governor of East Java through the Kirun Madiun Art Community. Besides funds, he wishes to get permission from the local government to hold a performance even virtually. Initially, he was optimistic that he could organize a show (Siswanto, 2021). He took care of permits from the Lembeyan Police, the COVID-19 Handling Task Force (*Satuan Tugas*/Satgas), and the Magetan Police. However, the possibility is very slight because of the emergency PPKM. "Until now (2021, red)

PPKM continues, then what should we do? What do we have to do? Our lives are entirely depending on the show" (Siswanto, 2021).

In another city, the Cimahi City Cultural Council (*Dewan Kebudayaan Kota Cimahi*/DKKC), together with the Cimahi City Culture, Tourism, Youth and Sports Agency *(Dinas Budaya, Pariwisata, Pemuda dan Olahraga*/Disbudparpora), have held an online art performance entitled "Cimahi City's 2nd Virtual Arts Degree". This event involves 75 art communities from 3–19 June 2021 (Herdiana, 2021). *Pencak Silat* artists are one of the parties involved, besides modern music, traditional dance, theater, puppetry, traditional games, and other cultural activists. Communities have an opportunity to create a new opus or display their existing ones. Each community received a stimulus from the Disbudparpora Cimahi City of IDR 1 million. The three best performers received IDR 10 million for the first winner, IDR 7.5 million for the second position, and IDR 5 million for the third. There were also three participants in the favorite category of Youtube viewers who got prize money of IDR 5 million each.

About 40 music communities have the privilege to perform at the 2nd Virtual Arts Degree in Cimahi City. Unfortunately, the committee focused on modern music for the competition, considering the limited space for movement. Rahaja, as the Head of Disbudparpora Cimahi City, stated: "This opportunity is given to the modern music arts community" (Herdiana, 2021).

To avoid unequal rights for traditional and modern artists, on July 2, 2020, the Minister of Education and Culture and the Minister of Tourism and Creative Economy issued Ministerial Decree Number 02/KB/2020; KB/1/UM.04.00/MK/2020. This regulation is concerning the Joint Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture and the Minister of Tourism and Creative Economy/Head of the Tourism and Creative Economy Agency on Technical Guidelines for the Prevention and Control of Corona Virus Disease 2019 in the Field of Culture and Creative Economy in the Determination of the COVID-19 Public Health Emergency. The guidelines apply to organizers of activities or services such as museums, cultural parks, galleries, studios, hermit-

ages, other art exhibition halls, cinemas, and performance spaces; cultural heritage; art shows; and audio-visual production.

Farid stated that apart from distributing direct assistance, his team has designed other schemes for art workers, such as capital incentives. For *Ludruk* artists, for example, the East Java Regional Government has prepared direct grants for 750 artists on the priority list of beneficiaries (Riski, 2020), even though the number of artists in East Java can be ten times more than the amount of aid received. The local government also distributed non-cash direct assistance to art workers during the PSBB. In addition, artists' initiatives in the second month of the PSBB started to produce various programs expected to help support artists from multiple sub-categories.

The Ministry of Education and Culture also participates in the art preservation relay. One of the ongoing programs is the Online Exhibition of Solidarity of Indonesian Artists Against COVID-19. This program is an art exhibition project with an open call system. Artists are expected to collect two or three-dimensional works with the theme of surviving during the COVID-19 pandemic. The exhibition organizer will allocate IDR 4 million for each artist who passes the selection process. The results were exhibited online on July 10, 2020 (Riski, 2020)

In Central Java, Governor Ganjar Pranowo provided an area for virtual events to function as an art stage (Eviyanti, 2020). Local artists are allowed to perform, and the public can donate. The Government of the Special Region of Yogyakarta also intervened; they channeled aid funds of IDR 600,000 for each art worker who had financial difficulties due to the pandemic.

Unfortunately, the art ecosystem makes it difficult for artists and art performers to have access. Whereas Law No. 5 of 2017 mandates the establishment of a cultural trust fund. The 2020 state budget has allocated IDR 1 trillion to form a cultural trust fund, but no management agency has existed until now. As a result, the funds that have been allocated cannot be used to help artists continue to work,

especially during the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic (Gumay, cited in Mediana, 2021).

F. Post-Pandemic World: What's Next?

Ludruk and *Pencak Silat* are the faces of traditional performing art. Before the COVID-19 pandemic, they convey the conventional values into social life. As mentioned above, their performance must be adjusted during the pandemic to respond to the current situation. For instance, it is the endeavor of Ludruk Meimura, which uses the traditional market as its stage; they shift its value from traditional performance to a medium for promoting health protocols. Some quirky habits such as wearing a mask or foreign notions like 'PCR,' 'vaccine,' or 'lockdown' might perplex some groups, especially the older and low-class people. To deliver its meanings, Ludruk Meimura performs it in the 'casual' and 'local' way, in the sense that it does not contain any theoretical or academic terminology. Therefore, their performance is an efficient way of promoting health protocols for locals.

Similarly, *Pencak Silat* does not appear as a mere body defense; it deepens the spiritual aspect as a response to pandemics. As stated earlier, body and spirit are harmonized in *Pencak Silat*. Several *Pencak Silat* communities have shown that the spiritual element could be an additional immune for the self. They cultivate their body action into mind-peacefulness, persuading that medicine is not only medical medicine but also comes from the self and God's great power.

Humans often feel helpless when disasters or calamities happen. COVID-19 is one of them. Amid this feeling of powerless, spiritual and religious values are disseminated through *olah roso* (manage our sense). Hopefully, it would be one of the best ways to master the situation.

Moreover, the pandemic is like opening Pandora's box. The field considered acceptable so far has turned out to have several fundamental problems. During the pandemic, sponsors from private companies that have been the prominent supporters of art activities are also busy surviving. The art ecosystem in Indonesia, which is not yet established

and stable, immediately collapsed due to the pandemic. It resulted in the absence of a safety net for artists and art workers.

The government can provide financial assistance to survive artists and art workers in the short term and improve the arts and culture ecosystem for a long-term program. Then what should be done next? Here, I present three recommendations that can be considered.

1. The government needs to prepare a separate recovery scheme following the characteristics of artistic activities, especially those not on an industrial scale. Moreover, the artwork has proven to have significantly helped many people to survive during the pandemic.

2. The arts ecosystem must be built holistically. Even though it is not yet profitable in terms of capital, traditional arts must have the same support as other arts, such as film, new media, and visual arts. In addition, the government must provide an incubator for developing arts actors without caring about the type of art classification.

3. Alignment to all fields of art. The government is not an entrepreneur. It means that the government may not distinguish between the classification of art to be saved and cared for based solely on profit. There is no longer any need for a distinction just because of the number of fans. Instead, traditional arts must be mainstreamed because they have been marginalized and do not have enough audiences and enthusiasts.

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Chapter 11

Community Learning Center to Enable Innovation in Learning Recovery Strategy for Post-Pandemic Era

Rania Chairunnisa Qisti & Ferdian Admil Sandika

A.   The Disruption of COVID-19 in Education

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic's emergency, education systems worldwide are being severely disrupted. According to UNICEF (2021), educational institution closures impacted nearly 1.6 billion students in over 190 countries, accounting for 94% of the world's student population. The change caught teachers and administrators off guard, forcing them to devise emergency remote-learning solutions quickly. As a result of this disruption, education experts are beginning to investigate the impact of school closures on student learning progress or lack thereof.

As of March 23, 2020, approximately 500,000 schools in Indonesia will be closed. The government aimed to create a solution that addressed the learning and psychological needs of a diverse community,

R. C. Qisti,* & F. A. Sandika
*Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia, e-mail: raniachairunnisa@gmail.com

including people of all ages and from all locations. As a result, a program called Studying from Home was created, which offered students the internet, television, and print resources to help them continue learning during school closures (UNICEF, 2021). Even though many educational institutions have experimented with various degrees of remote learning, it is commonly known that the shutdown will result in considerable learning losses (Kuhfeld et al., 2020). According to a recent study, even momentary school closures can cause considerable medium-term learning loss (Andrabi et al., 2020).

Afkar et al. (2020) from The World Bank predicted that Indonesian students had already lost 11 points on the PISA reading scale and US$249 in future yearly individual earnings due to the four-month closure period from March 24 to the end of July 2020. They give estimates for six- and eight-month school shutdown scenarios, illustrating that when schools gradually reopen (and maybe re-close), these losses are expected to increase in the months ahead.

Many in the education world, on the other hand, see the pandemic as an opportunity to rebuild better—to re-imagine and re-design education for the future. First and foremost, we must recuperate from the anticipated learning difficulties.

This chapter emphasizes the significance of envisioning Community Learning Centers (CLC) as a part of the learning recovery process. In UNICEF's Assignment Children, Arnove (1973) stated that there had been a lack of creative, imaginative, and comprehensive remedies to the poor educational issues in the cities and rural areas in developing countries. He envisioned learning centers as institutional environments with various activities and resources to meet the requirements of different groups. He saw these centers as gathering places where people of all ages might take short courses, get counseling, share hobbies, teach skills, get health and nutritional care, and learn about national social programs. He noted that the centers might use existing community facilities, such as places of worship, recreational centers, health services, community action centers, and schools.

CLC's mission is to increase citizens' possibilities to develop their potential and work for a living, particularly for those unable to better their knowledge, abilities, or mental attitudes. People are meant to be motivated to act or try to meet their learning requirements independently because of the community's shift in thinking. The CLC (Community Learning Center) is a tool for increasing and coordinating various community learning activities. Many places have learning programs management and ownership by and for the community (Mutiara & Koesmawan, 2020).

B. Non-formal Education

UNESCO has recognized four learning pillars: knowing, doing, living together, and being. "Learning to know contains the meaning of learning how to learn," according to UNESCO, "learning to do contains dimensions of human life skills, learning to live together contains dimensions of multicultural life, and learning to contain the meaning of learning to recognize identity, abilities, weaknesses, and competencies that are mastered in building a whole life sustainably" (Saepudin et al., 2021).

Implementing UNESCO's (2005) four pillars of learning gave birth to the concept of a learning revolution. Modern learning approaches transform pupils from passive to active learning, factual to critical thinking, reactive to proactive responding, and abstract to real thinking, preparing them to become learning resources. As a result of this trend, non-formal education has become increasingly important. Non-formal education, or "situated learning," examines the differences between formal, informal, and non-formal education in terms of formality and informality characteristics (Romi & Schmida 2009).

Non-formal education, according to Widodo & Soedjarwo (2011), is "any organized, the systematic educational activity carried out outside of the formal system to give certain forms of learning to specific subsets of the population, including adults and children." Non-formal education encompassed all education outside the official

system (Rogers, 2007). Non-formal formal education, according to experts, is education provided outside of a structured pay system as a supplement, enhancer, or replacement for formal education.

For various reasons, such as fun, competence, and life skills, non-formal educational demands in schools are required. As a result, there is a complete and synergistic interplay between non-formal education and schools (Widodo & Nusantara, 2020).

Widodo then continued those students who participate in non-formal education activities are enthusiastic about proofing schooling because it is optional, has no compulsion, is enjoyable, and adds value to education. According to a non-formal education program study that enhances children's character, sports specialty develops sportsmanship, perseverance, and courage. The quality of the intensive study is reinforced by an additional subject matter program. The culinary arts curriculum fosters inventiveness, while the Islamic arts program fosters endurance.

"Non-formal education is held for citizens who need education as a substitution, addition, and complement to formal education in a series of supporting lifetime education," according to Article 26, paragraph 1 of the National Education System Law No. 20 of 2003.

According to Fakhruddin & Shofwan (2019), non-formal education is important since it serves as a complement, substitute, and enhancer for developing a better community. It entails expansion through community empowerment programs or training to strengthen the community's human and natural resources, as well as its local potential. While non-formal education is more flexible than formal education in terms of area and time, it has educational aims and purposes. It's not to be mistaken with anarchy, nihilism, or the abandonment of socially accepted behavioral norms. Traditional behavior patterns and harsh, authoritative conventions are replaced by democratic tactics of persuasion and decision-making (Romi & Schmida, 2009).

The speed with which information is updated and society changes are becoming a modern-day trend. A person's competencies and

skills must be developed to stay competitive. Non-formal education is quickly gaining traction as the most adaptable means of fulfilling tasks, allowing for the rapid acquisition of relevant information and expertise (Kicherova & Efimova, 2020).

As a subsystem of national education, non-formal education faces two significant development challenges: first, how non-formal education can carry out a national commitment to improve and develop the quality of education; and second, how effective non-formal education can play a role in helping to resolve the various issues confronting the lower layers of society, which face structural and cultural limitations and powerlessness as a result of these limitations. To address these issues, all stakeholders should be involved in developing and implementing non-formal education and education programs, because non-formal education initiatives that do not consider quality will not be implemented efficiently (Pramudia et al., 2017).

C. Community Learning Center (CLC)

Non-formal education has a large and complicated scope as one of the subsystems of national education. Theoretically, Saepudin et al. (2015) organized and coordinated action outside the school system, carried out independently or as an essential part of larger activities to assist selected pupils in reaching their learning goals. The Community Learning Center (CLC) is a non-formal education institution vital to the community's education and empowerment.

In Indonesia, the Community Learning Center (CLC), also known as Pusat Kegiatan Belajar Masyarakat (PKBM), was founded in 1998 as part of the Asia-Pacific Program of Education for All (APPEAL) agreement. A community learning center, according to UNESCO, is a non-formal educational institution that is generally founded and managed by local communities to provide a variety of learning opportunities (Haddad, 2008). CLC may thus be considered non-formal education.

CLC is a non-formal education organization, according to Saepudin et al. (2019), that organizes various learning activities based on

community needs and ideas by and for the community. As a learning system, CLC is built on the following five components: (1) learning needs, (2) learning resources, (3) learning programs, (4) learning groups/platforms, and (5) learning activity facilitator. CLC was first proposed as an out-of-school education unit in the early 1990s, and it was supported by a conference of world leaders.

CLC provides a platform for community members to gain meaningful information or skills by utilizing existing facilities, infrastructure, and potentials in their immediate environment (villages or cities). The community can learn skills that will help them improve their standard of living and academic achievements. It is backed up by Irmawati (2017), a study that found CLC to be particularly successful in reducing illiteracy in the Karimun Regency.

The critical objectives in developing CLC, according to Abidin et al. (2019), are to: first, enable a variety of learning needs of the community with a variety of problems; and second, to prepare, strengthen, and develop human resources so that they have the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and competitiveness to obtain future opportunities. The purpose of institutionalizing CLC, according to Sihombing (2019) study, is to "find, grow, develop, and harness all of the community's potentials." It seeks to empower all potentials and educational facilities in the area as part of an attempt to educate the community to help reduce poverty while sticking to the development philosophy of achieving democracy in education.

Every CLC service program or activity is held in a learning context, according to Saepudin et al. (2021), which means that the process and consequences of the programs and service activities that program target residents follow and receive must affect changes in knowledge, attitudes, and skills. CLC's primary goal and ultimate purpose for any program or service activity are to benefit the community. Any CLC program or service activity, on the other hand, has the community as its primary emphasis and ultimate goal.

Outside facilitation and help, on the other hand, the CLC program have its major and final goal for the community. a) the ability

to identify and record the needs of the community (the learners); b) serve the needs and interests of learners in a variety of activities or according to their needs and interests; c) mobilize existing resources in communities; d) build partnerships and cooperation are open to various institutions or organizations, allowing CLC to develop various community development activities for learners according to their needs and interests by the Law of the Republic of Indonesia.

The CLC program's orientation as a non-formal education unit is based on community education using a Community Based Education (CBE) strategy, which considers the features and trends of non-formal education issues that now contribute to addressing the community's actual needs. The need to identify the community, its characteristics, needs, flaws, and strengths are emphasized in community-based education (Saepudin et al., 2019). CBE is a community-based approach to problem-solving that emphasizes the power of the environment (to help people, to help themselves) in its implementation.

D. Implementation of CLC Management Strengthening Model Trial

The learning management activities at CLC cover the model's application. According to Dewi (2014), management is actions taken collectively and by people and groups to achieve organizational goals. As a model component, learning management is the process of planning, organizing, executing, and evaluating learning.

The manager's first step should be planning before conducting any learning initiatives. As a result, CLC executives should set aside time to learn thoroughly and regularly during this period. Many people are involved in learning planning and implementation, mainly those familiar with this method's expectations and outcomes.

The four tasks that help compensate for planning are general identification of learning requirements, assessment of learning needs based on the largest portion, identification of learning resources, and identification of collaboration partners. Identifying program objectives, choosing content or learning materials and their arrangement,

selecting a strategy for carrying out the program of activities, and deciding how to evaluate the program/success are all steps in the planning process.

The implementation process is a learning activity guided in an interactive, democratic, and participatory learning and training environment—learning resources with various opportunities to become managers, allowing them or other parties to transmit information and skills to the community as students in these learning activities. Mentors or learning resources, alone or in collaboration with others, carry out acts that support or accompany the community learning process. Learning resources are designed to improve the community's knowledge and skills by increasing its capacity in response to their needs.

The assessment stage examines various variables used to assess learning outcomes that community members achieve as learners or students. As a result of the findings, the pupils' pre- and post-test scores improved. In addition, the manager's evaluation reflects a generally positive response and assessment of the students.

According to the description above, adopting the CLC management strengthening approach improves community members' ability to deal with problems they face regularly, CLC managers can increase their learners' learning ability by providing them training. Training is an intentional effort to make it easier for employees to learn about their work and improve their knowledge, skills, and behavior (Nurleni, 2018).

E. CLC as part of Learning Recovery

The current COVID-19 epidemic, according to Roy (2020), an Indian novelist and activist, is a gateway. It's a path to a reinvented future that must be different from the one we've known thus far. The pandemic's disproportionately devastating health and livelihood consequences—for individuals, communities, and even entire societies—underpin institutionalized discrimination based on race, ethnicity, class, gender, sexual orientation, age, and ability.

These gaps can be found in educational systems across the world. The most underprivileged and prejudiced populations have been disproportionately damaged by school closures and measures to reach children through online schooling. This type of education delivery emphasizes the difficulties experienced by people who do not have access to computers or live in remote areas without access to electricity or Wi-Fi. These students may not have adequate space to work in peace at home. In addition, key services given by schools have been significantly reduced or removed. We can't return to the current state of affairs. COVID-19's lessons inspire us to imagine education systems that benefit students of all ages.

Despite the outbreak and nationwide school closures, the well-established blended learning program enabled children and teenagers to continue their education (UNICEF education COVID-19, 2020). It is possible to design a Learning Center that provides services. As educational facilities expand, students will study and use what they have learned to assist the community. In the same facility, students may learn, create, and put their knowledge into practice. CLCs work to improve the information community's knowledge and literacy skills so that people can find, assess, and retrieve the information they need and share it effectively. According to Catts (2012), a literate person can (1) detect their information needs, (2) locate and evaluate the quality of the information found, (3) store and retrieve information, and (4) utilize that information efficiently and ethically, and (5) disturb that information to create and share knowledge. Individuals who are information literate must possess these five characteristics.

COVID-19 is causing a drop in formal education enrolment for the 2019 school year, emphasizing the importance of providing non-formal education options and second-chance education initiatives like this to provide learners with a second chance to continue learning (UNICEF education COVID-19, 2020). Currently, the CLC's role as a community learning resource is vital. Various activities will provide new knowledge to the community at any time and location. Nonformal education includes all community activities in the learn-

ing process (Gibson et al., 2018). The community works together to carry out informal learning activities at the CLC (Swaminathan, 2007). Now is a great time for students to participate in a problem-solving program. As part of the curriculum, students would critically analyze topics that affect them, their families, and their communities.

CLC is supposed to fuel the literacy movement, improve a community's ability to participate more fully in the development, adjust to social changes and developments, and raise its standard of living. Furthermore, the government's Accelerated Illiteracy Eradication Program, Paket B (equal to junior high school) and Paket C (similar to senior high school) study groups, a life skills course, a training program, a community empowerment program, and an early childhood education program all help the government achieve its aim of lifelong education and education for all.

The steps of implementing the plan at CLC are also known as activities. The technical implementation is known as the activity coordinator while engaging with the CLC's head. As part of the monitoring system, the activity coordinator is monitored via extensive communication and routine control. The strategy evaluation process at CLC takes place in both informal and formal settings. Internally and externally, formal meetings occur regularly.

Let us make schools places where kids may learn from and support one another once they reopen. Ask the kids what they've learned from their parents and the community in the last several months, and utilize those ideas to guide their learning for the rest of the year. Our children require not only the future but also the present.

F. Recommendation

In light of the COVID 19 pandemic's uncertainty, CLC should design a comprehensive strategy for advancing a blended approach to learning that can be tailored to remote learning in times of crisis and used in everyday teaching and learning to enhance face-to-face courses while schools are open.

Setting up a costed multi-sector, multi-partner plan to address internet and cellular connection access challenges and ensure Indonesia's 'unity' through equal access to all should also be considered. It should offer zero-rating services, expand and innovate connections, provide free and subsidized equipment, provide digital literacy training, and address issues like cost, connectivity, literacy, prejudice, and diversity.

Incorporate activities that encourage learner readiness within the teacher development program, such as promoting a growth mindset, resilience, autonomous learning capacities, and psychosocial support for improved mental health and digital literacy. Furthermore, needs assessment may assist educational administrators at CLCs in planning the instructional design process for any training or educational project to be successful. According to Pilcher (2016), need assessment is no longer regarded as a critical element of the instructional design process, but rather a more thorough examination of performance issues and how they might be addressed. As a result, school managers may now consider need assessment a more thorough, methodical technique that can also be used in human resources (Pilcher, 2016).

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Chapter 12

Hybrid Learning for A Better-Quality Education for Post-COVID-19 Learning Recovery: Indonesian Teachers' Perspectives

Afifah Muharikah, Oscar Karnalim, & Sunarto Natsir

A.   Quality Education in Indonesia

Inequality is still a significant barrier to achieving quality education in Indonesia. Many people in Indonesia have difficulties reaching the indicators of quality education outlined in Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) No. 4 (United Nations, 2015). Not all students can fully receive adequate access to basic infrastructure. Therefore, other aspects such as high-quality learning, inclusive learning environments, and social equality might seem luxurious for most Indonesian learners. These discrepancies have become more salient due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

After two years of dealing with the pandemic, Indonesia and some other countries have started to live along with the virus. People can do their activities normally, so long as health protocols are prop-

A. Muharikah,* O. Karnalim, & S. Natsir
*Griffith University, Australia, e-mail: muharikah.afifah@gmail.com

erly obeyed. In the educational context, Indonesia plans to introduce hybrid learning, which combines face-to-face (f2f) and online learning (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2020).

This chapter briefly reviews Indonesian education during the COVID-19 pandemic. Some facts about challenges education in Indonesia has faced based on indicators in SDG No.4 will be highlighted. They include access to all levels of education and quality teaching and learning infrastructure for all people. Secondly, we briefly shed light on the potential benefits of hybrid teaching (integrating technology-based learning settings and traditional classrooms). Thirdly, we explore teachers' perception of education during the pandemic and their opinion of hybrid teaching. In addition, we also invited their view on the potential implementation of hybrid teaching post-pandemic to recover from learning loss that occurred during the pandemic. Lastly, we provide some recommendations for all practitioners based on the findings of our study. We expect the information we provided in this chapter will benefit education practitioners in Indonesia and other countries with similar profiles.

B. Education in Indonesia during the COVID-19 Pandemic: An Overview from SDG No. 4 Outlook

This section briefly reviews Indonesian education during the pandemic in several main areas, which become the references in SDG No. 4 and online learning. These include access to education, basic facilities, literacy, learning in disadvantageous situations, and quality teaching. The review aims to shed light on the quality of education during the pandemic in Indonesia, which is perceived to be declined. The decline, we believe, can be recovered through a program called hybrid teaching, which became the main focus following our reviews.

1. Access to Education

The pandemic might diminish opportunities for Indonesians to properly access any level of education. UNICEF and the Indonesian Ministry of Village recorded that 1% of children aged between 7–18

dropped out of school due to economic reasons (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2021). The second most prominent reason for boys dropping out was child labor, while girls likely dropped out due to early marriage (UNESCO & UNICEF, 2021). Not only at school levels, but students at tertiary levels were also reported to be likely to drop out during the pandemic. In private institutions, the number of students dropping out at the tertiary level increased from 18% to 50% (Kahar, 2020).

2. Basic Facilities

Limited school facilities like internet access also exacerbated the issue of accessing high-quality education in Indonesia during the pandemic. Though internet use in Indonesia increased from 47.7% to 53.7% during the pandemic, in 2020, Indonesia (54%) still has inferior internet access compared to other Southeast-Asian countries like Malaysia (90% of the population), Singapore (92%), Thailand (78%), and Vietnam (70%) (World Bank, 2021). Upsettingly, schools in rural areas were reported to have much less internet penetration rates than all schools in the non-rural/urban regions (UNICEF & UNESCO, 2021). Students' geographical and financial conditions contribute to their limited access to the internet (Azhari & Fajri, 2021).

In addition to limited internet access, schools in Indonesia seem to have insufficient sanitation facilities for maintaining health protocols, according to the Service Delivery Indicator (SDI) Survey 2019; less than half of the schools have enough soap and water (Yarrow et al., 2020b), which are essential items in preventing the spread of COVID-19. Schools in rural places are more likely to have limited sanitation facilities. This condition might raise concerns about students' health safety during the pandemic if learning activities should be held at school due to the absence of online learning infrastructure. In other words, access to a safe learning environment is threatened by the lack of school facilities.

3. Literacy

Although students could still gain access to education during the pandemic, they might likely experience 'learning loss'. Yarrow et al. (2020a) predicted that the reading score of Indonesian students would decrease by 21 points due to school closure. In 2018, students' reading score was 371 and was expected to fall to 350 after the pandemic. This prediction was made under the condition that all students, from those in the top to low-performance groups, equally received a negative impact from distance learning. However, the result of school closure on reading scores might not be as significant as predicted. The number of students who scored below the minimum proficiency will decrease by 4% if higher-performing students benefit from online tutoring or distance learning during the pandemic.

4. Learning in a Disadvantageous Situation

Students might have a spectrum of challenges related to learning during the pandemic. Wahana Visi Indonesia (2020), for example, reported three main challenges students to have during online learning. They included poor time management, limited understanding of the learning content, and significant challenges in comprehending teachers' instruction. The challenges might be more complex for students with disabilities and those living in geographically disadvantaged areas.

Students' learning challenges at home might be exacerbated by other issues such as physical and verbal abuse from adults in their homes. Suyadi and Selvi (2022) found that parents verbally abused their children for several reasons. Parents often find their children unmotivated (perceived as lazy), undisciplined (using the computer for playing games rather than for studying), and too dependent (asking for continuous assistance for doing the tasks). These reasons seem to fit with the challenges perceived by students at the school levels, as reported by Wahana Visi Indonesia (2020). In contrast, students at tertiary found that online distance learning positively impacted the

family relationship (Hermanto et al., 2021). These students appreciated more communication with other members of their family.

5. Quality Teaching

Other issues that might hinder students from accessing high-quality learning include the Indonesian teachers' limited knowledge. The SDI Survey showed that only 15.6% of teachers have minimum expertise in math, and 39.6% have minimum knowledge in Bahasa Indonesia and pedagogy (Yarrow et al., 2020b). During the pandemic, teachers with such inadequate knowledge are more likely to be pressured by the demand for digital skills for online learning. Some studies reported that many teachers identified gaps in their digital skills (Azhari & Fajri, 2021; Rasmitadila et al., 2020) and pedagogy skills in distance learning as their most limiting factors (Lie et al., 2020; Rasmitadila et al., 2020).

C. Pros and Cons of Online Learning: The Potential of Hybrid Learning

Due to government regulation, online learning was conducted during the pandemic in many parts of the world, including Indonesia. This section briefly reviewed one of the innovations in many schools to conduct their teaching and learning activities, namely online learning. Previous studies have recorded the pros and cons of online learning. It is believed that the potential of online learning could be continuously adopted even when the pandemic is over, and these potentials could be integrated with other learning settings. Hybrid learning, the proposed integration method in this study, is expected to recover the learning loss due to the decline in education quality during the pandemic.

Table 12.1 shows the pros and cons of online learning in Indonesia. Online learning is expected to provide learners more access and educational opportunities; they can learn anywhere in their own time. Although there is no consensus about its definition, and it is sometimes mixed up with other terminologies like e-learning and distance learning (Moore et al., 2011), many define online learning

as an environment in which learners access the learning experiences via a kind of technology like the internet. The popularity of online learning has dramatically increased due to the pandemic (Adedoyin & Soykan, 2020).

Table 12.1 Pros and Cons of Online Learning

Pros	Cons
Students might have their learning performance improved (Amir et al., 2020; Ngo et al., 2021)	Many teachers have a lack digital skills (Bao, 2020), which might influence the effectiveness of teaching
Students might have their learning independence increased (Purwadi et al., 2021).	Students often lack motivation and are anxious about the pandemic (Adedoyin & Soykan, 2020)
Digital immigrant teachers might have their digital skills improved (Azhari & Fajri, 2021; Taufik & Yustina, 2020),	Students might have to put more effort into the process (Wijanto et al., 2021).
Students can adjust the learning pace based on their needs (Peterson, 2021),	
Parents might play better roles in education (Pratama & Firmansyah, 2021)	
Students with social disadvantages might socially feel more secured (i.e., Farley et al., 2014; Swicord et al., 2013)	

Source: Authors' compilation

Older students, like tertiary students, might benefit more from online learning than younger students. Studies about online learning during the pandemic involving tertiary settings often reported students' increased learning performance (Amir et al., 2020; Ngo et al., 2021) and independence (Purwadi et al., 2021). While facing more challenges in online learning, younger students might also benefit

from this learning setting like the improved digital skills of digital immigrant teachers (Azhari & Fajri, 2021; Taufik & Yustina, 2020), flexibility to adjust the learning pace based on their needs (Peterson, 2021), and better parental roles in education (Pratama & Firmansyah, 2021). In addition, online distance learning could provide a safer environment during the pandemic for students with social disadvantages, such as those in juvenile detention (Farley et al., 2014) and some students with special needs (Swicord et al., 2013).

Despite the potential benefits of online learning, teachers, students, and parents still prefer face-to-face (f2f) learning. Not all teachers are used to online learning and its technologies (Bao, 2020). Students often lack motivation and are anxious about the pandemic (Adedoyin & Soykan, 2020). A case study of Information Technology undergraduates (Karnalim et al., 2021) shows that although students can somehow maintain their academic performance, they might put more effort into the process (Wijanto et al., 2021).

Even among students in f2f, engagement between teachers and students is another challenge in online learning. Especially for courses involving physical activities like physical exercise or science laboratory work, f2f might offer an ideal setting. Students could learn from the teacher's demonstration. Further, teachers and peers can also observe and monitor them while performing the activities. In other words, there are still some f2f educational aspects that could not effectively be replaced by online technology.

Considering the potential benefits of online distance learning and realizing that f2f might be the best setting to cover some educational aspects, integrating both might benefit students in learning. The integration of the two settings is called hybrid learning. In this article, we use the definition of hybrid learning from Linder (2017), who defined hybrid learning as the utilization of technology to support the f2f setting. Hybrid learning allows the time spent by students in a technology-based learning setting to replace the seat time of f2f learning. This definition fits the learning condition during the pandemic, where students learned from home to replace the f2f learning.

Previous studies have recorded the benefits of hybrid learning. In a systematic review of hybrid learning, Ashraf et al. (2021) found that hybrid learning improved students' self-regulation and positive behavioral outcomes such as progression and cooperation skills. Moreover, they also found that hybrid learning enhanced students' motivation, interaction, higher-order thinking, and self-efficacy. In Indonesia, Manurung et al. (2020) found that blended learning allowed foreign language students at tertiary institutions to learn based on their learning pace. Furthermore, Zein et al. (2019) found that high school students improved their math performance using this learning method.

D. Community of Inquiry in Hybrid Learning

The Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework has been used to investigate studies about online learning (Garrison, 2007; Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). It was purposely designed to explore online learning for higher education but was recently used for exploring online and hybrid learning at the school levels (Garrison, 2007; Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). The framework illustrated how three fundamental domains comprise educational experience. These domains are social, cognitive, and teaching presence.

The three domains are fundamental aspects of learning in f2f and online settings. Garrison and Vaughan (2008) illustrate the three domains and what variables include in each presence. Regarding social presence, issues related to interpersonal communication are essential. A class with an effective social presence provides a medium for students to securely collaborate with others to express emotions and opinions. Students can feel free to explore their inquiries through collaboration. This inquiry is strongly related to cognitive presence, in which students might focus on either deductive or inductive inquiry approaches. Students might focus on exploring the inquiry in seeking the answer when adopting an inductive approach, or they might focus on an application of an inquiry when applying the deductive approach. Whichever the inquiry approach is sought, students will

benefit from an effective teaching presence, which aims to facilitate learning effectively by integrating social and cognitive presence to help students learn. Therefore, establishing an effective curriculum, approaches, and methods are the main elements of teaching presence.

The social, cognitive, and teaching elements are interlinked with each other. The interlinking between the three domains contributes to the educational experience. Teaching presence, for example, has a direct relationship with cognitive and social presence domains. On the one hand, teachers' decisions to select content and delivery methods will affect cognitive and social presence in learning. On the other hand, students' cognitive conditions and participation might also affect teachers' facilitation. Garrison and Vaughan (2008) described students' collaboration and feeling safe in expressing emotions as the indicator of social presence, while students' exploration, puzzlement, and questions show that cognitive presence is involved.

Some data from the current study were analyzed qualitatively using the hybrid learning framework reviewed in this section. We categorized the information acquired from the survey into social, cognitive, and teaching domains. The following section describes the methodology of our survey study, which aimed to investigate the teachers' perspectives in Indonesia on the potential of hybrid learning as one innovation to recover the learning loss during the pandemic.

E. Acquiring Teacher's Perspectives towards Hybrid Learning: Reflecting through Experience

This chapter summarized teachers' perspectives on Indonesian education's readiness to implement hybrid learning via a questionnaire survey. The survey consisted of twenty-five questions (open-ended and close-ended) tailored explicitly to the high-quality education envisioned by the United Nations in the Sustainable Development Goal No. 4. Details of the questions can be seen in Table 12.2. Each question is answered on a 4-points Likert scale: 'strongly disagree' as 1, 'disagree' as 2, 'agree' as 3, and 'strongly agree' as 4. The first sixteen questions could also be found in Karnalim et al. (2022). The survey

was validated by two experts from the educational technology field. Further, the survey questions had been made more evident according to suggestions provided by ten teachers before being used in this study. The amount of 201 teachers was participating in our study; they teach various levels of education, with some of them coming from 3T rural areas—3T: *Terdepan* (frontier), *Terpencil* (the outermost), and *Tertinggal* (the most disadvantaged). However, 72 were excluded from our study as they fell to our trick question, and we consider they did not thoughtfully respond to the survey. Our trick question (Q17) is the reversed perspective of Q07, and if a respondent does not provide consistent responses for both, we exclude their response from the results. We applied this tricking mechanism to ensure that respondents did read the questions.

In addition, we provided information regarding the purpose of the survey and how we would process the data. We also strived to ensure the confidentiality of the participants. One of the ways was by not asking their personal data in the demography questions. In the demography questions, we asked their institution location, level of education, whether they had taught special needs students, and whether they had experience teaching and/or learning online. In addition, participants were informed that their returned questionnaires indicated their consent for this study to use their opinion.

The responses from the complete surveys were analyzed with a mixed-method analysis. In analyzing the data from the close-ended questions, we used the second author's quantitative analysis for responses of all teachers, 3T teachers, and non-3T teachers. The average Likert score for each question can be seen in Table 12.2. To measure the difference between responses of 3T and non-3T teachers, a two-tailed independent t-test with a 95% confidence rate was used.

In analyzing the data from an open-ended question, the first and the third author codified the answer into several codes. The codes were determined from the hybrid teaching domains highlighted by Garrison and Vaughan (2008) and an online teaching framework called Community of Inquiry (CoI) proposed by Garrison (2007).

The framework included social presence, cognitive presence, and teaching presence. Answers from the participants were categorized into variables that might belong to either of the three presences (see section D for detail). The discussions resolved disagreements between the coders, including involving the second author.

F. Teacher's Perspectives towards Hybrid Learning for Quality Education in Indonesia Post-Pandemic: An Outlook.

1. Teacher's Reflection on Online Learning during the Pandemic

Overall, we noted that teachers seemed to have mixed perspectives regarding implementing hybrid learning. Nineteen of the questions did not show explicit agreement among teachers. The proportion of agreed respondents is comparable to the counterpart, and the average score is between 2 (disagree) to 3 (agree). Table 12.2 summarizes our quantitative findings: non-rural, rural, and both areas. Q17 is our trick question; it is the reversed perspective of Q07. Participants who did not provide consistent answers to both questions were not considered in the analysis. The data is reliable since its Cronbach's alpha is 0.92, higher than the minimum threshold for reliability (0.7).

Table 12.2 The Average of Likert Scale Responses (1–5) from Both Groups regarding Online Distance Learning during the Pandemic and Potential Hybrid Teaching

	Questions	Non-rural	Rural	All	t-test
Q01	Designing online learning activities to encourage discussions among students is easy to do	2.58	2.67	2.55	0.61
Q02.	Designing online learning activities to encourage students to ask questions is easy to do	2.32	2.39	2.52	0.34
Q03.	Online learning can encourage discussions among students in the learning process	2.25	2.47	2.27	0.81

	Questions	Non-rural	Rural	All	t-test
Q04.	Online learning can improve students understanding of the learning materials	2.32	2.45	2.19	0.7
Q05	Online learning can promote interaction between students and educators in the learning process	2.14	2.35	2.29	0.85
Q06.	Students are more active in discussions with their peers about the learning materials during online learning	2.53	2.53	2.06	0.42
Q07.	Online learning reduces students' participation	2.39	2.52	2.42	0.53
Q08.	Students become more technology-literate in online learning	3.29	3.18	3.22	0.88
Q09.	Educators become more technology-literate in online learning	3.57	3.43	3.56	0.83
Q10.	Online learning is more suitable for accommodating the needs of all students, including the vulnerable ones (e.g., those with disabilities or those in vulnerable situations)	2.08	2.16	2.02	0.65
Q11.	Information and software from the internet can be useful to improve students' literacy skills	2.98	3.00	2.89	0.8
Q12.	Information and software from the internet can be useful to improve students' numeracy skills	2.88	2.90	2.8	0.71
Q13.	In online learning, students' grades reflect their actual competence	2.26	2.49	2.21	0.48
Q14.	My institution has adequate facilities to conduct online learning	3.05	2.29	2.81	0.0016*
Q15.	Online scholarships can help students to learn with no restrictions on time and place	3.25	3.29	3.2	0.92
Q16.	Online scholarship can help educators to improve their teaching skills with no restrictions on time and place	3.29	3.24	3.23	0.98
Q17.	Online learning increases students' participation (Trick question)	NA	NA	NA	NA

	Questions	Non-rural	Rural	All	t-test
Q18.	Online learning integrated with face-to-face meetings (hybrid teaching) will be effective	2.84	2.91	2.77	0.74
Q19.	Hybrid teaching will reduce unequal access to education, especially in an emergency situation like a pandemic.	3.01	2.98	2.92	0.37
Q20.	Hybrid teaching will reduce the discrepancy in quality education, especially in an emergency like a pandemic.	3.03	3.04	2.95	0.79
Q21.	Hybrid teaching will accommodate the needs of all students, including those with disabilities and those who are socially disadvantaged.	2.98	2.91	2.89	0.61
Q22.	My institution has adequate learning facilities to support a hybrid learning setting.	2.99	2.49	2.84	0.008*
Q23.	My institution has adequate human resources to support a hybrid learning setting.	3.01	2.84	2.91	0.29
Q24.	Based on my teaching experience during the COVID-19 pandemic, I believe I can teach in a hybrid setting in the future,	3.07	2.89	3.00	0.27
Q25.	I do agree hybrid teaching is implemented regardless of the emergency	2.85	2.76	2.68	0.15

Note: *p-value < 0.05, **p-value < 0.001

We believe that online learning settings positively influence students' and teachers' digital literacy. Q09 is agreed by 131 of 138 teachers, and 85 of them responded with "'strongly 'agree.' The survey question asks whether teachers become more technology-literate in online learning. That kind of learning enforces Indonesian teachers, who previously relied so much on face-to-face teaching, to learn about online platforms and tools to improve student engagement. The second most agreed-upon statement is Q08, which is about students being more technology-literate in online learning. One hundred twelve

teachers agree with a comparable proportion of 'agree'; and 'strongly agree' responses. As Indonesian teachers introduce online learning, students must learn how to use relevant technologies, which might make them more technology-literate. These findings support evidence from previous studies indicating that younger students might also benefit from this learning setting, like the improved digital skills of digital immigrant teachers (see Azhari & Fajri, 2021; Taufik & Yustina, 2020).

Teachers from both groups seem to share a similar opinion that online learning might provide complete access to education for both students and teachers. Q15 and Q16 have comparable agreement rates with Q08. They are both about online scholarships; Q15 is for students while Q16 is for teachers. Indonesian teachers agree that given the current situation, an online scholarship can be a viable alternative for prospective students and teachers; they can improve their skills and knowledge without being restricted by time and place. This finding supports the idea that online learning could provide broader access to education for people regardless of their limitations (Farley et al., 2014; Swicord et al., 2013).

Related to the potential of hybrid learning, teachers from both groups seemed to be optimistic about its implementation. Q24 is another statement that is agreed upon by many teachers (101 of 138). These teachers believe that their skills are adequate to conduct hybrid teaching. The finding confirms Azhari & Fajri (2021) that technology exposure during the pandemic might improve teachers' technology skills. Although self-assessment can be biased, this is still a good sign for the Indonesian government to establish a policy to standardize hybrid teaching.

Lastly, we noted that teachers from both groups agreed that online distance settings might mostly challenge the social domain. Teachers mostly disagreed with Q4, Q6, and Q17. These questions inquired about teachers' opinions towards students' interactions in the classroom. The exchanges included teachers-students interaction, students-students interaction, and student-course content interactions.

In addition, teachers also disagreed that online learning positively impacts cognitive and teaching domains. The questions implicate these challenges are the teachers' answers to Q2, Q3, Q5, Q10, and Q13. Ashraf et al. (2021) also recorded the challenges related to these domains. Their studies revealed that students faced psychological and behavioral issues, such as engagement, motivation, cooperation, and academic performance.

Rural teachers have comparative perspectives with those from non-rural regions. A two-tailed independent t-test with a 95% confidence rate shows that the responses do not show statistically significant differences for most questions.

Q14 is the only survey question with a statistically significant difference. Rural teachers believe that their institutions have less adequate facilities to conduct online learning. It is expected as 3T regions usually have limited infrastructure and facilities. Further, the institutions tend to have less budget. This finding is not surprising as UNICEF and UNESCO (2021) reported that rural areas in Indonesia have much less internet penetration rates than all schools in the non-rural/urban regions.

2. Perceived Challenges in the Social Presence Dimensions

Teachers from rural and non-rural areas disclosed that online learning infrastructure had contributed to teaching online challenges. Poor internet connection and the absence of supporting gadgets from students are the two examples often mentioned. Especially for those who teach in rural areas, some teachers were disheartened that many students were not equipped with the supporting gadgets due to financial factors. In addition, many students lived in geographically disadvantaged areas, making the internet connection challenging to afford. Table 12.3 summarizes the results of the most perceived challenge in conducting teaching online by rural and non-rural teachers in Indonesia.

Table 12.3 The Most Challenging Factor in Increasing the Social Presence Reported by Teachers (% of Respondents)

Challenging Factors	Domain	Non-rural	Rural
1. Teacher's digital literacy/skill	Teaching	5%	0%
2. Students' family support	Teaching	6%	7%
3. Infrastructure/facilities	Teaching	40%	76%
4. Instruction delivery	Teaching	25%	7%
5. Students' motivation	Cognitive	3%	0%
6. Students' ability to comprehend	Cognitive	2%	0%
7. Students' concentration	Cognitive	10%	0%
6. No answer	-	9%	10%

As indicated in Table 12.3, most teachers perceived that online classrooms' social presence was highly affected by teaching factors. However, non-rural teachers identified cognitive factors to influence social presence. These teachers mentioned students' short learning attention/concentration, low motivation to follow specific courses, and their ability to comprehend the content courses as cognitive factors that might influence their social presence in the classrooms. These perceived factors seem to align with Suyadi and Selvi (2022), who reported that younger students tended to lose motivation, were easily distracted by non-educational content on the screens, and depended on their parents when it came to assignments.

3.   Perceived Challenges in the Cognitive Presence Dimension

Both urban and rural teachers believed that the lack of pedagogical skills in online learning became one of the biggest challenges in assisting students in understanding the courses. It might be in line with Yarrow et al. (2020b), which disclosed that most teachers in Indonesia have insufficient knowledge and pedagogical skills. However, both groups put different factors in the most challenging one. For teachers from rural areas, limited facilities were the factors that hindered the most. This answer seems to be consistent with their answers to the previous question. While for non-rural teachers, their lack of

knowledge regarding course content delivery methods was the factor that negatively affected the 'students' understanding of the content. This finding confirms Rasmitadila et al. (2020), who mentioned that instructional strategies became one of the most highlighted challenges by most teacher participants. These teachers mainly resided in non-rural areas in Java provinces.

Table 12.4 The Most Challenging Factor in Increasing the Cognitive Presence Reported by Teachers

Challenging Factors	Challenged Domain	Non-rural	Rural
1. Teacher's digital literacy/skill	Teaching	6%	7%
2. Students' family support	Teaching	6%	3%
3. Infrastructure/Facilities	Teaching	15%	47%
4. Instruction delivery	Teaching	26%	17%
5. Teachers' monitoring method	Teaching	13%	3%
6. Students' motivation	Cognitive	6%	7%
7. Students' ability to comprehend	Cognitive	12%	3%
8. Students' concentration	Cognitive	8%	3%
10. No problems	-	2%	3%
11. No answer	-	7%	7%

Source: Authors

As indicated in Table 12.4, all teachers shared a similar perception that the teaching domain was the challenged domain to engage students cognitively. Three student-related factors that teachers perceived contributed to the missing cognitive presence in the class. They included the students' motivation, various cognitive abilities, and concentration. Our quantitative analysis also validated this finding, which is in line with the study conducted by Ashraf et al. (2021). Moreover, we noted that the two groups highlighted different aspects of cognitive issues. The non-rural teachers mentioned the students' cognitive condition as the most highlighted challenged domain, while the rural teachers mentioned the students' motivation.

Interestingly, we found few teachers who admitted to having no problems. When we look at the demography of these teachers, we found that those from non-rural areas were college instructors, and those from rural areas were teachers who never taught online. It might validate that online learning is not new to higher education and has been thoroughly studied and evaluated (see Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). Hence, it is not surprising to see the fact that the learning system and the instructors at college can more adequately support hybrid learning than those at the lower education levels.

4. Perceived Challenges in the Teaching Presence Domain

Both groups believed that the course delivery was the most challenging factor in interpreting the curriculum during the pandemic. They also put course material design as one of the top challenges. However, rural teachers still put online distance learning infrastructure or facilities as one of the most significant challenges. In contrast, only a few non-rural teachers admitted it as the most challenging factor in curriculum adaptation.

Table 12.5 The Most Challenging Factor in Improving the Teaching Presence Domain Reported by Teachers

Dimension	Factors	Non-rural	Rural
1. Teacher's digital literacy/skill	Teaching	9%	7%
2. Students' family support	Teaching	2%	0%
3. Course characteristics	Teaching	7%	3%
4. Infrastructure/Facilities	Teaching	6%	21%
5. Course material design	Teaching	20%	17%
6. Instruction Delivery	Teaching	28%	31%
7. Teacher's Monitoring method	Teaching	3%	3%
8. Students' ability to understand	Cognitive	5%	0%
9. No problems	-	6%	0%
10. No answer	-	13%	17%

Source: Authors

It is interesting to note that in Table 12.5, some non-rural teachers mentioned students' various cognitive abilities and family support as two of the most significant challenges. In contrast, none of the rural teachers said both factors. In addition, similar to the previous questions, we also found that few non-rural teachers had no problems adapting or delivering the curriculum to the new settings. The reason was that their school had already provided a steady learning system. Though the number is few, their answer might encourage the idea that ideal online learning could occur when schools fully support teachers and students. In addition, the fact that teachers from both groups pointed out that instruction delivery was the most challenging teaching factor seems to support what Yarrow et al. (2020b) reported regarding the insufficient pedagogical knowledge of Indonesian teachers.

5. **Perceived Opinion about the Effectiveness of Integrating f2f and Online Distance Classrooms**

Most teachers from both groups agreed that integrating f2f and online learning would be effective. They believed the integration would provide more learning opportunities for students. Students could access learning and review the lessons at home according to their pace. In addition, the teacher could maximize f2f meetings in the classrooms with monitoring and interaction through discussions rather than content delivery. Both groups also agreed that the integration would provide more input channels for students, which might offer better options to the various learning styles of students. This finding might indicate that the integrated setting will benefit the cognitive domain.

Table 12.6 Teacher's Opinion regarding the Integration of Online Distance and f2f Learning

Opinion about the integration	Non-rural	Rural
It will be effective	55%	48%
It will not be effective	27%	28%
No answer	18%	24%

Source: Authors

In addition, Table 12.6 discloses that more teachers in rural areas believed that the integration would provide a more inclusive learning process because they considered the technology might compensate for limited school facilities. In addition, teachers in remote areas might keep updated with the technology while preserving the learning culture that f2f usually has. However, none of the rural teachers mentioned that the integration offered a safer environment for students and made teaching more accessible, while few non-rural teachers did. It seems that few non-rural teachers identified more benefits from online distance learning. Some teachers might realize that hybrid teaching might provide a safer learning environment despite poor sanitation in many Indonesian schools (Yarrow et al., 2020b).

The percentage of teachers from both groups stating that the integration would not be effective, as displayed in Table 12.6, is almost the same. However, non-rural teachers identified various reasons to support their disagreements. The reasons included the less inclusivity of the settings, extra workload for teachers, difficulties in class management, limited infrastructure, and problems cooperating with unsupportive parents. In addition, some teachers admitted that only f2f was a better approach and thus suggested that online distance learning would not be necessary if f2f could be done. Among those reasons, non-rural teachers shared only two reasons. They were the limited infrastructure and the opinion that only f2f was a better method. In other words, pessimistic teachers about the integration method will face future challenges in the teaching domain.

6. Perceived Opinion about What Factors Make Successful Hybrid Learning

Teachers from both groups agreed that hybrid infrastructure is essential for successful hybrid learning. Other factors are the teachers' digital literacy, stakeholder cooperation, time management, effective teaching methods, active participation, and effective course content design. Overall, the findings of this section validate the CoI framework for hybrid learning from Garrison and Vaughan (2008), which

described the vital role of teaching presence. Teaching presence directly impacts social and cognitive presence in education (Garrison, 2007; Garrison & Vaughan, 2008). The teacher participants in this study seem to highlight important factors to increase the teaching presence in hybrid learning.

Table 12.7 Teacher's Opinion regarding the Most Important Factor to Accomplish an Effective Hybrid Learning

Factors	Influenced Dimensions	Non-rural	Rural
1. Teacher's digital literacy/skills	Cognitive and Social	11%	11%
2. Hybrid Infrastructure	Cognitive and Social	27%	33%
3. Stakeholder cooperation	Cognitive and Social	15%	9%
4. Time management	Cognitive and Social	3%	2%
5. Effective teaching methods	Cognitive and Social	13%	29%
6. Students' active participation	Cognitive and Social	9%	2%
7. Effective course content design	Cognitive and Social	10%	2%
8. No answer	-	11%	11%

Source: Authors

All factors mentioned by the teachers in Table 12.7, either the teacher- or student-related ones, directly influenced both the cognitive and social presence domains. Out of seven factors, one factor is student-related. The teachers associated the students' participation with their motivation and willingness to interact with others during online distance learning. This factor was also mentioned by Ashraf et al. (2021) as one of the most important aspects to be paid attention to in the future when implementing hybrid learning.

G. Conclusions and Future Directions

Teachers from rural and non-rural areas shared a similar opinion that online learning was challenging in many aspects of learning, such as teaching, social, and cognitive domains. Among these three domains, teachers reported that they faced many factors in teaching domains. Teachers from rural areas highly mentioned limited infrastructure as the most challenging factor in facilitating learning, while teachers of

non-rural areas mentioned selecting instruction methods that will stimulate social and cognitive presence in learning as the most difficult one. Despite realizing the other challenges, teachers from both groups showed an optimistic view about implementing hybrid learning in the future. Both groups agreed that online learning might positively contribute to professional development and provide more inclusive access to better education. Thus, hybrid teaching might recover students' learning loss due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

The Indonesian government must address two fundamental issues to achieve effective hybrid learning. The first is to build an adequate online distance learning infrastructure, especially for rural regions. This infrastructure is one of the crucial elements in supporting teaching presence. Teachers must be equipped with effective online delivery instructions along with adequate infrastructure. The proper teaching methods will significantly improve the social and cognitive presence. By improving teaching, social, and cognitive presence in learning, students might experience a better-quality education.

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Chapter 13

Technology-Based Teaching-Learning to Support Education Facing Post-Pandemic Era

Sari Puspita Dewi

A.   The New Era of Teaching-Learning Processn

COVID-19 is no longer something new to talk about. It has disrupted every sector, including education (Wiyono et al., 2021). Since the beginning of pandemics, Work from Home (WFH) and Study from Home (SFH) has become the norm, especially for service organizations. Following government instructions, the learning process cannot be done face-to-face to meet the health protocol, affecting academic delivery. All levels of education, from elementary to tertiary institutions, were forced to adopt "a new era" to continue the teaching-learning process. Therefore, they had to find new ways of academic delivery, and virtual classes were the method the government chose to proceed with.

S. P. Dewi

University of New South Wales, Australia, e-mail: sari.puspitadewi@grafika.pnj.ac.id

Teachers use Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to deliver lectures. ICT in education is closely related to the learning methods used by teachers by using technology that processes information so that it becomes something meaningful when given to students (Dewi et al., 2020). The information conveyed by the teacher can be presented in the form of teaching materials. Teachers try to offer educational information in such a way so that students can easily accept it.

The role of ICT is crucial in processing teaching materials as a form of information so that it is attractive, easy to accept, and easily accessible. The goal is that every student has the same opportunity to receive and understand the information. Not only students but teachers also found using ICT in teaching pleasurable. For instance, teaching English is very suitable to be combined with ICT. ICT can also make learning more enjoyable, encouraging teachers to innovate knowledge delivery (Dewi et al., 2019).

As the situation began to improve, teaching gradually returned offline. Schools can conduct face-to-face learning as long as a strict health protocol is followed. This protocol includes a temperature checking routine for students and teachers upon arrival, a strongly recommended vaccination program, a mask within the school premises, a limited number of students per class, and a limited instruction time of approximately 4.5 hours per class per day. This protocol strongly affects how teachers plan a lesson, especially in choosing the best strategies to maximize the brief instruction time. Even though schools worldwide are ready to provide face-to-face learning, ICT can still be used in online and blended learning regarding its benefits in teaching-learning.

However, can all teachers and students be able to use ICT properly? Can all schools afford internet access to support the use of ICT? Do teachers have adequate teaching strategies to face teaching-learning in the post-pandemic era? Therefore, it is worth investigating the benefits and challenges of ICT use in teaching-learning, the effectiveness, the

continuation, and the suggestion to support education facing the post-pandemic era in Indonesia.

B. Technology-Based Teaching Learning

Studies on technology-based teaching-learning have been increasing since the COVID-19 pandemic forced schools to provide online learning. Scholars found its benefits and challenges to teachers and students, its effectiveness, and the continuation of tech-based teaching-learning. Moreover, this section also discusses the current education situation in Indonesia and its relation to tech-based teaching-learning.

1. The Evaluation of Tech-Based Teaching-Learning

This section discusses technology-based teaching-learning in the COVID-19 pandemic and post-pandemic era. Research that narrates COVID-19 is rapidly growing in SCOPUS indexed online database. The title search term "COVID-19" or "Coronavirus" with the topic field has been used as a keyword and limited to South Asian Countries. A total of 4,236 publications from January 2020 to September 2020 have been downloaded and analyzed under various categories (Yernagula, 2020).

The research areas mentioned in the study are medical, science, engineering, and education. The finding shows that scholars have kept investigating the issues related to the COVID-19 pandemic in every aspect. Moreover, the number of research publications is increasing because people worldwide believe it is time to prepare for the post-pandemic era. Currently, the trend in the education area is "post-pandemic education," where there are 76 publications regarding that topic in Scopus indexed online from December 2020 to January 2022.

If we talk about technology-based teaching-learning, what mainly comes to mind is ICT use in classrooms. ICT use in the classroom is significant for providing attractive, accessible, and acceptable teaching-learning materials in the information age. The latest technologies give the perspective to support education through the curriculum and offer

effective interactions between students and teachers (Dawes, 2001). Not only that, the COVID-19 pandemic crisis eventually made it no choice for educators but to leverage online education technologies and applications. That information at the fingertips needs to be utilized thoroughly but carefully to ensure that although students cannot attend school to seek knowledge, the knowledge can still be adequately conveyed to them via various mediums or platforms (Christopher & Weng, 2020).

Regarding various platforms, Wiyono et al. (2021) showed that lecturers in study programs used multiple kinds of online communication media, with the highest frequency of use is WhatsApp, and then Email, Sipejar-Assignment, Google Meet, Google Classroom, Zoom, and Quizizz. At the same time, the lowest used are BigBlue Button, Schoology, Team Viewer, Kahoot, and Nearpod.

During the lockdown, schools were forced to conduct online distance teaching-learning. Conventional teachers were also urged to use technology-based in their virtual classes. Students learned how to perform on various platforms. ICT can be beneficial on one side but challenging on the other, before or during the COVID-19 pandemic. On the one hand, Dewi et al. (2019) found that ICT use in teaching-learning helped teachers innovate in knowledge delivery, ease them in preparing teaching materials and make learning very enjoyable. It was added by Samorodova et al. (2021) that teachers recognize training in video creation as the most effective method to shape students' creative skills. According to the students' opinion, that activity also has the most significant learning effect and stimulates creative abilities, allowing the educative process to be more exciting and efficient.

On the other hand, tech-based teaching-learning seemed challenging to several teachers. Incorporating ICT into teaching and learning is a complicated process, and anyone might experience several difficulties, commonly known as "barriers" (Schoepp, 2005).

A study found that the fundamental barriers faced by the teachers occurred due to the lack of teachers' competency in operating comput-

ers, which eventually led to having negative experiences in teaching English using ICT. The negative experiences include the failure to adapt software in teaching materials, students' reactions toward the ICT materials, such as violating copyrights, and lesson time loss due to technical problems. Moreover, the barriers were also found at the institutional level, where were occurred due to a lack of effective ICT training and Internet access speed (Dewi et al., 2020).

2. The Effectiveness and the Continuation of Tech-Based Teaching-Learning

Besides evaluating the benefits and challenges of tech-based teaching-learning, we need to investigate its effectiveness, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic and the continuation of the ICT use implementation in the post-pandemic era. The purpose of investigating the efficacy and the tech-based teaching-learning continues to measure how helpful the ICT is in education, figure out how teachers and students accomplish teaching-learning differently during the pandemic and see how schools intend to prefer the teaching-learning method in the future post-pandemic era.

An analysis of the most used teaching method in a foreign language and its effectiveness showed that most teachers believe that training video creation is most effective for shaping students' creative abilities. Based on the students' opinion, that learning activity has the most significant learning effect and stimulates their creative skills, representing the educative process as more exciting and efficient (Samorodova et al., 2021). The research proves how the ICT use could help teachers and students meet the teaching-learning goals and give a creative space for both to make the learning experience more stimulating.

Besides teachers' perspectives, there is also essential to investigate the effectiveness from students' point of view since the significant challenge for virtual learning is learner engagement. Yalagi et al. (2021) found that most feedback from a survey involving 73 students is satisfactory. More than 83% of the learners have given positive

feedback towards this technological teaching change. Learner's engagement has improved to 30%. This encourages both students and teachers to better delivery and learning. It shows how virtual learning enlightens self-directed learning and participative learning. Even though the teacher is satisfied with this mode, preparing the learning material takes considerable time.

Also, Sukiman et al. (2021), analyzing the effectiveness of online learning at bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees of Islamic Religious Education as a reference to develop a learning pattern post-COVID-19 pandemic, found that online learning at doctoral degrees was the most effective. However, bachelor's and master's students tend to have face-to-face or hybrid learning. Therefore, the hybrid learning model is the most appropriate for the students post-COVID-19 pandemic. Meanwhile, the proportion for each mode in the hybrid learning model should be adjusted to the students' characteristics, direction, educational orientation, ability, readiness, and autonomy at each level. However, his study is limited at the school, which does not require a lot of practical activities in the laboratory. The result may be different if the investigation is conducted at the programs requiring many laboratory practices, such as schools of Chemistry, Biology, and Physics for the bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees.

Al Fodeh et al. (2021) evaluated the quality and effectiveness of online dental education and students' perceptions and experiences of blended learning. In the pandemic era, blended learning should become the preferred method of education whereby theoretical knowledge is delivered through online tutorials, and clinical training is resumed on-site to ensure dental graduates' competency while maintaining the dental team's safety. Current facilities and course designs should be improved to improve students' experiences with blended learning.

Two decades ago, blended learning was relatively new in higher education and corporate settings. In higher education, the term "hybrid course" was often used before the emergence of "blended learning." However, the most held position is that blended learning

environments combine face-to-face and technology-mediated instruction (Graham, 2005; Graham et al., 2003, cited in Graham, 2009). This definition highlights the ongoing convergence of two archetypal learning environments: the traditional face-to-face (F2F) and the distributed (or technology-mediated) environments.

Regarding the continuation of implementing tech-based teaching-learning, there are several investigations. Dolenc et al. (2022) investigated a qualitative and quantitative difference in the use of ICT programs and applications before and after the distance learning due to the pandemic and examined the continuance intentions of teachers in terms of using the resources tested in Forced Online Distance Teaching after reopening of the universities. He found that most teachers understood asynchronous teaching as providing teaching materials and instruction to be completed outside the lecture period. Only a minority filmed their lectures or accompanied their teaching materials with recorded explanations. The pattern is the opposite of that in synchronous teaching. Also, several ICT applications used for communication (e.g., email and Moodle) were used continuously during the lockdown and will continue to be used by lecturers in the future. On the other hand, specialized software items (e.g., Padlet, Kahoot) that had not previously been used were not used during the crisis and probably will not be used in the future.

In addition, at a global level, Garcia et al. (2021) studied the factors that influence the implementation of distance education in the pandemic context. There is difficulty in internet connectivity, access to technological and digital equipment and infrastructure, and student-teacher relationships. The incapability to establish appropriate technology for distance education eventually created weak digital literacies in education and socio-economic contexts. It is concluded that the trend has been increasing in using ICT to support educational activities. However, at the same time, access to these media is limited, leading to complex educational processes under the distance mode, which requires expanding the search for strategies to minimize the

difficulties imposed by reality. The hybrid model was then found as the best alternative.

We can say that virtual or online learning is like the two sides of a coin, one side is that ICT use in learning is beneficial, but the other side is the issues that teachers face. Teachers need considerable time to prepare learning materials and competency to perform well in tech-based teaching-learning.

3. Education in Indonesia

The Republic of Indonesia, with a wide geographically and heterogeneous socio-cultural area, requires reasonable efforts to overcome various problems, including education issues in the Foremost, Outermost, and Disadvantaged Regions (Terdepan, Terluar, Tertinggal) known as the 3T Area. Since independence, education has been one of the national goals mentioned in the preamble to the 1945 Constitution (Undang-Undang Dasar 1945). The existence of national education is stated in the body of the 1945 Constitution, namely article 31, paragraph 1, which states that every citizen has the right to receive a proper education.

Moreover, Sustainable Development Goals, stated in "Transforming Our World: The 2030 Agenda", are set to create justice and peace worldwide. Indonesia, among 193 nations, signed the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) at United Nations General Assembly in September 2015. The SDG has a "No One Left Behind" philosophy with 5P ideologies of People, Planet, Prosperity, Peace, and Partnership. To achieve the SDGs goals in Indonesia, Presidential Regulations Number 59 the Year 2017 was issued (Muharikah, 2021).

SDGs are an essential reference in the Medium-Term National Development Plan (Rencana Pembangunan Jangka Menengah Nasional) 2020–2024, in which the education sector is one of the plans. Indonesia plans to (a) improve the quality of teaching-learning, (b) provide equitable access to education services and implement of 12-year Mandatory school (Wajib Belajar 12 Tahun), (c) improve teachers' professionalism, quality, management, and placement, (d) develop

education quality between regions and school levels, and (e) improve education management and funding.

Indonesia is an archipelagic country; many challenges still need to be tackled to achieve equal distribution of education. Although this country guarantees that all citizens can receive a formal education, the 3T area still would be the last priority from the government to receive proper education, both physical and non-physical services (Arkiang, 2021). Improvements in facilities, teaching staff, and remote areas access must be taken with comprehensive steps (Sulfasyah & Nur, 2016 cited in Arkiang, 2021). Since the pandemic struck, formal education should be inclusive, and the public has become a private sector exclusive to 3T areas that must implement distance education. Concerning distance learning, how do teachers in the 3T area survive to deliver knowledge to students? A study showed that early in the pandemic period, in East Nusa Tenggara (NTT), 71% of students used offline learning such as books and student worksheets, 4% had online learning that required an internet connection, and 25% did not have any learning materials provided by the teachers (Arsendy, 2020).

Online learning is one of the solutions to activate teaching and learning, considering that face-to-face meeting is at risk during the pandemic. However, this mode of teaching-learning became important issues in several areas in Indonesia, especially in the 3T area. Suppose the problems are not solved shortly. In that case, one of the plans from the Medium-Term National Development Plan (Rencana Pembangunan Jangka Menengah Nasional) 2020-2024 cannot be achieved.

C. Teachers' Perspectives and Needs

It is significant to evaluate the teaching-learning in Indonesia during the COVID-19 pandemic and toward the post-pandemic period. The instruments used to collect data were systematic reviews, questionnaires, and interviews. First, a systematic review was made of the scientific productivity around the study variable in Scopus and Web of Science databases. The inclusion criteria were research articles

published in scientific journals with the keywords "education in the COVID-19 pandemic" from December 2020 to January 2022. Second, the questionnaires aimed to see the teacher's perspective on online and blended learning and the teaching-learning needs in post-pandemic time. Last, a structured interview with teachers in the 3T area is titled to remoted areas in Indonesia. The interview was organized to get valid data from respondents who chose "Never run online teaching-learning" and "No internet connection at all." Chats or phone calls were used to conduct the interview.

The object of the survey is for teachers who teach all levels of education in Indonesia, from early childhood until higher education, to see their perspectives on their experiences using ICT in online learning. The questionnaires were shared via several social media platforms: WhatsApp, Instagram, and Facebook. The respondents are from Aceh, Jakarta, Depok, Bekasi, Serang, Kolaka, Katingan, NTT, Alor, and Flores. Proper responses were taken from 33 respondents working as teachers and lecturers in Indonesia. The improper response was considered when the respondents gave different information with related questions, such as saying "Yes" for teaching in the 3T area but wrote, "Teaching in Bekasi" (Bekasi city is not one of 3T regions). The interview participants were five teachers who teach in the 3T area.

The participants are teachers and lecturers with various levels of educational background from bachelor's, master's, and doctoral graduates. Based on the data, most respondents work in primary schools (39.4%) and universities (36.4%). Meanwhile, the minority participants work at a kindergarten, private courses, and vocational schools. Even though the characteristics for each level of education are different, it does not matter because the survey is merely to measure the effectiveness of ICT in online learning during the pandemic and teachers' reference towards the post-pandemic chapter.

Globally, due to lockdown, schools were forced to provide distance learning. Teachers were also urged to use technology-based in their virtual classes. ICT use in teaching-learning became a trend. Several platforms and mediums, such as Zoom and Google Meet,

have been used widely to support teaching-learning. The data showed that Zoom, WhatsApp, and Google Meet were platforms used by Indonesian teachers with the highest frequency with 66%, 62%, and 48%, respectively.

Table 13.1 The Frequency of Mediums or Platforms Used by Teachers

Media/ Platform	Frequency of use
Zoom	66%
WhatsApp	62%
Google Meet	48%
Google Classroom	31%
Email	24%
School e-learning system	21%
Quiz	17%
Kahoot	3%
Google Forms	3%

Source: Author

The diagram below shows that 35.3% of survey respondents were teachers in the 3T area.
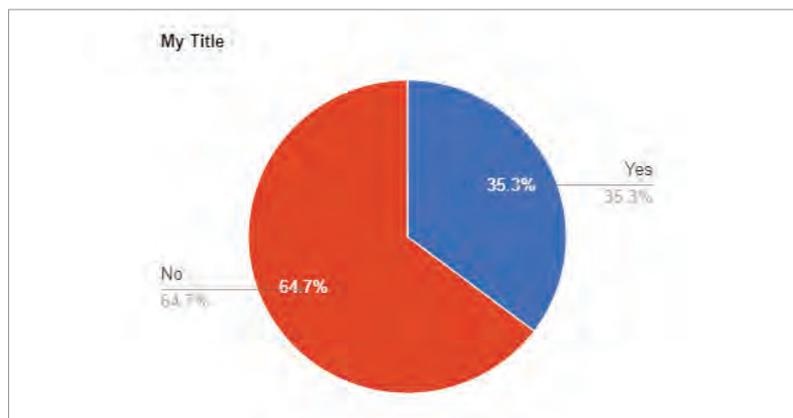
Source: Author

Figure 13.1 Teachers Teaching in 3T area and non-3 T area

The respondents who teach in 3T areas are 58.33% from East Nusa Tenggara, 8.3% is from Aceh, and the same percentage is respectively from Aceh, Central Kalimantan, South Kalimantan, Southeast Sulawesi, and West Nusa Tenggara, and 20.6% of respondents stated that they "never run online teaching-learning."

Source: Author

Figure 13.2 Demography of Respondents from 3T Area

Meanwhile, 15% of the respondents, who teach in 3T areas, answered "no internet connection at all," and 5.6% answered "inadequate ICT facility," which led to 20.6% of the respondents confessing that they have not had online teaching-learning experience. The study also intended to see any issues in online/blended learning faced by teachers during the lockdown. As shown in Table 13.2, the internet connection and improper ICT facilities are teachers' most significant issues in Indonesia.
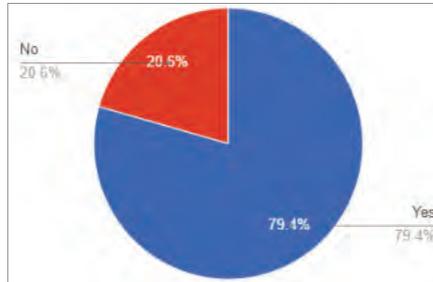
Source: Author

Figure 13.3 Respondents who Have Online Teaching-Learning Experience

Table 13.2 Issues in Online/Blended Learning

Issues in online/blended learning	Frequency
Internet connection issue	56%
Inadequate ICT facility	41%
Teacher's competence in ICT use	9%
Student's competence in ICT use	26%
Plagiarism/fraud issue	32%
Virtual Class management	35%
No significant issues	9%

Source: Author

How to provide distance teaching-learning if an internet connection is unavailable? To investigate the problem, a structured interview was conducted with a respondent from Nakegeo, East Nusa Tenggara, one region of the 3T area. The respondent revealed how schools run teaching-learning during the COVID-19 pandemic by sending teachers door-to-door to give and pick up learning materials to students' houses. Teachers walked or rode a boat across the river to each house. They did this because the internet connection is unavailable in the region, and most parents do not have mobile phones and computers. In addition, respondents from Hulu Sungai Selatan, South Borneo, and Alor Islands also respectively exposed how difficult to access the

internet. Sometimes they can access it, sometimes they cannot, due to poor connection. The situation caused trouble in knowledge delivery using online mediums/platforms.

Identifying the possible problems with integrating ICT technologies in schools, a strategy to improve the quality of teaching and learning should be employed carefully. It is significant to see what strategy teachers need to adopt to improve the quality of teaching-learning activities. Below is the data showing how teachers cope with their issues in teaching-learning and what teachers' expectations are in the future.
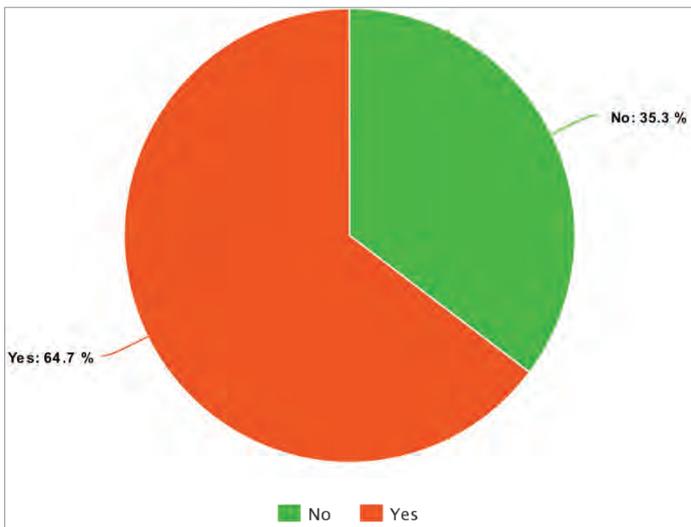
Figure 13.4 Teachers' Perception of the Issues in Online Teaching-Learning

From Figure 13.4, we can interpret that 35.3% of respondents cannot handle the online learning issues independently; they need help from the institution they work at and from the government.

Table 13.3 Teachers' Expectations

Teacher's expectation	respondents
Internet access	62%
Proper ICT facility	65%
Teachers training in ICT use	76%
Students training in ICT use	50%
no help needed	3%

From Table 13.3, it is shown that from 100% of respondents, the highest teacher's expectation is, unexpectedly, for "Teachers training in ICT use," where the expectations also come from 64.7% of respondents who chose "They can deal with their online learning issues independently." Moreover, the second and third highest expectation is for "Proper ICT facility" and "Internet access" with 65% and 62%, respectively. The data describes that most teachers still need help improving their ICT use competence and access to good internet connection and proper ICT tools.

Regarding teacher training in ICT use (Figure 13.5), 57.6% of respondents attended the government's training, school/institutions they work at, and other organizations. Surprisingly, as shown in Table 13.4 below, only 28% of respondents from that percentage experienced the teacher's training organized by the government. It is still biased to confirm whether the government held a small number of teachers or only a small number of respondents who could attend the government's training. A further study is needed to investigate the phenomena.
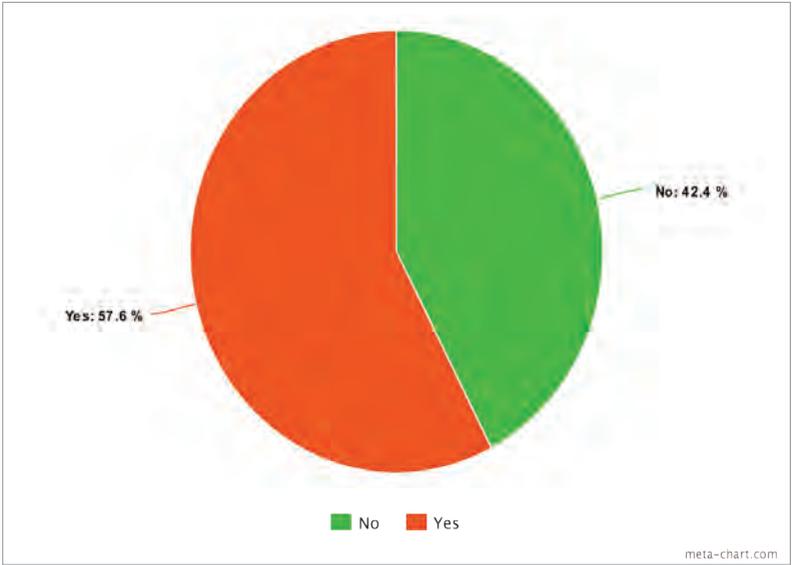
Source: Author

Figure 13.5 Teacher's Training Experiences

Table 13.4 Teacher's Training Organizers

Teacher's Training Organizer	Respondent's experience
Government	28%
School/ institutions	34%
other organizers	38%

Source: Author

To see how teachers continue implementing online/blended learning towards post-pandemic time, the survey also revealed teachers' perception of their motivation to apply online/blended learning in their classes. From Figure 13.6 below, most teachers are motivated to continue the current teaching-learning method, while only a small number of respondents are not motivated and unsure of continuing.

Not Sure: 8.8 %

No: 8.8 %

Yes: 82.4 %

No   Yes   Not Sure
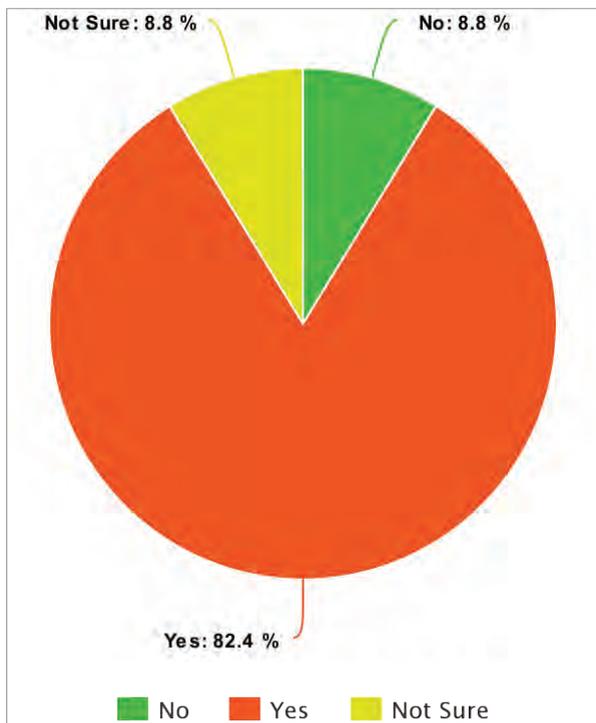
Source: Author

Figure 13.6 Teacher's Motivation for Online/Blended Learning

Besides the teacher's motivation, it is also significant to explore what teaching-learning method is the most doable and applicable in schools. Based on the data from Table 13.3, we can see that the most critical issue is not a teacher's competence but the internet access and ICT facility. As shown in Figure 13.7 below, 55.9% of respondents admitted that blended learning is the most applicable in their schools. In comparison, 41.2% urged face-to-face learning, only 2.9% agreed to run their classes in any learning method, and no respondent preferred solely online learning from the survey question.
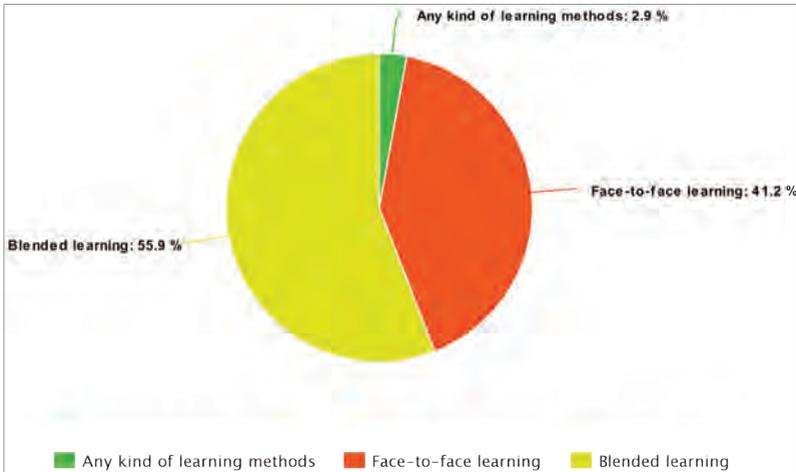
Source: Author

Figure 13.7 Applicable Teaching-Learning Method in School

D. Conclusion and Policy Implication

From the data analysis, it can be concluded that teachers tend to use Zoom, WhatsApp, and Google Meet as ICT tools to conduct teaching-learning during the COVID-19 pandemic period. Unfortunately, 20.6% of the respondents confessed that they do not have an online teaching-learning experience because 15% cannot afford an internet connection, and 5.6% have inadequate ICT facilities. Internet connection and improper ICT facilities are the most significant issues teachers face in Indonesia, especially those who work in the 3T area.

As an illustration, without internet access, schools in Nakegeo, East Nusa Tenggara conduct teaching-learning by sending teachers to students' houses door-to-door to give and pick up physical learning materials by walking for miles or riding a boat across the river. It was done because the internet connection is unavailable in the region, and most parents do not have mobile phones and computers. In addition, respondents from Hulu Sungai Selatan, South Borneo, and Alor Islands also respectively exposed how difficult to access the internet. The

situation caused trouble in knowledge delivery using online mediums/ platforms. Therefore, the government needs to support the internet and ICT facility in schools in remote areas.

Regarding online learning issues, 35.3% of respondents cannot cope with the issues independently; they need help from the institution they work at and from the government. Even though a large number of respondents believe they can handle the issues, still, the highest teacher's expectation is, unexpectedly, for "Teachers training in ICT use" with the second and third highest expectations being for "Proper ICT facility" and "Internet access" with 65% and 62% respectively. The data describes that most teachers still need help to improve their ICT use competence and demand access to good internet connection and proper ICT tools.

This chapter exposed how teachers demand training in ICT use to improve their tech-based teaching-learning. Surprisingly, only 28% of respondents experienced the teacher's training organized by the government. It is still biased to confirm whether the government held a small number of activities for teachers or only a small number of respondents who could attend the government's training. A further study is needed to investigate the phenomenon, but at least the study indicates that government should provide more teachers' development training all over the country, from big cities to remote regions.

To implement the most doable and applicable teaching-learning methods in schools, blended learning is considered the most practical, followed by face-to-face learning. By analyzing the effectiveness, the possible issues, and the expectations in teaching-learning during and after the COVID-19 pandemic, a solution can be considerably taken by all parties; teachers, schools, and the government.

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Chapter 14

How Metaverse—Virtual Reality—Can Facilitate the Emergency Remote Teaching

Dadan Sumardani & Nur Ichsan Sumardani

A. Social Contagion toward Technology Adoption Behaviour

21st-century technological advances have entered various aspects of life, including education. Technology changes the field of education, including objectives, contexts, processes, teaching, and policy (Burbules et al., 2020). In addition, viral contagion, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, has also created a social contagion regarding technology adoption behavior toward digital technologies across all sectors (George et al., 2020). The rapid technological advance during the pandemic is due to the requirement for all education stakeholders to utilize technology to keep the learning process going. For example, laboratory activities that are important for science courses (Blocken, 2015; Tobin, 1990) and the significance in teaching and learning phys-

D. Sumardani,* & N. I. Sumardani
*National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan, e-mail: dansu.sumardani@gmail.com

ics (Hanif et al., 2009) must be carried out through various alternative limited activities, such as the use of virtual laboratories, traditional online course materials, synchronous and asynchronous discussions, and the reliance on question banks for online exams (Brown & Krzic, 2021).

Because of the pandemic, online learning has become the most popular option. Pandemic has significantly impacted education; fully online classes held in almost all schools and universities have become a new requirement (Dwivedi et al., 2020). Online learning also has been widely promoted to replace traditional face-to-face learning during the COVID-19 pandemic (Dong et al., 2020). However, the sudden adaptation of the whole online learning procedure also appears as a big challenge, particularly in some developing countries facing policy paralysis. This phenomenon occurs due to the lack of capacity, technical infrastructure, academic competency, and resource availability to manage educational planning, management, and organization during the pandemic (Mishra et al., 2020).

Many researchers have shared their teaching solutions during COVID-19, for example, using emergency online learning at a higher educational level (Aguilera-hermida, 2020), utilizing gamification in the remote laboratories during food engineering courses (Debacq et al., 2020), and creating problem-solving videos for the chemical engineering exam (Ripoll et al., 2021). Some researchers also suggest accelerating the learning process and improving after a pandemic because the crisis due to COVID-19 on education will leave a permanent mark (Daniel, 2020). Consequently, regarding the new academic year [after the pandemic], the university's management must implement efficient measures to tackle these negative issues as much as possible and improve learning performance (Radu et al., 2020).

Face-to-face learning remains the primary class modality, but online and blended learning environments are mostly recognized as effective as face-to-face in increasing students' knowledge (Rivera, 2016). It has been proven that there is no significant difference between distance education and face-to-face education. Because it

was regarded to have the same objectives, a new term emerged to combine the two: blended learning (Klentien & Wannasawade, 2016). By combining virtual and face-to-face learning methods, it is hoped that it can enrich students' knowledge so that they can learn not only to deal with a COVID-19 pandemic crisis but also to face the future emergency remote teaching environments.

Metaverse is a new term coined by the founders of Facebook to refer to the next level of social interaction in virtual space. Many technologists agree that the metaverse is the next level of augmented reality (AR) and virtual reality (VR) technologies. Many studies prove their strengths in facilitating the cognitive capacity of humans to experience learning (Daniela & Lytras, 2019) and enhance digital-age literacy, creative thinking, communication, collaboration, and problem-solving ability, which constitute the so-called twenty-first-century skills that are necessary to transform information rather than merely receive it (Papanastasiou et al., 2019), especially those that involve abstract concepts (Edwards et al., 2019).

This chapter discusses the possibilities of learning using metaverse, focusing on metaverse as virtual reality. With the metaverse development, it is necessary to further study the metaverse potential in facilitating remote learning needed in various emergencies. It is not impossible; pandemics, epidemics, and possible problems that encourage educators to implement remote learning will happen again. COVID-19 is predicted not to be the last disease to take advantage of current global conditions; thus, such preparation is needed, including enhancing the integration and effectiveness of the emergency management systems through education (Iserson, 2020). Therefore, preparing and knowing the potential media to improve the learning process during an emergency must be studied.

B. Metaverse to Facilitate Emergency Remote Teaching

Technology is vital in communicating efficient learning (Toquero, 2020). In addition, innovative virtual learning methods provide

positive experiences for students to support the implementation of the teaching and learning process during the COVID-19 pandemic.

1. Metaverse

A metaverse is a 3D virtual part that combines the real world into a virtual world with an avatar as a representative display so that it looks real and users can interact with each other (Lee, 2021). Metaverse is not new; the term metaverse was introduced in 1992 in Neal Stevenson's science fiction novel Snow Crash (Mystakidis, 2022). Metaverse has four main dimensions, as shown in Figure 14.1 below.
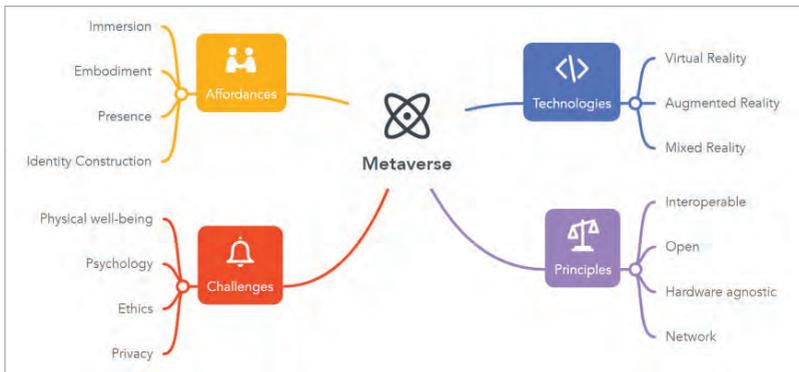
Source: Mystakidis (2022)

Figure 14.1 The Main Dimension of Metaverse

The technology in the metaverse includes virtual reality (VR), Augmented Reality (AR), and Mix Reality (MR), which have been widely developed into learning devices. The distance learning model adopted into the metaverse enables a good learning experience (Mystakidis, 2022); online learning in the metaverse will reach both formal and non-formal learning.

Classroom learning that interacts between educators and students can be carried out simultaneously in a virtual space. Online learning can be done through conference platforms that refer to web 2.0, such

as WebEx, Zoo, Microsoft Team, Meet, and Skype (Mystakidis, 2022). More advanced, the next generation of web 3.0 (i.e., metaverse) offers more real interaction (Zahabi & Abdul Razak, 2020) so that learning can be delivered effectively.

2. Virtual Reality

Along with its development, virtual reality will be suitable to become the leading in the development of learning in the pandemic era, which enables the learning process done despite limited circumstances and geographical distance (Owusu-Fordjour et al., 2020; Silva et al., 2020). Virtual reality is a breakthrough that can carry out online activities remotely (Toquero, 2020).

In Education, virtual reality can reach students' experience in an actual virtual world (Serin, 2020). With virtual reality in education, online learning amid a pandemic can be done with a more authentic approach. In addition, VR plays an essential role in teaching methods, thus providing an excellent and exciting approach to getting information (Alfarsi et al., 2020).

3. Emergency Remote Teaching

The pandemic negatively impacts students' learning process because many are not used to learning effectively, so they are required to carry out learning in such an emergency (Silva et al., 2020). The pandemic has forced many restrictions on human interaction and the learning process, interfering with students' ability to understand their lessons (Erduran, 2020).

Many technologies are used on the internet, and each has different features, methods, and protocols, but the easiest to use is the web (Jacksi & Abass, 2019). Amid limited access to classes, a video conferencing platform of limited web 2.0 along with the development of web technology continues to experience growth. Hence, it is easier for the users to access it. The third version of the web or web 3.0 is executable for users to interact with dynamic applications (Jacksi

& Abass, 2019) thus, allows users to interact directly despite a long distance.

C. Implementing Metaverse in Learning Process

In learning a virtual reality, teachers need to design instructional that provide students to learn "with virtual reality, not from virtual reality" and merge constructivism with educational technology. Constructivism is founded on the idea that learning is an active exploration process from multiple perspectives, resulting in knowledge being constructed from a personal interpretation of the experience (Jonassen et al., 1998). VR has long been known through very complex tools and is used only for research purposes developed in 1993 using prototype VR devices of large sizes and not compatible to solve many misconceptions that physics students often occur (Loftin et al., 1993). Then, VR became widely known since the commercial Cardboard Generation was on the market[1].

1. Blended Learning and Virtual Reality

Learning with a blended learning method positively impacts students' way of thinking (Klentien & Wannasawade, 2016). Every strength of student learning activities obtained through face-to-face learning directly or virtually will cover the shortcomings of any types of learning that have been done previously (Gumilar et al., 2019; Klentien & Wannasawade, 2016). Blended learning has an essential role in the development process of students so that collaborators between virtual and face-to-face learning can provide additional knowledge to students. Blended classes or blended learning methods have advantages in learning experiences (Gumilar et al., 2019). The combined learning method can also positively respond to students' learning process, which is recognized as a good and effective method (Harahap et al., 2019; Sullivan et al., 2017).

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[1]   Supporting data of this study are available at https://doi.org/10.17605/osf.io/5tm87, and further data can be accessed on request from corresponding author Nur Ichsan Sumardani at ichsan.sumardani@gmail.com

Moreover, the latest technology utilization makes a breakthrough in learning methods (Allcoat et al., 2021; Klentien & Wannasawade, 2016; Zilka et al., 2019) so that learning can be delivered optimally both in face-to-face and virtual learning. Along with the development of virtual learning experiencing growth and direct face-to-face learning, which seem stagnant, educators must provide fundamental understanding to students in both ways. The virtual environment allows students to enhance the exploratory learning process (Zilka et al., 2019). Therefore, it must be ensured that this method aligns with the pedagogical implementation through the alignment of blended classes (Rivera, 2016).

Blended learning is an educational strategy that has grown and improved exponentially during the COVID-19 pandemic (Papadimitropoulos et al., 2021). Virtual representations can be used in cases where academic lessons must be replaced with online learning due to limitations (Calderón et al., 2021). Blended learning encourages students to study the material before class to ensure understanding and active participation in the learning process (Kuroki & Mori, 2021). Some universities use online experiments and do some online learning platforms (Andrews et al., 2020; Clark et al., 2021). However, some negative aspects were reported: lack of adequate infrastructure for some students, less effective teacher-student communication and interaction, the impossibility of performing practical applications, lack of socialization, lack of learning motivation, less objective examination (e.g., the possibility of cheating), the possibility of physical and mental health degradation (e.g., too much time spent in front of screens, installation of a sedentary lifestyle) (Radu et al., 2020). The parents also generally have negative beliefs about the values and benefits of online learning (Dong et al., 2020).

Departing problems from online and blended learning during the pandemic (Dong et al., 2020; Radu et al., 2020), VR can be used as a solution to the problems of physical activities (Cao et al., 2021) and socialization (Aysina & Nesterova, 2019) (Figure 14.2). However, nowadays, educators do not widely use virtual reality as the primary modality of blended or online learning.

Figure 14.2 Meeting with other people [teachers] in the virtual world using VRChat

With distance learning being carried out during the pandemic, many VR developers have developed applications to support remote interaction, for example, Horizon Workrooms by Facebook, VRChat, and Multiverse by Future Tech Labs.
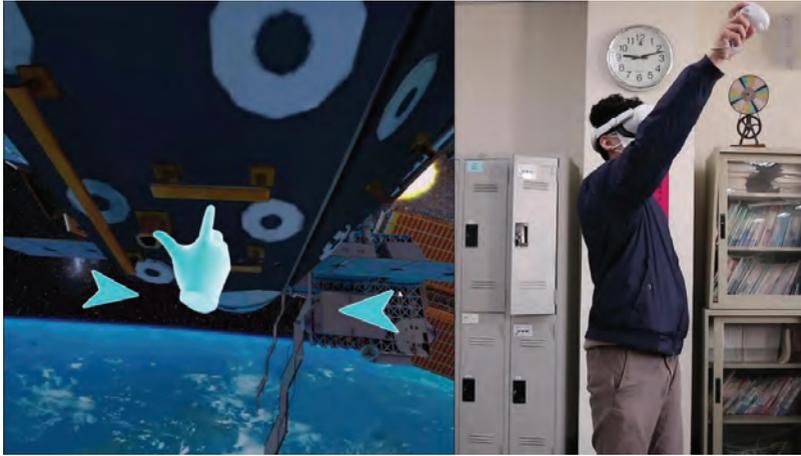
Source: Magnopus (2019)

Figure 14.3 Virtual laboratory with the hazardous situation in the virtual world using Mission ISS

Virtual reality can both facilitate distance learning and provide an authentic experience during a pandemic; for example, in the space station (Figure 14.3), these materials can be transferred using virtual and physical learning to avoid danger in hazardous situations (Jelonek & Herrmann, 2019) without omitting the theories so that learning can be interrelated and complementary.

2. Virtual Reality in the Classroom

a. Normal classroom

The media facilitates knowledge transfer through communication between teachers and students during the learning process. According to mind and brain studies, the key findings from neuroscience and cognitive science are expanding knowledge of the mechanisms of human learning (National Research Council, 2000).

Many studies prove that learning through VR as visualization media can improve learning and student engagement (Allcoat & Mühlenen, 2018), create learning interactions (Wang et al., 2019), increase self-efficacy (Makransky et al., 2020), and concretize concepts (authenticity) (Yang & Goh, 2022). According to the cone of experience

(Dale, 1969), active learning, for example, performing an experiment and simulating a model of phenomena, can be remembered 90% of the material, in contrast to 10% if only reading a textbook. In this case, VR can simulate a model of the phenomena; for example, in one of the simulations, students can simulate how they experience in the space station or keep in touch with the environment (Figure 14.4).

Source: Fun Bits Interactive (2019)

Figure 14.4 Keep in touch with the environment

If face-to-face learning runs typically, VR can be used as a visualization medium to access dangerous experiments and experiments that cannot be done in the real world, such as laboratories in outer space, nuclear labs, investigating uranium, or exploring countries around the world. However, if students cannot use VR, for example, because of the high cost, VR also provides a casting feature to facilitate this problem so students can collectively see what someone is seeing in the virtual world. Although in the ideal learning process, it will be better to use one device for one person.

b. Emergency Classroom

Similar to today's hybrid learning approach, using VR in an emergency classroom enables teachers to meet students face-to-face and provide lessons to students who cannot attend class via live video conference simultaneously. Metaverse can be used similar to those hybrid learning approaches; for example, when Artur Sychov in TEDx Talks uses a VR suit to bring himself to exist in 2 worlds: the real space to meet face-to-face with the audience and the virtual space to meet with people in the metaverse, which is known as cross reality (TEDx Talks, 2021). Metaverse, in other words, is the next generation of live video conferences with the display of the physical body – not only showing people's faces but also existing the whole body in the virtual world – that other people can shake their hands (Figure 14.5).
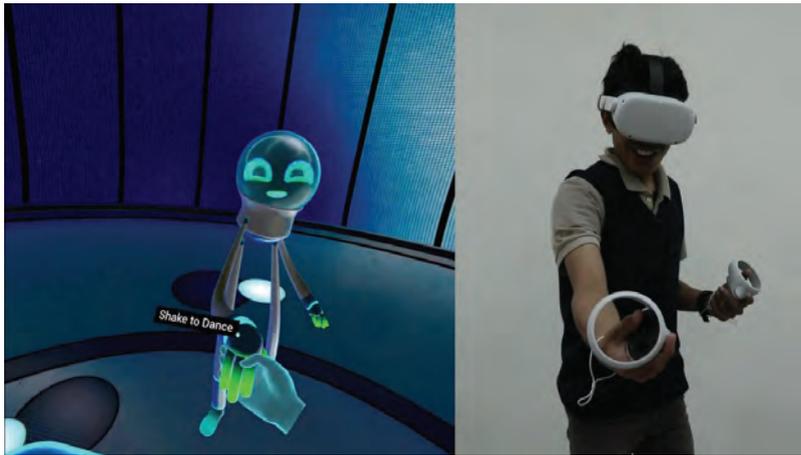
Source: Oculus (2020)

Figure 14.5 Shake other people's hands in the virtual world

Although the collaboration between cross reality through virtual and physical worlds in the classroom has never been implemented, it is hoped that this method can be applied in emergency classes in the future. Notably, technological developments require teachers to

innovate, especially in strategies using appropriate and technology-based learning methods.

D. Recommendation and Implication

With the metaverse development, the possibilities of learning using metaverse technology are getting significant. Educators need to find all alternative learning process that has the potential to facilitate remote learning in case of emergencies. Learning from the history of the COVID-19 situation, educators need to be well-equipped in case of a disruption during the learning process. Thus, they can still manage to continue the activity.

With all the drawbacks of online learning, virtual reality –metaverse– has the potential to bridge distance learning experiences that are more beneficial. The definition of virtual reality and metaverse will significantly develop along with the development of the technology. Finally, educators are expected to use this technology in the classroom when face-to-face learning is allowed and during emergency learning.

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Chapter 15

Nurturing Freedom of Speech and Digital Literacy on Children

Kevin Mandira Limanta & Arum Restu Widyasti

A. A Solid Knot to Digital Literacy

The notion of literacy traditionally is associated with the medium of writing. Many attempts have been extended to accommodate a more general medium. Towards the end of the 20th century, some emerging concepts of literacy include visual literacy (Moore & Dwyer, 1994), television literacy (Buckingham, 1993), and information literacy (Bruce, 1997). The latter has a solid knot to digital literacy, once a terminology that was not clearly defined, especially around the birth of computers.

Nowadays, most digital literacy discussions revolve around information processing (Marcum, 2002). This should not be regarded solely in terms of what computers do, nor should it be associated with using computers to do online searches. The core of digital literacy is

K. M. Limanta,* & A. R. Widyasti
*University of New South Wales, Australia, e-mail: limanta93@gmail.com

not limited to instrumental literacy but also to understanding the skill set. This means asking critical questions about the source of any information, possessing the ability to relate those to broader social pictures, and communicating those ideas with others.

Although the emergence of digital media translates to easier exchange of information, it also allows us to conceal personal information. The protection of personal identity inevitably is taken a step too far by some people to hide in anonymity to threaten the balance of online interactions. People use anonymity to perform offensive acts, frauds, and even crimes (Palme, 2002). Uncivil behaviors and the distribution of fake news on the internet persist under the assumption of freedom of thought and free speech.

This chapter discusses the strategies for embracing digital citizenship for young children by considering the interplay between the freedom of speech with the potential digital threats that might ensue in the context of young children. Such an interplay requires understanding digital intelligence, which must be fostered early.

The organization of this chapter is as follows. Section B discusses the core concept of free speech, dating back as early as the ancient Greeks. In Section C, the notion of digital literacy is discussed as well as its impact on children. The following two sections discuss teachers' roles in fostering children's free speech and digital intelligence. Section D is focused on our take on what the role of teachers should be, followed by a more specialized discussion on their roles during the COVID-19 pandemic in Section E. We also talk about the role of parents in Section F, followed by a conclusion in the last section.

B. The Notion of Free Speech

Under Article 19 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), everyone has the fundamental right to form opinions and express oneself without fear of retaliation. Perhaps somewhat foreshadowed, the same article also allows for restrictions to be imposed, among other things, for the rights of others.

Ancient Greeks are one of the earliest civilizations that introduced the notion of free speech. This tradition was linked to democratic governance, where men could freely speak their minds when debating public issues. However, this did not go well for Socrates, who was sentenced to death by poison in his trial for rejecting Athenian religious practices and corrupting the youth. This disregard for free speech was arguably extraordinary since Athenians believed an offense to the gods would incur their wrath on the whole city. We have seen evidence of limitations of free speech as early as 399 BC (Kraut, 1984).

The acknowledgment of freedom of speech was highlighted in essential documents as early as the 17th century, such as The Declaration of the Rights of Man and the First Amendment of the US Bill of Rights, both instrumental in the French Revolution and the early stages of the United States (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, 1789; United States Senate, 1787). There have been many discussions on the freedom of speech by prominent philosophers in the past three centuries, such as John Stuart Mill, Immanuel Kant, and Spinoza (Bejan, 2017).

The wake of digitalization in the late 20th century brought up another dimension of said freedom. The introduction of the internet means connectivity between people on a whole new level. Online search engines have been instrumental in our everyday lives so that any information we wish to seek can be found in a matter of seconds at the palm of our hand, a concept that people in the past would probably have a hard time understanding.

Recent statistics by Google showed that there are 40,000 searches processed every second on average. That, of course, does not include the searches on other search-engine platforms. The new data that internet users create every day exceeds 2.5 quintillion bytes. To give some perspective, that is 2.5 million terabytes of data per day (Marr, 2018). This staggering amount of information inevitably comes with a caveat: that the threat of misinformation is getting more imminent to everyone, and young children are no exception.

Putting the grim side effect aside, digitalization has fostered the growth of the education sector worldwide. Computer-based technology has the absolute power to improve young children's literacy experiences and engagement. In recent years, the shift to online learning has tremendously impacted the future of education, especially during the pandemic era.

There are, however, some negative consequences that experts have forewarned from the incorporation of technology into teaching. Research has shown that there is a general decrease in children's attention span, which aligns with autism spectrum disorder-like symptoms (Chonchaiya et al., 2011; Heffler et al., 2020), not to mention various health issues that follow from spending hours sitting in front of a computer or looking at a bright screen, such as early childhood myopia, disturbed circadian rhythms, sleep loss, depression, even addiction (Dresp-Langley, 2020).

C. Fostering Digital Intelligence

The term digital literacy arguably became famous after being introduced by Gilster in his book Digital Literacy (Gilster, 1997). Digital literacy has evolved into a set of fundamental skills to use and produce any digital media wisely, process and retrieve any information, participate in social networks, and a wide range of professional computing skills (UNESCO, 2011). The early definitions of computer-related literacies also emphasize the development of sets of norms and technical capabilities. However, this concept had broadened significantly by the end of the twentieth century.

People's understanding of digital literacy, including that of their own, varies. While there are many frameworks for measuring one's level of digital literacy, there have been some approaches to unify these frameworks (Davydov et al., 2020). At the very least, digitally literate people ought to understand how to use the technology they are provided with. Nowadays, most individuals are familiar with downloading applications on their mobile phones, utilizing various search engines to retrieve information, and creating a social media

account. On the other hand, those habits reflect our current usage of digital technology in our daily lives.

Young children may spend their online time doing activities such as using social media, playing games, listening to music, or watching videos and learning. These activities mediate communication not only between students and teachers or teachers and parents but also between teachers themselves. Despite all the potential that digitalization brings to the table, it is undeniable that there are some drawbacks along the way. Higgins et al. (2008) indicated that a lack of digital literacy leads to a lack of self-control, thus leading to cyber abuse. Children with a low digital literacy ability may become addicted to utilizing electronics.

On the other hand, the freedom to interact with anyone on social media, including strangers, has inevitable harmful consequences, with cyberbullying being the most common. There are many forms of cyberbullying, hate speech being one of them. The EU community defines this notion as utterances that encourage, promote, or justify hatred, frequently connected with a particular tribe, race, or religion. Hate speech is an expression of intolerance towards other people. Another perspective defines hate speech as a form of language that attacks and advocates violence (State of the Union, 2020).

Another approach to fighting hate speech is education, besides speaking up about equality, inclusion, and diversity. The more individuals are taught about bullying, cyberbullying, harassment, and hate crimes, the better we are equipped to avoid them in the future. A futurist, Richard Worzel, encouraged individuals to consider the future of digital literacy. These optimistic future scenarios prompt today's educators to appropriately prepare students for the change to come (Worzel, undated). It is essential to bring digital literacy into the national curriculum.

UNICEF considers that digital literacy and skills are critical for children to have meaningful internet access, allowing them to be safe and effective online while exercising their rights, such as the right to privacy, freedom of speech, information, and education (UNICEF

2018). DigComp is a digital literacy competency framework that is well-known and frequently used. DigComp was developed in 2013 by the European Commission's Joint Research Centre (JRC) (Ferrari, 2013). The most recent version, DigComp 2.1, focuses on increasing the initial three proficiency levels to a more fine-grained eight-level description and presenting examples of its application. DigComp identifies 21 competencies and five areas: information and data literacy, communication and collaboration, digital content creator, safety, and problem-solving (Carretero Gomez et al., 2017; Vuorikari, 2016).

The inclusion of digital literacy in the national curriculum is significant. In a world where half of the population is online, including 70% of 15-24-year-olds (International Telecommunication Union, 2020), it becomes critical that individuals have the skills to take advantage of digital possibilities and the internet. This is especially relevant for children, who spend more time online than adults and are thus more exposed to the advantages and disadvantages of being connected. Digital literacy is required for first-time users as the second half of the globe goes online and the internet expands into new sectors.

All the research on digital literacy points towards the same direction that fostering digital literacy in children as early as possible is instrumental in creating future citizens who are more responsible, employable, and tolerant.

D. Redefining the Roles of Teachers

In this section, we shall look at various ways teachers can act to promote freedom of speech and foster digital intelligence among young children. These, as we shall see, require an understanding that integrating technology into teaching is inevitable to keep up with the modern challenges.

In the changing world, teachers' role has become increasingly more complex. They are expected to become more technologically adept to enhance their teaching quality and students' learning experience. More precisely, they need to personalize their students' needs

while simultaneously ensuring that the learning objectives are satisfied as a collective group in this digital era.

However, educators have no consensus on embracing technological changes without discounting the face-to-face interaction between teachers and students. The current pandemic has also made them constantly seek ways to incorporate digital tools to assist with their day-to-day duties, with studying from home compulsory in almost all parts of the world.

While ideally, teachers and parents should exchange ideas in fostering the student's educational needs, recent research suggests significant challenges to connecting school and home learning (Hutchison et al., 2020). They indicated that the main problem is the lack of clear communication between the two parties to achieve a common objective. As teachers' and parents' degrees of digital literacy vary, what matters in achieving this common goal is being technologically adept at making the students' learning process as simple as possible.

There are critical criteria for educators to ensure innovative learning methods through digital means. Weinberger et al. (2002) suggested that some critical criteria include being open-minded in embracing changes, being active collaborators in bridging students with what they need to know, and facilitating students with their point of view on new topics.

Suppose we want to incorporate digital literacy into these criteria. In that case, a digitally literate teacher must also be capable of selecting the appropriate technology for their classroom, leading students through its use, and utilizing that technology to stimulate critical thinking and creativity. Aside from that, teachers must be aware of the infrastructure that their students have in hand. The good news is that teachers have made efforts to incorporate technology into early childhood education (Lindeman et al., 2021).

One of the said efforts lies in building a framework to identify digital threats in the school. This also includes coming up with a strategy to manage such hazards. In terms of cyberbullying, a scheme called the Cyberbullying Conceptual Framework was proposed to bet-

ter understand the elements that constitute cyberbullying (Redmond et al., 2020). Lately, several investigations have collected teachers' perspectives on cyberbullying in various countries (Huang & Chou, 2013; Yilmaz, 2010).

Research by Helwig (1998) shows that children—especially older ones—can justify freedom of speech. This development of mindset is not possible if there is a lack of support from their teachers. It appears that the teaching of freedom of speech must be carefully arranged and is a worthwhile undertaking (Rossiter, 1969).

This suggests a connection between teaching freedom of speech and digital intelligence. The freedom of speech should motivate children to express their thoughts with clear and established boundaries, letting them explore the depths of the digital world to collect various information.

It is worth stressing that technology should be used to enhance the learning experience and not replace the role of teachers. Educators must constantly find a creative way to incorporate digital literacy into their students and ensure they fully understand what works for them. When they do not understand the technology, its usefulness is lost.

E. Opportunities of Accelerated Digital Literacy towards Educators in the COVID-19 Situation

The preceding discussion on the role of teachers in instilling digital literacy is especially more relevant in the present challenge that the world is currently facing. The COVID-19 pandemic, although in most the countries has subsided, is far from over and serves as a model for potential future pandemics that may arise.

The global COVID-19 pandemic has made physical distancing more necessary than ever, prompting a change to the traditional way teaching and learning has always been done. This is a challenge for educators, especially since they must adjust to online learning instantly and manage various teaching and technological issues during this period. One consequence of this shift to online learning is the need for educators to emphasize the importance of digital literacy to

their students. For example, educators need to put into their teaching plan how to interpret and convey information through the practice of reading and writing.

The International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) (2020) defined five competencies of digital citizenship: inclusive, informed, engaged, balanced, and alert. These form a set of qualities that educators need to incorporate to ensure that online learning does not hinder the students' opportunities in the classroom setting.

Several questions need to be addressed by educators to start with, as laid out in (Buchholz et al., 2020). Among those, one question focuses on the ability to validate the information spread out while keeping informed simultaneously. This requires the educators to provide multiple perspectives on one topic and stimulate discussion among students on what meaning is involved in each point of view. This will teach the students to appreciate a different point of view better and think critically before jumping to a conclusion.

The COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated the need for educators to introduce the concept of freedom of speech respectably. This goal will be possible by introducing digital citizenship to the school's curriculum.

F.   Parental Inclusions in Embracing Digital Citizenship amongst Children

As with other aspects of young children's learning experience, the parental role is critical in ensuring learning continuity. It might even be argued that children grasp more in their home by observing their parents; thus, parents have a vital role in embracing digital citizenship among their children.

As technology becomes more integrated into the child's education, it is critical to grasp both the advantages and disadvantages. Parents should understand issues like screen time, safe web-browsing content, cyberbullying threats, and general internet safety as children become older than before. Teaching the kids how to deal with these

circumstances effectively is critical in enabling them to utilize the technology available and become excellent digital citizens fully.

Once kids are exposed to the digital world, they are introduced to a brand-new world with its laws and expectations. It takes time to develop effective digital citizenship, but with consistent encouragement and practice, children will be displaying responsible technology usage in no time (Livingstone et al., 2011). Parents must regularly remind the kids about basic internet safety, such as not disclosing passwords, avoiding strangers, utilizing reliable information sources, developing basic manners when interacting with people on the internet, and reporting any suspicious or malicious activity. These actions may seem obvious to the adult parents, but certainly not for someone just starting with technology. Having these talks with the child can help establish ground rules and expectations.

A typical day for most youngsters comprises a mixture of TV, internet, social media, video games, and smartphone usage, depending on what is available. This is a lot of media exposure, which might prompt parents to be cautious, given that youngsters are more receptive to influences than adults. Parents must ensure they know the type of content their children watch daily and whether it is acceptable for their ages. Moreover, parental evaluation of the media is instrumental, which can be done by discussing whether the content is safe and teaches positive values to the children. Another benefit of doing so is the possibility for more in-depth family talks about how media affects real-life events, which will help the kids develop a broader perspective.

Data-based platforms always risk data breaches, especially those that store our data. This is even more dangerous when the data collected are from minors. Internet safety and privacy are among the first lessons parents must tell their children (Livingstone et al., 2011). Parents need to monitor the information their children post online, ensuring that children do not reveal personal data being the bare minimum. They need to make sure their children are aware that once anything—and they need to stress this—is uploaded on the internet, it becomes public information, which people can save or share with a

broader set of people. Some of the suggestions parents can make are but are not limited to utilizing the internet privacy setting, limiting the scope of the audience when posting, using aliases or identities, and turning off location settings to minimize the risk of tracking.

How a message is conveyed can sometimes render a misunderstanding. Online messaging is especially prone to this risk since it lacks the context of face-to-face conversation (Candela, undated). Children need parental assistance in this aspect: something intended as a joke might hurt a classmate who does not have the whole context. Parents must emphasize the necessity of being mindful in texting and teach the kids to handle problems that might arise correctly. They must be encouraged to consider many interpretations of their writing and courteously.

Developing digital literacy skills and becoming a good digital citizen are essential aspects of learning (Milenkova & Lendzhova, 2021). They both provide a ground set of moral compasses as technology changes. Ultimately, we want them to respect people they meet online and approach them the same way as in face-to-face encounters. A parent should be the first to tell if they need assistance developing these abilities by having focused dialogues and reminding them regularly.

G. Conclusion

The freedom of speech that has emerged in a different form than its first creativity can be a double-edged sword in this digital world if no proper precautionary action is taken. A notion of intelligence that applies from the late 20th century was established as guidelines for people in this digitally oriented world.

Digital intelligence needs to be fostered as early as possible to expose the children to a different world of connectivity that the internet offers. Children do not know how harmful a wrong turn in managing their digital persona can be if there is no intervention from their teachers and parents.

The need to introduce the concept of digital intelligence to young children has become more imminent than ever, and this can be done

through careful explanations from teachers and parents. As such, we discussed two approaches to introducing to the children how to be good digital citizens.

Teachers must have certain qualities to be digitally literate, reflected in their teaching and, eventually, their students' understanding. Parents must support this at home by patrolling their children's digital activity and emphasizing technology's benefits and risks.

We then touched upon one of the negative impacts of digitalization that arises from overdoing one's freedom of speech. There is a need to incorporate the concept of freedom of speech in any teaching structure and build a conceptual framework to manage better conflicts that may arise by carefully redefining the elements associated with said conflicts. Parents can further enhance this awareness of going digital at home by employing several strategies.

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Chapter 16

The Role of Literacy in The Global Crisis: A Case Study of Indonesian Perspective

Muhammad Aswin Rangkuti & Muhammad Luthfi Hidayat

A. The Importance of Being Literate in Society

Being literate is one of the targets of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 4: "Ensure inclusive and quality education for all and promote lifelong learning". Some studies have already emphasized the importance of being literate in society. For instance, excellent scientific literacy can be achieved when someone understands, uses, and reflects on written words. Sørvik and Mork (2015) suggested that writing and reading literacy are essential for students who want to be literate in science and reach long-term goals in science education. In the broader objective, reading literacy also affected labor productivity and reflected the economy's growth in a country (McCracken & Murray, 2009).

Being literate is also essential to develop in early childhood since this is vital to acquiring habituation during their learning process.

M. A. Rangkuti,* & M. L. Hidayat
*Copenhagen University, Denmark, e-mail: aswin_ray@unimed.ac.id

Wildová and Kropáčková (2015) emphasized that the most critical phase for children to build habituation is when they are in the age of 3–6 years old. For example, students' reading performance in primary school would stay successful when they obtain good reading skills early in their education (Boland, 1993).

The global crisis due to COVID-19 undoubtedly created a social and economic challenging situation as well as the education sector. Although most of the impacts degrade the direction of education quality, some elements are improving positively. In ordinary literacy, such as reading, writing, and science, the pandemic brings new challenges for learners due to limited access to physical resources like books, libraries, or other school facilities. Meanwhile, this situation forces students to become more digitally literate since all the learning processes are mainly conducted online. Even after the pandemic, this type of teaching will probably be part of our education system. This chapter will try to reveal the role of literacy in the time of global crisis because of the pandemic COVID-19. Therefore, we examine the role of literacy in two different views regarding the challenges and benefits of students' literacy due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

B. The Disruption of the COVID-19 on Literacy Skills

The COVID-19 pandemic brought us into a new area of teaching-learning settings, which has been transformed from offline to online (digital) delivery. One perspective saw this condition as a setback due to the insufficiency of appropriate tools that facilitate students learning digitally. In 2017, UNESCO stated that 617 million children and youth globally failed to achieve minimum skills in reading and mathematics. Looking from specific regions, the education inequality spread across many continents, and literacy underachievement already became a challenge in many countries before the COVID-19 pandemic. Africa and Asia became a continent with the most non-literate adults and youth, with 60% of the world's non-literate adults residing in Asia. The pandemic even resulted in a more challenging situation for most of them because three out of ten students struggled to access facilities for distance learning (UNESCO, 2020).

Some studies reported the impact of COVID-19 in several circumstances. One study indicated that the achievement of The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) results could have a gap of 30% compared to the result before the pandemic due to the closure of schools for months (Haeck & Lefebvre, 2020). One study in the US found that the pandemic had a more significant negative impact on mathematical literacy than on reading (Renaissance Learning, 2020). Another study in Singapore suggested that the limited access to reading facilities at home led students to read less than before the pandemic. (Sun et al., 2021). This literature shows a significant challenge and risk among students at school during the pandemic. This condition can even be more difficult since the absence of actual data on the impact of the pandemic on youth and adult literacy (UNESCO, 2020).

In Indonesia, the literacy competencies can be seen in PISA. PISA is an international assessment to see the achievement of reading, mathematics, and sciences of 15-year-olds (OECD, 2019). The result from 2000 to 2019 indicated that students in Indonesia lacked skill literacy in almost 20 years of assessment, showing a minor improvement from all skills that PISA had assessed.
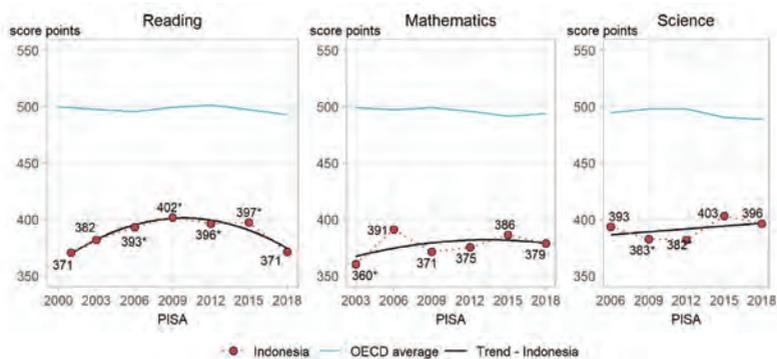
Source: OECD (2019)

Figure 16.1 The Trend of PISA Literacy Skills in Indonesia since 2000

Figure 16.1 shows that the trend of literacy skills in Indonesia slightly fluctuates, and the score was far below the average OECD score estimated at around 500 since the first assessment. Moreover, the most striking finding can be seen from reading literacy, which shows an impressive increase from 2000 to 2009, but then a significant decrease from 2009 to 2018. The latest score in 2018 even shows the exact number in the assessment in 2000. Meanwhile, the other two skills, mathematics and science, show a slight decline, indicating no significant improvement in Indonesian PISA results for almost 20 years of participation.

PISA results alone cannot be interpreted as a warning to pursue a higher achievement, but at least, this can be used to reflect education quality and the plan to establish a better education system. Furthermore, one study shows that PISA results could directly impact the economic system of a nation (Grey & Morris, 2018). Nevertheless, the PISA assessment results indicate problems in the Indonesian education system. This phenomenon needs to be addressed, as the present state becomes even more challenging during the pandemic.

Scientific and reading literacy becomes more critical in a pandemic situation since there is numerous new information to digest, including the COVID-19 vaccine, which is one of the most important tools to end the pandemic. However, the pros and cons of vaccine acceptance are becoming a worldwide phenomenon. This condition happened for three main reasons: confidence in vaccine safety, personal preferences of those who believe they do not need the vaccine, and the accessibility of vaccines (Troiano & Nardi, 2021). Furthermore, the resistance to the COVID-19 vaccine was also found among older adults with a higher risk if exposed to the virus. They are more likely to develop a pessimistic acceptance of the vaccine from reading inappropriate information on the internet and social media (Bhagianadh & Arora, 2021).

C. Indonesian Literacy during the Pandemic

To discuss this section, we conducted a survey to see the pandemic's impact on Indonesian society's literacy skills with the university students as our case study. First, we randomly selected students in one Indonesian university between the ages of 17 and 23. We assessed their reading and scientific literacy because we argue that these are the most demanding skills during the pandemic. We then revealed the impact of being literate in those two skills on their perception of the COVID-19 vaccine.

All the questions regarding this skill were posted using a Google survey, and the amount of 120 university students participated in our study. We used a questionnaire adopted from Loh and Sun (2018) using 27 questions to see the detailed information on the perception of reading. The questionnaire will search for students' literacy in four-component assessments, namely reading habituation, reading preferences, reading facility, and the role of gender in reading literacy.

Scientific literacy was measured using Fernbach et al. (2019) survey, which asked students 15 true-false questions about basic scientific knowledge. Using the same assessment, we calculated the result by giving three if the answer is correct and -3 if the answer is incorrect. The final score will be divided into three scales: low, medium, and high scientific literacy. Meanwhile, COVID-19 vaccine literacy was evaluated using the questionnaire adopted from Biasio et al. (2021), which initially measured skills, perceptions, attitudes, behavior, and beliefs. However, we decided to adjust the questions to the Indonesian situation by not using the behavior item since the annual vaccine (like the flu) is uncommon in society.

Using the result from our survey, we arrange this section by discussing students' reading literacy first as we argue that this skill is a foundation and significantly influences two other skills. Then, we examined students' performance in scientific literacy and connected those parameters to their perception of the COVID-19 vaccine.

1. Reading Literacy

Reading literacy is the ability to respond to and understand written language forms valued by the individual (Bormuth, 1973). This definition has evolved since numerous research and assessments related to describing someone as literate in reading. This literacy can be applied to all ages, from children in the playground to adults. The written arrangement also has transformed into many forms, not only physical books or newspapers but also written languages in digital platforms such as e-books, articles, and information on social media.

Some studies found that gender difference in reading accomplishment is becoming a concerning issue for some educational researchers (Mullis et al., 2003; Chui & McBride-Chang, 2006). In a more specific case, the result shows that female students outperformed male students in children and adolescents in more than 40 countries (Mullis et al., 2003; Mullis, 2007; Chui & McBride-Chang, 2006). We can perceive these results by looking at our survey that female students read more than male students, indicating that the amount of time someone spends reading will result in better achievement. Figure 16.2 shows that female students read more than males, with more than 45% answering that they read daily. In contrast, around 24% of male students read daily, and more than 40 % only read once every two or three days.
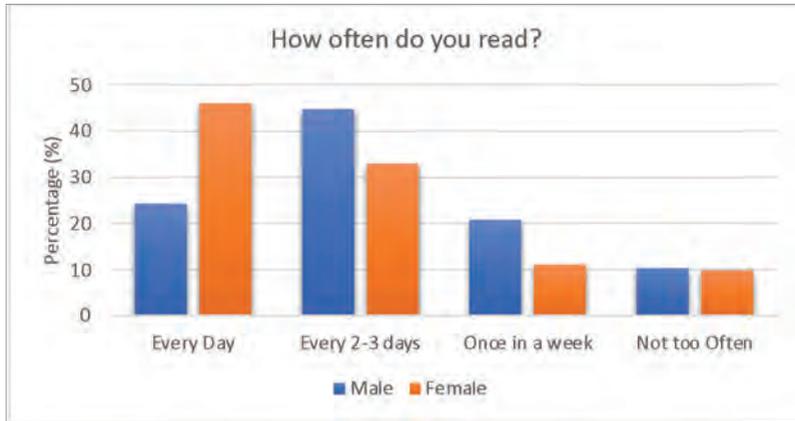
Figure 16.2 How Often Students Read

The reason behind the difference in reading achievement between male and female students was explained in several studies. These studies show that female students use more effective reading strategies than boys, and female students tend to have more positive attitudes towards reading (Logan & Johnston, 2009, 2010).

Students generally prefer to read for pleasure (relaxing, enjoyment, and hobby) rather than for functional reasons (homework, grade, and language), as shown in Figure 16.3. However, reading for pleasure does not indicate someone has a bad habit of reading. Some findings suggest that reading for pleasure contributes to academic achievement, cognitive development, and emotional health (Clark & Rumbold, 2006; Horbec, 2012). The contrast trend between gender can be seen for two reasons: reading because of homework and reading because of a hobby. The gap in these two items is quite noticeable, with male students preferring to read because they need it to finish the homework and the female students choosing to read. After all, it is their hobby.
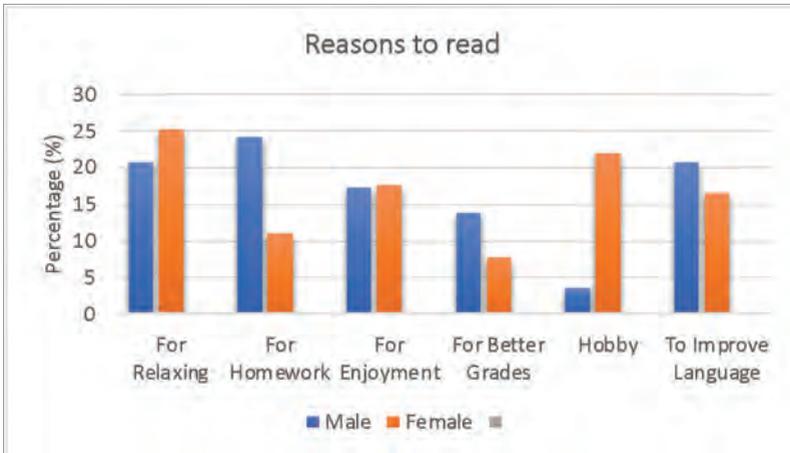
Figure 16.3 Reasons Why Students Read

If we can see further related to their preferences, female students who mostly read because of a hobby tend to choose to read storybooks, with more than 80% choosing this item, as shown in Figure 16.4. Meanwhile, male students were more interested in reading storybooks instead of reading comics and articles on the internet as the second preference.
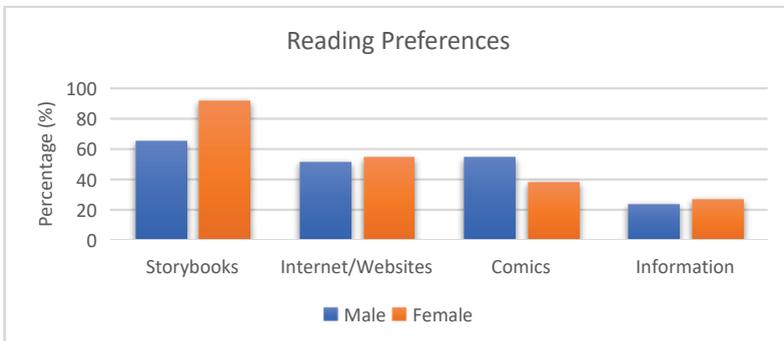
Figure 16.4 Reading Preferences between Students

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The implication of reading preferences is essential regarding the choice of teaching strategies by the teachers in the classroom. One study shows that the book preferences between boys and girls at the school do not differ in reading achievement. This study also emphasized the importance of creating an environment that provides them with reading materials that match their reading preferences. This environment will generate a more effective and enjoyable learning process for improving their reading performances (Bouchamma et al., 2013).

Regarding students' preferences, Figure 16.5 shows that both male and female students shared the same interest in reading non-science books instead of science books. In this case, non-science books included fairytales, horror, mysteries, etc., and science books related to animals, geography, etc.
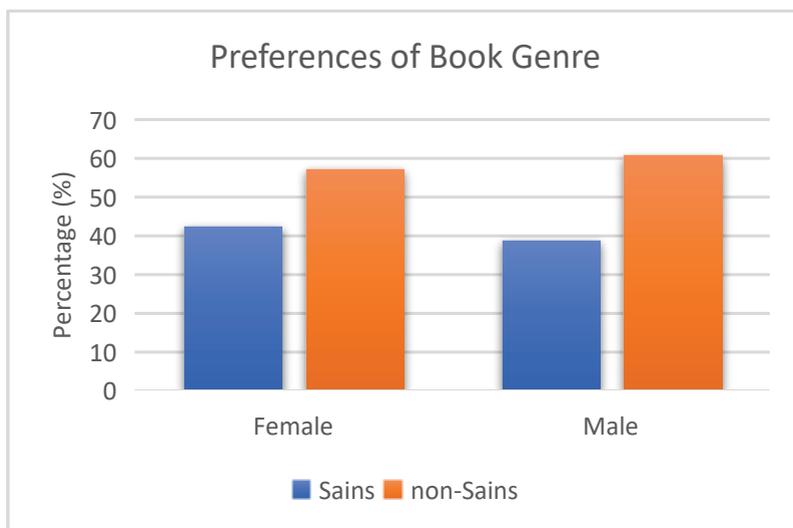
Source: Authors

Figure 16.5 Students' Preferences Regarding Science and Non-Science Books

The students' reading literacy findings generally show a similar phenomenon to other studies. Therefore, we tried to find different approaches by relating their reading performances to scientific and COVID-19 vaccine literacy. For instance, we suggested that students' preferences in choosing fiction books reflect their scientific literacy performance.

2. Scientific Literacy

Scientific literacy is the ability to engage with science-related issues and with science and reflective citizens (PISA, 2015). This term is used in various studies, explaining the importance of being scientifically literate for helping achieve the goals of many essential societal aspects. For instance, Correia et al. (2010) found that good student achievement in scientific literacy is necessary to achieve the proper education for sustainability. Furthermore, scientific literacy is also an instrument for economic development and national security (Liu, 2009, 2013).

In the COVID-19 outbreak, the need to be literate scientifically is even more crucial. Especially for social media users to prevent misinformation about COVID-19 (Vraga et al., 2020). Figure 16.6 shows the result of students in our study regarding their scientific literacy skills. Almost half of the students were classified as having a medium category, and nearly 40 % had low scientific literacy skills. Meanwhile, less than 15 % have high literacy skills.
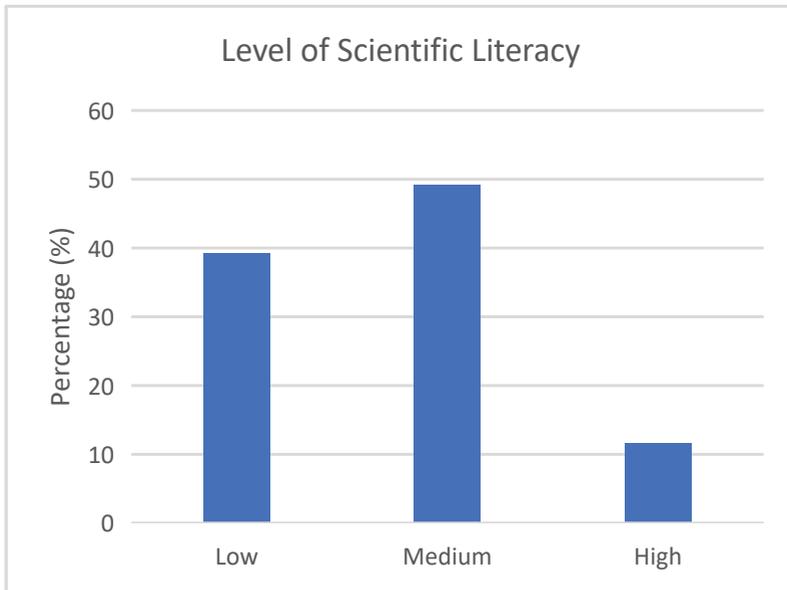
Source: Authors

Figure 16.6 Level of Scientific Literacy of the Students

One study found that the level of trust in science played an excellent role in accepting scientific findings, such as nanotechnology and genetically modified food (Drummond & Fischhoff, 2017). Our survey found that most participants have either medium or low scientific literacy skills. We will see how this condition reflects their attitude towards the COVID-19 vaccine, which shows pros and cons since it was given to a human for the first time in December 2020, less than one year since the pandemic was spread globally in March 2020.

3. COVID-19 Vaccine Literacy

COVID-19 outbreak in early 2020 is a new challenge for all people worldwide. Since then, scientific research has been a crucial reference for helping stop the pandemic. However, the role of society to trust science is also essential because this condition will build a mutual

benefit between scientific results and people who will use them. One study found that people who trust science and think COVID-19 is a severe threat were more compliant with the COVID-19 prevention guidelines (Plohl & Musil, 2021). In our study, we tried to see the perceptions and beliefs about the COVID-19 vaccine and its relation to scientific literacy and reading literacy that have been discussed in previous sections. In the first part of the survey, we assessed challenges and difficulties in understanding information about the COVID-19 vaccine, considering the participants were not experts in the field.
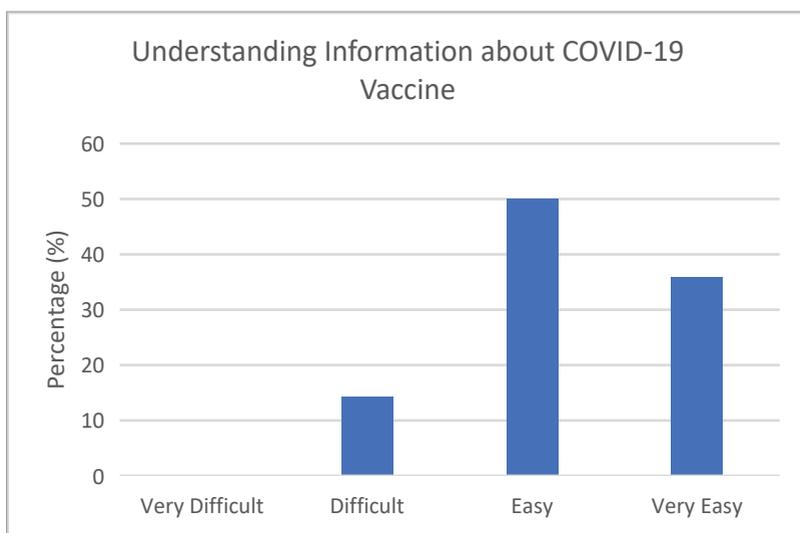
Source: Authors

Figure 16.7 Challenges to Understand Information about the COVID-19 Vaccine

Figure 16.7 shows that only around 14% of students found the information about the COVID-19 vaccine challenging to understand. Their tendency to read more non-science books seems unrelated to that habit. One study found that the confusion of COVID-19 mostly happened among people who had a lower health literacy. Moreover,

understanding information about COVID-19 does not necessarily imply that someone would easily trust the information in the media (Okan et al., 2020).

The next item questioned the participants' perceptions and attitudes towards the COVID-19 vaccine. There were five questions as follows:

Q1: Will it be possible to produce safe and efficacious vaccines?

Q2: Would you get vaccinated, if possible?

Q3: Will health authorities succeed in vaccinating the entire population?

Q4: Would you pay a fee to be vaccinated?

Q5: Should children be vaccinated too?
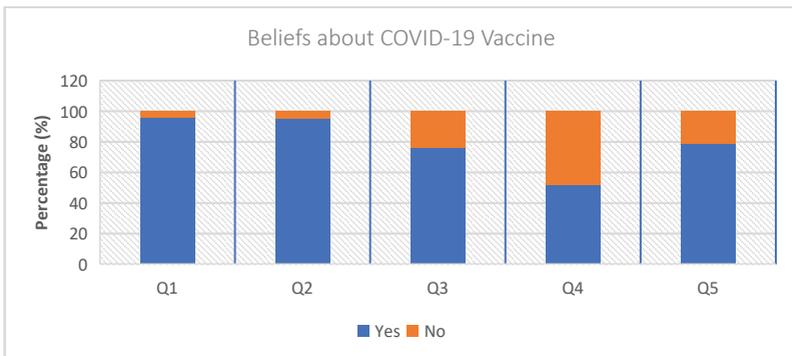
Source: Authors

Figure 16.8 Perceptions and Attitudes towards COVID-19 Vaccines

Figure 16.8 shows that all the participants' choices had a good perception and attitudes toward the presence of the COVID-19 vaccine, including the willingness to get vaccinated. However, this condition would significantly change regarding question 4, in which almost 50% of participants refused to accept the vaccine if it was not accessible. This finding is similar to the study in China that found that

vaccine acceptance was 20% lower if they had to pay to be vaccinated against COVID-19 (Han et al., 2021).

We also found that more than half of the participants thought the vaccine was safe, but the rest doubted it, with more than 13% firmly believing it was unsafe. This trend can be seen in Figure. 16.9 as follows:

Is COVID-19 Vaccine Safe?
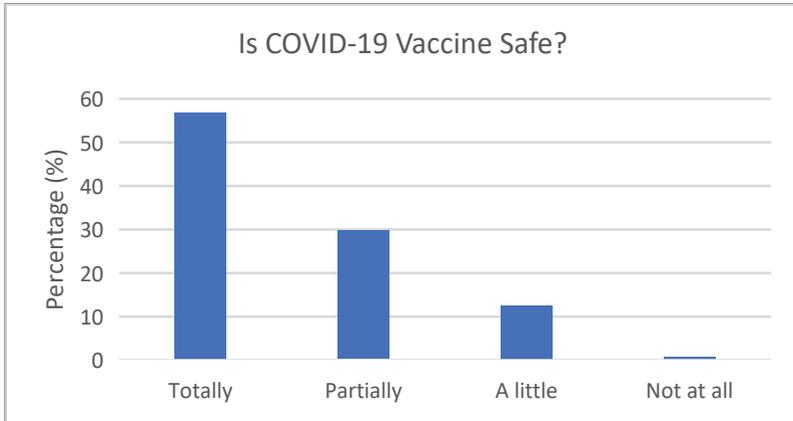
Source: Authors

Figure 16.9 Belief about the Safety of the COVID-19 Vaccine

However, we found the belief that the need for a vaccine slightly decreases if it comes to natural immunity. For example, Figure 16.10 shows that only 39% of participants trusted that vaccine is the most critical tool to protect someone from COVID-19. Meanwhile, more than 35% of the participants had strong confidence that natural immunity in our bodies can prevent severe disease due to the COVID-19 infection.

Vaccine is not needed but natural immunity
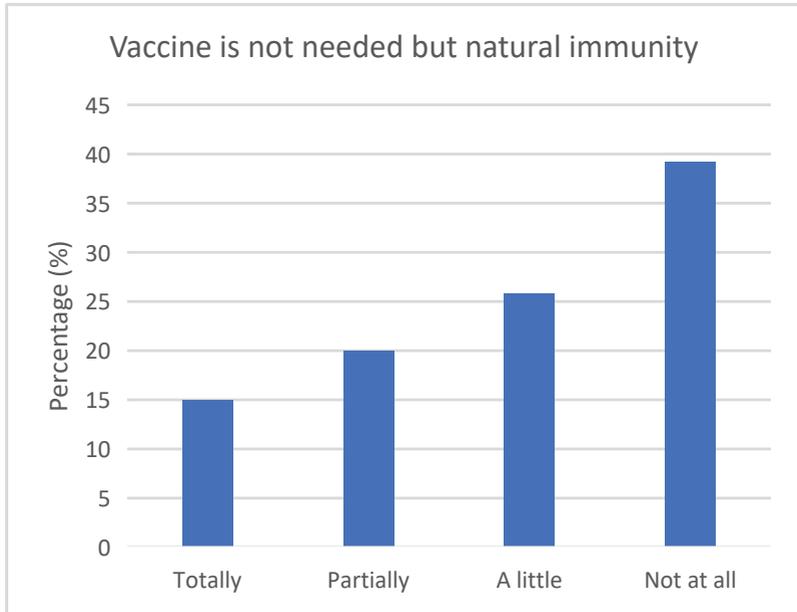
Source: Authors

Figure 16.10 Beliefs on Natural Immunity instead of Vaccine

D. The Lessons Learned from the Survey

Our survey indicated that many participants faced constraints regarding their beliefs and perceptions of the COVID-19 vaccine. Although 95% of our participants were willing to get vaccinated, almost half of them still had a slight and strong skepticism about the vaccine's safety. The explanation regarding this can be detected in some studies that found some factors behind vaccine hesitancy, including the side effects, unfamiliarity with the COVID-19 vaccine, effectiveness, and the duration of immunity (Fisher et al., 2020; Neumann-Böhme et al., 2020; Reiter et al., 2020; Wong et al., 2020).

Someone's belief toward the COVID-19 vaccine is also linked to their scientific literacy skill level. Rosenthal and Cummings (2021) suggested that promoting scientific literacy in society is even more

essential to boost the citizen' beliefs to accept the vaccine, regardless of its speed of development. In our study, less than 15% of participants had a high level of scientific literacy, reflecting their high doubt regarding the safety of the COVID-19 vaccine. Despite the high percentage to accept the vaccine, this decision might be polarized due to the role of the news and social media in shaping the perception and determination in the society. One study found that social media, like Twitter, contributed to the misperception regarding the truth of COVID-19. (Bridgman et al., 2020). Thus, the general population and journalists as content creators are also important to being literate in science to ensure that they share reliable information with the public (Serpa et al., 2021).

One way to improve scientific literacy skills is by implementing fundamental literacy such as reading and writing in science education. Levine (2001) found that reading scientific articles and sharing them in the discussion session will create meaningful learning and promote the achievement of scientific literacy. Thus, the reading skill cannot be neglected to improve the population's scientific literacy. The implementation can be started by integrating writing, reading, and science literacy in the school curriculum to support meaningful teaching and learning in science (Glynn & Muth, 1994).

E. The Prominence of Digital Literacy for the Future Global Crisis

According to Okan (2020), people easily trust digital media information. However, to stop the spread of COVID-19, the government faces challenges from hoax news or misleading information (infodemic) quickly spreading through social media. This infodemic is any excess information on a problem that can interfere with efforts to find solutions to the problem. The rise of infodemic or hoaxes and rumors about COVID-19 in the community can worsen the pandemic situation itself. The spread of hoax news often occurs because someone is not used to double-checking, comparing with other information, or having information literacy. As a result, when spreading or sharing

information with others, e.g., through social media or groups, people do not understand the impact and dangers of the information they disseminate later. Therefore, in the recent era of abundant information, people also urgently need to be digitally literate or competent besides being scientifically literate.

1. The Proposed Solution

A concept and framework for citizens to be digitally literate came from the European Union Commission in early 2016. The framework's name is The Digital Competency for citizens. The framework explained the latest concept that describes skills in using digital technology, such as utilizing information technology and information and data literacy (Instefjord & Munthe, 2017; Reisoğlu & Çebi, 2020). Digital competence consists of a) technical skills in using digital technology, b) the ability to use digital technology meaningfully for work, study, and everyday life in general in various activities, c) the ability to critically evaluate digital technology, and d) motivation to participate in digital culture (Tsankov & Damyanov, 2019). This digital competency is important and recognized as one of the eight main competencies for entire life and activity, including how to be aware and avoid misleading news, hoaxes, and black campaigns, for instance, regarding COVID-19.

Therefore, the European Union Commission developed the Digital competency framework for citizens, including the following competencies (Carretero et al., 2017; Science & Policy, 2017).

Table 16.1 Digital Competency Proficiency 2.0 of the European Union

No	Competency area	Competencies
1.	Data and Information Literacy	1.1 Browse, search, and filter data, information, and digital content 1.2 Evaluating data, information, and digital content 1.3 Managing data, information, and digital content
2	Communication and collaboration	2.1 Interacting through digital technology 2.2 Sharing via digital technology 2.3 Engaging citizenship through digital technology 2.4 Collaborating through digital technology 2.5 Netiquette 2.6 Managing digital identities
3	Digital content creation	3.1 Developing digital content 3.2 Integrating and redefining digital content 3.3 Copyright and license 3.4 Programming
4	Digital security	4.1 Device security 4.2 Protecting personal data and privacy 4.3 Protecting health and well-being 4.4 Environment security
5	Problem-solving	5.1 Troubleshooting technical problems 5.2 Identifying technology needs and responses 5.3 Using digital technology creatively 5.4 Identifying digital competency gaps

Source: Carretero et al. (2017) and Science and Policy (2017)

In this discussion, regarding a global solution for COVID-19 post-pandemic, we will focus on the first skill, namely data and information competency. The competencies in information and communication technology are required for the citizen to be digitally literate, have digital skills, understand change, and filter much information. Thus, to articulate their knowledge in a digital environment, citizens need the capability to continuously update their information skills, such as to search strategies on the internet, analyze, compare, and critically

evaluate the credibility and reliability of the information. Competency to filter and compare the validity of information is strongly required to prevent and deal with hoaxes or false news amid the abundance of data and information in cyberspace (social media). Finally, an equally important competency is managing and preserving the information they get carefully so that when it is necessary to retrieve or access the information, they can efficiently access and process it in a structured data environment.

Besides, the development of technology and more excellent ICT resources, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic, has also influenced education and work-life and is very likely to completely change the conventional learning and work environment in the future (Herliandry et al., 2020). The government must implement different policy measures over the previous decade according to the times to address the problems resulting from one transition to the next. For example, steps have been implemented to access ICT materials and resources and help instructors integrate ICT in their schools. These digital competencies are essential for a future national school curriculum (Prayogi & Estetika, 2019).

2. Digital Competencies for Educators

The DigCompEdu framework (Ghomi & Redecker, 2019) aims to capture and explain these educator-specific digital competencies by proposing 22 basic competencies organized in 6 areas: professional engagement, digital learning resources, teaching, and learning, assessment, empowering learners, and facilitating learners with digital competence.

The framework also proposes a developmental model to help educators assess and digitally develop their competencies. It outlines the six stages in which an educator's digital competence typically develops to help educators identify and formulate steps to improve their competence at the current stage. Educators assimilate new information and develop basic digital practices in the first two stages, Arrivals Beginner (A1) and Explorer (A2). In the following two stages, Integra-

tor (B1) and Expert (B2), they apply, expand, and further structure their digital practice. Lastly, at the highest stage, the Leader (C1) and Pioneer (C2) convey their knowledge, criticize existing methods, and develop new approaches.

The DigCompEdu framework aims to provide a general reference for developers of digital competency models, i.e., relevant regional or national governments, educational organizations, and public or private professional training providers. This framework is aimed at educators at all levels of education, from early childhood education to higher and adult education, including general and vocational training, special needs education, and non-formal learning contexts. It invites and encourages adaptation and modification to specific contexts and goals.

3. Digicomp-Edu Components

The DigComp-Edu framework proposed in this report aims to reflect on existing instruments for educator digital competencies and synthesize them into a coherent model that will enable educators at all levels of education to comprehensively assess and develop their digital pedagogical competencies (Ghomi & Redecker, 2019). DigCompEdu focused on six areas of the educator's professional activity, as described below.

- Area 1: Professional Engagement. Digital technology is used for communication, collaboration, and professional development. Competencies in this area are directed at the wider professional environment, namely the use of digital technology by educators in professional interactions with colleagues, students, parents, and other interested parties for individual professional development and the collective good of the organization.

- Area 2: Digital learning resources. Competencies are needed to use, create, and share digital resources for learning effectively and responsibly.

- Area 3: Teaching and learning. This area is dedicated to managing and regulating digital technology in the teaching and learning process.

- Area 4: Assessment. Competence regarding the use of digital strategies to improve assessment.

- Area 5: Empowering learners. This area focuses on the potential of digital technology for learner-centered teaching and learning strategies. In addition, this competency directs educators to use digital technology to increase students' inclusion, personalization, and active involvement.

- Area 6: Facilitating learners with digital competence. This area details the pedagogical competencies needed to facilitate students' digital competence, namely how to enable students to use technology for information, communication, content creation, and well-being, and how to creatively and responsibly solve digital problems.

Hopefully, with the simultaneous implementation of the digital competency framework from the citizen stage to being implemented systematically in the teaching curriculum in schools, a solution to this post-COVID-19 global problem can be achieved. Citizens and future generations who are highly literate and digitally competent in science and technology will undoubtedly make wise decisions to create a resilient and intelligent society.

F.   Conclusion

This chapter highlights the impact of being literate in science and digital on their perception of the COVID-19 vaccine. Our findings suggest that scientific literacy and digital literacy, particularly a critical attitude towards information obtained on a perceived understanding of the COVID-19 vaccine, are positively related to acceptance of the COVID-19 vaccine. In addition, knowledge of COVID-19 prevention behavior through types of reading and reading habits is positively associated with attitudes towards/practices of COVID-19 prevention behavior. These findings show the role of cognitive factors, objective and subjective knowledge, and digital skills in filtering information on the acceptance of COVID-19 vaccination and its prevention.

Our findings contribute to scientific and digital literacy's role in respondents' attitudes towards trust in scientific and technological research findings. The insignificant scientific literacy relationship is mainly consistent with previous studies (Fernbach et al., 2019). Our participants showed more positive attitudes towards COVID-19 prevention behavior than COVID-19 vaccination. Moreover, respondents have implemented COVID-19 prevention behaviors in their daily lives. The further work of this research is the need to investigate whether high scientific literacy supports high levels of preventive behavior against COVID-19 with more in-depth correlation analysis. We also argue that the strong need for literacies such as reading and scientific literacy contributed massively to society to the end of the pandemic era. We also proposed that concurrently implementing the digital competency framework from the citizen level to being effectively systematized in the teaching curriculum in schools could be a solution to this post-COVID-19 global problem.

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Chapter 17

Navigating Post-Pandemic World: A Final Note

Muhammad Ammar Hidayahtulloh, Irawan Jati, & Dadan Sumardani

The book generally has contributed to the development of literature in Indonesia in the post-COVID-19 pandemic that is primarily focused on the economic dimension of the pandemic (see Lewis & Witoelar, 2021; Ing & Basri, 2022) by offering generous exploration to scrutinize the pandemic from a politico-socio-education view. The inquiry began with scanning the undeniable impact of the pandemic from the global, national, and grassroots levels. The worldwide impact of the pandemic is multisectoral and requires prolonged recovery time. The pandemic has damaged the health system, even for wealthy nations. The global economic growth was crippled, and the national economy suffered. States become more selfish and over-protective, undermining multilateral cooperation. The restriction during the pandemic has pulled the low-economic society into deeper poverty

M. A. Hidayahtulloh,* I. Jati, & D. Sumardani
*The University of Queensland, Australia, e-mail: m.hidayatulloh@uqconnect.edu.au

at the grassroots level. The economic havoc at the family level also heightened the risk of domestic violence against women. Additionally, the pandemic enabled the re-enactment of traditional gender roles, affecting women from diverse groups, including those with high academic qualifications. Sadly, a particular group of people who suffer the pandemic's most challenging impact is the person with disabilities. People with disabilities are already more vulnerable to diseases like diabetes and cancer than ordinary people. During the pandemic, it would be challenging for them to access health facilities because of the overwhelmed cases of COVID-19. The COVID-19 pandemic also impacts other professionals like female academics, migrant workers, and traditional artists. The pandemic has forced us to turn down conventional face-to-face class meetings in the education sector. In response, technology-based teaching through online learning emerged as the alternative. However, numerous challenges, such as internet access and the online learning platform, decelerated the effectiveness of the learning process.

Considering this crisis, the contributors of this book offered various recommendations that are relevant for Indonesia's efforts to recover after the pandemic. From an international political economy lens, there are a few notes made by the contributors in the first part of the book. The Indonesian government is encouraged to maximize the opportunity of Indonesia's presidency in the G20 this year. Indonesia should take the lead in promoting the mechanism for mitigating such pandemic impacts. In this regard, Indonesia could propose that G20 members adopt the Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) mechanism as a collaborative solution to mitigate the pandemic. The G20 can observe a similar mechanism framing the state's commit-ment under UNFCCC. Domestically, Indonesia's efforts to recover its socio-economic structure, as outlined in the National Economic Recovery program (PEN), would require a heavy financial burden. Indonesia could utilize the newly implemented carbon tax revenue to finance the recovery programs. The government may "recycle" back the income to support public spending. All these efforts should be

confined to the green recovery bracket. The green recovery aimed to achieve long-term human prosperity without scarifying the environment. This 'green economy' approach indeed has been echoed by Indonesian scholars who see the urgency of transitioning to a more environmentally friendly economy post-COVID-19 pandemic (see Martawardaya et al., 2022). For instance, the Indonesian government should immediately start to deliver the stimulus funds for a greener transportation system and green energy initiative. Indonesia should reach recovery better than the situation before the COVID-19 pandemic.

From a socio-cultural perspective, the contributors in the book's second part offer several recommendations for the Indonesian government to recover from the unprecedented impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. One sound advice is that the Indonesian government must improve its social protection programs for the most vulnerable social groups. To do so, not only must the government increase the amount of budget allocated for social protection programs, but the government also must ensure that they are effectively implemented from their planning stage (available up-to-date data of the beneficiaries) to their distribution stage. This is evident in the case of urban slums community, migrant workers, people with disabilities, and traditional artists.

The contributor's second recommendation is that the human rights approach must focus on the government's policy development and implementation. In other words, the needs and interests of marginalized populations must be well considered; an argument also echoed by Bessel and Bexley (2021). The contributors observe that such an approach has been absent in the case of gender-based violence and migrant workers' protection. It is evident in both cases that women victims of sexual violence and illegal migrant workers do not have equal access to justice and protection from the state. Indonesian women's movements and the Migrant Workers Alliance have taken a critical role in making sure that the government hears the voices of these socially vulnerable groups. To address these concerns,

the Indonesian government may (or should) refer to international norms and legal frameworks relevant to each group. In this case, the Indonesian government's achievement in establishing a national mechanism for promoting and protecting the rights of persons with disabilities needs to be appreciated. However, as one contributor noted, ratifying international regulatory frameworks into national legislation is insufficient for disability rights' promotion and protection without putting it into practice.

The last recommendation made by contributors to this part is that the Indonesian government must *revalue* work that has been considered 'subordinate' or 'informal' within a capitalist political-economic lens. Indeed, the COVID-19 pandemic has exposed the weaknesses of capitalism as an economic structure and polity (Nelson, 2020). In this book, it has been shown that these 'subordinate' and 'informal' work, such as care work of Indonesian female academics (and Indonesian women in general), 3D 'dangerous, dirty, and difficult' jobs of the Indonesian migrant workers, and arts and cultural preservation carried out by traditional artists, have been sidelined by the state in the COVID-19 recovery programs. Revaluing these types of work in the future benefits these vulnerable groups and the state's economic development.

In the last part of the book, the contributors offer important insight into Indonesia's future education. Clearly, the COVID-19 pandemic is the greatest challenge in education; thus, educators must find flexible ways to repair the damage to students' learning trajectories once the pandemic is over (Daniel, 2020). The contributors highlighted that teachers from rural and non-rural areas shared a similar opinion and experience that online learning was challenging in many aspects of learning, such as teaching, social, and cognitive domains. However, teachers from rural areas highly mentioned limited infrastructure as the most challenging factor in facilitating learning. In contrast, teachers from non-rural areas mentioned selecting instruction methods that will stimulate social and cognitive presence in learning as the most difficult one. In this vein, the Indonesian government needs to

establish a cross-sectoral and multi-stakeholder plan to narrow the digital divide, including internet and cellular connection access, to provide equitable access to everyone, including those in rural areas. It should also offer zero-rating services, expand and invent connections, provide free and subsidized equipment, and promote digital literacy to address concerns such as cost, dysconnectivity, illiteracy, discrimination, and diversity. Doing so will enable hybrid teaching as a new alternative to recover students' learning loss due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Another futuristic yet feasible idea for Indonesian education is developing the metaverse teaching-learning method. The role of technology in instruction methods is essential to improve technology-based teaching-learning, not only using the available technology that exists today but also the upcoming technology such as metaverse. Although the collaboration between cross reality through virtual and physical worlds in the classroom has never been implemented before, it is hoped that this new alternative method can be applied in emergency classes.

Furthermore, literacy-based education is another important issue in education to face the digital era because it develops vastly during the COVID-19 pandemic. Training students to become good digital citizens to have certain qualities to be digitally literate is needed. Parents must support this at home by patrolling their children's digital activity and emphasizing technology's benefits and risks. Other literacy skills such as reading and scientific literacy are contributed massively to society to end the pandemic era and prevent the same problem from arising in the future global crisis. Finally, perhaps, more importantly, returning to our opening theme of the role of policymakers, the policy is not the only driver of these innovations. Instead, progress is driven by the cultural and commercial technology ecosystem (Thomas & Rogers, 2020).

Examining the various recommendations above, there are some noteworthy conclusive points. Firstly, despite the dire socio-economic consequences of the pandemic, Indonesia possesses the ability and

opportunity to recover. All chapters of this book clearly express this *optimistic* tone. With tangible and intangible resources, Indonesia can overcome the pandemic. At the global level, Indonesia can utilize its political status in the multilateral forum, especially in the G20, to 'recover together' and 'recover stronger' from the COVID-19 pandemic. Secondly, Indonesia's capacity to recover from the COVID-19 pandemic opens possibilities for eliminating the pervasive social injustices and inequalities. The COVID-19 pandemic and its dire socio-economic consequences have given vulnerable social groups—including low-income populations, women, people with disabilities, and those in the intersections of these social markers—growing *recognition* and *visibility* to be seen, heard, and considered in policy development and implementation. Lastly, as all the contributors to this book have consistently demonstrated, what matters in the COVID-19 pandemic recovery efforts is the willingness and ability to *re-imagine* how we *collectively* navigate the world post-pandemic.

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Appendix

UN Research Roadmap Priorities (2020)

Priority	Research Questions	Focus
1.	How can macroeconomic policy promote a more inclusive and sustainable recovery from COVID-19?	Fiscal stimulus packages that protect human rights, advance gender equity, and address the needs of marginalized populations. Environmental considerations for rebuilding the most affected sectors of the economy in more resilient and sustainable ways.
2.	How can inequities in development opportunities be eliminated?	Needs to understand the effectiveness of different financing strategies, including debt relief, foreign direct investment, official development assistance, private sector financing, and philanthropic financing across unique country contexts. Examining how international trade and finance can be improved to ensure that all countries are included in the global economy fairly and sustainably.

Priority	Research Questions	Focus
3.	How can increased public expenditure during COVID-19 be financed while ensuring an inclusive and sustainable recovery in all countries?	Understanding how greater international tax cooperation can be fostered to support government finances and combat tax evasion. Examining how macroeconomic policies implemented during recovery can meet the dual objectives of generating revenue and advancing sustainable progress toward the SDGs. Research into how international financial institutions can support financial stability and prevent sovereign debt crises How governments can leverage private sector financing for the public good.
4.	How have recent global shocks affected the functioning and legitimacy of international institutions?	Understanding how increased representation and participation within international institutions affect these bodies' performance and perceived legitimacy. How international institutions can be reformed to foster greater international cooperation and promote resilience in the face of future emergencies. Strengthening international institutions through research on approaches that realize international human rights while respecting national sovereignty.

Priority	Research Questions	Focus
5.	How can multilateral collaboration and progress towards the SDGs be sustained in an increasingly polarized world?	Understanding the international rules, processes, and systems that can help countries work together to address transnational risks. What reforms are needed to the International Health Regulations and other multilateral instruments to promote global health security. Understanding how global value chains can be made stronger and more resilient. Understanding how multilateral collaborations can better integrate policies and approaches that prevent environmental degradation and preserve natural resources.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

3T	:	*Terdepan, Terluar, Tertinggal* (Frontier, Outermost, Most Disadvantaged)
ACMW	:	ASEAN Committee on the Implementation of the Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers
AFML	:	ASEAN Forum on Migrant Labor
AKAD	:	*Antarkerja Antardaerah* (Inter-regional Works)
AKAN	:	*Antarkerja Antarnegara* (Inter-national Works)
AMMPO	:	Association of Overseas Filipino Workers in Malaysia
AR	:	Augmented Reality
Bappenas	:	*Badan Perencanaan Pembangunan Nasional* (Ministry of National Development Planning)
BLT	:	*Bantuan Langsung Tunai* (Direct Cash Aid)
BLT-DD	:	*Bantuan Langsung Tunai-Dana Desa* (Direct Cash Aid of the Village Fund)

BNP2TKI	:	*Badan Nasional Penempatan dan Perlindungan Tenaga Kerja Indonesia* (National Agency for the Placement and Protection of Indonesian Workforces)
BP2MI	:	*Badan Perlindungan Pekerja Migran Indonesia* (National Board for the Protection of Indonesian Migrant Workers)
BPJS	:	*Badan Penyelenggara Jaminan Sosial* (Social Security Program)
BPNT	:	*Bantuan Pangan Non-Tunai* (Non-Cash Food Aid)
BPS	:	*Badan Pusat Statistik* (Central Bureau of Statistics)
BST	:	*Bantual Sosial Tunai* (Cash Social Assistance)
CBR	:	Community-Based Rehabilitation
CCUS	:	Carbon Capture Usage and Storage
CDC	:	Center for Diseases Control and Prevention
CEO	:	Chief Executive Officer
CLC	:	Community Learning Center
CoI	:	Community of Inquiry
COP	:	Conference of the Parties
COVID-19	:	Coronavirus Disease-19
CRPD	:	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
CSO	:	Civil Society Organization
DigCompEdu	:	Digital Competencies for Educators
DPO	:	Disabled People's Organization
ETS	:	Emissions Trading System
ETWG	:	Energy Transition Forum in the Energy Transitions Working Group
f2f	:	face-to-face
FPL	:	*Forum Pengada Layanan bagi Perempuan Korban Kekerasan* (Forum of Service Providers for Women Victims of Violence)
G20	:	Group of Twenty
GBCV	:	Gender-Based Cyber Violence

GBV	:	Gender-Based Violence
GCM	:	Global Compact for Safe, Orderly, and Regular Migration
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GFC	:	Global Financial Crisis
HRWG	:	Human Rights Working Group
ICCPR	:	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICMA	:	Indonesian Coal Mining Association
ICPRAWMTF	:	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families
ICT	:	Information and Communications Technology
IDPD	:	International Day of Persons with Disabilities
IGO	:	Intergovernmental Organization
ILO	:	International Labour Organization
IMD	:	International Migrant's Day
IMF	:	International Monetary Fund
IOM	:	International Organization for Migration
IPV	:	Intimate Partner Violence
ISTE	:	International Society for Technology in Education
JBM	:	*Jaringan Buruh Migran* (Migrant Workers Alliance)
JFHTF	:	Joint Finance and Health Task Force
Kemensos	:	*Kementerian Sosial* (Ministry of Social Affairs)
KND	:	*Komisi Nasional Disabilitas* (National Commission of Disabilities)
Komnas Perempuan	:	*Komisi Nasional Anti Kekerasan Terhadap Perempuan* (National Commission on Violence Against Women
KPD	:	*Kartu Penyandang Disabilitas* (Cards for Persons with Disabilities)
KPPPA	:	*Kementerian Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Perlindungan Anak* (Ministry of Women Empowerment and Children Protection)

LBH APIK	:	*Lembaga Bantuan Hukum Asosiasi Perempuan Indonesia untuk Keadilan* (The Legal Aid Foundation of the Indonesian Women's Association for Justice)
MR	:	Mix Reality
MRV	:	Measuring, Reporting, and Verification
MSMEs	:	Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises
NATO	:	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NDC	:	Nationally Determined Contribution
NGO	:	Non-Governmental Organization
NZE	:	Net Zero Emissions
OECD	:	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OHCR	:	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
OISAA	:	*Perhimpunan Pelajar Indonesia Dunia* (Overseas Indonesian Students Association Alliance)
P2TP2A	:	*Pusat Pelayanan Terpadu Pemberdayaan Perempuan dan Anak* (Integrated Service Center for Women and Children Empowerment)
PEN Fund	:	*Program Pemulihan Ekonomi Nasional* (National Economic Recovery Fund)
PERPRES	:	*Peraturan Presiden* (Presidential Regulation)
PISA	:	The Program for International Student Assessment
PKH	:	*Program Keluarga Harapan* (Family Hope Program)
PKT	:	*Padat Karya Tunai* (Cash for Work)
PP	:	*Peraturan Pemerintah* (Government Regulation)
PPKM	:	*Pemberlakuan Pembatasan Kegiatan Masyarakat* (Community Activities Restriction)
PSBB	:	*Pembatasan Sosial Berskala Besar* (Large Scale Social Restriction)
QRIS	:	Quick Responses Information Systems
RADPD		*Rencana Aksi Daerah Penyandang Disabilitas* (Regional Action Plan for People with Disabilities)

RANHAM	:	*Rencana Aksi Nasional Hak Asasi Manusia* (National Action Plan for Human Rights)
RANPD	:	*Rencana Aksi Nasional Penyandang Disabilitas* (National Action Plan for Persons with Disabilities)
RCCE	:	Risk Communication and Community Engagement
RGGI	:	Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative
RIPD	:	*Rencana Induk Penyandang Disabilitas* (National Master Plan of Persons with disabilities)
RPJMN	:	*Rencana Pembangunan Jangka Menengah Nasional* (National Midterm Development Plan)
RUU P-KS	:	*Rencana Undang-Undang Penghapusan Kekerasan Seksual* (Elimination of Sexual Violence Bill)
SBMI	:	*Serikat Buruh Migran Indonesia* (Indonesian Migrant Workers Union)
SDGs	:	Sustainable Development Goals
SEEA	:	Environmental and Economic Accounting
SEEA EA	:	Environmental and Economic Accounting Ecosystem Accounting
SFH	:	Study from Home
SIMPD	:	*Sistem Informasi Manajemen Penyandang Disabilitas* (Information System for Persons with Disabilities)
SNA	:	System of National Accounts
Susenas	:	*Survey Sosial-Ekonomi Nasional* (National Socio-Economic Survey)
UN	:	United Nations
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	:	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFPA	:	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	:	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UNSC	:	United Nations Security Council

VAW	:	Violence Against Women
VAWG	:	Violence Against Women and Girls
VR	:	Virtual Reality
WFH	:	Work from Home
WHO	:	World Health Organization
WTO	:	World Trade Organization

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Editors' Biography

Muhammad Ammar Hidayahtulloh is a Ph.D. candidate at the School of Political Science and International Studies, the University of Queensland, Australia. His research focuses on gender politics, disability rights, and ASEAN Studies. Previously, he was a researcher at the ASEAN Studies Center of Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta, Indonesia. In the Overseas Indonesian Students Association Alliance (OISAA), he serves as the Head of the Socio-Cultural Protection Commission under the Directorate of Research and Studies in 2021–2022. Email: m.hidayatulloh@uqconnect.edu.au and Twitter: @muhammadammarh_.

Irawan Jati is a Ph.D. candidate at the School of Political Science and International Studies, the University of Queensland, Australia. His research focuses on the right to asylum norm of refugees in Southeast Asia. In addition, his research interests include human security and ASEAN politics. Jati has his B.A of International Relations from Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta, Master of Business Law from Universitas Gadjah Mada, and Master of Strategic Studies from the Australian National University. Previously, he served as the Head of the Department of International Relations, Universitas Islam Indonesia. In the Overseas Indonesian Students Association Alliance (OISAA), Irawan serves as the Head of the International Commission under the Directorate of Research and Studies in 2021–2022. Email: i.jati@uqconnect.edu.au.

Dadan Sumardani is an educator and researcher who specializes in Science and Physics. He is interested in researching learning activities for Science Learning, building an Instructional Design (e.g., AR/VR, & E-Learning), and investigating Educational Technology. He is also interested in the issues of Freirean Critical Pedagogy (especially Ecopedagogy), Teaching Philosophy, Computational Thinking, and Cognitive Development in Math and Physics. He holds a master's degree in education from National Chiayi University and works as an assistant research fellow funded by MOST Taiwan. Currently, he is affiliated in the Graduate Institute of Science Education, National Taiwan Normal University. His research works have been published in various reputable publishers, such as Taylor & Francis and Springer Nature. Email: dansu.sumardani@gmail.com and website: www.dadansumardani.com.

Buku ini tidak diperjualbelikan.

Authors' Biography

Mansurni Abadi is a post-graduate student at the Institute of Ethnic Studies, the National University of Malaysia, and works for Embode International as Assistant Researcher. He was an awardee UKM Scholarship and Rotary Club Malaysia Scholarship. He holds a Bachelor of Economics from the Institute of Business and Informatic Darmajaya Lampung. He is also active in several organizations such Muhammadiyah Malaysia and Singapore as a social worker, Overseas Indonesia Student Association as a member of the research division (Ditlitka) 2021/2021, and UKM Graduate Ambassador as vice-president 2020/2021. Email: mansurni@embode.co.

Alwin Adityo obtained his Bachelor of Economics (S.E.) from the University of Indonesia and is now pursuing a master's degree in Public Administration (MPA) at Harvard Kennedy School, Harvard University. Alwin is interested in financial sector issues at the intersection of technology and climate risk. Alwin was a speaker at the 2019 Indonesia Development Forum (IDF) and the 2020 Young Scholars Initiatives (YSI) Plenary on New Economic Questions. Email: alwinadityo@hks.harvard.edu.

M. Solahudin Al-Ayubi is a final year student majoring in International Relations at the University of Muhammadiyah Malang. His research focuses on international strategy and diplomacy, including international sustainable development and foreign policy. He currently serves as a member of the International Relation Commission staff under the Division of Research and Study of Overseas Indonesian Students Association Alliance (OISAA). He is acknowledged as UMM's most outstanding student and recipient of various awards such as the Erasmus+ ICM scholarship program in the school of Political Science and International Relations at University Beira Interior Portugal, Indonesian International Student Mobility Awards (IISMA) in the College of Social Science at the University of Glasgow from Director-General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology of the Republic of Indonesia, TF-SCALE scholar at Polytechnic Singapore from Temasek Foundation, and Workshop Diplomacy Awards as a delegate from The Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Email: solah150698@gmail.com.

Muhammad Ibrahim Arfah, known as Baim, is a third-year undergraduate student at the Department of Aqidah and Philosophy, Faculty of Theology, Al-Azhar University, Egypt. He is interested in researching Indonesia's diplomacy in the eyes of the world and its reciprocal impact. Baim has several published articles and is one of the recipients of the Kuwait Office of Charity Project (بيت الزكاة الكويتي) scholarship, Cairo. Email: ibrahimarfah28@gmail.com.

Sari Puspita Dewi, LPDP Scholarship awardee, is currently working full-time on her Ph.D. in Humanities and Languages at UNSW Sydney, Australia. She is also active in the Overseas Indonesian Students Association Alliance (PPI Dunia) and Keluarga Pelajar Islam Indonesia (KPI) Sydney. She is an Assistant Professor in the English Language at Politeknik Negeri Jakarta and has been a translator since she was a bachelor student. Sari received a bachelor's degree in English Language and Teacher Training from Universitas Negeri Jakarta and a Cum Laude Judicium in master's degree in the same field from the same university. Her research areas of interest are English for Specific Purposes, translation studies, and ICT. Email: sari.puspitadewi@grafika.pnj.ac.id

Buku ini tidak diperjualbelikan.

Giovani Gracianti is a Ph.D. candidate at the Centre for Actuarial Studies, University of Melbourne, Australia. She is a recipient of the Australia Awards Scholarship and the Allison Sudradjat Prize from the Australian Government. She has a double bachelor's degree in Applied Mathematics and Informatics Engineering from Universitas Pelita Harapan, Indonesia. She also has two master's degrees: A Master of Science in Numerical Techniques for Finance from the University of Nottingham, UK, and a Master of Actuarial Science from the University of Waterloo, Canada. She has previously been involved in the Risk management, Economic sustainability, and Actuarial science Development in Indonesia (READI) project through the initiatives of the Canadian Government. In 2018, she became the first Executive Director of the Society of Actuaries of Indonesia (Persatuan Aktuaris Indonesia, PAI). Email: giovani.gracianti@gmail.com.

Cecep Hermawan is currently pursuing a master's degree in Environmental Management and Policy at the International Institute for Industrial and Environmental Economics, Lund University in Sweden. He obtained a Bachelor of Arts in International Relations from Universitas Padjadjaran, Bandung, in 2018. Right after graduation, he worked for a consulting company, PT YouGov Consulting Indonesia, and PT SMBC Business Consulting Services Indonesia, until July 2021. During his career in consulting, he became an expert on foreign direct investment in the natural resources sector in Indonesia and neighboring South-East Asian countries. His main research interests include economic valuation of environmental change, circular economy, and balanced growth in the developing economy. In addition to that, as a certified asset manager, he is currently running a small Venture Capital called HF&Co. which pools funds from capital owners and disburses them to the potential SMEs in Indonesia with decent annual growth of Asset Under Management (AUM). Email: cecephermawan9997@gmail.com.

Muhammad Luthfi Hidayat is a Ph.D. student in Information Systems at FCIT, King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia. His research focused on Conversation Recommendation Systems (CRS) in higher education. Luthfi works as a lecturer and researcher at the Department of Biology Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Muhammadiyah Surakarta, Indonesia. He also published some research articles and was a reviewer or editor in several international journals in higher education teacher training and biology learning technology. Email: m.luthfi@ums.ac.id.

Muhammad Maulana Iberahim currently works at International Organization for Migration – United Nations Migration Agency, Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, as Regional Media and Communications Support Officer. He holds a Master of Arts in Asia-Pacific Studies from Thammasat University and a Bachelor of Arts in Political Science (International Relations) from Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta. He was an awardee of the Thailand International Postgraduate Program, a scholarship under the Thailand International Cooperation Agency, Ministry of Foreign Affairs. He is also a researcher at Indonesian Community for European Studies. His research interests revolve around international relations, area studies, and political economy. Email: iberahims@live.com.

Oscar Karnalim is currently pursuing a Ph.D. degree from the University of Newcastle, Australia. He is now an Assistant Professor at Maranatha Christian University, Indonesia. His primary research interest includes educational computing and academic integrity. He has published 86 papers, of which 49 are indexed in Scopus, and five are published in reputable journals with impact factors. He also serves as a reviewer for many journals and conferences, including IEEE Access, CAE (Wiley), Heliyon, ACM ITiCSE, IEEE SMC, and IEEE EDUCON. Email: oscar.karnalim@it.maranatha.edu.

Taufik Kurrahman is currently pursuing his Ph.D. program in shipping and transportation management at the National Taiwan Ocean University. He studied international relations at Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta, where he obtained his diploma degree in 2019. He earned his master's degree in business administration at Asia University, Taiwan, in 2021. His main research interests include corporate sustainability, corporate sustainability transition, corporate resilience, corporate supply chain resilience, human resource management, green human resource management, and sustainable human resource management. He published two research articles in the SSCI indexed journal of Industrial Management and Data Systems and Management of Environmental Quality. In 2021, he was awarded the Excellent Doctoral Scholarship from the Ministry of Science and Technology, Taiwan. Email: tkurrahman51@gmail.com.

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Kevin Limanta is a Ph.D. student in mathematics at the University of New South Wales (UNSW) Sydney. His research area lies in algebraic combinatorics and harmonic analysis. He has an interest in mathematics education, especially in college mathematics education. Email: limanta93@gmail.com.

Fauziah Mayangsari graduated from Australian National University with a Master of Asian and Pacific Studies. She also receives Australia Awards Scholarship for her master's degree. Throughout her study, she has focused her research on Indonesian studies, particularly on politics, social movements, and gender issues. Maya is currently working in a human rights-based NGO. Email: mayangsr@outlook.com.

Afifah Muharikah is currently pursuing her doctoral degree in the School of Humanities, Languages, and Social Sciences, Griffith University, Brisbane, Australia. Her doctoral project investigates second language communication in an inclusive English classroom involving college students with autism. She is currently an Assistant Professor at Jakarta State Polytechnic, Indonesia. She has more than twelve years of teaching experience across all levels of education, including primary, secondary, and higher

education. In 2021, she became the main editor of the Overseas Indonesian Student Association Alliance Series, *Indonesia Emas Berkelanjutan 2045: Kumpulan Pemikiran Pelajar Indonesia Sedunia Seri 5 Pendidikan*. Email: muharikah.afifah@gmail.com and Instagram: @koala.professor.

Ayu Heryati Naqsabandiyah was graduated from Department of International Relations, Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta. She was awarded the best graduate at the International Relations department and the Faculty of Social and Political Science, Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta. In addition, she has worked as a teaching assistant in the same department for two years. Currently, she is studying at the International Master's Program in Asia-Pacific Studies, National Chengchi University, Taiwan, as an awardee of Taiwan's government scholarship. Her research interests include security, energy, and environmental related issues in International Relations studies. Email: ayu.hnaqsa@gmail.com.

Sunarto Natsir is a student in a master's program in education management, at Anadolu University, Turkey. He is a teacher at SMP Negeri 5 Budong-budong, Mamuju Tengah, Sulawesi Barat. Some of his publications focus on the issue of education in remote areas, following his awareness of the massive gap in quality and educational facilities in cities and villages. His focus on equal distribution of education prompted him to establish the Mandar Goes Abroad platform. This institution is a forum for information on scholarships and education abroad for students in Eastern Indonesia. Besides writing scientific articles on education, he often writes fiction stories. He won several short story competitions at the national level. Email: sunarto.ind@gmail.com.

Widya Puspitasari is currently working as a junior researcher at Europa-Universität Flensburg, Germany, and pursuing her Ph.D. studies in European Studies. She was selected as an awardee for EIZ Scholarship from Konrad-Adenauer Political for her master's degree and doctoral studies. Her research focus and expertise are in EU politics and policies, particularly on the practices of informal decision-making. In addition, her research interests also include environmental politics, gender issues, and human rights. Email: jsempocahontas@gmail.com.

Rania Chairunnisa Qisti is a student majoring in Human Communication at Universiti Putra Malaysia. She has various organizational experience since serving as Secretary-General in 2021/2022 at the Indonesian Student Association Malaysia, Vice Chief of the Education Commission at the Directorate of Research and Studies, Overseas Indonesian Students Association Alliance (OISAA), and the Advisory Council for the Indonesian Student Association Malaysia 2021/2022. She regularly handles social and academic activities in the organization. Furthermore, she has writing, teaching, and mentoring skills since working as a teacher in Secondary and High School in Indonesia. She recently published a book in collaboration with 185 other writers who are studying overseas. Email: raniachairunnisa@gmail.com.

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Faris Rahmadian is a researcher and a Ph.D. student at Public Administration and Policy Group, Wageningen University & Research. His research interests focus on human interactions and political and global environmental change. He studies political ecology, social and environmental policy, public governance, and rural development. His recent projects focus on strengthening sustainable instruments in the palm oil sector to tackle deforestation and illegal expansion, as well as protect the rights of smallholders, indigenous, and marginalized peoples. Email: farisrahmadian@gmail.com.

Muhammad Aswin Rangkuti is a physics education researcher focused on investigating students' difficulties and challenges in understanding physics equations, mostly expressed in mathematical expressions. In addition, he is also involved in STEM research which develops physics teaching concepts for interdisciplinary learners such as biology, chemistry, and engineering. Aswin is a physics lecturer at the Department of Physics, Universitas Negeri Medan. He is now on leave and pursuing his Ph.D. in didactics of physics at the Department of Science Education, University of Copenhagen, Denmark. His research focused on learning challenges in the interplay between physics and mathematics with the case of the wave equation. Email: aswin_ray@unimed.ac.id.

Ferdian Sandika is a Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology student majoring in Economics and International Trade. He is a member of the Overseas Indonesian Student Alliance's Education Commission's Directorate of Research and Studies of 2021–2022, as well as the Founder of the education community Discite Institute. He is frequently interested in social activities, education, and creative skills, among other things. He is also capable of writing, teaching, and conducting effective communication. Email: admilferdian@gmail.com.

Nur Ichsan Sumardani is M.Ed. Candidate in Natural Science Education, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. Ichsan obtained a Bachelor of Science in Physics at the UIN Sunan Gunung Djati Bandung, Indonesia. He is interested in conducting research on learning activities for Science and Physics. He is also interested in the issues of Immersive Technology, such as 3D Printing and Virtual Reality. Email: ichsan.sumardani@gmail.com and website https://sites.google.com/view/nur-ichsan-sumardani/.

Diah Febri Utami is a student of Philosophy and Cognitive Science, Vienna University, Austria, focusing on Philosophy Mind and Philosophy of Technology. Bringing the topic of 'The Direct Perception of The Robot's Anthropomorphism,' Utami was appointed as a speaker at the National Symposium on Nusantara Philosophy in November 2020. Her latest works are 'Philosophy in Technology, Ecology, and Cognition' and 'Mozaik Philosophy' in which she wrote about the relationship between science and magic. Currently, Utami is involved in research on The Intelligence of Motor Control, which focuses on the independence of the motor representation of action. Email: diahfebriutami@gmail.com.

Arum Restu Widyasti obtained her bachelor's degree from Yogyakarta State University and is currently pursuing a master's degree in the Department of Chemistry, Chulalongkorn University, Thailand. She majored in Organic Chemistry, concentrating on isolation work from natural products. Her interest in isolation work from natural products began during her 6th semester of the undergraduate program when she had the opportunity to study abroad for the first time in Thailand. She was an exchange student at Prince of Songkla University, Thailand. She specifically learned about the isolation from a marine-derived fungus. Email: aroemrestu@gmail.com.

Directorate of Research and Policy Studies
Overseas Indonesian Student's Association Alliance (OISAA)

No.	Jabatan	Nama	PPI Negara	Asal Universitas
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9	Ketua Tim Kajian Perlindungan Pelajar	Tiara C. Gusman, S.I.Kom	PPI Australia	Monash University
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16	Ketua Komisi Perlindungan Sosial dan Kebudayaan	M. Ammar Hidayahtulloh, M. Dev Prac., Ph. D (cand).	PPI Australia	University of Queensland
17	Ketua Komisi Lingkungan Hidup	Fefi Eka Wardiani, M.Sc	PPI Taiwan	Chung Yuan Christian Unversity
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INDONESIA
POST-PANDEMIC OUTLOOK:
Social Perspectives

COVID-19 has disrupted all aspects of human life. To mitigate the impact of the pandemic, several efforts have been taken, including by Indonesian scholars abroad. This book entitled *Indonesia Post-Pandemic Recovery Outlook: Social Perspectives* explores social issues and topics related to the COVID-19 pandemic and discusses post-pandemic recovery efforts in Indonesia.

Comprising of 15 chapters, this book is divided into three parts. *The first part*, Indonesia and COVID-19 recovery: an international political economy lens, focuses on Indonesia's role in responding to international issues and the global political economy during the pandemic and post-pandemic period. *Second,* Indonesia and COVID-19 recovery: socio-cultural perspectives, discusses the impact of the pandemic, government policies, and activism from marginalized and vulnerable social groups, including people in urban slum areas, women, migrant workers, persons with disabilities, and traditional arts workers. *The last part*, Indonesia and COVID-19 recovery: insight for future education, explores the future of education in post-pandemic Indonesia with all aspects that need to be considered, including access to technology, the importance of digital literacy, and innovation regarding methods and the potential of metaverse education in emergency situations.

We hope that this book can be a valuable reference for stakeholders, policymakers, as well as society to recover from the pandemic crisis and find better solutions to benefit future generations.