

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Caused by *severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2* (SARS-CoV-2), the *Coronavirus Disease 2019* (COVID-19) pandemic has provoked the world as a veritable storm that left most countries completely unprepared with no sense of security and normalcy. Though the pandemic has been defined as a disproportionated public health crisis that distresses the status quo across cultures and nations, it has particularly unveiled the fragile nature of many governance systems across the world, as well as the follies of demonizing and diminishing the public sector. After all, with governments around the world experiencing grand challenges in public service leadership and even more so in the governance of overall emergency responses, state capacity on the provision of frontline public services and the construction of public values is undoubtedly spotlighted as a peculiar challenge for all. From this perspective, the characterization of frontline workers who are contracting direct contact with the citizens, also introduced by Lipsky (1980) as “street-level bureaucrats” (SLBs), has been taking the lead in responding to the crisis and mitigating its widespread consequences.

Often lionized as the unsung public heroes in the visibility of unprecedented crisis, it is more than ever that those public service workers are expected to deliver the very best services possible to address the strains that the pandemic places on the “ordinarily routine processes of governance” (Schuster et al., 2020, p. 792). Indeed, under the glare of public attention and additional scrutiny towards state-level institutionalism, the contribution of SLBs’ efforts as frontline workers to the central administration has been critical to the effectiveness of policy responses to the pandemic (see, for example, Alcadipani et al., 2020; Brodtkin, 2021; Gofen & Lotta, 2021; Lotta et al., 2021; Møller, 2021). Yet with such heavy workloads and demanding obligations, the majority of SLBs are still commanded to work with scarce resources and unpredictability of the represented communities (see Lipsky, 1980), and this is duly noted to the contextual presence of health workers in the front line of the COVID-19 duties.

Frontline health workers are increasingly exposed to the vulnerability of the psycho-social impacts of the virus, with most critical consequences including a scarcity of hospital capacity and medical supplies and/or equipment, exposure to social stigma and other traumas or occupational stress, and difficulties with rapid and screening tools (for a more comprehensive review, see Djalante et al., 2020; Gunawan et al., 2021; Tanne et al., 2020). More often, with frontline health workers are within the expectations to come forward in providing health services to the affected, the entire workforce is not only facing escalating demands of medical resources and infrastructures but also complications in meeting adequate numbers of personnel and other technical supports. Obviously, with the daily flood of hospitalizations but a substandard worker-to-patient ratio exacerbating the uncertainty of precarious working conditions, it becomes inevitable that frontline health workers are becoming more disposed to severe threats in providing health services for COVID-19 patients. In fact, with the tensions sparked by the pace of COVID-19 transmissions and pressures with face-to-face health services to protect lives and livelihoods, the humanitarian challenges of the pandemic are also manifesting in the form of a crisis within the healthcare workforce.

The strains placed on the healthcare workforce to protect and benefit public health and safety amid the pandemic, however, are nowhere more evident than in Indonesia. As of the first two cases detected in the most populous area of Southeast Asia's urban agglomeration, Jakarta is still experiencing a continuous critical surge in confirmed COVID-19 cases with far-reaching health consequences. With the health system in the city struggling to keep up with the rising rates of infection, the exacerbation of vulnerabilities for many COVID-19-infected population groups has created an unmanageable wave on the alarming increase in hospital bed occupancy rates. In this, with the intention of averting the risk of infecting non-COVID-19 patients treated in the regular hospitals and fulfilling the expansion of necessary health infrastructures and facilities, the Ministry of Public Works and Housing converted the athletes' village for the 2018 Asian Games and 2018 Asian Para Games "Kemayoran Athletes Village" (also

known as Kemayoran Athletes Village COVID-19 Emergency Hospital; hereafter Kemayoran Athletes Village) as a COVID-19 emergency facility. Reconstructed at the early stage of the pandemic, the apartment towers of Kemayoran Athletes Village provide first-line hospitalizations for COVID-19 patients, as other average hospitals in Jakarta were running out of wards with the growing COVID-19 cases coming in from the containment zones. In a way, with the hospital functioning as the central cruciality for treating and caring COVID-19 patients across the regions, it is within this boundary that exploring the very foundational resilience and dedication of those frontline health workers, who are also SLBs, in this secluded and isolated (often stigmatized and seen as a source of infectious disease) emergency facility, becomes relevant and essential.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Across the framework of street-level bureaucracy (SLBy), a search of the literature has documented that much of the research has been largely focused on industrialized Western nations (for example, Davidovitz & Cohen, 2020; Evans & Harris, 2004; Hupe & Hill, 2007; Lipsky, 1980; Thomann, Hupe, et al., 2018; Thomann, van Engen, et al., 2018; L. L. G. Tummers et al., 2015; L. Tummers & Rocco, 2015; Zacka, 2018). Importantly, there also seems to be no consensus among scholars on the multiplicity of the issue when it is implicated under the crisis (exceptions include, but are not limited to, Alcadipani et al., 2020; Dunlop et al., 2020; Henderson, 2014; McAdams Ducey & Stough, 2011; Stivers, 2007; and particularly the 2021 Special Issue Vol. 1 on *Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis: Research and Practice*). As noted by Gofen and Lotta (2021, p. 4), “street-level implementation and crisis are not disjointed concepts,” especially given that it was first introduced by Lipsky (1980) “in the context of a so-called urban crisis in the US” (Brodkin, 2021, p. 3). That is, the impacts of one crisis and another are less likely to be uniform, and the situations are very much localized and contextual as they “may be acute or chronic as well as an intersection of both” (Gofen & Lotta, 2021, p. 4). Too often, the implications that exemplify the contributions of SLBs in the times of the COVID-19 pandemic, notably in the

emerging and developing Asia's societies, are barely taken into consideration. Minding that "street-level bureaucrats work in situations that often require responses to the human dimensions of situations" (Lipsky, 1980, p. 15), it is particularly noteworthy that this study nuances the insinuations of crisis within the incorporation of Indonesia's SLBs and their street-level work.

Of particular note, though delving into the centrality of SLBs and their street-level practices when reflected on the ground has also been an expedition of many scholars for a number of different reasons, accentuating on the considerable research with regards to a variety of dimensions and designs; there has been no discussion that examines the perceptions and perspectives of SLBs when delivering services and serving the citizens through which can only either obey or shame them (see de Boer, 2021), especially in pandemic-induced situations. Therefore, with the premise that "human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that the things have for them" (Blumer, 1969, p. 2), this hermeneutic phenomenological study was designed to explore and obtain a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of health workers as SLBs at the forefront of the delivery of health services in Indonesia's first-line COVID-19-focused hospital. Appropriately, the insights derived from the lived experiences of frontline health workers at Kemayoran Athletes Village are expected to be significant in fine-tuning the good practices that facilitate the better attainment imperatives to inform the decisions and dispositions of the policy-makers and on the academic front.

1.3. Research Question

With the consideration that "the central research question is a broad question that asks for an exploration of the central phenomenon or concept in a study" (Creswell, 2014, p. 139), the overarching research question that guides the focus of this study is: *What are the lived experiences of SLBs within the provision of health services in Indonesia's Kemayoran Athletes Village COVID-19 Emergency Hospital?* The central question in this study is deemed appropriate in providing a precise setting on frontline health workers' lived experiences as to

depict the in-depth perceptions and practices of those at the forefront of the pandemic.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

As empirical phenomenological research is designed to obtain a rich, analytical description on the interpretation of individualized human experiences and perceptions involving constructed knowledge and feelings (van Manen, 1990, 1997, 2016), the purpose of this study is to dive into the lived experiences of frontline health workers as SLBs in order to explore their challenges and approaches within the provision of health services at Kemayoran Athletes Village. Though much of state-level intervention acts as the rudimentary responses to health services brought to COVID-19 patients, such as budget allocation and execution and policy-making processes necessary to the crisis management of the pandemic, the effectiveness and implementation of health services rest heavily on street-level workers at the forefront of the pandemic.

The researcher's aim is to reveal the phenomena via a phenomenological inquiry by combining the researcher's perception of the phenomenon with the confirmation obtained from interviewing the study's participants (van Manen, 1997). By examining the researcher's own experience, the information gained from the literature research, and the outcome of the participant experience investigation, the researcher hoped to uncover the true essence of the phenomenon (van Manen, 1997). The findings of the researcher's phenomenological study may be useful in further elucidating variables in SLBs' social processes and their public value creation that contributes to the effectiveness of service provision and delivery and embracement of public value.

1.5. Significance of the Study

1.5.1. Theoretical Significance

From a scholarly perspective, this study is significant in offering a broader understanding of SLBy and SLBs in a developing Asian country, particularly when it is presented under a more constrained setting such as the COVID-19

pandemic. This study anticipates that such implications can further scholars' understanding of the extent to which SLBy and SLBs are exerted when a crisis is amplified and taken to a much higher dimension than the simple arithmetic sum of the pandemic risks. In this, it contributes to modernizing avenues for future studies and identifying areas in need of critical policy agendas, within and beyond Indonesia and the COVID-19 pandemic.

1.5.2. Methodological Significance

From a methodological perspective, this study is significant in employing the larger domain of (hermeneutic) phenomenological approaches, which not only expands the methodological topography but also enriches public administration research methodologies. This study anticipates that such implications can equip scholars in bridging the divide between theory and practice, thus alleviating the long-standing theory-practice disconnect in public administration and thereby democratizing it. That is, by providing the opportunities for scholars to learn from the experiences of others and broadening their understanding of the complicated processes associated with learning, behavior, and communication that are germane to the field, the methodology associated with this research can encourage the public administration field to be more receptive to the experiential knowledge of those on the ground, thereby reinforcing the practice to bring renewed relevance to public administration theory.

1.5.3. Practical Significance

From a pragmatic perspective, this study is significant in demonstrating the lived experiences of frontline health workers at Kemayoran Athletes Village when functioning in a volatile environment in which there are scant resources and ambiguous structures in implementation. This study anticipates that such implications can assist in identifying ways to correct issues in the effectiveness of service provision and in addressing the concerns and needs of associated SLBs. Through demonstrating the complexities of the ways that SLBs work and proceed,

institutional attention can be offered more consciously in order to fashion efficiency, effectiveness, fairness, and respect among SLBs in Indonesia.

1.6. Nature of the Study

This study used a hermeneutic phenomenological method to analyze the experiences of SLBs participating in the provision of services at Kemayoran Athletes Village (see Matua & Van Der Wal, 2015). The phenomenological approach emphasizes the fundamental meanings or essences of SLBs' experiences by drawing attention to them (see Matua & Van Der Wal, 2015; see also van Manen, 1990). In the process of determining the essence of the phenomenon under investigation, the phenomenological approach as a research methodology may be helpful in determining the underlying perception of SLBs via their own narratives of the conditions in which the experience occurs. As part of the interviews, the researcher encouraged the SLBs to share their understandings and experiences, which would aid in the formulation of the meaning or value they place on these events (see Davidsen, 2013; see also Matua & Van Der Wal, 2015). The researcher's primary goal was to extract information on SLBs' experiences, values, and clinical reasoning while they were engaged in health service provision, as well as information about the social processes, impediments, and facilitators that they encountered throughout the process of it.

1.7. Assumptions of the Study

The researcher's aim in this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the perceptions and lived experiences of SLBs who provided frontline health services at Kemayoran Athletes Village. The first assumption made was that the researcher would get insight into the health service provision experiences of the thirteen frontline health workers. The second underlying assumption was that participants would be candid about their experiences and in their explanations of those experiences. Finally, there was an expectation that research participants would recall specific details about their experiences.

1.8. Scope, Delimitations, and Limitations of the Study

The following limitations apply to this qualitative phenomenological study of SLBs' lived experiences providing health services at Kemayoran Athletes Village: The study's intended sample size was 25 to 30 frontline health workers, but the researcher was able to attain saturation with 13 participants, which became the study's final number of participants (see Converse, 2012). Participants were frontline health workers in a variety of responsibilities at Kemayoran Athletes Village, including (but are not limited to) general practitioners, specialists, and nurses, who had prior experience providing direct health services to COVID-19 patients. Due to the fact that all participants were chosen using a combination of purposive sampling and snowballing procedures, there is an impossibility to determine the sampling error and make generalizations, implying that the sample is not representative of the population under study.

1.9. Theoretical Framework

1.9.1. Street-Level Bureaucracy (SLBy)

In his book titled *Street-Level Bureaucracy: Dilemmas of the Individual in Public Services*, Lipsky (1980) introduced the conceptualization of "street-level bureaucrats" (SLBs) that he referred to as "public service workers who interact directly with citizens in the course of their jobs" (p. 3). According to his accounts, SLBs are largely reactionary in the policy-making process, as they are often entangled between their duties to cater to the interests of their clients and the implementation of public policies as established by traditional policy-makers (Lipsky, 1980, see also Brodtkin & Marston, 2013; S. W. Maynard-Moody et al., 2003). SLBs, such as (but are not limited to) police officers, public school educators, social welfare workers, and health workers are the functionaries of the public sector whose agencies and/or institutions necessitate them to organize direct interactions with members of the public while also bargaining their discretionary authority as to enforce government directives or policies (Lipsky, 1980). As the "face of government to the citizenry" (S. R. Smith, 2003, p. 442) and as "the intersection of the state, its policies and individuals" (Brodtkin &

Marston, 2013, p. 28), SLBs are instrumental in constructing government-citizens relationships (Brodkin, 2011b, 2011a) due to having “intrinsic importance to social well-being” (Lynn Jr. et al., 2001, p. 5).

Moreover, though SLBs are normatively to act as the liaisons between government policy-makers and citizens by merely adhering to directives (i.e., less likely to be the architects in the realms of the policy-making process), due to their conflicting positionalities (two interrelated facets) of also having a certain degree of discretion and autonomy (Evans & Harris, 2004; Hupe & Hill, 2007; Lipsky, 1980; Lotta et al., 2021; Thomann, van Engen, et al., 2018; L. L. G. Tummers et al., 2015), they are also traditionally altering and even constructing policies with their roles as “policy-makers” (see Gofen, 2014). As SLBs are those “who have substantial discretion in the execution of their work” (Lipsky, 1980, p. 3), it has been argued that one of the most distinct aspects in relation to the manner in which SLBs execute their roles in public service delivery is the certain degree of autonomy in their decision-making process (Lipsky, 1980; see also S. W. Maynard-Moody et al., 2003; Meyers et al., 2007). As noted by Lipsky (1980), the “decisions of street-level bureaucrats, the routines they establish, and the devices they invent to cope with uncertainties and work pressures, effectively become the public policies they carry out” (p. 3). It is therefore hardly surprising that SLBs are often in the intersections of dilemmas when policies-to-be-implemented are conflicting to the welfare of their clients and ambiguous in the enforcement settings.

Indeed, through a divergent of studies on non-governmental public services such as nurses by Bergen and While (2005) or teachers by Mutereko (2009), it is clear that SLBs do not simply implement policies from the “top” as they are “given” but also exert their discretion and autonomy. Noting both the positive and negative consequences of this condition, SLBs are often found to harness their actions as a means of coping with the faced challenges of direct-delivery interactions with their clients. This coping mechanism, as it is best understood by Lipsky (1980), is predominantly triggered as a result of public service workers’ encounters within a variety of environments where challenges

cut across boundaries, including a scarcity of resources and a considerably demanding workload, often accompanied by unpredictability and ambiguity (Brodin, 2012; Lipsky, 1980). As such, when faced with such dynamical heterogeneities, SLBs are reactively triggered to balance the formality of policy implementation (e.g., the rule of law) and to keep up with the priority of collective fundamental (e.g., individuals' specific situations). In a way, SLBs often develop strategies to deal with the indeterminacies that confront them, as opposed to seeking clarification of what may not be explicit. Coherently, there exists an intricate relationship between formal policy and informal practice between SLBs, with street-level implementation often being challenged by the inherent ambiguity of the policy-as-designed on the grounds that "policy as written often fails to teach implementers what they need to know to do policy" (C. J. Hill, 2006, p. 265).

Exploring the COVID-19 pandemic during its peaks particularly affords the undenied picture of the crisis being a "creeping" one (Boin, Ekengren, et al., 2020) as to convey that the "pandemic posed novel and complex challenges, even to those policymakers well-versed in the management of 'acute' crises, such as plane crashes or natural disasters" (Boin, Lodge, et al., 2020, p. 189). Indeed, a crisis is seldom alluded to as a contextual construct from a street-level perspective, and as a result, the implications of the crisis for street-level implementation are understudied (exceptions include, for example, Alcadipani et al., 2020; Dunlop et al., 2020; Henderson, 2014; McAdams Ducey & Stough, 2011; Stivers, 2007). Yet, with unusual destabilizing conditions, crisis situations in general (and the COVID-19 pandemic, in particular) disturb the day-to-day routines of street-level implementation intrinsically. To be more precise, being the frontline of public service delivery in times of stability, by definition, SLBs acts as the border of government reaction to crises and emergencies. But with the crisis triggering and imperiling their well-established professional position (Harrits, 2019; Loyens & Maesschalck, 2010), SLBs' specialized knowledge, skills, and judgment turn as obsolete in the unexpected, fast-changing conditions and newly emerging risks inherent to crises (Boin et al., 2008; Goodsell, 2002). During a crisis, SLBs'

expertise is replaced by a lack of direction, information, and experience (Alcadipani et al., 2020; Dunlop et al., 2020; Henderson, 2014; McAdams Ducey & Stough, 2011; Nagesh & Chakraborty, 2020; Stivers, 2007). That is, COVID-19 and its implementing rules severely restricted SLBs' direct engagement with clients, which not only determines street-level implementation but is often necessary for on-the-ground service delivery (Dubois, 2016).

1.10. Conceptual Definitions

There are a variety of conceptual definitions related to understanding the multifaceted and pertinently necessary nature of this study, which has been defined within several key concepts, as follows:

Street-Level Bureaucrats (SLBs): public servants who conduct direct interactions with the citizens, equipped with a very small amount of discretionary power and within the ambit of the law.

Frontline Health Workers: all types of health workers – including nurses, midwives, community health workers, doctors, pharmacists, and more – who provide care directly to their communities; the backbone of effective health systems that serve millions of families.

Lived Experience: a depiction of the experiences and choices of a given person and the knowledge gained as a result of these experiences and choices.

Health Service Provision: inpatient and outpatient care, rehabilitation, nursing services, prescription medicine, remedies, and medical aids, as well as costs associated with the many aspects of healthcare, transportation, and overall costs.

1.11. Research Methodology

1.11.1. Research Paradigm

When conducting a qualitative (or quantitative) inquiry, it is advised that the researcher pinpoints their research within a particular paradigm in order to usher the research direction (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, 2011) in accordance with the three major assumption differences of deliberating a particular paradigm,

through which are ontologically, epistemologically and methodologically (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In order to obtain an in-depth understanding of the lived experiences of the study participants, this research employed an interpretivist paradigm, as the disposition and the position of the researcher are consistent with an interpretivist perspective.

From an ontological perspective, the questions concern with the nature of the reality, or as Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 108) ask it, “what is the form and nature of reality and, therefore what there is that can be known about it?”. Taking a relativist ontology, this research assumes that multiple truths exist (Schwandt, 1994) and postulates that reality is fabricated in one’s consciousness (Hansen, 2004) rather than objectively perceived as a singular entity. That is, the ontological principles of a relativist in this research acknowledges that the experiences of the study participants are to be complexly varied; that the data presentation will not be classified as an objective, singular representation of a certain population but rather as an “example” of various explications (see van Manen, 2016).

Speaking in an epistemological way, Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 108) also question, “what is the nature of the relationship between the knower or would-be knower and what can be known?”. In consideration of these epistemological assumptions and the certainty that comprehension of data would be obtained through wide-ranging interactions with the study participants, this research presumed a transaction-based and context-based relationship with the participants to obtain knowledge during the inquiry process. As noted by Ponterotto (2005), such assumptions are in harmony with the interpretivist paradigm, which presumes that knowledge should be able to be brought forth by an immersive conversation between the researcher and the study participants (see also Schwandt, 2000).

Methodologically, the questions are largely engrossed with the appropriateness of the techniques to obtain knowledge from the study participants, or as Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 108) put it, “how can the inquirer (would-be knower) go about finding out whatever he or she believes can be known?”. In

conformity with this nature, hermeneutic phenomenology that offers a variety of research perspectives appropriately suitable to exploring lived experiences through an interactive dialogue between the researcher and the study participants was chosen as the methodology for this research. Also, hermeneutic phenomenology was used as it conforms to the world-view of the researcher, and it appeared to be the most viable way to understand the individualized experiences of the study participants.

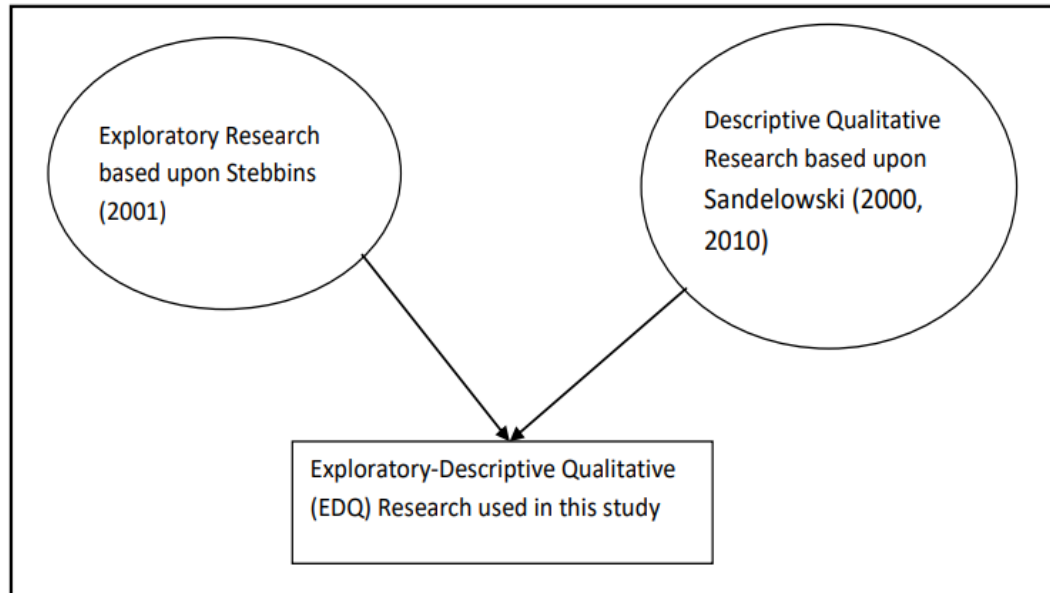
Therefore, the paradigm in this research is rooted in interpretivism (c/f. Atkinson, 1988), as the ontological, epistemological, and methodological perspectives in this phenomenological inquiry align with an interpretivist approach. Indeed, the centrality of the interpretivist standpoint is the recognition that reality is demarcated and constructed in a social way (Berger & Luckmann, 1967; Charnon, 1995); that the inherent process of the research lies in the symbolic order that is grounded on interactions between social actors (Silverman, 1989). Intrinsically, this study is underpinned by an interpretivist paradigm, whereby the insights are mainly derived from a phenomenological demonstration that is not merely in the act of understanding particularities but in the system of meanings from which it is composed to the larger contextualities of the research.

1.11.2. Research Approach

A qualitative exploratory-descriptive research approach (see Hunter et al., 2019) was used in this research, in which it afforded the suitability and availability of exploring and describing the experiences as it is lived by the target population that is likewise consistent with the bordered research question. Defined by Polit and Beck (2008, p. 762, 2010) as “the investigation of phenomena, typically in an in-depth and holistic fashion, through the collection of rich narrative materials using a flexible research design”, the complexity and breadth of the descriptions obtained by a qualitative approach offers a one-of-a-kind appreciation of the reality of the lived experiences (Munhall, 2001). Appropriately, a qualitative approach was deemed the most fit to explore and describe the lived experiences of health workers as SLBs at the forefront of the delivery of health

services (Burns & Grove, 2010; Creswell, 1999; Creswell et al., 2007; Creswell & Miller, 2000).

Figure 1.1. The creation of an exploratory-descriptive research approach



Source: Hunter et al. (2019)

As noted by Brown and Brown (2006, p. 51) that “exploratory research provides insights into and comprehension of an issue or situation”, this research endeavored to explore the in-depth knowledge and understanding of a selected demographic group by repeatedly posing questions and probing until data saturation occurred (Yin, 1994). As a qualitative exploratory research, there were two-fold objectives taken into consideration in this research: it focused on illuminating the manifestation of a phenomenon and uncovering the extent of the nature of a relatively understudied phenomenon (Polit & Beck, 2012), and it then explored a topic in which little attention is received in the literature in order to allow the contribution of the study participants in the creation of new knowledge (Nieswiadomy, 2008; Reid-Searl et al., 2012; Reid-Searl & Happell, 2012). Analogously, Polit & Beck (2008, p. 752) call descriptive research as owing “its main objective the accurate portrayal of the characteristics of persons, situations, or groups, and/or the frequency with which certain phenomena occur” (see also

Huczynski & Buchanan, 1991; Robson, 2002). As stated, this research also used a qualitative descriptive approach, as the research is to establish a comprehensive description of the phenomenon in order to gain insights and inform knowledge on the involvements of “who”, “what”, and “where” in relation to the phenomenon of interest (Caelli et al., 2003; Sandelowski, 2000).

1.11.3. Research Methods

As noted by Creswell (2014, p. 11), “researchers are free to choose the methods, techniques, and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes”, and by identifying a particular methodological approach that the researcher can appropriately collect and analyze data depending on the objectives of the research and the research question that the research seeks to answer. So too, as Greenhalgh & Taylor (1997, p. 116) assert that qualitative methods are used to “study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them”, this research is to take into account the complexities of human behavior in order to provide complex textual descriptions of how people experience a given phenomenological issue (Pelto & Pelto, 1997).

This qualitative research approach used hermeneutic phenomenological research design, whereby it was informed by the work of van Manen’s (1990, 2016) category of hermeneutic phenomenology. To begin with, phenomenology is a philosophical study of lived experiences discovered in the twentieth century (Spiegelberg, 1983), through which two primary schools of phenomenology were brought forth: Edmund Husserl’s descriptive or transcendental phenomenology and Martin Heidegger’s interpretative or hermeneutic phenomenology (van Manen, 2016; see also Dowling, 2004). Within Husserlian’s (1859-1938) transcendental phenomenology, it purposes to emphasis on the lived experiences from the pre-reflective notion of illustrations (i.e., with the absence of the acts of interpreting) in order to captivate the “true” experience of the phenomena as emerged to the consciousness (Dowling, 2004, 2007; Flood, 2010; Wilcke, 2002). Through this, Husserl has encouraged the practice of “bracketing”, where the

researcher appends any biases, presuppositions, and preconceptions with regards to the phenomena under study to ensure an unbiased study (Dowling, 2007). In contrast to Husserl, Heidegger's (1889-1976) existential approach focuses beyond merely describing the phenomena but also in understanding the situated meanings based on one's historical cumulative life experiences (Flood, 2010; Lavery, 2003). Ontological in nature, Heidegger insists on the interpretations of the phenomena in the purpose of exposing the concealed meanings within the lived experiences. So too, rather than Husserl's encouragement over the "bracketing" methods, Heidegger argues that those fundamental factors are as much important in understanding the lived experiences of the local historicity and particularities of our lived worlds (Dowling, 2004; Flood, 2010).

Indeed, the study of phenomenology put forward by Husserl and Heidegger has received a broad scholarly engagement within the realms of academia, in the sense that it has evolved over time with extensive theoretical refinement and philosophy-to-methodology development (Langdridge, 2007, 2008; J. A. Smith & Shinebourne, 2012). Though so, in a pool of the myriad notions and concepts of phenomenology, this research is particularly interested with a scholarship that appeared under the guidance of Max van Manen (1990), who associates Husserl's emphasis on descriptions and Heidegger's on interpretations to form a new category of hermeneutic phenomenology. As van Manen's hermeneutic (also understood as descriptive-interpretative) phenomenology incorporates both Husserl's and Heidegger's phenomenology, it purposes to describe and interpret the routines of individuals' pre-reflective human existence, and to also comprehend its meaning in a way that is interpretatively (Flood, 2010; Lopez & Willis, 2004; Sloan & Bowe, 2014). Consistent with Heidegger, van Manen (1990) does not support "bracketing" and instead, accentuates the positionality of the researcher in the research process in manipulating presuppositions within the reflections of the research (Dowling, 2007; van Manen, 1990). In fact, van Manen (1990) argues that there exist impossibilities to remove presuppositions from influencing the flow of the research, and emphasizes that it is important that the researcher explicitly state their presuppositions in order to

understand the situated meanings of the experiences in the constructed reality of one's daily lifeworld.

With these considerations, this research incorporated van Manen's (1990, 2016) hermeneutic phenomenology (see also Flood, 2010; Lopez & Willis, 2004; Sloan & Bowe, 2014) as it is reasoned to offer the highest adequacy in gaining a deeper understanding of a phenomenon (e.g., what a particular phenomenon is like) from those who have pre-reflectively experienced it. Concisely, van Manen's hermeneutic phenomenology is the exemplary method for this research. That is, van Manen's hermeneutic phenomenology is not only consistent with the ontological, epistemological and methodological views of the researcher but also pertinent in providing rich textual information about the "human" side of an issue and enabling interpretation of symbolic order meanings (Dowling, 2007; Lopez & Willis, 2004).

1.11.4. Research Locality and Time Frame

This research was eventuated over a three-month period in Indonesia's first-line COVID-19-focused hospital in Jakarta, Kemayoran Athletes Village; commencing in June 2021 and concluding in August 2021. As a COVID-19 emergency facility, Kemayoran Athletes Village serves as the leading hospitalization for COVID-19 patients in Indonesia, and it is in this context that the selection of Kemayoran Athletes Village as the locality in this research is rendered as appropriate and proper to the studied phenomenon. Indeed, though there were decreases and/or significant fluctuations in the number of the patients at certain points in time, the recent overwhelming increase in infections due to the 2021 Eid al-Fitr Homecoming has further placed the consequent pressures on this makeshift hospital to provide health services to patients in a more massive and intense manner. On this basis, this research intended to advance a deeper understanding of Kemayoran Athletes Village health workers' perspectives and experiences in the face of the pandemic within the provision of frontline health services to COVID-19 patients.

1.11.5. Population and Sampling

In selecting the samples of the research, van Manen (1990) notes that phenomenological research requires participants to possess prior experiences with the phenomenon under investigation and to be representative of the population who shared certain characteristics as the defined criteria (see also Davidsen, 2013). Along the lines of Kaplan and Maxwell's (2005) suggestion that purposive sampling can be hugely advantageous for recruiting participants in phenomenological research, Converse (2012) also argued that purposive sampling can be beneficial in locating individuals who have first-hand knowledge of the phenomenon of the research. Accordingly, considering that this non-probabilistic method of participant identification is consistent with the phenomenological notion of intentionality, in the sense that the intention of sample selection in phenomenology was to ensure a comprehensive and exhaustive understanding of the phenomenon through the participants' frank and honest reactions (Converse, 2012); the criterion for selection was determined prior to extracting the sample. Further, the snowballing technique (word-of-mouth) was also employed to identify individuals who had comparable experiences as outlined in the prescribed criteria (Patton, 2002), in which key interviewees recommended additional key individuals and the researcher contacted them to inquire about their potential participation in the research. With one key interviewee may circulate more than one key contact, this research was able to proceed in locating information-rich participants through such a chain-referral approach. Concisely, with the population being studied was determined to be a category of SLBs, namely health workers serving at the forefront of Kemayoran Athlete Village; this research appropriately used the purposive sampling strategy in conjunction with the snowballing technique for collection of data. In so doing, the following inclusion criteria were bordered in the recruitment process: (a) Participants are qualified health workers with various levels of expertise and responsibilities who are currently serving at Kemayoran Athletes Village; and (b) Participants are health workers who have direct contact with COVID-19 patients at Kemayoran Athletes Village in the provision of COVID-19 health services.

To ensure that the sample size contributed to both the intensity and breadth of the phenomenon as bolstered by the observation of the researcher (Converse, 2012), the sample size in a phenomenological study must be large enough to comprehend the phenomenon while remaining small enough to allow for detailed circumstantial analysis of the data (Converse, 2012; van Manen, 1990, 2016). As explained by Matua (2015) that the purpose of qualitative research is to find equilibrium between the personal understandings from the experiences and the depiction of the life experience of the participants; therefore, the number of samples was not as significant as the need to capture the completeness and distinctness of the phenomenon accurately and sufficiently (Converse, 2012). In this research, the sample size was dependent on three essential factors: the degree of theoretical saturation (Guest et al., 2006; Morse, 1995; Sandelowski, 1995), the homogeneity and variety of experiences (van Manen, 1990); and the research was able to satisfy these phenomenological principles (Converse, 2012; Matua, 2015) by involving thirteen Kemayoran Athlete Village frontline health workers who interact directly with COVID-19 patients in the provision of health services.

1.11.6. Research Instrumentation

As hermeneutic phenomenological research prospects to gather instances of potential lived experiences and to reflect on the meanings inherent in these experiences, van Manen (1990, 2016) suggests the use of interviews in exploring and collecting experiential material that is not only rich but also detailed. Through engaging in an in-depth interview process, a semi-structured interview protocol consisting of ten open-ended questions followed by (at certain numbers) one to two probing questions (Appendix 2) was explicitly developed as the predominant research instrument in order to enable the participants the freedom to express their views in their own term (D. Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). The in-depth, semi-structured interviews started with the researcher asking the participants to fill in self-reported demographic information containing their gender, age range, highest level of education, occupation classification in the health sector, and length of working in the dedicated occupation and serving at Kemayoran Athletes Village.

The interview process was conducted in a face-to-face format so long as adequate health protocols were adhered, and lasted for approximately 45 to 120 minutes in order to satisfactorily inquire participants in reflecting on their day-to-day experiences in the provision of health services at Kemayoran Athletes Village.

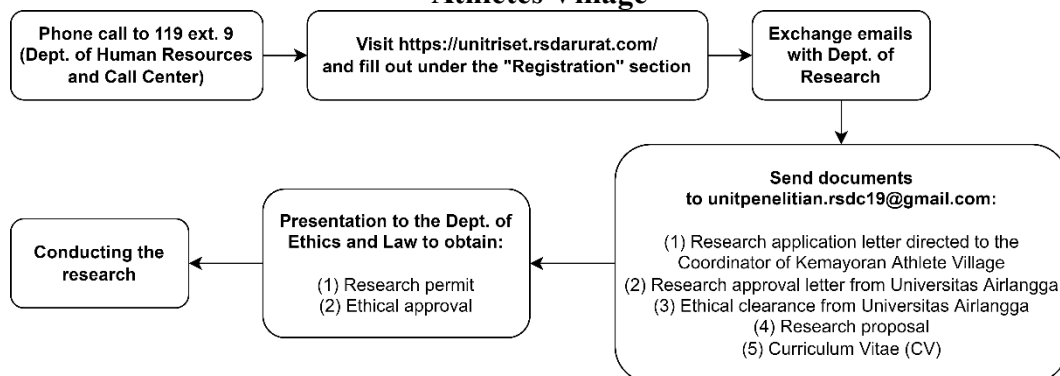
To ensure that the participants' experiences were appropriately documented, all interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Before commencing the interviews, the researcher informed and reassured the participants that their participation in the research was voluntary and/or there was no coercion or undue influence in participating in it, and that the participant had the right to request that the audio-recorder be turned off at any time during the interview and that the participant would be allowed to continue the interview only if the participant felt comfortable doing so. Further, the participants were reminded that withdrawal from the participation after beginning the interviews are permitted without any penalty and punishment, and participants were also ensured that their confidentiality shall be maintained through assigning a numeric code to conceal their identities. Importantly, as recommended by van Manen (1990, 2016), the phenomenological interviews were conducted in a way of remaining close to the experience as lived. That is, in order to attain interpretations of the meanings of the lived experiences as appropriate and proper as possible, the researcher asked questions about a specific instance, situation, person, or event, rather than asking for interpretations, explanations, generalizations, or speculations that get away from descriptions of experience as it is lived through. Equally important, observational notes were engaged during the interviews, with memoing and reflexive journaling were also used after the interview to support observations of participants' behaviors, reactions, and emotions during the interviews, as well as the researcher's theoretical and personal knowledge and presuppositions throughout the interviews.

1.11.7. Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Following the establishment of the inclusion criteria and the complete interview protocol, phone calls (119 ext. 9) were made with the Department of

Human Resources and Call Center at Kemayoran Athletes Village to request that this research can be conducted in accordance with the existing procedures. The researcher was then directed to the website (<https://unitriset.rsdarurat.com/>) and filled out the research request form under the “Registration” section, after which emails were exchanged between the researcher and the Department of Research in the context of processing the research application. After completing necessary documents as guided by the Administrator of the Department of Research and sent to the referred email address (unitpenelitian.rsd19@gmail.com), such as research application letter directed to the Coordinator of Kemayoran Athlete Village, research approval letter (2106/UN.3.1.7/PK/2021) and ethical clearance (2281/UN3.1.7/PT/2020) from Universitas Airlangga, research proposal and researcher’s Curriculum Vitae (CV); presentation to the Department of Ethics and Law was given by the researcher in order to obtain ethical approval for the research. After research permit (SI/5913/VI/2021/RSDCWA) and ethical approval (14/KERSDCWA/2021) from Kemayoran Athletes Village were issued and obtained, recruitment started to unfold through which a Google Questionnaire (Appendix 1) for interested and prospective participants were disseminated across the researcher’s colleagues’ WhatsApp groups linked to activities at Kemayoran Athletes Village. Figure 1.2 illustrates the entire processes for this (external) research application at Kemayoran Athletes Village.

Figure 1.2. The procedures for external research application at Kemayoran Athletes Village

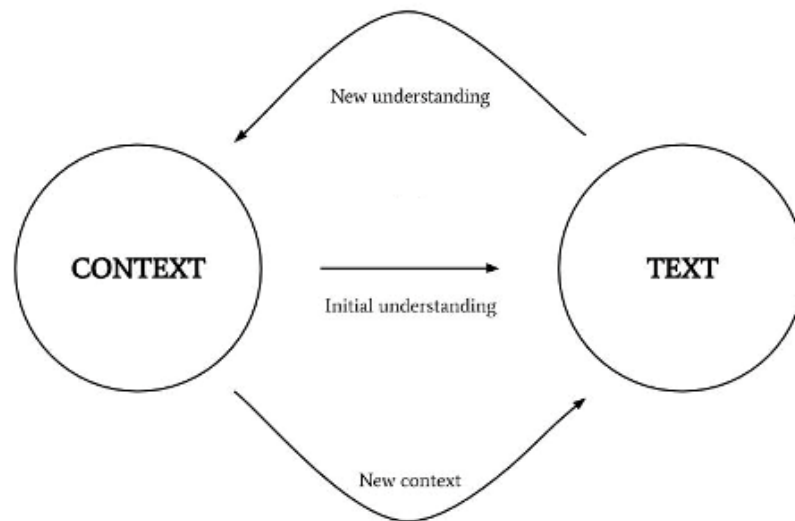


Source: Author’s processed data from Kemayoran Athletes Village (2021)

All participants who signed up to the Google Questionnaire were then contacted via WhatsApp for further steps with regards to their involvement in this research. After the participant clearly and freely expressed their consent to participate, the interview was scheduled with flexibility and agreement to both parties, also appropriately held in a location convenient to the participant. Prior to commencing the interviews, the participants were provided with an explanation of the research objectives, as well as hard copies of letters of information and informed consent (Appendix 3) to document the essential statement of agreement between two parties, with the former meant to be kept for the participants and the latter was meant for both sides.

1.11.8. Data Analysis

According to hermeneutic phenomenology, the ultimate goal of data analysis is to create a rich and detailed depiction of the lived experience of persons who have taken part in a research study. The data analysis process started with a review of the interview transcripts and the completion of handwritten first and second cycle coding, as well as descriptive and pattern coding (Saldaña, 2016). A dynamic process, analysis in hermeneutic phenomenological has several characteristics, including the following: a shift from what is unique to an individual participant to what is shared among the participants; a shift from simply describing the experience to an interpretation of the experience; the researcher's commitment to understanding the participant's point of view; and a focus on meaning-making in the context of the phenomenon under investigation (Cooper et al., 2012). An iterative approach of analysis was used to study the transcripts of the interviews, which included the use of a mechanism known as the hermeneutic circle (see Figure 1.3). The following are the general steps involved in the hermeneutic approach: keep reading to find meaning; analyze words, phrases, and sentences while keeping the researcher's point of view in mind; and synthesize concepts in order to communicate research findings (Parse, 2001a, 2001b).

Figure 1.3. The hermeneutic circle in hermeneutic phenomenology

Source: Gadamer (1975)

According to van Manen (1994), the process of writing and rewriting is essential because it helps researchers to transcend beyond the identification and comparison of themes to a fuller understanding of the events (see also M. Z. Cohen et al., 2000). Immediately after this step, an even more concise explanation is developed that describes the phenomenon in the most basic language and structural structure that is possible. Following that, the participants were questioned to determine whether or not the researcher had grasped the essence of the phenomenon in question. Participants were essentially asked if the researcher had adequately captured the value of their lived experience via the study procedure or whether the researcher had failed to do so.

To assist with the data analysis, the NVivo 12 Pro data analysis software was used to assist with the data analysis. In the academic literature, there has been a considerable lot of support for the use of qualitative software in the analysis of data. According to Bazeley and Jackson (2013), computer-assisted data analysis is intended to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of learning rather than to completely replace conventional ways of learning from data in the classroom. According to Creswell (2007) and Bazeley & Jackson (2013), using computer software to assist in qualitative data analysis provides a number of advantages to

doing the analysis manually in a variety of situations. Some of these advantages include: a greater emphasis on ways to examine meaning; assistance with managing large amounts of data; the ability to run multiple queries of data; a convenient method for storing large amounts of data; the ability to locate text, segments, and passages of data and make comparisons among them; the capability of including written field notes and descriptions; the ability to securely store large amounts of data; and the production of a visual representation of the data (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013; Creswell et al., 2007). Continuing on, Bazeley and Jackson (2013) state that there is a widely held perception in the research community that the use of such computer software programs helps to ensure rigor by keeping such detailed records of the data management and analysis processes, and that this is a widely held perception in the research community. Bazeley and Jackson (2013) state that the use of such computer software programs helps to ensure rigor by keeping such detailed records of the data management and analysis processes.

1.11.8.1. Inter- and Intra-Coder Reliability

The researcher took on the position of the principal researcher for this hermeneutic phenomenological study. The intra-coder reliability strategy was used since the researcher was the sole one responsible for both data collection and data analysis. This technique assesses the consistency of the researcher, which means that the same findings will be obtained if the coding procedure is repeated in the future (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Jacinto et al., 2016; Saldaña, 2021).

1.11.9. Trustworthiness and Methodological Rigor

In the course of doing qualitative research, it becomes more important to guarantee that the data gathered and reported on is trustworthy. Validity in qualitative research, according to Creswell (2014), is critical in determining whether or not a researcher's findings are accurate and credible and in ensuring that they are. There are four specific elements of qualitative research in trustworthiness that must be addressed in order to reduce concerns about the

reliability of the results: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility. Validity in qualitative research, according to Ravitch and Carl (2016; 2019), is a rigorous approach that is used to assess the rigor of a research's findings. This process of building credibility may involve activities such as participant checking, triangulation, providing detailed descriptions, and the use of peer debriefers, among other things (S. M. Ravitch & Carl, 2016; Sharon M Ravitch & Carl, 2019). Participant checking is a method through which participants may evaluate the correctness of their own assertions in order to confirm that accurate results were achieved. Immediately after each interview, participants were given the option of receiving a copy of their interview transcript in order to confirm that their remarks accurately represented their real views about their experiences at Kemayoran Athletes Village. Participants in the interviews did not seek a transcript at the conclusion of the interviews (no one sought one). The triangulation process was also completed by having a sufficient number of participants to achieve theme saturation. This enabled numerous views to be provided in order to verify the research or to offer what Carter et al. (2014) characterized as the blending of multiple data sources in order to assess validity of the findings. After everything was said and done, this delivered the genuine substance of experience, as testified to by frontline health workers in their service provision experiences. Another tool that was employed to capture personal ideas and feelings during the interview process was reflexive journaling, which helped to increase the validity of the research by documenting participants' own thoughts and experiences. It was also done by having the researcher's thesis supervisor, who is also a doctoral-prepared researcher, analyze the transcripts in order to confirm results and build agreement on the research's findings.

Transferability. In terms of transferability, one of the most important concepts to remember is that one should not strive for factual claims, but rather should apply to or transfer to comparable settings while keeping richness of information in the context supplied (S. M. Ravitch & Carl, 2016; Sharon M Ravitch & Carl, 2019). It was claimed by Creswell (2014) that offering a heavy,

detailed description helps readers to enjoy the sensations given by participants' descriptions, which may provide a more representative look at their overall experiences. As Patton (2014) points out, the use of many qualitative resources allows for the testing of consistency, which may be used to determine the strength and trust in the results reached. This research's thirteen interviews produced adequate evidence to meet topic saturation and assure transferability for this particular research question. This further supported the necessity for the study, since no previous research had been performed to examine the lived experiences of frontline health workers in their service provision experiences before the researcher. Finally, giving significant information and thick descriptions, as well as checking the consistency among the data, enabled for transferability to be accomplished successfully. According to Morse (2015, p. 1213), "decontextualization and abstraction of emerging concepts and theory" may be used to achieve external validity, which is the ability to apply findings to comparable situations or persons in the future.

Dependability. As a means of ensuring the dependability of my study, the thesis examiners used an investigation audit to verify and confirm that the data obtained actually validated the findings and conclusions reached throughout the research process. A third method of triangulation was utilized to compare personal observations with the responses provided by study participants during their interview, which was done via journaling (Patton, 2014). There are two qualitative procedures that may be used to assist assure dependability in a research project, audit trails and triangulation. Using inquiry audits, Mores (2015) proposed that an outside party review the research process to ensure "internal linkages" (p. 8) of material as the theory develops. Inquiry audits are a type of review in which an outside party examines the research process to ensure "internal linkages" of material as the theory develops. Morse (2015) also said that dependability in qualitative research refers to the capacity of other researchers to acquire the same findings if the study were to be replicated in the future, as described in the article.

Confirmability. It is important to guarantee that the experiences and ideas uncovered in a researcher's work are actually those of the participants and not

those of the researcher in qualitative research. A study by Amankwaa (2016) gave insight into the reliability of qualitative research, including the credibility and neutrality of the researcher in order to limit bias and empower participants to shape the conclusions. When doing qualitative research, Anney (2014) stressed the necessity of maintaining a full audit trail, which includes raw data from field work, such as notes on information from interviews and researcher observations. Reflexive journaling (which contains field notes and the researcher's own comments) is another approach that may be used (Anney, 2014). An audit trail and reflexive journaling were done from the beginning of the research study, during the interviews, and after the data was analyzed, interpreted, and reported on the results were published. After that, while reflecting on individual interviews, these records may be used to recollect and corroborate in-depth moments of the interviews that stuck out to the researcher, rather than forming assumptions based on preconceived notions or preconceptions.

1.11.10. Ethical Issues

The ethical issues taken into account and the accommodations provided for research participants are critical to the effectiveness of the study. There are various strategies to alleviate ethical problems surrounding the recruitment of participants, including full disclosure of the research's objective, providing participant benefits, and ensuring that participants do not feel coerced or compelled to participate (Creswell, 2014). According to Patton (2014), the ability to get Institutional Review Board (IRB) Ethical Approval is dependent on the truthfulness of the research's goal and the willingness of subjects to provide their informed permission. These concerns were alleviated by assuring complete disclosure of the research's purpose, as well as informed permission that was obtained prior to data collection and analysis.

Participants had the option to withdraw themselves from the research at any time without being asked to do so, and they would be appreciated for their time and efforts. Additionally, assurances were offered about the confidentiality of all identifying information including names, audio recordings, and notes.

Moreover, this data was stored on a password-protected computer and in a password-protected Google Drive account, and it will be deleted when the specified period of time was completed. Access to this data was restricted to the five academic members from Universitas Airlangga, which are researcher, the thesis supervisor, and three thesis examiners. The principal researcher's printed papers were stored in a locked drawer and a secured office at her residence.

Finally, personal coworkers were not recruited since doing so would have caused them to feel uncomfortable discussing their personal experiences, or conversely, they might have overshared experiences that they might not have shared with a non-coworker, lowering the overall quality of the interview.