Work From Home Outlooks In The Era Covid 19: Implications For Work Engagement

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ABSTRACT: The severe COVID-19 pandemic triggered an extraordinary global health crisis, resulting in an economic downturn and negative consequences for employees' work lives, especially work engagement. An overview of how literature has been tackling the impact of COVID-19 on work engagement and work from home engagement is still missing. The Work From Home (WFH) scheme is part of the telecommuting concept, which is common in the world of work and urban planning. However, this concept is usually applied under normal conditions and not because of the current pandemic. This paper attempts to provide an overview of the concept of telecommuting (working remotely) or working from home/WFH (working from home) in terms of work engagement. This paper suggests that work from home, covid-19, anda work engagement is a function of the interactions involving individual, organization, and the environment. The report discusses individual and organizational roles in fostering employee engagement. The article provides general ideas for researchers interested in extending employee engagement studies under critical situations.
Keywords: Work From Home, Covid-19, Work engagement.

INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic, which started in Wuhan in early 2020, caused psychological stress and uncertainty that could potentially affect employee work behavior (De-la-Calle-Durán & Rodríguez-Sánchez, 2021). In particular, COVID-19 imposes conditions that favor or hinder employees from further deepening their work, roles and organization. Thus, this literature review examines how the COVID-19 pandemic is connected to work engagement and the impact of COVID-19 and the format of working from home on work engagement.

Various countries then began to implement the Covid-19 Protocol in accordance with the recommendations of the World Health Organization (WHO), starting from washing hands, not gathering/conducting meetings, maintaining distance, limiting leaving the house and even taking isolation steps starting from self-isolation for individuals, communities, and even entire cities. (starting from Large-Scale Social Restrictions/PSBB to lock down). As a result, many offices, both government and private, have implemented the Working from Home (WFH) scheme.

The WFH scheme is part of the Telecommuting concept (working remotely), which is actually not new in the world of work and urban planning, in fact it has been known since the 1970s as an effort to overcome traffic jams from daily home-office trips. . However, this concept is usually applied under normal conditions and not because of the current pandemic. Moreover, it is suspected that the current conditions will last at least until a vaccine is found, which is estimated to be at the end of 2021. Until then and it is even suspected that it can become part of the new normal of our daily lives, so that the implementation of telecommuting becomes a necessity.

Anticipating this condition, this paper attempts to provide an overview of the concept of telecommuting (working remotely) or working from home / WFH (working from home) in terms of work engagement. So that its implementation in the long term can be more optimal when we can all understand, anticipate and adapt better to this concept.

METHODS

This literature review synthesizes the status of academic research on employee engagement and the COVID-19 pandemic with working from home. This study followed the guidelines set by Torraco (2005 & 2016). A comprehensive review of the employee engagement literature was conducted using a multidisciplinary approach requiring literature from management, human resource management and development, psychology, and health. The databases searched for include Jstor, Proquest, ABI/Inform, NexisUni, Education database, Science Direct, and Web of Science.

The keywords work engagement, COVID-19, work engagement and COVID-19, COVID-19 and the workplace, work-from-home and engagement, remote work and engagement, teleworking and engagement, COVID-19 and work-from-home are used independently to fish out the existing literature. Journals are assessed for relevance by examining each abstract. Any articles containing these keywords are downloaded and saved for further review. The literature that is considered relevant is read and compiled using a spreadsheet. Irrelevant journal articles were excluded from the study. Exclusion criteria were based on lack of association with employee engagement; some articles discuss community involvement, treatment involvement, and just work-from-home and work-family conflicts.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION
Overview of Work From Home

The term remote work first appeared in the book The Human Use of Human Beings Cybernetics and Society by Norbert Wiener in 1950 who used the term telework (a term popular in Europe to date) (Siddharta and Malika, 2016). Then in 1974, the term 'telecommute' was first used in a University of Southern California report that focused on a peak hour traffic reduction project funded by the National Science Foundation (Nilles et al, 1974).

In 1980, Alvin Toffler introduced the idea of telework in 3 (three) stages based on the emergence of "the third wave" (Siddhartha and Malika, 2016). Started in the 1970s as a response to efforts to reduce commuting and energy consumption, in the 1980s working remotely re-emerged as a flexible work arrangement, which allowed for a balance of work and family life, skilled manpower shortages were met, and an integrated suburban economy. with the city center (Kinsman 1987; Huws et al. 1990). In the 1990s, more attention was paid to issues of workplace design, facility management and the need to manage work time and workspaces to promote productivity and effectiveness (Jackson, and Wielen ed., 1998).

In the United States, discussions of working remotely preceded Europe, initiated by 'Prophet of remote work' Jack Nilles in 1973. A systematic analysis of the pros and cons of remote working was published in 1976 by Nilles assisted by Carlson, Gray and Hanneman (Nilles et al., 1976). The report deals with the economic benefits and costs of traveling to and from the office compared to the costs and benefits of working from home.

Throughout the 70's and 80's decades, remote working in Europe was still underestimated. At that time, 'telework' was often referred to as 'electronic homework', meaning low-level office work from home, either on a full-time or part-time basis. Generally

has a negative connotation. Remote workers are exemplified as housewives who have children, separated from the office community, doing monotonous work for the employer. The critical literature uses the term 'electronic homework' instead of 'telework' to emphasize the early conditions of cottage industry. Based on critical analysis, women have the potential to become remote workers (Jackson and Wielened., 1998).

The concept of working remotely began to get the attention of many parties at the end of the 20th century, accompanying the emergence of communication technology and personal computers. The term telecommuting or "telework" was increasingly recognized in the 80s when workers were given the opportunity to complete tasks from home instead of coming directly to the office (Potter, 2003). At that time, telecommuting (working remotely) was implemented one day a week (Siha and Monroe, 2006).

In the same decade, pilot remote work programs began at various locations in the United States and by the 1990s many states, local governments, and companies had implemented remote working systems. Driven by the development of information technology and international business competition, more organizations are implementing remote work (Asgari, 2015).

The United States Federal Government only officially opened the option of working remotely in the early 90s. Its application was then tested well in the events of 911 in 2011 when terrorists attacked the Pentagon and the World Trade Center. The General Service Administration (GSA) and the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) general service policies and guidelines for implementing the Remote Working Program have been launched.

The naming of the concept of remote working itself varies but only a few are still often used. Initially the term used was 'electronic homework' which sounds old fashioned now. The term evolved into 'telecommuting', using the concept of Jack Nilles in 1973, because it is closely related to commuting from home to work and the problem of traffic jams (Nilles et al. 1976). Then 'flexiwork', a term better known in Europe.

These various namings are adapted to the focus of remote working applications. The use of the term flexy (flexywork, flexibility working) takes into account the conditions of flexibility in working, which means that working hours are adjusted to existing conditions. Others such as 'homework', 'alternative officing' and 'mobile working' based on the diversity of forms of remote working such as working from home with a head office, combined working at the head office and branch offices, and nomads without an office (Stanworth and Stanworth, 1991; and Gordon, 1996).

The most easily recognizable forms of working remotely are working from home (home-based telecommuting) and working from a branch office (center-based telecommuting). As the name suggests, working from home indicates the location of work at home by communicating to the office, while working from a branch/satellite office indicates the location of work not at home but in the office closest to home. Using a transportation perspective, working from home reduces commuter trips completely, while working from a branch office only reduces travel distances (Asgari, 2015).

Research in 2001, The International Telework Association and Council ITAC-2 found that working remotely can be done at home, on the road, customer premises, or satellite offices (branch). In addition, various researchers agree that working remotely leads to a partial or complete substitution of daily commuters (Nilles, 1988; Mokhtarian, 1991; Sampath et al., 1991; Handy and Mokhtarian, 1995; Walls and Safirova, 2004). According to Heathfield (2019) there are various work schemes including flexible work (flexible schedule), and telecommuting, of course apart from working full time to temporary work. Furthermore, working freely is interpreted as workers are allowed to work differently from conventional working hours so that workers can balance work and life. Working remotely (from home and/or other locations outside the office) is a flexible work arrangement that allows working away from the office all or part of the time (Mungkasa, 2020). The literature categorizes flexible work practices as office-based and flexible-place (Grobler and De Bruyn, 2011); or free time (flexitime) and flexible location (flexi-place) (Munsch, Ridgeway and Williams, 2014). Kelly, Moen and Tranby (2011) refer to flexibility in schedule control, because free

work options can include contingent work, contract work and just-in-time staffing (Mungkasa, 2020).

Work from Home: Before and During the Covid-19 Pandemic

The concept of working remotely began to get the attention of many parties at the end of the 20th century, accompanying the emergence of communication technology and personal computers. The United States as the initial location of the remote working concept, only started a pilot program in various locations in the 1990s that reached many states, local governments, and companies (Asgari, 2015).

In the United States, after 1995, there was an increase in telecommuter workers from 8.5% to 11% in 1997 (Force, 2000). Remote work began to receive widespread attention in the United States in the early 2000s and is growing rapidly. Based on data from the United States Central Bureau of Statistics, the number of remote workers in the United States has grown steadily from 18.7% (2004) to 23.3% (2014) (Ohio, 2015).

U.S. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (2019) reports that during the 2017-2018 period, around 28.8 percent of workers potentially worked remotely but only 24.8 percent of the total workers became remote workers. The age of the workers is between 35-44 years old which is seen to be the most remote workers. The older you get, the more likely you are to work from home. Meanwhile, the higher the level of education, the greater the proportion who become remote workers. About 46.5 percent of workers with a bachelor's level of education become remote workers. Workers who have school-age children tend to choose to work from home. The most common types of management, business and finance jobs are working remotely.

Interestingly, in the United States, there is no significant difference in the proportion of remote government workers and non-government employees. Local government employees seem less interested in working from home. Meanwhile, non-government employees who work in non-profit institutions are more interested in working outside the office than employees of private companies.

In the 2014-2018 period, the increase in employees working from home is very real, especially when compared to the decrease in the use of private car transportation, shared vehicles (carpooled), walking, public transportation. It seems that working from home is driving a marked decline in commuting.

In Indonesia, there is no definite data about working remotely. However, since the beginning of 2020 the Ministry of National Development Planning/Bappenas has launched a trial of working remotely under the name Flexi Work. Until now there has been no report on the implementation of the trial, so that an evaluation of the trial cannot be carried out. Nevertheless, the implementation of Bappenas' flexi work went smoothly, and the presence of the Covid-19 pandemic became a momentum for mainstreaming the results of remote work trials at Bappenas.

The adoption of working from home is largely voluntary as needed. However, the existence of the Covid-19 pandemic makes working from home a must. Of course there is a big difference. Some organizations/companies are already ready to implement and have even implemented work from home schemes for both part and all employees. Meanwhile, for organizations/companies that are not ready, the implementation of working from home is quite a hassle at first, although with time the employees are able to adjust little by little.

Several large companies based in the United States have implemented work from home since the onset of the Covid-19 outbreak, including Microsoft, Amazon, Twitter, Google, Facebook, LinkedIn, and Zoom.

Meanwhile, some countries that have been significantly affected by Covid-19, such as China, are fully working from home, although many organizations/companies are not ready to implement it. However, the main obstacle turned out to be a cultural shock in the form of distrust of the leadership towards employees. The procedures applied make employees uncomfortable due to requests to report work progress at any time along with photos of employees' whereabouts. In Japan, the government provides subsidies to small and medium-sized enterprises to help with the costs of introducing and implementing a work from home system in each company. Similar to China, the main obstacle is the cultural barrier.

For Japanese people, work is 'going to the office' and not 'staying at home'. In addition, the habit of Japanese employees working overtime every day will change drastically and there will be more time for family.

The discussion section aims to: (1) answer the problem formulation and research or study questions; (2) shows how the findings were obtained or found; (3) interpret the findings; (4) linking research findings or studies with established knowledge structures; and (5) bring up new theories or modifications to existing theories, by comparing the results of previous studies that have been published in reputable journals.

In answering the formulation of the problem or research questions, the results of the study must be concluded explicitly regarding previous research. Interpretation of research findings or studies can be done using empirical logic based on existing theories or previous research results in reputable journals both international and national, while findings in the form of reality in the field are integrated or linked to the results of previous studies or with existing theories. For this purpose, the author is required to refer to international journals (Scopus) and national journals (Sinta). In bringing up new theories, old theories can be confirmed or rejected by the author, some may need to modify theories from old theories, and reference the results of research or studies used by the author, must reference the last 10 (ten) years, a minimum of 20 (twenty) references.

The discussion section is expected to contribute and new colors for the development of science. Therefore, the authors are expected to pay special attention to ensure that the discussion is written is an important part of the entire contents of the article, which can improve the quality of science in the field of educational management science. Articles are written in Tarbawi: Jurnal Keilmuan Manajemen Pendidikan ranging from 3000 to 5000 words or equivalent to 10 to 16 pages according to the provisions in this template.

Similar conditions occur in South Korea. The main obstacle to working from home is the culture of 'working sick is a virtue'. As a result, only employees who are pregnant, or have children under five and are still in school are allowed to work from home. So that the recommendation from the Seoul City government to stop working in the office and switch to working from home within at least two weeks did not get much response (Hess, 2020). It is interesting to know the views of employees who suddenly have to undergo a work from home scheme.

One study conducted by Okta (access-management company) in the UK on 6,000 workers across Europe showed some interesting things. First, about 75 percent of employees still want to work from home. Second, only about 17 percent want to work from home completely. The rest want to work from home part time. The results also showed that respondents reported increased productivity due to more time and less distractions. Meanwhile, the concern that without adequate supervision can reduce productivity was not proven. The message caught from the results of Okta's survey is that employees want flexibility (flexibility) in choosing when to work from home according to their needs (Leprince-Ringuet, 2020)

Another study by research firm Valoir, published in May 2020, showed that around 40 percent of employees working from home during the pandemic would like to work full time from home. Other important results are:

a. Productivity is reduced very small, only about 1 to 3 percent. Having small children at home only reduces productivity by about 2 percent, and it turns out that working alone at home without a family reduces productivity even more by around 3 percent.
b. The average daily working time is more than 9 hours, starting from 8 am to 6 pm. It turns out that working from home is relatively the same as office work time and only about 10 percent work outside the normal schedule.
c. The main distraction is social media. About a third of respondents reported spending nearly two hours a day reading information from social media.
d. Employees get full support from the office. About 75 percent of respondents said they received full support from the office and only about 5 percent said otherwise.

e. The main concern is the continuity of the work. This was conveyed by a third of the respondents who were worried about the survival of the company and their work (Afshar, 2020).

COVID-19 and Work Engagement

The COVID-19 pandemic has radically changed many aspects of society and work life (Reinwald, Zimmermann, & Kunze, 2021). For example, in a study of surgical residents in the Netherlands, residents placed in the COVID-19 Intensive Care Unit had a lower work engagement of 4.2 compared to a job involvement level of 4.6 for residents working in COVID wards (Poelmann, Koeter , Steinkamp, Vriens, Verhoeven, & Kruijff, 2021). The daily increasing rate of COVID-19 infection has been established as an important antecedent for the development of employee engagement. Using the German working population, Reinwald et al. (2021) show that extreme daily events at the environmental level (i.e., daily local COVID-19 spikes) extend to the workplace and affect individuals' daily work behavior, i.e., daily employee engagement. Reinwald et al. (2021) argue that sensemaking is the process by which the force of a COVID-19 event impacts the workplace as employees understand the daily number of reported COVID-19 cases in their local area.

Similarly, the perceived strength of the COVID-19 crisis has a negative effect on job engagement for medical professionals in China (Liu, Chen, & Li, 2021). In a study of 12,577 new hires at 3,305 restaurants across the U.S., engagement scores were higher (β = .03, p < .05) in countries with stiffer COVID-19 restrictions (Ployhart, Shepherd, & Strizver, 2021). Likewise, extreme anxiety due to the COVID-19 death salience lowers the job engagement rate of Information Technology employees in China and the United States (Hu, He, & Zhou, 2020). Simultaneously, other investigators have confirmed the perceived risk of COVID-19 (Moyo, 2020) and the COVID-19 pandemic (Ployhart et al., 2021) and their impact on engagement.

The impact of mindfulness on work engagement was established through a field experiment in Wuhan, China, during lockdown (Zheng, Masters-Waage, Yao, Lu, Tan, & Narayanan, 2020). For ten consecutive days, 55 participants did a 10 minute mindfulness exercise each morning, and 42 participants in the mind wandering state did a 10 minute mind wandering exercise. The results showed that the sleep duration of participants in the mindfulness condition, compared to the control condition, was less affected by the COVID-19 stressor. Similarly, based on 1302 daily surveys completed in 10 days by participants in the UK, Zheng et al. (2020) concluded that mindfulness negates the detrimental effect of COVID-19 stressors on sleep duration. Thus, traumatic events such as the COVID-19 pandemic disrupt employee sleep. In addition, Zheng et al. (2020) revealed a positive relationship between sleep quantity and work engagement (β=0.14, p<0.01) for both the data collected from the experiment and the daily survey. In addition, the indirect effect of COVID-19 stressors on work engagement through sleep quantity was negative and significant when state awareness was low and insignificant when state awareness was high.

A comparative analysis of mental health status and the influence of cultural characteristics between the German and South African workforce revealed a positive relationship with shyness and mental health motivation of both groups during the COVID-19 crisis (Kotera, Mayer, & Vanderheiden, 2021). At the same time, mental health problems were negatively associated with work engagement and intrinsic motivation in Germany and South Africa. However, German employees had lower mental health problems, mental health shyness, and higher self-esteem than South Africans. Kotera et al. (2001) suggested that these differences between Germans and South Africans might be explained by German culture of long-term orientation, uncertainty avoidance, and restraint.

Simultaneously, the COVID-19 pandemic had a negative impact on job engagement based on a study of 709 participants who resumed work after the Spring Festival in China (Song, Wang, Li, Yang, & Li, 2020). Work engagement is lower than usual due to the mental health impact of COVID-19. Mental health problems related to COVID-19 stem from the fear of unemployment which causes anxiety, depression and insomnia. At the same time, Song et al. (2020) found other positive and independent factors associated with work engagement: age, position, resilience, and optimism. Similarly, psychological stress (mental health

problems) due to the work environment reduces the work involvement of health care professionals who are actively working during the COVID-19 pandemic. Nurses are among the most stressed health workers (Gómez-Salgado, Domínguez-Salas, Romero-Martín, Romero, Coronado-Vázquez, & Ruiz-Frutos, 2021).

Work-From-Home and Work Engagement

The COVID-19 pandemic has brought rapid, massive and disruptive changes to the world of work and has changed the workplace forever. Many job categories have shifted to work from home formats depending on the nature of the work (Mehta, 2021). However, working from home has posed new challenges and risks. The line between work and personal life is blurred because of the work from home (WFH) format. In addition, employees struggle with the limitations of their work life. Violation of the work-home boundary leads to unfinished tasks in the work and home domains and results in dissatisfaction in both domains (Kerman, Korunka, & Tement, in press).

Specific attributes make a person unique and govern his or her effectiveness in a job role. These attributes may differ even for people with the same education and experience. The researchers found that personal resources might contribute to efficient remote work. For example, personality traits typically associated with desired outcomes are responsible for deteriorating remote worker outcomes during the COVID-19 outbreak based on a four-wave longitudinal study of 974 remote workers in the United Kingdom (Evans, Meyers, Van De Calseyde, & Stavrova, 2021).). Extroverted and conscientious employees become less productive, less engaged, and less satisfied with their jobs. These findings emphasize that certain personality traits may be beneficial or detrimental for job outcomes under rapidly changing external events (Evans et al., 2021).

Gender differences affect work engagement among 785 employees working from home at 170 randomly selected Slovenian companies during the COVID-19 pandemic. There is a statistically significant difference in job engagement between employees by gender (Rožman, Sternad Zabukovšek, Bobek, & Tominc, 2021). Strictly speaking, Rožman et al. (2021) determined that during COVID-19 working from home, the perceived job involvement indicator was lower in female employees than in male employees.

In addition, research shows that individual resources inhibit and facilitate WFH during the COVID-19 outbreak. For example, self-efficacy and resilience affect job engagement based on a survey of 259 respondents working in knowledge-based sectors, for example, higher education, information technology, and engineering services during the Malaysian COVID-19 movement control order (MCO) period (Ojo, Fawehinmi, & Yusliza, 2021). In particular, employee self-efficacy is positively related to resilience, while resilience mediates the effect of employee self-efficacy on job involvement. Thus, employees who are highly confident in performing work tasks can recover quickly from stress triggered by global pandemics such as COVID-19. Resilience is positively related to job involvement. Therefore, employees must develop personal resilience resources, which foster optimism, tenacity, and strength when faced with adversity (Ojo et al., 2021).

Self-leadership is one of the personal resources for engagement, namely the source of self-leadership (β = 0.23; P<0.01) is positively related to work engagement (Galanti, Guidetti, Mazzei, Zappala, & Toscano, 2021 p. 429). Perception of autonomy during COVID-19 working from home has significantly impacted employee job engagement in the information technology sector in India (Mehta, 2021). In a study of 209 Italian employees with children, source autonomy (β = 0.19; P<0.01) was found to be positively associated with job involvement (Galanti et al. 2021 p. 429).

Organizational support (coworkers support and supervisor support) is critical in maintaining work engagement while working from home during the COVID-19 lockdown in Vietnam (Nguyen & Tran, 2021). According to Nguyen and Tran (2021), in the Asian context, supervisor support plays a more significant role than peer support because junior employees tend to follow and wait for detailed instructions and support from senior managers. Similarly, supervisor support, facilitation conditions (technology platforms), and resilience facilitate work engagement during Malaysia's COVID-19 movement control order (MCO) (Ojo et al., 2021). In addition, supervisor support and facilitating conditions (technological platforms) are

positively related to resilience. Whereas supervisor support is not significantly related to employee resilience. This finding could be due to the gloomy and unusual situation of COVID-19, which can cause intense psychological anxiety. However, resilience mediates the effect of supervisor support and facilitation conditions (technology platforms) on job engagement (Ojo et al., 2021).

Improved social media communication, perceived social support, and task resources predict increased work engagement in a four-wave study in Finland (Oksa et al., 2021). This conclusion is consistent with the finding that appropriate virtual tools, contact by organizational leaders, mental health checks, and virtual training increase employee WFH engagement during COVID-19 in different states of India (Chaudhary et al., 2021). However, Chaudhary et al. (2021) found that virtual teamwork and entertainment tools (eg, online yoga and virtual quizzes) had no significant impact on WFH engagement. Chanana and Sangeeta (2020) suggest that work from home regime engagement activities efficiently encourage employee engagement during difficult times, for example, family involvement, virtual learning and development, online team building activities, webinars, virtual challenges and competitions, online counseling session, acknowledgment, etc.

Chen and Sriphon (2001) offer divergent evidence highlighting the importance of leadership and the debilitating effects of COVID-19 on organizational leadership using data collected from 220 managers from various organizations in Thailand, Vietnam, Indonesia, and Taiwan. COVID-19 is affecting organizational leadership, consequently affecting employee engagement. Chen and Sriphon (2001) show that remote work disrupts trust and relationships (both communal and social exchange relationships) between employees and managers during a pandemic. In particular, managers are implementing more control and monitoring of employees working remotely. As a result, COVID-19 reduces the quality of leadership in organizations.

Discussion

This article describes the relationship between work engagement, COVID-19, and embedding work engagement. The COVID-19 era heralded new approaches and assumptions in studying the concept of work engagement. Figure one depicts the overall view of work engagement during the COVID-19 pandemic. The article has made connections to research showing that work engagement is an individual-level decision and research that emphasizes that organizational conditions are critical in maintaining and developing work engagement. This study has determined that individual and organizational variables precede work engagement. In addition, this study confirms that the environment or environmental events, for example, COVID-19 and working from home, have an impact on work engagement. Thus, this study proposes that work engagement is an individual-level construct, and the experience of work engagement always occurs within the context of the larger organization and environment, that is, work engagement is influenced by organizational and environmental conditions.

The development and maintenance of engagement relies on tripartite relationships involving individuals, organizations and the environment (e.g., COVID-19, work from home formats). Figure two illustrates the relationship and view of work engagement. In essence, thinking about work engagement in the COVID-19 era needs to consider how individuals, organizations, and the environment form tripartite relationships that trigger or deplete engagement. This study contributes to the engagement literature by establishing that the environment is an important determinant of work engagement and that work engagement mainly depends on a threefold relationship involving the environment, the individual, and the organization.

Two prominent organizational and individual constructs are leadership and work-family conflict. In the COVID-19 era, leadership plays an important role in maintaining work engagement. Everything goes up and down on leadership (Maxwell, 2007). Job design, flexible work arrangements, ensuring effective communication, workplace safety, providing support and promoting enabling conditions, for example, psychological safety, technology, virtual tools, task resources, etc., depend on leadership. Similarly, many authors have touted leadership as an indispensable means of influencing engagement (Caulfield & Senger, 2017;

Stander, De Beer, & Stander, 2015). In addition, supportive family supervision, for example, emotional and instrumental support, creative work-family management, and role models for work-life balance, have been considered as useful work resources relevant in reducing work-family conflict and increasing well-being (Walsh, Matthews, Toumbeva, Kabat-Farr, Philbrick, & Pavisic, 2019). At the same time, a lack of supportive family supervision can activate negative social responses such as ostracism from employees (Walsh et al., 2019).

Undoubtedly, COVID-19 is changing the typical workplace globally and erasing the home-work separation. The work from home format has contradictory results for work engagement. That comes with the benefits of saving travel time, getting more work done, and promoting safety during crises. Yet it is a significant contributor to work-life balance problems. For example, engagement levels decline due to work-family conflict due to family size, a disruptive work environment, and boundary transition problems for those who are psychologically unable to get away from work as they should. This situation is in line with the notion of the work-family conflict model (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) that inter-role conflict between work and personal life occurs when working from home due to inappropriate pressures from work and personal life. This conclusion is also consistent with the finding that boundary violations occur in the work-family interface, which can produce positive or negative outcomes (Hunter, Clark, & Carlson, 2019). In particular, boundary violations lead to a general perception of work-family conflict both directly and indirectly. A violation occurs when an employee is interrupted from his or her duties in either the work or home domain to handle another work or home domain task or interact with other domain participants. In addition, these positive or negative outcomes are due to the individual's cognitive processing of the event that either hinders or enables one's goals (Hunter et al., 2019).

The development of work engagement occurs at the individual level in the operating environment and internal and external organizational conditions. Shuck and Wollard (2010) state that work engagement is an individual level variable that is often evaluated at the organizational level. Indeed, it is worthwhile to explore engagement at the organizational level. At the same time, the debilitating effects of COVID-19 require a unique approach to assessing and developing work engagement at an individual level as the impact of COVID-19 on employees' work lives varies from person to person. For example, resilience, mindfulness, mental health, psychological distress, and sleep duration have been identified as important antecedents for engagement under the ongoing COVID-19 crisis. However, the operation of this construction is unique to the individual. In the context of COVID-19, the uniqueness of work engagement towards individuals is validated by the resource conservation theory (Hobfoll, 1989 & 2011) that "people should invest resources to protect against resource loss, recover from loss, and gain resource" (Hobfoll, 2011). 2011 p. 117). Some of the resources identified in the resource conservation theory by Hobfoll (2011 p. 117) are personal resources (e.g., important skills and personal traits such as self-efficacy and self-esteem), conditional resources (e.g., supportive working relationships).), and energy resources (eg, knowledge, credit). In essence, people use resources to cope with stressors, and the inability to cope with them can result in the consumption of too many resources.

CONCLUSIONS

This article has revealed the important conditions for the workforce involved in facing the battle with the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. Knowing the possible predictors of engagement will help in conducting a proper analysis of the organizational problem. This article equips organizational leaders and human resource practitioners with knowledge that will be valuable in examining the engagement status of their workforce.

A large number of studies of work from home, COVID-19, and work engagement have focused on many of the predecessors of work engagement. Most of these studies used a one-time cross-sectional approach, while some studies used a two-week dairy study. However, given the enormity of the coronavirus pandemic and indications that COVID-19 may be a life-span problem due to its persistent nature, it would be useful to use longitudinal

techniques to study engagement during the COVID-19 crisis. It is possible that shifts may occur over time in some of the ideas and beliefs currently identified by research.

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