






“Flexible work arrangement and work-related outcomes during the Covid-19 pandemic: Evidence from local governments in Indonesia”

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FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENT AND WORK-RELATED OUTCOMES DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC: EVIDENCE FROM LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN INDONESIA

Abstract

The Covid-19 outbreak has forced various organizations to adjust work designs to comply with health protocols. Flexible work arrangement is a model that is widely used, including flextime and work from home. This study analyzes the impact of flexible work arrangements on affective commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and work engagement, which lead to employee happiness. A total of 405 respondents who work in local governments in Indonesia participated in an online survey using the snowball sampling technique. Data were analyzed using partial least squares. This study found a significant effect of flexible work arrangements on affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. It means that employees perceive a flexible work arrangement policy as an organizational effort to protect employees from Covid-19. Thus, it makes employees showing their affective commitment and willingness to have organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and work engagement have been shown to affect employee happiness. This finding has implications for leaders to develop flexible work arrangements as alternative work designs, especially during times of crises such as a pandemic. Further research recommendations are emphasized to examine other flexible work arrangements according to contextual needs.

Keywords

flexitime, affective commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, work engagement, happiness

JEL Classification

D23, J28, M54

INTRODUCTION

The Covid-19 pandemic emerged as a global health disaster with a high risk of transmission. Since January 31, 2020, this pandemic has been declared a global health emergency (World Health Organization, 2020). To date, the virus is still spreading and mutating into new variants. Governments worldwide are still on alert as new Covid-19 variants are found, such as Delta, Lambda, Mu, and Omicron. In Indonesia, Covid-19 cases also rise significantly. The total number of Covid-19 cases in Indonesia has reached 6,216,621, as the first case was announced on March 2, 2020 (Ministry of Health of the Republic of Indonesia, 2022). Several attempts were made to minimize the spread of the virus, including strict health protocols. In addition to various efforts, the Indonesian government is aggressively implementing a massive vaccination program to break the chain of virus infection and reduce Covid-19 cases.

The Covid-19 pandemic has become a global problem that will not end in a short period. WHO even warns that Covid-19 may not disappear, although the vaccine has been discovered. The government has

designed a new normal scenario in Indonesia to address this condition. During the outbreak, people worldwide were forced to do their activities from home. Employees in non-essential sectors are obliged to stay at home. Only those working in essential sectors (e.g., food, health, and delivery) are allowed to go to the workplaces (Feng & Savani, 2020). This change seems to significantly influence many sectors in the community, resulting in the new normal. The new normal represents changes in behavior during daily activities by applying strict health protocols to prevent the spread of the virus.

The new normal affects almost all aspects of life, including working life. Working life is one aspect that requires different adaptations from the previous work process. One of the work systems that are considered following the new normal is flexible work arrangement (FWA). FWA allows flexibility in work, covering work schedules and location arrangements, and teleworking (Chung & Horst, 2017). The Covid-19 pandemic caused organizations to shift to new paradigms, including FWA policies that allow employees to telework. The pandemic makes this model an alternative work pattern. Teleworking is suddenly experiencing a rebound due to measures to protect the community from the virus (Belzunegui-Eraso & Erro-Garcés, 2020).

Before the Covid-19 outbreak, discussions on future working life are still questioned (Vyas & Butakhieo, 2021). The Covid-19 pandemic forces people to make decisions and quickly adapt to the condition. As a result, organizations attempt to implement teleworking through the work from home (WFH) concept. In early 2020, governments worldwide recommended that organizations and institutions apply teleworking to prevent employees from gathering in the same place. Teleworking meets the principle of the new normal set by WHO, including limited social interaction and crowd avoidance. Statistic Indonesia (2020) reports that 42.63% of public administration, security, and social insurance have worked with employees from home since the WFH policy was issued, while 41.75% of employees applied for WFH while still having office schedules.

Meanwhile, 46.4% of health and social service employees cannot do WFH. Bick et al. (2020) showed that 71.7% of employees could work effectively from their homes. Previous studies have also shown that with more flexible working time arrangements, work flexibility is associated with longer individual working hours (Lott & Chung, 2016; Noonan & Glass, 2012).

People have believed that employees should be present to do their job physically for decades. However, the outbreak has forced the implementation of FWA through WFH concepts in many workplaces. This condition significantly affects employees' work-related outcomes. The aim of this study is to analyze the effect of FWA on organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), work satisfaction, and work engagement, which eventually determine employee happiness amid the Covid-19 pandemic.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

Work flexibility and its implementation in the workplace have attracted researchers' attention in industrial sociology and human resource management, as well as practitioners in various industries in recent decades. It has become a popular topic in various fields, research directions, and the demand of current workplace needs. As the dynamics and complexity of the organizational environment increase, companies are increasingly considering human resource management (HRM) practices that increase their

flexibility, including flexible work arrangements (Kalleberg, 2000). Flexible work arrangement enables employees to manage their working hours from the office to their home or other locations using communication technology (Allen et al., 2015). Flexibility in the workplace has various forms that are adapted to organizational policies. This policy also offers alternative solutions to improve employee performance. If an organization adopts technology to support flexibility in the workplace, it can improve employee productivity because flexibility allows them to work comfortably (Abilash & Siju, 2021).

1.1. Flexible work arrangement

Rapid changes in the volatile environment are driving the need for flexibility in doing the job in the workplace. Flexible work arrangement (FWA) provides an alternative job design to deal with the dynamics of environmental change. FWA allows employees to manage their choice of work time or location to balance their work and other responsibilities (Chen & Fulmer, 2018). Flextime requires employees' ability to change the time of their work (that is, to change start and end times), as well as manage the number of hours worked per day or week, including hours accumulated for holidays (Chung & Horst, 2017). To face environmental changes, organizational flexibility is needed, which requires greater adaptability as well as individual adaptation to increased demands for flexibility (Svensson, 2012).

As an HRM practice, FWA serves as a symbolic function for employees to understand their work situations (Casper & Harris, 2008). According to signaling theory, when employees perceive organizational support, including FWA policy, they will respond to these signals by conducting an evaluation that benefits their job and increases their commitment to organizations (Casper & Harris, 2008). Chen and Fulmer (2018, p. 2) proposed three forms of FWA, including "a flexible scheduling (when), a flexible location (where), and a flexible number of hours (how much)." According to Chen and Fulmer (2017), flexible scheduling covers flextime and compressed workweeks, while flexible location allows employees to work outside the workplace during regular working hours (e.g., WFH). Meanwhile, a flexible number of hours covers reducing working hours and implementing job sharing.

FWA can be applied in various forms, including flextime. Flextime is a management policy that enables employees to select working hours (Wickramasinghe & Jayabandu, 2007). Applying flextime, employees are required to do their job for certain hours per week while being allowed to adjust their working hours at a certain level (Robbins & Judge, 2015). The basic concept of flextime consists of five elements, a period where employees have to work in the workplace, a flexible time when employees may choose to stay or leave the office, a time when employees calculate their surplus or de-

efficient working hours, and employees' opportunity to change their work schedule without manager's approval (Kiran & Khurram, 2018).

Flextime has emerged as a popular concept that brings various advantages to organizations, such as decreasing overtime costs, decreasing management dislike, eliminated employee laziness, and improved autonomy. However, despite the advantages, the main weakness of flextime lies in its inapplicability to all jobs or employees (Robbins & Judge, 2015). In other words, organizations and employees need to consider the job and the employee type before implementing flextime.

Another type of FWA implemented in organizations is teleworking. Teleworking enables employees to work outside their usual workplaces. Robbins and Judge (2015) defined teleworking as working from home using a computer connected to the workplace. Meanwhile, Garret and Danziger (2007) viewed teleworking as a broader concept that includes workplace, information technology, time allocation, and work variety as its main dimensions. Teleworking allows employees to work outside the standard provisions, such as work from home (Chung & Horst, 2017). Teleworking changes how and where the job is performed, causing managers to rethink performance evaluation and employee supervision (Bailey & Kurland, 2002). According to Diab-Bahman and Al-Enzi (2020), enthusiasm toward teleworking continues to grow among employees, managers, organizations, and various stakeholders, which describes teleworking as the "next working environment revolution."

Teleworking is viewed as an innovative method to improve efficiency and employee comfort. Teleworking can improve employee productivity and well-being with supporting technology as it provides a comfortable working environment for employees (Abilash & Siju, 2021). A relaxing atmosphere can stimulate creativity and eventually affect employees' creativity. By allowing employees to work anywhere at any time, teleworking has become an interesting concept for academics and professionals (Diab-Bahman & Al-Enzi, 2020).

Previous studies have reported positive effects of teleworking on organizations, such as decreasing infrastructure costs (Radcliff, 2010), increasing

productivity (Fonner & Roloff, 2010), and increasing autonomy (Harpaz, 2002). In addition, Diab-Bahman and Al-Enzi (2020) specifically identified the benefits of teleworking for employees, including flexibility, more family time, the possibility to work from home when getting sick, and lower transportation costs. However, some disadvantages of teleworking are also reported, including a lack of direct employee supervision, more difficult coordination and transfer of knowledge in the organization (Robbins & Judge, 2015). Further, Robbins and Judge (2015) stated that teleworking might increase employees' feelings of isolation, lower work satisfaction, and risk of "out of sight, out of mind" effect.

1.2. Flexible work arrangement and affective commitment

Affective commitment is a form of organizational commitment that reflects employees' emotional attachment to the organization. Affective commitment indicates an employee's emotional attachment, identification with the organization, and involvement (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Employees with high affective commitment will identify themselves with the organization and try to keep their organizational identities by defining themselves according to the organizational attributes (Liu et al., 2019). In addition, committed employees will identify strongly with the organization, assimilate organizational goals as their own goals, and view organizational problems as their own (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006).

Concerning FWA, based on signaling and exchange theory, when organizations implement FWA, employees perceive that the organization provides support by encouraging flexibility in the workplace. Thus, they feel valued by the organization, respond with better evaluations of their work, and reciprocate with a greater commitment toward the organization and its goals (Chen & Fulmer, 2018). Hyland et al. (2005) found that a flexible schedule positively affects affective commitment. In the same vein, Golden (2006) indicated that telecommuting frequency intensifies organizational commitment. Van Dyne and Ang (1998) found that temporary workers tend to have high affective commitment because they view job flexibility

and their ability to maintain a work-life balance between their career and personal life as an essential boost provided by their organization.

1.3. Flexible work arrangement and job satisfaction

Davidescu et al. (2020) defined job satisfaction as "an essential criterion that cannot be overestimated, representing a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that determine employee satisfaction with the job, emotional stability, and conscientiousness." According to Robbins and Judge (2015), job satisfaction is a positive feeling about a job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics. Employees with a high level of job satisfaction have positive feelings about their work, while dissatisfied employees have negative feelings.

Previous studies have identified the relationship between flexibility in the workplace and job satisfaction. For example, Virick et al. (2010) showed that telecommuting offers employees more flexibility and autonomy, fulfilling employees' needs for work and personal life. McNall et al. (2009) also strengthened the finding that there is a positive effect of FWA on job satisfaction. Further, McNall et al. (2009) explained that employees' positive response to FWA is due to employees' perception that the organization values and cares for them. This increases job satisfaction.

In the Japanese context, Kazekami (2020), studying employee productivity, found that teleworking can improve life satisfaction. As flexible work increases in the workplace, employees may perceive more substantial socio-emotional support from their organization, which leads to job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment (Chen & Fulmer, 2018). Origo and Pagani (2006) found that work flexibility requires employees' control over their professional life, increases the work-life relationship, and results in an increase in overall work satisfaction. Gurstein (2001) also reported a similar finding that teleworking is an organizational advantage in improving work satisfaction. Flexible work may lead to higher work satisfaction and lower stress (Almer & Kaplan, 2002).

1.4. Flexible work arrangement and organizational citizenship behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is a behavior in the workplace that is widely researched. It can be understood as overall activities carried out by employees for organizational improvement without expecting rewards from the organization (Yadav et al., 2016). OCB exhibits behaviors that are not part of formal job requirements but contribute to the psychological and social environment of the workplace (Robbins & Judge, 2015). Turnipseed and Wilson (2009) described OCB as employee behavior developed from voluntary to unwritten job requirements. A dynamic work environment with ever-increasing tasks places flexibility as an important factor, where employees who exhibit OCB become a strategic resource for the organization.

Various determinants that affect OCB and the impacts of OCB cover from the individual, group, and tasks, to organizational levels. Bolino and Turnley (2003) used social exchange to describe an organization's decision to support citizenship and indicate the possible effect of a flexible workplace on organizational citizenship behavior. Yadav et al. (2016) also found that flexibility at the workplace may induce employees' OCB. Work flexibility has also improved performance and extra-role behavior (Gajendran et al., 2015). Furthermore, Gajendran et al. (2015) explained that employees who get work flexibility tend to feel obligated to their organizations based on the social exchange theory. Therefore, they are not only motivated to improve their performance but also reciprocate by showing discretionary behavior.

1.5. Flexible work arrangement and work engagement

Work engagement is employee involvement, satisfaction, and enthusiasm for the tasks performed (Robbins & Judge, 2015). According to Parker and Griffin (2011), engaged employees tend to be active and positive in their psychological state. Therefore, highly engaged employees perform their work passionately and energetically. In addition, Harter et al. (2002) underlined that engaged employees are willing to do the work and are driven to achieve

goals and pursue organizational success rather than simply doing what is asked of them.

Previous studies have examined how flexible work (i.e., flextime or teleworking) affects employees' behavior, such as work engagement. Flexible work arrangements affect work engagement allowing employees to have time flexibility to complete their tasks and not requiring them to follow the normal working hours (Grant et al., 2019). In addition, flexible work arrangements in the form of work from home and teleworking have been found to associate with work engagement positively (Gerards et al., 2018). Delanoeije and Verbruggen (2020) also found that teleworking can improve employee productivity, work engagement, and employee performance. Prem et al. (2021) revealed the significant effect of flexible work on work engagement.

1.6. Flexible work arrangement and Covid-19

To minimize the spread of the virus, many countries worldwide have implemented lockdown policies (Kraemer et al., 2020; Maier & Brockmann, 2020). This policy requires employees in non-essential sectors not to leave their houses all the time. Only those working in essential sectors are allowed to work in the office. Stewart and Menon (2020) suggested that management should have a clear transition to cope with rapid changes due to the Covid-19 pandemic. It is pivotal for management to implement necessary organizational changes. Employees should be informed of the policy and are greatly responsible for adhering to the policy.

Most organizations began to apply flextime and teleworking as a form of WFH policy since Covid-19 became a global pandemic. The policy is implemented to promote social distancing to prevent Covid-19 transmission. WFH is believed to balance employees' health and well-being as it prevents employees from being exposed to the virus. According to Belzunegui-Eraso and Erro-Garcés (2020), global environmental issues or new diseases could be seen as the drivers of teleworking. Teleworking allows organizational activity continuity while maintaining employees' collective health. Dingel and Neiman (2020) found that 37% of jobs in the US can be performed at home during the virus outbreak. These jobs are in the fields

financial, business management, professional, and scientific services.

Different work practices may influence employees' responses in the form of emotions, feelings, outcomes, and attitudes (Kiran & Khurram, 2018). Therefore, organizations should pay attention to employees' positive psychology, such as happiness. Positive emotion, meaningfulness, and engagement are characteristics that define an individual's happiness. Employees' happiness, positive emotions, and outcomes are interrelated (Kiran & Khurram, 2018). It is also associated with organizational performance, organizational commitment, and survival (Grant et al., 2007). Fisher (2010) described three components of employees' happiness: affective commitment, employee engagement, and work satisfaction. Family-friendly policies such as flexible work may benefit employees, as they are free to plan their work. For example, flextime allows employees to choose their own break time in the middle of working hours (Shagvaliyeva & Yazdanifard, 2014). Flextime leads to employees' positive outcomes (McNall et al., 2009) and eventually results in employee happiness.

FWA is considered a proper method, especially during the pandemic, as it allows replacing working hours in the office by working from home, thus providing comfort and protection for employees. In turn, implementing FWA can improve work-related outcomes, such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, OCB, and work engagement, which lead to employee happiness.

2. AIM AND HYPOTHESES

The aim of this study is to analyze the effects of flexible work arrangements on affective commitment, job satisfaction, OCB, and work engagement-

ment, which in turn lead to employee happiness during the Covid-19 pandemic. Based on the literature review, these hypotheses are formulated:

- H1: Flexible work arrangement positively affects affective commitment during the Covid-19 pandemic.
- H2: Flexible work arrangement positively affects job satisfaction during the Covid-19 pandemic.
- H3: Flexible work arrangement positively affects OCB during the Covid-19 pandemic.
- H4: Flexible work arrangement positively affects work engagement during the Covid-19 pandemic.
- H5: Affective commitment, job satisfaction, OCB, and work engagement positively affect employee happiness during the Covid-19 pandemic.

The relationship among variables is illustrated in Figure 1.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Participants and procedures

This study applied a quantitative method with a survey design. Data were collected using a questionnaire. The survey involved employees working in local governments in Indonesia that implemented FWA policies in the form of flextime and WFH during the Covid-19 pandemic. An online survey was conducted to collect data, which took approximately 15 minutes to fill the questionnaire. Participants were asked to follow the provided

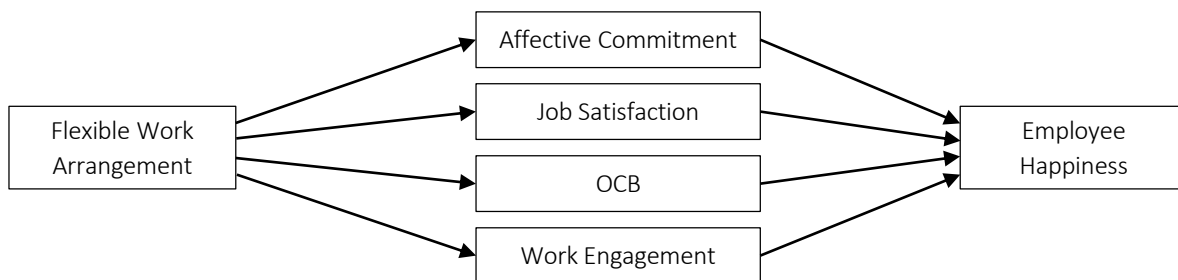


Figure 1. Proposed model

link to participate in the survey. Participants were recruited using snowball sampling, a technique to access respondents in a population that is difficult to reach (Waters, 2015). This non-probability sampling was deemed suitable, considering that the lockdown policy due to pandemics limits the data collection process. Through the snowball sampling technique, contact persons were asked to forward the questionnaire to their co-workers who were eligible to take participation as the respondents in the survey.

A total of 656 employees participated in the survey. 405 respondents completed the questionnaire, reflecting a response rate of 62%. Based on demographic characteristics, 62% of respondents were male, while 38% were female. In terms of age, 88 respondents (21.7%) were 21-30 years old, 136 respondents (33.6%) were 31-40 years old, 91 respondents (22.5%) were 41-50 years old, and 90 respondents (22.2%) were 51-60 years old. This indicates that most respondents were 31-40 years old when participating in this study. In terms of education level, 24 respondents graduated from senior high school, 44 respondents (10.9%) held associate's degrees, 278 respondents (68.6%) held bachelor's degrees, and 59 respondents (14.6%) held master's degrees. In other words, most of the respondents held bachelor's degrees.

3.2. Measures

An instrument adapted from Albion (2004) measured FWA, consisting of 9 items. Respondents were asked to provide responses related to flexible work options during the Covid-19 pandemic. The alpha coefficient was 0.855.

A scale adapted from Allen and Mayer (1990) was used to measure affective commitment, consisting of 8 items. Respondents were asked to provide responses related to affective commitment to the organization during the Covid-19 pandemic. The alpha coefficient was 0.798.

An instrument adapted from Spector et al. (2010) was used to measure OCB, consisting of 10 items. Respondents were asked to provide responses related to OCB during the Covid-19 pandemic. The alpha coefficient was 0.831.

To measure job satisfaction, a scale adapted from the United States Office of Personnel Management (2015) consisted of 9 items. Respondents were asked to provide responses related to their job satisfaction during the Covid-19 pandemic. The alpha coefficient was 0.881.

An instrument adapted from Schaufeli et al. (2006) measured work engagement, consisting of 9 items. Respondents were asked to provide responses related to their work engagement during the Covid-19 pandemic. The alpha coefficient was 0.862.

A scale adapted from Ruch et al. (2014) was used to measure employee happiness, consisting of 9 items. Respondents were asked to provide responses related to their happiness during the Covid-19 pandemic. The alpha coefficient was 0.783.

All the scales that measured the study constructs were based on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

3.3. Data analysis

Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was applied to analyze data using SmartPLS 3.3.2. There are two stages in PLS-SEM analysis: measurement model and structural model evaluation. First, measurement model is used to test validity and reliability of the constructs. After measurement model, an evaluation of the structural model is needed to determine the direct and indirect effects of the proposed model.

4. RESULTS

Table 1 shows that almost all correlations among variables were significant. Affective commitment was found to positively correlate with employee happiness ($r = .262, p < .01$), FWA ($r = .151, p < .05$), job satisfaction ($r = .459, p < .01$), OCB ($r = .332, p < .01$), and work engagement ($r = .352, p < .01$). In addition, employee happiness was found to have a positive relationship with FWA ($r = .307, p < .01$), job satisfaction ($r = .318, p < .01$), OCB ($r = .301, p < .01$), and work engagement ($r = .273, p < .01$). Meanwhile, FWA was found to be positively associated with OCB ($r = .154, p < .05$) but was

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlation among variables

Construct	N	Min	Max	Avg	Std Dev	Affective Commitment	Employee Happiness	Flexible Work Option	Job Satisfaction	OCB
Affective Commitment	405	1	5	3.654	0.739					
Employee Happiness	405	1	5	3.636	0.728	0.262**				
Flexible Work Arrangement	405	1	5	3.355	0.824	0.151*	0.307**			
Job Satisfaction	405	1	5	3.680	0.671	0.459**	0.318**	0.046		
OCB	405	1	5	3.230	0.861	0.332**	0.301**	0.154*	0.225**	
Work Engagement	405	1	5	3.682	0.660	0.352**	0.273**	0.06	0.449**	0.205**

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

not associated with job satisfaction ($r = .046, p > 0.05$) and work engagement ($r = .06, p > 0.05$). Job satisfaction was found to be positively associated with OCB ($r = .225, p < .01$) and work engagement ($r = .449, p < .01$). Meanwhile, OCB was positively related to work engagement ($r = .203, p < .01$).

4.1. Measurement model

In the measurement model, convergent and discriminant validities of the constructs were analyzed. A construct is considered to have convergent va-

lidity when the factor loading is > 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, the constructs should have an average variance extracted (AVE) > 0.5 to pass the convergent validity test (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It can be seen in Table 2 that the factor loading and AVE of all constructs meet the recommended criteria, indicating that they have convergent validity. For the discriminant validity, Fornell and Larcker's criterion was also used. A construct is considered to pass the discriminant validity test if the R^2 of each construct's AVE is higher than the correlations with other latent constructs. As pre-

Table 2. Measurement model

Construct	Item	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
Affective Commitment	AC1	0.683	0.803	0.859	0.505
	AC3	0.585			
	AC5	0.740			
	AC6	0.755			
	AC7	0.744			
	AC8	0.741			
Employee Happiness	EH3	0.601	0.785	0.848	0.484
	EH4	0.624			
	EH6	0.626			
	EH7	0.771			
	EH8	0.780			
	EH9	0.747			
Flexible Work Arrangement	FWA1	0.721	0.856	0.881	0.518
	FWA2	0.581			
	FWA4	0.614			
	FWA5	0.806			
	FWA6	0.815			
	FWA7	0.742			
Job Satisfaction	JS2	0.731	0.881	0.906	0.548
	JS3	0.689			
	JS4	0.795			
	JS5	0.780			
	JS6	0.722			
	JS7	0.759			
	JS8	0.621			
	JS9	0.806			

Table 2 (cont.). Measurement mode

Construct	Item	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
OCB	OCB2	0.766	0.831	0.876	0.543
	OCB3	0.695			
	OCB4	0.683			
	OCB5	0.808			
	OCB6	0.780			
	OCB7	0.677			
	Work Engagement	WE2			
WE3		0.840			
WE4		0.799			
WE5		0.732			
WE6		0.747			
WE7		0.795			

Table 3. Fornell-Larcker criterion

Construct	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Affective Commitment (1)	0.710					
Employee Happiness (2)	0.260	0.696				
Flexible Work Arrangement (3)	0.160	0.306	0.720			
Job Satisfaction (4)	0.452	0.316	0.045	0.740		
OCB (5)	0.324	0.292	0.147	0.212	0.737	
Work Engagement (6)	0.348	0.272	0.055	0.448	0.199	0.773

sented in Table 3, all constructs have discriminant validity as the R^2 of each construct's AVE is higher than the correlations with other latent constructs.

Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability are needed for the reliability test of an instrument. An instrument is considered reliable if the score is > 0.70 . The score is acceptable as long as it is higher than 0.50. As shown in Table 2, Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability scores met the criteria, meaning that the instrument was reliable.

4.2. Structural equation modeling

After evaluating the measurement model, structural equation modeling was applied to test the

hypotheses. The result of PLS-SEM is presented in Figure 2.

The results of PLS-SEM show that FWA positively affects affective commitment ($\beta = 0.16$, p -value < 0.05) and OCB ($\beta = 0.138$, p -value < 0.05). In other words, H1 and H3 are supported. In contrast, this study found that FWA did not significantly affect job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.045$, p -value > 0.05) and work engagement ($\beta = 0.055$, p -value > 0.05), meaning that H2 and H4 were not supported. Another findings of the study showed that employee happiness was positively affected by job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.188$, p -value < 0.05), OCB ($\beta = 0.206$, p -value < 0.05), and work engagement ($\beta = 0.124$, p -value < 0.05). Therefore, H6, H8, and H9

Table 4. Hypotheses testing

Hypotheses	Path Coefficients	Standard Deviation	T-Test	P-Values	Result
Flexible Work Arrangement \rightarrow Affective Commitment	0.160	0.080	2.008	0.045	Significant
Flexible Work Arrangement \rightarrow Job Satisfaction	0.045	0.079	0.571	0.568	Not Significant
Flexible Work Arrangement \rightarrow OCB	0.138	0.053	2.583	0.010	Significant
Flexible Work Arrangement \rightarrow Work Engagement	0.055	0.070	0.783	0.434	Not Significant
Affective Commitment \rightarrow Employee Happiness	0.066	0.062	1.07	0.285	Not Significant
Job Satisfaction \rightarrow Employee Happiness	0.188	0.065	2.879	0.004	Significant
Job Satisfaction \rightarrow OCB	0.206	0.049	4.212	0.000	Significant
OCB \rightarrow Employee Happiness	0.206	0.046	4.489	0.000	Significant
Work Engagement \rightarrow Employee Happiness	0.124	0.057	2.155	0.032	Significant

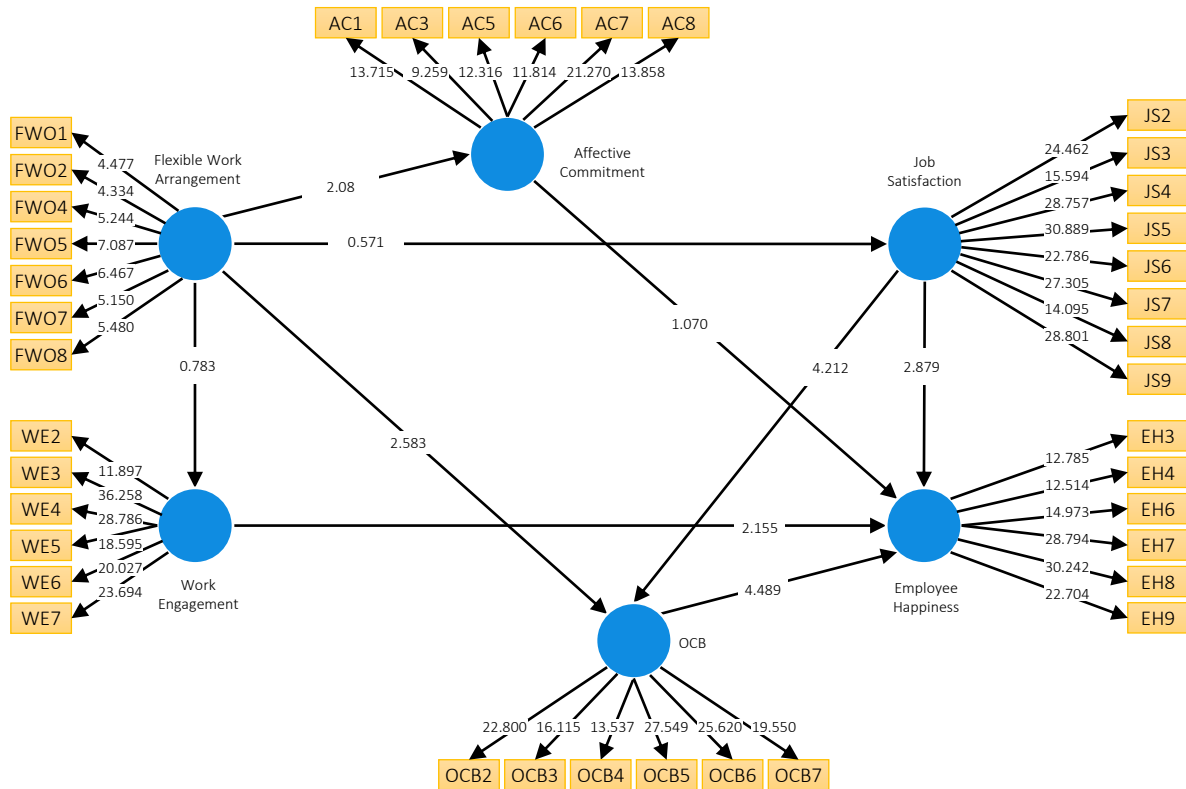


Figure 2. Structural model

were supported. However, it was found that affective commitment did not affect employee happiness ($\beta = 0.066, p\text{-value} > 0.05$), meaning that H5 was not supported. However, job satisfaction was found to positively affect OCB ($\beta = 0.206, p\text{-value} < 0.05$), meaning that H7 was supported. Table 4 shows the result of the hypotheses testing.

5. DISCUSSION

The Covid-19 pandemic requires organizations to apply work designs that comply with the health protocols, such as flexible work arrangements (e.g., flexitime and WFH). Extended home-based telework in a worsening pandemic scenario such as the Covid-19 crisis could be viewed as an extraordinary condition that affects work-related activities due to measures proposed by health authorities in many countries (Belzunegui-Eraso & Erro-Garcés, 2020). In other words, FWA may affect employee attitude and behavior when they work from home.

This study found a positive effect of FWA on affective commitment. It means that an organizational requirement that obliges employees to

work from home during the outbreak is viewed as the organization's effort to protect them from the Covid-19 pandemic. In turn, it increases employees' affective commitment to the organization. Affective commitment reflects employees' emotional engagement with the organizations, where employees accept organizational values (Kiran & Khurram, 2018). Due to employees' emotional engagement with the organization, affective commitment is the most wanted commitment from the organization's perspective (Choo et al., 2016). The result of this study is in line with Hyland et al. (2005), who found a positive effect of flex scheduling on affective commitment, and Golden (2016), who found that telecommuting frequency intensifies organizational commitment.

This study also found the effect of FWA on OCB. This finding indicates that when employees adapt to WFH design due to pandemics, they view job difficulties as a challenge that should be overcome. This condition makes employees willing to work beyond minimum requirements and help their co-workers overcome difficult times during pandemics, causing them to exhibit OCB. This finding supports Bolino and Turnley (2003) by using

social exchange theory to account for the organization's policies that promote citizenship and the possible effect of a flexible workplace on OCB.

This study did not find any effect of FWA on job satisfaction and work engagement. This means that WFH does not entirely make employees have comfortable work designs. Sudden work design changes due to pandemics make it difficult for employees to adjust their work rhythm. In addition, due to pandemics, some employees who were used to working in the office and interacting with co-workers and superiors are obliged to work from home, where coordination with others is relatively difficult. Due to such a condition, FWA does not necessarily result in job satisfaction and work en-

gagement, which contradicts the findings of Kiran and Khurram (2018) and Sharpe et al. (2002).

However, this study found that job satisfaction, OCB, and work engagement positively affect employee happiness. Job satisfaction was also found to positively affect OCB, indicating that an employee's job satisfaction, including interaction with co-workers and superiors, may lead to employee happiness. Employee happiness may be lowered when physical interactions are prohibited due to pandemics. Similarly, as employee happiness may be affected by work engagement, isolation due to the WFH program may decrease employee work engagement which, in turn, may lower their happiness.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to analyze the relationship between FWA, affective commitment, job satisfaction, OCB, work engagement, and employee happiness during the Covid-19 pandemic. This study found that FWA during a crisis like the pandemic may result in employees' deep engagement with the organization in the form of affective commitment as they view the organizations care for them and protect them. This study also found that FWA can improve employees' OCB as employees are aware that adjustments should be made to overcome the problems. FWA, in the form of flextime and WFH, is the most popular work design adopted by organizations during the Covid-19 outbreak.

The study results have some implications for leaders in developing work designs, especially during crises. This study indicates that flexible work arrangements can serve as an option that provides employees with the freedom to work autonomously anywhere at any time. Mutual understanding among employees and leaders in developing flexible work arrangement models can improve employees' organizational commitment and promote OCB, eventually resulting in employee happiness. However, since WFH restricts employees' interaction, it may lower their job satisfaction and work engagement. Therefore, organization leaders need to find ways to minimize such negative consequences through, for instance, intensive communication and coordination using virtual communication platforms, which may help employees to avoid feelings of isolation.

This study has several limitations to be considered. First, the cross-sectional design of this study prevents the analysis from drawing a causal relationship between variables. Hence, the interpretation of relationships among variables should be made carefully. A longitudinal design is recommended to further describe the relationships among variables. Second, this study investigates FWA in the form of flextime and WFH during the pandemic. Other forms of FWA, such as job sharing, compressed workweeks, and part-time work, are likely to affect employee happiness differently. Future studies are recommended to examine these variables. Third, this study has limited scope and generalizability, as the data were collected from local governments in Indonesia. The result of this study can only be generalized in the same conditions. Other organizations may have different flexible work arrangements, depending on contextual needs and differences. Future studies need to examine different types of organizations to obtain broader research results for generalization.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

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Project administration: Sarwoto.

Resources: Sinto Sunaryo, Hunik Sri Runing Sawitri, Joko Suyono, Lilik Wahyudi, Sarwoto.

Software: Lilik Wahyudi.

Supervision: Sinto Sunaryo.

Validation: Lilik Wahyudi.

Visualization: Sarwoto.

Writing – original draft: Sinto Sunaryo.

Writing – review & editing: Hunik Sri Runing Sawitri.

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