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A Cross-sectional Study during the COVID-19 Pandemic:
Work Events and Affective Reactions as Predictors of Loss of
Productivity and Intention to Leave

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ABSTRACT

This study applied the Affective Events Theory in which the relationship between work events and affective reactions are examined and how this relationship influences job performance and organizational commitment. We aim to explore and analyze how work events (home office, job insecurity, LMX leadership, social support, and job autonomy) and affective events (COVID-19 optimism, burnout, and loneliness) might influence work attitude (employee engagement), job performance and intention to leave of employees during the COVID-19 pandemic. A sample of 152 respondents was obtained, mainly distributed in Norway from different industries, namely, media, seafood, finance, ocean technology, academic institutions. The findings show that job autonomy, burnout, and loneliness contribute to predicting a loss of productivity; job insecurity, burnout, and employee engagement are predictors for intention to leave. Notably, burnout significantly predicts intention to leave ($p < .001$) and loss of productivity ($p < .01$). Even though we did not find the interaction effects among variables, LMX leadership appears to be strongly linked with the rest of the variables in terms of direct effects. LMX leadership might play a pivotal role to either prevent or react to the loss of productivity and intention to leave. Working from home during COVID-19 times has been a trendy topic, mainly because it promotes a new way of working. But interestingly, we discover that the home office does not have any influence over the intention to leave and job performance.

Keywords:

Intention to leave, job performance, LMX, employee engagement, COVID-19, job insecurity, burnout, home office, job autonomy, loneliness.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The present thesis comprises a survey study in which COVID-oriented reactions among a group of employees are investigated from an emotional-oriented perspective. 2020, without a doubt, is a year that will stay with everyone that lived and could remember this unique *Annus horribilis*. Like the Black Death in the period of 1346-1353, 2020-2021 will be years that brought the entire world to its knees. Many facets of human interaction have been affected, such as health, the economy, and our daily interplay with friends or families.

In March 2020, COVID-19 passed from an uncommon outbreak to be declared a pandemic by the World Health Organization (WHO). COVID-19 gave signals early on its powerful-lethal damage. There were 118,000 cases in 114 countries and 4,291 people that had lost their lives. At the beginning of June 2021, the figures had increased exponentially to 170,812,850 number of confirmed cases, and 3,557,586 deaths (WHO, 2021).

The social and economic disruption originated by the pandemic is catastrophic. For instance, millions of people are at risk of falling into extreme poverty. The number of undernourished people could increase by up to 132 million by the end of 2021. Approximately half of the world's 3.3 billion global workforces are at risk of losing their livelihoods (Chriscaden, 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic has shocked the world in how to work and do business upside downs. The worldwide infection has led to a dramatic challenge in how people have been performing their activities. As the pandemic continues evolving, there has never been a more pressing need for organizations to rethink and reconfigure their businesses for the new world. Now it is time to spend effort on areas that support the entire business, areas that will help to stabilize and to have a smooth transition in the new environment to move the organizations forward.

Many companies have adopted different strategies to ensure business continuity. They can be clustered into different groups i) the ones declared in bankruptcy or asking for government support, ii) downsizing to gain some time to figure a long-term plan out, and iii) still in business but adopting new ways of working as a response to government new measures to prevent the spread of the virus, such a quarantine, lock-down, reduce the number of people commuting to work. This pandemic and the related sharp growth in the number of employees in-home quarantine make

companies and organizations face brand new challenges, such as ensuring companies' continuity (Rádl, 2020).

However, these measures certainly have affected our daily work activities, including our personal lives. The pandemic has led to mental health declines, increased work demands, home-life challenges, and feelings of loneliness (M. Campbell & Gavett, 2021). The vast majority of us are battling with general, and workplace well-being as the pandemic continues to rage. These inconveniences could diminish our mental health and involve some of the predictors of burnout, including a flawed workload, the absence of a supportive community, and the feeling that you do not have control over your life and work.

Due to COVID-19's massive worldwide impact and uncertainty in different aspects of life in the short-term and the long-term as mentioned above, we are interested in studying COVID-19 side effects on professionals. The COVID-19 pandemic has forced the world to speed up the development and adaptation with new ways of working and new forms of interaction. These enormous challenges and shifts in our routines have provided us a new normal, however, this is a huge opportunity to develop, create, and to re-configure ourselves as humans.

This research project is based on a cross-sectional survey, mainly distributed in Norway to different industries. This work aims to associate and understand how psychosocial factors, work events, and home office during the COVID-19 pandemic might influence employee's engagement, employee's performance, and intention to leave.

To conduct this study, we selected the Affective Events Theory (AET) developed by organizational psychologists Howard Weiss and Russell Cropanzano as the theoretical base, to explain how emotions and moods influence job performance and job satisfaction (H. Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The theory focuses on the structure, causes, and consequences of affective experiences at work in its delineation of the factors which influence job satisfaction.

Understanding more about the impact and the interaction among different selected variables on employees is the key to support their well-being. Furthermore, it could be possible to bring opportunities for companies to evolve their work environment, for the good of the current employees and posterity. A recent survey in schools revealed that to effectively support students through this time of change, teachers need to know more about what obstacles students face, their

emotional state, and what motivates them. Despite many challenges caused by emotional, physical, and psychological disruption, the hard time facing COVID-19 also provides an opportunity for schools to further evolve learning models to stimulate positive changes and rethink how schools can support their students (Harvard Business Review Analytic Services, 2021).

Theoretical background

Home office

Hill and associates compared the influence of three work venues (traditional office, virtual office, and home office) on different aspects of work (job performance, job motivation, job retention, workload success, and career opportunity) and personal and family life (work-life balance and personal and family success; Hill et al., 2003).

Telework refers to “any form of substitution of information technologies (such as telecommunications and computers) for work-related travel; moving the work to the workers instead of moving the workers to work” (Nilles, 1998, p. 1). Also, according to Nilles, telecommuting refers to “periodic work out of the principal office, one or more days per week either at home, a client’s site, or in a telework center” (p. 1). One of the most popular forms of telework is the home office, in which the home is the primary work location. The virtual office is one of the non-telecommuting forms of telework that has increased its popularity in the past decade. In the virtual office, employees are provided with portable means to accomplish their job and are often allowed to work wherever convenient to achieve business objectives (Hill et al., 2003).

It is found that the influence of the virtual office is primarily positive on aspects of work but somewhat negative on aspects of personal/family life. The results of the study indicate that telework offers the potential for enabling employees to better balance work and family life while at the same time enhancing business performance. The study finds little evidence that telework has any negative business ramifications (Hill et al., 2003).

Research suggests that employers who offer their employees the opportunity to work at home are more likely to use a range of performance management techniques depending on the type of management environment (Huws, 1993). In low-trust environments, reward structures and payment based on results ensure that workers at home manage themselves since lower productivity

directly leads to lower pay (Felstead & Jewson, 1997). On the other hand, high-trust working-at-home environments are characterized by frequent update meetings and agreed targets between employees who work at home and their line managers. Furthermore, in these environments, the quality of work is more likely to be assessed indirectly through client feedback and individual workers themselves. Working at home is sometimes considered the best suitable for solitary activities because work from home can lead to isolation and detachment from the organization (Huws, 1993).

During the COVID-19 pandemic, Purwanto and associates found that work from home can bring several benefits such as more flexibility in working schedule, reduction in transportation cost and time, and less stress due to commuting in traffic jams to work. On the other hand, the home office also may cause adverse impacts like losing work motivation for some reasons. For example, the working atmosphere at home is not in line with expectations, or it is easier to get distracted by social media and other entertainment temptations. The data security issue arises when employees use unprotected internet connections (Purwanto et al., 2020).

Social Support

House (1981) generally defines social support as supportive interactions or exchanges of resources between people in formal and informal relationships. In the workplace, social support refers to a working condition that reduces the negative impacts of job-related stress (Karasek & Theorell, 1992). According to Karasek and Theorell, three significant sources of social support at work consist of the top manager (or administrator), immediate supervisor, and coworkers. House and Wells (1978) identified social support sources as supervisor, management, coworkers, and family. Social support types include listening, showing concern, giving aid, giving tangible assistance, giving advice, and giving suggestions. Cohen and colleagues classified sources of social support into five different groups. (1) Emotional support refers to other people who can listen sympathetically and provide caring and acceptance when a person is having problems. (2) Instrumental support indicates tangible and practical support, when necessary, for example, helping with household work and childcare or lending money, providing goods. (3) Information support relates to helpful knowledge for solving problems, such as giving information about resources and providing advice and guidance. (4) Companionship support is defined as the person's availability to participate in social activities like trips and parties, cultural activities, or outdoor and sports activities. (5) Validation can also be called as feedback or social comparison

which is based on the concept that social relationships can provide information about the appropriateness of behavior (Cohen et al., 2000).

Research shows that perceived social support at work decreases the likelihood of burnout of employees (Houkes et al., 2003) and intention to leave (Nissly et al., 2005). Therefore, it is expected that perceived social support is negatively correlated with burnout and turnover intention among employees (Kim & Stoner, 2008). Caplan figured out that perceived support from supervisors, subordinates, and coworkers was negatively associated with many perceived occupational stresses and indicators of both poor physical and mental health (Caplan, 1972).

A study conducted in China at the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic has found that levels of social support for medical staff were positively correlated with self-efficacy and sleep quality and negatively associated with the level of anxiety and stress (Xiao et al., 2020). Those findings are also consistent with Grey and associates' research outcomes that social support is negatively associated with depression, anxiety, irritability, and loneliness during quarantine (Grey et al., 2020). Moreover, a higher level of social support is likely to lead to better sleep quality during quarantine.

Job Insecurity

When people talk about job insecurity, the first thing that comes to our minds is a detrimental effect on employees' behavior. Job insecurity can be defined as overall concern about the continued presence of the job in the future (Cheng & Chan, 2008). Job insecurity has a negative impact on behavioral outcomes, causing various psychological, sociological, and health problems (Sverke et al., 2002). Moreover, job insecurity is a hindrance stressor that induces undesirable strain reactions (Jeffery A Lepine et al., 2005). A hindrance stressor can be specified as either excessive or undesirable work-related demands that interfere with an individuals' work achievement (Cavanaugh et al., 2000).

Job insecurity has a predominantly harmful impact on performance, turnover intention, and absenteeism, and it is argued that these effects are mediated by reduced work attitudes (Staufenbiel & König, 2010). Another manifestation in emotional coping is behavioral withdrawal, which reveals itself in reduced in-role performance or neither voluntary turnover nor absenteeism (King, 2000).

Staufenbiel and König proposed a model that provided a glance about the effects on job insecurity, which predominantly causes lower in-role performance, absenteeism, and higher turnover intention, a hindrance effect mediated by work attitudes. These consequences are somewhat suppressed by a challenging effect. The model showed another perception regarding job insecurity. Job insecurity may also affect behaviors contrarily, functioning as a suppressor effect, because it might motivate employees to make themselves more valuable to the organization by giving the extra mile at work and being less absent (Staufenbiel & König, 2010).

The model merges two different perspectives about job insecurity effects, as a hindrance stressor and a challenge stressor. Reduced work attitude causes a decline in performance and an increase in absenteeism and turnover intentions (Sverke et al., 2002). However, data disclosed evidence for the opposite effects in variables such a performance, turnover intention, and absenteeism (Staufenbiel & König, 2010). This approach is how a stressor can be conceptualized as either a positive or negative catalysator. A stressor can constitute either a challenge or a hindrance stressor (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Jeffery A Lepine et al., 2005; N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2007).

There are also some other moderating variables to consider concerning job insecurity. The first one, uncertainty avoidance; people with high uncertainty avoidance prefer their lives to be well-organized and secure (Hofstede, 2001). Hence, an insecure job poses a higher threat to their preferences for these people than for people with low uncertainty avoidance. Therefore, the relationship between job insecurity and performance might be more robust in a country with high uncertainty avoidance for instance in Germany, than in a country with low uncertainty avoidance like Japan (Spector et al., 2001). A second variable to take into consideration is the legal system of the countries in case the company plans to downsize in a country where lay-off people are illegally difficult; for instance, in Germany, this might lead to extended periods of job insecurity (Spector et al., 2001).

In a matter of months, the COVID-19 pandemic has converted from a public health crisis into a serious worldwide economic and jobs crisis whose full extent is still unfolding. Countries' initial unemployment response to the COVID-19 crisis has varied. The initial effect of the COVID-19 disaster has been ten times larger than that observed in the first months of the 2008 global financial crisis: taking into account both the drop in employment and the reduction in hours worked among those who remained in work (OECD, 2020).

In some countries, unemployment immediately jumped to record levels. When layoff comes, it is not always the most emotionally challenging part of the job loss. The months of uncertainty and nervous anticipation leading up to it also take a heavy toll on an employee's wellbeing and mental health (Rao, 2021). The harmful effects of insecurity can spill over to the home, constantly living on the edge with their family members -their nerve frayed (Rao, 2021). Unfortunately, during uncertain times, the suicide rates increased six months before the rise in unemployment rates (Nordt et al., 2015).

Job Autonomy

The concept of autonomy stands for the level of freedom and independence an individual has in executing his or her work assignments and the degree of self-control of an employee over how to carry out the job task (Hackman, 1980). Current organizational behavior research has expanded this concept to the extent to which a job allows freedom, independence, and discretion to schedule work, make decisions, and choose the methods used to perform duties (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006).

Also, autonomy enables employees to experiment with various work approaches and methods. Therefore, it allows them to find and develop ideas further through the small-scale application of these ideas (De Spiegelaere et al., 2014). Additionally, some other benefits come along with having or experiencing autonomy at work, for instance, employees tend to participate more in knowledge sharing (Cabrera et al., 2006), employees' innovative behavior (Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2011), and overall fostering employees' engagement and motivation (Bakker et al., 2007).

For practical considerations, it is relevant to keep in mind and as much as possible set the tone for good practices that allow having job autonomy as part of the daily basis work-routine. It has been positively related to work performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intrinsic motivation, and consistently undesirably related to absenteeism, stress, and burnout (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011). Hence, there are high-likelihood employees to perform their job with vigor and dedication.

Studies have confirmed that autonomy and work engagement is positively related (Bakker et al., 2007; Mauno et al., 2010). Moreover, job autonomy triggers employee ownership of problems, enabling employees to recognize a wider range of important skills and knowledge for their roles

(S. K. Parker & Sprigg, 1999). In addition, their proactive and innovative work behaviors allow them to achieve their work goals (Nahrgang et al., 2011) and react promptly to changing job demands, and buffer the negative impact of stressors (Bakker et al., 2007).

Job autonomy perception unfolds the relationship with intrinsic motivation, the Job Characteristics Model (JCM), as an important guideline to understand how employees' perceptions of their work may lead to outcomes favorable for themselves, their colleagues, and the entire organization (Anderson, 2001). JCM proposes five core job attributes that make jobs more satisfying for workers, and among these is job autonomy. In accordance with JCM, these attributes facilitate critical psychological states that serve as antecedents for promoting a range of positive employee states similar to intrinsic motivation (Pierce et al., 2009). Hackman and Oldham suggested autonomy leads to the psychological state of experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work, leading to outcomes such as high work effectiveness and high internal work motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

Intrinsic motivation mediates the relationship between job autonomy and work performance, these are influenced by employees' current levels of intrinsic motivation. Research in educational settings advises that students high in intrinsic motivation are more persistent, self-driven, and autonomous (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Furthermore, employees high in intrinsic motivation are more involved in their jobs and show greater goal attainment than those less intrinsically motivated (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

COVID-19 pandemic has come along with strong incentives to work from home because governmental policies have been set to avoid spreading the virus. Some companies encourage their employees to work from home to minimize social contacts at work, also, no longer commuting in rush hours by public transportation.

This new way of working leads to boost employee autonomy since employees get more control over their workplace and time. The COVID-19 crisis has permitted employees to be more autonomous. In particular, it has been observed that the traditional emphasis on what autonomous work employees do has been complemented by where employees can work (home, summer cottage, etc.). Moreover, autonomy extends into how processes and employees contribute to their organization (Lund & Ritter, 2021).

Leader-Member Exchange Leadership

This theory takes another approach and conceptualizes leadership as a process centered on the relations between leaders and followers. A central principle of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory is that leaders do not treat each subordinate equally and that LMX quality goes from low to high (Wayne et al., 1997). This theory makes the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers the focal point of the leadership process (Northouse & Lee, 2019).

This leadership theory focuses on the relationship among leaders with the members, emphasizing two-member communication processes (Gahraz & Jaghargh, 2017), within in-groups and out-groups (Northouse & Lee, 2019). There are some considerable differences in how leaders approach and interact with each group.

Working with out-group members acts very differently. Rather than trying to do extra work, they operate strictly based on their job description to receive the standard benefits as mentioned in their contract. Leaders treat them fairly and according to the contract, but they do not give them special attention (Brower et al., 2000; Northouse & Lee, 2019).

However, working within an in-group, the leader can accomplish more effectively (Northouse & Lee, 2019). One factor influencing employees' enjoyment is their relationship with their leader (Gahraz & Jaghargh, 2017). Advocating admiration and their unique relationship, members belonging to the in-group are willing to do more than their job description states. They give the so-called extra mile. Moreover, they look for innovative ways to advance the group's goals (Northouse & Lee, 2019). As leaders initiate social exchanges by giving favorable treatment to certain members (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), members, in turn, feel obliged to work harder to benefit the leader as a way of reciprocation (Liden et al., 1997). In response to their extra effort, devotion, and pillars where their relationship stands, leaders give them more responsibilities and opportunities. Also, it has been seen that leaders also give in-group members more of their time and support (Northouse & Lee, 2019).

The in-group relationship is closer and is characterized by mutual trust, loyalty, influence, professional respect, and participation. Brower portrayed the development of trust as a spiral reinforcement process (Brower et al., 2000). It has also been described as a cyclical, reciprocally reinforcing process and a social exchange relational leadership process (Butler, 1991). The

behavior of each player influences the other, with the intention of incentive and promoting reciprocity in trust (Brower et al., 2000).

In a working context, empowerment, delegation, awarding a promotion, and less monitoring or surveillance (Whitener et al., 1998) benefit the trust between leaders and followers. This risk-taking behavior leads to various outcomes for the subordinate that include higher levels of satisfaction and performance and lower rates of absenteeism and turnover (Brower et al., 2000). There is a high probability that leaders delegate to subordinates in a closer LMX relationship. Thus, the amount of risk taken will be associated with the level of trust (Schriesheim et al., 1998).

The speed and scope of the COVID-19 pandemic crisis pose unprecedented challenges for leaders. When situations are uncertain, human instinct and basic management training can cause leaders out of fear of taking the wrong steps, unnecessarily making people anxious, delaying action, and downplaying the threat until the situation becomes more evident. But acting in this manner means failing the coronavirus leadership test because, by the time the dimensions of the threat are clear, you are seriously behind in trying to control the crisis. To approve that test requires leaders to act in an urgent, honest, and iterative fashion, recognizing that mistakes are inevitable and correcting course, not assigning blame, is the way to deal with them when they occur. For example, the prime minister of New Zealand, Jacinda Arden's response against the pandemic, was bold and engendered public support. The tone of her communication was straightforward, honest, and compassionate (Kerrissey & Edmondson, 2020).

COVID-19 Optimism

Optimism has been related to “positive mood and good morale, to perseverance and effective problem solving; to academic, athletic, military, occupational, and political success; to popularity; to good health; and even to long life and freedom from trauma” (Peterson, 2000, p. 44).

Tiger defined optimism as “a mood or attitude associated with an expectation about the social or material future - one which the evaluator regards as socially desirable, to his [or her] advantage, or for his [or her] pleasure” (Tiger, 1979, p. 18). An important implication of Tiger's definition is that there might be no single or objective optimism because what is considered optimism depends on what the individual regards as desirable. Optimism is assessed based on evaluation - on given effects and emotions.

Dispositional optimism

Scheier and Carver have studied a personality variable which they identify as dispositional optimism: the global expectation that good things will be plentiful and likely to happen in the future and bad things are scarce (Scheier & Carver, 1992). Scheier and Carver's concept of optimism comes from a more general interest in the processes that underlie the self-regulation of behavior. The self-regulation of behavior is the idea that people's actions are greatly influenced by their expectations about the consequences of those actions. People who see desired outcomes as achievable continue to strive toward those outcomes, even if they face difficulties or the progress becomes slow. Alternatively, suppose outcomes seem to be unattainable (regardless of the reason for the problem). In that case, people will stop putting their effort into the tasks and disengage themselves from the goals even if the consequences of such disengagement are at times critical. Thus, we see people's expectancies as a major determinant of the disjunction between two general classes of behavior: continued striving or giving up and turning away.

Positive expectations are usually combined with (reverse scored) negative expectations, and the result is investigated with the relationship with health, happiness, and coping with adversity. Results show that dispositional optimism is associated with desirable outcomes and in particular, with active and effective coping (Scheier et al., 1986).

Explanatory style

Peterson and colleagues have approached optimism in terms of an individual's characteristic explanatory style: how he or she explains the reasons for bad events. Those who tend to explain the causes of negative outcomes as stable, global (i.e., influencing many diverse events), and internal are considered pessimistic. Those who tend to interpret the reasons for adverse events as unstable, specific, and external are considered optimistic (Peterson et al., 1995).

A study conducted among healthcare workers in Germany during the COVID-19 pandemic reveals that higher social support and optimism levels were significantly associated with lower levels of depression and generalized anxiety (Schug et al., 2021). According to Jovančević and Milićević (2020), in the time of the pandemic, optimists who show a high level of general trust and do not believe in conspiracy theories have a lower level of fear and a higher level of preventive behaviors.

It is found that optimism was negatively associated with anxiety (Biber et al., 2020) and emotional exhaustion caused by COVID-19 (Özdemir & Kerse, 2020).

Loneliness

Perlman and Peplau defined loneliness as “the unpleasant experience that occurs when a person’s network of social relations is deficient in some important way, either quantitatively or qualitatively” (Perlman & Peplau, 1981, p. 31). According to De Jong-Gierveld, loneliness is “a situation experienced by the individual as one where there is an unpleasant or inadmissible lack of (quality of) certain relationships. This includes situations, in which the number of existing relationships is smaller than is considered desirable or admissible, as well as situations where the intimacy one wishes for has not been realized” (De Jong Gierveld, 1987, p. 120). Both of these two definitions firstly concern loneliness as the result of deficiencies in one’s social relationships; secondly, consider loneliness as a subjective matter which emphasizes the perceived feelings of individuals; thirdly illustrate that loneliness involves unpleasant and distressed feelings (De Jong Gierveld, 1987; Perlman & Peplau, 1981).

Ozcelik and Barsade conceptualized loneliness at work as “employees’ subjective affective evaluations of, and feelings about, whether their affiliation needs are being met by the people they work with and the organization they work for” (Ozcelik & Barsade, 2018, p. 2345).

Loneliness is classified into emotional loneliness and social loneliness. Emotional loneliness happens when one lacks relationships with a confidential figure or an important close person, for example, a partner or best friend. Social loneliness stems from the absence of interactions with broader groups or social networks such as groups of friends, colleagues, volunteer clubs, or sports clubs (R. S. Weiss, 1973).

Loneliness might be the possible outcome of a situation where one has few relationships with others. However, lonely people are not necessarily in the socially isolated condition and vice versa the socially isolated people are not necessarily lonely (Gierveld et al., 2006). Since loneliness is a subjective phenomenon (De Jong Gierveld, 1987; Perlman & Peplau, 1981), some people with a small number of relationships might feel lonely, but others might be comfortable and happy (Gierveld et al., 2006). The latter group refers to the people who enjoy being alone and a high level of privacy and want to avoid undesired social interactions (Gierveld et al., 2006).

There are several negative consequences of loneliness. Loneliness is considered one reason for the decrease in well-being, including depression, sleeping problems, disturbed appetite, etc., (De Jong Gierveld, 1998). It has been shown that loneliness contributes to increased morbidity and mortality (Penninx et al., 1997; Seeman, 2000; Thurston & Kubzansky, 2009). Loneliness has been linked to increased depressive symptoms (Cacioppo et al., 2006). Cacioppo (2006) found that loneliness and depressive symptoms can synergistically affect well-being in middle-aged and elderly people.

The COVID-19 pandemic has led to lockdown measures and social distancing, limiting social contact. According to Killgore and associates, during the COVID-19 period, loneliness is significantly higher than average. Loneliness was associated with increased depression and suicidal ideation (Killgore et al., 2020). Social isolation and loneliness increased the risk of depression and possibly anxiety at the time of measurement between 0.25 and 9 years later. The length of time experiencing loneliness was more strongly connected with mental health symptoms than the intensity of loneliness (Loades et al., 2020).

Burnout

Burnout has been increasingly receiving the attention of scholars and practitioners as an important social and workplace issue. Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) defined burnout as “a persistent, negative, work-related state of mind in ‘normal’ individuals that is primarily characterized by exhaustion, which is accompanied by distress, a sense of reduced effectiveness, decreased motivation, and the development of dysfunctional attitudes and behaviors at work” (p. 36). A classical definition was provided by Christina Maslach. Maslach referred to burnout as a multidimensional model which is “a psychological syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment, which can occur among individuals who work with other people in some capacity” (Maslach, 1993, p. 2). Emotional exhaustion is the fundamental individual stress dimension of burnout. It refers to feelings of depletion of one's emotional resources. Depersonalization implies a negative, callous, or excessively detached response to other people, who are usually the recipients of one's service or care. Reduced personal accomplishment refers to the feeling of incompetence, insufficiency, under-productiveness, and lack of achievement at work.

The multi-concept model incorporates the single dimension, which is exhaustion, and two other extended dimensions: depersonalization (response toward others) and reduced personal

accomplishment (response toward self). Among the three aspects of burnout, exhaustion is the core quality and most widely reported. When people describe themselves or others experiencing burnout, they mainly refer to the experience of emotional exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2001). The strong correlation of exhaustion with burnout has criticized that the other two aspects are unnecessary and should be removed from the definition (Shirom, 1989). However, Maslach disagreed with this counterargument because most of the study might focus more on exhaustion than the other two dimensions. Although exhaustion represents the stress dimension of burnout, it does not capture the relationship that people have with their work. Moreover, the connection between incompetence and inefficiency (reduced personal accomplishment) with the other two aspects of burnout is complex (Maslach, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001).

This multidimensional approach indicates that interventions to reduce and prevent burnout should be planned and designed concerning each component of burnout. That means it may be more effective to consider reducing the likelihood of emotional exhaustion, avoiding the tendency to depersonalize, or enhancing one's sense of accomplishment, rather than using a more general stress reduction and prevention approach (Maslach, 1993).

Several studies are suggesting the sequential progression over time of burnout's components. It means the occurrence of one element will activate the development of another aspect. Golembiewski et al. (1986) presents the phase model where depersonalization is the first phase of burnout, then reduced personal accomplishment, and emotional exhaustion comes last. However, Leiter and Maslach (1988) argue that emotional exhaustion happens first, which leads to depersonalization and subsequently, reduced personal accomplishment is triggered. Later, Leiter and colleagues amended the model that the third dimension, reduced personal accomplishment, develops separately and simultaneously with the other two dimensions (Maslach et al., 2001).

The influence of burnout on job performance

Maslach and associates argued that burnout could decrease the staff's quality of care or service. Burnout appears to be the reason for job turnover, absenteeism, and low morale (Maslach et al., 1997). Besides, if people keep staying on the job, burnout leads to ineffectiveness and lower productivity at work. As a result, it is linked with reduced job satisfaction and decreased commitment to the job or organization (Maslach et al., 2001).

Employees who are experiencing burnout can hurt their colleagues. For example, they can cause more significant personal conflict and disrupt job tasks. Hence, burnout can be “contagious” and keep developing among employees through informal interactions on the job. There is also evidence that burnout can bring a negative “spillover” effect on the employee’s family life (Burke & Greenglass, 2001).

The influence of burnout on people’s health

Burnout seems to be related to various self-reported issues of personal dysfunction, including physical exhaustion, insomnia, increased use of alcohol and drugs, and marital and family problems (Maslach et al., 1997).

Employee Engagement

Engagement is about passion and commitment and the willingness to invest oneself and expand one’s discretionary effort to contribute to the employer’s success, which is beyond simple satisfaction with the employment arrangement or basic loyalty to the employer (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Engaged employees perceive an energetic and effective connection with their work activities (Schaufeli et al., 2006). Such employees are emotionally attached to their organization and highly involved in their job with terrific enthusiasm for the success of their employer, going the extra mile further than the contractual employment agreement (Markos & Sridevi, 2010). Rather than a momentary and specific state, it stands for a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual (Schaufeli et al., 2006).

Due to the importance of employee engagement and the possible feasible benefits that it will bring for both employees and employers, organizations have been focusing on measuring, and detecting the pulse of the organization regarding this matter. The aim is to understand where the company stands and then develop a plan to lift the engagement. One approach for assessing organizational behavior is the study of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities. This allows the evaluation, development, and effective management of performance improvement in today’s workplace (Luthans, 2002). Work engagement is considered an antidote to combat against burnout.

Employee engagement comes with some benefits mainly for the employers, namely some, to gain competitive advantage (Storey, 1989), employees job satisfaction and motivation enhancing productivity and high performance (Bailey et al., 2013). Regarding profitability and customer engagement outcomes, outcomes are essential for financial viability (Merisalo, 2016).

Job Performance

The definition of performance is fully consistent with assumptions argued by others that an individual's performance can differ over time with variations in motivational reasons and situational constraints (Kane, 1986). Hence, the job performance definition is the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period (Schmitt et al., 2013).

There are two points to highlight in the definition: the first point is that performance is a property behavior. The second point is about the property of behavior to which performance implies its expected value to the organization (Motowidlo et al., 1997). The distinction is based on how much the set of behaviors can contribute to or detract from organizational effectiveness. Consequently, variation in performance is variance in the expected organizational value of behavior (Schmitt et al., 2013).

Along the working day, people can either do things that help the organization or obstruct organizational goals. Here is where, when, and how the beginning and end of behavioral performance episodes might be identified to differentiate from the rest of the behavioral stream that is not relevant for organizational goals.

There are some methods of job analysis. For example, the task inventory procedure recognizes specific tasks that make up a job and estimates the extent to which employees are involved in completing them (Schmitt et al., 2013). Task statements incorporated in such inventories describe activities that are discrete units of work with identifiable beginnings and endings (McCormick, 1979). The critical incident technique is an additional job analysis procedure. It is helpful to identify coherent action units in the stream of work behavior. Critical incidents are examples of especially effective or ineffective behavior in a defined sphere of activity (McCormick, 1979).

J. P. Campbell (1990) mentioned three direct determinants of job performance: i) declarative knowledge, ii) procedural knowledge and skill, and iii) motivation. Concerning declarative

knowledge is knowledge of facts, principles, and procedures/practices that paper-and-pencil tests might measure. Procedural knowledge and skill determinant is the facility in actually doing what should be done. It represents the combination of knowing what to do and being able to do it. This procedure includes skills such as cognitive, psychomotor, physical, self-management, and interpersonal skills and might be measured by simulations and job sample tests. The motivation procedure is the combination of choice to exert effort, choice of how much effort to wield, and choice of how long to continue to exert effort. In this procedure, individual differences in personality, ability, and interests are presumed to combine and interact with education, training, and experience to shape declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skill, and motivation.

Nowadays, researchers are interested in understanding High-Performance Managerial Practices (HPMP) and job performance. They have focused on explanations grounded in intrinsic motivation, or the disposition of employees to invest their effort and resources in the achievement of organizationally valued tasks and activities (Appelbaum, 2000). HPMP is linked with empowerment because employees sense greater opportunities to participate in work-related decisions and goals. Thus, empowerment triggers performance due to employees being more likely to complete tasks proactively and mindfully when they have enhanced feelings of competence, efficacy, and resilience (Maynard et al., 2012).

Intention to Leave

When employees are put in high-stress conditions, whether from uncertain expectations, unreasonable deadlines, or a hectic workplace, they are at risk into fight or flight mode. Stressful work increased the desire to leave the employer (Paillé, 2011).

Although factors of stressful work are well-known, prior research studies show that stressful job declines wellbeing in the workplace (Danna & Griffin, 1999), raises psychological distress at work (Matsudaira et al., 2013), and fosters violence among colleagues (Mueller et al., 2001). Furthermore, stressful jobs encourage decisions to leave the employer (Firth et al., 2004).

In addition to the stress factor and its side effects on employees and their surroundings, there is another aspect to consider regarding the variable intention to leave. Occupational rewards, here we can differentiate between economic and non-material. For example, money, career-related

rewards (promotions, job security, etc.), and non-material rewards, namely, esteem, recognition. All these matters for well-being and organizational commitment (Vegchel et al., 2002).

In the study conducted by Paillé (2011), “low reward” produced the most substantial effects on the possibility of intended leaving. Elevated risk of turnover intention was observed on those who scored highest on the scale measuring “low reward” compared to low scores. Unsatisfactory salaries were of primary importance for the intention to leave, followed by a lack of professional opportunities and limited professional autonomy (Fochsen et al., 2005). In addition, dissatisfaction and low organizational commitment were related to increased intention to leave the profession (Lynn & Redman, 2005). High work demands in combination with a low level of task control (Hasselhorn et al., 2008) and being socially isolated or excluded at work increased the risk of job turnover (Josephson et al., 2008).

Job satisfaction has a strong negative effect on the intention to leave. It fully reconciles the relationship between stressful work and the choice to leave the employer. Data suggested that an employee who experiences job satisfaction can support stressful work induced by his or her professional environment (Paillé, 2011). Particular attention should be paid to job satisfaction and the level of commitment in the organization. In the organizational circumstance, stress embedded a cost for employers and employees. Consequently, each loses out, loses in profits, and healthcare issues, respectively (Peart, 2019).

The organization aims to have a more highly committed workforce. Organizational commitment leads to important outcomes such as reduced turnover, greater motivation, and higher organizational citizenship behavior (Amdam & Lang, 2007). Allen and Meyer argue that intention to leave the organization is negatively associated with all three components of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative). Age has a positive correlation to general organizational and continuance commitment. It means that senior employees are more committed to their organization, senior workers are more satisfied with the organization and have less possibility of getting new job suggestions (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Regardless, commitment and level of education, the most committed people are employees who had vocational education, less committed than general education. The lowest organizational commitment had employees with graduate and postgraduate education (Amdam & Lang, 2007). Furthermore, more highly educated individuals develop higher expectations and feel not being rewarded adequately by their employers (Lok & Crawford, 2001).

Satisfaction plays a mediating role in the relation between perceived stress and behavior in the workplace. An employee fulfilled with his or her job can deal with stressful work conditions inherent in the professional environment (Paillé, 2011).

The Affective Events Theory

The Affective Events Theory (AET) is a model developed by organizational psychologists Howard M. Weiss (Georgia Institute of Technology) and Russell Cropanzano (University of Colorado) to explain how emotions and moods influence job performance and job satisfaction (H. Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

This theory focuses on the structure, causes, and consequences of affective experiences at work. AET concentrates on affective experiences as the more central phenomena of interest, with job satisfaction as one consequence, adding time as an essential parameter when revealing effect and satisfaction. Over time, patterns of affective reactions influence both overall feelings about one's job and discrete behaviors at work. As a final part of the composition, the AET considers the structure of affective reactions equally important as the structure of environments (H. Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

AET explains the relationships between employees' internal influences, namely, cognitions, emotions, mental states, and their reactions to incidents in their work environment, affecting their performance, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The theory proposes that affective work behaviors explain employees' moods and emotions, while cognitive-based behaviors are the best predictors of job satisfaction (Wegge et al., 2006).

According to AET, work environment features, for example, roles and job designs, can influence attitudes directly, through a cognitive route, as well as indirectly through an affective route, the latter by determining the occurrence of positive or negative affective work events (Glasø et al., 2010). Work environments are considered as an indirect influence on affective experience by making certain events, either real or imagined, more or less likely (H. Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

AET is based on the assumption that emotions are not equal to job satisfaction (Glasø et al., 2010). Behaviors are clustered into two categories: i) affect-driven behaviors and ii) judgment-driven behaviors. Affect-driven behaviors follow directly from affective experiences. They are influenced by processes like coping or mood management or directly affecting cognitive processing or

judgment biases. Judgment-driven behaviors are mediated by satisfaction as consequences of decision processes where one's evaluation of one's job is part of the decision matrix (H. Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

The research focuses

The perspective of affective event theory constitutes the framework for this thesis, focusing on COVID-related events and aftermath effects. Self-reported experience of job performance and a possible after-effect of deteriorated job performance, intention to leave, comprises the outcome variables. Several research issues can be addressed within this framework. Work events and more affective-oriented events may influence work engagement, which may impact job performance. Combined effects of the aforementioned work events and emotional events may explain variability in the respondents' job plans. Thus, respondents that report negatively about the various triggering events they have lived through within the last months and year with COVID-19 may have more vigorous plans to quit their jobs (intention to leave). In addition to that, those being negatively hampered may report a deteriorated level of job productivity.

More specifically, the following three hypotheses will be explored.

H1: Specific COVID-related work events significantly predict a) Job performance and b) Intention to leave.

Those work events are social support, home office use, job insecurity level, and amount of job autonomy.

Moreover, in line with the Affective Events Theory, we also assume:

H2: Affective events also contribute to predicting the two outcome variables a) Job performance and b) Intention to leave. Those affective events include COVID-19 optimism, burnout, and loneliness.

The Affective Events Theory also asserts that leadership may play a role. Accordingly, the last hypothesis will be:

H3: LMX leadership predicts a) Job performance and b) Intention to leave. LMX leadership may predict the two outcome measures directly (part a of the hypothesis) but may also indirectly affect (part b of the hypothesis).

The predictive model is constructed as below.

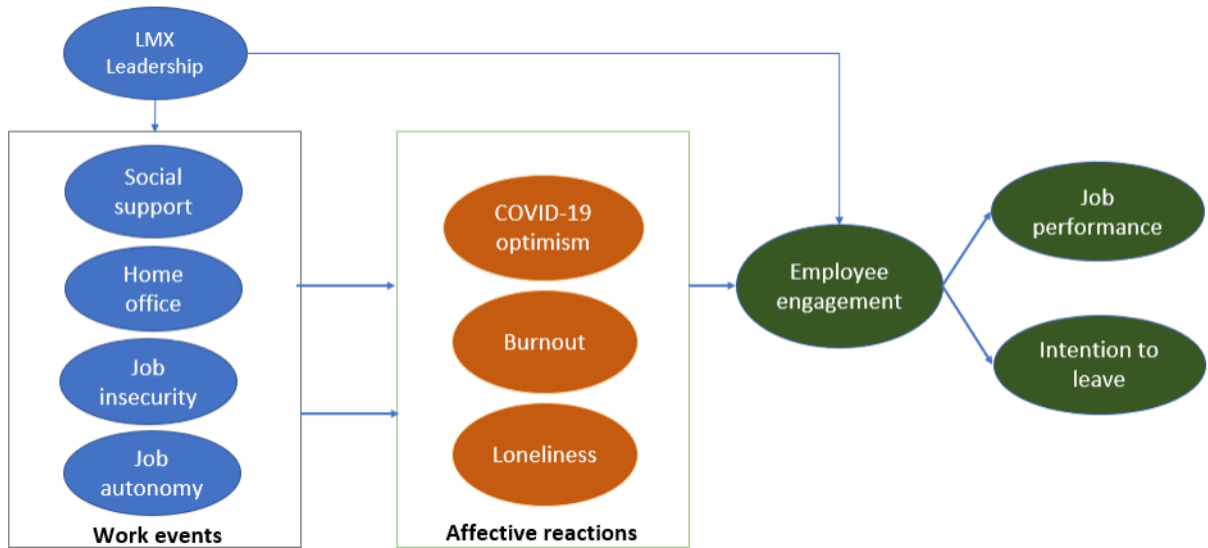


Figure 1: Research framework

2. METHOD

2.1. Research design

In this thesis, the deductive approach is applied. This approach means that the research will begin with the existing literature to deduct and formulate hypotheses about the relationships among variables. The data is collected and analyzed to validate the assumptions or hypotheses. In the end, based on the research outcomes, the theory is discussed.

With mentioned research aims and research questions, the quantitative study is used to collect desired data. A cross-sectional design is commonly considered to be the preferred research design in quantitative studies. Cross-sectional design research involves the data collection of more than one case and at a single point in time to collect a number of quantitative data about two or more variables to find the relationships among those variables (Bell et al., 2019).

In our research, the designed questionnaire does not ask for personal data, and the combination of collected information is also not possible to link to a person. Furthermore, the questionnaire was distributed using an anonymous link. Thus, it is not necessary to notify NSD regarding the possibilities of collecting personal data.

2.2. Data collection

Given the research purposes are to study employees' performance and intention to leave during the COVID-19 pandemic, there were not many requirements for the respondents who could participate in the survey. The only criterion for participation is that the respondents were currently working for a company or an organization.

The data was collected electronically through a self-assessment questionnaire developed using the Qualtrics platform. The survey was designed with three parts. The first part is the informed consent question placed at the beginning of the study to give the respondents the right to decide whether they want to participate in the survey. The second part includes seven demographic questions to have basic background information about participants and support later analysis. The third part consists of questions about 11 variables that are studied in the research.

The data collection was carried out through two main channels. The first channel is to reach out to different business clusters in Bergen, including media clusters, finance innovation clusters,

seafood clusters, and ocean technology clusters. The second channel is to send out the questionnaire through email, Facebook, and LinkedIn to get in touch with potential companies and respondents.

The data collection period lasted from March 2021 to the middle of April 2021. In total, there are 199 answers recorded on Qualtrics. Due to a lack of information in too many questions, we had to remove the responses of several respondents. In the end, we got 152 valid answers. The number of respondents constitutes a sufficient sample size that allows us to perform the quantitative analysis (Pallant, 2016).

Regarding the missing information in the responses, one explanation is that the survey might be lengthy and time-consuming to complete. After investigating the progress percentage, we detected that 77% of the respondents dropped out of the survey after completing 30% – 70% of the questionnaire. We also got feedback from some respondents about the length of the survey.

The study is based on the self-reported questionnaire, which is convenient. However, the self-reported questionnaire also causes some limitations regarding the research reliability, validity, and bias in participants' responses (Demetriou et al., 2015; P. M. Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). We will discuss this matter in more detail in the later part about the limitations.

In the analyzing data phase, the IBM SPSS Statistics version 27 was used to understand the dataset and perform different analyses.

Missing data. Among 152 valid responses, there is one response missing age information. The missing age is coded as -99 to indicate the missing value and eliminate the influence of the missing value on the analysis outcomes.

2.3. Questionnaire

This part provides statistics about the demographics and psychological measures of our questionnaire.

2.3.1. Demographic information

Age. Respondents' age is measured in years, using intervals. There are five age groups, including 18-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60 or older. Most of the respondents were in the 30-39 age group

(34.9%), followed by the 40-49 age group (24.3%). The age group 18-29 and 50-59 accounts for 15.8% each, and the 60 or older group accounts for 8.6% of the total respondents.

Gender. Gender is measured as a dichotomous variable coded such that 1 means male, and 2 means female. The data set consists of 81 females (53.3%) and 71 males (46.7%).

Industry. There are six industries, including media, seafood, finance, ocean technology, shipping, academic institutions, and one option as “Other/Preferred not to answer” for the respondents to choose.

Leadership responsibility. Leadership responsibility is measured as a dichotomous variable coded such that 1 means having leadership responsibility, and 2 means not having leadership responsibility. The data set consisted of 50 respondents with leadership responsibility (32.9%) and 102 respondents who did not have such responsibility (67.1%).

Years of seniority. Years of seniority refer to the duration of the respondents working at the company by the time taking the survey. The variable is measured in years, using intervals. There are six answer categories including less than 1 year, 1-3 years, 4-5 years, 6-9 years, 10-14 years, and 15 years or more, with the numbers of respondents falling into each category are 20 (13.2%), 52 (34.2%), 19 (12.5%), 21 (13.8%), 13 (8.6%) and 27 (17.8%) respectively.

Living condition. The respondents were required to answer whether they are living in a single-household or multiple-household. Thirty-four respondents live in a single-household, which accounts for 22.4%, and 118 respondents reside in a multiple-household that accounts for 77.6%.

Living area. The respondents reported their living area by choosing either the urban area or non-urban area. There are 126 respondents (82.9%) living in the metropolitan area and 26 respondents (17.1%) living in the non-urban area.

2.3.2. Measures

Most of the measures used in this research were taken from established existing literature on each concept. The application of established inventories helps to ensure the reliability and validity of the measures to a certain extent.

Independent variables

Social support. The measure for social support was taken from the Short Inventory to Monitor Psychological Hazards (SIMPH) developed by Notelaers et al. (2007). This scale has 4 items including “If necessary, can you ask your colleagues for help?”; “In your work, do you feel appreciated by your colleagues?”; “If necessary, can you ask your direct boss for help?” and “In your work, do you feel appreciated by your direct boss?” (p. 13). Each item is rated on a 4-point scale. The response categories include never, sometimes, often, and always. The Notelaers study reported a Cronbach’s alpha of .74. In our research, Cronbach’s alpha was found to be .86, which reflects an excellent internal consistency.

Home office. The respondents were asked about the home office topic in two parts. In the first part, the respondents need to provide the answer on the 5-point scale for the question “During the last three months, how often have you worked from home?”. The response options include never, more seldom than weekly, 1-2 times/week, 3-4 times/week, and daily. In the second part, the participants provided their answer for the question, “On average, how many hours each day have you had communication on a digital platform (e.g., zoom, skype, teams)?”. The response categories were in 4 levels of last week, last month, last three months, and during the entire pandemic. The response categories comprise less than 1 hour, 1-2 hours, 3-5 hours, and 6 hours or more.

The first part of the home office questionnaire asks about the frequency. The question yields the ordinal variable. The second part asks for ratio information. Since we cannot compute two different types of measurement, we have standardized the values of each item and used the standardized values for further computation. Next step, we used the last item in the second part (average time spent on digital communication during the entire pandemic) and one item in the first part (working from home frequency during the last three months) to compute the home office. Both item variables were standardized before they were summarized into an index variable.

Job autonomy. The variable is measured using the Short Inventory to Monitor Psychological Hazards (SIMPH) developed by Notelaers (2007). On the 4-point scale ranging from never, sometimes, often, to always, the participants were asked to answer three questions, including “Do you have an influence on the pace of work?”; “Can you interrupt your work if you find it necessary to do so?” and “Can you decide on the order of priorities for your work activities?” (Notelaers et

al., 2007, p. 13). In the previous study, Cronbach's alpha was .72 (Notelaers et al., 2007). Our research recorded Cronbach's alpha of .69, a reasonably good number for the reliability test.

LMX leadership. LMX leadership is measured based on the inventory developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). The scale consists of 7 items, including “Do you know where you stand with your leader ... do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?”; “How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?”; “How well does your leader recognize your potential?”; “Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/ her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/ her power to help you solve problems in your work?”; “Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would “bail you out,” at his/ her expense?”; “I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/ her decision if he/she were not present to do so?”; “How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?” (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The respondents were asked to rank how often the situation happens or to rate how strongly they agree/disagree with the situation. In our study, Cronbach's alpha of .88 is reported for the LMX leadership scale.

Job insecurity. The standardized, two-dimensional scale developed by Hellgren (1999) to measure quantitative and qualitative job insecurity on a five-point Likert-type scale is used in this thesis to study job insecurity. The respondents were required to rate how strongly they agree/disagree with seven statements, including “I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to”; “There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job in the year to come”; “I feel uneasy about losing my job in the near future”; “My future career opportunities in the organization are favorable”; “I feel that the organization can provide me with a stimulating job content in the near future”; “I believe that the organization will need my competence also in the future”; “My pay development in this organization is promising” (Hellgren et al., 1999). The Cronbach's alpha of .72 indicates a good consistency among different items in the scale.

COVID-19 optimism. COVID-19 optimism scale is established based on the inventory measuring personal optimism developed by Gavrilov-Jerković (2014). Three items reflecting personal optimism were taken and adjusted to measure optimism during the COVID-19 pandemic. The participants grade to what extent they agree/disagree with given statements, including “Despite the covid-19 pandemic, I am facing my future in an optimistic way”; “Due to the covid-19 pandemic,

I can hardly think of something positive in the future”; “In spite of the covid-19 pandemic, I don’t worry about my future” (Gavrilov-Jerković et al., 2014). Cronbach’s alpha was recorded at .68.

Burnout. Our study measured two dimensions of burnout, including exhaustion and mental distance, using the scale developed by Schaufeli and associates (Schaufeli, De Witte, et al., 2019). All the items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from never to always. The respondents were asked to rate how often they experience the given situations described in 6 items. The items include “At work, I feel mentally exhausted”; “After a day at work, I find it hard to recover my energy”; “At work, I feel physically exhausted”; “I struggle to find any enthusiasm for my work”; “I feel a strong aversion towards my job”; “I’m cynical about what my work means to others” (Schaufeli, De Witte, et al., 2019). The Cronbach’s alpha of .80 was assessed as a good result for the reliability test.

Loneliness. We used a six-item Loneliness scale developed by Aanes et al. (2011). The items are: “I feel I have enough contact with people who care about me,” “I often feel lonesome,” “I feel it is difficult to talk with people I have not met before”, “I feel lonely even when I am around other people”, “I often feel that others do not understand me or my situation” and “I feel that others care about me” (Aanes et al., 2011, p. 996).

We gathered responses on a scale from not at all to very much, in between, only a little, somewhat, and quite a bit. The Cronbach’s alpha value is .77.

Employee engagement. To measure employee engagement, we have applied the Ultra-Short Measure for Work Engagement. This scale is three items ultra-short version of the nine Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9). Both measures share between 86% and 92% of their variances; it depends on the sample. The scale was tested in five countries: Finland, Japan, the Netherlands, Belgium, and Spain (Schaufeli, Shimazu, et al., 2019).

The scale consists of three questions as follows: “At my work, I feel bursting with energy,” “I am enthusiastic about my job,” and “I am immersed in my work” (Schaufeli, Shimazu, et al., 2019, p. 588). Moreover, the scale options go from strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat agree to agree strongly. Our research recorded Cronbach’s alpha of .66, a border coefficient of being acceptable, applying the reliability test.

Dependent variables

Loss of productivity. This variable was assessed by five items that are supposed to capture people's feelings, perceptions regarding both efforts putting at their job and the quality of the outcome during COVID-19 pandemic times. The items in the scales are as follows: During the COVID-19 pandemic... it is harder to be productive at work, it is harder to separate personal life and professional life, I feel less motivated for my work, it is harder to achieve my KPIs (Key Performance Indicators), and I feel disappointed with my performance.

All items were computed on a 5-point scale from strongly disagree to agree strongly, in between somewhat disagree, neither agree nor disagree, and somewhat agree. Since the authors created this scale, it has not been validated. Nonetheless, the result in Cronbach's alpha is .84, which indicates an excellent internal consistency.

Intention to leave. We measured this variable using the three items scale formulated to evaluate an overall turnover propensity. The items are: "I am actively looking for other jobs," "I feel that I could leave this job," and "If I were completely free to choose, I would leave this job" (Hellgren et al., 1997, p. 419). The result of the Cronbach's alpha in our research is 0.87, suggesting an excellent internal consistency.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Correlation coefficient analysis

The correlation analysis is based on the Pearson's product-moment r which involves both magnitude-strength and a direction of either positive or negative of the linear relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2016; Taylor, 1990). The result of correlation analysis provides us insightful information that helps to confirm the Affective Events Theory's perspective as a framework in this thesis. The findings show some strong correlations among the work events, affective reactions, employee engagement, and our two dependable variables (loss of productivity and intention to leave).

Three variables especially catch our attention due to either the null contribution into our framework, home office, or the strong correlation with the rest. One belongs to work events, LMX, and the second belongs to the affective reactions, burnout.

Table 1: Correlations between the variables in the study (Pearson's r)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 - Social support	12.98	2.77	1										
2 - Job autonomy	8.56	1.82	0.28**	1									
3 - Leader-member exchange	26.32	5.25	0.76**	0.22**	1								
4 - Job insecurity	16.07	4.97	-0.41**	-0.21*	-0.44**	1							
5 - Home office	.000	1.56	0.03	-0.08	0.00	-0.06	1						
6 - COVID-19 optimism	11.84	2.32	0.26**	0.21*	0.33**	-0.46**	-0.00	1					
7 - Burnout	14.1	3.73	-0.42**	-0.21**	-0.40**	0.34**	-0.02	-0.40**	1				
8 - Loneliness	12.77	4.09	-0.37**	-0.27**	-0.35**	0.40**	-0.04	-0.41**	0.54**	1			
9 - Employee engagement	11.14	2.05	0.27**	0.09	0.28**	-0.18*	0.00	0.34**	-0.42**	-0.25**	1		
10 - Loss of productivity	13.58	4.70	-0.22**	0.02	-0.18*	0.23**	-0.07	-0.30**	0.44**	0.38**	-0.26**	1	
11 - Intention to leave	7.26	3.60	-0.42**	-0.12	-0.43**	0.42**	0.07	-0.38**	0.56**	0.29**	-0.41**	0.22**	1

Note: * p <.05. ** p<.01. *** p<.001.

The home office standardized variable, in the correlation matrix, shows a null contribution with other variables, social support $r = 0.03$, $p = .76$; job autonomy, $r = -0.08$, $p = .36$; LMX, $r = 0.00$, $p = .97$; and job insecurity, $r = -0.06$, $p = .49$. We can conclude that the home office variable does not have any relationship along with the rest of the work events.

Regarding LMX, this variable possesses a positive correlation with social support, $r = 0.76$, $p < .01$, job autonomy, $r = 0.22$, $p < .01$, COVID-19 optimism, $r = 0.33$, $p < .01$, and employee engagement, $r = 0.28$, $p < .01$. On the other hand, LMX leadership was negatively associated with other variables, particularly, job insecurity, $r = -0.44$, $p < .01$, burnout, $r = -0.40$, $p < .01$, loneliness, $r = -0.35$, $p < .01$, and intention to leave, $r = -0.43$, $p < .01$.

We could suggest that the perception of LMX traits could significantly contribute to employees since they can perceive social support and job autonomy in dealing with their duties at work. These factors trigger the increase in employees' engagement, which leads to decreased negative aspects such as job insecurity, burnout, loneliness, and finally, the intention to leave.

In regard to burnout, this affective reaction possesses a negative correlation between social support, $r = -0.42$, $p < .01$, job autonomy, $r = -0.21$, $p < .01$, LMX, $r = -0.40$, $p < .01$, and employee engagement, $r = -0.42$, $p < .01$. On the contrary, there is a presence of a positive correlation with job insecurity, $r = 0.34$, $p < .01$, loneliness, $r = 0.54$, $p < .01$, and intention to leave, $r = 0.56$, $p < .01$. Considering the correlation results, we might propose a workplace that provides their employees' social support, job autonomy, and leaders with LMX characteristics. There is a high possibility they could not suffer from burnout and its negative consequences, such as job insecurity and loneliness, furthermore, to have the idea to leave the company.

Regarding our dependent variables i) loss of productivity, the correlation matrix indicates a positive connection with job insecurity, $r = 0.23$, $p < .01$, burnout, $r = 0.44$, $p < .01$, and loneliness, $r = 0.38$, $p < .01$. However, there is a negative connection with social support, $r = -0.22$, $p < .01$, LMX, $r = -0.18$, $p < .05$, COVID-19 optimism, $r = -0.30$, $p < .01$, and employee engagement, $r = -0.26$, $p < .01$. Based on the interconnection, we can conclude that employees who experience hardly or null social support at work and have a manager with scarcely or without LMX skills/traits have a high likelihood that employees either decrease or lose their productivity. Another factor that

leads to the same situation is whether the employees face job insecurity. Experiencing burnout and loneliness would likely lead to the loss of productivity.

When it comes to ii) intention to leave, there is a positive correlation between intention to leave with job insecurity, $r = 0.42$, $p < .01$, burnout, $r = 0.56$, $p < .01$, loneliness, $r = 0.29$, $p < .01$, and loss of productivity $r = 0.22$, $p < .01$. In contrast, negative connections are established with social support, $r = -0.42$, $p < .01$, LMX $r = -0.43$, $p < .01$, COVID-19 optimism, $r = -0.38$, $p < .01$, and employee engagement, $r = -0.41$, $p < .01$. In addition, considering the correlation between loss of productivity and intention to leave, it can be seen that if the employees have to deal with the loss of their productivity, there is a possibility that they would leave their job.

3.2. Regression analysis

Sample size

Considering the generalizability of the research outcomes when using multiple regression, Tabachnick and Fidell give a formula for calculating sample size requirements, taking into account the number of independent variables: $N > 50 + 8m$ (where m = number of independent variables) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 123). In the research, the maximum number of independent variables is 10 when the intention to leave is the dependent variable and loss of productivity is counted as an independent variable. Hence, the minimum requirement for sample size would be 130. With 152 valid respondents, our sample size satisfies the sample size requirement regarding generalizability.

Multicollinearity

According to Table 1, most independent variables are significantly correlated with Pearson's r number varying from 0.2 to 0.6. Given that Pearson's r numbers are not too high ($r < .70$, see Table 1), multicollinearity does not exist among independent variables because this methodological problem occurs when independent variables are strongly correlated ($r = .90$ and above) (Pallant, 2016).

Tolerance measures how much of the variability of the specified independent variable is not explained by the other independent variables in the model. If the Tolerance value is so small (less than .10), it means that the multiple correlations with other variables are very high. Hence, there

is the possibility of multicollinearity. VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) is the inverse of the Tolerance value. If VIF values are above 10, multicollinearity likely exists (Pallant, 2016). In our research, Tolerance values are all well above .10, and VIFs are far below 10. There is no possibility for the presence of multicollinearity (see Appendix 01 and Appendix 02).

Normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, independence of residuals

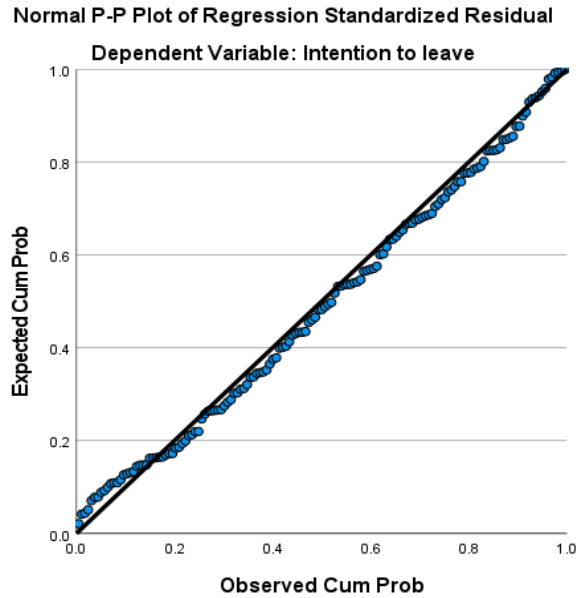


Figure 2: Normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual (Dependent variable: Intention to leave)

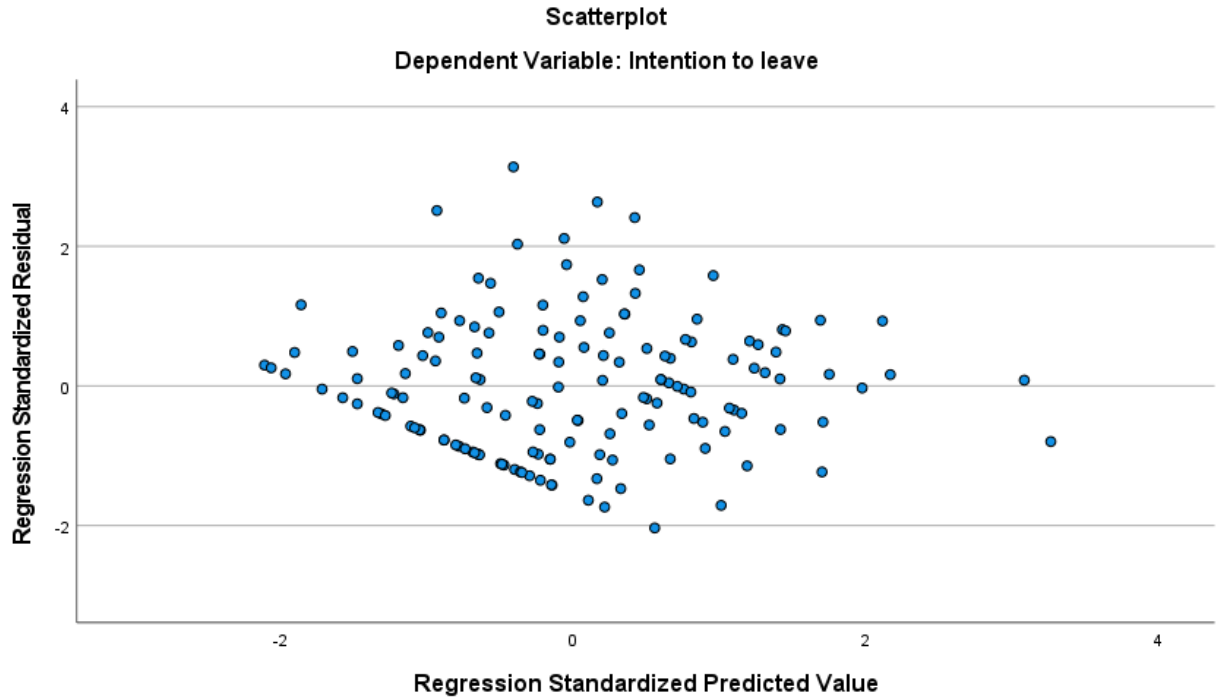


Figure 3: Scatter Plot (Dependent variable: Intention to leave)

All the Normal P-P Plot points lie in a reasonably straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right. The plot reflects that there are no major deviations from normality. In the Scatterplot, residuals are roughly rectangularly distributed, most of the scores are concentrated in the center (along with the 0 points).

Table 2: Results from separate regression analyses, block-by-block design, where Loss of productivity and Intention to leave are dependent variables.

Measure	Loss of productivity				Intention to leave				Intention to leave
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Gender	0.00	0.01	-0.04	-0.04	0.05	0.04	-0.01	-0.00	-0.01
Age	-0.09	-0.10	-0.00	-0.01	-0.03	-0.05	0.03	0.01	0.01
Social support		-0.19	-0.09	-0.09		-0.19	-0.12	-0.11	-0.12
Home office		-0.05	-0.03	-0.03		0.09	0.10	0.09	0.09
Job insecurity		0.18	0.03	0.03		0.27***	0.19*	0.20*	0.21*
Leader-member exchange		0.01	0.10	0.10		-0.17	-0.09	-0.08	-0.07
Job autonomy		0.12	0.17*	0.16*		0.04	0.06	0.05	0.06
COVID-19 optimism			-0.13	-0.11			-0.12	-0.08	-0.09
Burnout			0.31**	0.29*			0.47***	0.42***	0.44***
Loneliness			0.20*	0.20*			-0.15	-0.14	-0.13
Employee engagement				-0.05				-0.15*	-0.15*
Loss of productivity									-0.07
Adjusted R^2	-0.01	0.05	0.21	0.21	-0.01	0.24	0.39	0.41	0.41
ΔR^2	0.01	0.09	0.17	0.00	0.00	0.27	0.16	0.02	0.00
F	0.58	2.19	5.03	4.59	0.32	7.70	10.73	10.36	9.56
ΔF	0.58	2.83	10.60	0.42	0.32	10.61	13.20	4.25	0.87

Note. Standardized regression coefficients are shown. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

In situation 1: Loss of productivity is the dependent variable.

Multiple regression, blockwise designs were conducted. With such a design, it is possible to enter the variables into the regression equations in a specific order, to follow a rational build-up, in other words. After the variables in the control section, Block 1 (gender, age), have been entered and Block 2 (social support, home office, job insecurity, leader-member exchange, job autonomy), the regression equation explains 5% (Adjusted R square = .05) of the variance. After Block 3 variables (COVID-19 optimism, burnout, loneliness) have been included, the model explains 21% (Adjusted R square = .21). Thus, the affective events (COVID-19 optimism, burnout, loneliness) explain an additional 17% of the variance in loss of productivity, even when the effects of gender, age, and work events are statistically controlled for. The increase in explained variance is a statistically significant contribution (sig. F change < .001). Lastly, after the Block 4 variable (Employee engagement) has also been included, the model as a whole explains 21% (Adjusted R square = .21) of the variance of Loss of productivity.

Considering the model after all variables have been entered, job autonomy, burnout, and loneliness make a statistically significant contribution in explaining the variance of loss of productivity.

In situation 2.a: Intention to leave is the dependent variable, whereas loss of productivity is not included in the model.

After the variables in Block 1 (gender, age) have been entered and Block 2 (social support, home office, job insecurity, leader-member exchange, job autonomy) the model explains 24% (Adjusted R square = .24) of the variance. After Block 3 variables (COVID-19 optimism, burnout, loneliness) have been included, the model explains 39% (Adjusted R square = .39). Lastly, after the Block 4 variable (employee engagement) has also been included, the model as a whole explains 41% (Adjusted R square = .41) of the variance of intention to leave.

In situation 2.b: Intention to leave is the dependent variable, whereas loss of productivity is included in the model as an independent variable.

After the variables in Block 1 (gender, age) have been entered and Block 2 (social support, home office, job insecurity, leader-member exchange, job autonomy), the model explains 24% (Adjusted R square = .24) of the variance. After Block 3 variables (COVID-19 optimism, burnout, loneliness)

have been included, the model explains 39% (Adjusted R square = .39). After the Block 4 variable (employee engagement) has also been included, the model explains 41% (Adjusted R square = .41) of the variance. Lastly, after the Block 5 variable (loss of productivity) has also been entered, the model as a whole explains 41% (Adjusted R square = .41) of the variance of intention to leave.

For both situations 2.a and 2.b, in the final model, among all independent variables, job insecurity ($p < .05$), burnout ($p < .001$), and employee engagement ($p < .05$) are statistically significant to predict intention to leave.

Interaction effects testing

We tested the interaction effects of LMX leadership on other independent variables by firstly computing interaction variables, secondly performing regression analysis with normal independent variables. Then, we added the interaction variables into the regression analysis and executed the examination again. The same procedure was replicated to check the interaction effects of other independent variables. However, no significant interaction effect was found.

3.3. Hypothesis testing results

H1: Specific COVID-related work events significantly predict a) Job performance and b) Intention to leave.

The first hypothesis addressed whether specific COVID-19 work events are related to job performance and intention to leave. The various regression analysis presented in Table 2 provides the necessary information about whether this hypothesis can be confirmed or not. As can be seen in Table 2, considering the situation where loss of productivity is dependent variable, after affective events are included in the model (step 3), job autonomy ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < .05$), burnout ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < .01$), and loneliness ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < .05$) predict job performance. After employee engagement is entered (step 4), the full model explains 21% of variance of loss of productivity with a relatively similar outcome that job autonomy ($\beta = 0.16$, $p < .05$), burnout ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < .05$), and loneliness ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < .05$) are statistically significant. Among studied work events, job autonomy is the only factor contributing to predicting employees' performance. Higher level of job autonomy likely results in a lower level of loss of productivity.

Regarding intention to leave, in step 4, job insecurity ($\beta=0.20$, $p<.05$), burnout ($\beta=0.42$, $p<.001$), and employee engagement ($\beta= -0.15$, $p<.05$) are found to predict intention to leave (see Table 2). The outcome is just slightly different in terms of values of β after loss of productivity is included in the model (step 5). In particular, in step 5, job insecurity ($\beta=0.21$, $p<.05$), burnout ($\beta=0.44$, $p<.001$), and employee engagement ($\beta= -0.15$, $p<.01$) are statistically significant. The final model (step 5) explains 41% variance of intention to leave. Thus, job insecurity is the only work event variable predicting intention to leave. As job insecurity increases, likely, the intention to leave will also strengthen. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is partially confirmed.

H2: Affective events also contribute to predicting the two outcome variables a) Job performance and b) Intention to leave. Those affective events include COVID-19 optimism, burnout, and loneliness.

According to regression analysis outcomes presented in Table 2 and as mentioned above, in step 4, job autonomy ($\beta=0.16$, $p<.05$), burnout ($\beta=0.29$, $p<.05$), and loneliness ($\beta=0.20$, $p<.05$) predict job performance. Hence, among affective events, burnout and loneliness are predictors of job performance. As the level of burnout increases, the level of productivity is likely to decrease. A higher level of loneliness also leads to unproductive performance. Regarding intention to leave, in step 5, job insecurity ($\beta=0.21$, $p<.05$), burnout ($\beta=0.44$, $p<.001$), and employee engagement ($\beta= -0.15$, $p<.01$) are found as predictors. When the level of burnout or job insecurity increases, the turnover intention tends to decrease.

On the other hand, the increase in employee engagement will likely lead to a decrease in intention to leave. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is partially confirmed. Our findings align with the literature about the relationship of job insecurity, employee engagement, and burnout towards intention to leave.

H3: LMX leadership predicts a) Job performance and b) Intention to leave. LMX leadership may predict the two outcome measures directly (part a of the hypothesis) but may also indirectly affect (part b of the hypothesis).

According to regression analysis outcomes (see Table 2), we reject part a of Hypothesis 3 that LMX leadership predicts job performance and intention to leave. In the prediction model for loss

of productivity and intention to leave, beta values for LMX are 0.1 (step 4) and -0.07 (step 5) respectively and p-values are not significant. However, according to the correlation matrix, we confirm part b of Hypothesis 3 that LMX leadership might have an indirect effect. LMX leadership contributes in a special form to influence work and affective events due to the strong interaction among variables. As the relationship between leaders and members improves, loss of productivity and intention to leave will likely decrease.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Main findings

Job autonomy, burnout, and loneliness are predictors for loss of productivity

Our study shows that job autonomy, burnout and loneliness contribute to the prediction of job performance. Our finding is consistent with existing literature. Job autonomy has been linked to job performance; for instance, the Job Characteristic Model (JCM) argued that essentially enriched or complex jobs are associated with increased job satisfaction, motivation, and work performance. The model adopted five core characteristics, skill variety, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Autonomy leads to the outcomes of increased motivation and work effectiveness. Although, some studies have shown that the direct relationships between autonomy and performance have been either insignificant or null and inconsistent (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Langfred & Moyer, 2004; Morgeson et al., 2010). Tentatively a null correlation between job autonomy and job performance was also part of our outcome, as we mentioned earlier as part of our correlation matrix results.

It is mentioned that maybe there are other organizational factors to consider as a moderator between autonomy and job performances, namely some, degree of access to organizational resources, nature of the task, and experiences of the individual. For example, where individuals do not have sufficient information to make decisions, autonomy to perform the task might represent adverse effects due to cognitive distraction (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Langfred & Moyer, 2004; Morgeson et al., 2010).

There is evidence that remote employees are working more; also, they are less engaged. A study conducted by Harvard Business School reveals that people worked on average 48 minutes more

per day after the lockdown started (Kost, 2020). More time at work does not necessarily mean productivity; the University of Chicago and the University of Essex discovered remote workers upped their hours by 30% yet did not increase productivity (Gibbs et al., 2021).

According to Ozelik and Barsade, loneliness is a social phenomenon rather than a private problem. Loneliness is observable by employees' colleagues and significantly influences employee's performance in both employee's tasks and team member and team role effectiveness. Employees who are considered lonely by colleagues show stronger and more negative cues in the communication and interactions about the overall quality of the relationship between employees and colleagues. This association could increase the negative impacts and level of loneliness since the co-workers of lonely employees may likely withdraw from the relationships and offer fewer connections with lonely employees. Employee's work loneliness leads to emotional withdrawal from their organization, as illustrated in their increased surface behaviors and reduced affective commitment (Ozelik & Barsade, 2011). It is found that being lonelier at work is related to lower job performance. The relationship between a higher level of loneliness and lower job performance is mediated by the lower approachability of lonelier employees and their lesser affective commitment to the organization. In addition, the culture of companionate love, culture of anger, and loneliness of employees' coworkers have moderating roles to influence the connection between loneliness and job performance (Ozelik & Barsade, 2018).

According to Parker and Kulik (1995), burnout was highly correlated with poor self-evaluated and supervisor-evaluated job performance. Burnout was also associated with sick leave, and it was found that reported absence were significantly related to mental health issues (P. A. Parker & Kulik, 1995). Moreover, Taris (2006) presented two possible arguments explaining why high levels of burnout could result in lower levels of job performance. The first argument relates to the idea that job stressors or job demands decrease the ability of employees to control their working environment that could lead to reduced productivity (Bakker et al., 2004). The exhaustion dimension of burnout might mediate the relationship between stressors and performance because exhaustion refers to decreasing individual energy. Therefore, experiencing exhaustion implies that employees lack sufficient resources to handle the job demands effectively, thus, potentially leading to low job performance (Taris, 2006). The second possible argument involves fatigue, which refers to the intolerance of any effort (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005). Thorndike (1914) referred to fatigue as the inability and the unwillingness to spend effort on performing a specific task. This situation

illustrates the energetical aspect (exhaustion) and motivational aspect (disengagement/depersonalization). Employees experiencing burnout are unable and unwilling to expend effort, resulting in low performance (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005).

Job insecurity, burnout, and employee engagement are predictors for intention to leave

Regarding intention to leave, we found that job insecurity, burnout, and employee significantly predict turnover intention. Several research studies also support this finding. Jourdain and Chênevert studied the connections between stressors related to burnout, represented by a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and nurses' intention to change their careers. Using the job demands-resources (JD-R) model of burnout, Jourdain and Chênevert's study shows that burnout, particularly the emotional exhaustion dimension, plays a vital role in the link between stress factors connected to nurses' work and social environment and their decision to leave the profession (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2010). The influence of burnout on intention to leave is also supported by the study of Rani Thanacoody et al. (2009). Weisberg (1994) found that physical and mental burnout components have significant impacts on explaining workers' turnover intention, while emotional burnout does not.

According to Jung et al. (2021), in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, feelings of job insecurity had a detrimental impact on the engagement of deluxe hotel staff. Furthermore, employees' job engagement might reduce the likelihood of turnover. It is pointed out that job insecurity has connections with negative perceptions of physical and mental health, a lower level of job satisfaction, and a higher level of intention to leave (Barling & Kelloway, 1996; Hellgren et al., 1999). However, Schalkwyk et al. (2010) found that job insecurity was not statistically associated with turnover intention in the context of a petrochemical laboratory.

Du Plooy and Roodt (2010) presented a predictive model where work engagement, burnout, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and work alienation contribute to predicting intention to leave. In particular, the model showed that work engagement and OCBs were significantly negatively associated with intention to leave, whereas burnout and work alienation were significantly positively correlated with turnover intention.

The home office does not affect job performance and intention to leave

The analysis results reveal that home office does not correlate with affective events (burnout, loneliness, COVID-19 optimism) and work attitude (employee engagement). In addition, the home office variable does not have a predicting role on job performance and intention to leave. Previous studies have shown mixed outcomes about the impacts of the home office on productivity. Some studies found the positive influences of working from home on employee's performance (Coenen & Kok, 2014; Kamei et al., 2013; Kazekami, 2020; Neufeld & Fang, 2004). However, some other studies pointed out the negative effect on workers' productivity (Kazekami, 2020). According to Weitzer and his colleagues, during the COVID-19 pandemic, quality of life and perceived productivity increased in one part of the Austrian population but decreased in the other part. However, it is concluded that the transition to a more flexible working schedule for employees could positively impact personal and professional life. It is important to note that working from home and related benefits varied according to gender, age, and educational attainment (Weitzer et al., 2021). Bao and associates found that working from home has different impacts on developer productivity due to several reasons. For most developers, comparing working from home and working onsite, it is also argued that home office does not cause a significant difference in productivity. Thus, it is encouraged to consider home offices as an option for work arrangements because of other benefits such as cost-saving and flexible working time for developers (Bao et al., 2021).

COVID-19 related variables do not have an impact on job performance and intention to leave

The outcome of our research shows that COVID-19 optimism does not affect job performance and intention to leave. In addition, as mentioned above, in our study, working from home, which is one of the consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic, also has no effect on employee's performance and turnover intention. Considering that the majority of participants in our research were living and working in Norway, one explanation could be that the COVID-19 has been handled relatively well in Norway which led to a moderate impact on people's lives. It is found by Christensen and Lægreid that in comparison to many other countries, Norway has handled the crisis well. The Norwegian government was able to react to the pandemic relatively quickly by executing a suppression strategy, followed by a control strategy. On top of that, it is important to take into consideration that Norway is a high-trust society with a reliable and professional bureaucracy and

competent politicians. The country is a strong, big welfare state which is in a good economic situation and has a low population density (Christensen & Læg Reid, 2020). Norway has always been among one of the countries at the top of Bloomberg's Covid Resilience Ranking. By May 2021, Norway ranked 7th on the list and the country used to be in the 4th place in the January 2021 update (Hong et al., 2021). Moreover, during the pandemic, employees are encouraged to work from home, the digitalization level of the country could positively facilitate for both employees and employers. Norway is one of the heavily digitized countries which ranked in the top 10 of 2020 worldwide ranking about country-level digital competitiveness (Liu, 2020). The digitalization capabilities might also help to ease the difficulties that the pandemic brought to the business sector in Norway. Nevertheless, our research finding regarding the impact of COVID-related variables on job performance and intention to leave is limited and might not be generalized for the whole of Norway or a larger scale due to our non-representative sample which will be addressed later in the methodological issues part.

The indirect influences of LMX on job performance and intention to leave

The human and economic impacts associated with job burnout underscore the need for research that explores factors that can assist in reducing the effects of stressful working conditions. Some researchers have highlighted the necessity to investigate organizational interventions for mitigating burnout; some work-context factors are likely to cause (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Our data collection analysis outcome reveals a strong LMX correlation with work events, such as social support, job autonomy, and job insecurity. Moreover, LMX also impacts affective events, for example, COVID-19 optimism, burnout, loneliness, and employee engagement. Thus, LMX leadership indirectly affects job performance (loss of productivity) and intention to leave.

LMX plays a crucial role in our model, making a domino effect through the different segments of the model. LMX makes notable influences in work events on how employees experience work events as part of their daily duties, consequently, how employees feel about affective events, mainly burnout and loneliness. Hence, both employee's experiences and feelings trigger engagement with their job and the organization. The employees' commitment also boosts job performance and intention to leave, either positive or negative effects.

Regarding how LMX might prevent burnout and help employees perceive the earlier mentioned work events in a more positive form, the leadership style basically implies showing genuine social support. In the work context, social support unfolds via interpersonal exchanges that demonstrate emotional concern, instrumental aid, and information sharing by coworkers (Halbesleben, 2006). Giving feedback, setting forums to promote support from colleagues, supervisory coaching, participating in decision making, recognition, and providing advancement opportunities may also denote social support (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Both the conservation of resources (COR) model and the JD-R model (job demand resources) emphasize the essential role of social support, since it may reduce the likelihood of burnout, strengthen positive aspects of self (Halbesleben, 2006), and other resources can build such as autonomy and developmental opportunities (Breevaart et al., 2015).

The quality of the relationships with a leader represents a valuable resource that can help employees handle job demands and reduce the possibility of burnout (Thomas & Lankau, 2009). Also, these relationships initiate a motivational process, whereby the interaction between LMX and employees' job performance is sequentially mediated by developmental opportunities, social support, and work engagement (Breevaart et al., 2015). Therefore, this contributes to work engagement and indirectly also positively persuades the organization (Breevaart et al., 2015).

The supervisor's burnout symptoms could be addressed in different settings, which can promote interaction with employees to have the opportunity to feel the organization pulse. Then, the supervisors can take action to steer a corrective action plan before early symptoms become full-blown burnout. Individuals who reported higher-quality relationships with their supervisors were better socialized and experienced lower role stress. Furthermore, lower role stress would equate to lower burnout (Thomas & Lankau, 2009). Some studies have shown that workers with high-quality exchange with their supervisor/line manager tend to receive better organization and job-related information, more significant job direction, and higher objective performance ratings (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Thus, according to the JD-R model, managers can be viewed as a resource once high-quality relationships lead to information and concrete resources (Erdogan & Enders, 2007). Correspondingly, the quality of LMX is positively related to organizational socialization (Thomas & Lankau, 2009); support and increased communication may help reduce uncertainty and

ambiguity (Harris & Kacmar, 2006). The quality of the LMX relationship is associated with the quality of the work environment (Breevaart et al., 2015).

However, the results also mean that a lower relationship between supervisor/manager and employee is associated with role stress (Thomas & Lankau, 2009). Erdogan and Liden (2002) proposed that LMX fairness perception is visible in in-group members. Out-group members may negatively influence employees' attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, being in a low rating in LMX may be perceived as a threat according to the COR model or an additional demand associated with psychological cost, for instance, attempting to improve the relationship.

4.2. Implications

In our research, according to the regression analysis, burnout appears to be a critical factor to affect and predict both loss of productivity and intention to leave. In addition, employees who experience burnout also suffer from health problems (Maslach et al., 1997). Hence, organizations could take burnout seriously and have practices in place to prevent burnout. Schaufeli et al. (2009) raised the perspective of rephrasing burnout as the erosion of engagement. It is vitally important to foster engagement where the organization not only tries to engage the employees' body but also their mind and soul (Ulrich, 1997).

To increase the likelihood of effective burnout prevention, Maslach et al. (2001) review the combination of changing the individual and changing the organization. The research literature suggests the focus on both employees and the work environment to deal with burnout. It is necessary to have managerial practices to change the six areas of work-life, including workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values, and equip individuals with the right skills and attitudes to cope with their demands. At the individual level, intervention strategies like developing effective coping skills or training relaxation and meditation can help to alleviate exhaustion. At the organizational level, the six areas of work-life allow the adoption of a broader range of interventions. In particular, instead of focusing on reducing workload or training individuals to cope with high workload levels, it might be more effective to concentrate on solving the other mismatches. For example, employees can tolerate a more significant workload if they see the value of their work and feel an attachment with what they do, or they think that they are well-rewarded for their efforts. Hence, the organization can target other aspects like value and reward rather than workload (Maslach et al., 2001).

The combination of the managerial and education approach emphasizes engagement at work. The focus on engagement fosters and strengthens the connection between individuals and the organization's mission. The engagement focus may shift the intervention's target from reducing burnout to building engagement, which increases the accountability of the intervention because it is more definite to assess the existence of something rather than the absence of its opponent (Maslach et al., 2001).

When it comes to loneliness, our study points out that loneliness is one of the predictors of the intention to leave. Masi and associates review the literature regarding intervention to reduce loneliness and point out four main strategies for loneliness and social isolation interventions. They are “(a) improving social skills, (b) enhancing social support, (c) increasing opportunities for social interaction, and (d) addressing maladaptive social cognition” (Masi et al., 2011, p. 222). The number of relationships and social interactions are not as important as its quality to address loneliness. Hence, increasing social interactions and enhancing social support may reduce social isolation more than loneliness. On the other hand, improving social skills and addressing maladaptive social cognition aim to enhance the quality of social interaction, thus, help to deal with loneliness more directly (Masi et al., 2011).

Considering the COVID-19 pandemic situation where employees are either required or encouraged to work from home or are ordered to follow social distancing regulations, the number of social interactions will be reduced significantly. However, according to Masi et al. (2011), individuals can keep in touch with several most essential relationships rather than focusing on the number of connections.

Regarding job autonomy, for managers to decide whether to grant a specific degree of individual autonomy, they would have information about how motivated the employee is by autonomy and how much knowledge the employee possesses to develop the task (Langfred & Moye, 2004). Employees high in intrinsic motivation seem to deal with the increased responsibility and preference offered or required by the organization by performing better when they have adopted the structure and rules surrounding their roles and obligations at work. On the contrary, low levels of intrinsic motivation seem to respond less positively to perceived job autonomy (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011).

The COVID-19 pandemic has negatively affected the global economy. Many industries have been hit hard by the pandemic that led to large-scale downsizing globally. The pandemic effect could be seen in association with job insecurity among employees, associated with plans to leave (Jung et al., 2021, p. 19). It is essential to create a stable working environment and well-informed employees about potential changes. To reduce the job insecurity level, managers should establish a close relationship with employees to detect employee issues. Moreover, involving employees in the decision-making processes will allow employees to understand the organization's difficulties and be sympathetic with the organization's goals and decisions (Jung et al., 2021).

LMX leadership - Mentoring program during crisis

Due to the strong LMX connection with other variables in the model, organizations could benefit from the positive LMX influence over employees; therefore, we propose a mentoring program. This program might consist of two forms: the mentor could be the direct manager, and the second one has a mentor from a different area. Mentoring has been defined as an interpersonal work relationship in which a senior and more experienced organizational member supports a younger and less experienced member in their career development (Kram & Hall, 1989). Recent definitions of mentoring have removed the age and experience stipulations in acknowledgment of the nature of today's workforce, in which inexperienced younger employees may be supervising older employees or coaching them on skills such as technology competence (Ragins & Kram, 2007).

The goal of this program would be transmitting encouragement, counsel, and social support during challenging times (Kram & Hall, 1989; Smith et al., 2001). Mentors provide support to their protégés and offer them opportunities to explore and take new risks. New experiences often result in the protégés' increased self-esteem, enhanced self-image, confidence, and efficacy (Kram & Hall, 1989; Smith et al., 2001). Furthermore, through the development functions, mentors could assist their protégés in clarifying their work roles; consequently, they might perceive fewer role stressors and experience more positive attitudes (Lankau et al., 2006).

On the other hand, a nonsupervisory mentor could provide access to a network of resources, for example, information and relationships. These resources enable employees to address their job demands better (Thomas & Lankau, 2009). Additionally, employees who received mentoring outside the supervisory relationship stated higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment than counterparts who did not have that additional support (Scandura & Williams, 2004).

4.3. Methodological issues

Several limitations can be found in this research and need to be addressed. Firstly, due to using a cross-sectional research design, we cannot discuss the causal relationship between variables (Bryman et al., 2019). Thus, we cannot interpret the direction of the connections. For example, it might not be that the employees suffering from burnout will have the intention to leave, but it might be that employees who intend to leave will experience burnout. To deduce the causal relationships, it is necessary to conduct a longitudinal study (Bryman et al., 2019).

Secondly, in this current research, the dataset has good distribution regarding age and gender of respondents. However, there are some weaknesses regarding the sample of the study. Due to limited time and resources, the data collection is conducted at the convenience of the authors. Specifically, the potential respondents were reached out within the author's network. Moreover, the link to the survey was posted on digital platforms like Facebook and LinkedIn. Thus, even though we intended to research with respondents working in Norway, there might be possibilities that employees living and working in other countries also took the survey. Therefore, we do not obtain a representative sample that causes the generalization issue to the research findings.

Regarding sample size, with the sample size of 152 responses, even though it is sufficient to perform the quantitative analyses, it is still a relatively small sample (Pallant, 2016). In addition, with a minimal number of responses for each industry (about 30 respondents or less each), we cannot have the analyses for each business sector to compare and contrast the findings among different sectors, which was one of our original intentions.

Thirdly, the research is based on a self-reported questionnaire. Despite the convenience in terms of efforts, time, and costs, self-reported questionnaires also pose several limitations. The main disadvantage of self-reported questionnaires is providing invalid responses where respondents may not answer truthfully because of the sensitivity of the questions. This issue is known as social desirability bias, in which the question will be answered in a socially accepted manner. In other situations, informants may respond in the way they want instead of choosing the answers showing how they think. Some problems affect the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. For example, the respondents may answer the questions in a particular pattern regardless of the questions. Another issue might be that the limited answering option does not allow the respondents to express

their views accurately (Chang et al., 2010; Demetriou et al., 2015; P. M. Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

4.4. Conclusion

COVID-19 pandemic has arrived to test and challenge the entire world, businesses, and ourselves to see how fast we can react, adapt to multiple changes. Unfortunately, this pandemic comes along with a high level of uncertainty in various sectors.

In this time of a devastating worldwide crisis, new rules have been set worldwide by governments and private companies, such as closing the borders, reducing travel as much as possible to avoid massive concentrations of people, teaching digitally, and working from home. As a consequence of these constraints and the continuous aim to stimulate the economy, organizations launched several initiatives to protect their employees from unnecessary risk. New ways of working have been established as a further regular, less face-to-face interaction as a primary rule; therefore, the home office has been part of our working life since 2020. Organizations have been pushed to redefine their ways of working by thinking more digitally.

This thesis analyzes variables in three categories, i) work events, ii) affective reactions and iii) employee engagement to find how these variables might influence job performance and intention to leave.

The outcomes of this study give us insightful information regarding what variables are relevant to consider for organizations to prevent and improve to minimize the risk of loss of productivity and intention to leave. The results of our regression analysis show that burnout, loneliness, and job autonomy predict job performance. However, when it comes to intention to leave, the variables that predict this behavior are burnout, job insecurity, and employee engagement.

As a final finding, our correlation matrix shows LMX leadership with solid interactions among work events (job insecurity, social support, job autonomy), affective events (burnout, loneliness), work attitudes (employee engagement), and dependable variables (job performance, intention to leave). Hence, we propose that organizations consider setting corrective and preventive plans taking into consideration the LMX characteristics. These come along with a big impact on other variables.

There are a few limitations in our research that should be addressed in future research. Firstly, consider the possibility of researching a larger scale to collect enough responses from the different industries for the quantitative analysis of each sector. There is a possibility that the way of thinking and the reaction behaviors to COVID-19 are different from one industry to another, leading to inconsistent findings for different sectors.

Secondly, the thesis is limited only to measure perception at a specific point of time during the development of COVID-19. Hence, conducting longitudinal research would be beneficial to understand better how employees' opinions and thinking change over time.

Last but not least, regarding job performances, it might be more reliable to have a different scale to measure rather than a self-rating one, for example, having supervisors' feedback, 360 feedback from the main stakeholders, or conducting interviews. The aim is to collect a more objective metric.

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Appendices

Appendix 01: Coefficients table with Tolerance and VIF values (Dependent variable: Intention to leave)

		Coefficients ^a										
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t		Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	6.942	1.219		5.693	<.001						
	What is your age?	-.098	.252	-.032	-.390	.697	-.037	-.032	-.032	.990	1.010	
	What is your gender?	.389	.593	.054	.656	.513	.057	.054	.054	.990	1.010	
2	(Constant)	9.651	2.526		3.820	<.001						
	What is your age?	-.154	.221	-.050	-.696	.487	-.037	-.058	-.050	.971	1.030	
	What is your gender?	.291	.527	.040	.551	.582	.057	.046	.039	.947	1.056	
	Home office_simplified	.204	.167	.089	1.225	.223	.072	.102	.087	.972	1.029	
	Social support	-.252	.147	-.194	-1.719	.088	-.419	-.142	-.123	.397	2.518	
	Job insecurity	.199	.059	.275	3.382	<.001	.418	.272	.241	.771	1.297	
	Job autonomy	.084	.151	.042	.557	.578	-.125	.047	.040	.877	1.141	
	Leader-member exchange	-.116	.078	-.170	-1.491	.138	-.425	-.124	-.106	.392	2.548	
3	(Constant)	5.147	3.234		1.592	.114						
	What is your age?	.078	.209	.025	.372	.711	-.037	.031	.024	.868	1.151	
	What is your gender?	-.097	.477	-.013	-.203	.839	.057	-.017	-.013	.922	1.084	
	Home office_simplified	.220	.149	.096	1.479	.141	.072	.124	.094	.968	1.033	
	Social support	-.153	.134	-.118	-1.141	.256	-.419	-.096	-.073	.380	2.634	
	Job insecurity	.139	.057	.191	2.420	.017	.418	.200	.154	.646	1.548	
	Job autonomy	.109	.136	.055	.806	.422	-.125	.068	.051	.859	1.164	
	Leader-member exchange	-.060	.071	-.088	-.849	.398	-.425	-.072	-.054	.380	2.631	
	COVID_19 optimism	-.189	.123	-.122	-1.532	.128	-.378	-.128	-.097	.637	1.571	
	Loneliness	-.127	.071	-.145	-1.787	.076	.286	-.149	-.114	.613	1.632	
Burnout	.449	.079	.466	5.708	<.001	.567	.434	.363	.607	1.648		
4	(Constant)	7.651	3.420		2.237	.027						
	What is your age?	.022	.208	.007	.105	.917	-.037	.009	.007	.854	1.171	
	What is your gender?	-.033	.472	-.005	-.069	.945	.057	-.006	-.004	.918	1.089	
	Home office_simplified	.218	.147	.094	1.478	.142	.072	.124	.093	.968	1.033	
	Social support	-.143	.132	-.110	-1.078	.283	-.419	-.091	-.068	.379	2.637	
	Job insecurity	.147	.057	.203	2.592	.011	.418	.215	.163	.643	1.556	
	Job autonomy	.104	.134	.053	.777	.439	-.125	.066	.049	.859	1.164	
	Leader-member exchange	-.053	.070	-.078	-.763	.446	-.425	-.065	-.048	.379	2.636	
	COVID_19 optimism	-.128	.125	-.083	-1.021	.309	-.378	-.086	-.064	.601	1.663	
	Loneliness	-.124	.070	-.142	-1.767	.079	.286	-.148	-.111	.613	1.632	
Burnout	.400	.081	.416	4.931	<.001	.567	.386	.310	.556	1.799		
Employee engagement	-.262	.127	-.149	-2.061	.041	-.403	-.172	-.130	.753	1.328		
5	(Constant)	7.950	3.437		2.313	.022						
	What is your age?	.020	.208	.006	.094	.925	-.037	.008	.006	.854	1.171	
	What is your gender?	-.053	.473	-.007	-.112	.911	.057	-.009	-.007	.916	1.091	
	Home office_simplified	.212	.147	.092	1.440	.152	.072	.122	.091	.967	1.034	
	Social support	-.151	.133	-.116	-1.136	.258	-.419	-.096	-.071	.378	2.649	
	Job insecurity	.149	.057	.205	2.618	.010	.418	.217	.165	.642	1.558	
	Job autonomy	.126	.136	.064	.928	.355	-.125	.079	.058	.832	1.201	
	Leader-member exchange	-.048	.070	-.071	-.691	.491	-.425	-.059	-.043	.377	2.651	
	COVID_19 optimism	-.140	.126	-.091	-1.111	.268	-.378	-.094	-.070	.595	1.681	
	Loneliness	-.113	.072	-.128	-1.573	.118	.286	-.133	-.099	.593	1.685	
	Burnout	.420	.084	.436	5.006	<.001	.567	.392	.315	.522	1.916	
Employee engagement	-.268	.127	-.153	-2.109	.037	-.403	-.177	-.133	.751	1.332		
Loss of productivity	-.052	.056	-.068	-.932	.353	.220	-.079	-.059	.734	1.363		

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to leave

Appendix 02: Coefficients table with Tolerance and VIF values (Dependent variable: Loss of productivity)

		Coefficients ^a									
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	14.486	1.593		9.091	<.001					
	What is your age?	-.352	.329	-.088	-1.070	.287	-.088	-.088	-.088	.990	1.010
	What is your gender?	.010	.775	.001	.012	.990	.010	.001	.001	.990	1.010
2	(Constant)	13.205	3.687		3.581	<.001					
	What is your age?	-.419	.323	-.105	-1.298	.196	-.088	-.108	-.103	.971	1.030
	What is your gender?	.131	.769	.014	.171	.865	.010	.014	.014	.947	1.056
	Home office_simplified	-.158	.243	-.052	-.648	.518	-.071	-.054	-.052	.972	1.029
	Social support	-.325	.214	-.191	-1.517	.132	-.224	-.126	-.121	.397	2.518
	Job insecurity	.167	.086	.177	1.951	.053	.229	.161	.155	.771	1.297
	Job autonomy	.304	.220	.118	1.386	.168	.018	.115	.110	.877	1.141
	Leader-member exchange	.007	.113	.008	.062	.950	-.184	.005	.005	.392	2.548
3	(Constant)	4.522	4.826		.937	.350					
	What is your age?	-.014	.311	-.003	-.044	.965	-.088	-.004	-.003	.868	1.151
	What is your gender?	-.413	.711	-.044	-.581	.562	.010	-.049	-.042	.922	1.084
	Home office_simplified	-.103	.222	-.034	-.461	.645	-.071	-.039	-.033	.968	1.033
	Social support	-.160	.200	-.094	-.802	.424	-.224	-.068	-.058	.380	2.634
	Job insecurity	.027	.085	.028	.314	.754	.229	.027	.023	.646	1.548
	Job autonomy	.428	.202	.165	2.116	.036	.018	.176	.153	.859	1.164
	Leader-member exchange	.090	.105	.101	.856	.393	-.184	.072	.062	.380	2.631
	COVID_19 optimism	-.260	.184	-.128	-1.411	.161	-.303	-.118	-.102	.637	1.571
	Loneliness	.225	.106	.196	2.115	.036	.382	.176	.153	.613	1.632
	Burnout	.392	.117	.311	3.339	.001	.438	.272	.242	.607	1.648
4	(Constant)	5.716	5.173		1.105	.271					
	What is your age?	-.040	.315	-.010	-.128	.898	-.088	-.011	-.009	.854	1.171
	What is your gender?	-.383	.714	-.041	-.536	.593	.010	-.045	-.039	.918	1.089
	Home office_simplified	-.104	.223	-.034	-.466	.642	-.071	-.040	-.034	.968	1.033
	Social support	-.155	.200	-.092	-.776	.439	-.224	-.066	-.056	.379	2.637
	Job insecurity	.031	.086	.033	.360	.720	.229	.030	.026	.643	1.556
	Job autonomy	.426	.203	.165	2.099	.038	.018	.175	.152	.859	1.164
	Leader-member exchange	.093	.106	.104	.883	.379	-.184	.075	.064	.379	2.636
	COVID_19 optimism	-.231	.190	-.114	-1.216	.226	-.303	-.103	-.088	.601	1.663
	Loneliness	.226	.107	.197	2.123	.035	.382	.177	.154	.613	1.632
	Burnout	.369	.123	.293	3.002	.003	.438	.247	.218	.556	1.799
	Employee engagement	-.125	.192	-.054	-.650	.517	-.253	-.055	-.047	.753	1.328

a. Dependent Variable: Loss of productivity

Appendix 03: Questionnaire

You are invited to participate in a research project designed to examine ***"What are the strategies for the company to maintain and develop employee engagement and employee performance during uncertain events as COVID-19?"***.

If you choose to take part in the project, this will involve that you will fill in the following online survey. It will take approximately 5 minutes.

The responses are collected anonymously and stored confidentially.

We will process your response based on your consent.

- Yes. I consent
- No. I don't consent

What is your age?

- 18 - 29
- 30 - 39
- 40 - 49
- 50 - 59
- 60 or older

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

Which industry does your company belong to?

- Media
- Seafood
- Finance
- Ocean Technology
- Shipping
- Academic institutions
- Other/Prefer not to answer

Do you have subordinates/manage a team? (Are you in the leadership position?)

- Yes
- No

How many years have you been working in your current organization?

- Less than 1 year
- 1 - 3
- 4 - 5
- 6 - 9
- 10 - 14
- 15 years or more

What kind of living condition are you in?

- Single-household (Live alone)
- Multiple-household (Live with others)

Which area are you living in?

- Urban area
- Non-urban area

Please answer following questions

	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. If necessary, can you ask your colleagues for help?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. In your work, do you feel appreciated by your colleagues?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. If necessary, can you ask your direct boss for help?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. In your work, do you feel appreciated by your direct boss?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

During the last three months, how often have you worked from home?

- Never
- More seldom than weekly
- 1-2 times/week
- 3-4 times/week
- Daily

On average, how many hours each day have you had communication on a digital platform (e.g. zoom, skype, teams)?

	Less than 1 hour	1-2	3-5	6 hours or more
1. Hours each day the <u>last week</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Hours each day the <u>last month</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Hours each day the <u>last three months</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Hours each day during the <u>entire pandemic</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your opinion about each of the following statements

	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. Do you have an influence on the pace of work?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Can you interrupt your work if you find it necessary to do so?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Can you decide on the order of priorities for your work activities?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Do you know where you stand with your leader ... do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?

- Rarely
- Occasionally
- Sometimes
- Fairly
- Often
- Very Often

How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?

- Not a Bit
- A Little
- A Fair Amount
- Quite a Bit
- A Great Deal

How well does your leader recognize your potential?

- Not at All
- A Little
- Moderately
- Mostly Fully

Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/ her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/ her power to help you solve problems in your work?

- None
- Small
- Moderate
- High
- Very High

Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would “bail you out,” at his/ her expense?

- None
- Small
- Moderate
- High
- Very High

I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/ her decision if he/she were not present to do so?

- Strongly Disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

- Extremely Ineffective
- Worse Than Average
- Average
- Better Than Average
- Extremely Effective

Please indicate your opinion about each of the following statements

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1. I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job in the year to come	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. I feel uneasy about losing my job in the near future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. My future career opportunities in the organization are favorable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I feel that the organization can provide me with a stimulating job content in the near future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. I believe that the organization will need my competence also in the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. My pay development in this organization is promising	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your opinion about each of the following statements

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1. In spite of the covid-19 pandemic, I am facing my future in an optimistic way	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Due to the covid-19 pandemic, I can hardly think of something positive in the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. In spite of the covid-19 pandemic, I don't worry about my future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please answer following questions

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. At work, I feel mentally exhausted	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. After a day at work, I find it hard to recover my energy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. At work, I feel physically exhausted	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I struggle to find any enthusiasm for my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I feel a strong aversion towards my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. I'm cynical about what my work means to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your opinion about each of the following statements

	Not at all	Only a little	Somewhat	Quite a bit	Very much
1. I feel I have enough contact with people who care about me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I often feel lonesome	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. I feel it is difficult to talk with people I have not met before	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I feel lonely even when I am around other people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. I often feel that others do not understand me or my situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. I feel that others care about me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your opinion about each of the following statements

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I am enthusiastic about my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. I am immersed in my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your opinion about each of the following statements

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1. I am actively looking for other jobs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I feel that I could leave this job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. If I was completely free to choose I would leave this job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your opinion about each of the following statements.

During the COVID-19 pandemic,...

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
1.it is harder to be productive at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2.it is harder to separate personal life and professional life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3.I feel less motivated for my work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. ... it is harder to achieve my KPIs (Key Performance Indicators)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5.I feel disappointed with my performance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>