



Institutionen för tjänstvetenskap

Thesis for Bachelor's Degree

Workplace Relationships in Hybrid Work

A quantitative study on the correlation between relationships and willingness to work in the office in hybrid working arrangements

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Word count: 11 612

Group: 66

Supervisor:

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Bachelor Thesis

SEMK65

VT 2026

Acknowledgements

This Bachelor Thesis is connected to the Department of Service Studies at Lund University, Campus Helsingborg, and was conducted during the spring of 2026. This thesis work has been educational and has contributed with valuable experiences and development. The process itself has been challenging, but has also given us the opportunity to deepen our knowledge and develop our abilities of conducting scientific studies.

We would like to start by thanking all respondents who took the time to answer our survey, without your participation we would not have been able to carry out the study. We would also like to extend a big thank you to our supervisor Alina Lidén for guidance, encouragement and the opportunities to discuss our ideas during the process.

Finally, we would like to thank our families and friends for their patience and encouragement along the way, especially considering how many times we talked and grumbled about collecting enough answers to our survey!

Signed by the authors, 28 May 2026

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Abstract

As hybrid work structures become more common and organizations seek to return to the office, a relevant question arises about the role social relationships in the workplace play in employees' choice of workplace. The aim of this study is to examine whether workplace relationships correlate to employees' willingness to choose the office over working remotely, with a particular focus on workplace relationships and connections to social aspects and extra-role performance. The study is based on five hypotheses to guide and structure the process and findings, and the data collection was done using a quantitative survey. Using social exchange theory, the norm of reciprocity, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), extra-role performance, and the job demands-resources model (JD-R) certain behaviors and interactions are operationalized, with the aim of evaluating potential correlations and their strengths. Calculations and evaluations are mainly correlational bivariate and regression analyses, as well as chi-square tests. The calculations and results are based on 239 respondents who have the possibility to work remotely in their current work position.

We found limited support for our hypotheses. Only the hypothesis that employees who experience higher levels of social support from colleagues are more likely to participate in extra-role performance can be fully accepted. However, our other findings indicate that employees who have stronger workplace relationships are neither more likely to work from the office nor do they necessarily experience higher levels of OCB, and that employees are not more likely to work from the office even if they participate in or experience higher levels of OCB or support in the workplace. All together, the correlation between workplace relationships and the will to work from the office does not present as significantly positive or strong.

Keywords: hybrid work, workplace relationships, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), extra-role performance, social exchange, reciprocity, job demands-resources (JD-R) model

Sammanfattning

I takt med att hybridarbete blir allt vanligare och organisationer vill återgå till kontoret, uppstår en relevant fråga om vilken roll sociala relationer på arbetsplatsen spelar för anställdas val av arbetsplats. Syftet med undersökningen är att undersöka om relationer på arbetsplatsen korrelerar med medarbetarnas vilja att välja kontoret framför distansarbete, med särskilt fokus på relationer på arbetsplatsen, och med koppling till sociala aspekter och utomrollsprestationer. Studien baseras på fem hypoteser för att vägleda och strukturera processen och resultaten, och datainsamlingen gjordes genom en kvantitativ enkätundersökning. Med användning av sociala utbytesteorin, ömsesidighet (the norm of reciprocity), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), utomrollsprestationer och jobbkrav-resurs-modellen (JD-R) möjliggörs operationalisering av beteenden och interaktioner med syfte att utvärdera potentiella korrelationer och deras styrkor. Beräkningar och utvärderingar är huvudsakligen korrelationsbivariatanalys och regressionsanalys, samt chi-två-test. Basen för beräkningar och resultat utgörs av 239 respondenter som har möjlighet att arbeta på distans i sin nuvarande arbetsposition.

Vi fann begränsat stöd för våra hypoteser. Endast hypotesen om att anställda som upplever högre nivåer av socialt stöd från kollegor är mer benägna att delta i beteenden utanför sina roller kan accepteras helt. Däremot antyder resterande resultat att anställda som har starkare relationer på arbetsplatsen varken är mer benägna att arbeta från kontoret eller upplever nödvändigtvis högre nivåer av socialt stöd på arbetsplatsen. Samt att anställda inte är mer benägna att arbeta från kontoret även om de deltar i eller upplever högre nivåer av socialt stöd på arbetsplatsen. Sammantaget framstår inte korrelationen mellan arbetsplatsrelationer och viljan att arbeta från kontoret som signifikant positivt eller starkt.

Nyckelord: hybridarbete, arbetsplatsrelationer, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), utomrollsbeteenden, socialt utbyte, ömsesidighet, jobbkrav-resurs-modellen (JD-R)

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1. Introduction

Hybrid work has become more established in the modern work life structure in recent years. It can be defined as a structure or model where employees work both from the office and remotely (Bertola, Robert, Eisenberg & Colombo 2026, p. 57). According to Statistics Sweden (SCB 2025), approximately 46% of employed individuals stated that they worked from home to some extent in 2024, which represents an increase of 26% compared with 2008. The statistics also show that working from home is significantly more common after COVID-19 than it was before (SCB 2025), with a certain connection to the development of digitalization and other changes in the labor market. Around 13% reported working from home on more than half of the working days in 2024, while only 6% reported the same before the pandemic (SCB 2025). Statistics collected in 2025 and early 2026 show that this pattern has been further continued (SCB 2026). Remote and hybrid work can no longer be seen as temporary solutions, but today constitute established parts of the work life structure internationally (Mlonyeni 2023, p. 120; Hardin, Schinoff, Byron & Balven 2025, p. 267-268; Aksoy, Barrero, Bloom, Davis, Dolls & Zarate 2025).

However, companies have seen how remote work can affect the organization's performance, collaboration and engagement (Bertola et al. 2026, p. 58) and therefore increasingly seek higher office attendance. Many companies are creating guidelines and regulations concerning the number of remote days allowed, while recommending employees to primarily work from the office (Virgin 2024; Von Scheele 2023; Juricic 2025). Some are using arguments such as working from the office strengthens the culture, idea exchange, creativity, innovation and collaboration (Afv Finwire 2025). At the same time, it can be questioned whether these formal requirements for physical presence in themselves are sufficient to create the effects that organizations seek. Meanwhile, employees have become accustomed to the flexibility and freedom that remote work offers, which creates tensions between organizational needs and individual preferences (Bertola et al. 2026, p. 58). Organizations should understand what factors motivate employees and create good conditions for collaboration, togetherness and performance, and then design working methods that support this (De Smet, Weddle, Hancock, Mugayar-Baldocchi & Lauricella 2025).

When employees work remotely, the amount of spontaneous and informal interactions reduces (Espersson, Lidén & Westrup 2023, p. 78). However, regardless of where the work

occurs, relationships are established and maintained through different means and resources (Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser 2013, p. 1029). Due to the many social aspects connected to work, the office is often seen as both a formal work place where organizational tasks are completed and as a social arena where relationships are created and upheld (Leonardi, Parker & Shen 2024, p. 198). Workplace relationships highlight the social connections and interactions between colleagues, co-workers, and formal and informal leaders within organizations. These types of relationships are considered to increase job satisfaction, well-being and learning (Espersson, Lidén & Westrup 2023, p. 79). Workplace relationships and relational attachment also have a big impact on trust, belonging, community, collaboration, general satisfaction and organizational attachment (Ehrhardt & Ragins 2019, pp. 248, 262-264).

It is further known that it is harder for organizations and companies to uphold the social connections between their employees when the work is mainly digital (Levin & Kurtzberg 2020, p. 13-14). Due to the structure of hybrid work, part of the communication and tasks are completed through only digital means, leading to concerns about how reliable and reachable the benefits of workplace relationships are. Especially considering that relationships require more work and more resources when the work is done remotely (Hardin et al. 2025, p. 269). Against this background, it is of interest to examine the correlation between relationships in the workplace and employees' willingness to come into the office, perform and contribute beyond formal work tasks, instead of working remotely.

1.1. Problematicization

Switching from working in the office to working remotely through digital means changes how employees communicate, collaborate and develop (Levin & Kurtzberg 2020, p. 13). Despite how remote work offers benefits such as flexibility, organizations have partially started going back towards working at the office. One reason is attributed to the perceived and experienced decreased engagement and performance among employees (Bertola et al. 2026, p. 58). However, with the return to office work employees are demanding some flexibility. Some organizations are implementing hybrid work as a response to these demands, where the hybrid structure can either be based on the employee's own decisions, on the employer's scheduling, or on the employment contract. It is therefore beneficial to

examine aspects that impact employees, as this understanding can help explain what makes employees want to work on site and under what conditions this promotes performance.

Furthermore, individual consequences related to relational and organizational aspects should be considered. Remote work is said to both increase and decrease performance and well-being on individual and organizational levels. Previous research on hybrid work has focused on productivity and flexibility, with some studies connecting the findings to increased perceptions of autonomy (Babapour Chafi, Hultberg & Bozic Yams 2021, p. 1). At the same time, other studies emphasize the consequences and challenges concerning collaboration, knowledge sharing and organizational attachment often associated with remote work (Leonardi, Parker & Shen 2024, p. 196). These contrasting perspectives suggest that factors beyond work location affect outcomes. Hybrid work does bring challenges related to engagement and social isolation (Bertola et al. 2026, p. 58). In addition, the flexibility of hybrid employment can vary from very flexible to more rigid and structured (Prasoppokakorn & Prasittisopin 2026, p. 3), potentially contributing to other challenges or benefits.

Previous research on work relationships and remote work has shown the influence of relationships and their impact on satisfaction, collaboration, engagement, well-being, enjoyment, and belonging within organizations. Research also states that remote work can entail challenges concerning creating, establishing and maintaining relationships in the workplace (Leonardi, Parker & Shen 2024, p. 201). Which can be said to further weaken the social community in the workplace and makes social contacts more selective and planned (Espersson, Lidén & Westrup 2023, p. 93). Where the lack of spontaneous meetings and informal conversations can also lead to reduced social cohesion, impaired trust and information exchange between colleagues (Levin & Kurtzberg 2020, p. 14). Research has also shown that working in the office and creating relationships with colleagues are both connected to stronger organizational attachment and engagement (Ehrhardt & Ragins 2019, p. 273). Combining the effects on workplace relationships from both working in the office and remotely in a hybrid work context ought to include differing complexities, benefits and challenges.

As hybrid work becomes more common, and organizations want to return to the office, a relevant question arises about the correlation of relationships in the workplace and the employees' choice of workplace. Further examination of this correlation can also be

beneficial regarding increasing the knowledge related to employees willingness to contribute with organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and extra-role performance in the workplace in hybrid employment arrangements.

1.2. Aim and disposition

The aim of this study is to examine whether relationships in the workplace correlate to employees' willingness to choose the office over working remotely, with a particular focus on workplace relationships, and with connection to social aspects and extra-role performance. The use of the word “will” directs attention to the internal factors such as an increased sense of positive acceptance and satisfaction from making the choice to work in the physical office. The study is expected to contribute knowledge to the research field around hybrid work and workplace relationships, with links to both service management and work and organizational psychology.

The next section of the paper presents previous research on hybrid work and relationships in the workplace. Next, the social exchange theory in combination with the norm of reciprocity, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and extra-role performance, as well as the job demands-resources (JD-R) model are introduced as part of the theoretical framework. This section also includes the hypotheses of the study. This is followed by methodology, which outlines our quantitative survey research design, data collection, ethical principles and the variables and measures, as well as the statistical procedures. The next section focuses on results and empirical findings, which is followed by a discussion with relation to previous research and implications of the results, followed by the limitations of the study. Lastly, a conclusion is presented giving the final summation of the study, with recommendations for future research.

2. Overview of previous research

Focusing on research within both service management and work and organizational psychology, hybrid work and workplace relationships have previously been studied. There are many factors of relevance. Hybrid work consists of multiple interacting elements, such as type of hybridity, distance, and digital structures, that all have an impact and are of importance. Regarding relationships at the workplace, there are many studies that focus on differing aspects and effects. Some that are of importance for our study concern the influences, definitions and interactions of co-workers and collegial relationships.

2.1. Hybrid work

Previous research often uses the terms remote work and hybrid work interchangeably, but they refer to different phenomena. Remote work primarily refers to work that is performed outside the traditional workplace (Leonardi, Parker & Shen 2024, p. 194). While hybrid work is explained as a work model where employees alternate between working in the office and remotely (Bertola et al. 2026, p. 57). Hybrid work can also be explained as a method for finding a workable balance between working remotely and from the office (Prasoppokakorn & Prasittisopin 2026, p. 2). Furthermore, remote work is described as a situation where the employee is distant/removed from the material, social and symbolic resources that the office usually offers (Leonardi, Parker & Shen 2024, p. 194). What is common across the board with remote work is that it is enabled by telecommunications technology and can be performed regardless of location (Espersson, Lidén & Westrup 2023, p. 78).

At the same time, research shows that remote work is not only about geographical location. It is described as a complex system that includes different types of distance (Leonardi, Parker & Shen 2024, pp. 196-198). For example, psychological and structural distance, where psychological distance focuses on the social separation between individuals and structural distance draws attention to the lack of organizational structures and routines between those who work remotely and those in the office (Leonardi, Parker & Shen 2024, pp. 196-198). While remote work primarily describes the distance of work from the office, hybrid work involves a shift between more traditional interactions and interactions that take place exclusively in a digital environment (Bertola et al. 2026, pp. 57-58). Which implies that

hybrid work is a concept where remote work is part of the work structure and presence in the office is still an integrated part of the employment.

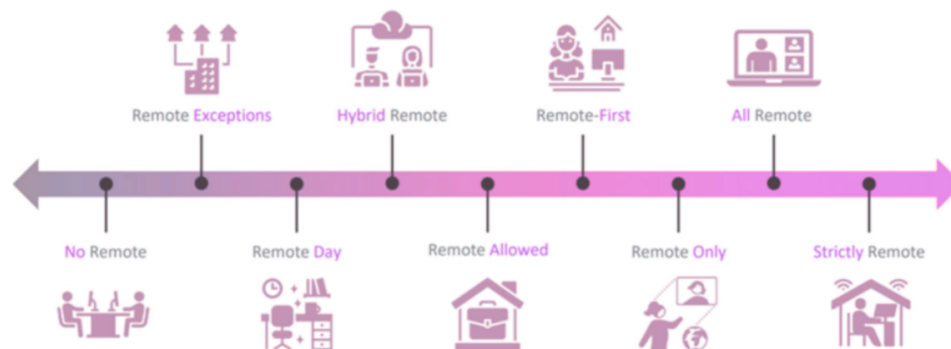


Figure 1. *Level of remote work* (Prasoppokakorn & Prasittisopin 2026, p. 3).

Furthermore, there are different degrees of hybridity, which can be presented as a scale from the least flexible to the most flexible form of work (Figure 1.). Two different degrees of hybridity are, for example, hybrid remote and remote allowed. Hybrid remote means that staff can choose their preferred days for office work and remote work, but requirements for office work are set for selected dates (Prasoppokakorn & Prasittisopin 2026, p. 3). With remote allowed, the organization requires office work for work tasks that are directly linked to the physical location, but beyond that, employees are allowed to work at a location of their choice (Prasoppokakorn & Prasittisopin 2026, p. 3). Hybrid work thus means an organizational structure where employees switch between different work environments.

2.1.1. Benefits and consequences of hybrid work

Hybrid work is a complex form of work where flexibility and independence must be weighed against organizational, social and leadership-related challenges. Central strengths are increased autonomy, flexibility and agency, while also supporting self-leadership and individual responsibility (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, pp. 7, 10). Greater control of working hours, methods, and processes can also increase job satisfaction, motivation, and individual productivity (Oppong Peprah 2024, p. 94). Hybrid work can develop employees' digital skills and promotes tools that improve collaboration (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, p. 7). This means not only that the work can be organized more efficiently, but also that meeting culture, structure and inclusion in distributed teams can be improved through more thoughtful and planned working methods (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, p. 10). Hybrid work can thus help

organizations develop more structured follow-ups between managers and employees, which in some cases can create greater clarity around goals, responsibilities and work processes (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, p. 10). Another benefit is reduced commuting, which can increase time for family, exercising, recovery, reduce everyday stress (Oppong Peprah 2024, p. 94; Leonardi, Parker & Shen 2024, p. 201), and may also reduce climate impact (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, pp. 6-7).

However, hybrid work involves challenges and a shift from traditional office culture to a more digital and distributed way of working, requiring adaptation from both employees and managers (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, pp. 6-7). The transition is further complicated by a lack of technical support, outdated IT systems, limited cybersecurity and barriers regarding new digital tools, which can create frustration and reduce work efficiency. Furthermore, hybrid work can lead to cognitive overload and exhaustion when workdays are dominated by tightly scheduled digital meetings without natural breaks (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, pp. 6-7). Constant availability, notifications and unclear working hours can further eliminate the boundary between work and private life (Oppong Peprah 2024, pp. 95-96). Problems can worsen for employees without a well-functioning home environment, poor ergonomics or conditions for concentrated work (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, p. 7). Hybrid work therefore places high demands on the individual's self-discipline, ability to create good work habits and capacity to maintain motivation even in the absence of social stimulation, feedback and clear meaning in everyday work (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, p. 7). If these conditions are lacking, performance may decrease (Oppong Peprah 2024, pp. 95-96).

Hybrid work also entails a risk that work becomes too focused on task efficiency at the expense of creativity, learning and long-term development (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, p. 7). Reduced spontaneous conversations and informal meetings can weaken knowledge exchange and community, and may slow decision making (Oppong Peprah 2024, pp. 95-96). Which leads to organizations having to combine high individual productivity with the need for collective learning, creativity and social cohesion (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, p. 13). Distance also makes it harder for managers to read subtle signals like stress, isolation, overwork or mental strain (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, p. 10). Finally, hybrid work can make it harder to maintain community, belonging and culture, even resulting in different cultures (Oppong Peprah 2024, pp. 95-96).

2.2. Relationships at the workplace

Workplace relationships within organizations are often seen as prerequisites and requirements for well-being, satisfaction, and learning, as well as contributing to strengthening individuals' professional identities (Espersson, Lidén & Westrup 2023, p. 79). These relationships, when they are strong and established, are also said to indicate positive outcomes concerning professional achievements and citizenship behaviors (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, p. 139). Some research specifies that informal relationships in the workplace have a stronger connection to the effects on performance and career progression that workplace relationships are said to support (Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser 2013, p. 1028). It is also noted that relational connections predict behaviors for profitability through community and cooperation, as well as organizational connection and belonging (Ehrhardt & Ragins 2019, pp. 248, 262-263). It is further argued that employees who are shown to have a connection to their colleagues also have a stronger connection to the organization and have more positive experiences of their work tasks, and that the stronger the work relationships, the stronger the organizational connection (Ehrhardt & Ragins 2019, p. 273). This in turn affects employee turnover and absenteeism, OCB, and overall satisfaction within the organization (Ehrhardt & Ragins 2019, p. 273).

Individuals are generally involved in multiple types of relationships at work (Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser 2013, p. 1029). Studies have shown that people tend to cultivate, develop and establish relationships of different strengths, ranging from very weak and distant to very strong and close. Where stronger relationships are usually connected to longevity, intimacy, reciprocity and higher levels of trust (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, p. 140). Research also clarifies that there are different types of relational ties. Positive ties are often described as respectful and characterized by liking and giving advice, while negative ties are more likely to be characterized by exclusion and other harmful behaviors (Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser 2013, p. 1029). The relationship between an employee and their employer also has the possibility of affecting and influencing the relationships between the employee and their co-workers, in either positive or negative ways depending on the perception of the employee-employer relationship specifically regarding harmful behaviors. Meanwhile the perception of the employee-employer relationship has shown not to affect the employee-co-worker relationships concerning interpersonal, helping and supporting citizenship behaviors (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, p. 149).

Some research highlights how social ties and networks, both positive and negative, will have an effect on the perceptions of harm and help, while also helping create social capital and social liabilities (Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser 2013, p. 1028). Furthermore, the centrality of an individual in the social networks also has an influence on their organizational attachment through job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser 2013, pp. 1028, 1033). In the positive networks a central position means that the individual is popular concerning others showing interest in advice and friendship ties (Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser 2013, p. 1028). Centrality in positive networks has beneficial and positive effects on social satisfaction and in turn the organizational attachment, while centrality in negative networks has harmful effects (Venkataramani, Labianca & Grosser 2013, p. 1036).

2.2.1. Defining collegial and co-worker relationships

As the workplace is seen as both a social and a professional area, there are different types of interpersonal relationships that will be created, upheld and maintained by the individuals involved in the context. Previous research has presented that individuals who work together in a business or profession are often referred to as colleagues (Betzler & Löschke 2021, p. 216) or as co-workers. A more extensive definition clarifies that a colleague is someone who is equal to another in regards to work content, level of responsibility, and organizational affiliation (Mlonyeni 2023, pp. 114-115; Betzler & Löschke 2021, p. 217), for example neither superiors nor subordinates would be considered colleagues (Betzler & Löschke 2021, p. 216). Some research establishes that the definition of a colleague and a collegial relationship is a more narrow concept than other workplace relationships such as co-workers, employees, and other concepts (Betzler & Löschke 2021, p. 216). Colleagues, per the definition and standardized concept, are not expected to give support or comfort regarding personal issues, such as break-ups (Betzler & Löschke 2021, p. 215).

Another difference between co-workers and colleagues is that co-workers are not necessarily equal in terms of power dynamics, characteristics, or roles at the workplace (Betzler & Löschke 2021, p. 216). Some research suggests that an individual's investment into a relationship with a coworker is affected and influenced by how and what they learn about the individual coworkers, due to the effect on perception of authenticity, trustworthiness and humanness (Hardin et al. 2025, pp. 273, 282, 287). However, both relationships with

colleagues and co-workers will have an effect and impact on quality of life, social support, job satisfaction, well-being, organizational commitment, performance, and can also act as a driving force for inspiration and flourishing, due to the amount of time spent at work (Mlonyeni 2023, p. 114; Betzler & Löschke 2021, pp. 213-214; Hardin et al. 2025, p. 269).

2.2.2. Collegial relations influence and support

Previous research has highlighted several aspects of the influence and support that colleagues can provide within organizations. For example, research has focused on the influence that social support from colleagues has on individuals' perceived stress and exhaustion, as well as the physical and bodily impact (Chiaburu & Harrison 2008, p. 1082). It is further argued that colleagues who experience closer and stronger relational ties with each other also act based on the greatest benefit and least harm for the parties involved in the relationship (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, pp. 140, 149). Perceived support is considered to be a direct effect of collegial interactions between colleagues and between leaders and employees, with a focus on the fact that perceived support is created through positive interactions, for example when employees offer help (Chiaburu & Harrison 2008, p. 1084). Furthermore, employees who are considered central parties in a favorable social environment, based on support and help from colleagues, have increased job satisfaction (Chiaburu & Harrison 2008, p. 1085). It is further noted that colleagues' contributions and involvement in the workplace social environment also influence behaviors regarding withdrawal, including withholding input and productivity, absenteeism and termination (Chiaburu & Harrison 2008, p. 1085).

In summation, previous research shows that office presence should not be seen solely as an organizational requirement or as a question of where work is performed, but as a prerequisite for relational and social processes. Hybrid work can create flexibility, autonomy and improved opportunities for individual productivity (Oppong Peprah 2024, p. 94). But research also shows that elements of hybrid work can hinder spontaneous meetings, informal knowledge exchange and social cohesion (Babapour Chafi et al. 2022, p. 13). Given that workplace relationships are important for job satisfaction, organizational belonging, commitment and collaboration (Espersson, Lidén & Westrup 2023, p. 79; Chiaburu & Harrison 2008, p. 1085), it becomes relevant to examine if relationships in the workplace correlate to employees' willingness to choose the office over working remotely. Since we do not specify the type of workplace relationship, we will use the term “co-worker” as it is more broad.

3. Theoretical frameworks

The concepts and models that are relevant and applicable in the context of this study are the job demands-resources (JD-R) model, the norm of reciprocity in combination with the social exchange theory, and OCB with a focus on extra-role performance. The focus on reciprocity with the social exchange theory is because interactions and exchanges of relational aspects are highlighted and clarified. The JD-R model aims to explain how work resources and work demands affect the individual's well-being and performance. While OCB and extra-role performance focus on the importance it has for relationships and performance in the workplace.

3.1. Reciprocity with the social exchange theory

Social exchange theory is a collective term and concept that consists of several conceptual models. The fundamental common aspects are that the models in some way show, clarify or investigate social aspects and interactions between two or more parties that contain sequential transactions (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels & Hall 2017, p. 479). Social exchange is considered to have begun when one party encounters the other, regardless of whether it occurs in a negative or positive way. In organizational contexts, the first party is often an organizational actor. In these cases, positive interactions can occur through organizational support and justice, while monitoring and violations are seen as negative (Cropanzano et al. 2017, p. 480). The main idea is that in an organizational context, the organization treats the employee in a certain way. If this is experienced positively, it contributes to the employee wanting to show reciprocity and support the organization, through, for example, commitment, affective attachment and trust. However, if it is experienced negatively, the employee can contribute with damage to the organization, for example through less engagement and increased absenteeism (Cropanzano et al. 2017, p. 480). Furthermore, the importance of the social exchange not occurring in a vacuum is presented, it is not only the interactions and the relationship between the two parties that influence the relationship or situation. Therefore the organization, as a whole, can be seen as a strong indicator regarding the contextual variations and variables that have an effect on the social exchange (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, pp. 141, 149-150).

Social exchange theory is also considered to be a contributing factor to more reciprocal actions between individuals (Blader & Tyler 2009, p. 446; Scott, Zagenczyk, Li, Gardner, Coglisier & Laverie 2018, p. 752). This is in accordance with the norm of reciprocity, which presents the basis for social exchange by expecting individuals to help or support other individuals or organizations based on the fact that those individuals or organizations help or support them (Scott et al. 2018, p. 753). The social exchange theory in combination with the norm of reciprocity suggests that individuals in stronger relationships are more likely to engage in actions and behaviors that are more consistent and related to maintaining and strengthening these relationships (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, pp. 140, 149). Since social exchanges are partly based on reciprocity where individuals tend to reciprocate positive relationships through supportive behaviors towards the organization, the following hypothesis and null hypothesis are used:

H₁: Employees who experience stronger social relationships with co-workers are more likely to work from the office.

H₀₁: Employees who experience stronger social relationships with co-workers are not more likely to work from the office.

Since positive social exchanges create a sense of reciprocity and a willingness to contribute back to the organization, the study will also use the sub-hypothesis:

H_{1A}: Employees who experience higher levels of support in the workplace are more likely to be physically present in the office.

3.2. OCB and extra-role performance

OCB is specifically linked to the organizational work environment and to employees' behavior, well-being, and extra-role performance (Scott et al. 2018, p. 752). Extra-role performance is specifically the behavior and actions, not included in the job description, role or specified work tasks, that employees initiate and carry out to support the organization and co-workers in achieving organizational goals (Cropanzano et al. 2017, p. 486; Blader & Tyler 2009, p. 445). OCB is a more comprehensive concept, which addresses and observes several aspects related to relationships in the workplace and the work environment. As a whole, OCB contributes to a functioning workplace and to work performance by developing and improving relationships, as well as culture and cooperation within the organization (Scott et al. 2018, p. 752). Some research specifies that OCB is often not explicitly recognized or

rewarded by organizational incentive systems, but that it contributes to the stability and efficiency of organizational functions (Chiaburu & Harrison 2008, p. 1085). Furthermore, research on workplace relationships shows that stronger attachments tend to influence and increase OCB within organizations (Ehrhardt & Ragins 2019, p. 273). Since many extra-role performance involve cooperation, support for co-workers, and participation in the workplace social context, the following hypothesis and null hypothesis are created:

H₂: Employees that participate in higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) are more likely to work from the office.

H₀₂: Employees that participate in higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) are not more likely to work from the office.

Since strong working relationships increase the willingness to support co-workers and the organization through voluntary behaviors, the following sub-hypothesis is also created:

H_{2A}: Employees who experience stronger social relationships in the workplace also experience higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

3.3. Job demands-resources

The JD-R model is a theory used to understand how different working conditions, particularly job demands and job resources, are related to exhaustion, disengagement, and job performance (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke 2004, pp. 86-87). The model has two components, based on the assumption that all work-related factors can be divided into job demands and job resources. Job demands are things that require constant effort, such as high workload, role conflicts and demanding meetings (Bakker & Demerouti 2007, pp. 312-313). If these demands become too great for a long time, it can lead to exhaustion, stress and poor performance, which impairs the individual's ability to cope with their regular work tasks, i.e. the performance that is part of the formal professional role, known as in-role behaviors (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke 2004, pp. 86-87). In hybrid work environments, new variants of job demands may arise, such as increased expectations for constant digital availability, difficulties in interpreting signals about performance, and visibility and recognition at work (Bertola et al. 2026, p. 15).

Job resources are aspects that help individuals cope with the work, such as autonomy, feedback, development opportunities and social support. These resources are associated with

lower disengagement and better extra-role performance, which in the JD-R model represents one of the two psychological processes through which working conditions affect organizational outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti 2007, pp. 312-313). However, in hybrid work, some resources may be more difficult to access, such as spontaneous feedback, informal support and social interactions, which can affect how employees experience the work environment and their engagement (Bertola et al. 2026, p. 71). Furthermore, if resources are missing, it can lead to distancing from work, so-called disengagement (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke 2004, pp. 86-87). This particularly affects the tendency to do the “little extra”, for example helping co-workers or taking one’s own initiative, known as extra-role performance (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke 2004, pp. 86-87). Since social support is considered a job resource in the JD-R model, and job resources are associated with positive employee behavior such as greater participation in extra-role performance and better work functioning, the following hypothesis and null hypothesis are proposed:

H₃: Employees that experience higher levels of social support from co-workers are more likely to participate in extra-role performance.

H₀₃: Employees that experience higher levels of social support from co-workers are not more likely to participate in extra-role performance.

4. Methodology

Much of the research on hybrid structures and relationships has been conducted using interviews, surveys or mixed methods. The idea of this survey is to contribute with a greater general understanding about relationships in the workplace and their correlation with hybrid work. Conducting a quantitative study means that the researcher investigates a social science phenomenon through measurement and analysis of numerical data. Quantitative research is often based on a deductive approach, where the researcher uses theory and previous research to formulate hypotheses or research questions that are then tested empirically (Bryman 2018, pp. 61-62). An important methodological starting point is an objectivist view of social reality, where social phenomena are seen as something external and relatively independent of individuals' own interpretations. This means that reality can be studied in a relatively objective way and that social phenomena can be measured, compared and analyzed systematically (Bryman 2018, p. 57). Quantitative research is therefore closely linked to the natural science approach and, above all, positivism (Bryman 2018, p. 51). Meaning that we strive for objectivity, measurability and systematic testing of our hypotheses.

In practice, this often leads to the use of standardized methods, such as questionnaires or structured interviews, where data can be converted into numbers and analyzed statistically. In relation to the aim of this study, central concepts such as workplace relationships, extra-role performance and the willingness to work from the office need to be operationalized and converted into measurable variables. Where both reliability and validity are important conditions of the study. Reliability concerns the consistency of a test or method that ensures reproducibility, while validity focuses on ensuring that the study really measures what is intended (Bryman 2018, pp. 207-210). The type of knowledge that quantitative research provides is often broad, comparable and generalizable (Bryman 2018, p. 198). Our approach can contribute generalized knowledge to the research field concerning the correlation between relationships in the workplace and employees' willingness to choose the physical office in a hybrid work context.

4.1. Quantitative Survey

Our method is based on a quantitative correlational study through the use of a survey as the focus is on employees' general perception of their workplace relationships correlating to a

willingness to come into the office on days when they are not working remotely. An advantage of quantitative methods is that it is easier to discover patterns, connections and differences, and that the results can be presented in numbers, tables and diagrams (Bryman 2018, pp. 203, 207-208). This creates good conditions for analyzing relationships between relevant variables. Previous research has used surveys and made calculations linked to descriptive statistics, chi-square tests, and analysis of correlation, reliability, and regression (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke 2004; Scott et al. 2018; Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022). In the construction of our survey some questions and statements have been gathered from previous studies. Which increases the validation of the study, the questions and the statements that are used (Alvehus, Eldén, Wästerfors & Öhlin 2025, pp. 219-220). Distribution of the survey was done through posting and sending the link through digital means such as email and social media. The survey was published and open for responses between 2026-04-15 and 2026-05-21.

4.1.1. Pilot survey

It is often recommended to conduct a pilot study before conducting the main study when working with surveys, this is done in order to get feedback and evaluations to be able to make some improvements (Alvehus et al. 2025, p. 214). Our pilot survey, with very few respondents, was specifically conducted in order to get a better estimate of the time it takes to fill out, to get feedback regarding the questions and statements, and to increase our understanding of how the platform works as this is the first time using this site. There were minimal changes made, such as changing wording, spelling, and adding one more statement, before sending out our official survey (Appendix 2).

4.2. Ethical principles

The ethical principles connected to our study relate mainly to the cover letter and anonymity. The cover letter, also known as an information sheet or an informed consent script, concerns the participants giving their informed consent and participation in the study (Bryman 2018, p. 290). Our cover letter (Appendix 1) starts with some information about who is conducting the study, and then goes into the more crucial information. This includes information regarding the aim of the study, the structure of the survey, how the data from the respondents will be used, the estimated time it takes to complete the survey, that the respondents answers will be anonymous, how to withdraw participation while taking the survey and how to contact us if

there are questions. A benefit of creating and writing a clear and precise cover letter about the survey is the possibility of reducing the nonresponse and dropout rate (Bryman 2018, p. 290). Furthermore, the letter is an explicit connection to adhering to ethical principles and guidelines concerning choice of participation and informed consent. Since the survey consists of anonymous answers it is important to ensure and reiterate the confidentiality and anonymity concerning the respondents. This is further connected to ensuring proper action in accordance with the information requirement, the consent requirement, the confidentiality requirement and the requirement of restricted use (Bryman 2018, pp. 170-171).

4.3. Variables and measures

The study has collected responses from individuals working with the opportunity to work remotely. Collecting answers from respondents in multiple different industries, as well as organizations can increase generalizability of results (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, p. 142-143). The selection of respondents can be said to be an experience and purposive sample, as we specifically request responses from individuals who have experience with hybrid work. As well as a convenience and snowball sampling, by contacting people specifically, asking them to fill out the survey and asking them to send the survey to their connections and so on. The study collected 252 responses total, but 13 of these do not fit the criteria and have therefore been excluded. Meaning that 239 responses have been included in the calculations, representations, and results.

4.3.1. Control variables

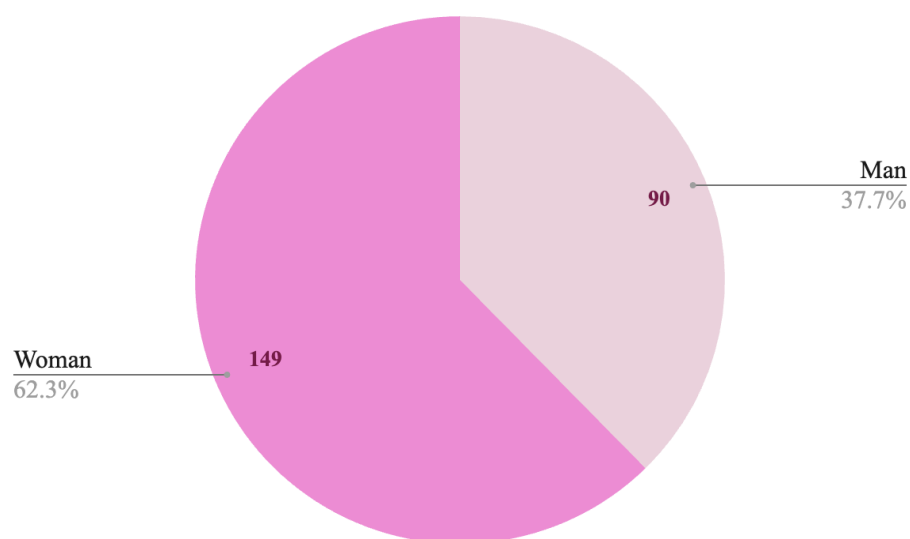


Figure 2. Responses based on gender.

Standard control variables in the study include gender (woman, man, other) and age of the respondents. From the total number of responses, more than half of the respondents are women (Figure 2.). Concerning ages, the survey respondents were spread out between the ages of 22-66, majority between 53-58 years old and a mean of 44.85 years old (Figure 3.).

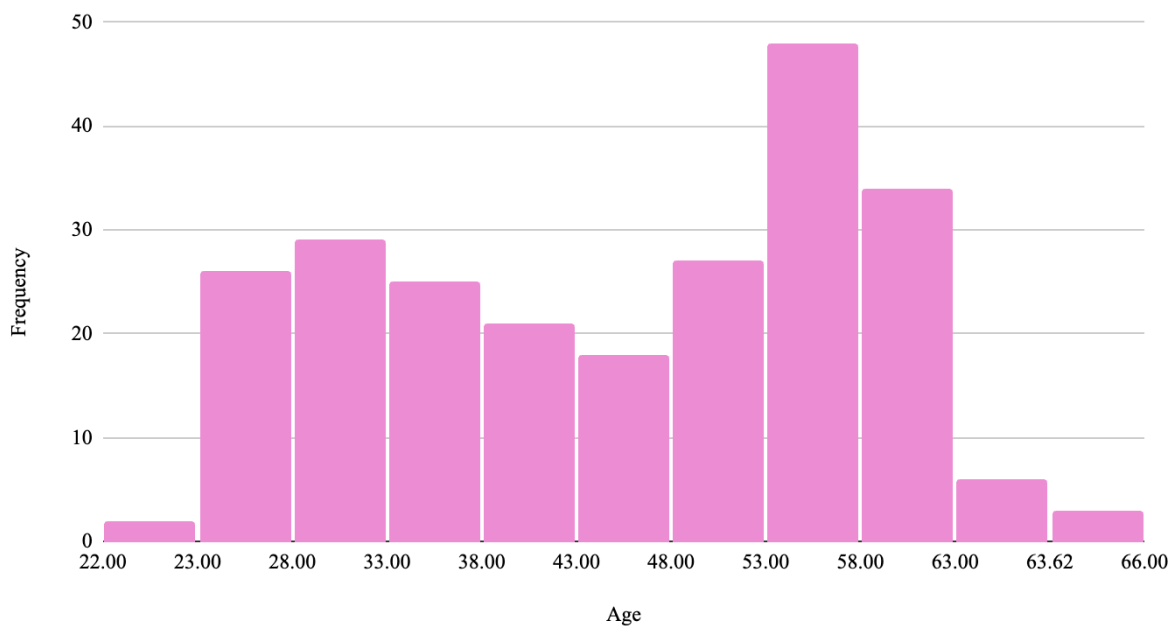


Figure 3. Ages of respondents.

The survey also asks what the respondents position is (boss, team leader, employee (no extended position of responsibility)) (Figure 4.), what industry that the company is present in (Figure 5.), how long the respondent has been employed at the workplace (less than 1 year, 1-3 years, 4-8 years, 9-15 years, more than 15 years), and how many employees work at the location in the same company as them (less than 25 people, 26-50 people, 51-75 people, 76-100 people, more than 100 people). The survey also asked who makes the decisions regarding when the respondents work from the office and when they work remotely. This question allowed the respondents to choose multiple options if more than one applies to their situation (own decision, team leader decision, boss decision, predetermined number of days per week, according to the contract/employment agreement) (Table 1.). As well as asking if they had the option of working remotely before COVID-19 (yes, no) (Table 2.) and if they have a specified hybrid employment position (yes, no) (Table 2.).

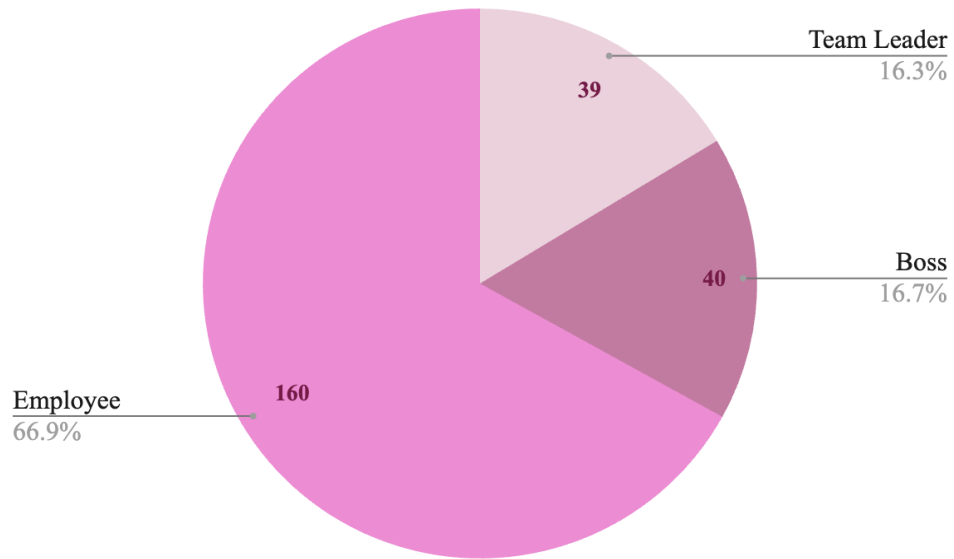


Figure 4. The respondents work position/job role.

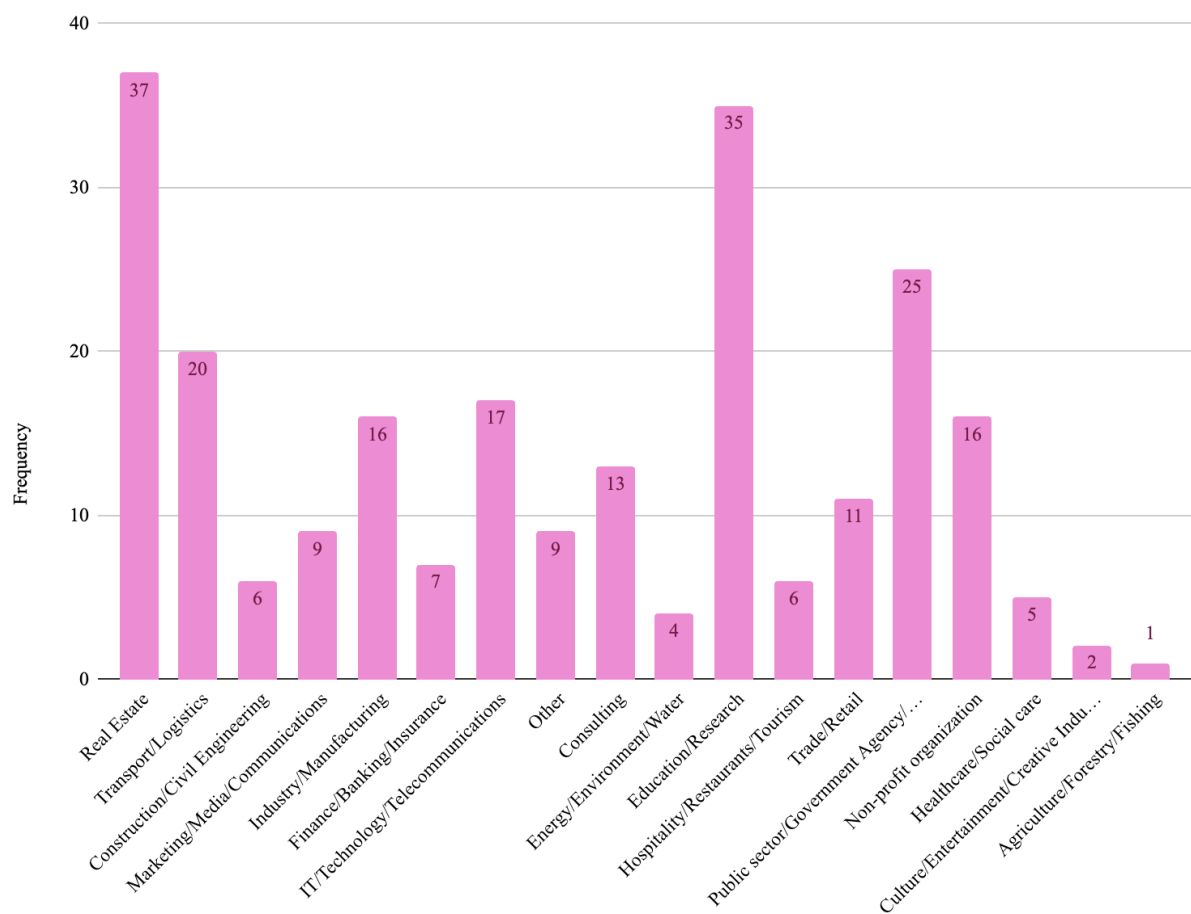


Figure 5. Industries of the respondents.

Table 1. Responses to the question “How are the decisions made regarding you working remotely and from the office? Select all that apply.”, divided into categories based on if the respondents chose only one alternative or if they selected more than one alternative.

	Only selected one alternative		Selected with other alternatives		Total number of selections
	Number of respondents	Percentage (%), based on the number of survey responses (239)	Number of respondents	Percentage (%), based on the number of survey responses (239)	
Own decision	95	39.75%	56	23.43%	151
Team leader decision	3	1.26%	13	5.44%	16
Boss decision	20	8.37%	44	18.41%	64
Predetermined number of days per week	29	12.13%	38	15.90%	67
According to the contract/employment agreement	18	7.53%	23	9.62%	41

Table 2. Responses to the questions: “Did you have the option to work remotely before COVID-19?” and “Do you have a specified hybrid employment position?”.

	Did you have the option to work remotely before COVID-19?		Do you have a specified hybrid employment position?	
	Number of respondents	Percentage of respondents (%)	Number of respondents	Percentage of respondents (%)
Yes	122	51.00%	50	20.90%
No	117	49.00%	189	79.10%

4.3.2. Social exchange in the workplace

Social exchange and reciprocity are both concepts that require more than one question or statement in order to get an understanding of the situation, our survey includes both statements and questions regarding these aspects. Previous research has used questions like “On average, how often do you talk to your co-workers (in any social or business discussion)?” (1 = daily to 4 = less often) and “On average, how close are you with your co-workers?” (1 = distant to 4 = especially close) (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, p. 144) in order to calculate relationship strengths. We used these questions in order to more broadly gather information about social aspects, social exchanges, and workplace relationships. Furthermore, we split the question “On average, how often do you talk to your co-workers?” into two separate questions, one focusing on social discussions and the other focusing on business discussions, in order to get more precise answers concerning the types of interactions and the types of support. We also included statements and questions such as “I

feel a sense of belonging in the office” and “I feel appreciated in the office” to gather information regarding the perceptions of social exchanges and reciprocity in the workplace.

4.3.3. Extra-role performance and OCB

OCB is a broad concept, while extra-role performance correlate to more specific behaviors (Scott et al. 2018, p. 752). However, since extra-role performance are included in OCB, most of the statements and questions are aimed towards extra-role performance as they are more easily measured and more explicit (Cropanzano et al. 2017, p. 486; Blader & Tyler 2009, p. 445; Scott et al. 2018, p. 752). Some statements that have been used in previous research are “I take action to protect the organization from potential problems” (Scott et al. 2018, p. 759), “I attend meetings that organization members are encouraged but not required to attend” (Scott et al. 2018, p. 757), “I willingly give my time to other organization members who have work-related problems” (Scott et al. 2018, p. 757), as well as “I help co-workers who have been absent” (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, p. 144). We have chosen to use these in our survey as well, however not with the same answer options as in the previous research. The answer options in our survey for all statements are: completely disagree, partially disagree, partially agree, and completely agree. We have also included other questions and statements such as “I ask my co-workers for help”, “How often do you collaborate with your co-workers?” and “I assist others in their duties”.

4.3.4. JD-R model

In order to examine both job demands and job resources, we used both questions and statements to collect answers and self-evaluations. Statements such as “I feel appreciated in the office”, “My co-workers assist me and other co-workers in our duties” and “My co-workers often help me” are used in order to get an understanding of the social support and recognition at work. While questions like “On average, how often do you talk to your co-workers (in any social discussion)?” (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, p. 144) and “In general, do you enjoy the working environment (culture) in the office?” are used to explore the informal support and social interactions that the respondents are experiencing. Seeing as extra-role performance is also connected to job resources (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke 2004, pp. 86-87), the questions and statements mentioned in the above section can also be relevant.

4.4. Statistical procedures

All of our calculations were done using SPSS (results in Appendix 3, 4, 5, 6, & 7). A bivariate correlational analysis was used to examine the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables. While a regression analysis was used to assess the extent to which one or more independent variables predict or explain the variation in a dependent variable (Barmark & Djurfeldt 2020, p. 157). Both of these analyses are also used to examine the statistical significance of the results. To determine if the results are statistically significant, the commonly used threshold is $p < 0.05$, meaning that there is a 95% certainty of significance (Barmark & Djurfeldt 2020, p. 135). Some of the relationships will also be examined using the chi-square test. Chi-square tests were used to determine whether there is a statistically significant association between categorical variables by comparing observed and expected frequencies (Barmark & Djurfeldt 2020, pp. 138-139). The chi-square test is not applicable for all of the relationships in this study, as some consist of variables that are more continuous than categorical.

5. Results

By examining the extent to which relationships in the workplace correlate with willingness to work from the office, the study is expected to contribute to knowledge about the importance of workplace relationships for employees' willingness to work from the office in a hybrid work format. To examine each hypothesis, at least two relationships are observed in order to get a better understanding of the relationships.

5.1. Hypothesis 1 and 1A

In H_{11} , we predict that employees who experience stronger social relationships with their co-workers are more likely to work from the office. To test H_{11} , the relationship between the frequency of remote work and perceived closeness to co-workers was examined (Appendix 3). “On average, how close are you with your co-workers?” was treated as the independent variable, while “Approximately how often do you work remotely?” was treated as the dependent variable. The bivariate correlational analysis showed an extremely weak positive relationship ($r = 0.067$), with no statistical significance ($p = 0.304$). The regression analysis coefficient of explanatory power was very low at 0.4% ($R^2 = 0.004$), meaning that closeness to co-workers barely explains any of the variation in the frequency of remote work, with no statistical significance ($p = 0.304$). The unstandardized regression coefficient shows that the level of closeness between co-workers is associated with a small increase ($B = 0.150$) in the measured frequency of remote work. All together, these analyses do not provide sufficient statistical support for the existence of a confirmed relationship between the degree of closeness between co-workers and the frequency of remote work.

The relationship between the frequency of remote work and how often employees talk to their co-workers in social contexts was also examined (Appendix 3). “On average, how often do you talk to your co-workers (in any social discussion)?” was treated as the independent variable and “Approximately how often do you work remotely?” was treated as the dependent variable. The bivariate correlational analysis showed a weak positive and statistically significant relationship ($r = 0.267$, $p < 0.001$) between the variables. The regression analysis coefficient of explanation was low, meaning that how often employees talk socially with their co-workers explains 7.1% ($R^2 = 0.071$) of the variation in the frequency of remote work. The result was, however, statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). The

unstandardized regression coefficient shows that an increase in social interaction with co-workers is associated with a moderate increase ($B = 0.585$) in the measured frequency of remote work. The chi-square test also showed a statistically significant relationship ($p < 0.001$). This means that the analyses provide sufficient statistical support for the existence of a weak, but confirmed relationship between the frequency of social discussions between co-workers and the frequency of remote work.

To further test H_1 , the relationship between employees' willingness to work more remotely and their sense of belonging in the office was examined (Appendix 3). "I feel a sense of belonging in the office" was treated as the independent variable, while "Do you want to work remotely more often than you do now?" was treated as the dependent variable. The bivariate correlation analysis showed a weak positive relationship ($r = 0.123$). However, the relationship was not statistically significant ($p = 0.058$). The regression analysis coefficient of explanatory power was very low, meaning that a sense of belonging in the office only explains 1.5% ($R^2 = 0.015$) of the variation in wanting to work more remotely, with no statistical significance ($p = 0.058$). The unstandardized regression coefficient shows that an increase in a sense of belonging is associated with a very minor increase ($B = 0.072$) in the willingness to work more remotely. These analyses do not provide sufficient statistical support for the existence of a confirmed relationship between the felt sense of belonging and wanting to work more remotely.

The three observed relationships show extremely weak to weak positive correlations in the hypothesized direction and very low coefficients of explanatory power, as well as no statistical significance in two of the three relationships. All together these results show limited and insufficient support for H_1 , meaning that the null hypothesis (H_{01}) stating that employees who experience stronger social relationships with co-workers are not more likely to work from the office should be accepted.

5.1.1. Hypothesis 1A

In H_{1A} , we predict that employees who experience higher levels of workplace support are more likely to be physically present in the office. To test, the relationship between perceived help from co-workers and the willingness to work more remotely was examined (Appendix 4). "My co-workers often help me" was treated as the independent variable, while "Do you want to work remotely more often than you do now?" was treated as the dependent variable.

The bivariate correlation analysis showed a weak positive and statistically significant relationship ($r = 0.159$, $p = 0.014$). The regression analysis coefficient of explanatory power was low, which means that perceived help from co-workers only explains 2.5% ($R^2 = 0.025$) of the variation in wanting to work more remotely. However, this result was statistically significant ($p = 0.014$). The unstandardized regression coefficient shows that an increase in perceived help from co-workers is associated with quite a small increase ($B = 0.107$) in willingness to work more remotely. Indicating that these analyses do provide some statistical support for the existence of a relationship between co-workers helping the respondents and wanting to work more remotely.

To test H_{1A} , the relationship between asking co-workers for help and the willingness to work remotely more was examined (Appendix 4). “I ask my co-workers for help” was treated as the independent variable and “Do you want to work remotely more often than you do now?” was treated as the dependent variable. The bivariate correlation analysis showed a weak positive relationship ($r = 0.126$). However, the relationship was not statistically significant ($p = 0.052$). The regression analysis coefficient of explanation was very low, meaning that asking co-workers for help only explains 1.6% ($R^2 = 0.016$) of the variation in wanting to work more remotely, and the result was not statistically significant ($p = 0.052$). The unstandardized regression coefficient shows that an increase in asking co-workers for help is associated with a very minor increase ($B = 0.078$) in the willingness to work more remotely. This means that these analyses do not provide sufficient statistical support for the existence of a confirmed relationship between the respondent asking their co-workers for help and wanting to work more remotely.

While the observed relationships are positive and in the hypothesized direction, their weak strength and low explanatory power, as well as a lack of statistical significance in one of two cases, provide only limited support for the H_{1A} . This means that H_{1A} stating that employees who experience higher levels of support in the workplace are more likely to be physically present in the office should not necessarily be accepted.

5.2. Hypothesis 2 and 2A

In H_2 , we predict that employees who exhibit higher levels of OCB work from the office to a greater extent. To test H_2 , the relationship between the degree of hybridity and the degree of

collaboration with co-workers was examined (Appendix 5). “How often do you collaborate with your co-workers?” was treated as the independent variable, while “Approximately how often do you work remotely?” was treated as the dependent variable. The bivariate correlational analysis showed a weak positive and statistically significant relationship ($r = 0.195$, $p = 0.003$). The regression analysis showed a low explanatory power, where the frequency of collaboration explains only 3.8% ($R^2 = 0.038$) of the variation in the frequency of remote work, it was still statistically significant ($p = 0.003$). The unstandardized regression coefficient shows that an increase in collaboration is associated with a moderately small increase ($B = 0.389$) in the amount of remote work. These analyses provide sufficient statistical support for the existence of a confirmed, but weak relationship with low explanatory power between the frequency of collaboration and the frequency of remote work.

To further test H_2 , the relationship between employees’ willingness to work more remotely and their tendency to give time to co-workers with work-related problems was examined (Appendix 5). “I willingly give my time to other organization members who have work-related problems” was treated as the independent variable, while “Do you want to work remotely more often than you do now?” was treated as the dependent variable. The bivariate correlation analysis showed a very weak positive relationship ($r = 0.098$). And the relationship was not statistically significant ($p = 0.133$). The regression analysis coefficient of explanation was very low, meaning that the willingly giving up time for co-workers only explains 1% ($R^2 = 0.010$) of the variation in wanting to work more remotely, while also not being statistically significant ($p = 0.133$). The unstandardized regression coefficient shows that an increase in willingness to give time to co-workers is associated with a very minor increase ($B = 0.065$) in willingness to work more remotely. This means that these analyses do not provide sufficient statistical support for the existence of a confirmed relationship between willingly giving up time for co-workers and wanting to work more remotely.

The observed relationships are positive and in the direction of the hypothesis, however with weak strength, both statistical and no statistical significance and very low explainability. Therefore, support for H_2 should be interpreted as limited, meaning that the null hypothesis (H_{02}) stating employees that participate in higher levels of OCB are not more likely to work from the office should be accepted.

5.2.1. Hypothesis 2A

In H_{2A} we predict that employees who experience stronger social relationships in the workplace also experience higher levels of OCB. To test H_{2A} the relationship between co-worker closeness and employees' amount of collaboration was observed (Appendix 6). Both "How often do you collaborate with your co-workers?" and "On average, how close are you with your co-workers?" are seen as independent variables. The correlational bivariate analysis showed a weak negative correlation ($r = -0.282$), with significance ($p < 0.001$). The regression analysis showed that only 7.9% ($R^2 = 0.079$) of the variation in the degree of closeness can be explained by frequency of collaboration, with a statistical significance ($p < 0.001$). The unstandardized regression coefficient showed that an increase in frequency of collaboration is associated with a small decrease ($B = -0.250$) in the degree of closeness with co-workers. The chi-square test shows that the result was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), indicating that a statistically significant relationship was found between co-worker closeness and the desire to work more remotely. Meaning that these analyses provide sufficient statistical support for the existence of a relationship between the frequency of collaboration and the degree of closeness with co-workers. However, the correlation is in the opposite direction of our stated hypothesis, and with low explanatory power.

The relationship between employees' willingness to give their time and their sense of belonging was also examined to test H_{2A} (Appendix 6). Both "I willingly give my time to other organization members who have work-related problems" and "I feel a sense of belonging in the office" are seen as independent variables. The correlational bivariate analysis showed a weak positive correlation ($r = 0.179$), with statistical significance ($p = 0.005$). The regression analysis further showed that only 3.2% ($R^2 = 0.032$) of the variation in the felt sense of belonging can be explained by the willingness to give time to co-workers, with statistical significance ($p = 0.005$). The unstandardized regression coefficient shows that an increase in the willingness to give time to co-workers is associated with a small increase ($B = 0.205$) in the felt sense of belonging. Indicating that these analyses provide sufficient statistical support for the existence of a relationship with low explanatory power between willingly giving up time to assist co-workers and the felt sense of belonging.

These findings provide mixed support for the hypothesis. While both of the observed relationships are statistically significant, with weak correlations and low explainability of variance. One of the relationships was positively correlated, while the other was negatively

correlated which goes against the expectations. Overall, the findings do not provide strong support for our hypothesis. H_{2A} stating that employees who experience stronger social relationships in the workplace also experience higher levels of OCB cannot be accepted.

5.3. Hypothesis 3

In H_3 we predict that employees who experience higher levels of social support from co-workers are more likely to participate in extra-role performance. To test H_3 the relationship between the amount of collaboration and the amount of participation in social discussions was examined (Appendix 7). “How often do you collaborate with your co-workers?” was used as the dependent variable and “On average, how often do you talk to your co-workers (in any social discussion)?” was used as the independent variable. The correlational bivariate analysis showed a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.512$), with significance ($p < 0.001$). The regression analysis showed that 26.2% ($R^2 = 0.262$) of the variation in the frequency of collaboration can be explained by the frequency of social discussions, with statistical significance ($p < 0.001$). The unstandardized regression coefficient shows that an increase in the frequency of social discussions between co-workers is associated with a moderate increase ($B = 0.561$) in the frequency of collaboration. The chi-squared test shows that the result was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). These analyses provide sufficient statistical support for the existence of a confirmed, positive relationship between the frequency of collaboration and the frequency of social discussions among co-workers.

The relationship between co-workers assisting the respondent and others and the respondent assisting their co-workers was also examined to test H_3 (Appendix 7). “I assist others in their duties” was used as the dependent variable, while “My co-workers assist me and other co-workers in our duties” was used as the independent variable. The correlational bivariate analysis showed a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.546$), with significance ($p < 0.001$). The regression analysis further showed that 29.8% ($R^2 = 0.298$) of the variation in the respondents assisting their co-workers can be explained by the respondent's co-workers assisting them and other co-workers, with a statistical significance ($p < 0.001$). The unstandardized regression coefficient shows that an increase in the perception that the respondents co-workers assist them and others is associated with a moderate increase ($B = 0.479$) in the respondents themselves assisting their co-workers. The chi-squared test showed that the result was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Indicating that these analyses provide sufficient statistical

support for the existence of a confirmed relationship between the respondents co-workers assisting them and others and the respondents themselves assisting their co-workers.

H₃ is supported by strong positive correlations with statistical significance according to both examinations and all calculations. However, the explanatory power is still relatively low. All together, the hypothesis stating that employees who experience higher levels of social support from co-workers are more likely to participate in extra-role performance is accepted.

5.4. Overall

Most of the observed relationships provide limited support for our hypotheses, only H₃ is fully supported. H₁ cannot be accepted meaning that the null hypothesis (H₀₁) is supported, indicating that the employees who experience stronger social relationships with co-workers are not more likely to work from the office. Likewise, H_{1A} is not supported, suggesting that employees who experience higher levels of support in the workplace are not more likely to be physically present in the office. H₂ is also not supported meaning that the null hypothesis (H₀₂) is accepted, as employees who participate in higher levels of OCB are not more likely to work from the office. Furthermore, H_{2A} cannot be accepted due to the mixed findings, indicating that employees who experience stronger relationships in the workplace do not necessarily experience higher levels of OCB. In contrast, H₃ is supported, suggesting that employees who experience higher levels of social support from co-workers are more likely to participate in extra-role performance.

6. Discussion

The aim of this study has been to examine whether relationships in the workplace correlate to employees' willingness to choose the office over working remotely, with a particular focus on workplace relationships, and with connection to social aspects and extra-role performance. In general, when examining our findings in the context of previous research, there is mixed alignment. Some of our findings do not necessarily support what previous research states. This can be due to many different reasons, one being the geographical location and the cultural aspects that influence respondents. Another reason could be due to the respondents in our study, as they are specifically those who, to varying extents, work in hybrid employment forms and are therefore combining working in the office with remote work.

When examining relationships and OCB, our results indicate that employees who experience stronger relationships in the workplace do not necessarily exhibit higher levels of OCB in the hybrid work context. This differs in part from the previous research stating that employees who have a stronger connection to their co-workers also tend to have a stronger connection to the organization and more positive experiences of their work tasks (Ehrhardt & Ragins 2019, p. 273). Our results show that this connection is not as explicit in relation to specific aspects of OCB. It also partially differs from previous research arguing that strong and established relationships are linked to positive outcomes in terms of professional performance and citizenship behaviors (Cruz, Zagenczyk, & Kessler 2022, p. 139). Our findings show that this connection is not as strong when observing relationships within the hybrid work context.

When further connecting workplace relationships to the location that the work takes place in, our findings indicate that employees who experience stronger social relationships with co-workers are not necessarily more likely to work from the office. This may indicate that strong workplace relationships and a sense of belonging do not automatically lead to an increased willingness to be physically present in the workplace. In the hybrid work context, this may mean that employees' desire to work remotely is influenced by factors other than just social relationships and organizational affiliation. Meanwhile, when specifically examining the degree of remote work and OCB, our results indicate that employees who exhibit higher levels of OCB are not necessarily more likely to work from the office. This may indicate that collaboration and OCB are not automatically dependent on physical

presence in the workplace. In a hybrid work context, this may mean that employees can still collaborate and exhibit citizenship behaviors even when working remotely.

Another finding concerning social support and extra-role performance indicates that employees who experience higher levels of social support from co-workers are more likely to participate in extra-role performance. Meaning that the amount of collaboration is strongly correlated to the amount of social discussions that take place, and this idea has been found in previous research as well. Collegial interactions have been shown to have perceived support as a direct effect, when considering that perceived support is created by positive interactions such as co-workers offering each other help (Chiaburu & Harrison 2008, p. 1084). Examining social support and extra-role performance in the context of the degree of hybridity, our findings suggest that employees who experience higher levels of support in the workplace are not more likely to be physically present in the office. Specifically, interactions consisting of asking for help may not be the interactions that weigh heavily when considering the option of increasing the amount of remote working days in a hybrid employment situation.

Furthermore, employees who are considered surrounded by and participating in favorable social environments that are based on support and help from colleagues are said to have increased job satisfaction (Chiaburu & Harrison 2008, p. 1085). This notion is not fully supported by our study. When looking at an extrinsic factor, such as culture, of job satisfaction and evaluating collaboration and relationship strengths between co-workers, our study observed mixed findings. These factors significantly impact and influence each other, however not necessarily in aligning ways, meaning that employees who experience stronger relationships in the workplace do not necessarily experience higher levels of OCB. When further examining the social environment and the individual actions in the hybrid context, our findings suggest that the employees who participate in higher levels of OCB are not necessarily more likely to work from the office. This can suggest that the willingness to make time and give time to co-workers for organizational tasks, is not definitively associated with working in the office.

The norm of reciprocity and social exchange theory suggest that individuals in stronger relationships are more likely to engage in actions and behaviors that are more consistent and related to maintaining and strengthening these relationships (Cruz, Zagenczyk & Kessler 2022, pp. 140, 149). This is further strengthened by our findings, specifically that employees

who experience higher levels of social support from co-workers are more likely to participate in extra-role performance. When examining specifically reciprocity, our findings also support the notion that when employees receive assistance from co-workers they are more likely to assist others themselves. Adding the degree of hybridity, our findings show that employees who experience higher levels of support in the workplace are not more likely to be physically present in the office. Indicating that felt support is not a main factor concerning the location that the work takes place in, specifically that it does not increase the will to work in the office.

6.1. Limitations

In general, the quantitative method risks simplifying reality because people's thoughts, experiences and own interpretations cannot always be fully captured in fixed questions and predetermined answer options (Bryman 2018, pp. 219-220). There is also a risk that the results may have low ecological validity if the empirical data collected does not reflect people's real everyday life (Bryman 2018, p. 74), which can happen in the case of mistakes and dishonest answers. Furthermore, the quantitative survey can primarily show the degree of correlation between variables (Alvehus et al. 2025, p. 209), which provides less opportunity to understand why workplace relationships affect employees' choice to work from the office. In general, surveys risk simplifying the complexity of the phenomenon (Alvehus et al. 2025, pp. 209-210).

Some limitations specifically connected to the respondents and answers should also be discussed. The survey is partly made up of questions requiring the individuals to respond based on their own perceptions of themselves and their own actions. This means that there are potentially limitations concerning self-serving biases and social desirability in the respondents (Bryman 2018, p. 280). However, due to the fact that the answers are anonymous and the surveys were filled out at the place and time of the respondents choice, we do not see this as a major concern. Which should both indicate a lowered risk of extreme elevations of the individuals perceptions of themselves and their actions (Bryman 2018, p. 280). Another limitation can be connected to the answer options specifically regarding the question concerning if they had the option to work remotely before COVID-19. The available answers that the respondent can choose from are “yes” and “no”. However, we did not take into account that some of the respondents have not been at their workplace since before

COVID-19. This means that some of the answers to this question are not fully accurate, and this should be taken into consideration in further research and other studies. The same limitation applies to the question regarding how often the respondent works remotely, as we sadly missed the gap between “1 day a week” and “More than 3 days a week” in the available answers.

We would also like to emphasize the fact that there may be differences in results based on the type of hybrid employment the respondent has. However, the focus is on hybrid work as a whole, which is why the study does not limit answers based on the form of hybrid work. Yet another limitation that we want to mention concerns the language as our study and paper is in English, which means we can reach a wider number of respondents. Since we are located in Sweden, English is most likely not the first language of many of the respondents. Meaning that there can be a certain degree of misunderstandings due to the language barrier. However, in broad terms, we do not think this has a big impact on our results, but it is something that should be noted especially concerning the understanding of specific concepts and wordings.

7. Conclusion

The aim of this study has been to examine whether relationships in the workplace correlate to employees' willingness to choose the office over working remotely. The study has focused on workplace relationships, social aspects such as support and interactions, and extra-role performance. Our overall findings suggest that many of the observed relationships do not have a strong correlation, however some relationships are still significant. Our findings support that employees who experience higher levels of social support from co-workers are more likely to participate in extra-role performance. This is aligned with the norm of reciprocity and social exchange theory.

However, our findings also indicate that employees who have stronger workplace relationships are neither more likely to work from the office nor do they necessarily experience higher levels of OCB. This may suggest that employees' desire to work remotely is influenced by factors other than relationships and organizational affiliation. As well as suggesting that higher levels of remote work is not fully correlated to lower strengths in workplace relationships or OCB. This can also mean that the willingness to make time and give time to co-workers for organizational tasks, is not definitively associated with working from the office. Our findings further indicate that employees are not more likely to work from the office even if they participate in or experience higher levels of OCB or support in the workplace. Meaning that felt support is not a main factor concerning the location that the work takes place in, specifically that it does not increase the will to work from the office. This can further mean that the choice between office and remote work is influenced by factors other than just collaboration and relationships with co-workers. It can also suggest that collaboration and OCB are not automatically dependent on physical presence in the workplace.

In general, and in comparison to previous research, our findings suggest that workplace relationships are not as strongly or significantly associated with specific aspects of OCB, extra-role performance, and collaboration between co-workers when observing the relationships in a hybrid work context. However, our findings align with previous research on social support and extra-role performance in terms of reciprocity and social exchange, even in the hybrid work context. Overall, the correlation between workplace relationships and the will to work from the office does not present as a significantly strong or positive association.

7.1. Suggestions for future research

Due to our study's main aim of examining whether relationships in the workplace correlate to employees' willingness to choose the office over working remotely, the answers collected come from respondents from multiple industries, sectors, and potentially countries as well. Meaning that this field of research could benefit from future research that focuses and limits studies to specific geographical locations, sectors and industries. Specifically due to the potential differences that employees can experience, based on culture, workplace, industry and sector contexts and regulations.

In addition, future research can be more specific about the types of workplace relationships that are examined. Instead of treating relationships as a single concept, studies could distinguish between relationships with colleagues, managers and teams. This could contribute to a clearer understanding of which social aspects influence the willingness to work from the office. Furthermore, it may be relevant to examine how previous experiences of only remote work or only office work affect attitudes towards hybrid working arrangements, especially among people who have no previous experience of such a combination.

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Appendix 1. Cover Letter

Hi!

We are two students, Nicole and Matilda, who are working on our bachelor's thesis in Service Management at Lund University. The aim of the study is to explore the correlation between workplace relationships and employee's willingness to choose the office over working remotely.

This survey consists of three sections, and your answers will be anonymous. The first section contains most of the background questions that enable us to understand the demographics and can be used as control variables. The second section consists of statements where you choose how much you agree or disagree with each given statement. The last section contains a few more questions about working relationships, work climate and collaboration.

The survey consists of 20 questions and 11 statements, and we estimate it will take about 10 minutes to answer.

If you at any time no longer want to participate in the study, do not submit your survey and leave the site, or contact us.

The results of the survey will be used for our bachelor's thesis. The survey is made through SUNET Survey with Lund university licensing. All data is anonymous and no individual's responses will be disclosed in any context.

If you have questions or concerns or want to access our study when we have completed our thesis, send an email to: nicole.bexvall@gmail.com or matilda.glanna@gmail.com. Your answers will remain anonymous even if you send an email.

Thank you for your answers in advance!

Nicole Bexvall and Matilda Glännå

Appendix 2. The Survey

Page 1:

1. How old are you? Please only write your age in numbers.

2. Are you:

- ☐ Woman
☐ Man
☐ Other

3. Do you work in the private sector?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

4. In which industry is the company active? You can only enter one answer - If more than one applies: select the industry that best describes the company's main activity.

- ☐ Industry/Manufacturing
☐ Construction/Civil Engineering
☐ Trade/Retail
☐ Transport/Logistics
☐ IT/Technology/Telecommunications
☐ Finance/Banking/Insurance
☐ Real Estate
☐ Consulting
☐ Marketing/Media/Communications
☐ Education/Research
☐ Healthcare/Social care
☐ Public sector/Government Agency/Municipality/Region
☐ Energy/Environment/Water
☐ Hospitality/Restaurants/Tourism
☐ Culture/Entertainment/Creative Industries
☐ Agriculture/Forestry/Fishing
☐ Non-profit Organization
☐ Other industry
☐ Don't know

5. Approximately how many people work in the same office (both remotely and in person) with the same employer as you?

- ☐ Less than 25 people
☐ 26-50 people
☐ 51-75 people
☐ 76-100 people
☐ More than 100 people

6. What is your job role?

- ☐ Boss
☐ Team leader
☐ Employee (no extended position of responsibility)

7. How long have you worked at the workplace?

☐ Less than 1 year
☐ 1-3 years
☐ 4-8 years
☐ 9-15 years
☐ More than 15 years

8. Do you have the option to work remotely?

☐ Yes
☐ No

9. Did you have the option to work remotely before COVID-19?

☐ Yes
☐ No

10. Do you have a specified hybrid employment position?

☐ Yes
☐ No

11. How are the decisions made regarding you working remotely and from the office? Select all that apply.

☐ Own decision
☐ Team leader decision
☐ Boss decision
☐ Predetermined number of days per week
☐ According to the contract/employment agreement

12. Approximately how often do you work remotely?

☐ Never
☐ Less than 1 day each quarter (less than 1 day every 3rd month)
☐ 1 day each quarter (1 day every 3rd month)
☐ 1 day a month
☐ 2-3 days a month
☐ 1 day a week
☐ More than 3 days a week
☐ Everyday

Page 2:

Statements	Completely disagree	Partially disagree	Partially agree	Completely agree
I willingly give my time to other organization members who have work-related problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I help co-workers who have been absent.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I do not help my co-workers.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I attend meetings that organization members are encouraged but not required to attend.	☐	☐	☐	☐
My co-workers often help me.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I ask my co-workers for help.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel a sense of belonging in the office.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel appreciated in the office.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I take action to protect the organization from potential problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐
I assist others in their duties.	☐	☐	☐	☐
My co-workers assist me and other co-workers in our duties.	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. On average, how close are you with your co-workers?

- ☐ Distant
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Close
- ☐ Especially close

14. On average, how often do you talk to your co-workers (in any social discussion)?

- ☐ Daily
- ☐ Every few days
- ☐ A few times a month
- ☐ Less often

15. On average, how often do you talk to your co-workers (in any business discussion)?

- ☐ Daily
- ☐ Every few days
- ☐ A few times a month
- ☐ Less often

16. How often do you collaborate with your co-workers?

- ☐ Daily
- ☐ Every few days
- ☐ A few times a month
- ☐ Less often

17. In general, what is your experience of collaboration in the workplace?

- ☐ Positive, well-working
- ☐ Negative, inadequate

18. In general, do you enjoy the working environment (culture) in the office?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

19. Do you want to work remotely more often than you do now?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

20. Any other comments regarding hybrid work and/or relationships in the workplace? (Optional)

Appendix 3. SPSS results Hypothesis 1

1. Relationship 1

“Approximately how often do you work remotely?” = dependent variable (Y)

“On average, how close are you with your co-workers?” = independent variable (X)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations			
		How_close_ar e_you_with_yo ur_coworkers	Approximately _how_often_d o_you_work_r emote
How_close_are_you_with_ your_coworkers	Pearson Correlation	1	.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.304
	N	239	239
Approximately_how_often _do_you_work_remote	Pearson Correlation	.067	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.304	
	N	239	239

Regression analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.067 ^a	.004	.000	1.507

a. Predictors: (Constant),
How_close_are_you_with_your_coworkers

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.410	1	2.410	1.061	.304 ^b
	Residual	538.359	237	2.272		
	Total	540.770	238			

a. Dependent Variable: Approximately_how_often_do_you_work_remote

b. Predictors: (Constant), How_close_are_you_with_your_coworkers

Coefficients ^a							
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	5.239	.405		12.935	<.001	4.441 6.037
	How_close_are_you_with_ your_coworkers	.150	.146	.067	1.030	.304	-.137 .438

a. Dependent Variable: Approximately_how_often_do_you_work_remote

2. Relationship 2

“Approximately how often do you work remotely?” = dependent variable (Y)

“On average, how often do you talk to your co-workers (in any social discussion)?” = independent variable (X)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations

		How_often_social_discussion	Approximately_how_often_do_you_work_remote
How_often_social_discussion	Pearson Correlation	1	.267**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	239	239
Approximately_how_often_do_you_work_remote	Pearson Correlation	.267**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	239	239

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.267 ^a	.071	.068	1.456

a. Predictors: (Constant), How_often_social_discussion

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	38.621	1	38.621	18.228	<.001 ^b
	Residual	502.149	237	2.119		
	Total	540.770	238			

a. Dependent Variable: Approximately_how_often_do_you_work_remote

b. Predictors: (Constant), How_often_social_discussion

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	4.804	.218		22.028	<.001	4.375	5.234
	How_often_social_discussion	.585	.137	.267	4.269	<.001	.315	.855

a. Dependent Variable: Approximately_how_often_do_you_work_remote

Chi-square test

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	63.936 ^a	21	<.001
Likelihood Ratio	64.290	21	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	16.998	1	<.001
N of Valid Cases	239		

a. 21 cells (65.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .13.

3. Relationship 3

“Do you want to work remotely more often than you do now?” = dependent variable (Y)

“I feel a sense of belonging in the office” = independent variable (X)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations

		Statement_7	Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely
Statement_7	Pearson Correlation	1	.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.058
	N	239	239
Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely	Pearson Correlation	.123	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.058	
	N	239	239

Regression analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.123 ^a	.015	.011	.443

a. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_7

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.713	1	.713	3.624	.058 ^b
	Residual	46.609	237	.197		
	Total	47.322	238			

a. Dependent Variable: Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely

b. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_7

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
1	(Constant)	1.476	.136		10.887	<.001	1.209	1.743
	Statement_7	.072	.038	.123	1.904	.058	-.003	.146

a. Dependent Variable: Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely

Appendix 4. SPSS results Hypothesis 1A

1. Relationship 1

“My co-workers often help me” = independent variable (X)

“Do you want to work remotely more often than you do now?” = dependent variable (Y)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations

		Statement_5	Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely
Statement_5	Pearson Correlation	1	.159 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.014
	N	239	239
Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely	Pearson Correlation	.159 [*]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	
	N	239	239

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Regression analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.159 ^a	.025	.021	.441

a. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_5

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.204	1	1.204	6.185	.014 ^b
	Residual	46.119	237	.195		
	Total	47.322	238			

a. Dependent Variable: Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely

b. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_5

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	1.361	.150		9.041	<.001	1.064	1.657
	Statement_5	.107	.043	.159	2.487	.014	.022	.193

a. Dependent Variable: Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely

2. Relationship 2

“Do you want to work remotely more often than you do now?” = dependent variable (Y)

“I ask my co-workers for help” = independent variable (X)

Correlational bivariate analysis:

Correlations

		Statement_6	Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely
Statement_6	Pearson Correlation	1	.126
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.052
	N	239	239
Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely	Pearson Correlation	.126	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.052	
	N	239	239

Regression analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.126 ^a	.016	.012	.443

a. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_6

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.753	1	.753	3.830	.052 ^b
	Residual	46.570	237	.196		
	Total	47.322	238			

a. Dependent Variable: Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely

b. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_6

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	1.462	.139		10.531	<.001	1.189	1.736
	Statement_6	.078	.040	.126	1.957	.052	-.001	.156

a. Dependent Variable: Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely

Appendix 5. SPSS results Hypothesis 2

1. Relationship 1

“Approximately how often do you work remotely?” = dependent variable (Y)

“How often do you collaborate with your co-workers?” = independent variable (X)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations			
		How_often_col laborate	Approximately _how_often_d o_you_work_r emote
How_often_collaborate	Pearson Correlation	1	.195**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003
	N	239	239
Approximately_how_often _do_you_work_remote	Pearson Correlation	.195**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	
	N	239	239

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.195 ^a	.038	.034	1.482

a. Predictors: (Constant), How_often_collaborate

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20.484	1	20.484	9.331	.003 ^b
	Residual	520.286	237	2.195		
	Total	540.770	238			

a. Dependent Variable: Approximately_how_often_do_you_work_remote

b. Predictors: (Constant), How_often_collaborate

Coefficients ^a							
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	5.010	.229		21.909	<.001	4.560 5.461
	How_often_collaborate	.389	.127	.195	3.055	.003	.138 .639

a. Dependent Variable: Approximately_how_often_do_you_work_remote

2. Relationship 2

“Do you want to work remotely more often than you do now?” = dependent variable (Y)

“I willingly give my time to other organization members who have work-related problems” = independent variable (X)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations

		Statement_1	Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely
Statement_1	Pearson Correlation	1	.098
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.133
	N	239	239
Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely	Pearson Correlation	.098	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.133	
	N	239	239

Regression analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.098 ^a	.010	.005	.445

a. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_1

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.450	1	.450	2.277	.133 ^b
	Residual	46.872	237	.198		
	Total	47.322	238			

a. Dependent Variable: Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely

b. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_1

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	1.493	.158		9.420	<.001	1.181	1.805
	Statement_1	.065	.043	.098	1.509	.133	-.020	.151

a. Dependent Variable: Do_you_want_to_work_more_remotely

Appendix 6. SPSS results Hypothesis 2A

1. Relationship 1

“How often do you collaborate with your co-workers?” = independent variable (X)

“On average, how close are you with your co-workers?” = independent variable (Y)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations			
		How_close_ar e_you_with_yo ur_coworkers	How_often_col laborate
How_close_are_you_with_ your_coworkers	Pearson Correlation	1	-.282**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	239	239
How_often_collaborate	Pearson Correlation	-.282**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	239	239

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.282 ^a	.079	.075	.644

a. Predictors: (Constant), How_often_collaborate

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.464	1	8.464	20.420	<.001 ^b
	Residual	98.238	237	.415		
	Total	106.703	238			

a. Dependent Variable: How_close_are_you_with_your_coworkers

b. Predictors: (Constant), How_often_collaborate

Coefficients ^a								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	3.102	.099		31.220	<.001	2.907	3.298
	How_often_collaborate	-.250	.055	-.282	-4.519	<.001	-.359	-.141

a. Dependent Variable: How_close_are_you_with_your_coworkers

Chi-square test

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	44.754 ^a	9	<.001
Likelihood Ratio	28.850	9	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	18.880	1	<.001
N of Valid Cases	239		

a. 8 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

2. Relationship 2

“I willingly give my time to other organization members who have work-related problems” = independent variable (X)

“I feel a sense of belonging in the office” = independent variable (Y)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations

		Statement_7	Statement_1
Statement_7	Pearson Correlation	1	.179**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.005
	N	239	239
Statement_1	Pearson Correlation	.179**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	
	N	239	239

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.179 ^a	.032	.028	.750

a. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_1

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.426	1	4.426	7.868	.005 ^b
	Residual	133.315	237	.563		
	Total	137.741	238			

a. Dependent Variable: Statement_7

b. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_1

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	2.769	.267		10.361	<.001	2.243	3.296
	Statement_1	.205	.073	.179	2.805	.005	.061	.349

a. Dependent Variable: Statement_7

Appendix 7. SPSS results Hypothesis 3

1. Relationship 1

“How often do you collaborate with your co-workers?” = dependent variable (Y)

“On average, how often do you talk to your co-workers (in any social discussion)?” = independent variable (X)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations			
		How_often_so cial_discussion	How_often_col laborate
How_often_social_discussi on	Pearson Correlation	1	.512**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	239	239
How_often_collaborate	Pearson Correlation	.512**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	239	239

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.512 ^a	.262	.259	.650

a. Predictors: (Constant), How_often_social_discussion

ANOVA ^a					
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Sig.
1	Regression	35.531	1	35.531	84.153
	Residual	100.067	237	.422	<.001 ^b
	Total	135.598	238		

a. Dependent Variable: How_often_collaborate

b. Predictors: (Constant), How_often_social_discussion

Coefficients ^a							
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	.826	.097		8.485	<.001	.634 1.018
	How_often_social_discussi on	.561	.061	.512	9.174	<.001	.441 .682

a. Dependent Variable: How_often_collaborate

Chi-squared test

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	94.042 ^a	9	<.001
Likelihood Ratio	62.834	9	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	62.364	1	<.001
N of Valid Cases	239		

a. 10 cells (62.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

2. Relationship 2

“I assist others in their duties” = dependent variable (Y)

“My co-workers assist me and other co-workers in our duties” = independent variable (X)

Correlational bivariate analysis

Correlations			
		Statement_11	Statement_10
Statement_11	Pearson Correlation	1	.546**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001
	N	239	239
Statement_10	Pearson Correlation	.546**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	
	N	239	239

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regression analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.546 ^a	.298	.295	.497

a. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_11

ANOVA ^a					
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	Sig.
1	Regression	24.786	1	24.786	<.001 ^b
	Residual	58.503	237	.247	
	Total	83.289	238		

a. Dependent Variable: Statement_10

b. Predictors: (Constant), Statement_11

Coefficients ^a							
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B Lower Bound Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	1.909	.166		11.479	<.001	1.581 2.237
	Statement_11	.479	.048	.546	10.021	<.001	.385 .574

a. Dependent Variable: Statement_10

Chi-squared test

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	148.476 ^a	9	<.001
Likelihood Ratio	123.848	9	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	70.827	1	<.001
N of Valid Cases	239		

a. 11 cells (68.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.