

https://dspace.org/

Workplace friendship, team cohesion, workplace isolation & organisational citizenship behaviour

Zondo, Basetsana

2024
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg
https://hdl.handle.net/10539/44628
Zondo, Basetsana. (2024). Workplace friendship, team cohesion, workplace isolation & organisational citizenship behaviour [Masters dissertation, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg]. WIReDSpace. https://hdl.handle.net/10539/44628

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/



UNIVERSITY OF THE
WITWATERSRAND,
JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Master's Research Report Submission:

WORKPLACE FRIENDSHIP, TEAM COHESION, WORKPLACE ISOLATION AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

BASETSANA ZONDO (2088567)

KAREN MILNER (SUPERVISOR)

DECLARATION

I, Basetsana Zondo, declare that this research report is my own, unaided work. It is submitted for the Master's of Arts by Coursework and Research Report at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at this or any other university.

Signed:

B.Zondo

Date: 05 March 2024

Contents

1. INTRODUCTION: 5
2. LITERATURE REVIEW 6
2.1. ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR 6
2.2. WORKPLACE ISOLATION: 11
2.3. WORKPLACE FRIENDSHIP: 13
2.4. TEAM COHESION 15
3. RATIONALE: 15
4. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES: 16
5. HYPOTHESES: 16
6. METHODOLOGY 18
6.1. RESEARCH DESIGN: 18
6.2. SAMPLE: 18
6.3. INSTRUMENTS: 19
6.3.1 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR 19
6.3.2. WORKPLACE FRIENDSHIP SCALE 19
6.3.3. TEAM COHESION SCALE 19
6.3.4. WORKPLACE ISOLATION SCALE 19
6.3.5. BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE 20
7. ETHICS 21
8. DATA ANALYSIS: 22
9. RESULTS SECTION: 23
10. DISCUSSION: 29
11. LIMITATIONS: 31
12. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS: 31
13. FUTURE RESEARCH: 32
14. CONCLUSION: 32
15. REFERENCES: 34

List of Tables

Table 1:Reliability statistics for OCB 23

Table 2: Reliability Statistics for Workplace Friendship 24

Table 3: Reliability Statistics for Team Cohesion 24

Table 4: Reliability statistics for Workplace Isolation 24

Table 5: ANOVA Table for OCB 25

Table 6: ANOVA table for workplace friendship 25

Table 7: ANOVA table for team cohesion 25

Table 8: ANOVA table for workplace isolation 25

Table 9: Pearson Correlation results for OCB, workplace friendship, team cohesion and workplace isolation 27

Table 10: Model Summary for Multiple Regression Model 27

Table 11: : ANOVA table for Regression Model 28

Table 12: Coefficients table for Multiple Regression Model 28

List of Figures:

Figure 1: Diagram depicting direct positive relationship between workplace friendship and OCB, positive direct relationship between team cohesion and OCB, and direct negative relationship between workplace isolation and OCB. 17

1. INTRODUCTION

Traditional workplace structures that facilitated face-to-face interactions between organisational members are gradually losing popularity organisational members, with hybrid working arrangements being the most common, (Hopkins & Bardoel, 2003). With the rise of remote and hybrid working arrangements in a post-Covid world, contemporary working arrangements that allow members more flexibility and autonomy are gaining traction. Contemporary working arrangements were not as widely favoured prior to the pandemic and were mostly restricted to certain professions, (Kossek & Lautsch, 2018). There has been a significant increase in alternative working arrangements that deviate from the traditional workplace norm, which has fundamentally altered many aspects of work for a large number of employees across industries, even after Covid restrictions have been lifted.

McNall and colleagues (2009) assert that the flexibility offered by alternative working arrangements is instrumental in increasing job satisfaction for employees while simultaneously lowering the turnover intention of employees for the organisation. However, there are possible adverse outcomes that are of concern. These pertain to the social elements of work potentially being compromised by these arrangements. Being away from the office reduces informal contact amongst employees, (Kiesler & Cummings, 2002). There are limited opportunities to engage in informal contact like conversing with a colleague in the elevator or engaging in small talk in boardrooms before and after meetings. As a result, communication and interactions between organisational members has to planned, deliberate and more intentional (Will, 2021). Given the changes in social elements of organisations due to alternative working arrangements, it is valuable to investigate the potential effects this has on an organisation.

One of the organisational factors that may be affected by the changes is Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, which is a fundamental aspect of organisational effectiveness, (Ndoja & Malekar, 2020). OCB is a worthwhile organisational outcome study to as it may reveal important information about how new working arrangements are affecting organisational behaviour. In a context where employees are isolated from each other, or have limited face-to-face contact, it is crucial to understand the interplay between the social components of the workplace, namely workplace friendship, team cohesion, and workplace isolation and their relationship with OCB.

The aim of this study is to study OCB along with social elements such as workplace friendship, team cohesion and workplace isolation in different working arrangements such as remote, hybrid and on-site work arrangements.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

OCB is a term that has been linked to many positive organisational outcomes in the organisational psychology field, such as decreased employee turn-over and absenteeism, increased productivity, efficiency and customer satisfaction, (Ndoja & Malekar, 2020). Organ and Bateman (1988) provided a definition for OCB where they describe it as individual behaviours that are voluntary, not formally recognised by the reward system, and contribute to the effective functioning of the organisation. There is usually no expectation of reciprocity when these individuals help their fellow colleagues, which, in turn, benefits the organisation. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) likened it to "contextual performance," which is a term that includes behaviours and activities that are not explicitly stated as part of the job obligations but still contribute to the social elements that enhance team processes and outputs. Contextual behaviour in organisational psychology is defined as the actions or behaviours of employees that are beyond their prescribed or formal job duties, which are found to positively contribute to the organisation's social and psychological environment, (Bambale et al., 2012). Although contextual performance and OCB have often been used interchangeably, contextual performance encompasses a range of non-rewarded behaviour, making OCB an example of contextual performance, (Bambale et al., 2012).

Smith et al. (1983) proposed that OCB be simplified into two different dimensions, the first dimension being altruism and the second being general compliance. Altruism refers to behaviours that are meant to help or benefit a specific individual/group within the organisation, typical examples include providing emotional support or volunteering to help a co-worker with a task. General compliance, on the other hand, refers to behaviours that are intended to comply with organisational norms and rules, such as following procedures and being punctual. This distinction is essential in providing clarity on the nature of OCB by dividing it into two dimensions. William and Anderson (1991) would later group these two broad dimensions as

OCB-I (behaviour directed at others), and OCB behaviour directed at the organisation labelled OCB-O.

Organ (1988) proposed a number of categories, specifically five, under which OCB can fall under. Category one, altruism, refers helping co-workers with work-related tasks and providing support when needed, even if it is not part of an employee's formal job duties. The second category is conscientiousness and it is described as going above and beyond what is expected in terms of quality and quantity of work. It is inclusive of behaviours such as avoiding unnecessary absenteeism and completing tasks in a timely and efficient manner. The third category, sportsmanship, involves being a good team player and not engaging in negative behaviours such as complaining or gossiping about co-workers or the organisation, (Organ, 1988; Williams & Anderson, 1991), generally being a good team-player and loyal organisational member.

Williams and Anderson (1991) described courtesy, the fourth category, as being respectful and polite to co-workers and customers, encompassing behaviour that is considerate of others' needs and treating them with dignity and respect. And finally the fifth category, civic virtue, is defined as actively participating in the organisation's decision-making processes and being involved in the community outside of work, (Organ, 1988; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Examples of such behaviours include volunteering for company-sponsored events and staying informed about the organisation's goals and objectives (Organ, 1988; Williams & Anderson, 1991). These categories of OCB represent a set of voluntary behaviours that go beyond an employee's formal job description or obligations, and contribute to the effective functioning of the organisation, with civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship representing OCB behaviour directed at the organisation while altruism and courtesy represent OCB behaviour directed at individuals, (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Several studies have shown that all five dimensions of OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and courtesy) are positively related to job performance (Whiting & Podsakoff, 2009). However, a meta-analysis conducted by Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that altruism (which is a component of the helping behaviour dimension) was the strongest predictor of job performance. The correlation between altruism and job performance was higher than the correlations between the other dimensions of OCB and job performance, (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This suggests that OCB directed towards others has a significant impact on organisational performance.

Chelagat and colleagues (2015) elaborated on the concept of altruism, and they suggested that employees who engage in altruistic behaviours are more likely to have positive attitudes towards their work and their colleagues. By helping others, employees may also develop a sense of satisfaction and fulfilment, which in turn can lead to higher levels of engagement and commitment to the organisation. Moreover, Chelagat and colleagues (2015) argued that altruism can have a positive impact on organisational outcomes. By sharing knowledge and expertise, employees can contribute to the development of a more skilled and capable workforce. This, in turn, can lead to higher levels of productivity and innovation, as well as improved overall performance of the organisation.

Previous research has highlighted a number of OCB antecedents, including leadership, cohesive groups, and job satisfaction, (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In Podsakoff's (2000) research, he also found that OCB decreases organisational costs while increasing organisational productivity, profitability, and efficiency. Kumar et al., (2016) examined the relationship between OCB dimensions and employee well-being metrics where he found that negative outcomes such as burnout were negatively correlated to both OCB-I and OCB-O, while psychological health was positively correlated with OCB-I and OCB-O. These findings suggest that OCB might be indicator of a positive working environment, and the lack of it a signal that something in the organisation needs to be addressed. It is crucial to understand which components of teams and social elements have a relationship with OCB, particularly in the context of contemporary working arrangements.

OCB is a term that has been linked to many positive organisational outcomes in the organisational psychology field. Organ and Bateman (1988) provided a definition for OCB where they describe it as individual behaviours that are voluntary, not formally recognised by the reward system, and contribute to the effective functioning of the organisation. There is usually no expectation of reciprocity when these individuals help their fellow colleagues, which, in turn, benefits the organisation. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) likened it to "contextual performance," which is a term that includes behaviours and activities that are not part of the job requirements but still contribute to the social elements that enhance team processes and outputs. Contextual behaviour in organisational psychology is defined as the actions or behaviours of employees that are beyond their prescribed or formal job duties, which are found to positively contribute to the organisation's social and psychological environment, (Bambale et al., 2012). Although contextual performance and OCB have often been used

interchangeably, contextual performance encompasses a range of non-rewarded behaviour, making OCB an example of contextual performance, (Bambale et al., 2012).

Smith et al. (1983) proposed that OCB be simplified into two different dimensions, the first dimension being altruism and the second being general compliance. Altruism refers to behaviours that are meant to help or benefit a specific individual/group within the organisation, typical examples include providing emotional support or volunteering to help a co-worker with a task. General compliance, on the other hand, refers to behaviours that are intended to comply with organisational norms and rules, such as following procedures and being punctual. This distinction is essential in providing clarity on the nature of OCB by dividing it into two dimensions. William and Anderson (1991) would later group these two broad dimensions as OCB-I (behaviour directed at others), and OCB behaviour directed at the organisation labelled OCB-O.

Organ (1988) proposed a number of categories, specifically five, under which OCB can fall under. Category one, altruism, refers to helping co-workers with work-related tasks and providing support when needed, even if it is not part of an employee's formal job duties. The second category is conscientiousness and it is described as going above and beyond what is expected in terms of quality and quantity of work. It is inclusive of behaviours such as avoiding unnecessary absenteeism and completing tasks in a timely and efficient manner. The third category, sportsmanship, involves being a good team player and not engaging in negative behaviours such as complaining or gossiping about co-workers or the organisation, (Organ, 1988; Williams & Anderson, 1991), generally being a good team-player and loyal organisational member.

Williams and Anderson (1991) described courtesy, the fourth category, as being respectful and polite to co-workers and customers, encompassing behaviour that is considerate of others' needs and treating them with dignity and respect. And finally the fifth category, civic virtue, is defined as actively participating in the organisation's decision-making processes and being involved in the community outside of work, (Organ, 1988; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Examples of such behaviours include volunteering for company-sponsored events, and staying informed about the organisation's goals and objectives, (Organ, 1988; Williams & Anderson, 1991). These categories of OCB represent a set of voluntary behaviours that go beyond an employee's formal job description or obligations, and contribute to the effective functioning of the organisation, with civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship representing OCB

behaviour directed at the organisation while altruism and courtesy represent OCB behaviour directed at individuals (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Several studies have shown that all five dimensions of OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and courtesy) are positively related to job performance (Whiting & Podsakoff, 2009). However, a meta-analysis conducted by Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that altruism (which is a component of the helping behaviour dimension) was the strongest predictor of job performance. The correlation between altruism and job performance was higher than the correlations between the other dimensions of OCB and job performance, (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This suggests that OCB directed towards others has a significant impact on organisational performance.

Chelagat and colleagues (2015) elaborated on the concept of altruism, and they suggested that employees who engage in altruistic behaviours are more likely to have positive attitudes towards their work and their colleagues. By helping others, employees may also develop a sense of satisfaction and fulfilment, which in turn can lead to higher levels of engagement and commitment to the organisation. Moreover, Chelagat and colleagues (2015) argued that altruism can have a positive impact on organisational outcomes. By sharing knowledge and expertise, employees can contribute to the development of a more skilled and capable workforce. This, in turn, can lead to higher levels of productivity and innovation, as well as improved overall performance of the organisation.

Previous research has highlighted a number of OCB antecedents, including leadership, cohesive groups, and job satisfaction, (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In Podsakoff's (2000) research, he also found that OCB decreases organisational costs while increasing organisational productivity, profitability, and efficiency. Kumar et al. (2016) examined the relationship between OCB dimensions and employee well-being metrics where he found that negative outcomes such as burnout were negatively correlated to both OCB-I and OCB-O, while psychological health was positively correlated with OCB-I and OCB-O. These findings suggest that OCB might be indicator of a positive working environment, and the lack of it a signal that something in the organisation needs to be addressed. It is crucial to understand which components of teams and social elements have a relationship with OCB, particularly in the context of contemporary working arrangements.

OCB is an extensively explored area of research in the field of organisational psychology, with research detailing its various dimensions and antecedents, as well as its implications for

organisational outcomes and employee well-being. However, in the contemporary working world with remote work, virtual and hybrid teams, it is essential to consider how workplace friendships, team cohesion, and workplace isolation interact with OCB under these conditions. Additionally, previous research studies have shown the positive impact of OCB on organisational outcomes such as productivity, profitability, and efficiency. However, how do workplace friendships and team cohesion contribute to the manifestation of OCB and subsequently affect organisational outcomes, and how does workplace isolation limit, if it does, it?

2.2.WORKPLACE ISOLATION

Workplace isolation is an organisational psychology phenomenon that is of concern where contemporary working arrangements that minimise regular face-to-face interactions are gaining popularity. It occurs when an individual lacks fulfilling friendships or has no access to social networks within their workplace, (Marshall et al., 2007, p. 198). Golden and colleagues (2008) assert that it is the result of professional contact and social contact that is not sufficient to the individual. Workplace isolation is a term that encompasses physical isolation, professional isolation and social isolation. Researchers have made this distinction because of the various ways people can experience isolation. Someone working at the office but belonging to a marginalised group would probably feel and experience a different kind of isolation from someone who works from home and has no contact to other organisational members.

Professional isolation is described as reduced opportunity for professional and career developments in the organisation, (Kurland & Bailey,1999), while social isolation is the lack of interactions that are informal and not related to work and relationships with colleagues or friends in the workplace, (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). Physical isolation is described as the employee's experience of working in a space where they are not co-located with other members of the organisation, (Bartel et al., 2012). Sahai and colleagues (2020), taking stock of all these definitions and understandings of workplace isolation, then described it as a five-dimensional construct that describes a lack of social interaction, social support, learning opportunity, developmental opportunity and a presence of physical isolation, which encompasses all three different types of isolation. However, for the purposes of this research, workplace isolation is to be studied as a three (professional, social, physical) dimensional construct measured on three different scales.

Workplace isolation is common among people working away from the traditional working space, with about 60% of studies conducted on workplace isolation being studied in telecommunication working arrangements (Sahai et al., 2020). However, this does not mean that it does not occur in traditional office working arrangements. Research has found that even organisational members who have opportunities to have social and professional contact in a traditional working space, can also feel isolated, (Marshall et al., 2007; Bunjak & Crene, 2018). Bunjak and Crene (2018) looked at how followers' defensive pessimism and leaders' defensive pessimism interact to create followers' perceptions of isolation, suggesting that isolation is not always a result and reflection of social dynamics and elements in the workplace. This means that isolation in the workplace can stem from internal processes and individual psychological traits rather than exclusively external social factors.

Workplace isolation has been shown to lead to a variety of negative and undesirable workplace outcomes pertaining to attitude, behaviour, individual and organisational performance, individual affect and employee well-being, (Sahai et al.,2020). Mann and colleagues (2000) argued that that workplace isolation has undesired outcomes such as loneliness, emotional contagion, deterioration of social barometer for comparison which negatively affects an individual's confidence. More importantly, for this research, isolation has been shown to have negative implications for OCB as a result of the disconnection from the organisation organisational members may feel (Noh & Lee, 2022).

When evaluating the body of research on workplace isolation, it becomes apparent that not much of it examines workplace isolation in various work settings and corroborates the claims made in the literature regarding the social components—or lack thereof—that contribute to it. Understanding workplace isolation's nuances in various work settings is critical in developing more effective strategies to foster inclusive, supportive, and productive work environments.

Workplace isolation is an organisational psychology phenomenon that is of concern where contemporary working arrangements that minimise regular face-to-face interactions are gaining popularity. It occurs when an individual lacks fulfilling friendships or has no access social networks within their workplace, (Marshall et al., 2007, p. 198). Golden and colleagues (2008) assert that it is the result of professional contact and social contact that is not sufficient to the individual. Workplace isolation is a term that encompasses physical isolation, professional isolation and social isolation.

Professional isolation is described as reduced opportunity for professional and career developments in the organisation, (Kurland & Bailey,1999), while social isolation is the lack of interactions that are informal and not related to work and relationships with colleagues or friends in the workplace, (Cooper & Kurland, 2002). Physical isolation is described as the employee's experience of working in a space where they are not co-located with other members of the organisation, (Bartel et al., 2012). Sahai and colleagues (2020), taking stock of all these definitions and understandings of workplace isolation, then described it as a construct with five-dimensions that encompasses a lack of social interaction, social support, learning opportunity, developmental opportunity and a presence of physical isolation, which includes all three different types of isolation conceptualised by earlier scholars of isolation in the workplace. However, for the purposes of this research, workplace isolation is to be studied as a three (professional, social, physical) dimensional construct measured on one scales, as these constructs succinctly represent what is known about workplace isolation.

Workplace isolation has shown to lead to a variety of negative and undesirable workplace outcomes pertaining to attitude, behaviour, individual and organisational performance, individual affect and employee well-being (Sahai et al.,2020). Mann and colleagues (2000) argued that that workplace isolation has undesired outcomes such as loneliness, emotional contagion, deterioration of social barometer for comparison which negatively affects an individual's confidence. More importantly, for this research, isolation has be shown to have negative implications for OCB as a result of the disconnection from the organisation organisational members may feel (Noh & Lee, 2022).

When evaluating the body of research on workplace isolation, it becomes apparent that not much of it examines workplace isolation in various work settings and corroborates the claims made in the literature regarding the social components—or lack thereof—that contribute to it.Understanding workplace isolation's nuances in various work settings is critical in developing more effective strategies to foster inclusive, supportive, and productive work environments.

2.3. WORKPLACE FRIENDSHIP

As human beings, we are predisposed to social connections and relationships, (Berscheid, 2003), and the workplace is no exception. While the traditional view of the workplace may be

one of professional detachment and strict boundaries, there is something value in creating platonic bonds with colleagues. At the workplace organisational members have the opportunity to form different types of connections with other organisational members, including those that are not mandatory or formal. Some interpersonal and informal relationships can be described as workplace friendships. Krackhardt and Stern's (1988) research indicates, that during times of crisis, friendship connections between different groups can be a valuable resource for coordinating responses. These connections allow for sharing of resources that can aid in crisis management, suggesting that work groups with strong workplace friendships would be better equipped to deal with crisis and unexpected workplace challenges than those with weak workplace friendships. As stated by Riordan and Griffeth's (1995) research, friendships can be linked to significant work-related results such as job engagement, contentment, and loyalty to the organisation.

Workplace friendships are defined as "non-exclusive relationships in the workplace that are based on mutual trust, commitment, shared interests or values, and reciprocal liking", (Berman et al., 2002, p. 218). These types of work relationships differ from others in that they are optional and centred around personal connections, (Sias et al.,2004). Similarly, social network theory distinguishes friendship networks from information or advice networks because the former is built on intimacy, trust, and social affinity rather than a shared goal or purpose, (Brass et al.,2004); Gibbons, 2004). And thus, workplace friendships move beyond strategic alliances in the workplace, or connections that employees feel compelled to form and maintain but are rather more optional and personal.

In a study conducted by Zhang and colleagues (2011) who aimed to investigate the impact of employee social networks on OCB in China, employees who are positioned closer to the centre of a friendship network tend to display greater self-development, a greater inclination to assist their colleagues and foster positive relationships, and a more proactive attitude, suggesting that employees who have more and deeper social connections would exhibit more OCB than those who did not. Morrison (2004) discovered that the exchanges between individuals in the same team, referred to as team-member-exchange, resulted in enhanced group cohesion due to an increase in friendship opportunities and prevalence, and explained the relationship between OCB and organisational outcomes such as heightened satisfaction and commitment, and decreased intention to leave the organisation. This suggests that social support and social exchange between organisational members is a crucial ingredient in achieving desired organisational outcomes.

Researchers have previously studied the impact of workplace friendship on organisational behaviour, (Choi & Ko, 2020; Nougarou, 2017)), and the relationship between team cohesion and OCB, (Eilander, 2020; Kidwell et al., 1997; (Podsakoff et al., 1997). However, these studies were conducted in a pre-covid world where alternative working arrangements were not as frequent and were thus, not factored in. Raising the question of whether or not the results could have been different when considering alternative working arrangements.

2.4. TEAM COHESION

Team cohesion is conceptualised as an individual's degree of loyalty to members of the same group and how willing they are to endure frustration for that particular group, (Catwright & Zander 1960). It refers to the tendency for a work group to stick together and display a united front in the pursuit of goals and objectives in the team, and the satisfaction of the affective needs of members, (Carron et al., 1998). There are a number of explanations in organisational psychology of what team cohesion means but in all mainstream definitions of team cohesion, there is a recognition that cohesiveness can be seen as the connectedness of the group that makes members want to stay together, be sensitive towards each other and be willing to collaborate in order to achieve group goals.

The cohesiveness of a group has been identified as a crucial antecedent in promoting behaviour such as OCB as a result of highly cohesive teams engendering a strong social identity that can promote individual members' desire to help each other, (Kidwell, 1997). Additionally, studies have also found that group cohesiveness was highly correlated with the group measure of prosocial behaviour, (George & Bettenhausen, 1990). These studies suggest that groups and teams that are highly cohesive, would exhibit higher levels of OCB as a result of the prosocial behaviour.

3. RATIONALE

OCB is an area of research that has been extensively studied in a number of studies, however, these studies have scarcely explored the idea that an individual's social environment could be of influence in OCB. In the study of OCB, the focus has largely been on the individual, the organisation, task characteristics and leadership behaviour, (Podsakoff et al.,2000). The antecedent social elements of OCB have not been explored extensively in organisational

psychology. This is worth exploring, in our post-pandemic world characterised by emergent and contemporary working arrangements, because of the human being's need for social integration and interaction.

Furthermore, the limited exploration of the implications of social elements in the workplace on OCB in research studies, has been limited to pre-covid contexts with much of the research conducted not factoring in the emergent landscape of work. It is crucial to study these variables in different working arrangements in order to understand the significance of social connections. This research study analyses OCB and explores the social elements in newly frequent working environments.

4. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The aim of the study is to examine the relationship between team cohesion, workplace friendship, workplace isolation and OCB in different work contexts (hybrid, remote and face-to-face). The objectives are: comparing the levels of workplace friendship, workplace isolation, team cohesion, and OCB across different work contexts. And, to establish whether there is a predictive relationship between workplace friendship, team cohesion, workplace isolation and OCB.

5. HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: Workplace friendship levels for remote, hybrid and traditional working conditions differ.

Hypothesis 2: Team cohesion levels for remote, hybrid and traditional working conditions differ.

Hypothesis 3: Workplace isolation levels for remote, hybrid and traditional working conditions differ.

Hypothesis 4: OCB for remote, hybrid and traditional working conditions differ.

Hypothesis 5: Workplace friendship has a significant positive relationship with OCB.

Hypothesis 6: Team cohesion has a significant positive relationship with OCB.

Hypothesis 7: Workplace isolation has a significant negative relationship with OCB.

Hypothesis 8: Workplace friendship, team cohesion and workplace isolation has a predictive relationship with OCB.

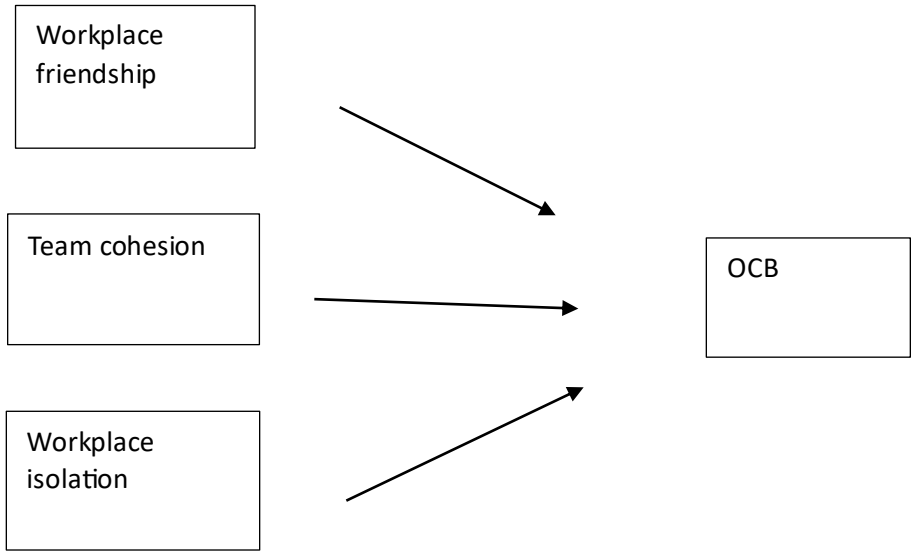


Figure 1: Diagram depicting direct positive relationship between workplace friendship and OCB, positive direct relationship between team cohesion and OCB, and direct negative relationship between workplace isolation and OCB.

6. METHODOLOGY

6.1.RESEARCH DESIGN

The study utilised a quantitative non-experimental cross-sectional research design. This design allows for data to be collected at one point in time, accommodating the needs of this specific study. The nature of this study does not involve the manipulation of any variable, random assignment or involve control groups and experimental groups (Brink, Van der Walt & Van Rensburg, 2013) i.e., study is not experimental. This method is cost and time effective, and is an efficient way of collecting data from a large sample (Laher & Botha, 2012). However, causal inferences cannot be drawn when utilising this type of research design.

6.2. SAMPLE

The participant pool for this research was employees from different types of industries, working in different work settings, namely: hybrid, remote and face-to-face. It is crucial that the sample consists of diverse organisational settings in order to fully compare the results of the different phenomena under study across different work settings. A convenience sampling approach was used in recruiting this diverse group of participants from different organisations. This sampling technique is beneficial as it allows for easy access to available and willing participants and is the most practical when aiming for a large sample size. The ideal sample size for this research would be a minimum of 100 participants as the aim is to be robust across multiple statistical tests chosen. A total of 104 participants took part in the study.

6.3.PROCEDURE

Participants were recruited via a professional social media networks called LinkedIn. For a broader pool of participants, the Wits plus students who are employed and studying part-time were also invited to join the study. A post detailing the study was shared, with a link that led participants to a Google forms questionnaire where they answered a series of questions compiled in accordance of the chosen scales.

6.4.INSTRUMENTS

The following measuring instruments were used to collect the data:

6.4.1 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Lee and Allen's (2002) OCB scale was utilised to measure this construct. This is a 16-item scale measured on a 7-point scale (1= never, 7= always), and it asks employees to report how often they have performed or engaged in certain behaviour. This scale consists of two sub-constructs which are OCB-I items (behaviours directed towards others) and OCB-O items (behaviours directed towards the organisation; for the good of the organisation). A sample item for OCB-I would be, "Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems" and one for OCB-O would be, "Attend functions that are not required but that help the organisational image".

6.4.2. WORKPLACE FRIENDSHIP SCALE

In measuring workplace friendship, a scale developed by Nielsen et al. (2000) was used. This is a self-report scale that measures workplace friendship with two subscales: friendship opportunity and friendship prevalence. It utilises a five-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Friendship opportunity asks questions such as "I have the opportunity to get to know my co-workers", while friendship prevalence asks questions such as "I have formed strong friendships at work". Each subscale has six items, making up 12 items in total.

6.4.3. TEAM COHESION SCALE

To measure team cohesion, the Work Group Cohesion scale (Carless & De Paola, 2000), which is an adaption from the Group Environment Questionnaire, was utilised. This scale asks questions such as "Our team is united in trying to reach its goals for performance" and "I'm unhappy with my team's level of commitment to the task" and rates the responses on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 7 (strongly agree to strongly disagree). This 10-item scale consists of three different sub-constructs that reflect different aspects of team cohesion. These are individual attraction to the group, social cohesion and task cohesion. This scale was utilised as is and with all three subscales.

6.4.4. WORKPLACE ISOLATION SCALE

In measuring workplace isolation, a scale developed by Marshall et al. (2007) was used and this measured an individual's degree of isolation or social exclusion in the workplace. It

consists of 10 items with a likert-type scale that ranges from 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree). Sample items include “I have friends available to me at work” and “.I have one or more co-workers available who I talk to about day-to-day problems at work”. This scale is the most suitable for this research as it measures isolation holistically, including the social and physical elements of isolation whereas most scales in this research area would only measure a single element of isolation e.g. social isolation.

6.4.5. BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

To supplement the scales in this study, a biographical questionnaire was administered and it e consisted of questions pertaining to demographical questions such as race, gender, age and education. Questions pertaining to their profession inquired on job title, number of years or months in the organisation (people who have been in their organisation for less than a month were not considered), type of work arrangement (hybrid, remote or face-to-face), field of work, number of people in organisation and job level. The biographical questionnaire consisted of 11 questions in total.

7. ETHICS

Where ethics are concerned, participants were fully informed of any information pertaining to the study. The rights of participants were respected through various ways; this included providing them with the necessary information concerning the study in order for them to grant informed consent. Participants were not coerced or forced to partake in this study, and their right to autonomy, privacy and anonmity and confidentiality was respected as the research did not include any personally identifying information such as medical details, sexual orientation or name. Anonymising IP addresses during online data collection was another way that the study ensured anonymity. Participants were able to elect not to take part in this study, at any point during the research process and have this decision respected. Ethical approval was obtained from the University of the Witwatersrand ethics board, with ethical number: MAORG/23/11.

8. DATA ANALYSIS:

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship that the independent variables, workplace friendship, team cohesion and workplace isolation, have with the dependent variable, OCB. In analysing the variables in different work settings (face-to-face, hybrid and remote, an ANOVA test was conducted. This test is helpful in comparing the means of each independent variable in the three different work-settings. In examining the relationship between these variables, correlational analyses were conducted to determine the strength and direction of the relationships of interest. This test is appropriate as it can be used to determine direct linear relationships between two continuous variables. A multiple regression was also conducted to establish if any of the independent variables are predictors of the dependent variable.

In order to conduct the statistical tests, the appropriate software programs was used. R studio version 2021.was useful in the preliminary stages to clean and sort the data, while SPSS version 28.0.1.1 was mainly used in the later stages to conduct the necessary analysis. Both the chosen statistical analysis assume that the variables are normally distributed. Other assumptions include independence of observations, homoscedasticity, random sampling and lack of multicollinearity, (Blanca et al., 2023; Mizomoto, 2023).

After the data was collected using Google forms surveys and shared on a professional networking site, LinkedIn specifically, it was transferred to Excel for a more integrated and cohesive view of the whole dataset. In preparation for the data analysis to be conducted, the data had to be cleaned, reverse-scored where necessary, and sorted. Cross-checking of the data from the original source (survey platform) was done to ensure that there are no data entry mistakes that needed correcting. The data cleaning process included identifying and accounting for missing data using the multiple imputation method, which is the most appropriate for data that is missing completely at random. Other statistical methods for correcting of missing data, such as listwise deletion or complete case analysis, would not have been appropriate because of the nature of the missing data (MCAR), and would have potentially biased the results (Wayman, 2003). Multiple imputation method is the most appropriate when the assumption is that the data is missing completely at random and consequently, the most appropriate for this dataset and the statistical techniques to be used which require a moderately large dataset (Wayman, 2003). A preliminary analysis of the dataset was conducted for assumption checking and descriptive statistics. This is to enhance the validity of the test results and for ease in reporting of results.

9. RESULTS SECTION:

This section discusses the results obtained from the analyses ran and their support of the hypotheses presented earlier. This was achieved through reporting of the descriptive statistics and assumption checking, followed by the reporting of the main statistical tests conducted.

9.1.ASSUMPTION CHECKING AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

A preliminary analysis of the dataset was conducted for assumption checking and descriptive statistics. This is to enhance the validity of the test results and for ease in reporting of results. The distribution for the dependent variable, OCB, yielded a skewness coefficient of -0.768 and a kurtosis of 0.762, which is not the ideal distribution for the dataset to be considered perfectly normal, however, it is in the acceptable ranges of -1.0 and +1.0 (Chen & Genton, 2022). Furthermore, the central limit theorem can be relied upon for normality, where this dataset is concerned as it has 104 participants. The different scales' reliability were also tested, with all the variables under study obtaining Cronbach Alpha's above 0.80, revealing that there is a high level of internal consistency among the items in the scale. Item 12 on the Workplace Friendship scale was reverse-scored, along with item 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, and 8 on the Team cohesion scale before reliability tests were undertaken.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.89	.89	16

Table 1:Reliability statistics for OCB

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.87	.87	12

Table 2: Reliability Statistics for Workplace Friendship

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.82	.83	9

Table 3: Reliability Statistics for Team Cohesion

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.83	.84	10

Table 4: Reliability statistics for Workplace Isolation

9.2. ANOVA TEST RESULTS

ANOVA analysis revealed that there were no significant differences between the three different types of working arrangements (hybrid, remote and on-site) in each of the variables under study. This fails to support hypothesis 1,2,3 and 4 as there is not enough evidence to suggest that any observed differences in sample means are not due to random variation rather than real differences in the population means. ANOVA results for OCB in the different work settings were not significant at a p-value of 0,72, while for Workplace friendship the p-value was 0,53. Team cohesion yielded a result that was not significant at a p-value of 0,09, and lastly, the results for Workplace isolation were also not significant at 0,74. These results are indicative of

there being no significant differences in the different working arrangements when examining OCB, Workplace Friendship, Team cohesion and Workplace isolation.

ANOVA

OCB_TOTAL

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,49	2	,24	,34	,72
Within Groups	72,54	101	,72		
Total	73,01	103			

Table 5: ANOVA Table for OCB

ANOVA

WFS_TOTAL

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,54	2	,27	,64	,53
Within Groups	42,53	101	,42		
Total	43,07	103			

Table 6: ANOVA table for workplace friendship

ANOVA

TC_TOTAL

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2,37	2	1,19	2,50	,09
Within Groups	47,89	101	,47		
Total	50,27	103			

Table 7: ANOVA table for team cohesion

ANOVA

WPI_TOTAL

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,18	2	,09	,30	,74
Within Groups	30,78	101	,31		
Total	30,97	103			

Table 8: ANOVA table for workplace isolation

9.3. PEARSON CORRELATION RESULTS

A Pearson correlation analyses, (table 9), was conducted to establish if there is a relationship between each of the independent variables and the dependent variable, addressing hypotheses 5, 6 and 7. Workplace friendship and OCB yielded a significant result with a correlation coefficient of 0,51 and a p-value of < 0.001. Team cohesion and OCB were also positively correlated at a coefficient of 0 ,42 and a p-value of $< .001$, indicative of there being a some relationship between the two variables. The last correlational relationship result to be examined, workplace isolation and OCB, was anticipated to yield a negative correlational relationship. However, the scoring for the Workplace Isolation Scale was done in such a way that high scores actually indicated a lower level of workplace isolation while low scores indicated a higher level of it.

The correlation revealed a positive correlation between the workplace isolation and OCB ($r = 0.48$, $p < 0.001$). Given the scoring system of workplace isolation, where higher scores indicate lower levels of workplace isolation, the observed positive correlation aligns with the initially anticipated negative relationship between the actual levels of workplace isolation and OCB. This suggests that as the level of workplace isolation decreases (reflected by higher scores), OCB increases. Whereas in the correlation between workplace friendship and OCB and team cohesion and OCB, as the independent variable increases, so does the dependent variable.

Correlations					
		WFS_TOTAL	TC_TOTAL	WPI_TOTAL	OCB_TOTAL
WFS_TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	1	,63	,71	,51
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	104	104	104	104
TC_TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	,63	1	,56	,42
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001		<.001	<.001
	N	104	104	104	104
WPI_TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	,71	,56	1	,48
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001		<.001
	N	104	104	104	104
OCB_TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	,51	,42	,48	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	
	N	104	104	104	104
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Table 9: Pearson Correlation results for OCB, workplace friendship, team cohesion and workplace isolation

A multiple regression model, refer to table 10, inclusive of all three of the independent variables and the dependent variable, OCB, yielded a significant result of <0.001, supporting hypothesis 9. The three variables contribute to the variance in OCB, however, R-square is low (0,297) indicating that there are other contributing variables unaccounted for by the model. Upon further analysis, workplace friendship was found to be a significant predictor of OCB, at a statistically significant p-value of 0.029, whereas team cohesion and workplace isolation were at a statistically insignificant p-values of 0,310 and 0,088 respectively.

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,54	,30	,28	,72
a. Predictors: (Constant), WPI_TOTAL, TC_TOTAL, WFS_TOTAL				

Table 10: Model Summary for Multiple Regression Model

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21,69	3	7,23	14,09	<.001[b]
	Residual	51,33	100	,51		
	Total	73,08	103			

a. Dependent Variable: OCB_TOTAL

b. Predictors: (Constant), WPI_TOTAL, TC_TOTAL, WFS_TOTAL

Table 11: ANOVA table for Regression Model

Coefficients[a]

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,34	,50		2,67	,01		
	WFS_TOTAL	,37	,17	,29	2,22	,03	,41	2,42
	TC_TOTAL	,13	,13	,11	1,02	,31	,57	1,75
	WPI_TOTAL	,32	,18	,21	1,72	,09	,47	2,13

a. Dependent Variable: OCB_TOTAL

Table 12: Coefficients table for Multiple Regression Model

The initial analysis of the dataset validated the use of the statistical tests by confirming the validity of the measures and the sufficient sample size for the central limit theorem application. In addition to a more nuanced understanding of the impact of workplace isolation on OCB, the analysis showed significant positive correlations between workplace friendship, team cohesion, and OCB. More specifically, the results show that higher levels of OCB are linked to stronger friendships at work and higher levels of team cohesion. Further enhancing our comprehension of these dynamics is the fact that the analysis of workplace isolation, as seen through the prism of the scoring, is consistent with the predicted inverse relationship between isolation and OCB.

Nonetheless, our ANOVA analysis did not find any statistically significant variations in workplace isolation, team cohesion, workplace friendship, or OCB amongst the three types of working arrangements (hybrid, remote, and on-site), indicating that these variables remain the same. Additionally, the eight hypothesis was supported by our multiple regression analysis, which found that workplace friendship was a significant predictor of OCB. However, the modest R-square value suggests that our model may not have fully captured other potential factors.

10.DISCUSSION:

This section provides a discussion of the results, beginning with a description of the characteristics of the sample and how that may have played a role in the outcomes observed. Followed by a reflection and insights gained by analysing the research results, and then the limitations, theoretical implications, future research recommendations and conclusion.

Reflecting the vast diversity inherent to South Africa, the research sample encapsulates a broad spectrum of gender, racial, age, and educational backgrounds, mirroring the country's diverse demographics. Within the cohort of 104 participants, women constituted 45.2% while men constituted 53.8% of the sample, with a single participant electing to withhold their gender identity. This was, however, not reflective of, although close enough to, South Africa’s gender distribution where women are the majority with 30.73 million in a population of 59.3 million, (Cowling, 2022). Racial composition was predominantly Black African at 73.1% of the sample, followed by White individuals at 15.4%, Coloured at 3.8%, Indian at 2.9% of the sample, and other minority groups filling the remaining segment. This racial distribution aligns closely with South Africa's demographic profile, where Black individuals represent the majority (Cowling, 2022).

A one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine the impact of various work settings on the specified variables, revealing no statistically significant differences among the diverse working conditions. The investigation of OCB across remote, hybrid, and onsite work settings was a foundational aspect of this study, as it sought to address widespread assumptions in the post-COVID era regarding the potential adverse implications of remote work on employees, the teams, and the organisations at large (Bao et al., 2022).

The focus on OCB, an organisational outcome not directly linked to explicit employee rewards, was deemed an optimal approach in attempting to assess these assumptions.

One possible reason for the lack of significant findings was the small number of remote workers in the sample. Only 8,7% of the sample, out of 104 participants, were remote workers, while 46,2% were hybrid workers and 45,2% had a traditional in-person work-setting. It is worth noting that alternative working arrangements have gained a lot of popularity post-covid, however in South Africa this seems not to be the case (Matli, 2020), as supported by the small proportion of remote workers in the research sample. There was no equitable distribution among the different working conditions, leaving the door open to ponder on whether or not the results could have been different had there been an equitable distribution. Or, perhaps there are other reasons why people might not have developed relationships in the workplace besides sample restrictions, challenging the idea that when one works from home, they are more likely to be isolated and less likely to build strong social bonds, build cohesive teams and display OCB.

The multiple regression model was found to significantly predict OCB. Only one of the three independent variables, workplace friendship, being a significant predictor of OCB reveals to us that perhaps friendship is the key. People in the workplace are more likely to display loyalty to the organisation and their colleagues if they have strong social bonds and friendships. Perhaps the reason why workplace friendship is a significant predictor of OCB and not the other independent variables under study, is because it people who are likely to invest in friendships at work are also linked to benevolently looking out for their colleagues' interests at work (Methot et al., 2016), which is a strong marker of OCB.

Perhaps it is essentially about reciprocity, Laursen and Hartup (2002) argued that human beings seek out reciprocal social exchanges from infancy, friendship being a good example of this, suggesting that the potential for a colleague to show up in similar ways for an individual, is huge motivation to display OCB, specifically the kind directed to other organisational members. However, taking into consideration the method of data collection, through professional networking sites, namely: LinkedIn, there is also a chance that people who interact with LinkedIn posts by a junior researcher they do not have any professional or personal ties to, are people with a strong sense of duty and more likely to score high on OCB as it requires employees to do more than what they are obligated to. There were no direct benefits or rewards to completing this survey, individuals did not have to complete the

survey, however, 104 of them did. So maybe it is not about reciprocity but mainly about possessing a strong sense of duty. Friendship is also a social dynamic that requires taking initiative and proactiveness a lot in the beginning stages (Miell & Duck, 1986), so perhaps this proactive quality can be extended to other facets of life such as being fully engaged and responsive to online surveys on professional networking sites.

11.LIMITATIONS:

The primary aim of the research, establishing whether there were any differences between the different independent variables under study in the different work-settings, was greatly limited by the unequal distribution into the different work-settings in the samples, leaving room to wonder if the same results could still be obtained with a more equitable research sample. Another factor to consider is the nature of correlational and predictive research analysis methods. This research study did not account for the possibility of the relationship between the different independent variables and the dependent variable being the other way round where OCB causes or leads to workplace friendship, team cohesion or causing reduced workplace isolation. This leaves the possibility of the hypothesised relationship being the other way round and causational.

A quantitative study has various limitations, especially pertaining to the depth and richness of the results obtained. Perhaps a qualitative study could have yielded more comprehensive and in depth results that allow for more detailed explanations about the relationships observed.

12.THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS:

This research was responding to the general assumptions coming through in the post-covid world, and a significant multiple regression model found that workplace friendship was a significant predictor of OCB. The identification of a single significant predictor among multiple variables presents evidence of a relationship between workplace friendship and OCB. However, it challenges assumptions that the social elements, along with OCB, under study are likely to not be as strong when there is limited opportunity for face-to-face interaction.

13.FUTURE RESEARCH:

Future studies could focus on achieving a more equitable distribution of the sample under study. This might involve recruiting a larger sample that ensures adequate representation across the different work-settings studied, potentially revealing effects that were obscured or not apparent due to sample limitations in this specific study. The findings suggest that other variables not included in this study may play a significant role in predicting the dependent variable, OCB. Future research could incorporate additional predictors to explore their potential impact and to understand the interactions that might exist among other variables.

Additionally, conducting longitudinal research could provide insights into the temporal dynamics of the relationships observed, allowing researchers to assess changes over time and potentially identify causal relationships that a cross-sectional design that was employed in this specific study, cannot reveal. Additionally, to better establish causality, especially given the limitations observed in the ANOVA and the specificity of the significant predictors in the regression model, future research could employ experimental or quasi-experimental designs. This would enable more controlled manipulation of variables to directly test their effects. Lastly, incorporating qualitative methods could enrich the understanding of the context and mechanisms underlying the significant relationships identified. Interviews, focus groups, or case studies may uncover nuanced insights into the predictors and their influence.

14.CONCLUSION:

In conclusion, this investigation into the social dynamics in the workplace and the result thereof, has posed new questions about the world of work. The establishment of correlations between the variables has affirmed the connection between social dynamics and relationships in the workplace, with OCB.

The ANOVA results did not reveal significant differences across all variables studied, a finding that can be attributed to the inequitable distribution of participants into the different work-settings under study. This outcome suggests that while the overarching patterns of

association hold, the impact of different conditions or groups on these relationships may require further exploration into these variables, whereby the sample has a more equitable distribution.

Additionally, the significance of our multiple regression model, with only one out of three variables emerging as a predictor, delineates a clear direction for future inquiry. This finding indicates that workplace friendship plays a critical role in the demonstration of OCB, a discovery that not only contributes to our understanding of the social dynamics in the workplace but also opens avenues for practical applications and interventions that encourage and cultivate said construct.

Pertaining to the multiple regression analysis, future studies might also explore the mechanisms through which an independent variable was found to be a significant predictor, exerts its influence. This may potentially reveal effects or moderating variables that were not apparent or accounted for in this specific investigation as a result of the limitations in the statistical analysis tests chosen. This line of inquiry could provide more understanding and deeper insights into the actual pathways in the relationships and facilitate the development of theoretical models that are more detailed and comprehensible.

15.REFERENCES:

Bambale, A. J., Mohd Shamsudin, F., & Subramaniam, C. (2012). Clarifying the ambiguity surrounding Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and related behavioral constructs. International Journal in Social Science, Economics & Art (IJSSEA), 2(1), 1-6. ISSN 2088-5342.

Bambale, A.J., Shamsudin, F.M., & Subramaniam, C.A.L. (2012). Servant Leadership as Employee-Organization Approach for Performance of Employee Citizenship Behaviors in the Nigeria's Electric Power Sector. Journal of Marketing and Management, 3(1), 1-21.

Bartel, C. A., Wrzesniewski, A., & Wiesenfeld, B. M. (2012). Knowing where you stand: Physical isolation, perceived respect, and organizational identification among virtual employees. Organization Science, 23(3), 743-757.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship". Academy of Management Journal, 26(4), 587-595.

Bao, L., Li, T., Xia, X., Zhu, K., Li, H., & Yang, X. (2022). How does working from home affect developer productivity?—A case study of Baidu during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Science China Information Sciences*, *65*(4), 142102.

Berman, E. M., West, J. P., & Richter, M. N., Jr. (2002). Workplace Relations: Friendship Patterns and Consequences (According to Managers). Public Administration Review, 62(2), 217-230. https://doi.org/10.1111/0033-3352.00172

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. M. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.), Personnel selection in organizations (pp. 71-98). Jossey-Bass.

Blanca, M. J., Arnau, J., García-Castro, F. J., Alarcón, R., & Bono, R. (2023). Repeated measures ANOVA and adjusted F-tests when sphericity is violated: Which procedure is best? Frontiers in Psychology, 14, 1192453. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1192453

Brass, D. J., Galaskiewicz, J., Greve, H. R., & Tsai, W. (2014). Taking Stock of Networks and Organizations: A Multilevel Perspective. Academy of Management Annals, 8(1), 327-363. doi: 10.5465/20159624.

Bunjak, A., & Černe, M. (2018). The Role Of Leader-Follower Defensive Pessimism (In)Congruence In Fostering Perceptions Of Followers' Isolation, Economic and Business Review for Central And South - Eastern Europe. Economic and Business Review, 20(1), 129-157.

Carron, A. V., Brawley, L. R., & Widmeyer, W. N. (1998). The measurement of cohesiveness in sport groups. In J. L. Duda (Ed.), Advances in sport and exercise psychology measurement (pp. 213-226). Fitness Information Technology.

Cartwright, D., & Zander, A. (1960). Group dynamics: Research and theory. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson.

Chelagat, L. J., Chepkwony, P. K., & Kemboi, A. (2015). Effect of organizational citizenship behavior on employee performance in banking sector, Nairobi County, Kenya. International Journal of Business and Commerce, 4(11), 1-15.

Chen, W., & Genton, M. G. (2022). Are you all normal? It depends! Journal Name, volume(issue), pages. URL/DOI

Choi, Y., & Ko, S. H. (2020). Roses with or without thorns? A theoretical model of workplace friendship. Cogent Psychology, 7(1), 1759836. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311908.2020.1759836

Cooper, C. D., & Kurland, N. B. (2002). Telecommuting, professional isolation, and employee development in public and private organizations. Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 23(4), 511-532.

Cowling, N. (n.d.). *Topic: Demographics of South Africa*. Statista. https://www.statista.com/topics/7956/demographics-of-south-africa/#topicOverview

Eilander, M. (2020). Organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, group performance and group cohesion: A study examining the mediating role of group cohesion. Unpublished report/thesis, Utrecht University.

Garcia, A., Bentein, K., Herrbach O. & Guerrero S. (2017). How does social isolation in a context of dirty work increase emotional exhaustion and inhibit work engagement? A process model. Personnel Review, 46(8), 1620-1634

George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(6), 698–709. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.75.6.698

Gibbons, D. E. (2004). Friendship and advice networks in the context of changing professional values. Administrative Science Quarterly, 49(2), 238-262.

Golden, T. D., Veiga, J. F., & Dino, R. N. (2008), The impact of professional isolation on teleworker job performance and turnover intentions: Does time spent teleworking, interacting face-to-face, or having access to communication-enhancing technology matter?. Journal of Applied Psychology, 93(6), 1412.

Hawthorne (2006), Measuring social isolation in older adults: development and initial validation of friendship scale. Social Indicators Research, 77(3), 521-548.

Hopkins, J., & Bardoel, A. (2023). The future is hybrid: How organisations are designing and supporting sustainable hybrid work models in post-pandemic Australia. Journal Name, volume(issue), pages. URL/DOI.

Kidwell, R. E., Mossholder, K. W., & Bennett, N. (1997). Cohesiveness and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Multilevel Analysis Using Work Groups and Individuals. Journal of Management, 23(6), 775–793. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639702300605

Krackhardt, D., & Stern, R. N. (1988). Informal Networks and Organizational Crises: An Experimental Simulation. Social Psychology Quarterly, 51(2), 123-140. https://www.jstor.org/stable/2786835

Kossek, E. E., & Lautsch, B. A. (2018). Work–life flexibility for whom? Occupational status and work–life inequality in upper, middle, and lower level jobs. Academy of Management Annals, 12(1), 5-36.

Marshall, G. W., Michaels, C. E., & Mulki, J. P. (2007). Workplace isolation: Exploring the construct and its measurement. Psychology & Marketing, 24(3), 195-223.

Ndoja, K., & Malekar, S. (2020). Organisational citizenship behaviour: a review. International Journal of Work Organisation and Emotion, 11(2), 89.

Noh, E., & Lee, K.-H. (2022). The empirical research on professional isolation during remote work in context of COVID-19 and organizational citizenship behavior: Sequential mediation effect of psychological empowerment and affective organizational commitment. Korean

Journal of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 35(3), 513-558. https://doi.org/10.24230/kjiop.v35i3.513-558

Nougarou, J. C. (2017). The effect of workplace friendship, team-member exchange and leader-member exchange on organizational citizenship behavior. Retrieved from https://repository.stcloudstate.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1569&context=etds

Organ, D. W. (1988). A restatement of the satisfaction-performance hypothesis. Journal of Management, 14(4), 547-557.

Organ, D. W. (1988). Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome. Lexington Books.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual- and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 94(1), 122-141. doi: 10.1037/a0013079

Riordan, C. M., & Griffeth, R. W. (1995). The opportunity for friendship in the workplace: An underexplored construct. Journal of Business and Psychology, 10, 141-154. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02230504

Sahai, S., Ciby, M. A., & Kahwaji, A. T. (2020). Workplace isolation: A systematic review and synthesis. International Journal of Management (IJM), 11(12), 2745-2758. DOI: 10.34218/IJM.11.12.2020.257.

Schnake, M. E., & Dumler, M. P. (2003). Levels of measurement and analysis issues in organizational citizenship behaviour research. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 76(3), 283-301. https://doi.org/10.1348/096317903769647184

Sias, P. M., Heath, R. G., Perry, T., Silva, D., & Fix, B. (2004). Narratives of workplace friendship deterioration. Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 21(3), 321-340. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407504041385

Smith, C., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. Journal of applied psychology, 68(4), 653-663.

Sun, L.-Y., Aryee, S., & Law, K. S. (2007). High-Performance Human Resource Practices, Citizenship Behavior, and Organizational Performance: A Relational Perspective. Academy of Management Journal, 50(3), 558-577. doi: 10.5465/amj.2007.25525821.

Wayman, J. C. (2003, April). Multiple imputation for missing data: What is it and how can I use it. In *Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL* (Vol. 2, p. 16).

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. Journal of Management, 17(3), 601-617. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700305

Zhang, B., Tan, D. L., & Li, Y. Q. (2011). Research on the influence of employee social network on organizational citizenship behavior. China Soft Science (10), 131-137.

Zhongfeng, F., & Raman, A. (2023). Influence of centrality in a friendship network on organizational citizenship behaviour. International Journal of Instruction, 16(1), 485-498.