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THE POWER OF WORKPLACE RELATIONS: IMPACTS ON EMPLOYEE PERCEIVED WELL- BEING AND QUALITY OF LIFE

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ABSTRACT. The primary objective of this article is to examine how the quality of interpersonal relationships in the workplace influences individuals' self-assessed quality of life in both professional and private spheres within the Central European context. A supplementary goal is to investigate the extent to which this relationship is moderated by selected demographic characteristics, including gender, age, tenure, job type, and employment sector. The study draws on survey data collected among economically active individuals in Poland, representing the largest economy in the Central European region. The analysis of the primary data employs Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The proposed theoretical framework aims to identify how specific dimensions of interpersonal relationship quality affect two aspects of quality of life, as well as how these effects are moderated by respondents' demographic traits. The findings confirm that the quality of workplace relationships, particularly the dimension of distance resulting from management style, but also interpersonal relationship-building methods and organizational climate, exerts a significant and positive influence on employees' self-assessed professional quality of life. In contrast, regarding personal quality of life, only the distance resulting from management style dimension shows a significant and negative effect. Furthermore, the relationship between workplace relationship quality and quality of life is moderated by all analyzed demographic characteristics. The article also discusses the interrelations among the examined dimensions of workplace relationship quality and between the two life-quality dimensions, offering meaningful managerial implications.

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Introduction

Quality of life is increasingly conceptualized as a multidimensional construct that extends well beyond traditional economic indicators such as GDP per capita. As highlighted in contemporary economic literature, quality of life encompasses three core domains: health and life expectancy, educational attainment, and the economic standard of living, measured through Gross National Income per capita (Balcerzak & Pietrzak, 2015). This broader perspective reflects the growing consensus that welfare cannot be meaningfully assessed without considering the social and human dimensions of development. The conceptualization and measurement of quality of life become even more complex when the aspect of its subjective perception by individuals is taken into account (Anthonius, et al., 2025). In this context, workplace interpersonal relationships constitute an important yet often underestimated factor influencing these dimensions, as they shape both psychological well-being and the conditions under which individuals function professionally and privately (Vörös, 2022). Given that quality of life is recognized as a complex and integrative phenomenon, the examination of interpersonal dynamics at work becomes essential for understanding how daily organizational experiences may translate into broader welfare outcomes (Szostek et al., 2025; Mishchuk et al., 2021).

The primary objective of this article is to examine the extent to which the quality of interpersonal relationships in the workplace affects employees' self-assessment of their professional and private quality of life. A further objective is to determine how this relationship is moderated by selected demographic characteristics, including gender, age, tenure, job type, and employment sector. To date, this relationship has not been subjected to sufficiently comprehensive empirical investigation that would allow for a robust assessment of how the quality of workplace interpersonal relations translates into employees' perceived quality of life. Existing research in this domain remains limited, as most empirical studies have focused on selected outcomes associated with relationship quality rather than on employees' broader assessments of life quality (Griffin et al., 2012; McCauley, 2012). This indicates the presence of a notable cognitive gap in the current state of knowledge. To the best of our knowledge, this socio-economic problem has not yet been empirically examined within the Central European socio-economic and institutional context.

The quality of interpersonal relationships at work is known to translate into numerous dimensions of human functioning, extending well beyond the professional domain into private life. The consequences of interpersonal relationship quality may encompass physiological responses, including cardiovascular, immune, and neuroendocrine reactions, as well as cognitive and behavioral outcomes (Szostek, 2019; 2022). These effects may be either positive or negative, depending on the nature of the relationships involved. It is recognized that the consequences of relationship quality at work differ across individuals due to personal and situational factors (Stephens et al., 2011). Moreover, not all relationships exert equal influence; those considered meaningful or central to individuals' work experience tend to have the strongest impact (Heaphy, 2009).

Nevertheless, a general pattern emerges in the literature, according to which high-quality interpersonal relationships tend to be associated with more satisfying, enriching, and supportive experiences, whereas low-quality relationships are typically characterized as unsatisfactory and may even prove detrimental to an individual's psychological and physical well-being (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). Thus, workplace relationships play a significant role in shaping psychosomatic well-being, influencing not only professional experiences but also the broader sphere of private life (Stephens et al., 2011).

The main and supplementary objectives of this study are addressed through the verification of the following research hypotheses:

1. [H1] Higher (lower) quality of interpersonal relationships at work is associated with a higher (lower) assessment of professional quality of life.
2. [H2] Higher (lower) quality of interpersonal relationships at work is associated with a higher (lower) assessment of private quality of life.
3. [H3] The effect of interpersonal relationship quality on the assessment of professional (private) quality of life is moderated by demographic characteristics, including gender, age, tenure, job type, and employment sector.

The research objectives are pursued on the basis of an online survey conducted in August and September 2025. The sample consists of 1,907 professionally active individuals in Poland, representing a diverse cross-section of the country's labor market. Poland, as the largest economy in Central Europe, can be regarded as a quasi-representative case for the Central European region. The collected data are analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), which allows for a comprehensive examination of the interdependencies among the multidimensional and latent variables under study. The quality of interpersonal relationships at work is measured using the validated QIRTS scale (Szostek, 2019), whereas the quality of life is assessed using the auto-validated scale developed by Błoński and Jefmański (2017). Both instruments have been validated in previous research (Szostek et al., 2023), ensuring the reliability of the empirical findings.

This study is expected to make a significant contribution to the existing body of literature by providing empirical evidence on the impact of workplace interpersonal relationship quality on employees' self-evaluations of both professional and private quality of life. The subsequent sections of the article outline the theoretical framework underpinning the research, present the methodological approach employed to test the proposed model, and discuss the empirical findings and their implications for theory and managerial practice.

1. Literature review

Interpersonal relationships, including those formed in organizational settings, inherently possess a definable quality manifested through the reciprocity, intensity, and frequency of interactions between individuals (Heaphy, 2009). Despite their centrality to organizational life, the concept of relationship quality remains only partially and inconsistently delineated in the scholarly literature (Szostek, 2019; 2022). This ambiguity stems from several underlying characteristics. First, workplace relationships are intrinsically dichotomous in nature: they may be positive or high-quality when both parties benefit from the interaction (Ragins & Dutton, 2009), or negative or low-quality when at least one party experiences adverse outcomes (Halbesleben, 2012). Importantly, these two forms do not constitute stable categories; rather, relationship quality is dynamic, meaning that the same interpersonal tie may oscillate between positive and negative states over time, or even simultaneously exhibit both beneficial and detrimental facets (Halbesleben, 2012). Consequently, the presence of either positive or negative elements does not imply that the overall relationship should be uniformly classified as such.

The quality of interpersonal relationships at work is often defined as the subjective assessment made by each party regarding the extent to which the relationship satisfies their expectations concerning its outcomes. This assessment is shaped by a complex interplay of personal evaluations and contextual conditions (Szostek et al., 2020; Szostek et al., 2023). Numerous determinants influence the perceived quality of these relationships, including satisfaction with the partnership, mutual dependence, commitment, trust, personality similarity, relationship duration, frequency of interaction, emotional involvement, relational investments, communication patterns, organizational culture, workplace climate, and interactions that occur

beyond formal organizational boundaries. The importance of factors of interpersonal relationship became especially obvious during pandemic restrictions (Mishchuk et al., 2023; Bouvier et al., 2024) with the appropriate consequences for well-being at work under the conditions of remote work (Bencsik & Juhasz, 2023; Karacsony et al., 2025; Staniec et al., 2023).

High-quality workplace relationships typically display several distinguishing characteristics: frequent interaction, openness, personal engagement, emotional richness, transparent communication, deep mutual understanding, spontaneity, positive affect, the capacity to navigate conflicts constructively, intimacy, reciprocity, trust, respect, cooperation, altruism, and substantial investment of time and effort (Gabarro, 1990; Naudé & Buttle, 2000; Roberts, 2009; Halbesleben, 2012). Low-quality relationships, by contrast, are marked by deficiencies in these attributes. They tend to be governed by formality, transactional logic, situational contingencies, or even mutual indifference (Stephens et al., 2013; Michulek et al., 2024).

As emphasized in the literature, the consequences of relationship quality extend across multiple domains of human functioning. These effects can be physiological and affect cardiovascular, immune, and neuroendocrine systems, as well as cognitive and behavioral. Table 1 summarizes these categories. Taken together, these insights underline the significance of examining interpersonal relationships at work as a multidimensional and dynamic construct with profound implications for employee well-being and organizational outcomes.

Table 1. Summary of findings on workplace interpersonal relationship quality

Results		Examples
Physiological	<i>High quality of relationships</i>	· Lower blood pressure
		· Lower heart rate during the day and night
		· Higher levels of oxytocin (the so-called happiness hormone)
		· Lower tumor cell activity (sick patients)
	<i>Low quality of relationships</i>	· Higher blood pressure
		· Weaker immune system
		· Higher levels of cortisol (the so-called stress hormone)
		· Higher concentration of glucose in the blood plasma
Cognitive	<i>High quality of relationships</i>	· Higher trust between employees
		· More efficient communication and more willing sharing of knowledge
		· Higher work satisfaction, better mood
		· Mental balance
	<i>Low quality of relationships</i>	· Better perceptive skills
		· Positive emotions
		· More conflicts
		· Weaker perception
	<i>High quality of relationships</i>	· Worse well-being and dissatisfaction
		· No or less willing to share knowledge
		· More effectiveness at work
		· Greater work commitment
Behavioral	<i>High quality of relationships</i>	· Higher motivation
		· compliance with safety and healths rules at work
		· More organizational citizenship behaviors at work
		· Higher innovativeness
	<i>Low quality of relationships</i>	· Lower motivation and commitment to work
		· More mistakes
		· Less willing to cooperate
		· Greater absenteeism of employees
	<i>Low quality of relationships</i>	· A decline in individual and group performance
		· More counterproductive work behaviors

Source: own work based on: Argyle & Furnham (1983); Levy et al. (1990); Unde'n et al. (1991); Ariño et al. (1999); Reis et al. (2000); Rau et al. (2001); Schnorpfeil et al. (2003); Wager et al. (2003); Kamdar & Van Dyne (2007); Cameron (2008); Heaphy & Dutton (2008); Carmeli & Gittel (2009); Bono & Yoon (2012); Dutton (2012); Halbesleben (2012).

The ambiguities inherent in defining interpersonal relationships at work significantly complicate the task of measuring their quality, as any final assessment ultimately relies on employees' subjective perceptions of multiple relational dimensions (Stephens et al., 2011). Consequently, measurement approaches must capture observable and reportable derivatives of relationship quality, including behavioral manifestations, such as engaging in personal conversations or socially excluding colleagues, as well as evaluative judgments regarding team climate, trust, or collegial support (Ragins & Dutton, 2009). Quantitative self-report methods therefore represent the most feasible and widely accepted research strategy. These approaches typically involve structured survey instruments that measure the frequency of specific behaviors and the respondent's subjective opinions related to interpersonal dynamics. Ensuring strict anonymity is essential, as it minimizes social desirability bias and enhances the reliability of responses (Łucjan et al. 2023; Szostek et al., 2024).

Although survey-based methodologies have well-acknowledged limitations, particularly in the context of phenomena that are deeply relational, nuanced, and qualitative, but still they remain more practical and no less reliable than alternative methods. Observations, content analyses, experiments, or physiological measurements do not inherently offer higher-quality empirical material; instead, they tend to be costlier, more labor-intensive, time-consuming, and often require advanced methodological expertise that is not always available to researchers (Szostek, 2022). For these reasons, well-designed quantitative self-report instruments are regarded as the most efficient option for capturing employees' subjective assessments of workplace relationship quality.

In parallel, quality of life constitutes an interdisciplinary construct widely utilized in economics, sociology, psychology, and medicine. The literature offers numerous and sometimes divergent definitions, reflecting the inherently complex, multifaceted, and elusive nature of this phenomenon (Balcerzak & Pietrzak, 2015; Vuković & Vlah Petohlep, 2026). Quality of life may be examined from two analytical perspectives: subjective and objective. The subjective perspective focuses on individual experiences and emotional evaluations, equating quality of life with enduring happiness or satisfaction across multiple spheres of life. The objective perspective, in contrast, conceptualizes quality of life through measurable socioeconomic indicators, often aligning it with constructs such as well-being, living standards, or material conditions (Vuković & Vlah Petohlep, 2026; Piras, 2026). Together, these perspectives underscore that quality of life is a multidimensional construct shaped both by structural conditions and by individuals' personal interpretations of their lived experiences.

Objective approaches to measuring quality of life typically encompass four fundamental dimensions. First, economic prosperity is assessed through the level of income that enables individuals to satisfy essential needs. Second, quality of life is evaluated in terms of housing and municipal infrastructure, reflected for example in the number of persons per room or access to amenities such as central heating. Third, the availability and functioning of social infrastructure, including healthcare systems or the justice sector, serve as important indicators. Fourth, the state of the natural environment, captured through measures such as air and water pollution, also plays a significant role in determining living conditions (Balcerzak & Pietrzak, 2015; Vuković & Vlah Petohlep, 2026; Piras, 2026).

In turn, subjective measurement focuses on individuals' own evaluations of different life domains, for instance, satisfaction with private and professional life, the quality of neighborly and social relations, health, leisure activities, education, and other aspects connected

to the local community (Campbell, 1981). A crucial element in subjective assessments is the perceived discrepancy between the desired state and the actual state of affairs. The magnitude of this discrepancy directly influences the overall evaluation of quality of life, with greater divergence indicating lower perceived quality (Słaby, 2015). Moreover, the importance of the life domain to which the discrepancy pertains amplifies its effect: unmet expectations in areas considered highly significant by an individual generate more pronounced discomfort and thus a lower subjective quality of life.

2. Methods

The data were collected in August and September 2025 using a non-random sample of 1,907 professionally active individuals in Poland. The measurement procedure relied on an online survey. Invitations to participate in the study were distributed to two groups of entities: the 200 largest enterprises and approximately 2,400 Polish municipal governments.

To assess the quality of interpersonal relationships at work, the study employed the QIRT-S (Quality of Interpersonal Relationships in the Team Scale) instrument developed and presented in details by Szostek (2019). This validated tool, adapted to the Polish cultural context, consists of 58 items grouped into two overarching dimensions, which can be grouped as determinants and outcomes of relationship quality (both organizational and individual), and then four analytical categories:

1. *Organizational climate* (items 1, 12, 19, 24–27, 29–38, 44, 45, 47, 50–55, 57, 58): This category captures employees' subjective perceptions related to their team and workplace environment, including the overall atmosphere, the presence of conflicts, and levels of trust.
2. *Interpersonal relationships* (items 1–7, 9–11, 13–16, 48, 49, 56): These items reflect the personal nature of interactions among employees, encompassing private conversations, mutual honesty, affective bonds, and everyday support both within and outside work tasks.
3. *Interpersonal relationship-building methods* (items 39–43): This category concerns organizational initiatives aimed at strengthening relationships among employees, such as employer-organized social events and the physical working environment.
4. *Distance resulting from the management style* (items 17, 18, 20–23, 28, 46): This dimension reflects the influence of leadership styles on relationship development, including supervisors' personality traits, perceptions of organizational justice, and the extent to which leaders demonstrate openness to employees and their needs.

To measure the perceived well-being and quality of life in private and professional terms, the validated scale by Błoński & Jefmański (2017) was used (see Table 2).

Table 2. Scale for measuring the perceived well-being and quality of life

What is your assessment of the following aspects of life? (please give your opinion on each aspect)					
	Definitely low	Rather low	Hard to say	Rather high	Definitely high
The quality of private life					
1. Financial situation (income, savings)	1	2	3	4	5
2. Housing conditions (size, location, technical condition, equipment)	1	2	3	4	5
3. Social position	1	2	3	4	5
4. Relationships with closer and more distant neighbors	1	2	3	4	5
5. Maintaining the right proportions between work and free time	1	2	3	4	5
6. Own health	1	2	3	4	5
7. Relationships with relatives in the family / household (spouse, partner, parents, grandparents, children)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Feeling of fulfillment in personal life	1	2	3	4	5
9. Happiness	1	2	3	4	5
10. Feeling of being appreciated	1	2	3	4	5
11. Self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5
The quality of professional life					
12. Employment security	1	2	3	4	5
13. Salary	1	2	3	4	5
14. Promotion opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
15. Development opportunities (training, postgraduate studies, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
16. Chances of finding a new, comparable or better job	1	2	3	4	5
17. Relationships with colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
18. Relationships with superiors	1	2	3	4	5
19. Freedom to take a day off on request, freedom to leave work in unforeseeable situations	1	2	3	4	5
20. Justice in the treatment by the superior	1	2	3	4	5
21. Communication in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
22. Material working conditions (e.g. workplace equipment)	1	2	3	4	5
23. Flexibility of working time (possibility to work from home, non-standard working time)	1	2	3	4	5

Source: own work on: Błoński & Jefmański (2017, p. 50).

The basic demographic characteristics of the respondents are included in Table 3.

Table 3. Demographic characteristics of respondents

Characteristic		N	%
Sex	Female	1497	78,3
	Male	410	21,4
Education	Vocational	3	0,2
	Secondary	170	8,9
	Higher	1735	90,7
	Missing	5	0,3
Type of work	Blue collar	3	0,2
	Office / clerical	1516	79,2
	Managerial	394	20,6
Age	41,2 years (Medium)	21 years (MIN)	68 lata (MAX)
Length of service	12,8 years (Medium)	Kilka miesięcy (MIN)	64 lat (MAX)
Employment sector	Private	889	46,5
	Public	1020	53,3
	Missing	4	0,2

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Voivodship (region od Poland)	Dolnośląskie	144	7,5
	Kujawsko-pomorskie	187	9,8
	Lubelskie	59	3,1
	Lubuskie	40	2,1
	Łódzkie	104	5,4
	Małopolskie	165	8,6
	Mazowieckie	162	8,5
	Opolskie	67	3,5
	Podkarpackie	77	4,0
	Podlaskie	116	6,1
	Pomorskie	168	8,8
	Śląskie	144	7,5
	Świętokrzyskie	51	2,7
	Warmińsko-mazurskie	92	4,8
	Wielkopolskie	257	13,4
	Zachodniopomorskie	79	4,1
	Missing	1	0,1

Source: own study.

3. Results

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) enabled the identification of those variables that most strongly represented the categories of interpersonal relationship quality at work as well as the two dimensions of quality of life: private and professional. The procedure allowed for the retention of only those indicators that significantly contributed to the respective latent constructs and demonstrated the highest factor loadings. This step was essential for the specification and subsequent estimation of the structural equation model (SEM) presented in the following section (Zada et al., 2024; Rudawska & Nickell, 2024; Chatzoudes et al., 2024; Mičik et al., 2025).

Table 4 provides a summary of the extracted individual factors (categories and dimensions) together with the final set of variables included in the SEM analysis. Each variable is labeled according to the item number from the original scale and is preceded by a prefix denoting the construct it represents: *Q* for the quality of interpersonal relationships, *P* for quality of life in the private dimension, and *Z* for quality of life in the professional dimension.

The reliability of all constructs was confirmed using Cronbach's alpha. For every factor included in the analysis, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient exceeded the threshold value of 0.80, indicating high internal consistency and confirming the robustness of the measurement scales applied.

Table 4. List of factors with the measurable variables and Alpha-Cronbach statistics

Factor	Measurable variable	Alpha-Cronbach statistic
Organizational climate	Q31, Q32, Q33 Q34, Q35, Q38, Q51, Q54	0.959
Interpersonal ties	Q4, Q7, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q13, Q16, Q48	0.889
Distance resulting from the management style	Q17, Q18, Q20, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q28, Q46	0.876
Interpersonal relationship building methods	Q39, Q40, Q41, Q42, Q43	0.878
Quality of private life	P3, P5, P6, P7, P8, P9, P10, P11	0.858
Quality of professional life	Z3, Z4, Z6, Z7, Z8, Z9, Z10, Z11	0.861

Source: own study.

To verify the research hypotheses, a structural equation model (SEM) was estimated using the maximum likelihood (ML) method. Data analysis was conducted in the IBM SPSS AMOS v.16 environment, adopting a significance level of 0.05. The diagram of the proposed model is presented in Figure 1. It represents the hypothetical structural framework developed to examine the relationships between the categories of interpersonal relationship quality and the two dimensions of quality of life experienced by employees, first professional and then private.

The model additionally incorporates the theoretically grounded assumption that satisfaction in professional life is related to satisfaction in private life. This reflects the bidirectional spillover commonly identified in the literature on work–life interactions. Furthermore, the structural model accounts for interrelationships among the categories of interpersonal relationship quality themselves, acknowledging that organizational climate, interpersonal interactions, relationship-building practices, and leadership-related distance may mutually reinforce or counterbalance one another.

It is important to emphasize that the path diagram presented in Figure 1 illustrates only the latent constructs and the structural paths between them. The measurable indicators corresponding to each latent factor, which were previously derived through confirmatory factor analysis, are not individually displayed in the figure. The set of observed variables included in the SEM remains identical to the final list presented in Table 4.

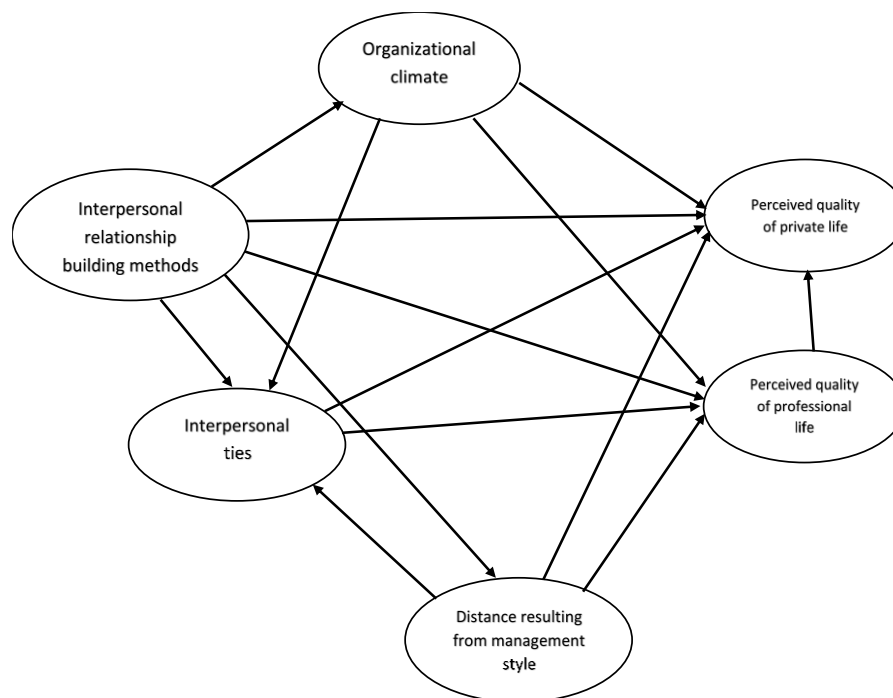


Figure 1. Visualisation of the SEM model (impact of the quality of interpersonal relationships at work on private and professional quality of life)

Source: *own work*.

Table 5 presents the results of the maximum likelihood estimation for the external SEM model, which corresponds to the measurement (factor) model. Table 6 reports the outcomes of the estimation for the internal structural model, reflecting the regression-based relationships among the latent constructs. Furthermore, Table 7 summarizes the key model fit indices, providing an assessment of the degree to which the theoretical model corresponds with the empirical data. Finally, Table 8 reports the standardized total effects, illustrating the overall

magnitude of the influence exerted by each category of interpersonal relationship quality on the dimensions of quality of life.

Table 5. Estimation results of the external SEM model

Relationship	Parameter	Parameter evaluation	P-value
Q31 ← Organizational climate	α_1	0.876	
Q32 ← Organizational climate	α_2	0.891	0.000
Q33 ← Organizational climate	α_3	0.887	0.000
Q34 ← Organizational climate	α_4	0.839	0.000
Q35 ← Organizational climate	α_5	0.859	0.000
Q38 ← Organizational climate	α_6	0.838	0.000
Q51 ← Organizational climate	α_7	0.827	0.000
Q54 ← Organizational climate	α_8	0.795	0.000
Q4 ← Interpersonal ties	α_9	0.755	0.000
Q7 ← Interpersonal ties	α_{10}	0.656	0.000
Q9 ← Interpersonal ties	α_{11}	0.663	0.000
Q10 ← Interpersonal ties	α_{12}	0.789	0.000
Q11 ← Interpersonal ties	α_{13}	0.674	0.000
Q13 ← Interpersonal ties	α_{14}	0.802	0.000
Q16 ← Interpersonal ties	α_{15}	0.665	0.000
Q48 ← Interpersonal ties	α_{16}	0.656	
Q39 ← Interpersonal relationship building methods	α_{17}	0.812	
Q40 ← Interpersonal relationship building methods	α_{18}	0.831	0.000
Q41 ← Interpersonal relationship building methods	α_{19}	0.759	0.000
Q42 ← Interpersonal relationship building methods	α_{20}	0.768	0.000
Q43 ← Interpersonal relationship building methods	α_{21}	0.674	0.000
Q17 ← Distance resulting from management style	α_{22}	0.808	
Q18 ← Distance resulting from management style	α_{23}	0.849	0.000
Q20 ← Distance resulting from management style	α_{24}	0.746	0.000
Q21 ← Distance resulting from management style	α_{25}	0.840	0.000
Q22 ← Distance resulting from management style	α_{26}	0.516	0.000
Q23 ← Distance resulting from management style	α_{27}	0.563	0.000
Q28 ← Distance resulting from management style	α_{28}	0.701	0.000
Q46 ← Distance resulting from management style	α_{29}	0.425	0.000
P3 ← Quality of private life	α_{30}	0.396	
P5 ← Quality of private life	α_{33}	0.474	0.000
P6 ← Quality of private life	α_{34}	0.483	0.000
P7 ← Quality of private life	α_{35}	0.542	0.000
P8 ← Quality of private life	α_{36}	0.836	0.000
P9 ← Quality of private life	α_{37}	0.868	0.000
P10 ← Quality of private life	α_{38}	0.774	0.000
P11 ← Quality of private life	α_{39}	0.755	0.000
Z3 ← Quality of professional life	α_{40}	0.498	
Z4 ← Quality of professional life	α_{41}	0.488	0.000
Z6 ← Quality of professional life	α_{42}	0.595	0.000
Z7 ← Quality of professional life	α_{43}	0.814	0.000
Z8 ← Quality of professional life	α_{44}	0.619	0.000
Z9 ← Quality of professional life	α_{45}	0.800	0.000
Z10 ← Quality of professional life	α_{46}	0.723	0.000
Z11 ← Quality of professional life	α_{47}	0.474	0.000

Source: own study.

Table 6. Estimation results of the internal SEM model

Relationship	Parameter	Parameter evaluation	Assessment of standardized parameters	P-value
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Organizational climate	β_1	0.149	0.161	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Organizational climate	β_2	0.523	0.618	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Interpersonal ties	β_3	-0.095	-0.120	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Interpersonal ties	β_4	0.069	0.095	0.000
Organizational climate → Interpersonal ties	β_5	0.701	0.817	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of professional life	β_6	0.128	0.231	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of professional life	β_7	0.327	0.646	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of professional life	β_8	-0.037	-0.052	0.240
Organizational climate → Quality of professional life	β_9	0.114	0.190	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of private life	β_{10}	0.011	0.033	0.229
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of private life	β_{11}	-0.088	-0.286	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of private life	β_{12}	0.032	0.075	0.190
Organizational climate → Quality of private life	β_{13}	-0.003	-0.009	0.871
Quality of professional life → Quality of private life	β_{14}	0.373	0.615	0.000

Source: *own study*.

Table 7. Measures of the degree of SEM model fit to empirical data

Model	IFI	PNFI	RMSEA	CMIN/DF
Estimated	0.849	0.751	0.071	10.514
Saturated	1	0.000		
Independent	0	0.000	0.172	57.435

Source: *own study*.

Table 8. Standardized total effects of the impact of relationship quality categories on the dimensions of quality

	Interpersonal relationship building methods	Distance resulting from management style	Organizational climate	Interpersonal ties	Quality of professional life	Quality of private life
Organizational climate	0.161	0.618	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Interpersonal ties	0.012	0.600	0.817	0.000	0.000	0.000
Quality of professional life	0.261	0.732	0.147	-0.052	0.000	0.000
Quality of private life	0.193	0.203	0.142	0.043	0.615	0.000

Source: *own study*.

To obtain a more granular understanding of how each category of interpersonal relationship quality influences the private and professional dimensions of quality of life, additional SEM estimations were conducted for subgroups distinguished on the basis of employees' demographic characteristics (i.e., sex, age, length of service, type of work, and employment sector). Subgroup analysis by education level was not performed, as 90% of respondents reported holding higher education degrees, which prevented the formation of analytically meaningful comparative groups.

As a first step, respondents were divided into two subgroups based on sex. The results of the internal structural model estimated separately for women and men are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. The results of the SEM internal model estimation for subgroups divided by sex

Relationship	Parameter	Subgroup I – female		Subgroup II – male	
		Standardized parameter value	P-value	Standardized parameter value	P-value
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Organizational climate	β_1	0.173	0.000	0.083	0.047
Distance resulting from management style → Organizational climate	β_2	0.602	0.000	0.688	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Interpersonal ties	β_3	-0.141	0.000	-0.057	0.105
Distance resulting from management style → Interpersonal ties	β_4	0.077	0.000	0.194	0.000
Organizational climate → Interpersonal ties	β_5	0.839	0.000	0.710	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of professional life	β_6	0.246	0.000	0.189	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of professional life	β_7	0.661	0.000	0.579	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of professional life	β_8	-0.025	0.632	-0.083	0.360
Organizational climate → Quality of professional life	β_9	0.149	0.005	0.280	0.002
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of private life	β_{10}	0.022	0.504	0.049	0.364
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of private life	β_{11}	-0.359	0.000	-0.039	0.676
Interpersonal ties → Quality of private life	β_{12}	0.099	0.139	-0.105	0.351
Organizational climate → Quality of private life	β_{13}	-0.024	0.719	0.072	0.514
Quality of professional life → Quality of private life	β_{14}	0.662	0.000	0.511	0.000
Assessment of the model fit		CMIN/DF = 8.382		CMIN/DF = 3.434	
		IFI = 0.850		IFI = 0.823	
		RMSEA = 0.070		RMSEA = 0.077	

Source: *own study*.

Subsequent analyses were conducted for subgroups differentiated by age. In this case, the cut-off point was set at 40 years, corresponding to the median age of the surveyed population. This division made it possible to compare the structural relationships between interpersonal relationship quality and the two dimensions of quality of life across younger and older employees. The results of the internal structural model estimated for both age-based subgroups are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. The results of the SEM internal model estimation for subgroups divided by age

Relationship	Parameter	Subgroup I – below 40 years		Subgroup II – at least 40 years	
		Standardized parameter value	P-value	Standardized parameter value	P-value
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Organizational climate	β_1	0.144	0.000	0.182	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Organizational climate	β_2	0.610	0.000	0.619	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Interpersonal ties	β_3	-0.115	0.000	-0.123	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Interpersonal ties	β_4	0.028	0.326	0.136	0.000
Organizational climate → Interpersonal ties	β_5	0.876	0.000	0.780	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of professional life	β_6	0.168	0.000	0.293	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of professional life	β_7	0.633	0.000	0.649	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of professional life	β_8	-0.022	0.764	-0.074	0.198
Organizational climate → Quality of professional life	β_9	0.221	0.004	0.161	0.006
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of private life	β_{10}	0.057	0.166	-0.007	0.845
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of private life	β_{11}	-0.215	0.002	-0.340	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of private life	β_{12}	0.039	0.681	0.099	0.169
Organizational climate → Quality of private life	β_{13}	-0.019	0.845	0.014	0.847
Quality of professional life → Quality of private life	β_{14}	0.550	0.000	0.672	0.000
Assessment of the model fit		CMIN/DF = 5.576 IFI = 0.836 RMSEA = 0.073		CMIN/DF = 6.333 IFI = 0.850 RMSEA = 0.071	

Source: own study.

An additional subgroup analysis was performed based on employees' length of service. In this case, a threshold of 10 years was applied, corresponding to the median value of tenure within the sample. This division allowed for a comparison of the structural relationships

between interpersonal relationship quality and perceived quality of life among employees with shorter versus longer work experience. The results of the internal structural model estimated for both tenure-based subgroups are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. The results of the SEM internal model estimation for subgroups divided by length of service

Relationship	Parameter	Subgroup I – below 10 years		Subgroup II – at least 10 years	
		Standardized parameter value	P-value	Standardized parameter value	P-value
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Organizational climate	β_1	0.215	0.000	0.132	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Organizational climate	β_2	0.575	0.000	0.639	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Interpersonal ties	β_3	-0.097	0.000	-0.136	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Interpersonal ties	β_4	0.056	0.065	0.121	0.000
Organizational climate → Interpersonal ties	β_5	0.868	0.000	0.784	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of professional life	β_6	0.152	0.000	0.310	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of professional life	β_7	0.706	0.000	0.592	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of professional life	β_8	-0.046	0.539	-0.037	0.515
Organizational climate → Quality of professional life	β_9	0.197	0.001	0.163	0.005
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of private life	β_{10}	0.068	0.107	-0.005	0.884
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of private life	β_{11}	-0.204	0.010	-0.333	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of private life	β_{12}	0.211	0.039	0.004	0.957
Organizational climate → Quality of private life	β_{13}	-0.164	0.114	0.082	0.243
Quality of professional life → Quality of private life	β_{14}	0.608	0.000	0.614	0.000
Assessment of the model fit		CMIN/DF = 5.262		CMIN/DF = 2.955	
		IFI = 0.831		IFI = 0.823	
		RMSEA = 0.074		RMSEA = 0.058	

Source: own study.

A further subgroup analysis was conducted based on the type of job performed by respondents. Due to the relatively small number of blue-collar workers in the sample, the analysis was restricted to two occupational categories: office/clerical employees and managerial staff. This division made it possible to examine whether the structural relationships between interpersonal relationship quality and the two dimensions of quality of life differ across

hierarchical or responsibility-based job roles. The results of the internal structural model estimated separately for each occupational subgroup are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. The results of the SEM internal model estimation for subgroups divided by type of job

Relationship	Parameter	Subgroup I – office / clerical workers		Subgroup II – managers	
		Standardized parameter value	P-value	Standardized parameter value	P-value
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Organizational climate	β_1	0.160	0.000	0.162	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Organizational climate	β_2	0.612	0.000	0.652	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Interpersonal ties	β_3	-0.122	0.000	-0.115	0.003
Distance resulting from management style → Interpersonal ties	β_4	0.070	0.002	0.245	0.000
Organizational climate → Interpersonal ties	β_5	0.843	0.000	0.660	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of professional life	β_6	0.194	0.000	0.374	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of professional life	β_7	0.654	0.000	0.546	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of professional life	β_8	-0.090	0.079	0.044	0.644
Organizational climate → Quality of professional life	β_9	0.246	0.000	0.031	0.734
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of private life	β_{10}	0.044	0.157	-0.040	0.534
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of private life	β_{11}	-0.268	0.000	-0.355	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of private life	β_{12}	0.099	0.144	-0.011	0.920
Organizational climate → Quality of private life	β_{13}	-0.048	0.493	0.191	0.070
Quality of professional life → Quality of private life	β_{14}	0.601	0.000	0.610	0.000
Assessment of the model fit		CMIN/DF = 8.777 IFI = 0.846 RMSEA = 0.072		CMIN/DF = 2.864 IFI = 0.845 RMSEA = 0.069	

Source: own work.

Finally, an additional subgroup analysis was conducted based on the employment sector. This division enabled the examination of whether the structural relationships between interpersonal relationship quality and the two dimensions of quality of life vary across different institutional and organizational environments. The results of the internal structural model estimated separately for each sector-based subgroup are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. The results of the SEM internal model estimation for subgroups divided by employment sector

Relationship	Parameter	Subgroup I – private sector		Subgroup II – public sector	
		Standardized parameter value	P-value	Standardized parameter value	P-value
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Organizational climate	β_1	0.135	0.000	0.195	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Organizational climate	β_2	0.626	0.000	0.611	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Interpersonal ties	β_3	-0.076	0.001	-0.159	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Interpersonal ties	β_4	0.099	0.001	0.097	0.000
Organizational climate → Interpersonal ties	β_5	0.800	0.000	0.830	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of professional life	β_6	0.246	0.000	0.198	0.000
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of professional life	β_7	0.685	0.000	0.613	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of professional life	β_8	-0.047	0.435	-0.070	0.289
Organizational climate → Quality of professional life	β_9	0.163	0.008	0.233	0.000
Interpersonal relationship building methods → Quality of private life	β_{10}	0.061	0.130	0.021	0.585
Distance resulting from management style → Quality of private life	β_{11}	-0.266	0.000	-0.298	0.000
Interpersonal ties → Quality of private life	β_{12}	0.074	0.345	0.072	0.384
Organizational climate → Quality of private life	β_{13}	0.051	0.522	-0.048	0.567
Quality of professional life → Quality of private life	β_{14}	0.589	0.000	0.622	0.000
Assessment of the model fit		CMIN/DF = 5.549 IFI = 0.848 RMSEA = 0.072		CMIN/DF = 6.170 IFI = 0.844 RMSEA = 0.071	

Source: own study.

4. Discussion

The results of the external measurement model (see Table 5) indicate that all factor loadings are statistically significant. The absence of reported p-values for certain parameters arises from technical constraints related to model identification, specifically, the necessity to fix the variance of selected indicators to a constant value to ensure proper model traceability and estimation stability. Importantly, these findings substantially enrich the existing body of research on the consequences of interpersonal relationship quality in organizational settings (cf. Cameron, 2008; Heaphy & Dutton, 2008; Griffin et al., 2012; McCauley, 2012).

When interpreting the results, it is noteworthy that the category of interpersonal ties does not exert a statistically significant effect on either the private dimension of quality of life (β_{12}) or the professional dimension (β_8). Likewise, the categories interpersonal relationship-building methods (β_{10}) and organizational climate (β_{13}) do not demonstrate a statistically significant impact on the quality of private life.

Conversely, improvements in organizational climate (β_9), reductions in distance resulting from the management style (β_7), and the strengthening of interpersonal relationship-building methods (β_6) were all found to exert a statistically significant positive effect on the quality of professional life. This outcome is intuitively consistent with theoretical expectations: more supportive workplace conditions and more constructive relational practices directly enhance employees' subjective experience of their work environment, thereby improving their perceived professional quality of life.

A noteworthy and somewhat paradoxical finding is that a decrease in managerial distance, which can be interpreted as an improvement in this category, was associated with lower quality of private life (β_{11}). One plausible explanation is that stronger relational ties at work may trigger heightened professional engagement, resulting in increased time and psychological investment in work tasks. Such intensification of work involvement may inadvertently crowd out resources available for personal life, potentially weakening family relationships or disrupting work–life balance. In contrast, the influence of professional quality of life on private quality of life was found to be statistically significant (β_{14}), confirming the bidirectional interdependence between work and non-work domains.

Analysis of the standardized total effects (see Table 8) reveals that the category distance resulting from the management style exerts the strongest influence on both private (0.203) and professional quality of life (0.732). Professional quality of life is also meaningfully shaped by interpersonal relationship-building methods (0.261) and organizational climate (0.147). These findings collectively indicate that, among all dimensions constituting the quality of interpersonal relationships at work, those shaped directly by the organization and its managerial practices are the primary drivers of employees' perceived quality of life, both professional and private.

For professional quality of life, employees' subjective perceptions of their team and workplace environment (organizational climate) also play a significant role. In contrast, the personal nature of relationships between employees, which is captured by the category interpersonal ties, does not exert a meaningful effect on either dimension of quality of life. Additionally, the strong relationship between the professional and private dimensions of quality of life (0.615) underscores the natural interdependence and mutual spillover between work and non-work spheres.

The categories defining the quality of interpersonal relationships also demonstrate significant interrelationships (see Table 5). The analysis reveals that interpersonal relationship-building methods and distance resulting from the management style both exert a statistically significant positive influence on organizational climate (β_1 ; β_2). This finding is theoretically consistent, as organizational climate is largely shaped by the organization's structural practices and managerial behaviors. In this sense, these two categories represent direct manifestations of organizational initiatives and leadership approaches, which naturally contribute to creating the prevailing socio-emotional climate within the workplace.

Furthermore, both distance resulting from the management style and organizational climate significantly and positively affect the category of interpersonal ties (β_4 ; β_5). In the first case (β_4), the manner in which supervisors interact with employees plays a central role in shaping the strength of interpersonal ties, in current case not only vertical relationships between subordinates and supervisors, but also horizontal relationships among coworkers. For instance,

unfair or inconsistent behavior by supervisors may foster jealousy, undermine trust, and weaken interpersonal bonds. Conversely, when supervisors clearly define responsibilities, uphold principles of justice, and treat employees respectfully, tensions are reduced and interpersonal ties are reinforced.

Similarly, the impact of organizational climate on interpersonal ties (β_5) is intuitive. A workplace climate characterized by mutual trust, honesty, cooperation, solidarity, discretion, and a generally positive atmosphere naturally supports the development of strong interpersonal bonds within teams. In contrast, a climate marked by distrust, poor communication, or unresolved conflicts leads to the erosion or stagnation of interpersonal relationships, rendering them increasingly dysfunctional.

The direct relationship between the category *interpersonal relationship-building methods* and the category *interpersonal ties* was also found to be statistically significant, albeit negative (β_3). This result may reflect a paradox whereby organizational initiatives designed to strengthen relationships occasionally generate unintended adverse effects. For example, strong institutional emphasis on teamwork may foster competition or antagonisms between groups, ultimately weakening interpersonal ties rather than enhancing them.

When assessing the overall fit of the model to the empirical data (see Table 7), it should be noted that the IFI index reaches a value of 0.849, while the RMSEA equals 0.071. Taken together, these values indicate that the model exhibits an acceptable and satisfactory level of fit. Although the CMIN/DF statistic exceeds the commonly referenced threshold of 2, it is important to recognize that each goodness-of-fit measure used in SEM carries certain limitations, and the selection and interpretation of specific indices often involve an element of researcher judgment (Szostek et al., 2022; Szostek et al., 2022b; Teng & Wu, 2025; Skypalova et al., 2025; Waqas et al., 2025).

Analysis of the subgroup results by sex (see Table 8) reveals several noteworthy patterns. Among men, none of the categories of interpersonal relationship quality demonstrated a statistically significant effect on private quality of life (β_{10} – β_{13}). In addition, interpersonal ties did not exhibit a significant influence on professional quality of life in this subgroup (β_8). A similar pattern emerged among women, with the exception that *distance resulting from the management style* showed a significant effect on private quality of life. Furthermore, the relationship between professional and private quality of life was statistically significant in both subgroups; however, this association was weaker among men than among women (β_{14}), suggesting potential gender differences in work–life spillover effects.

With respect to the structural relationships among the categories of interpersonal relationship quality, nearly all of them were statistically significant for both subgroups. The only exception was observed among men, where the effect of *interpersonal relationship-building methods* on *interpersonal ties* was not significant (β_3). This divergence may indicate that organizational attempts to foster relationships operate differently across gender groups or that the mechanisms shaping relational dynamics in male subpopulations are more strongly influenced by other contextual or behavioral factors.

With respect to age-based subgroups (see Table 10), no substantial differences were observed in the structural relationships across the two groups. Among employees under the age of 40, the effect of *interpersonal relationship-building methods* on the quality of professional life (β_6) was slightly weaker compared to the older cohort. In this subgroup, the effects of *distance resulting from the management style* (β_{11}) and *professional quality of life* (β_{14}) on the quality of private life were also marginally less pronounced. Furthermore, only among younger employees did *distance resulting from the management style* exhibit a statistically insignificant influence on *interpersonal ties* (β_4).

In the case of length of service (see Table 11), the differences across subgroups were modest but more noticeable. The category *distance resulting from the management style* exerted a statistically significant effect on private quality of life only among employees with at least 10 years of work experience (β_{11}). Additionally, for employees with shorter tenure, the effects of *distance resulting from the management style* (β_7) and *organizational climate* (β_9) on the quality of professional life were somewhat stronger. In this subgroup, *distance resulting from the management style* did not significantly influence *interpersonal ties* (β_4), whereas this relationship was significant among employees with longer service.

Regarding type of job (see Table 12), more substantial differences emerged in how relationship quality affected both dimensions of quality of life. Only within the subgroup of office/clerical workers did *organizational climate* have a statistically significant impact on the quality of professional life (β_9). Across all categories of relationship quality, significant variation was observed in both the magnitude and, in some cases, the direction of effects on private and professional quality of life (β_6 – β_8 ; β_{10} – β_{13}). Nevertheless, both occupational subgroups displayed consistent results with respect to the impact of professional quality of life on private quality of life, as well as in the structural relationships among the categories of relationship quality.

When dividing the sample by employment sector (see Table 13), no statistically meaningful differences were identified in the effects of workplace relationship quality on either dimension of quality of life. Similarly, the relationships among the categories of interpersonal relationship quality remained largely stable. Only minor differences were observed in the strength of selected effects (β_1 ; β_3 ; β_6 ; β_7 ; β_9 – β_{11} ; β_{14}), though none were substantial enough to alter the overall interpretive framework.

Across all analyzed subgroups, the estimated models demonstrated acceptable and satisfactory fit to the empirical data, as confirmed by the IFI and RMSEA indices.

5. Practical implications, limitations and future research directions

This study offers important practical insights. The principal finding underscores the necessity for organizations to devote sustained attention to the quality of interpersonal relationships at work. These conclusions are not novel and may sound like a cliché. However, from the business perspective it must be stressed all the time that such efforts are justified not only on ethical grounds, or enforced by strict legal reasons, but also needed for pragmatic organizational motives. Low-quality workplace relationships can adversely affect employees' quality of life, particularly in the professional sphere, which may subsequently manifest in reduced productivity, increased absenteeism, and higher turnover, namely speaking counterproductive work behavior (see also Szostek et al., 2022a, Szostek et al., 2022b, Szostek et al., 2024). These outcomes inevitably impose costs on organizational performance. Conversely, high-quality interpersonal relationships can enhance employees' perceived quality of life, thereby positively influencing organizational functioning.

The findings also reveal that the impact of workplace relationship quality on employees' self-assessed quality of life is shaped predominantly by organizational factors. This implies that employers bear substantial responsibility for both the quality of interpersonal dynamics within teams and the well-being of their workforce. Accordingly, organizations should systematically monitor the quality of workplace relationships, for this purpose using, for example, the QIRT-S scale described earlier, and then engage in preventive as well as corrective actions aimed at sustaining relational quality at an optimal level. A wide array of managerial tools is available in this regard, including initiatives that promote teamwork, strengthen horizontal and vertical communication, facilitate corporate events, and provide competence-enhancing training.

Despite its theoretical and practical contributions, the study has several limitations that warrant cautious interpretation of the results and simultaneously provide a foundation for future research. First, the sample was non-random, although relatively large (1,907 employees). Within the private sector, the survey invitation was primarily directed toward employees of the largest enterprises in Poland, which may introduce bias and limit the generalizability of the findings. Nevertheless, the inclusion of employees from Polish municipal governments in the sample may have contributed positively to reducing this bias. However, a fully random sample, especially stratified by organization type, sector, industry, and geographical location, could yield different or more nuanced results.

Second, the study relied on a declarative, quantitative survey method to measure both relationship quality and quality of life. The reliance on self-reported data introduces the potential for subjective bias, and the non-random sampling approach limits the generalizability of the findings beyond the studied population. Additionally, the cross-sectional nature of the research prevents causal inferences about the directionality of the identified relationships. The self-assessment items included in the scales are necessarily broad, addressing complex and multidimensional constructs. Although both instruments are validated, the use of general, self-reported indicators may reduce measurement precision and, consequently, the reliability of the empirical results. Nonetheless, given the exploratory and illustrative character of the study, such simplifications were consistent with the methodological requirements of structural equation modeling.

Future research should seek to overcome these limitations. Longitudinal designs would enable observation of changes in relationship quality and employee well-being over time, offering stronger causal insights. Further studies could also incorporate objective indicators of organizational performance to complement self-reported outcomes. Given the role of organizational factors identified in this analysis, future research might also explore which specific managerial practices most effectively strengthen relational quality and buffer against negative spillover into employees' private lives. Comparative studies across countries or sectors could additionally illuminate the extent to which cultural or institutional contexts moderate the relationships identified in this study.

Subsequent studies should consider employing more detailed and multidimensional tools for assessing quality of life. For such purpose, the questionnaire could be supplemented with health-related assessments such as the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ). This would enrich the analytical framework and open the door to valuable interdisciplinary collaboration between management sciences, psychology, public health, and medical research.

Finally, it should be emphasized that the model does not incorporate a range of additional variables that may be highly relevant for understanding self-assessed quality of life, including individual psychological characteristics such as personality traits (e.g., neuroticism). Their omission reflects a deliberate attempt to simplify the analytical framework; however, the inclusion of such factors could potentially modify or refine the conclusions presented in this study. Variables related to individual disposition, emotional regulation, or personal coping strategies may interact with workplace relationship quality and thus influence the magnitude or direction of its effects on quality-of-life outcomes.

Consequently, future research would benefit from extending the model to incorporate psychological and behavioral variables, enabling a more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms linking interpersonal relationships at work with broader well-being indicators. Such an approach would enrich the empirical base, provide deeper theoretical insights, and allow for the verification, or if needed potential revision, of the relationships identified in the present study. This line of inquiry appears both promising and necessary for advancing

interdisciplinary research that bridges organizational behavior, occupational psychology, and management sciences.

Conclusions

By developing and empirically testing the proposed structural model, the study demonstrates that the quality of interpersonal relationships at work significantly influences employees' perceived quality of life in both the professional and private domains. A positive relationship was confirmed between workplace relationship quality and professional quality of life, whereas a negative association emerged in relation to private quality of life. Furthermore, this relationship is substantially moderated by key demographic characteristics, including sex, age, tenure, job type, and employment sector. These findings provide empirical support for the first and third research hypotheses:

- [H1] Higher (lower) quality of interpersonal relationships at work is associated with a higher (lower) assessment of professional quality of life.
- [H3] The effect of interpersonal relationship quality on professional and private quality of life is moderated by demographic characteristics (sex, age, length of service, job type, and employment sector).

The second hypothesis [H2], which assumed a positive association between interpersonal relationship quality and private quality of life, must be rejected. As demonstrated, paradoxical mechanisms and the complex interplay between work and private domains prevent a clear and consistent conclusion in this regard.

The pointed paradoxes identified in the relationship between workplace relationship quality and quality of life highlight the complexity of both constructs. They also demonstrate that the mechanisms linking interpersonal dynamics at work with broader well-being outcomes are considerably more multifaceted than they may initially appear. Beyond their professional roles, employees maintain rich private lives that substantially influence their functioning in organizational settings. Consequently, maintaining an appropriate balance between work and private life becomes essential, as imbalance in either domain may adversely affect both individual well-being and organizational performance.

Despite these paradoxes, the results indicate that enhancing the quality of workplace relationships can meaningfully improve professional quality of life, thereby indirectly contributing to improvements in private well-being. Higher professional well-being may, in turn, strengthen employee commitment, enhance work efficiency, and foster stronger attachment to the organization. Consequently, organizations should systematically measure and monitor the quality of workplace relationships as well as employees' quality of life in order to identify opportunities for improvement and optimize both individual and organizational outcomes.

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