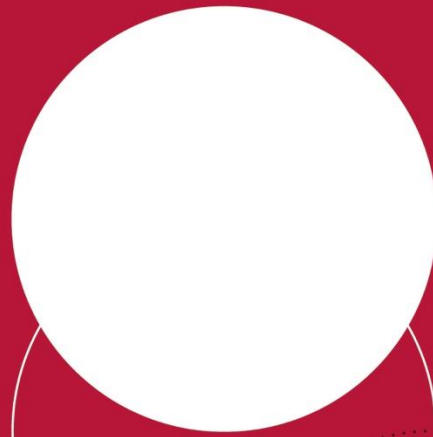


IBS WORKING PAPER 05/2022  
OCTOBER 2022

**MISMATCH IN PREFERENCES FOR  
WORKING FROM HOME – EVIDENCE FROM  
DISCRETE CHOICE EXPERIMENTS**

Piotr Lewandowski  
Katarzyna Lipowska  
Mateusz Smoter



# MISMATCH IN PREFERENCES FOR WORKING FROM HOME – EVIDENCE FROM DISCRETE CHOICE EXPERIMENTS.

Piotr Lewandowski♦

Katarzyna Lipowska♣

Mateusz Smoter♥

## Abstract

Working from home became widespread during the COVID-19 pandemic, but workers' and employers' preferences toward it may diverge when the world of work "returns to normal". We study workers' and employers' willingness to pay for working from home (WfH) using discrete choice experiments with more than 10,000 workers and more than 1,500 employers in Poland. We randomised wage differences between otherwise identical home- and office-based jobs and between otherwise identical job candidates, respectively. We find that demand for working from home was substantially higher among workers than among employers. Most workers would prefer to work from home if offered the same wage for a home-based job as for an office-based job, while most employers would prefer to hire an office-based worker. On average, workers would sacrifice 5.1% of their earnings for the option to work from home, especially for 2-3 days a week (7.3%) rather than five days a week (2.8%). On average, employers expect a wage cut of 40.7% from candidates who want to work from home. This gap in the valuations of WfH reflects mainly the additional effort required from managers, followed by their assessments of productivity loss resulting from WfH, and the discrepancy between employers' and workers' valuations of benefits that WfH offers workers. Only among the minority of employers who find that working from home brings productivity gains, managers' valuation of working from home aligns with workers' willingness to pay for it.

Keywords: working from home, discrete choice, information provision experiment, routine task intensity

JEL: J21, J44

---

• We thank Daniel Hamermesh, Sarra Ben Yahmed, Jose Barrero, Nick Bloom, Steve Davis, and the participants of the Remote Work Conference at Stanford, 2022 SOLE Annual Meeting, 2022 EALE Annual Conference, IAB LISER Conference on Labour Markets During and After the COVID-19 Pandemic, and the Ce2 workshop in Warsaw for useful comments. This paper was financially supported by the The European Social Fund – Operational Programme Knowledge Education Development as a part of the "System for forecasting the Polish labour market" project. The European Social Fund bears no responsibility for the results and the conclusions, which are those of the authors. The usual disclaimers apply. All errors are ours.

♦ Institute for Structural Research (IBS), Warsaw, and IZA, Bonn. E-mail: piotr.lewandowski@ibs.org.pl. Corresponding author.

♣ Institute for Structural Research (IBS), Warsaw. E-mail: katarzyna.lipowska@ibs.org.pl.

♥ Institute for Structural Research (IBS), Warsaw. E-mail: mateusz.smoter@ibs.org.pl.

# 1. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has resulted in a significant transformation of workplaces as many companies have implemented alternative work arrangements, such as working from home, flexible schedules, or part-time work. Before COVID-19 vaccines became available, these arrangements helped reduce contact between workers and shield them from economic and health risks (Alipour et al., 2021). Early evidence suggests that the COVID-19 shock may translate into a long-term shift towards working from home (WfH) as the share of workers who can perform most tasks from home has increased (Adams-Prassl et al., 2022). Workers can benefit from greater flexibility, reduced commuting, and improved work-life balance, especially among couples (Bryan and Sevilla, 2017), as well as lower attrition and higher job satisfaction (Bloom et al., 2022). Firms can benefit from higher productivity and lower office costs (Barrero et al., 2021). However, WfH can also be associated with more overtime hours (Arntz et al., 2022), reduced peer feedback (Emanuel et al., 2022), can hinder the acquisition and sharing of new information across the network (Yang et al., 2021), and reduce the chances of promotion (Emanuel and Harrington, 2021). While it may increase the productivity of middle-skilled workers (Bloom et al., 2015; Emanuel and Harrington, 2021), it may lower the productivity of high-skilled workers (Gibbs et al., 2021; Künn et al., 2022). An important question is how workers and firms share these benefits and costs. First, if workers are willing to forego other job amenities, especially wages, for the option to work from home. Second, if employers' valuation of workers' benefits from WfH aligns with workers' willingness to pay for it, so the demand for WfH jobs meets their supply and allows a widespread adoption of remote work.

We address these questions by conducting two pre-registered discrete choice experiments to estimate workers' and employers' preferences for working from home. We ran the experiments in Poland, a fast-growing, emerging economy in which the incidence of WfH and job flexibility before the pandemic was low. In 2019, 4.6% of employees in Poland usually worked from home (5.4% in the EU). In 2020, the share of home-based workers doubled to 8.9% but remained slightly below the EU average of 12.0% (Eurostat). At the same time, Poland was severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic: in 2020-2021, the cumulative excess mortality rate in the country was the third-highest in the EU (Eurostat). Thus, Poland is a compelling case for studying preferences regarding working from home.

Our first contribution is to provide evidence of workers' and employers' preferences regarding working from home. We ran two discrete choice survey experiments. First, to study the preferences of more than 10,000 workers regarding hypothetical job offers that differed in wages and the option to WfH. Second, to study the preferences of more than 1,500 employers regarding hypothetical job candidates who differed in wage expectations and demands to WfH. The discrete choice approach has advantages over traditional surveys, as it requires participants to make trade-offs between different options. It has often been used to estimate workers' willingness to pay (WTP) for flexible working arrangements.<sup>1</sup> The novelty of our study is that we investigate both the supply and demand sides consistently. Also, we ran the experiments during/post the COVID-19 pandemic, when working from home went from being a privilege of selected, usually well-educated workers to being a widely adopted work pattern. To ensure

---

<sup>1</sup>Previous studies using this method found that people value flexibility in the workplace, and may be willing to give up a portion of their wages for the option to work from home (He et al., 2021; Maestas et al., 2018; Mas and Pallais, 2017; Datta, 2019), or for flexible time schedules (Bustelo et al., 2022). There is also evidence that the preference to work from home tends to be higher among married individuals (He et al., 2021) and college-educated workers (Maestas et al., 2018).

that WfH was a realistic option in our experiments, we included workers in professional, managerial, clerical, or sales and services occupations which can be done from home (Table A3 in Appendix A), and companies that employ workers in these occupations. In 2020, these occupations constituted over 50% of employment in Poland.<sup>2</sup>

We find a large discrepancy between workers' and employers' preferences toward WfH. Most workers chose to work from home, preferring WfH 2-3 days per week (hybrid work) rather than the whole week (fully remote). We estimate that, on average, workers were willing to sacrifice 5.1% of their earnings for the option to work from home (7.3% in the case of WfH for 2-3 days a week, 2.8% in the case of five days). However, most employers in our experiment (60%) preferred hiring workers entirely in the office. Their valuations of workers' benefits from the WfH option were also substantially above those of workers. On average, employers expected a wage cut of 40.7% to select a candidate who wants to work from home (36.0% in the case of 2-3 days of WfH per week, 45.1% in the case of five days). The resulting gap in workers' and employers' valuations of WfH is large and amounts to 35 pp. We attribute 17 pp. of it to employers' valuations of additional managerial and monitoring efforts related to WfH, 11 pp. to their estimates of productivity loss resulting from WfH, and 7 pp. to the discrepancy between employers' and workers' perceptions of the benefit that WfH brings to workers. The mismatch between workers' and employers' preferences toward WfH has also been found based on declarations in surveys conducted in 27 high- and middle-income countries, including Poland (Aksoy et al., 2022).

Our second contribution is to document substantial heterogeneity in preferences for WfH. First, we show that female workers were more willing to pay for it than male workers (6.1% vs 4.2%), especially when presented with the option of WfH for 2-3 days per week (10.5% vs 6.9%). Second, we find that commuting time mattered, as workers with commutes longer than 30 minutes were willing to pay for WfH more than those with short commutes (7.2-7.5% vs 4.1%). At the same time, employers' preferences to accept a candidate who prefers WfH did not depend on workers' gender or commuting time. Third, we find that workers in non-routine cognitive occupations were willing to pay for WfH more than workers in routine occupations (6.5-7.6% vs 4.4%). Likewise, employers were more willing to hire WfH candidates in non-routine cognitive occupations than in routine occupations (35.6-38.2% vs 44.2%). Employers' more substantial reluctance to hire WfH workers in routine occupations which require more repetition – as compared with non-routine occupations which require problem-solving or guiding other people – may appear paradoxical. Routine occupations were often classified as offshorable as they can be monitored remotely more easily than non-routine jobs (Blinder and Krueger, 2013). Our findings suggest that with the mass adoption of WfH, the monitoring costs incurred by individual managers may be larger than previously thought. Finally, we find that managerial attitudes towards WfH mattered: employers who found WfH workers as at least as productive as workers in the office, and employers who found WfH beneficial for their firm, were much more willing to hire WfH workers. These firms often used WfH before the COVID-19 pandemic and had managers working from home too. They constitute, however, a minority. Most employers, who adopted WfH only during the COVID-19 pandemic, expected wage cuts substantially above what workers were willing to pay for WfH.

---

<sup>2</sup> Previous studies investigated either specific groups, such as highly educated workers in the IT sector (He et al., 2021) or call centre applicants (Mas and Pallais, 2017); or nationally representative samples (Datta, 2019; Maestas et al., 2018). The first approach is more accurate but has limited external validity. The second approach provides estimates that are representative of the working population, but that may be biased by the inclusion of occupations that cannot be performed from home.

Our third contribution is to assess how individuals' subjective perceptions of the COVID-19 pandemic and objective occupational risk factors shape their preferences for working from home. Occupations require varying levels of personal contact and exposure to contagion.<sup>3</sup> Therefore, workers' preferences regarding WfH may depend on their level of occupational exposure to contagion and their perception of the pandemic as a threat. However, some workers, especially those in so-called non-essential jobs, may not be fully aware of their occupational risk level. In contrast, other workers, for instance, those in office jobs, may overestimate it. To assess whether knowledge of their level of exposure may affect workers' preferences for job amenities, we combined a discrete choice experiment with an information provision experiment. Specifically, we informed a random subset of workers about the exposure to contagion in their occupation before they chose between working from home and working in the office. This setting allowed us to investigate the causal effect of information provision on workers' preferences.

We find that subjective perception of COVID-19 risks matters for workers' preferences for WfH. In contrast, the objective occupational exposure and information about it do not matter, except for a small group of highly educated workers in nonroutine personal occupations. Workers who perceived COVID-19 as a severe health risk were much more willing to pay than workers who did not perceive COVID-19 as a threat. At the same time, the provision of information about occupational exposure did not affect workers' preferences regarding working from home. Thus, we also contribute to the growing literature investigating the role of information provision in changing individuals' behaviour in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic.<sup>4</sup> Framing WfH in the context of COVID-19 risk also distinguishes our paper from previous studies on WfH that often focused on differences in preferences for job amenities between socio-demographic groups (Maestas et al., 2018; Mas and Pallais, 2017). Knowing the interactions between labour market behaviours, pandemic awareness, and health-oriented messaging is vital for understanding the role of working from home in the post-COVID economy.

Despite the optimism about the shift toward working from home, we find a substantial mismatch between workers' and employers' preferences for WfH. Employers' valuations of the value of WfH reflect their assessments of workers' benefits from remote work, potential productivity loss, and additional costs of managing the WfH staff. Working from home may reduce office costs, but it increases the managerial effort to supervise workers and monitor their effort. These challenges may partly explain employers' reluctance toward WfH, also found in other studies (Aksoy et al., 2022). Indeed, our findings show that willingness to accept WfH candidates is higher in firms with more experience with remote work. Moreover, differences in workers' preferences toward WfH may depend on factors that are not readily observable, such as workers' perceptions of the health risks associated with COVID-19, or on factors that depend on the conditions of a particular job, such as commuting time. It also appears that

---

<sup>3</sup> Lewandowski (2020) constructed an index of occupational exposure to infectious diseases, which showed that apart from health care workers, workers in medium-skilled service occupations (personal care workers, protective services workers, personal service workers) are the most exposed. Information and communications technology professionals, business and administration professionals, farmers, and handicraft and printing workers were found to be among the occupations that are the least exposed to contagion at work.

<sup>4</sup> Providing people with information about preventive behaviours may increase the reporting of health symptoms and hand-washing (Banerjee et al., 2020), decrease individual mobility (Breza et al., 2021; Banerjee et al., 2020), increase self-reported protective behaviours (Torres et al., 2021), and increase the willingness to get a vaccine (Alsan et al., 2021). However, providing information alone does not affect COVID-19 preventive behaviours (Bahety et al., 2021).

influencing these preferences with health-oriented messaging can be rather challenging. Despite the wide adoption of working from home during the COVID-19 pandemic, conflicting forces will likely affect its popularity.

The second section presents the study's design, sample characteristics, and descriptive statistics. The third section outlines econometric methodology. The fourth section introduces our results. The fifth section concludes.

## 2. Data and descriptive statistics

In this section, we describe our experimental frameworks and data collection process. We also present the sample characteristics and balance tests for the randomised experiment. Finally, we provide descriptive evidence.

### 2.1. Experimental framework

We conducted two discrete choice survey experiments based on vignettes. First, to elicit workers' preferences for working from home and examine whether providing information about occupational exposure to COVID-19 affected these preferences. Second, to elicit employers' preferences for hiring candidates who want to work from home.

In the experiment with workers, we involved workers in occupations that can be done from home (Dingel and Neiman, 2020), precisely the following major groups of the International Standard Classification of Occupations from 2008 (ISCO-08): managers (ISCO 1), professionals (except for health professionals, ISCO 2), technicians and associate professionals (except for health associate professionals, ISCO 3), clerical support workers (ISCO 4), and service and sales workers (ISCO 5). Table A3 in Appendix A presents the detailed list of occupations included.

In the experiment with employers, we involved company owners, managers, directors, or HR workers responsible for hiring decisions. We restricted the sample to individuals who, in the last 12 months before the survey, hired at least one worker in an occupation that can be done from home – these were the same occupations as in the experiment with workers.

#### 2.1.1 Experiment to elicit workers' preferences for working from home

We showed participants five screens with vignettes.<sup>5</sup> On each screen, there were two job offers. Each job offer had four attributes: occupation, working hours, ability to work from home, and wages. Each pair of offers varied regarding two attributes: the ability to work from home and earnings. Job offer A was on an office-based job (WfH not possible), and the wage equalled the wage that each participant provided earlier in the survey. Job offer B allowed participants to WfH either five days a week or 2-3 days a week (randomised with equal probabilities). We randomised the wage in offer B (uniform distribution) in the range of  $\{-24\%, -20\%, -16\%, \dots, 0, \dots, 16\%, 20\%, 24\%\}$  deviations from the wage in offer A. Table 1 summarises the vignettes' attributes and values. The design of the study is shown in Diagram 1 in Appendix A.

We randomly allocated participants to the treatment or the control group to examine whether providing information about work-related COVID risks affected workers' preferences regarding working from home.<sup>6</sup> Before they selected job offers, the treated individuals received information about the level of occupational exposure to COVID-19. We

---

<sup>5</sup> We presented information on how to interpret 'work from home', and provided a few examples (Tables A4-A5 in Appendix A).

<sup>6</sup> Allocation to groups was based on the date of birth of the participants. Individuals born on even days were assigned to the treatment group, and individuals born on odd days were assigned to the control group.

asked them to read a short message with the following content carefully. First, social distancing and limiting interpersonal contact are necessary to prevent the spread of COVID-19. Second, the risk of transmitting infectious diseases such as COVID-19 is exceptionally high in workplaces because of the time spent at work and interactions with co-workers or clients. Third, some workers are more exposed to contagion than others as some occupations require more frequent social contact, physical proximity to others, or even direct contact with infected individuals. Fourth, the treated group received information about whether the exposure to contagion in their occupation was high or low. The control group did not receive such information.

The vignettes' specifications are shown in Table 1. The full text shown to the treated participants, examples of the vignettes presented to the control and the experimental groups, and the allocation of occupations to groups with low or high exposure levels, can be found in Appendix A (Tables A6-A7 and Table A3, respectively).

**Table 1. Vignettes' attributes and specifications**

Attributes	Values	
Control group in the information experiment		
	Job offer A	Job offer B
Occupation	Occupation indicated by study participants in the survey	
Work hours	Full-time position. Work from Monday to Friday from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.	
Ability to work from home	Cannot work from home	(1) Can work from home 2 or 3 days a week (2) Work from home 5 days a week. Cannot work from the office.
Wage	Wage indicated by study participants in the survey	The difference in comparison to job offer A: {-24%, -20%, -16%, -12%, -8%, -4%, 0%, +4%, +8%, +12%, +16%, +20%, +24%}
A treated group in the information experiment		
Attributes	Values	
	Job offer A	Job offer B
Occupation	Occupation indicated by study participants in the survey	
Occupational exposure to COVID-19	High or low	
Work hours	Full-time position. Work from Monday to Friday from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.	
Ability to work from home	Cannot work from home	(1) Can work from home 2 or 3 days a week (2) Work from home 5 days a week. Cannot work from the office.
Wage	Wage indicated by study participants in the survey	The difference in comparison to job offer A: {-24%, -20%, -16%, -12%, -8%, -4%, 0%, +4%, +8%, +12%, +16%, +20%, +24%}

Source: Own elaboration.



Our sample size (N = 11,166; N in the treatment group = 5,512; N in the control group = 5,654) was sufficient to investigate the primary effect size between the treatment and the control groups, as well as the effects in various subgroups. With standard parameters of alpha (the significance level) equal to 0.05 and power equal to 0.80, the projected sample size needed to estimate the effect size of around 2 pp. in the binary outcome (choosing to work from home) was approximately 1,960 participants (9,800 choices) per treatment group.

### 2.1.2 Experiment to elicit employers' preferences for working from home

We showed participants five screens with vignettes, definitions, and examples of WfH. On each screen, we presented two candidates. Each candidate had eight attributes: gender, age, occupation, years of experience in similar occupations, commute time, preferred working hours, preference for working from home, and wage expectations. Each pair of candidates varied regarding only two attributes: the demand for WfH and the expected wage. Candidate A wanted to work in the office and earn a wage equal to the average wage in a given occupation.<sup>7</sup> Candidate B wanted to work from home either five days a week or 2-3 days a week (randomised with equal probabilities). We randomised the wage expectation of candidate B (uniform distribution) in the range of  $\{-24\%, -20\%, -16\%, \dots, 0, \dots, 16\%, 20\%, 24\%\}$  deviations from the wage expectation of candidate A. Table 2 summarises the vignettes' attributes and values.

**Table 2. Vignettes' attributes and specifications**

Attributes	Values	
	Candidate A	Candidate B
Occupation	As chosen by study participants – occupations employed in their company	
Gender	Men/Women	
Age	29; 42; 57	
Job experience in a similar position	<3 years; 3-5 years; 6-10 years; >10 years	
Commuting time	< 30 min; 30 – 60 min.; > 60 min	
Work hours	Full-time position. Work from Monday to Friday from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.	
Willingness to work from home	Wants to work from the office	(1) Wants to work from home 2 or 3 days a week (2) Wants to work from home 5 days a week
Wage expectations	The average wage in the chosen occupation	The difference in comparison to candidate A: $\{-24\%, -20\%, -16\%, -12\%, -8\%, -4\%, 0\%, +4\%, +8\%, +12\%, +16\%, +20\%, +24\%\}$

Source: Own elaboration.

Our experiments received ethics approvals from the Rector's Committee for Ethics of Research with Human Participants at the University of Warsaw (decision 88/2021 for experiment with workers, 125/2022 for experiment with employers). We pre-registered the experiments in the American Economic Association's registry for randomised controlled trials (RCT IDs: AEARCTR-0007373 and AEARCTR-0008796, respectively).

<sup>7</sup> Based on the Structure of wages and salaries by occupations in October 2021 published by the the Statistics Poland.



## 2.2. Data collection

We used a Computer-Assisted Web Interviewing (CAWI) technique in both experiments. We surveyed workers in July and August 2021 and employers in May and June 2022. We cooperated with an external research company responsible for recruiting the study participants from the independent nationwide research panel (named Ariadna) and administering the survey.<sup>89</sup> The participants earned loyalty points they could exchange for non-cash rewards, such as sale coupons. All participants were between the ages of 20 and 64.

The participants in the experiment with workers were employed or were actively looking for a job. They were living in a city of at least 100,000 inhabitants or in a location within a 45-minute commute of such a city. We aimed to include people working (for at least 20 hours per week) in occupations that can be done from home (Table A3 in Appendix A). To ensure that the sample was representative, we set quotas for key socio-demographic and geography variables (gender, age, educational level, municipality size, and region).

We collected basic information about the participants' socio-demographic characteristics in the first part of the survey. In the second part of the survey, we provided participants in the treated group information about occupational exposure levels to contagion. Then, we introduced a discrete choice framework and asked all participants to state their preferences regarding hypothetical job offers.

The participants in the experiment with employers were company owners, managers, directors, or HR employees responsible for hiring decisions. In the last 12 months, they hired at least one worker in an occupation that can be done from home (Table A3 in Appendix A). To ensure that the sample was representative, we set quotas for key socio-demographic and geography variables (gender, age, educational level, region).

Since the participants may make different choices in a survey than in real life, we accounted for two key sources of bias in discrete choice experiments: inattention and 'hypothetical bias'. To measure inattention, we asked the worker experiment participants to solve two simple equations ('2+2', '20-7'). Out of 11,166 participants in the experiment with workers, only 65 (0.6%) gave the wrong answer to any of these questions. Therefore, we conclude that the study was not biased by the participants' inattention, as this number was too low to affect the results. In the experiment with employers, there was one trap question ('2+2'), and only those participants who gave a correct answer qualified for the study.

---

<sup>8</sup> Nationwide Research Panel Ariadna has over 300 000 registered users. Their socio-demographic structure corresponds with the structure of Polish Internet users. They are verified by a postal address, ensuring that unique users and real persons are in the panel. Users collect points they can exchange for non-cash gifts delivered to their home addresses by taking surveys. The panel is subject to an audit procedure carried out annually by an independent auditor (Polish Association of Public Opinion and Marketing Research Firms) that assesses the quality of the research services. The panel is certified with a valid Interviewer Quality Control Program certificate. The company follows the international Code of Marketing and Social Research Practice (the International Chamber of Commerce/ESOMAR).

<sup>9</sup> Before carrying out the large-scale survey, we ran a pilot study to evaluate the quality of the survey software and the clarity of the questions. The pilot survey was completed by 332 participants. To get more detailed insights into the participants' reactions, we conducted online interviews with nine study participants. The interviewed individuals filled out a questionnaire in the presence of a member of the research team. Afterwards, they shared their opinion about the survey. The feedback we received helped us to improve the questionnaire.

We followed a two-step procedure proposed by Datta (2019) to measure hypothetical bias. First, to emphasize the real-life importance of the study, we informed the participants that we would present the study's results to Polish policymakers (which was true). Second, we included a follow-up question after each vignette and asked the participants to indicate their confidence level in their choices on a 0-100 scale. Overall, the participants were quite confident in their choices: in the experiment with workers, the median confidence level was 90 points, the first quartile was 75 points, and the first decile was 60 points. In the experiment with employers, the median confidence level was 83 points, the first quartile was 70 points, and the first decile was 58 points (Table A2 in Appendix A). We believe that our experiment provided a good approximation of real-life choices.<sup>10</sup>

### 2.3. Sample characteristics

We recruited 11,116 workers and 1550 employers. The worker sample structure in terms of demographic characteristics, educational level, and occupations correspond with the population of workers aged 20-64 employed in occupations ISCO 1 to 5 (Table 3). Slightly over half of the study participants (56.1%) had a university degree, in line with the share in the reference population. Our sample had a higher share of women than the general population (52.5% vs 45.9%), a higher share of people aged 20-34 (40.6% vs 31.1%), a lower share of people aged 35-49 (37.6% vs 46.3%), and the same share of people aged 50-64 (21.8% vs 22.6%). The structure of our sample in terms of routine, non-routine cognitive analytical, and non-routine cognitive personal occupations has also aligned well with the general population structure in teleworkable jobs.<sup>11</sup> Among employers, women and younger people were overrepresented to some extent.

To ensure the representativeness of the sample, we introduced weights. We rebalanced the data so that our sample matched the relevant employment structure concerning the distribution of key variables: gender, age, education, four occupational groups (managers, professionals, service/sales workers, and a combined group consisting of technicians/associate professionals and clerical support workers), occupational tasks groups, and sector in the case of employers. We used the 2020 Polish Labour Force Survey (LFS) data to create the weights. Table 3 presents the worker sample structure, and Table 4 presents the employer sample structure.

The randomisation in the information provision experiment delivered a well-balanced treatment (5,512 individuals, 49.4% of the sample) and control groups (5,654, 50.6%). We performed a battery of mean t-tests to check that there were no statistically significant differences between the treatment and the control groups. We accounted for socio-demographic variables (gender, age, education, place of residence), labour market variables (occupation, contract type, working hours), and household structure (children present in the household, single-person household). In all cases, the differences in the means between the groups were tiny (less than 2 pp.) and were statistically insignificant (see Table A1 in Appendix A).

---

<sup>10</sup> Mas and Pallais (2017) presented evidence that preferences regarding flexible work arrangements investigated via survey are similar to those expressed in real-life application processes. Drasch (2019) estimated the willingness to pay for various non-monetary job characteristics and found a strong correlation between choices made in a factorial survey and real life.

<sup>11</sup> We allocated 2-digit ISCO occupations to these occupational task groups using the application of Acemoglu and Autor (2011) classification to the European data, developed by Lewandowski et al. (2020). See Table A3 in Appendix A for details.

**Table 3. Sample characteristics – experiment with workers**

	Sample structure			Population structure
	N	%	% (weighted)	%
<b>Gender</b>				
Women	5,861	52.5	46.0	45.9
Men	5,305	47.5	53.9	54.1
<b>Age group</b>				
20-34	4,535	40.6	31.2	31.1
35-49	4,193	37.6	46.3	46.3
50-64	2,438	21.8	22.5	22.6
<b>Education</b>				
Secondary or lower	3,808	43.9	44.3	44.1
Tertiary	6,265	56.1	55.7	55.9
<b>Occupation</b>				
Routine occupation	6,250	56.0	50.3	48.0
Non-routine analytical occupation	3,135	28.1	31.2	31.4
Non-routine personal occupation	1,781	15.9	18.6	20.6

*Note: The sample structure weighted with our survey weights, the population structure weighted with the LFS survey weights.*

*Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment and annual data for 2020 from Poland's Labour Force Survey.*

**Table 4. Sample characteristics – experiment with employers**

	Sample structure			Population structure
	N	%	% (weighted)	%
<b>Gender</b>				
Women	913	58.9	43.7	43.7
Men	637	41.1	56.3	56.3
<b>Age group</b>				
20-34	453	29.2	19.2	19.1
35-49	808	52.1	53.6	53.6
50-64	289	18.6	27.2	27.3
<b>Education</b>				
Secondary or lower	547	35.3	40.3	40.4
Tertiary	1003	64.7	59.7	59.6
<b>Sector (based on the NACE codes)</b>				
Agriculture	29	1.9	3.6	3.6
Manufacturing	327	21.1	28.4	28.4
Services	1194	77.0	68.1	68.1
<b>Occupation of the candidate</b>				
Routine occupation	4112	53.1	52.1	48.0
Non-routine analytical occupation	2133	27.5	28.6	31.4
Non-routine personal occupation	1505	19.4	19.3	20.6

*Note: The sample structure weighted with our survey weights, the population structure weighted with the LFS survey weights.*

*Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment and annual data for 2020 from Poland's Labour Force Survey.*

## 2.4. Descriptive results

### 2.4.1 Experiment to elicit workers' preferences

The majority of workers (54%) indicated that they preferred a job offer that allowed them to work from home (Table 5), especially if they could combine WfH for 2-3 days a week with working in the office the other days (58%), rather than being limited to WfH only (51%). There were differences between socio-demographic groups. Women chose WfH more often than men (56% vs 53%), and younger people chose it more often than older people (57% of 20-34-year-olds vs 55% of 35-49-year-olds vs 51% of 50-64-year-olds). Workers with tertiary education or primary education selected WfH more often (around 56% in both groups) than workers with basic vocational education (53%) or secondary education (54%), although these differences were minor. Also, people who were commuting for a longer time chose WfH more often. There were also noticeable differences based on the participants' perceptions of the COVID-19 pandemic, as people who considered COVID-19 a threat chose WfH more often than those who did not (56% vs 52%). Also, workers from nonroutine personal occupations chose WfH more often than workers from routine occupations (57.8% vs 53.5%).

**Table 5. The shares of participants who chose to work from home (%)**

	WfH 5 days a week	WfH 2-3 days a week	WfH – total	N
<b>Total</b>	50.8	57.9	54.4	55,825
<b>Gender</b>				
<b>Women</b>	50.9	60.8	55.9	29,304
<b>Men</b>	50.8	55.5	53.1	26,521
<b>Age</b>				
<b>20-34</b>	53.9	59.9	56.9	22,675
<b>35-49</b>	50.9	58.2	54.5	20,963
<b>50-64</b>	46.6	54.6	50.6	12,187
<b>Education</b>				
<b>Primary or lower</b>	49.6	62.6	56.0	560
<b>Vocational</b>	50.5	54.4	52.5	4,905
<b>Secondary</b>	51.6	56.4	54.0	19,037
<b>Higher</b>	50.9	60.1	55.5	31,323
<b>Commute to work time</b>				
<b>&lt; 30 mins</b>	49.1	57.0	53.0	39,662
<b>30 - 60 mins</b>	54.7	60.3	57.5	10,798
<b>&gt; 60 mins</b>	56.3	60.0	58.2	5,365
<b>Considers COVID-19 a threat</b>				
<b>Yes</b>	52.4	59.1	55.8	37,442
<b>No</b>	47.6	55.4	51.5	18,383
<b>Task groups</b>				
<b>Routine occupation</b>	49.8	57.1	53.5	6,250
<b>Non-routine analytical occupation</b>	52.4	60.2	56.2	3,135
<b>Non-routine personal occupation</b>	59.0	56.5	57.8	1,781

*Note: Participants had to choose between a job offer with WfH and an identical office-based job offer that differed only in their wage levels. 50% of vignettes offered 2-3 days a week of WfH, 50% of vignettes offered 5 days a week of WfH. Sample size refers to the total number of vignettes presented.*

*Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.*

In the experimental component, there were noticeable differences in the likelihood of selecting WfH depending on the wages offered (Table 6). People who were offered a wage premium for WfH were much more likely to prefer to work from home (79%) than people who were offered the same wage for WfH as for an office-only job (63%), and especially than people who faced a wage penalty for WfH (28%). There was virtually no difference in the likelihood of choosing WfH between the treatment and the control groups in the information provision experiment (Table 6).

**Table 6. The shares of people who chose to work from home in the treatment and the control groups, by the wage differences associated with WfH (%)**

	WfH 5 days a week	WfH 2-3 days a week	WfH – total	N
<b>Total</b>	50.8	57.9	54.4	55,825
<b>Wages presented</b>				
Premium for working from home	75.1	82.7	79.0	25,679
Equal	55.2	71.6	63.2	4,281
Penalty for working from home	25.9	30.2	28.1	25,865
<b>Experimental group</b>				
Treatment	51.4	57.5	54.5	27,557
Control	50.3	58.3	54.3	28,268

*Note: Participants had to choose between a job offer with WfH and an identical office-based job offer that differed only in its wage level. 50% of vignettes offered 2-3 days a week of WfH, 50% of vignettes offered 5 days a week of WfH. Sample size refers to the total number of vignettes presented.*

*Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.*

## 2.4.2 Experiment to elicit employers' preferences

The demand for WfH was noticeably lower among employers than among workers. The share of employers who chose a candidate willing to work from home was 36.1% of cases (Table 7). Employers selected a candidate who wanted WfH 2-3 days a week (39.4%) more often than a candidate who wished to work entirely from home (32.9%). Gender, education, and the subjective assessments of COVID-19-related risks were not associated with employers' choices. The participants from companies with high-quality talent management chose a candidate who wanted WfH more often than those from companies with low-quality talent management (37.8% vs 34.3%).<sup>12</sup> Managers who perceived WfH workers as productive chose a WfH candidate more often than managers who perceived WfH workers are less productive (47.4% vs 32.3%). Employers who perceived WfH as beneficial for the company selected a WfH candidate more often than managers who did not share this view (42.5% vs 31.1%).

<sup>12</sup> We measured talent management quality with six questions adapted from the World Management Survey (Bloom et al., 2012). They covered the following areas: talent mindset, incentives and appraisals, dealing with poor performers, developing good performers, employee value proposition, retaining talent. Answers were coded on a Lickert scale from 1 (worst practice) to 5 (best practice). Talent management score is the average of the six questions. High quality management is defined if the score is above the median (3 in our sample). The distribution of the talent management scores in our sample is similar to the distribution of the talent management scores for Poland, the EU countries and the OECD countries in the main sample of the World Management Survey (2004 – 2014) – see Table A8 in Appendix A.

**Table 7. The shares of participants who chose to work from home (%)**

	WfH 5 days a week	WfH 2-3 days a week	WfH – total	N
<b>Total</b>	32.9%	39.4%	36.1%	7750 (100%)
<b>Gender</b>				
<b>Women</b>	33.0%	40.4%	36.7%	4565 (58.9%)
<b>Men</b>	32.7%	37.8%	35.2%	3185 (41.1%)
<b>Age</b>				
<b>20-34</b>	36.9%	43.6%	40.1%	2,265 (29.2%)
<b>35-49</b>	32.8%	37.8%	35.2%	4,040 (52.1%)
<b>50-64</b>	26.5%	37.5%	32.1%	1,445 (18.7%)
<b>Education</b>				
<b>Secondary or lower</b>	34.2%	40.4%	35.6%	2735 (35.3%)
<b>Higher</b>	32.1%	37.8%	36.4%	5015 (64.7%)
<b>Consider COVID-19 as a threat</b>				
<b>Yes</b>	33.6%	38.9%	36.2%	4920 (63.5%)
<b>No</b>	31.6%	40.3%	35.9%	2830 (36.5%)
<b>Perceive WfH workers as productive</b>				
<b>Yes</b>	45.6%	49.2%	47.4%	1935 (25.0%)
<b>No</b>	28.6%	36.2%	32.3%	5815 (75.0%)
<b>Perceive WfH as beneficial for the company</b>				
<b>Yes</b>	39.5%	45.6%	42.5%	3380 (43.6%)
<b>No</b>	27.8%	34.5%	31.1%	4370 (56.4%)
<b>The quality of talent management</b>				
<b>High</b>	34.5%	41.3%	37.8%	3840 (49.5%)
<b>Low</b>	31.2%	37.5%	34.3%	3910 (50.5%)

*Note: Participants had to choose between a candidate who wanted to work from home and an identical candidate who differed only in their wage expectations. 49% of vignettes offered 2-3 days a week of WfH, 51% of vignettes offered 5 days a week of WfH. Sample size refers to the total number of vignettes presented. N=7 750.*

*Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.*

### 3. Econometric methodology

#### 3.1. Stated preferences regarding working from home

For workers, we first quantify stated preferences toward working from home. We estimate a logistic regression of the probability that a worker prefers to work from home rather than in the office:

$$\Pr(\text{WfH}_j = 1) = F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 Q_i + \beta_3 O_j + \kappa_j + \Theta_j + \iota_i + \gamma_{ijv} + \varepsilon_{ijv}) \quad (1)$$

where  $F(Z) = \frac{e^Z}{1+e^Z}$ ,  $i$  stands for the individual,  $j$  for a job offer, and  $v$  for the vignette number.  $X_i$  is a vector of personal and workplace characteristics (set of indicator variables for gender, age, education, caring for children or older adults, employment status, working part-time, type of contract, commute time, and commute means),  $Q_i$  is a set of indicator variables for occupational task groups (non-routine cognitive analytical, non-routine cognitive

personal, routine occupations)<sup>13</sup> and perceiving COVID-19 as a serious threat;  $O_j$  represents job offer amenities (the option of working from home, the number of WfH days per week),  $\kappa_j$  is an indicator variable of the information experiment treatment;  $\Theta_j$  is a set of indicator variables that capture wage differences between job offers,  $\iota_i$  is a continuous variable reflecting the COVID-19 infection rate in an individual's county recorded during the time we conducted the survey, and  $\gamma_{ijv}$  corresponds to the order of offers (WfH on the left or right side) and the vignette number (1 to 5) presented to the participant.

For employers, we quantify stated preferences towards candidates who want WfH. We estimate a logistic regression of the likelihood of choosing a candidate who prefers working from home rather than in the office:

$$\Pr(\text{WfH}_j = 1) = F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 C_v + \beta_2 P_i + \beta_3 Q_i + \Theta_j + \iota_i + \gamma_{ijv} + \varepsilon_{ijv}) \quad (2)$$

The differences in comparison to model (1) are as follows:  $C_v$  is a vector of candidate's characteristics (indicator variables for gender, occupational task groups, experience, and commute time),  $P_i$  covers manager and firm characteristics (role in a company, size of company, sector, and size of the town),  $Q_i$  is a set of indicator variables that characterize managers' attitudes and company practices: perceiving working from home as beneficial to the company, perceiving employees working from home as more productive, having an above-median quality of talent management, perceiving COVID-19 as a serious threat, the self-assessed effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on the company, the degree to which working from home has been possible at the company before-, during, and after COVID-19 restrictions, as well the readiness of the company to have employees working from home.

### 3.2. Willingness to pay for working from home

Second, we estimate workers' willingness to pay for working from home. For workers, it reflects the valuation of the benefit from the WfH option in monetary terms. We model the participant's utility as:

$$U_{ijv} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 X_i + \alpha_2 O_j + \alpha_3 W_j + \alpha_4 Q_i + \iota_i + v_{ji} + \epsilon_{jiv} \quad (3)$$

Notation is the same as in the case of the model (1), except for wages –  $W_j$  is the (continuous) relative wage difference offered in job offer  $j$  as compared to an office-based job,<sup>14</sup> and  $v_{ji}$  represents a set of indicator variables for vignette numbers (1 to 5).

A worker chooses a job offer  $j$  if it provides a higher expected utility than the job offer  $k$  presented in the same vignette  $v$ ,  $U_{jiv} > U_{kiv}$ . The indicator variable  $Y_{ijv}$  equals one if participant  $i$  selected job  $j$  presented in a vignette  $v$ . Therefore,

$$\Pr(Y_{ijv} = 1) = \Pr(U_{ijv} > U_{ikv}) \quad (4)$$

<sup>13</sup> We calculated the task content of occupations using the methodology of Acemoglu and Autor (2011), based on the Occupational Information Network (O\*NET) data, adapted to the European data by Hardy, Keister, and Lewandowski (2018) who present methodological details. Second, we allocated occupations to groups according to the task with the highest value, following Fonseca et al. (2018) and Lewandowski et al. (2020). The allocation is shown in Table A3 in Appendix A.

<sup>14</sup> We checked whether treating the differences in earnings between a home-based job and an office-based job as a continuous variable instead of as a set of indicator variables yielded comparable regression results. The results were indeed very similar (Figures B1-B2 in Appendix B). Full estimation results are available upon request.



We estimate the parameters using logit models, where  $F(U) = \frac{e^U}{1+e^U}$ . We estimate the willingness to pay for a job amenity as the ratio of point estimates of parameters:

$$WTP(O_j) = -\left(\frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_3}\right) \quad (5)$$

We compute the confidence intervals using the Stata *wtpr* command with the default delta method (Hole, 2007).

To quantify the heterogeneity in WTP between subgroups, we interact both the wage difference variable and the indicator variable for working from home with a given subgroup's fixed effect. We distinguish subgroups defined by the key worker, workplace, and employer characteristics. We apply this approach to the pooled sample. We also re-estimate our models on subpopulations defined according to the number of WfH days offered (2-3 vs five days), as this appears to be a key feature affecting the appeal of working from home (Barrero et al., 2021).

For employers, the willingness to pay estimate reflects the valuation of the benefit from WfH for workers, as well as the net costs associated with hiring WfH workers (e.g., the cost of additional managerial and monitoring effort, less the potential savings on office costs). We model the participant's utility as:

$$U_{ijv} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 C_v + \alpha_2 O_j + \alpha_3 W_j + \alpha_4 C_v + \alpha_5 P_i + \alpha_6 Q_i + \iota_i + v_{ji} + \epsilon_{jiv} \quad (6)$$

The notation convention is analogous to models (2) and (3), with  $O_j$  representing job offer amenities (the option of working from home, the number of WfH days per week) and  $W_j$  being the (continuous) relative wage difference demanded by a candidate compared to a candidate who prefers to work only in the office.

We estimate employers' WTP using equations (4-5). We explore heterogeneity in employer's WTP based on candidate characteristics  $C_v$ , and manager characteristics,  $P_i$  and  $Q_i$ .

In all models, standard errors,  $\epsilon_{ijv}$ , are clustered at the participant level.

## 4. Results

We start with the results of workers' and employers' stated preferences for working from home, followed by the estimates of their willingness to pay for WfH and robustness checks.

### 4.1. Stated preferences regarding working from home

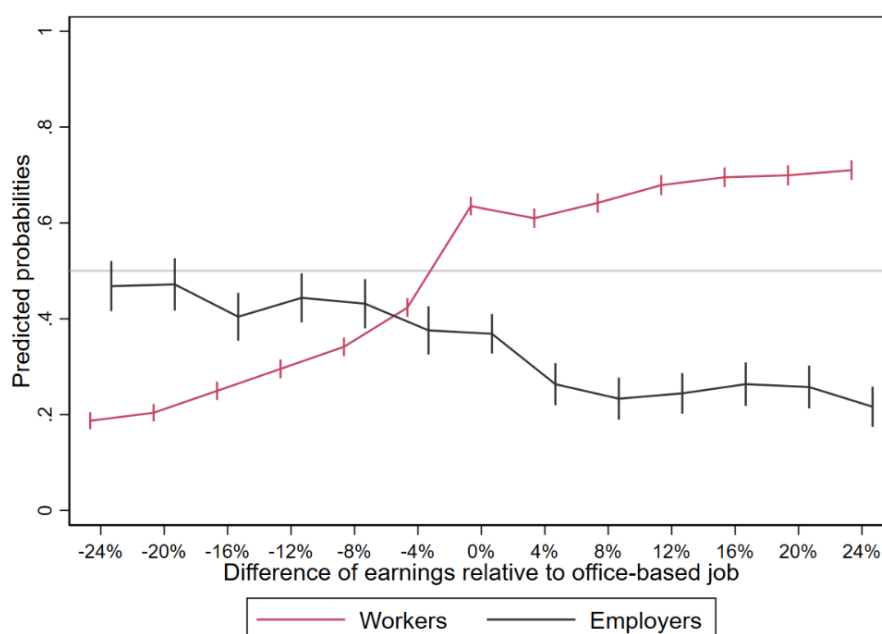
#### Preferences of workers and employers

Estimating a logit model (1) on the likelihood of selecting a WfH job, we find that the demand for working from home among workers was substantial. When offered the same wage in an office-based job and in a job with the option of WfH, 64% of participants would prefer WfH (Figure 1). Intuitively, the higher the wage offered in a WfH job, the higher the predicted probability that WfH was selected. However, the effect of wage premiums and wage penalties was asymmetrical. For each level of wage difference, a wage penalty reduced the preference for WfH more considerably than an equivalent wage premium increased this preference. The size of this effect was particularly pronounced for minor wage differences: a 4% wage penalty reduced the preference for WfH by 21 pp.,

but a 4% wage premium did not affect it. Substantial wage penalties (20-24%) decreased the probability of choosing WfH to 18-20%, while equal wage premiums increased it to merely 70-71% (from 64%).<sup>15</sup>

The supply of WfH jobs was much lower: 37% of employers would hire a WfH worker when choosing between candidates who share the same characteristics and wage expectations but differ in their demand for WfH (Figure 1). The higher the wage expectation of a WfH candidate, the lower the probability of being hired. Employers were more often discouraged by WfH workers expecting higher earnings than encouraged by WfH workers accepting lower wages. A WfH candidate who wished to earn 4% more than an office-based candidate faced a 11 pp. lower probability of being hired than a candidate who expected to make the same wage as an office-based candidate. WfH candidates willing to earn 4% less did not improve their hiring chances. More than 50% of employers prefer to employ office-based workers even if they expect to earn considerably more (20-24%) than WfH workers.

**Figure 1. Predicted probabilities of employers choosing a candidate who wants to work from home (grey) compared with predicted probabilities of workers choosing a WfH job offer (red), conditional on the differences in wage expectations between WfH and an office-based job candidate in the case of employers, and an office-based job offer in the case of workers**



*Note: Marginal effects calculated from a model that includes controls for personal and workplace characteristics, frequency of WfH in the job presented, differences in wage expectations, order of jobs presented on the screen, and vignette number. Standard errors clustered at the participant level.*

*Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.*

<sup>15</sup> We controlled for a range of personal and workplace characteristics. The marginal effects for all controls are shown in Table B1 in Appendix B. The groups of workers who were significantly more likely to prefer WfH were: women rather than men (by 2.0 pp.); younger workers (aged 20-34) rather than prime-aged workers (aged 35-49, by about 2 pp.) and older workers (aged 50 or older, 3-4 pp. less likely to prefer to WfH than prime-aged workers); tertiary-educated workers rather than secondary-educated workers (by 1.3 pp.). Caring for children was associated with a higher probability of choosing to WfH (by 1.7 pp.). By contrast, caring for older adults was associated with a lower probability of choosing WfH (by 1.7 pp.).

The demand for WfH among workers estimated in our experiment – about 2/3 of workers preferred WfH – lies within the range found in other studies. It is below 80% among middle-skilled workers performing cognitive jobs in the US (Mas and Pallais, 2017) and above 50% among office workers in China (Bloom et al., 2015). Being concerned about feeling isolated or lonely when working from home, and placing a high value on social interactions and teamwork, may partly explain why some people prefer to work in the office even if there is no wage premium (Bloom et al., 2015). Also, some workers may fear the flexibility stigma – being perceived as less productive, less committed to the workplace, and having fewer career opportunities or reduced wages. Furthermore, Poland's technological constraints and housing deprivations may discourage workers from WfH.<sup>16</sup>

### Information provision experiment among workers

On average, informing workers about their occupational exposure level did not affect their preferences regarding working from home (Table 8). Only among workers in nonroutine personal occupations we find a positive effect (6 pp.), significant at a 10% level (column 3 of Table 8).

**Table 8. Marginal effects from logistic regressions of choosing to work from home – information provision experiment with workers**

	Socio-demographic & occupational controls + Perception of COVID-19 as a threat (1)	(1) + Treatment in information provision experiment (2)	(2) + Occupational task groups interacted with information provision treatment (3)
Treatment in information provision experiment		0.004 (0.007)	0.004 (0.007)
Nonroutine analytical X treatment in information provision experiment			-0.001 (0.012)
Nonroutine personal X treatment in information provision experiment			0.059* (0.032)
Nonroutine analytical	0.027*** (0.008)	0.027*** (0.008)	0.027*** (0.008)
Nonroutine personal	0.048*** (0.017)	0.048*** (0.017)	0.046*** (0.017)
Perceiving COVID-19 as highly threatening	0.051*** (0.008)	0.051*** (0.008)	0.051*** (0.008)
Observations	55,825	55,825	55,825

*Note: Marginal effects calculated from a model that also includes controls for the type of contract, differences in pay, order of jobs presented on the screen, and vignette number. Reference group: men, aged 35-49, secondary education, employed, part-time employed, commutes to work in a car for over 60 minutes, low occupational exposure to contagion, no care obligations, and no information treatment. The full set of results is available in Table B1 in Appendix B. Standard errors are clustered at the participant level. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .*

*Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.*

<sup>16</sup> In Poland, the share of households with access to the internet is below the EU average (65.8% vs. 75.8% in 2019, World Development Indicators), the average number of rooms per person lower (1.2 vs. 1.7 in 2020, Eurostat), and the overcrowding rate is higher (36.9% vs. 17.4% in 2020, Eurostat).

## 4.2. Willingness to pay for working from home

### Valuations of WfH among workers and employers

The estimated willingness-to-pay values indicate a substantial mismatch between workers' and employers' valuations of WfH. On average, workers would sacrifice 5.1% of their earnings for the option to work from home, while employers expect a wage cut of 40.7% to select a WfH worker over an office-based worker (Table 9).<sup>17</sup> The last value reflects the sum of employers' valuation of (i) the WfH benefit for workers, (ii) their perceptions of the productivity of WfH workers, and (iii) the net costs of managing and monitoring WfH workers. Later, we will decompose the 35.6 pp. gap in the valuations of workers and managers into these individual factors (Figure 3).

Among workers, we find noticeable differences in the WTP depending on the number of WfH days offered. It was much higher when people received the option to combine working from home 2-3 days per week with working in the office (7.3% of earnings) than when they received the option of WfH five days a week (2.8%).<sup>18</sup> This difference confirms that a hybrid organisation of work appears more appealing to workers than working either only in the office or only from home. Participants in surveys in the US (Barrero et al., 2021) and in 27 middle- or high-income countries (Aksoy et al., 2022) declared similar preferences. Employers were also more willing to accept hybrid rather than fully remote work (expected wage cuts amount to 36.0% and 45.1%, respectively). While the mismatch in valuations of WfH for 2-3 days per week is smaller than the average, it is still high (18 pp., Figure 2). The gap in valuations of WfH for five days a week is huge (42 pp., Figure 2).

An essential dimension of mismatch is related to gender. Among workers, women were willing to sacrifice a higher share of earnings for the WfH option (6.0%) than men (4.3%), and people with children in a household had a higher WTP than people with no children in a family (6.2% vs 4.1%). This finding is in line with earlier evidence for middle-skilled workers in the US (Mas and Pallais, 2017). Contrastingly, workers' gender did not affect employers' valuations of WfH. This result contrasts with the pre-pandemic findings that women working from home faced penalties from employers who perceived them as concentrating on family obligations, in contrast to WfH men who signalled a stronger commitment by working remotely (Leslie et al., 2012).

---

<sup>17</sup> Our estimated WTP values are at the lower end of the spectrum of those estimated for the most developed economies (the UK and the US), which have varied from 4% (Maestas et al., 2018), to 8% (Mas and Pallais, 2017), to almost 25% (Datta, 2019). We think that it can be attributed to Poland being less technologically advanced and having a lower incidence of the WTP before the pandemic than the UK or the US.

<sup>18</sup> Regressions of stated preferences also show that combining WfH with working in the office was seen as more appealing than working only from home. The probability that a worker would select WfH was by approx. 7 pp. higher if they were offered 2-3 days a week of WfH than if they were offered an otherwise similar job that required them to WfH for five days a week (Table B1 in Appendix B). The probability that employers would select a candidate who wanted to 2-3 days of WfH was by 6 pp. higher than they would select a candidate who wanted five days of WfH (Table B4 in Appendix B).

**Table 9. Estimated workers' and employers' willingness to pay for working from home, overall and by subpopulations (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	Workers	Employers
Average effect	-5.07 ** (-5.89; -4.26)	-40.67 ** (-47.80; -33.54)
WfH 2-3 days/week	-7.31 ** (-8.18; -6.44)	-36.04 ** (-42.91; -29.18)
WfH 5 days/week	-2.81 ** (-3.71; -1.92)	-45.07 ** (-52.89; -37.25)
Non-routine analytical occupation	-6.47 ** (-7.52; -5.41)	-35.60 ** (-42.99; -28.22)
Non-routine personal occupation	-7.62 ** (-10.07; -5.17)	-38.21 ** (-46.10; -30.32)
Routine occupation	-4.38 ** (-5.28; -3.49)	-44.18 ** (-52.09; -36.27)
Men (candidates)	-4.24 ** (-5.20; -3.27)	-40.29 ** (-47.80; -32.78)
Women (candidates)	-6.05 ** (-6.98; -5.12)	-41.09 ** (-48.74; -33.44)
Commute under 30 mins	-4.11 ** (-4.99; -3.23)	-42.54 ** (-50.27; -34.81)
Commute over 60 mins	-7.51 ** (-8.65; -6.36)	-40.58 ** (-48.08; -33.08)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-7.19 ** (-9.07; -5.31)	-38.63 ** (-45.93; -31.32)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-6.00 ** (-6.87; -5.14)	-39.52 ** (-48.65; -30.39)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-3.14 ** (-4.22; -2.06)	-41.33 ** (-49.38; -33.28)
Children in household	-6.24 ** (-7.40; -5.09)	-
No children in household	-4.10 ** (-5.12; -3.02)	-
Treatment group – information experiment	-5.15 ** (-6.11; -4.19)	-
Control group – information experiment	-4.99 ** (-5.91; -4.08)	-
WfH workers perceived as more productive	-	-21.48 ** (-27.84; -15.13)
WfH workers perceived as less productive	-	-46.04 ** (-53.89; -38.19)
WfH perceived as beneficial for the company	-	-29.88 ** (-36.50; -23.25)
WfH perceived as not beneficial for the company	-	-47.55 ** (-55.57; -39.54)
High-quality talent management	-	-37.13 ** (-45.12; -29.15)
Low-quality talent management	-	-41.52 ** (-48.86; -34.18)

*Note: WTP estimated from a model with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, number of WfH days per week offered, differences in pay, order of jobs presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Total N = 111,655. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.*  
*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*

Another dimension of mismatch relates to commuting. Workers' longer commuting time was associated with a higher WTP for working from home (Table 9). People who were commuting for more than an hour were willing to sacrifice 7.2% of their earnings, and people who were commuting between 30 and 60 minutes were willing to forfeit roughly the same amount. However, people commuting for less than 30 minutes were willing to sacrifice only 4.1%

of their earnings for the option to WfH.<sup>19</sup> This pattern is in line with pre-pandemic evidence from Germany that showed that people who combine WfH with working at an employer's premises tend to commute noticeably longer distances than those who do not work from home (Arntz et al., 2022). The estimated value of time saved on hour-long commuting – slightly above 50% of an hourly wage – is in line with past estimates of the value of travel time savings (Zamparini and Reggiani, 2007). However, workers' commute time did not affect employers' WTP.

Workers' and employers' preferences align more considerably in non-routine cognitive occupations than in routine occupations. Workers in non-routine cognitive occupations, both analytical and personal, are willing to sacrifice a higher share of earnings for the WfH option (6.5% and 7.6%, respectively) than workers in routine occupations (4.4%). Workers in former occupations often enjoy higher levels of worker autonomy and pay (Menon et al., 2020). Our results suggest that benefits from WfH may complement worker autonomy. Employers are also more willing to hire WfH candidates in non-routine analytical and non-routine personal occupations (expected wage cut of 35.6% and 38.2%, respectively) than in routine occupations (44.2%).<sup>20</sup> Nevertheless, the gap between the WTP of employers and workers was considerable even in non-routine cognitive occupations (about 30 pp.).

Findings on occupational differences are similar when we distinguish between occupations that are highly teleworkable and those that are not, using a 50% share of teleworkable tasks as a threshold (Table A3 based on (Dingel and Neiman, 2020)). Workers in highly teleworkable occupations had higher WTP than workers in less teleworkable occupations (5.6% vs 3.9%). Managers expected smaller wage cuts from candidates in highly teleworkable occupations than from those in less teleworkable jobs (36.7% vs 51.3%, Table B3 in Appendix B).

Among workers, there were also differences related to the COVID-19 risk perception. The WTP was above-average among individuals who perceived COVID-19 as a serious threat (6.0% of earnings), while participants who did not feel threatened by COVID-19 were willing to give up 3.1% of earnings for the option to work from home. While people who perceive COVID-19 as a threat tend to be better educated and older than those who do not, we find that the WTP was higher among people who perceived COVID-19 as a threat in all subpopulations defined by age, gender, or educational level (see Table B2 in Appendix B). At the same time, managers' perception of the COVID-19-related risks did not affect their preferences for hiring WfH candidates. Additionally, the WTP did not differ between workers depending on whether they were treated in the information experiment or were in the control group (Table 9).

---

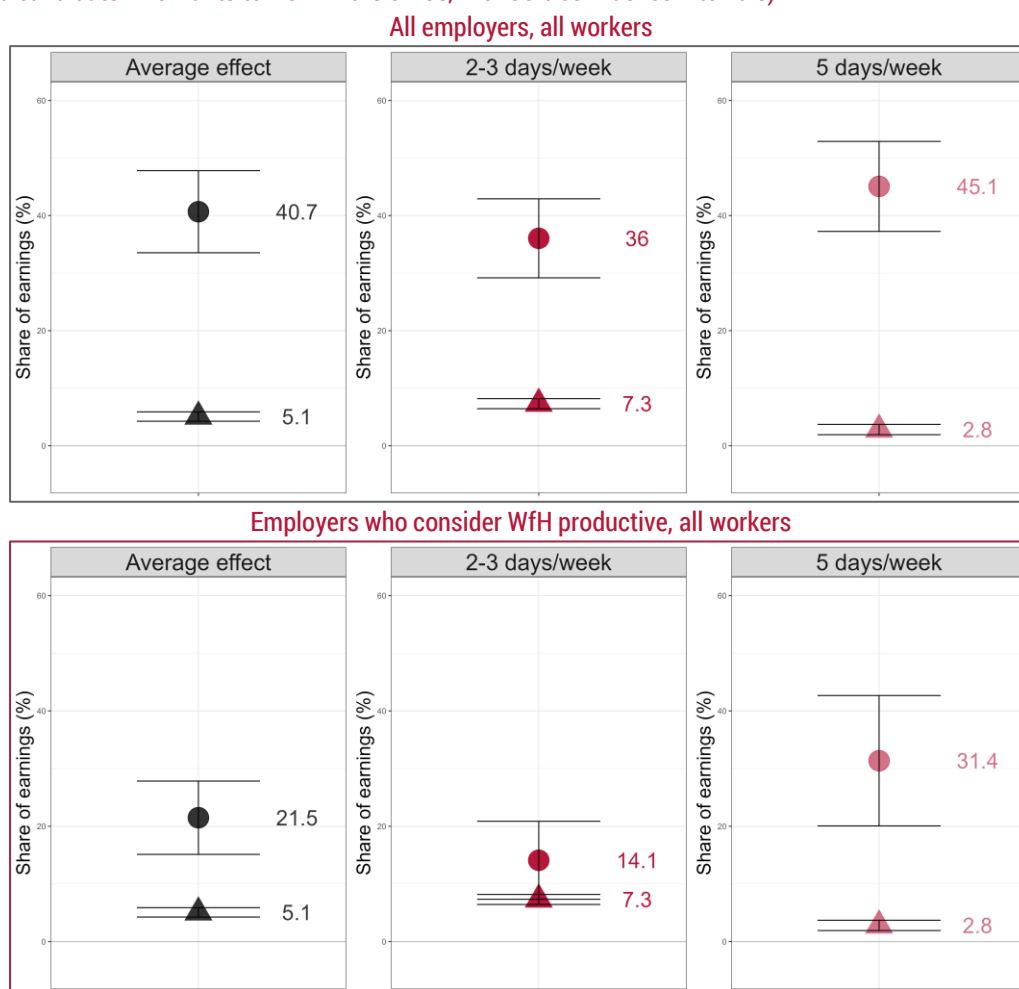
<sup>19</sup> Regressions of stated preferences confirm that gender, having children in a household, and commuting patterns were associated with differences in WfH choices. Women were by 2 pp. more likely to select WfH jobs than men. People caring for children were by 1.7 pp. more likely to choose WfH than those not caring for children. Workers who were commuting for less than 30 minutes were by 5 pp. less likely to choose WfH than workers who were commuting between 30 and 60 minutes. There was no difference between workers commuting for at least an hour and those commuting between 30 and 60 minutes (Table B1 in Appendix B). Neither gender nor commuting time of a candidate affected employer's choices (Table B4 in Appendix B).

<sup>20</sup> Regressions of stated preferences corroborate the findings on occupational differences. Workers in non-routine cognitive analytical occupations were by 2.7 pp. more likely, and workers in non-routine cognitive personal occupations were by 4.6 pp. more likely to choose WfH jobs than workers in routine occupations (Table B1 in Appendix B). Employers were by 3.7 pp. more likely to choose a WfH worker in non-routine analytical occupations than in a routine occupation, but there was no significant difference between candidates in non-routine personal occupations and routine occupations (Table B4 in Appendix B).

## The role of managerial attitudes towards working from home

Among employers, the heterogeneity in willingness to hire WfH workers was strongly related to their perception of WfH and past experiences with it. Employers who perceived WfH workers as productive, and employers who perceived WfH as beneficial for the company, were more willing to hire WfH workers. The wage cut they expected amounted to 21.5% and 30.0%, respectively, compared with 46.0% and 47.6% among employers who perceive WfH workers as unproductive and WfH as not beneficial for the company (Table 9).<sup>21</sup> Among these managers, the valuations of WfH for 2-3 days were not significantly different from those of workers (Figure 2). Once we control for managerial attitudes to and past experiences with WfH, there are no differences in WTP between firms with high and low talent management quality (Table 9).

**Figure 2. Comparison between valuations of WfH in employers and workers, estimated as willingness-to-pay (% of wage of a candidate who wants to work in the office, with 95% confidence intervals)**



Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.

<sup>21</sup> In regressions of stated preferences, we also find noticeable differences between managers with different attitudes to and experiences with WfH (Table B4 in Appendix B): WfH candidates were more likely to be chosen by managers who considered WfH beneficial for the company (by 5 pp. as compared to those who believed WfH is not beneficial), by managers who thought that WfH is productive (by 6 pp.), by managers in firms which used WfH before the pandemic (by 5 pp.).



Importantly, managers with favourable views of WfH constituted a minority (25%, and 44%, respectively, Table 7), tended to work in firms that used WfH already before the COVID-19 pandemic, and tended to use WfH themselves (Table B5 in Appendix B).<sup>22</sup> Prior experience with WfH positively influenced employers' attitudes towards WfH, while late-adopter firms that introduced WfH only during the COVID-19 pandemic were less willing to hire WfH candidates.

The fact that employers who perceive WfH as beneficial for their firm and WfH workers as productive also expect noticeable wage cuts to grant workers such an option may be surprising. However, it may reflect a discrepancy between the benefit from WfH at the firm level and additional managerial effort at an individual level. We explore this in detail below using differences between WTP for fully remote work and hybrid (2-3 days) work that allows managers to meet workers in the office on some days.

### **Workers' and employers' valuations of hybrid and fully remote work**

Next, we explore heterogeneities between groups of workers and employers, conditional on the number of WfH days offered. It enables us to decompose the overall 35 pp. gap in workers' and managers' valuations of WfH into the contributions of: (1) the managerial effort required to supervise workers remotely, (2) differences in managers' and workers' perceptions of how much workers gain from WfH, and (3) the average managers' assessment of the productivity difference between WfH and in the office. It also allows us to identify groups with contrasting preferences toward WfH.

To quantify the first two effects mentioned above, we focus on employers' who perceive remote workers as productive. Their valuations of WfH shall not include any pay penalty related to productivity differentials. First, we calculate the valuation of net managerial and monitoring costs associated with remote work as the difference between their WTP for 2-3 days of WFH and five days of WfH.<sup>23</sup> This difference amounts to 17% of earnings (31% - 14%, Figure 3 and Table 10). Hence, we attribute almost half the gap between the average valuation of WfH among employers and workers (17 pp. out of 35 pp., Figure 3 and Table 9) to managers' assessments of additional managerial and monitoring costs related to WfH.

Second, we calculate the discrepancy between employers' and workers' assessments of workers' utility from WfH as the difference between WTP for hybrid work among managers who perceive WfH as productive and workers' WTP for hybrid work. It amounts to 7 pp. (14.1% among managers compared to workers' valuations of 7-8%, Figure 3 and Tables 9-10).

Third, we interpret the remaining 11 pp. of the gap as employers' assessments of workers' productivity decline associated with WfH (Figure 3). This value is comparable to an 8-19% productivity decline among remotely working

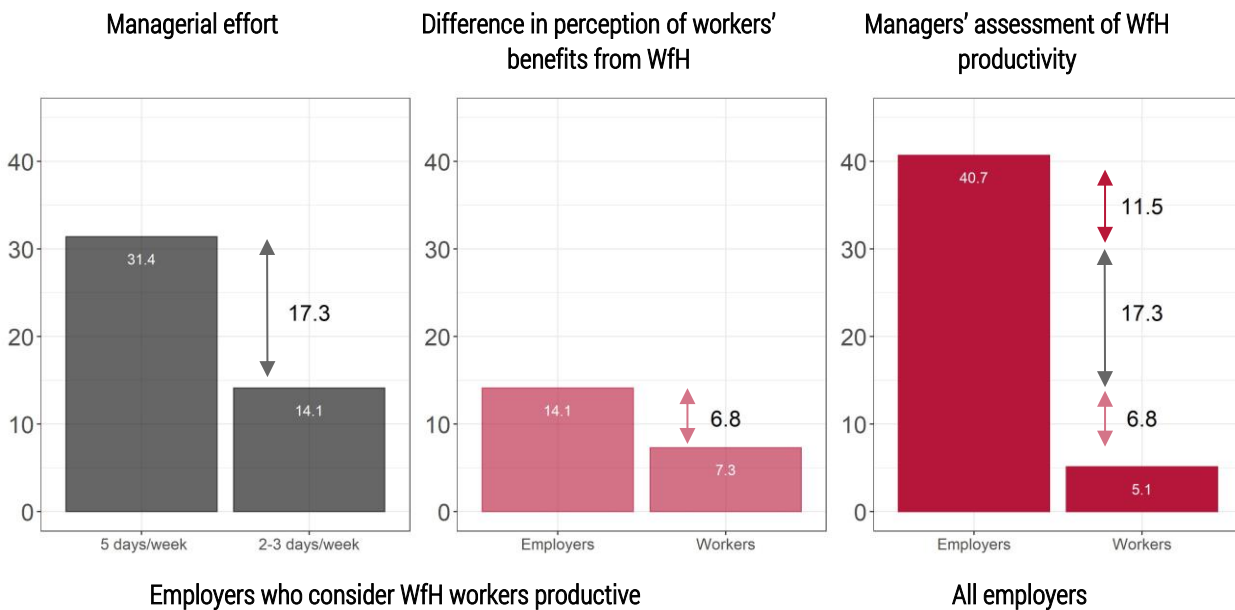
---

<sup>22</sup> Table B5 in Appendix B shows the results of logistic regressions on the likelihood that a managers (i) perceives WfH workers as productive, or (ii) perceives WfH as beneficial to the company, we find that managers who themselves had worked from home part-time or full-time were more likely to perceive WfH as beneficial by 6 pp. and 11 pp., respectively. They were also more likely to perceive WfH workers as productive, by 7 p.p. and 18 pp., respectively. Managers in firms in which some or all workers were able to WfH before the COVID-19 pandemic were more likely to perceive WfH workers as productive, by 4 pp. and 10 pp., respectively. Managers who perceived WfH workers were also significantly more likely to perceive WfH as beneficial for the firm, and vice versa.

<sup>23</sup> Hybrid work allows managers to set goals and targets, monitor progress, provide coaching and feedback, solve conflicts, etc., on office work days. Fully remote work requires managers to perform all these and other tasks via telecommunication.

skilled professionals identified by Gibbs et al. (2021) and to a 7.5% increase in errors among professional chess players forced to play online during the pandemic (Künn et al., 2022).

**Figure 3. Decomposition of the gap in workers' and employers' valuations of working from home**



Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.

The above-discussed estimate of net managerial and monitoring costs may be an upper bound. The effort to monitor new WfH hires is probably larger than the effort to monitor incumbent workers who WfH, as the former includes onboarding. Our experiment does not allow separating the cost of onboarding from regular supervision and monitoring. Nevertheless, our estimate likely reflects the jobseekers' situation, which is particularly relevant considering the high labour market transitions in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Comparing the WTP among various worker and employer groups confirms a widespread preference for hybrid over fully remote work. The WTP for 2-3 days of WfH per week combined with working in the office was noticeably higher than the WTP for WfH five days a week (Table 10). In particular, women exhibited a substantially higher WTP than men for working from home for 2-3 days a week (10.5% vs 6.9%). However, the willingness to pay for WfH five days a week was insignificant for both genders. Hence, the higher average WTP among women than among men (6.0% vs 4.2%, Table 9) can be attributed to women's higher WTP for hybrid work.

Moreover, workers commuting for less than 30 minutes a day were willing to sacrifice a significant portion of their earnings (8.1%) for working from home for 2-3 days a week, but showed no significant WTP for working from home for five days a week. Workers commuting more than half an hour a day had a significant WTP for both hybrid and fully remote work. However, their willingness to pay for WfH 2-3 days a week was greater than for WfH five days a week (10.2% vs 4.4% for a commute time of 30-60 minutes, and 9.1% vs 4.8% for a commute time of longer than 60 minutes). Similarly, people with children showed significant WTP for fully remote work (2.7%), while those without children did not. Employers also preferred to hire workers who wanted WfH 2-3 days per week rather than five days a week, but their valuations of WfH did not depend on candidates' gender or commuting time (Table 10).

The wage cuts expected by employers' were exceptionally high in the case of candidates in routine occupations who would like to WfH 5 days a week. The WTP in question amounted to 82.0%, more than double the WTP for candidates in non-routine personal occupations (37.5%) and candidates in non-routine analytical occupations

(40.7%, Table 10). Such an expectation would essentially prohibit workers in routine occupations from finding a fully remote job. The routine workers, however, were unwilling to accept any wage cuts for fully remote work either (Table 11). Contrastingly, workers in non-routine cognitive personal occupations stood out with the strongest preference to work entirely remotely. At 5.6%, their WTP was higher than 2.3% among workers in non-routine analytical occupations (Table 11). At the same time, the WTP for hybrid work among workers in these two occupational groups was virtually the same (10.3% and 9.5%, respectively, Table 10).

Finally, people who perceived COVID-19 as a threat were willing to sacrifice a significant portion of their earnings (2.1%, Table 10) for WfH five days a week. In contrast, people who did not perceive COVID-19 as a threat were unwilling to sacrifice earnings for WfH five days a week (Table 10). Among employers, there were no differences in WTP between those perceiving COVID-19 as a threat and those who did not. The provision of information about the level of occupational exposure to contagion translated into a significant WTP for working from home for five days a week (1.6%), while people in the control group were not willing to sacrifice any earnings to work from home for five days a week. The WTP for working from home 2-3 days a week in the treatment and control groups was higher and essentially identical (8.3% and 9.0%, respectively). These results suggest that the information on occupational exposure may have swayed some workers in highly exposed occupations to shift to full-time work from home and avoid work-related contacts altogether. Still, it did not affect the WTP for hybrid work.<sup>24</sup>

---

<sup>24</sup> We have verified if the effects of information provision treatment differed between workers in occupations with high or low level of occupational exposure, and between workers who perceive COVID-19 as a threat and those who do not. There were no significant differences between these subpopulations. Results are available upon request.

**Table 10. Estimated workers' and employers' willingness to pay for working from home, depending on the number of WfH days a week, overall and by subpopulations (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)**

	2-3 days of WfH per week (hybrid)		5 days of WfH per week (fully remote)	
Group	Workers	Employers	Workers	Employers
Average effect	-8.60 ** (-9.56; -7.64)	-27.36 ** (-33.77; -20.94)	-1.11 ** (-2.20; -0.01)	-59.10 ** (-73.62; -44.57)
Non-routine analytical occupations	-10.28 ** (-11.56; -9.00)	-21.52 ** (-28.80; -14.24)	-2.26 ** (-3.69; -0.84)	-55.00 ** (-69.71; -40.30)
Non-routine personal occupations	-9.54 ** (-12.89; -6.19)	-28.43 ** (-36.25; -20.62)	-5.57 ** (-9.01; -2.13)	-51.95 ** (-66.99; -36.91)
Routine occupations	-7.87 ** (-8.91; -6.83)	-29.98 ** (-37.06; -22.90)	-0.42 (-1.62; 0.77)	-63.54 ** (-79.18; -47.90)
Men (candidates)	-6.93 ** (-8.06; -5.80)	-27.17 ** (-34.25; -20.09)	-1.15 (-2.44; 0.15)	-58.33 ** (-73.53; -43.12)
Women (candidates)	-10.53 ** (-11.62; -9.44)	-27.57 ** (-34.78; -20.35)	-1.06 (-2.29; 0.17)	-59.97 ** (-75.22; -44.71)
Commute under 30 mins	-8.07 ** (-9.11; -7.03)	-30.1 ** (-37.36; -22.83)	0.28 (-0.89; 1.44)	-59.86 ** (-75.04; -44.68)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-10.24 ** (-11.56; -8.91)	-26.48 ** (-33.27; -19.70)	-4.37 ** (-5.97; -2.77)	-60.53 ** (-75.94; -45.13)
Commute over 60 mins	-9.12 ** (-11.29; -6.95)	-25.01 ** (-31.95; -18.07)	-4.84 ** (-7.22; -2.46)	-56.98 ** (-71.72; -42.24)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-9.44 ** (-10.47; -8.41)	-25.27 ** (-34.05; -16.50)	-2.11 ** (-3.27; -0.95)	-59.63 ** (-76.79; -42.47)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-6.79 ** (-8.03; -5.55)	-28.62 ** (-36.27; -20.97)	0.92 (-0.52; 2.37)	-58.82 ** (-74.40; -43.24)
Children in household	-9.42 ** (-10.81; -8.04)	-	-2.73 ** (-4.23; -1.22)	-
No children in household	-7.93** (-9.18; -6.68)	-	-0.26 (-1.21; 1.73)	-
Treatment group – information experiment	-8.24 ** (-9.36; -7.12)	-	-1.61 ** (-2.91; -0.31)	-
Control group – information experiment	-8.95** (-10.04; -7.87)	-	-0.61 (-1.81; 0.59)	-
WfH workers perceived as more productive	-	-14.11 ** (-20.87; -7.35)	-	-31.37 ** (-42.67; -20.06)
WfH workers perceived as less productive	-	-31.46 ** (-38.60; -24.32)	-	-65.50 ** (-80.96; -50.05)
WfH perceived as beneficial for the company	-	-18.19 ** (-24.61; -11.76)	-	-46.03 ** (-58.71; -33.36)
WfH perceived as not beneficial for the company	-	-33.37 ** (-40.59; -26.14)	-	-67.36 ** (-83.63; -51.10)

*Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, earnings differences, order of jobs presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 55,634 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 56,016 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*

### 4.3. Robustness checks

We performed several robustness checks for both experiments. In the first two checks, we reduced the sample size to only the offers presented on the screen's left (or right) side. In the following two checks, we reduced the sample size by removing observations that may have introduced noise due to the participants' inattention or low confidence in the choices made. In the last three checks, we changed the estimation method. The results of robustness checks for the experiment with workers are summarised in Figure 4 and detailed in Appendix C. The robustness checks for the experiment with employers are summarised in Figure 5 and detailed in Appendix D. These checks confirmed our baseline results and findings.

First, we reduced the sample size by running our models only on jobs presented on left (or right) screens. The resulting WTP estimates are almost identical to the baseline result (Tables C1A-B and C2A-B): the average WTP was 5.2% (5.0% for right screens) of earnings, compared to 5.1% of earnings in the total sample (Table 9). The remaining heterogeneities in the WTP were similar to our baseline results.<sup>25</sup>

Second, we removed participants who chose options on the same screen side on all vignettes they saw, as this may have suggested inattention.<sup>26</sup> 2,495 (21.8%) participants acted this way (Table A2 in Appendix A). The resulting WTP estimates (Tables C3A-B) were slightly larger in absolute terms than the baseline estimates but were not significantly different. The average WTP amounted to 5.4% (with a 95% confidence interval between 4.6% and 6.2%), compared to 5.1% in the pooled sample (4.3% to 5.9%, Table 9). The heterogeneities in WTP were the same as in our baseline results. Next, we removed observations in the first decile of the distribution of participants' confidence in their choices (10,650 observations, Tables C4A-B). This re-estimation yielded similar results: the WTP estimates were slightly larger in absolute terms – the average WTP was equal to 5.3% of earnings (with a 95% confidence interval between 4.5% and 6.2%), and the heterogeneities between were identical to those in the baseline results. We conclude that there was no evidence of inattention or hypothetical bias in our baseline findings.

Analogous robustness checks for the experiment with employers also confirm our findings. Reducing the sample size by half resulted in similar WTP estimates (Tables D1-D2). While the average WTP in the baseline model was 40.7%, it equalled 43% for left screens and 42.6% for right screens. The heterogeneities were the same as in our baseline results. There were 220 (7% observations) participants who always chose options on the same side of the screen. Dropping them from the sample resulted in slightly higher WTP estimates in absolute terms, similarly to the experiment with workers. The average WTP was 43.7%, with a 95% confidence interval between 30.0% and 51.5%. The overall heterogeneities in WTP remained the same as in the baseline model (Table D3). Removing 10% of observations which were the least confident choices, does not affect our conclusions either. The WTP estimates were slightly larger in absolute terms (43.1% on average), and the heterogeneities did not differ from the baseline mode (Table D4). We found evidence that inattention nor hypothetical bias does not affect our baseline results.

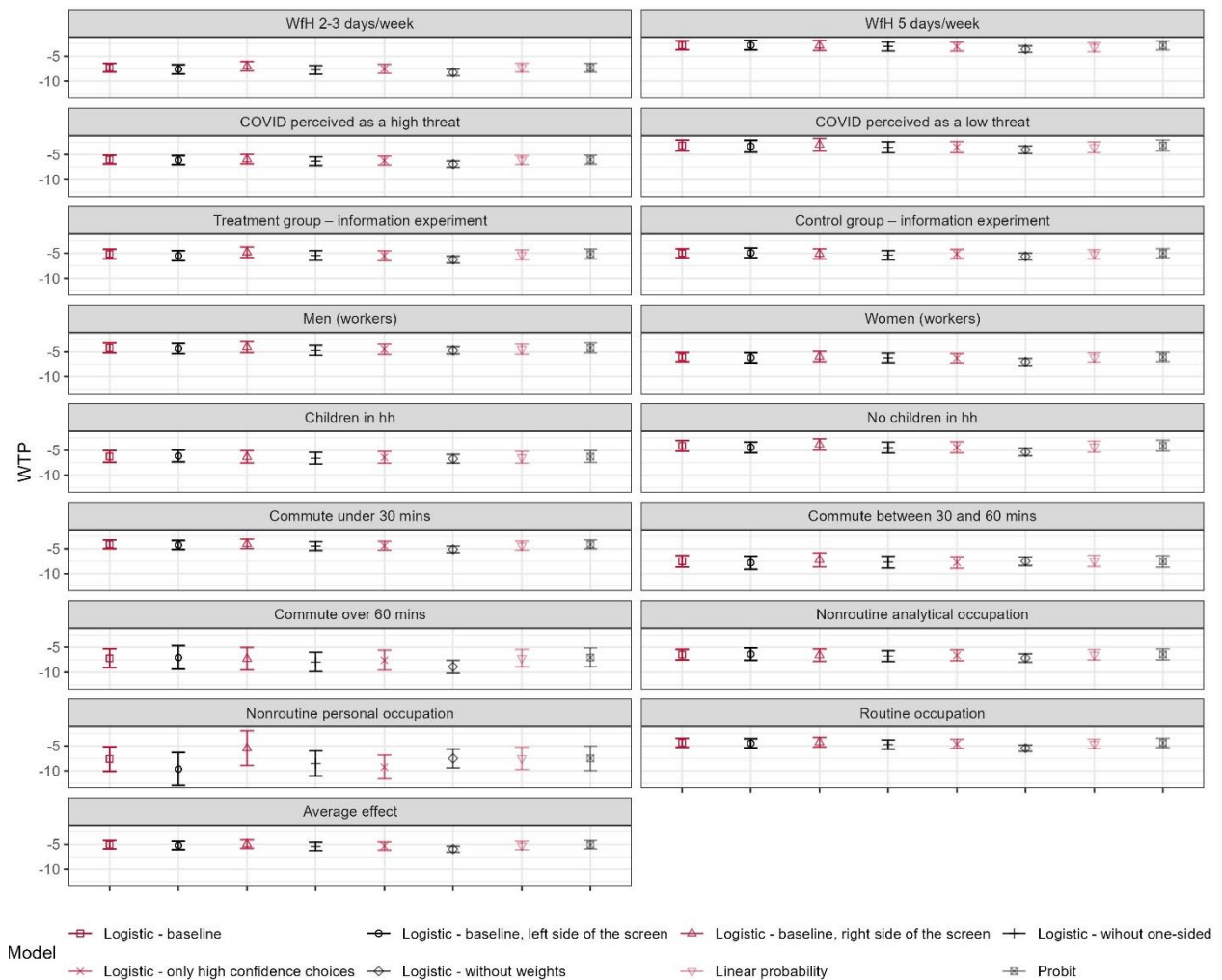
---

<sup>25</sup> The only differences relative to the full sample were in the subsample restricted to job offers on the right screens and with five WfH days per week: (1) the WTP was not significant because of a noisy estimate – the point estimates did not differ much between the full (1.1%, Table 8) and the restricted sample (0.9% Table C2A), and their confidence intervals mostly overlapped. (2) The WTP in the information experiment treatment (-1.1%, Table C2B) was not significant. Hence, we re-estimated the model on the full sample with additional interactions between the screen side and the treatment group, and found that the baseline results held. Estimation results are available upon request.

<sup>26</sup> The number of people who failed the inattention checks was very small, at only 65 out of 11,166 participants.

In the further three checks, we modified the estimation method. We re-estimated regressions as logistic models without weights (Tables C5A-B and D5), as linear probability models (Tables C6A-B and D6), and as probit models (Tables C7A-B and D7). In the experiment with workers, The WTP estimates in unweighted regressions were larger in absolute terms than in the baseline regressions (Figure 4). Still, the differences were below 1 pp. The heterogeneities were the same as in the baseline specification: the WTP was higher for 2-3 days of WfH per week than for five days of WfH per week, among people who perceived COVID-19 as a threat, among women, and among workers with longer commutes. Changing the estimation method to OLS or probit had a minimal impact on our results (Figure 4). In the experiment with employers, we obtained slightly smaller estimates in unweighted regressions and slightly larger estimates in OLS regressions (in absolute terms) than in the baseline results (Figure 5). These differences were below 5 pp., however, and so were never outside the limits of 95% confidence intervals of our baseline results. The heterogeneities were the same. Changing the estimation method to probit had a minimal impact on our results (Figure 5).

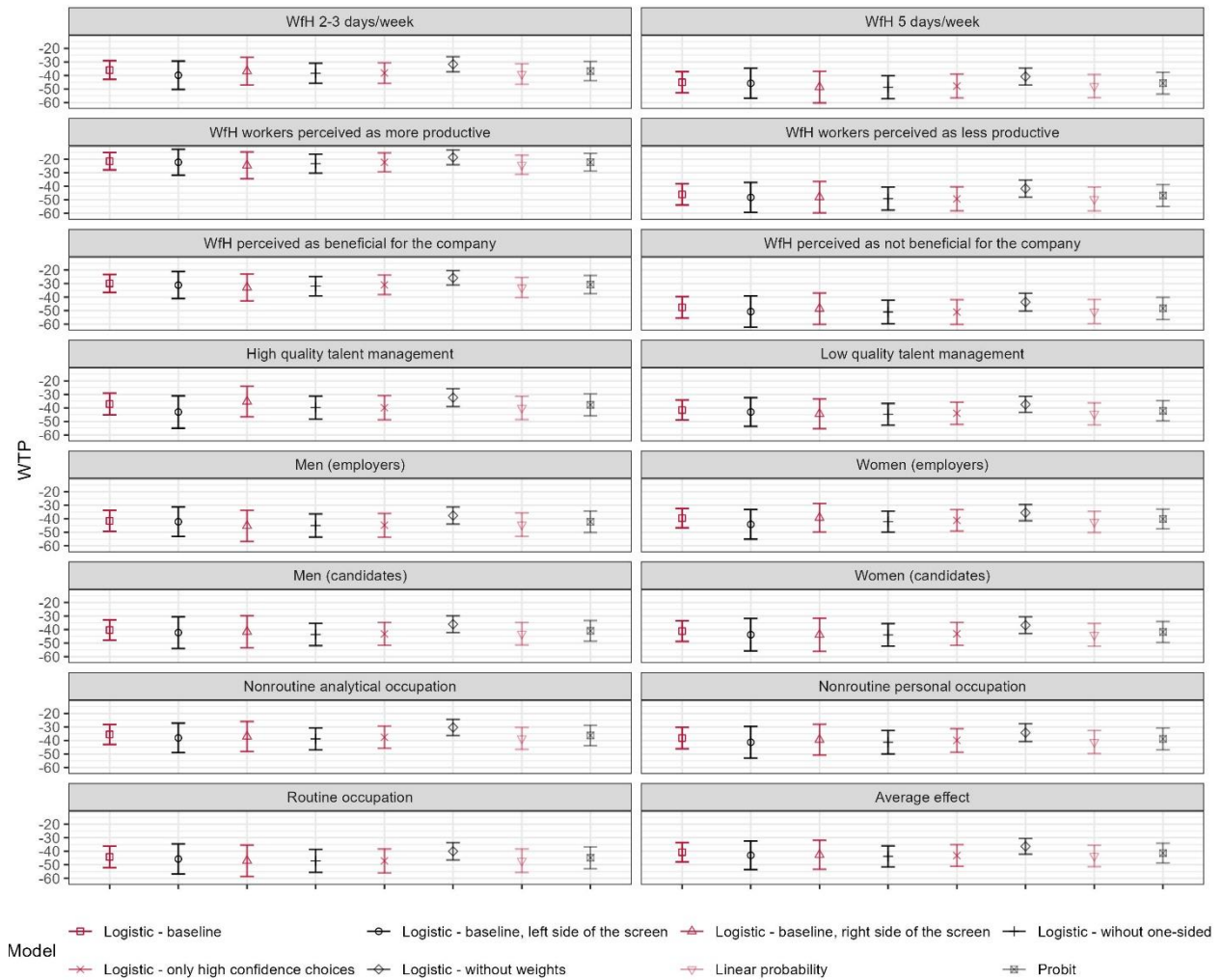
**Figure 4. Robustness check for experiment with workers: different models yield similar willingness to pay estimates (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)**



*Note: We present WTP estimates for all job offers. Point estimates with 95% confidence intervals. Results of estimations of separate models by the number of WfH days offered are shown in Appendix C in Figure C1 and Figure C2.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*

**Figure 5. Robustness check for experiment with employers: different models yield similar willingness to pay estimates (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)**



*Note: We present WTP estimates for all job offers. Point estimates with 95% confidence intervals. Results of estimations of separate models by the number of WfH days offered are shown in Appendix D in Figure D1 and Figure D2.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*

## 5. Summary and conclusions

In this paper, we studied workers' and employers' preferences for working from home using the willingness-to-pay estimates. To this end, we conducted two discrete choice experiments in Poland. Working from home was rare in Poland before the COVID-19 pandemic but has become more prevalent in line with European patterns as the country was severely affected by the pandemic. In our sample, we included more than 10,000 workers in professional, clerical, and service occupations for whom working from home was a realistic option and more than 1,500 companies that employ workers in these occupations.

We found a substantial mismatch between workers' and employers' preferences for WfH. Workers' demand for work from home was considerably higher than employers' demand for workers who work from home. Most workers preferred to work from home if offered the same wages in a WfH job as in an office-based job. Combining WfH 2-3



days per week with working in an office was more appealing for workers than WfH five days a week. The estimated willingness to pay for WfH is comparable to the valuations declared in surveys worldwide (Aksoy et al., 2022). Women, people who cared for children, workers in non-routine cognitive occupations, workers with long commutes, and workers who perceive COVID-19 as a severe threat exhibited the strongest preferences to work from home.

However, most employers in our experiment preferred to hire office-based workers. On average, they would have selected a candidate who wanted to work from home under a condition of a wage cut about eight times larger than the value of earnings that an average worker was willing to sacrifice for such an option. We attribute this gap primarily to managers' valuations of additional managerial and monitoring efforts related to WfH, followed by their assessments of worker productivity loss resulting from WfH, and the discrepancy between employers' and workers' perceptions of the benefit that WfH brings to workers. Only a minority of firms – larger firms that often used WfH before the COVID-19 pandemic, allowed the managers to work from home, and found WfH as productive as office-based workers – exhibited valuations of WfH that aligned with workers' willingness to pay for it. Moreover, employers were more willing to hire WfH candidates in non-routine cognitive occupations than in routine occupations. However, other aspects that we found relevant for workers' preferences toward WfH – gender and commuting time – did not matter for firms' willingness to hire a WfH candidate. We acknowledge that employers may be more willing to allow WfH among workers integrated with a firm than to employ WfH candidates. Nevertheless, our results suggest that WfH may remain a domain of the more elite firms and workers.

We also found that learning about the level of occupational contagion risk did not affect people's willingness to pay for working from home (except for workers in nonroutine personal occupations). Future research may investigate if the information about the COVID-19 risks provided by a health professional would yield different results, as it may matter who provides health-oriented messaging (Alsan et al., 2021; Torres et al., 2021; Banerjee et al., 2020).

Our findings point to challenges related to the widespread adoption of working from home in the post-COVID era. First, it's the discrepancy between the additional effort required from managers and the advantages of WfH that benefit either workers (e.g. shorter commuting, better work-life balance) or firms (e.g. lower office costs). Further studies may investigate more specific factors behind employers' assessments of workers' benefits from WfH and the costs of managing the WfH workforce, such as personality traits or trust. They may also study interventions or best practices that reduce the cost of managerial effort and may facilitate the adoption of WfH.

Second, the shift toward WfH may widen the gender pay gap as women are willing to sacrifice a larger share of earnings for WfH. However, it may also expand the set of job offer options for women as women are less inclined to commute than men (Le Barbanchon et al., 2021). Moreover, we found that employers expect similar wage cuts from men and women who wish to work from home. This contrasts with pre-pandemic findings that managers perceived WfH women as prioritising family life, in contrast with WfH men signalling more effort by staying at home (Leslie et al., 2012) and a larger WfH wage premium for men (Arntz et al., 2022). Hence, the overall effect of widespread working from home on gender gaps in labour market outcomes appears ambiguous and may be a subject of future research. Further research may also investigate how housing conditions and energy costs shape the demand for working from home.

## References

- Acemoglu, D., Autor, D.H., 2011. Skills, Tasks and Technologies: Implications for Employment and Earnings, in: Card, D., Ashenfelter, O. (Eds.), *Handbook of Labor Economics*. Elsevier, pp. 1043–1171. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-7218\(11\)02410-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-7218(11)02410-5)
- Adams-Prassl, A., Boneva, T., Golin, M., Rauh, C., 2022. Work that can be done from home: evidence on variation within and across occupations and industries. *Labour Economics* 74, 102083. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2021.102083>
- Aksoy, C.G., Barrero, J.M., Bloom, N., Davis, S.J., Dolls, M., Zarate, P., 2022. Working from Home Around the World. NBER Working Paper 30446. <https://doi.org/10.3386/w30446>
- Alipour, J.-V., Fadinger, H., Schymik, J., 2021. My home is my castle – The benefits of working from home during a pandemic crisis. *Journal of Public Economics* 196, 104373. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpubeco.2021.104373>
- Alsan, M., Stanford, F.C., Banerjee, A., Breza, E., Chandrasekhar, A.G., Eichmeyer, S., Goldsmith-Pinkham, P., Ogbu-Nwobodo, L., Olken, B.A., Torres, C., Sankar, A., Vautrey, P.-L., Duflo, E., 2021. Comparison of Knowledge and Information-Seeking Behavior After General COVID-19 Public Health Messages and Messages Tailored for Black and Latinx Communities: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Ann Intern Med* 174, 484–492. <https://doi.org/10.7326/M20-6141>
- Arntz, M., Yahmed, S.B., Berlingieri, F., 2022. Working from Home, Hours Worked and Wages: Heterogeneity by gender and parenthood. *Labour Economics* 102169. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2022.102169>
- Bahety, G., Bauhoff, S., Patel, D., Potter, J., 2021. Texts Don't Nudge: An Adaptive Trial to Prevent the Spread of COVID-19 in India. CGD Working Paper.
- Banerjee, A., Alsan, M., Breza, E., Chandrasekhar, A., Chowdhury, A., Duflo, E., Goldsmith-Pinkham, P., Olken, B., 2020. Messages on COVID-19 Prevention in India Increased Symptoms Reporting and Adherence to Preventive Behaviors Among 25 Million Recipients with Similar Effects on Non-recipient Members of Their Communities (No. w27496). National Bureau of Economic Research, Cambridge, MA. <https://doi.org/10.3386/w27496>
- Barrero, J.M., Bloom, N., Davis, S.J., 2021. Why Working from Home Will Stick (No. w28731). National Bureau of Economic Research. <https://doi.org/10.3386/w28731>
- Blinder, A.S., Krueger, A.B., 2013. Alternative Measures of Offshorability: A Survey Approach. *Journal of Labor Economics* 31, 97–128. <https://doi.org/10.1086/669061>
- Bloom, N., Han, R., Liang, J., 2022. How Hybrid Working From Home Works Out. NBER Working Paper Series. <https://doi.org/10.3386/w30292>
- Bloom, N., Liang, J., Roberts, J., Ying, Z.J., 2015. Does Working from Home Work? Evidence from a Chinese Experiment. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 130, 165–218. <https://doi.org/10.1093/qje/qju032>
- Bloom, N., Sadun, R., Van Reenen, J., 2012. The Organization of Firms Across Countries. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 127, 1663–1705. <https://doi.org/10.1093/qje/qje029>
- Breza, E., Stanford, F.C., Alsan, M., Alsan, B., Banerjee, A., Chandrasekhar, A.G., Eichmeyer, S., Glushko, T., Goldsmith-Pinkham, P., Holland, K., Hoppe, E., Kamani, M., Liegl, S., Loisel, T., Ogbu-Nwobodo, L., Olken, B.A., Torres, C., Vautrey, P.-L., Warner, E.T., Wootton, S., Duflo, E., 2021. Effects of a large-scale social media advertising campaign on holiday travel and COVID-19 infections: a cluster randomized controlled trial. *Nat Med* 27, 1622–1628. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-021-01487-3>

- Bryan, M.L., Sevilla, A., 2017. Flexible working in the UK and its impact on couples' time coordination. *Rev Econ Household* 15, 1415–1437. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11150-017-9389-6>
- Bustelo, M., Diaz, A.M., Lafortune, J., Piras, C., Salas, L.M., Tessada, J., 2022. What is the price of freedom? Estimating women's willingness to pay for job schedule flexibility. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*. <https://doi.org/10.1086/718645>
- Datta, N., 2019. Willing to pay for security: a discrete choice experiment to analyse labour supply preferences. CEP Discussion Papers, Centre for Economic Performance, LSE.
- Dingel, J.I., Neiman, B., 2020. How many jobs can be done at home? *Journal of Public Economics* 189, 104235. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpubeco.2020.104235>
- Drasch, K., 2019. Behavioral Intentions, Actual Behavior and the Role of Personality Traits. Evidence from a Factorial Survey Among Female Labor Market Re-Entrants. *methods data*, 23 Pages. <https://doi.org/10.12758/MDA.2017.14>
- Emanuel, N., Harrington, E., 2021. "Working" Remotely? Selection, Treatment, and Market Provision of Remote Work.
- Emanuel, N., Harrington, E., Pallais, A., 2022. The Power of Proximity: Office Interactions Affect Online Feedback and Quits, Especially for Women and Young Worker.
- Fonseca, T., Lima, F., Pereira, S.C., 2018. Job polarization, technological change and routinization: Evidence for Portugal. *Labour Economics* 51, 317–339. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2018.02.003>
- Gibbs, M., Mengel, F., Siemroth, C., 2021. Work from Home & Productivity: Evidence from Personnel & Analytics Data on IT Professionals. IZA Discussion Paper 14336.
- Hardy, W., Keister, R., Lewandowski, P., 2018. Educational upgrading, structural change and the task composition of jobs in Europe. *Economics of Transition and Institutional Change* 26, 201–231. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecot.12145>
- He, H., Neumark, D., Weng, Q., 2021. Do Workers Value Flexible Jobs? A Field Experiment. *Journal of Labor Economics* 39, 709–738. <https://doi.org/10.1086/711226>
- Hole, A.R., 2007. A comparison of approaches to estimating confidence intervals for willingness to pay measures. *Health Economics* 16, 827–840. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hec.1197>
- Künn, S., Seel, C., Zegners, D., 2022. Cognitive Performance in Remote Work: Evidence from Professional Chess. *The Economic Journal* 132, 1218–1232. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ej/ueab094>
- Le Barbanchon, T., Rathelot, R., Roulet, A., 2021. Gender Differences in Job Search: Trading off Commute against Wage. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 136, 381–426. <https://doi.org/10.1093/qje/qjaa033>
- Leslie, L.M., Manchester, C.F., Park, T.-Y., Mehng, S.A., 2012. Flexible Work Practices: A Source of Career Premiums or Penalties? *AMJ* 55, 1407–1428. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0651>
- Lewandowski, P., 2020. Occupational exposure to contagion and the spread of COVID-19 in Europe (No. 02/2020), IBS Working Papers. IBS.
- Lewandowski, P., Keister, R., Hardy, W., Górka, S., 2020. Ageing of routine jobs in Europe. *Economic Systems* 44, 100816. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecosys.2020.100816>
- Maestas, N., Mullen, K., Powell, D., von Wachter, T., Wenger, J., 2018. The Value of Working Conditions in the United States and Implications for the Structure of Wages (No. w25204). National Bureau of Economic Research, Cambridge, MA. <https://doi.org/10.3386/w25204>

- Mas, A., Pallais, A., 2017. Valuing Alternative Work Arrangements. *American Economic Review* 107, 3722–3759. <https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.20161500>
- Menon, S., Salvatori, A., Zwysen, W., 2020. The Effect of Computer Use on Work Discretion and Work Intensity: Evidence from Europe. *British Journal of Industrial Relations* 58, 1004–1038. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjir.12504>
- Torres, C., Ogbu-Nwobodo, L., Alsan, M., Stanford, F.C., Banerjee, A., Breza, E., Chandrasekhar, A.G., Eichmeyer, S., Karnani, M., Loisel, T., Goldsmith-Pinkham, P., Olken, B.A., Vautrey, P.-L., Warner, E., Duflo, E., COVID-19 Working Group, Balinda, I.G., Bido-Medina, R., Brandt, A., Brown, K., Burnett-Bowie, S.-A., Carter, L.P., Chou, J., Cohen-Hauseman, A., Cotter, K., Davila, C., Daza, P., Frey-Vogel, A., Galligani, L., Gonzalez, W., Gove, M., Hall, D., Hartjes, K.T., Hauseman, J., Herrera Santos, L., Holland, K.J., Hsieh, K., James, A., Janoowalla, H., Kwete, G., Lissanu, D., Logan, M., Lopez, L., Lopez-Rodriguez, W., Mathenge, N., Matute, J., Molina, G., Morelli, L., O'Neill, M., Oseni, T., Osho, A., Otuya, V., Perez, N., Perlman, M., Puleo, R., Romero Crousillat, D., Rosales, A.M., Saboori, S., Salazar, G., Scott-Vernaglia, S., Shaw, A.Y., Stapleton, S., Van Den Berghe, C., Velez, C., 2021. Effect of Physician-Delivered COVID-19 Public Health Messages and Messages Acknowledging Racial Inequity on Black and White Adults' Knowledge, Beliefs, and Practices Related to COVID-19: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Netw Open* 4, e2117115. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2021.17115>
- Yang, L., Holtz, D., Jaffe, S., Suri, S., Sinha, S., Weston, J., Joyce, C., Shah, N., Sherman, K., Hecht, B., Teevan, J., 2021. The effects of remote work on collaboration among information workers. *Nat Hum Behav* 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-021-01196-4>
- Zamparini, L., Reggiani, A., 2007. Meta-Analysis and the Value of Travel Time Savings: A Transatlantic Perspective in Passenger Transport. *Netw Spat Econ* 7, 377–396. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11067-007-9028-5>

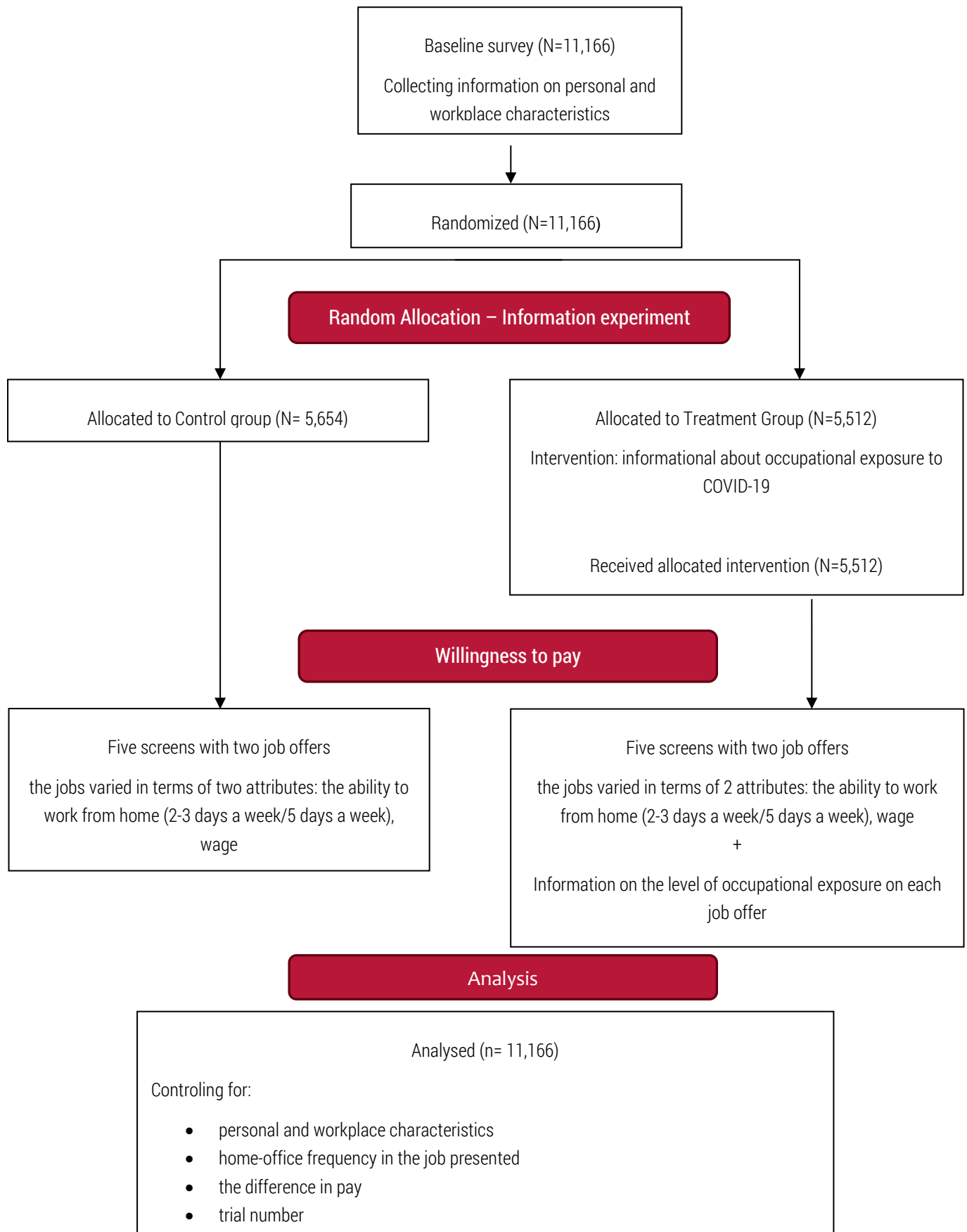
## Appendix A. Methodological details

Table A1. Balance table for the information provision experiment – all variables

	Control (%)	Treatment (%)	Control - Treatment (pp.)
<b>Gender</b>			
Women	53.1	51.8	1.3 (0.009)
Men	46.9	48.2	-1.3 (0.009)
<b>Age group</b>			
20-34	41.1	40.1	1.0 (0.009)
35-49	37.5	37.6	-0.1 (0.009)
50-64	21.4	22.3	-0.9 (0.008)
<b>Education</b>			
Primary	1.1	0.9	0.3 (0.002)
Vocational	8.7	8.9	-0.2 (0.005)
Secondary	34.4	33.8	0.6 (0.009)
Tertiary	55.8	56.4	-0.7 (0.009)
<b>Region</b>			
South-West	30.1	31.5	-1.3 (0.009)
North-West	27.9	27.7	0.1 (0.008)
East	14.6	14.5	0.1 (0.007)
Central	27.4	26.3	1.1 (0.008)
<b>Employment status</b>			
Employed	74.6	74.7	-0.1 (0.008)
Jobseekers	25.4	25.3	0.1 (0.008)
<b>Occupation group</b>			
Managers	9.5	9.7	-0.2 (0.006)
Professionals	28.3	29.2	-0.9 (0.009)
Technicians and associate professionals	13.0	12.4	0.6 (0.006)
Clerical support workers	27.4	27.4	0.0 (0.008)
Service and sales workers	21.7	21.3	0.4 (0.008)
<b>Number of hours worked weekly</b>			
At least 40	87.4	87.3	0.1 (0.006)
About 30	7.4	7.0	0.5 (0.005)
About 20	5.1	5.8	-0.6 (0.004)
<b>Contract type</b>			
Employment contract	79.6	79.5	0.1 (0.008)
Individual contractor	9.4	9.3	0.1 (0.006)
Self-employed	7.1	7.4	-0.3 (0.005)
Other	3.9	3.9	0.0 (0.004)
<b>Household members</b>			
Single-person household	7.6	7.7	-0.1 (0.005)
Children present in the household	45.9	44.8	1.0 (0.009)

Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.

Diagram 1. The design of the study



Source: own elaboration.

**Table A2. Indicators of inattention and hypothetical bias – experiment with workers**

<b>a) Confidence among study participants regarding their choices</b>		
	<b>Confidence level (points on the 0-100 scale)</b>	
	<b>Experiment with workers</b>	<b>Experiment with employers</b>
Mean	85.0	80.6
Standard deviation	17.0	17.1
Minimal value	0.0	0
Maximal value	100	100
<b>Percentiles</b>		
1st	33	29
5th	52	50
10th	60	58
25th	75	70
50th	90	83
75th	100	96
90th	100	100
95th	100	100
99th	100	100
N (number of choices)	55,830	7,750
<b>b) Individuals who chose job offers/candidates displayed only on one side of the screen</b>		
Left side only	941 (8.4%)	368 (23.7%)
Right side only	1,554 (13.4%)	66 (4.3%)
N (number of participants)	11,166 (100%)	1,550 (100%)
<b>c) Individuals who provided the wrong answer to the trap questions</b>		
What is 2+2	32 (0.3%)	-
What is 20-7	33 (0.3%)	-
N (number of participants)	11,166 (100%)	1,550 (100%)

*Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.*



**Table A3. Occupations (two-digit ISCO-08) included in the study, with allocation to occupational task groups, exposure to contagion, share of teleworkable tasks, and the teleworkability level**

Occupation group	Occupational task group	Exposure to contagion	Teleworkability (% of jobs that can be done from home)	Teleworkability
<b>Managers</b>				
Chief executives, senior officials, and legislators	NRCP	Low	89%	High
Administrative and commercial managers	NRCP	Low	90%	High
Production and specialised services managers	NRCP	Low	56%	High
Hospitality, retail, and other services managers	NRCP	High	50%	High
<b>Professionals</b>				High
Science and engineering professionals	NRCA	Low	63%	High
Teaching professionals	NRCA	Low	97%	High
Business and administration professionals	NRCP	Low	93%	High
Information and communications technology professionals	NRCA	Low	100%	High
Legal, social, and cultural professionals	NRCA	High	67%	High
<b>Technicians and Associate Professionals</b>				
Science and engineering associate professionals	NRCA	Low	20%	Low
Business and administration associate professionals	NRCP	High	71%	High
Legal, social, cultural, and related associate professionals	R	High	60%	High
Information and communications technicians	NRCA	High	82%	High
<b>Clerical Support Workers</b>				
General and keyboard clerks	R	Low	100%	High
Customer services clerks	R	High	29%	
Numerical and material recording clerks	R	Low	56%	High
Other clerical support workers	R	High	60%	High
<b>Services and Sales Workers</b>				
Personal service workers	R	High	17%	Low
Sales workers	R	High	20%	Low
Personal care workers	R	High	18%	Low
Protective services workers	R	High	11%	Low

Note: NRCA – non-routine cognitive analytical, NRCP – non-routine cognitive personal, R – routine.

Source: Own elaboration based on O\*NET occupational task categories adapted for European data by Lewandowski et al. (2020), the index of occupational exposure to contagion developed by Lewandowski (2020), and the classification of teleworkability developed by Dingel and Neiman (2020).

**Table A4. Definition of the term ‘work from home’ displayed to the study participants**

Please see the table below. It shows how we understand the term ‘work from home’. In the next part of the survey, we will ask about your opinion on this type of work.	
Work from home	
No	Yes
The employee works in the office and cannot work from home.	<p>The employee can do all or part of the work from home.</p> <p>He/she can work from home all days of the week or several days a week. For example, he/she can work in the office on Mondays and Tuesdays and work from home on Wednesdays, Thursdays, and Fridays.</p> <p>He/she can also work in the office for a few hours each day and work from home for the remaining few hours. For example, he/she can work in the office every morning between 9:00 a.m. and 1:00 p.m., and can then work from home between 3:00 p.m. and 7:00 p.m.</p>

Source: Own elaboration.

**Table A5. Examples displayed to the study participants**

<p><b>Work in the office</b></p> <p>Anna works in the city hall from Monday to Friday between 7:30 a.m. and 3:30 p.m. Her duties include mainly office work – she draws up letters and prepares documents for the public procurement procedure. She works in the office every day between 7.30 a.m. to 3.30 p.m. and does not work from home.</p>
<p><b>Work from home</b></p> <p>Anna works in the city hall from Monday to Friday between 7:30 a.m. and 3:30 p.m. Her duties include mainly office work – she draws up letters and prepares documents for the public procurement procedure. She agreed with her employer that she would work in the office from Monday to Wednesday and would work from home from Thursday to Friday. The employer gave her a computer that provides her with access to the office mailbox and other programs that enable her to work from home.</p>

Source: Own elaboration.

**Table A6. Information provided to the treatment group**

Social distancing and limits on mobility and interpersonal contacts are necessary actions to prevent the spread of COVID-19.

Research shows that people spend most of the day at work. Meeting other employees or clients increases the risk of transmitting infectious diseases such as COVID-19.

Some occupations require more frequent social contact, more physical proximity to others, or even direct contact with infectious individuals. As a result, some workers are more exposed to contagion than others.

We identified occupations in which the risk of contagion is higher or lower. You will see this information on the following screens.

Source: Own elaboration.

**Table A7. Examples of vignettes with job offers displayed to the study participants**

Control group		
	Job offer A	Job offer B
Occupation	Application developer	Application developer
Work hours	This is a full-time position. You will work from Monday to Friday from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.	This is a full-time position. You will work from Monday to Friday from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.
Work from home	You will be doing the job in the office. You will not have an option to work from home.	You will have an option to work from home 2 or 3 days per week.
Wage	You will be earning a monthly wage of 4,900 PLN net.	You will be earning a monthly wage of 5,684 PLN net.
Treatment group		
	Job offer A	Job offer B
Occupation	Application developer	Application developer
Occupational exposure to COVID-19	Low	Low
Work hours	This is a full-time position. You will work from Monday to Friday from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.	This is a full-time position. You will work from Monday to Friday from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.
Work from home	You will be doing the job in the office. You will not have an option to work from home.	You will have an option to work from home 2 or 3 days per week.
Wage	You will be earning a monthly wage of 4,900 PLN net.	You will be earning a monthly wage of 5,684 PLN net.

Source: Own elaboration.

**Table A8. The average talent management scores**

	Average talent management scores (by percentiles)		
	25%	50%	75%
Poland - Discrete choice experiment	2.33	3.00	3.33
Poland - WMS	2.42	2.83	3.17
EU countries - WMS	2.33	2.72	3.17
OECD countries - WMS	2.33	2.83	3.17

*Note: table presents the average talent management scores (six questions related to incentives and personnel management)*

*Source: own calculations using data gathered for the experiment and the main sample of the World Management Survey (2004 – 2014).*

## Appendix B. Additional results

Table B1. Marginal effects from baseline logistic regressions in Experiment to elicit workers' preferences – full set of results

	Socio-demographic & occupational controls + Perception of COVID-19 as a threat (1)	(1) + Treatment in information provision experiment (2)	(2) + Occupational task groups interacted with information provision treatment (3)
Working from home 2-3 days a week	0.067*** (0.005)	0.067*** (0.005)	0.067*** (0.005)
Nonroutine analytical	0.027*** (0.008)	0.027*** (0.008)	0.027*** (0.008)
Nonroutine personal	0.048*** (0.017)	0.048*** (0.017)	0.046*** (0.017)
Perceiving COVID-19 as highly threatening	0.051*** (0.008)	0.051*** (0.008)	0.051*** (0.008)
Women	0.020*** (0.007)	0.020*** (0.007)	0.020*** (0.007)
Primary education or lower	0.013 (0.027)	0.014 (0.027)	0.013 (0.028)
Tertiary education	0.009 (0.006)	0.009 (0.006)	0.009 (0.006)
Vocational education	-0.017 (0.010)	-0.017 (0.010)	-0.017 (0.010)
20-34 years of age	0.020*** (0.007)	0.020*** (0.007)	0.020*** (0.007)
50-64 years of age	-0.041*** (0.011)	-0.041*** (0.011)	-0.041*** (0.011)
Commute time < 30 minutes	-0.045*** (0.014)	-0.045*** (0.014)	-0.045*** (0.014)
Commute time < 60 minutes	0.004 (0.015)	0.004 (0.015)	0.004 (0.015)
Used public transport to get to work before COVID-19	-0.004 (0.009)	-0.004 (0.009)	-0.004 (0.009)
Walked or biked to work before COVID-19	0.001 (0.010)	0.001 (0.010)	0.001 (0.010)
Did not commute to work before COVID-19	0.255*** (0.033)	0.254*** (0.033)	0.255*** (0.032)
Caring for children	0.017** (0.008)	0.017** (0.008)	0.017** (0.008)

	Socio-demographic & occupational controls + Perception of COVID-19 as a threat (1)	(1) + Treatment in information provision experiment (2)	(2) + Occupational task groups interacted with information provision treatment (3)
Caring for older adults	-0.017** (0.008)	-0.017** (0.008)	-0.017** (0.008)
Jobseeker	0.020** (0.009)	0.020** (0.009)	0.021** (0.009)
Working full-time	-0.013 (0.012)	-0.013 (0.012)	-0.013 (0.012)
Civil contract	0.044*** (0.015)	0.044*** (0.015)	0.044*** (0.015)
Self-employed	0.024* (0.014)	0.024* (0.014)	0.024* (0.014)
Other contract	0.004 (0.017)	0.004 (0.017)	0.003 (0.017)
Treatment in information provision experiment		0.004 (0.007)	0.004 (0.007)
Nonroutine analytical X treatment in information provision experiment			-0.001 (0.012)
Nonroutine personal X treatment in information provision experiment			0.059* (0.032)
WfH job presented on the left	0.020*** (0.005)	0.020*** (0.005)	0.020*** (0.005)
Vignette no. = 1	-0.004 (0.007)	-0.004 (0.007)	-0.004 (0.007)
Vignette no. = 2	0.002 (0.006)	0.002 (0.006)	0.002 (0.006)
Vignette no. = 4	-0.017*** (0.007)	-0.017*** (0.007)	-0.017*** (0.007)
Vignette no. = 5	-0.009 (0.007)	-0.009 (0.007)	-0.009 (0.007)
Covid-19 infection rate per capita (county)	-12.158 (22.903)	-11.942 (22.889)	-11.409 (22.878)
Observations	55,825	55,825	55,825

Note: Standard errors clustered at the participant level. \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \* $p < 0.1$ . Reference groups: working from home 5 days a week, routine occupations, perceiving COVID-19 as not threatening, men, secondary education, 35-49 years of age, commute time >60 min., used car to get to work before COVID-19, no caring obligations, worker, working part-time, permanent contract, control in information provision experiment, routine occupation x control in information provision experiment, WfH job presented on the right, vignette no. 3.

Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table B2. Workers' estimated willingness to pay for working from home depending on perceptions of COVID-19, by subpopulations defined by age group and education level (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)**

Subpopulation	Sample size	COVID perceived as a low threat	COVID perceived as a high threat
<b>Education</b>			
Primary or less	1,120	-2.02 ** (-10.63;6.59)	-12.71 ** (-20.98;-4.44)
Secondary	38,077	-3.46 ** (-4.91;-2.01)	-5.77 ** (-7.02;-4.52)
High	62,648	-3.90 ** (-4.90;-2.90)	-6.87 ** (-7.67;-6.07)
Vocational	9,810	-1.60 ** (-4.75;1.56)	-3.72 ** (-6.51;-0.94)
<b>Age</b>			
20-34	45,350	-5.19 ** (-6.60;-3.79)	-8.52 ** (-9.56;-7.48)
35-49	41,928	-4.33 ** (-6.01;-2.64)	-5.99 ** (-7.40;-4.58)
50-64	24,377	5.66 ** (2.48;8.83)	-2.39 ** (-4.52;-0.26)
<b>Gender</b>			
Men	53,046	-1.88 ** (-3.40;-0.35)	-4.37 ** (-5.58;-3.16)
Women	58,609	-4.61 ** (-6.15;-3.07)	-8.04 ** (-9.28;-6.79)
<b>Occupational task groups</b>			
Non-routine analytical	27,960	-5.87 ** (-7.86;-3.87)	-7.63 ** (-9.09;-6.17)
Non-routine personal	2,950	-6.28 ** (-12.23;-0.34)	-11.70 ** (-16.79;-6.60)
Routine	80,745	-2.05 ** (-3.36;-0.74)	-5.02 ** (-6.11;-3.93)
<b>Teleworkability</b>			
Yes	76,277	-3.50 ** (4.69;-2.31)	-6.79 ** (-7.74;-5.85)
No	35,378	-2.32 ** (-4.56;-0.09)	-3.93 ** (-5.83;-2.04)

Note: Standard errors clustered at the participant level. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .

Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table B3. Estimated willingness to pay for working from home, by the number of WfH days offered, overall and by teleworkability of the occupation (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	Average effect	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
<b>Experiment with workers</b>			
Teleworkable occupation	-5.63 ** (-6.47; -4.79)	-9.57 ** (-10.55; -8.59)	-1.21 ** (-2.34; -0.08)
Not teleworkable occupation	-3.87 ** (-5.13; -2.62)	-6.47 ** (-7.96; -4.98)	-0.89 (-2.53; 0.75)
Sample size	111,650	55,634	56,016
<b>Experiment with employers</b>			
Teleworkable occupation of the candidate	-36.71 ** (-43.61; -29.80)	-23.67 ** (-29.95; -17.39)	-54.73 ** (-68.28; -40.78)
Not teleworkable occupation of the candidate	-51.31 ** (-60.53; -42.10)	-37.37 ** (-46.02; -28.72)	-70.53 ** (-88.62; -52.45)
Sample size	15,440	7,634	7,806

Note: We used the classification of teleworkability developed by Dingel and Neiman (2020).

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table B4. Marginal effects from baseline logistic regressions in the experiment to elicit employers' preferences – full set of results**

	Candidate & vignette characteristics (1)	(1) + Socio-demographic controls for the employer (2)	(2) + Company controls (3)
<b>Candidates' characteristics</b>			
Working from home 2-3 days a week	0.060*** (0.013)	0.060*** (0.012)	0.058*** (0.012)
Nonroutine analytical	0.059*** (0.017)	0.062*** (0.017)	0.037** (0.016)
Nonroutine personal	0.039** (0.020)	0.042** (0.020)	0.026 (0.019)
Women	-0.016 (0.026)	-0.019 (0.025)	-0.025 (0.025)
Commute time < 30 minutes	-0.011 (0.014)	-0.009 (0.014)	-0.007 (0.014)
Commute time < 60 minutes	0.015 (0.014)	0.016 (0.014)	0.014 (0.013)
Up to 3 yrs of experience	-0.026 (0.016)	-0.027* (0.016)	-0.024 (0.016)
Up to 10 yrs of experience	-0.035** (0.016)	-0.035** (0.016)	-0.037** (0.015)
Over 10 yrs of experience	-0.004 (0.016)	-0.005 (0.016)	-0.003 (0.015)
<b>Employers' characteristics</b>			
Women		0.009 (0.015)	0.013 (0.014)
Tertiary education		-0.018 (0.018)	-0.020 (0.017)
Vocational education		-0.017 (0.030)	-0.021 (0.028)
Age 20-34		0.040** (0.016)	0.024 (0.016)
Age 50-64		-0.031 (0.021)	0.006 (0.020)
WfH beneficial			0.049*** (0.016)
WfH productive			0.059*** (0.019)
High-quality talent management			0.013 (0.017)
Perceiving COVID-19 as highly threatening			-0.028* (0.016)
All workers ready to WfH within a week			-0.017 (0.032)
Some workers ready to WfH within a week			-0.007 (0.027)
WfH in the last month part-time			0.093*** (0.020)
WfH in the last month full time			0.110*** (0.026)
All workers able to WfH before COVID-19			0.037 (0.028)



	Candidate & vignette characteristics (1)	(1) + Socio-demographic controls for the employer (2)	(2) + Company controls (3)
Some workers able to WfH before COVID-19			0.045** (0.019)
All workers able to WfH during COVID-19			-0.037 (0.031)
Some workers able to WfH during COVID-19			-0.009 (0.026)
All workers able to WfH after COVID-19			0.117*** (0.036)
Some workers able to WfH after COVID-19			0.058** (0.023)
COVID-19 effect on business: Definitely negative			-0.010 (0.022)
COVID-19 effect on business: Rather negative			-0.035** (0.017)
COVID-19 effect on business: Rather positive			0.011 (0.026)
COVID-19 effect on business: Definitely positive			-0.003 (0.048)
Village			0.021 (0.025)
Small town			0.042 (0.026)
Town			0.022 (0.021)
City			0.053** (0.022)
Public company			-0.013 (0.017)
NGO			0.016 (0.035)
Company size <9			-0.021 (0.023)
Company size 50 - 249			-0.001 (0.019)
Company size >249			-0.019 (0.021)
Covid infection rate per capita			-0.096 (0.437)
Observations	7,750	7,750	7,720

Note: Standard errors clustered at the participant level. \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \* $p < 0.1$ . Reference groups: working from home 5 days a week, routine occupation, men (candidate), commute time >60 (candidate), less than 3 years of experience (candidate), men (employer), secondary education (employer), 35-49 years old (employer), WfH not beneficial, WfH not productive, low-quality talent management, perceiving COVID-19 as not threatening, workers not ready to WfH within a week, no WfH in the last month, workers not able to WfH before COVID-19, workers not able to WfH during COVID-19, workers not able to WfH after COVID-19, COVID-19 effect on business: neither positive nor negative, large town, private company, company size 10-49.

Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.

Table B5. Correlates of manager's perceptions of working from home - marginal effects from logistic regressions. Column names show dependent variables

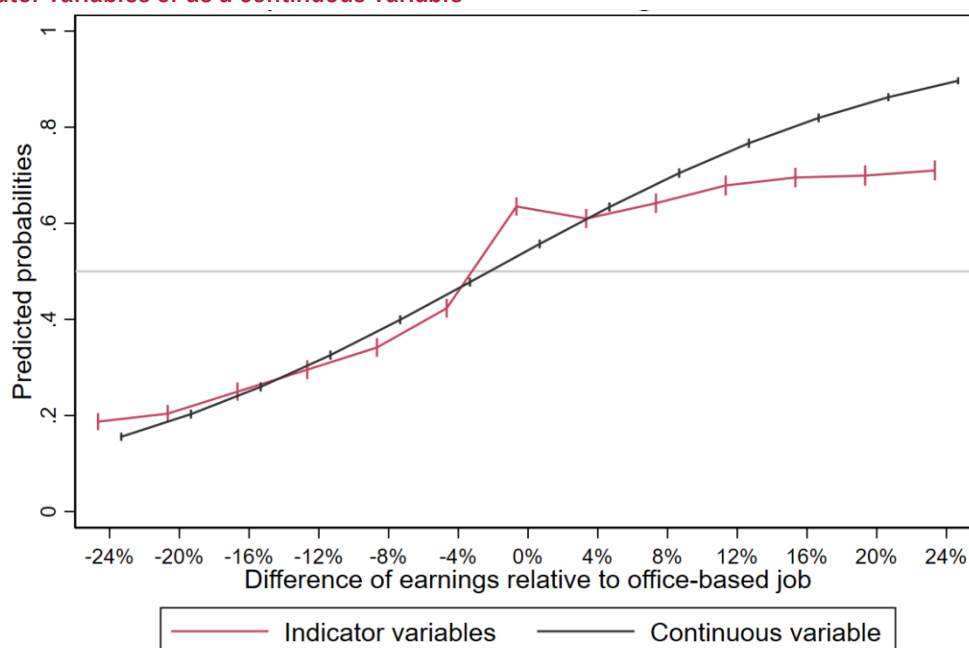
	WfH perceived as beneficial (1)	WfH workers perceived as productive (2)
WfH beneficial		0.227*** (0.023)
WfH productive	0.336*** (0.031)	
High-quality talent management	-0.028 (0.030)	0.023 (0.026)
Perceiving COVID-19 as highly threatening	0.099*** (0.026)	-0.004 (0.022)
All workers ready to WfH within a week	-0.098** (0.049)	0.098* (0.057)
Some workers ready to WfH within a week	-0.039 (0.045)	0.025 (0.041)
WfH in the last month part-time	0.056* (0.031)	0.069** (0.027)
WfH in the last month full time	0.105** (0.045)	0.184*** (0.044)
All workers able to WfH before COVID-19	0.024 (0.055)	0.101** (0.048)
Some workers able to WfH before COVID-19	-0.047 (0.030)	0.044* (0.027)
All workers able to WfH during COVID-19	0.080 (0.059)	0.010 (0.049)
Some workers able to WfH during COVID-19	0.101** (0.041)	-0.050 (0.041)
All workers able to WfH after COVID-19	0.291*** (0.057)	0.028 (0.051)
Some workers able to WfH after COVID-19	0.114*** (0.035)	0.056* (0.031)
COVID-19 effect on business: Definitely negative	0.030 (0.037)	0.082*** (0.031)
COVID-19 effect on business: Rather negative	-0.007 (0.029)	0.034 (0.024)
COVID-19 effect on business: Rather positive	0.034 (0.044)	0.084** (0.037)
COVID-19 effect on business: Definitely positive	0.227*** (0.075)	0.110 (0.073)
Covid infection rate per capita	0.146 (0.813)	-0.035 (0.615)

	WfH perceived as beneficial (1)	WfH workers perceived as productive (2)
Company size < 9	-0.006 (0.038)	-0.068** (0.029)
Company size 50 - 249	0.034 (0.031)	0.034 (0.027)
Company size > 249	0.117*** (0.034)	0.006 (0.028)
Public company	-0.055* (0.031)	0.051* (0.027)
NGO	-0.055 (0.057)	-0.017 (0.044)
Village	-0.004 (0.039)	-0.013 (0.032)
Small town	-0.049 (0.046)	0.004 (0.039)
Town	-0.060* (0.036)	0.012 (0.029)
City	-0.063* (0.035)	-0.002 (0.030)
Women	0.005 (0.024)	0.020 (0.020)
Tertiary education	-0.067** (0.029)	-0.029 (0.025)
Vocational education	0.041 (0.052)	-0.012 (0.043)
Age 20-34	0.007 (0.028)	0.030 (0.024)
Age 50-64	0.015 (0.030)	-0.019 (0.026)
Observations	7,720	7,720

Note: Standard errors clustered at the participant level. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ . Reference groups: WfH not beneficial, WfH not productive, low-quality talent management, perceiving COVID-19 as not threatening, workers not ready to WfH within a week, no WfH in the last month, workers not able to WfH before COVID-19, workers not able to WfH during COVID-19, workers not able to WfH after COVID-19, Covid-19 effect on business: neither positive nor negative, company size 10 - 49, a private company, large town, men (employers), secondary education (employers), age 35-49 (employers).

Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.

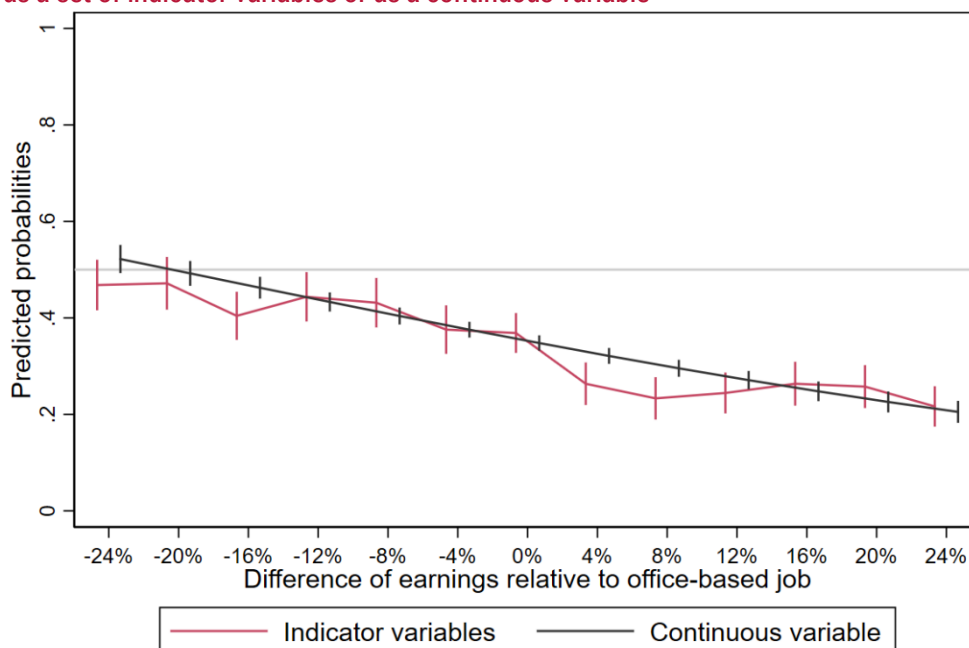
Figure B1. Predicted probabilities of choosing a WfH job offer conditional on the differences in earnings between the WfH job and an office-based job, depending on the specification of the earning differences as a set of indicator variables or as a continuous variable



Note: Other controls as in column 3 of Table B1. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Full estimation results are available upon request.

Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.

Figure B2. Predicted probabilities of choosing a candidate willing to WfH conditional on the differences in earnings between the WfH job and an office-based job, depending on the specification of the earning differences as a set of indicator variables or as a continuous variable

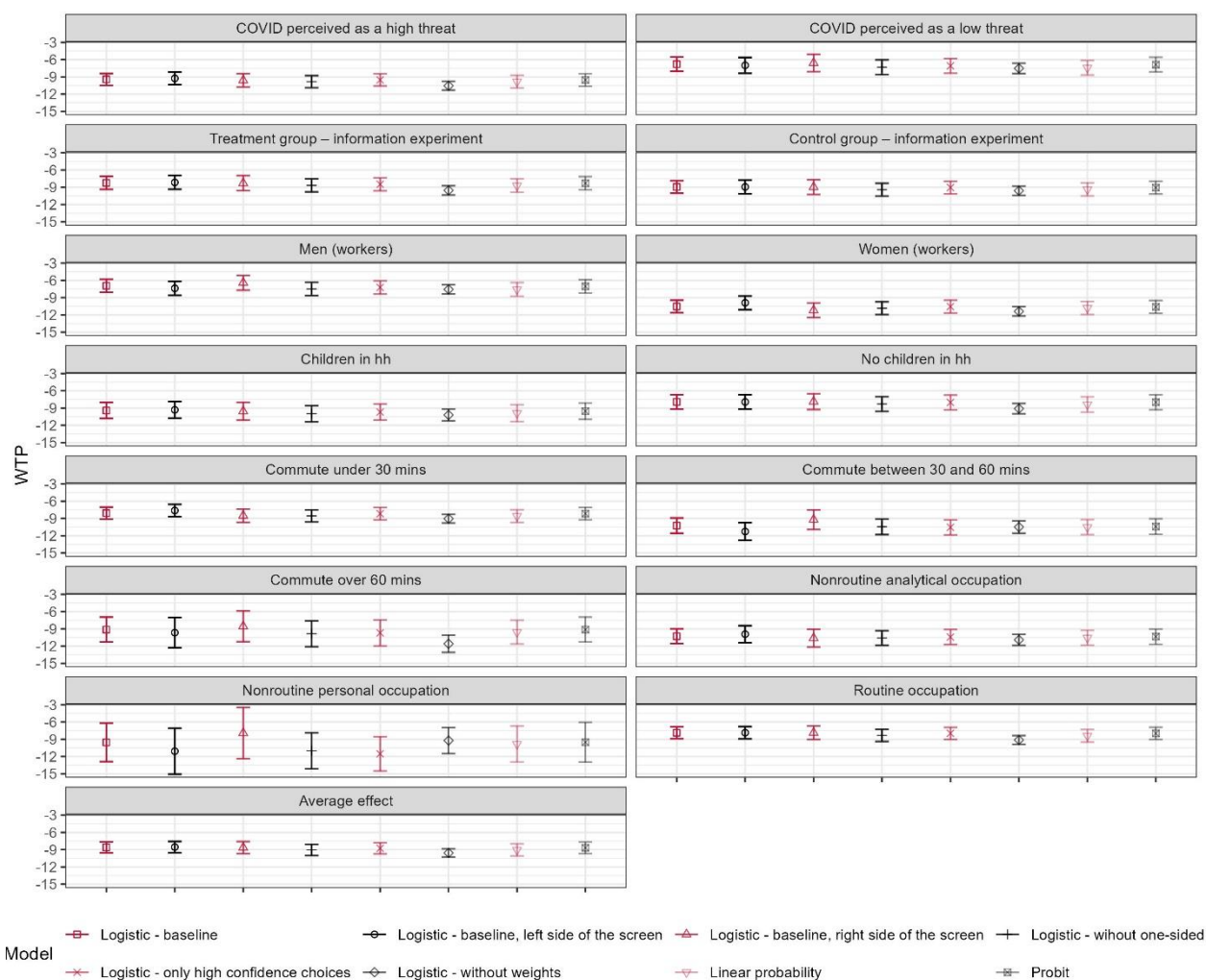


Note: Other controls as in column 3 of Table B4. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Full estimation results are available upon request.

Source: Own calculations using data gathered for the experiment.

## Appendix C. Robustness checks (experiment with workers)

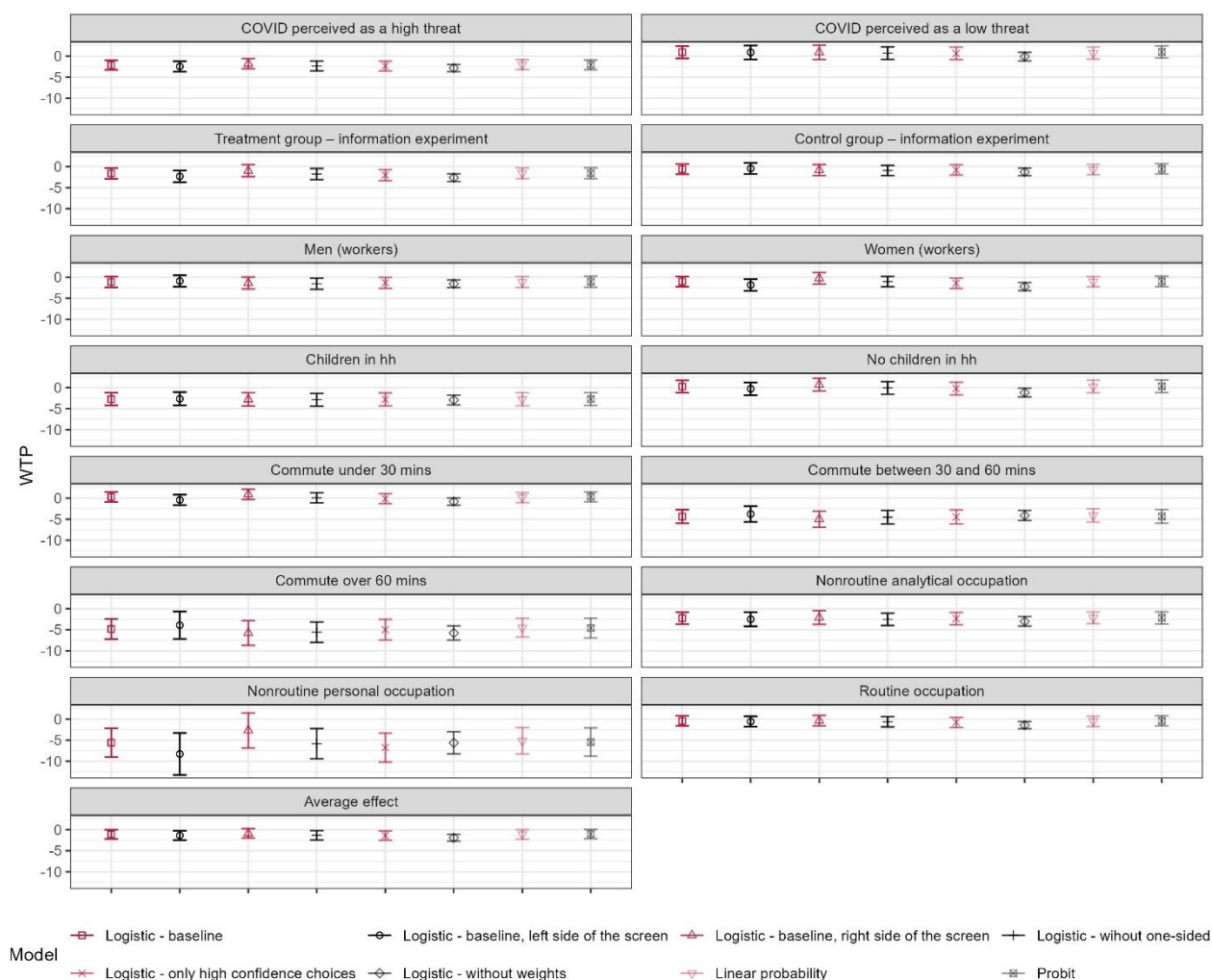
Figure C1. Robustness check for experiment with workers: Different models yield similar willingness to pay estimates - WfH 2-3 days/week offered (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)



Note: Point estimates with 95% confidence intervals.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

Figure C2. Robustness check for experiment with workers: Different models yield similar willingness to pay estimates – WfH 5 days/week offered (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)



Note: Point estimates with 95% confidence intervals.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C1A. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – including only job offers displayed on the left side of the screen, all job offers (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WTP (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)		
Average effect	-5.20 ** (-6.02; -4.38)	Treatment group – information experiment	-5.49 ** (-6.51; -4.48)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-6.10 ** (-7.01; -5.19)	Control group – information experiment	-4.91 ** (-5.90; -3.92)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-3.31 ** (-4.51; -2.11)	Men	-4.39 ** (-5.39; -3.38)
Non-routine analytical occupation	-6.36 ** (-7.59; -5.14)	Women	-6.18 ** (-7.19; -5.17)
Non-routine personal occupation	-9.65 ** (-12.93; -6.36)	Children in household	-6.24 ** (-7.40; -5.09)
Routine occupation	-4.50 ** (-5.42; -3.58)	No children in household	-4.10 ** (-5.19; -3.02)
Commute under 30 mins	-4.24 ** (-5.14; -3.33)	WfH 2-3 days/week	-7.62 ** (-8.56; -6.68)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-7.80 ** (-9.11; -6.49)	WfH 5 days/week	-2.80 ** (-3.74; -1.85)
Commute over 60 mins	-7.05 ** (-9.38; -4.71)		

Note: WTP estimated from a model with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, number of WfH days offered per week, differences in pay, order of jobs presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Total N = 55,827. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ . Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C1B. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – including only job offers displayed on the left side of the screen, by the number of WfH days offered (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
Average effect	-8.55 ** (-9.52; -7.58)	-1.36 ** (-2.47; -0.25)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-9.26 ** (-10.36; -8.16)	-2.45 ** (-3.68; -1.22)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-7.00 ** (-8.37; -5.62)	0.87 (-0.77; 2.51)
Non-routine analytical occupations	-9.94 ** (-11.41; -8.46)	-2.49 ** (-4.15; -0.83)
Non-routine personal occupations	-11.11 ** (-15.12; -7.11)	-8.23 ** (-13.24; -3.23)
Routine occupations	-7.85 ** (-8.92; -6.77)	-0.56 (-1.81; 0.69)
Treatment group – information experiment	-8.16 ** (-9.35; -6.97)	-2.31 ** (-3.69; -0.92)
Control group – information experiment	-8.94 ** (-10.13; -7.75)	-0.44 (-1.77; 0.89)
Men	-7.39 ** (-8.59; -6.19)	-0.91 (-2.29; 0.46)
Women	-9.88 ** (-11.06; -8.70)	-1.87 ** (-3.24; -0.49)
Children in household	-9.42 ** (-10.81; -8.03)	-2.73 ** (-4.23; -1.22)
No children in household	-7.93 ** (-9.18; -6.68)	0.26 (-1.21; 1.73)
Commute under 30 mins	-7.62 ** (-8.69; -6.55)	-0.42 (-1.65; 0.81)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-11.29 ** (-12.82; -9.76)	-3.73 ** (-5.61; -1.85)
Commute over 60 mins	-9.66 ** (-12.28; -7.04)	-3.92 ** (-7.17; -0.68)

Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, earnings differences, order of jobs presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 22,817 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 28,008 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ . Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C2A. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home –including only job offers displayed on the right side of the screen, all job offers (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WTP (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)		
Average effect	-4.96 ** (-5.81; -4.11)	Treatment group – information experiment	-4.80 ** (-5.87; -3.73)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-5.92 ** (-6.86; -4.98)	Control group – information experiment	-5.11 ** (-6.13; -4.09)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-2.99 ** (-4.25; -1.73)	Men	-4.09 ** (-5.15; -3.03)
Non-routine analytical occupation	-6.58 ** (-7.79; -5.37)	Women	-5.94 ** (-6.98; -4.91)
Non-routine personal occupation	-5.48 ** (-8.94; -2.03)	Children in household	-6.33 ** (-7.54; -5.11)
Routine occupation	-4.28 ** (-5.25; -3.31)	No children in household	-3.82 ** (-4.96; -2.67)
Commute under 30 mins	-4.00 ** (-4.94; -3.06)	WfH 2-3 days/week	-7.01 ** (-7.98; -6.04)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-7.22 ** (-8.60; -5.84)	WfH 5 days/week	-2.85 ** (-3.84; -1.86)
Commute over 60 mins	-7.30 ** (-9.54; -5.06)		

*Note: WTP estimated from a model with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, number of WfH days per week offered, differences in pay, order of jobs presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Total N = 55,828. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*

**Table C2B. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – including only job offers displayed on the right side of the screen, by the number of WfH days offered (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
Average effect	-8.64 ** (-9.68; -7.59)	-0.88 (-1.99; 0.23)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-9.60 ** (-10.76; -8.44)	-1.79 ** (-3.02; -0.57)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-6.59 ** (-8.10; -5.08)	0.92 (-0.77; 2.61)
Non-routine analytical occupations	-10.62 ** (-12.17; -9.07)	-2.11 ** (-3.73; -0.48)
Non-routine personal occupations	-7.93 ** (-12.37; -3.48)	-2.68 (-6.86; 1.50)
Routine occupations	-7.87 ** (-9.04; -6.70)	-0.36 (-1.62; 0.9)
Treatment group – information experiment	-8.29 ** (-9.59; -6.99)	-0.97 (-2.4; 0.47)
Control group – information experiment	-8.97 ** (-10.24; -7.70)	-0.8 (-2.11; 0.51)
Men	-6.41 ** (-7.70; -5.13)	-1.38 (-2.79; 0.03)
Women	-11.19 ** (-12.47; -9.91)	-0.27 (-1.63; 1.08)
Children in household	-9.56 ** (-11.10; -8.03)	-2.78 ** (-4.34; -1.22)
No children in household	-7.88 ** (-9.25; -6.50)	0.72 (-0.81; 2.24)
Commute under 30 mins	-8.51 ** (-9.67; -7.35)	0.92 (-0.3; 2.13)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-9.21 ** (-10.91; -7.52)	-4.99 ** (-6.91; -3.06)
Commute over 60 mins	-8.56 ** (-11.22; -5.89)	-5.77 ** (-8.71; -2.83)

*Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, earnings differences, order of jobs presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 22,817 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 28,008 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ .*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*



**Table C3A. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home –without study participants who selected job offers only displayed on one side (left or right) of the screen, all job offers (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WTP (% of wage in an office-only job, with 95% confidence intervals)		
Average effect	-5.42 ** (-6.24; -4.59)	Treatment group – information experiment	-5.45 ** (-6.42; -4.47)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-6.31 ** (-7.19; -5.42)	Control group – information experiment	-5.38 ** (-6.32; -4.45)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-3.52 ** (-4.63; -2.41)	Men	-4.74 ** (-5.72; -3.75)
Non-routine analytical occupation	-6.76 ** (-7.82; -5.70)	Women	-6.21 ** (-7.16; -5.27)
Non-routine personal occupation	-8.53 ** (-11.03; -6.04)	Children in household	-6.61 ** (-7.79; -5.43)
Routine occupation	-4.72 ** (-5.64; -3.81)	No children in household	-4.44 ** (-5.54; -3.34)
Commute under 30 mins	-4.44 ** (-5.33; -3.55)	WfH 2-3 days/week	-7.74 ** (-8.62; -6.86)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-7.69 ** (-8.86; -6.51)	WfH 5 days/week	-3.05 ** (-3.96; -2.14)
Commute over 60 mins	-7.94 ** (-9.86; -6.01)		

Note: WTP estimated from a model with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. number of WfH days per week offered. differences in pay. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Total N = 101,576. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ . \*\*  $p < 0.05$ . \*  $p < 0.1$ . Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C3B. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – without study participants who selected job offers only displayed on one side (left or right) of the screen, by the number of WfH days offered (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
Average effect	-9.05 ** (-10.02; -8.08)	-1.33 ** (-2.44; -0.22)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-9.84 ** (-10.88; -8.8)	-2.32 ** (-3.50; -1.14)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-7.32 ** (-8.61; -6.04)	0.72 (-0.75; 2.19)
Non-routine analytical occupations	-10.59 ** (-11.87; -9.32)	-2.53 ** (-3.97; -1.09)
Non-routine personal occupations	-11.00 ** (-14.11; -7.9)	-5.83 ** (-9.42; -2.24)
Routine occupations	-8.33 ** (-9.39; -7.27)	-0.64 (-1.85; 0.57)
Treatment group – information experiment	-8.67 ** (-9.80; -7.54)	-1.76 ** (-3.08; -0.43)
Control group – information experiment	-9.42 ** (-10.53; -8.32)	-0.91 (-2.13; 0.31)
Men	-7.49 ** (-8.64; -6.35)	-1.58 ** (-2.9; -0.25)
Women	-10.83 ** (-11.94; -9.72)	-1.04 (-2.29; 0.20)
Children in household	-9.98 ** (-11.39; -8.58)	-2.87 ** (-4.41; -1.34)
No children in household	-8.29 ** (-9.56; -7.03)	-0.05 (-1.54; 1.44)
Commute under 30 mins	-8.55 ** (-9.60; -7.50)	0.09 (-1.1; 1.27)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-10.44 ** (-11.81; -9.08)	-4.51 ** (-6.13; -2.9)
Commute over 60 mins	-9.85 ** (-12.10; -7.61)	-5.58 ** (-7.99; -3.17)

Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. earnings differences. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 50,692 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 50,880 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ . \*\*  $p < 0.05$ . \*  $p < 0.1$ . Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C4A. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – 90% of choices with the highest number of points at the confidence level scale (0-100 scale), all job offers (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WTP (% of wage in an office-only job, 95% confidence intervals)		
Average effect	-5.32 ** (-6.15; -4.49)	Treatment group – information experiment	-5.5 ** (-6.48; -4.52)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-6.18 ** (-7.06; -5.30)	Control group – information experiment	-5.14 ** (-6.08; -4.21)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-3.46 ** (-4.58; -2.34)	Men	-4.50 ** (-5.49; -3.51)
Non-routine analytical occupation	-6.61 ** (-7.69; -5.54)	Women	-6.28 ** (-7.23; -5.33)
Non-routine personal occupation	-9.25 ** (-11.63; -6.86)	Children in household	-6.43 ** (-7.61; -5.26)
Routine occupation	-4.63 ** (-5.54; -3.71)	No children in household	-4.40 ** (-5.51; -3.29)
Commute under 30 mins	-4.38 ** (-5.28; -3.49)	WfH 2-3 days/week	-7.52 ** (-8.41; -6.63)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-7.73 ** (-8.90; -6.57)	WfH 5 days/week	-3.07 ** (-3.98; -2.16)
Commute over 60 mins	-7.58 ** (-9.59; -5.57)		

Note: WTP estimated from a model with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. number of WfH days per week offered. differences in pay. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Total N = 101,005. \*\*\* p<0.01. \*\* p<0.05. \* p<0.1.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C4B. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – 90% of choices with the highest number of points at the confidence level scale (0-100 scale). by the number of WfH days offered (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
Average effect	-8.77 ** (-9.74; -7.80)	-1.39 ** (-2.50; -0.28)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-9.53 ** (-10.57; -8.48)	-2.35 ** (-3.52; -1.17)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-7.09 ** (-8.37; -5.81)	0.64 (-0.85; 2.12)
Non-routine analytical occupations	-10.42 ** (-11.73; -9.11)	-2.35 ** (-3.80; -0.91)
Non-routine personal occupations	-11.53 ** (-14.5; -8.55)	-6.75 ** (-10.21; -3.30)
Routine occupations	-7.97 ** (-9.03; -6.92)	-0.77 (-1.98; 0.44)
Treatment group – information experiment	-8.48 ** (-9.63; -7.34)	-2.01 ** (-3.33; -0.70)
Control group – information experiment	-9.05 ** (-10.15; -7.96)	-0.79 (-2.01; 0.44)
Men	-7.22 ** (-8.37; -6.08)	-1.34 ** (-2.66; -0.01)
Women	-10.55 ** (-11.67; -9.44)	-1.45 ** (-2.70; -0.21)
Children in household	-9.69 ** (-11.09; -8.29)	-2.80 ** (-4.33; -1.27)
No children in household	-8.02 ** (-9.30; -6.74)	-0.21 (-1.7; 1.29)
Commute under 30 mins	-8.17 ** (-9.23; -7.11)	-0.14 (-1.32; 1.04)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-10.54 ** (-11.85; -9.23)	-4.46 ** (-6.12; -2.8)
Commute over 60 mins	-9.70 ** (-11.96; -7.44)	-5.00 ** (-7.45; -2.54)

Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. earnings differences. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 50,836 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 50,164 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01. \*\* p<0.05. \* p<0.1.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C5A. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – unweighted estimations. all job offers (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WTP (% of wage in an office-only job, 95% confidence intervals)		
Average effect	-5.94 ** (-6.54; -5.35)	Treatment group – information experiment	-6.26 ** (-6.95; -5.57)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-6.89 ** (-7.54; -6.25)	Control group – information experiment	-5.63 ** (-6.31; -4.95)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-3.99 ** (-4.75; -3.23)	Men	-4.76 ** (-5.44; -4.07)
Non-routine analytical occupation	-7.13 ** (-7.96; -6.30)	Women	-7.01 ** (-7.71; -6.31)
Non-routine personal occupation	-7.52 ** (-9.41; -5.63)	Children in household	-6.71 ** (-7.58; -5.84)
Routine occupation	-5.47 ** (-6.11; -4.83)	No children in household	-5.36 ** (-6.13; -4.59)
Commute under 30 mins	-5.11 ** (-5.75; -4.47)	WfH 2-3 days/week	-8.26 ** (-8.90; -7.63)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-7.5 ** (-8.39; -6.61)	WfH 5 days/week	-3.61 ** (-4.26; -2.95)
Commute over 60 mins	-8.89 ** (-10.18; -7.60)		

Note: WTP estimated from a model with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. number of WfH days per week offered. differences in pay. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Total N = 111,655. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ . \*\*  $p < 0.05$ . \*  $p < 0.1$ .

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C5B. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – unweighted estimations. by the number of WfH days offered (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
Average effect	-9.57 ** (-10.27; -8.87)	-1.93 ** (-2.73; -1.13)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-10.55 ** (-11.31; -9.79)	-2.84 ** (-3.69; -1.98)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-7.52 ** (-8.42; -6.63)	-0.11 (-1.12; 0.91)
Non-routine analytical occupations	-10.91 ** (-11.88; -9.95)	-3.02 (-4.14; -1.89)
Non-routine personal occupations	-9.22 ** (-11.47; -6.97)	-5.61 ** (-8.24; -2.99)
Routine occupations	-9.12 ** (-9.87; -8.36)	-1.42 ** (-2.26; -0.57)
Treatment group – information experiment	-9.54 ** (-10.35; -8.74)	-2.61 ** (-3.53; -1.69)
Control group – information experiment	-9.60 ** (-10.41; -8.79)	-1.27 ** (-2.17; -0.36)
Men	-7.56 ** (-8.36; -6.75)	-1.57 ** (-2.48; -0.66)
Women	-11.38 ** (-12.2; -10.56)	-2.25 ** (-3.19; -1.31)
Children in household	-10.20 ** (-11.23; -9.17)	-2.93 ** (-4.09; -1.78)
No children in household	-9.10 ** (-10.00; -8.20)	-1.16 ** (-2.2; -0.12)
Commute under 30 mins	-9.04 ** (-9.79; -8.29)	-0.82 (-1.67; 0.03)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-10.49 ** (-11.56; -9.43)	-4.12 ** (-5.3; -2.93)
Commute over 60 mins	-11.59 ** (-13.08; -10.11)	-5.79 (-7.47; -4.11)

Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. earnings differences. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 55,634 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 56,016 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ . \*\*  $p < 0.05$ . \*  $p < 0.1$ .

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C6A. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – linear probability models. all job offers (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WTP (% of wage in an office-only job, 95% confidence intervals)		
Average effect	-5.24 ** (-6.09; -4.39)	Treatment group – information experiment	-5.30 ** (-6.27; -4.33)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-6.09 ** (-6.98; -5.19)	Control group – information experiment	-5.18 ** (-6.11; -4.25)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-3.50 ** (-4.58; -2.43)	Men	-4.49 ** (-5.47; -3.50)
Non-routine analytical occupation	-6.49 ** (-7.53; -5.44)	Women	-6.13 ** (-7.07; -5.19)
Non-routine personal occupation	-7.50 ** (-9.73; -5.27)	Children in household	-6.43 ** (-7.62; -5.24)
Routine occupation	-4.63 ** (-5.55; -3.71)	No children in household	-4.26 ** (-5.38; -3.14)
Commute under 30 mins	-4.38 ** (-5.28; -3.47)	WfH 2-3 days/week	-7.28 ** (-8.18; -6.38)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-7.44 ** (-8.56; -6.32)	WfH 5 days/week	-3.21 ** (-4.13; -2.30)
Commute over 60 mins	-7.16 ** (-8.92; -5.41)		

Note: WTP estimated from a model with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. number of WfH days per week offered. differences in pay. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Total N = 111,655. \*\*\* p<0.01. \*\* p<0.05. \* p<0.1.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C6B. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – linear probability models, by the number of WfH days offered (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
Average effect	-9.05 ** (-10.09; -8.00)	-1.12 (-2.24; 0.00)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-9.82 ** (-10.93; -8.71)	-2.03 ** (-3.21; -0.85)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-7.42 ** (-8.68; -6.16)	0.72 (-0.70; 2.14)
Non-routine analytical occupations	-10.55 ** (-11.85; -9.26)	-2.15 ** (-3.55; -0.76)
Non-routine personal occupations	-9.83 ** (-12.93; -6.72)	-5.15 ** (-8.27; -2.02)
Routine occupations	-8.41 ** (-9.51; -7.30)	-0.51 (-1.72; 0.70)
Treatment group – information experiment	-8.72 ** (-9.89; -7.55)	-1.57 ** (-2.87; -0.27)
Control group – information experiment	-9.37 ** (-10.51; -8.23)	-0.68 (-1.88; 0.53)
Men	-7.57 ** (-8.75; -6.38)	-1.16 (-2.46; 0.14)
Women	-10.79 ** (-11.93; -9.64)	-1.07 (-2.31; 0.16)
Children in household	-9.88 ** (-11.34; -8.41)	-2.76 ** (-4.30; -1.22)
No children in household	-8.37 ** (-9.70; -7.05)	0.26 (-1.24; 1.76)
Commute under 30 mins	-8.58 ** (-9.68; -7.47)	0.14 (-1.04; 1.33)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-10.51 ** (-11.82; -9.19)	-4.1 ** (-5.66; -2.55)
Commute over 60 mins	-9.57 ** (-11.62; -7.51)	-4.52 ** (-6.73; -2.31)

Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. earnings differences. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 55,634 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 56,016 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01. \*\* p<0.05. \* p<0.1.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C7A. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – probit regression, all job offers (% of wage in an office job, with 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	WTP (% of wage in an office-only job, 95% confidence intervals)		
Average effect	-5.07 ** (-5.90; -4.23)	Treatment group – information experiment	-5.14 ** (-6.12; -4.16)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-6.01 ** (-6.90; -5.12)	Control group – information experiment	-4.99 ** (-5.92; -4.06)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-3.12 ** (-4.22; -2.03)	Men	-4.24 ** (-5.23; -3.26)
Non-routine analytical occupation	-6.43 ** (-7.50; -5.36)	Women	-6.03 ** (-6.97; -5.08)
Non-routine personal occupation	-7.52 ** (-9.97; -5.07)	Children in household	-6.27 ** (-7.45; -5.09)
Routine occupation	-4.4 ** (-5.31; -3.48)	No children in household	-4.07 ** (-5.17; -2.96)
Commute under 30 mins	-4.11 ** (-5.00; -3.21)	WfH 2-3 days/week	-7.30 ** (-8.20; -6.41)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-7.55 ** (-8.71; -6.38)	WfH 5 days/week	-2.85 ** (-3.76; -1.94)
Commute over 60 mins	-7.04 ** (-8.90; -5.18)		

Note: WTP estimated from a model with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. number of WfH days per week offered. differences in pay. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. Total N = 111,655. \*\*\* p<0.01. \*\* p<0.05. \* p<0.1.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table C7B. Workers' willingness to pay for working from home – probit regression, by the number of WfH days offered (% of wage in an office job, with 95% confidence intervals)**

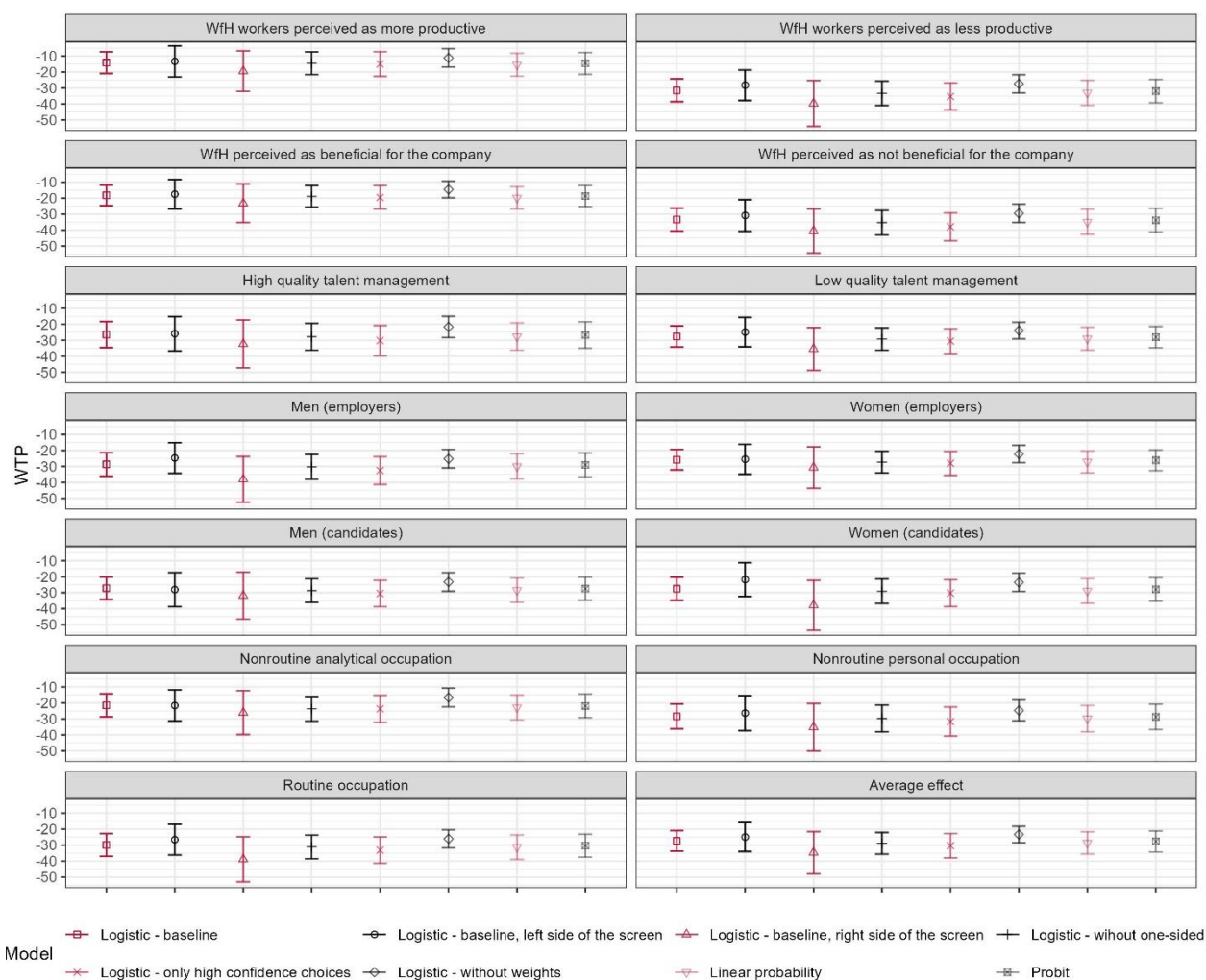
Group	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
Average effect	-8.68 ** (-9.68; -7.69)	-1.05 (-2.16; 0.06)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-9.54 ** (-10.61; -8.47)	-2.07 ** (-3.25; -0.90)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-6.87 ** (-8.13; -5.60)	0.99 (-0.46; 2.44)
Non-routine analytical occupations	-10.35 ** (-11.67; -9.03)	-2.18 ** (-3.62; -0.74)
Non-routine personal occupations	-9.51 ** (-12.96; -6.06)	-5.43 ** (-8.80; -2.06)
Routine occupations	-7.97 ** (-9.04; -6.91)	-0.39 ** (-1.59; 0.82)
Treatment group – information experiment	-8.30 ** (-9.45; -7.15)	-1.57 ** (-2.88; -0.25)
Control group – information experiment	-9.06 ** (-10.18; -7.95)	-0.55 (-1.76; 0.67)
Men	-7.04 ** (-8.20; -5.88)	-1.09 (-2.4; 0.23)
Women	-10.59 ** (-11.72; -9.47)	-1.02 (-2.26; 0.23)
Children in household	-9.53 ** (-10.96; -8.11)	-2.71 ** (-4.24; -1.18)
No children in household	-7.99 ** (-9.28; -6.70)	0.34 (-1.15; 1.82)
Commute under 30 mins	-8.15 ** (-9.22; -7.08)	0.32 (-0.86; 1.5)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-10.4 ** (-11.76; -9.05)	-4.33 ** (-5.95; -2.71)
Commute over 60 mins	-9.11 ** (-11.27; -6.95)	-4.62 ** (-6.94; -2.29)

Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics. earnings differences. order of jobs presented on the screen. and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 55,634 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 56,016 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01. \*\* p<0.05. \* p<0.1.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

## Appendix D. Robustness checks (experiment with employers)

Figure D1. Robustness check for experiment with employers: Different models yield similar willingness to pay estimates – WfH 2-3 days/week offered (% of wage in an office job, with 95% confidence intervals)

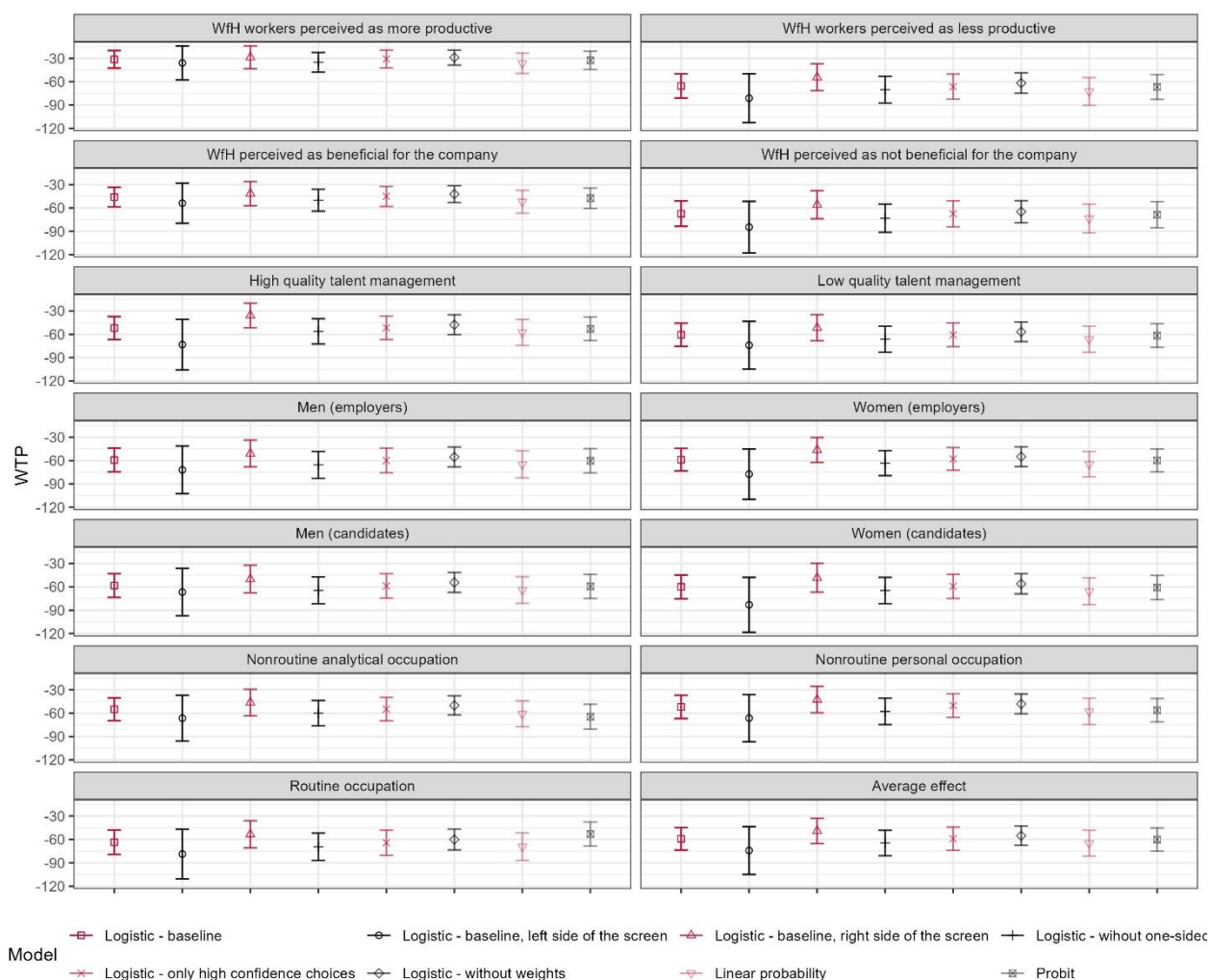


Note: Point estimates with 95% confidence intervals.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.



Figure D2. Robustness check for experiment with employers: Different models yield similar willingness to pay estimates – WfH 5 days/week offered (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)



Note: Point estimates with 95% confidence intervals.

Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.

**Table D1. Estimated willingness to pay for working from home – including only job offers displayed on the left side of the screen (% of wage in an office job, with 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	All job offers	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
All employers – average effect	-42.97 ** (-53.50; -32.44)	-24.99 ** (-34.07; -15.91)	-74.15 ** (-104.91; -43.38)
WfH 2-3 days/week offered	-39.85 ** (-50.37; -29.33)	-	-
WfH 5 days/week offered	-45.79 ** (-56.84; -34.74)	-	-
<b>Employer and workplace characteristics</b>			
WfH workers perceived as more productive	-22.24 ** (-31.77; -12.71)	-13.31 ** (-23.03; -3.59)	-35.93 (-57.74; -14.12)
WfH workers perceived as less productive	-48.22 ** (-59.29; -37.16)	-28.21 ** (-37.71; -18.72)	-81.20 (-112.56; -49.83)
WfH perceived as beneficial for the company	-31.10 ** (-41.07; -21.13)	-17.49 ** (-26.67; -8.30)	-53.81 (-79.62; -28.01)
WfH perceived as not beneficial for the company	-50.71 ** (-62.26; -39.16)	-30.79 ** (-40.71; -20.86)	-84.57 (-117.73; -51.42)
High-quality talent management	-43.01 ** (-54.93; -31.09)	-25.82 ** (-36.57; -15.06)	-73.25 (-105.80; -40.71)
Low-quality talent management	-42.97 ** (-53.59; -32.36)	-24.78 ** (-34.02; -15.53)	-74.07 (-104.74; -43.41)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-41.62 ** (-53.58; -29.65)	-22.97 ** (-33.27; -12.67)	-75.45 (-109.05; -41.86)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-43.73 ** (-54.95; -32.52)	-26.19 ** (-36.09; -16.29)	-73.45 (-104.58; -42.32)
Men (employers)	-42.19 ** (-53.09; -31.28)	-24.66 ** (-34.28; -15.03)	-71.97 (-102.62; -41.33)
Women (employers)	-44.13 ** (-55.10; -33.16)	-25.42 ** (-34.83; -16.01)	-77.41 (-109.72; -45.09)
Age 20-34	-37.60 ** (-48.18; -27.01)	-19.47 ** (-28.91; -10.02)	-67.22 (-96.55; -37.89)
Age 35-49	-41.83 ** (-52.37; -31.29)	-24.58 ** (-33.95; -15.20)	-71.41 (-101.28; -41.53)
Age 50-64	-47.19 ** (-59.60; -34.77)	-28.84 ** (-39.84; -17.84)	-78.63 (-111.53; -45.73)
<b>Candidate characteristics</b>			
Non-routine analytical occupation	-38.13 ** (-49.00; -27.25)	-21.63 ** (-31.38; -11.89)	-66.44 ** (-95.93; -36.95)
Non-routine personal occupation	-41.34 ** (-53.01; -29.67)	-26.40 ** (-37.37; -15.43)	-66.39 ** (-96.71; -36.07)
Routine occupation	-45.70 ** (-56.83; -34.57)	-26.62 ** (-36.23; -17.02)	-78.76 ** (-110.71; -46.80)
Men (candidates)	-42.22 ** (-53.87; -30.56)	-28.10 ** (-38.80; -17.41)	-66.69 ** (-97.29; -36.08)
Women (candidates)	-43.77 ** (-55.76; -31.79)	-21.77 ** (-32.35; -11.19)	-83.01 ** (-118.28; -47.74)
Commute under 30 mins	-43.89 ** (-55.04; -32.74)	-27.26 ** (-37.25; -17.28)	-72.49 ** (-103.38; -41.60)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-42.51 ** (-53.31; -31.71)	-22.78 ** (-32.23; -13.32)	-76.14 ** (-107.89; -44.40)
Commute over 60 mins	-42.74 ** (-54.04; -31.44)	-24.94 ** (-34.77; -15.11)	-74.38 ** (-106.57; -42.19)
Up to 3 yrs of experience	-44.66 ** (-56.3; -33.01)	-24.05 ** (-34.13; -13.97)	-80.31 ** (-114.24; -46.38)
3-5 yrs of experience	-42.44 ** (-53.67; -31.21)	-22.91 ** (-32.64; -13.17)	-73.87 ** (-105.26; -42.48)
5-10 yrs of experience	-42.61 ** (-53.75; -31.47)	-25.92 ** (-36.10; -15.75)	-71.92 ** (-103.32; -40.53)
Over 10 yrs of experience	-42.68 ** (-54.15; -31.21)	-26.34 ** (-36.50; -16.19)	-70.75 ** (-102.27; -39.23)

*Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, differences in wage expectations, order of candidates presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 7,720 for all job offers; N = 3,828 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 3,922 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*



**Table D2. Employers' willingness to pay for working from home – including only job offers displayed on the right side of the screen (% of wage in an office job, with 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	All job offers	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
All employers – average effect	-42.63 ** (-53.31; -31.94)	-32.08 ** (-46.90; -17.26)	-49.92 ** (-67.61; -32.23)
WfH 2-3 days/week offered	-36.87 ** (-47.10; -26.65)	-	-
WfH 5 days/week offered	-48.64 ** (-60.39; -36.89)	-	-
<b>Employer and workplace characteristics</b>			
WfH workers perceived as more productive	-24.61 ** (-34.52; -14.69)	-19.42 ** (-32.15; -6.70)	-28.69 ** (-43.40; -13.97)
WfH workers perceived as less productive	-48.05 ** (-59.65; -36.46)	-39.65 ** (-53.95; -25.35)	-54.36 ** (-71.60; -37.12)
WfH perceived as beneficial for the company	-32.87 ** (-42.75; -22.99)	-23.21 ** (-35.25; -11.16)	-41.63 ** (-57.05; -26.21)
WfH perceived as not beneficial for the company	-48.55 ** (-60.10; -37.00)	-40.48 ** (-54.34; -26.63)	-55.85 ** (-73.97; -37.72)
High-quality talent management	-35.26 ** (-46.56; -23.96)	-32.27 ** (-47.29; -17.25)	-35.75 ** (-51.52; -19.97)
Low-quality talent management	-44.40 ** (-55.39; -33.40)	-35.43 ** (-48.80; -22.06)	-51.66 ** (-68.39; -34.92)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-41.58 ** (-53.58; -29.59)	-32.08 ** (-46.90; -17.26)	-49.92 ** (-67.61; -32.23)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-43.24 ** (-54.66; -31.83)	-36.42 ** (-50.61; -22.23)	-48.37 ** (-65.43; -31.32)
Men (employers)	-45.27 ** (-56.75; -33.78)	-38.01 ** (-52.25; -23.77)	-50.99 ** (-68.20; -33.79)
Women (employers)	-39.22 ** (-49.71; -28.74)	-30.66 ** (-43.64; -17.67)	-46.37 ** (-62.33; -30.41)
Age 20-34	-33.68 ** (-43.93; -23.43)	-26.27 ** (-39.15; -13.39)	-39.15 ** (-54.67; -23.62)
Age 35-49	-43.37 ** (-54.57; -32.18)	-38.02 ** (-52.23; -23.82)	-46.45 ** (-62.79; -30.11)
Age 50-64	-48.45 ** (-61.71; -35.18)	-34.26 ** (-49.41; -19.11)	-63.45 ** (-85.50; -41.41)
<b>Candidate characteristics</b>			
Non-routine analytical occupation	-37.09 ** (-48.13; -26.04)	-26.14 ** (-39.9; -12.39)	-46.34 ** (-63.42; -29.27)
Non-routine personal occupation	-39.45 ** (-50.90; -28.01)	-35.22 ** (-50.03; -20.40)	-42.60 ** (-59.52; -25.69)
Routine occupation	-46.98 ** (-58.61; -35.36)	-38.90 ** (-53.04; -24.76)	-53.34 ** (-70.77; -35.91)
Men (candidates)	-41.59 ** (-53.39; -29.79)	-31.81 ** (-46.47; -17.16)	-49.98 ** (-67.72; -32.24)
Women (candidates)	-43.85 ** (-56.11; -31.59)	-37.89 ** (-53.55; -22.24)	-48.32 ** (-66.99; -29.65)
Commute under 30 mins	-45.55 ** (-57.06; -34.04)	-38.49 ** (-52.85; -24.13)	-51.37 ** (-68.65; -34.09)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-42.54 ** (-53.74; -31.34)	-34.56 ** (-48.30; -20.82)	-48.78 ** (-65.93; -31.62)
Commute over 60 mins	-39.09 ** (-49.88; -28.30)	-29.80 ** (-43.35; -16.26)	-46.78 ** (-63.38; -30.17)
Up to 3 yrs of experience	-43.48 ** (-55.29; -31.67)	-36.10 ** (-50.89; -21.32)	-49.55 ** (-67.14; -31.97)
3-5 yrs of experience	-38.14 ** (-49.04; -27.24)	-27.85 ** (-40.97; -14.74)	-47.86 ** (-65.11; -30.61)
5-10 yrs of experience	-48.90 ** (-61.28; -36.53)	-43.03 ** (-58.73; -27.32)	-52.95 ** (-70.91; -34.98)
Over 10 yrs of experience	-39.99 ** (-51.02; -28.95)	-31.19 ** (-45.37; -17.01)	-45.90 ** (-62.47; -29.33)

*Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, differences in wage expectations, order of candidates presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 7,720 for all job offers; N = 3,828 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 3,922 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*

**Table D3. Employers' willingness to pay for working from home – without study participants who selected job offers only displayed on one side (left or right) of the screen (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

.Group	All job offers	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
All employers – average effect	-43.74 ** (-51.53; -35.96)	-27.53 ** (-36.94; -18.12)	-67.58 ** (-87.01; -48.16)
WfH 2-3 days/week offered	-38.38 ** (-45.75; -31.00)	-	-
WfH 5 days/week offered	-48.69 ** (-57.23; -40.16)	-	-
<b>Employer and workplace characteristics</b>			
WfH workers perceived as more productive	-23.30 ** (-30.29; -16.30)	-14.57 ** (-21.7; -7.43)	-35.06 ** (-47.74; -22.37)
WfH workers perceived as less productive	-49.15 ** (-57.67; -40.62)	-33.28 ** (-40.91; -25.65)	-70.34 ** (-87.40; -53.27)
WfH perceived as beneficial for the company	-31.93 ** (-39.09; -24.77)	-18.87 ** (-25.57; -12.17)	-50.10 ** (-64.15; -36.06)
WfH perceived as not beneficial for the company	-50.99 ** (-59.70; -42.29)	-35.27 ** (-42.93; -27.61)	-73.20 ** (-91.33; -55.07)
High-quality talent management	-39.73 ** (-48.26; -31.19)	-27.75 ** (-36.21; -19.29)	-56.36 ** (-72.56; -40.17)
Low-quality talent management	-44.73 ** (-52.75; -36.70)	-29.18 ** (-36.18; -22.18)	-66.31 ** (-82.99; -49.63)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-44.00 ** (-54.05; -33.95)	-27.53 ** (-36.94; -18.12)	-67.58 ** (-87.01; -48.16)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-43.60 ** (-52.25; -34.95)	-29.67 ** (-37.65; -21.69)	-63.01 ** (-80.21; -45.81)
Men (employers)	-44.96 ** (-53.47; -36.45)	-30.22 ** (-37.97; -22.48)	-65.47 ** (-82.74; -48.21)
Women (employers)	-42.15 ** (-49.84; -34.46)	-27.25 ** (-34.00; -20.50)	-63.28 ** (-79.27; -47.29)
Age 20-34	-36.00 ** (-43.19; -28.81)	-21.50 ** (-27.96; -15.05)	-55.88 ** (-70.82; -40.94)
Age 35-49	-43.67 ** (-51.70; -35.65)	-30.37 ** (-37.77; -22.97)	-62.17 ** (-78.40; -45.94)
Age 50-64	-49.04 ** (-59.30; -38.78)	-30.75 ** (-39.74; -21.75)	-76.09 ** (-97.26; -54.93)
<b>Candidate characteristics</b>			
Non-routine analytical occupation	-38.85 ** (-46.94; -30.76)	-23.73 ** (-31.46; -15.99)	-59.97 ** (-76.38; -43.56)
Non-routine personal occupation	-41.29 ** (-49.94; -32.65)	-29.73 ** (-38.09; -21.37)	-57.75 ** (-74.69; -40.81)
Routine occupation	-47.10 ** (-55.67; -38.54)	-31.13 ** (-38.56; -23.70)	-69.41 ** (-86.99; -51.82)
Men (candidates)	-43.63 ** (-51.86; -35.40)	-28.68 ** (-36.11; -21.25)	-64.54 ** (-81.73; -47.34)
Women (candidates)	-43.87 ** (-52.15; -35.58)	-29.10 ** (-36.76; -21.44)	-64.63 ** (-81.51; -47.75)
Commute under 30 mins	-45.17 ** (-53.50; -36.84)	-31.23 ** (-38.86; -23.60)	-64.71 ** (-81.52; -47.90)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-44.28 ** (-52.52; -36.04)	-28.26 ** (-35.44; -21.08)	-67.30 ** (-84.82; -49.79)
Commute over 60 mins	-41.53 ** (-49.41; -33.64)	-26.69 ** (-34.01; -19.37)	-61.82 ** (-78.14; -45.50)
Up to 3 yrs of experience	-44.99 ** (-53.71; -36.26)	-27.13 ** (-34.87; -19.40)	-69.70 ** (-87.92; -51.48)
3-5 yrs of experience	-41.87 ** (-49.80; -33.94)	-25.66 ** (-32.75; -18.56)	-64.86 ** (-81.82; -47.89)
5-10 yrs of experience	-47.12 ** (-55.86; -38.37)	-34.36 ** (-42.67; -26.05)	-64.89 ** (-82.11; -47.66)
Over 10 yrs of experience	-41.06 ** (-49.09; -33.02)	-28.13 ** (-35.67; -20.60)	-58.42 ** (-74.49; -42.35)

*Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, differences in wage expectations, order of candidates presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 14,300 for all job offers; N = 7,112 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 7,248 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*

**Table D4. Employers' willingness to pay for working from home among 90% of choices with the highest number of points at the confidence level scale. 0-100 scale (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	All job offers	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
All employers – average effect	-43.14 ** (-51.14; -35.14)	-29.60 ** (-39.93; -19.27)	-61.83 ** (-79.87; -43.79)
WfH 2-3 days/week offered	-38.24 ** (-45.88; -30.61)	-	-
WfH 5 days/week offered	-47.84 ** (-56.64; -39.04)	-	-
<b>Employer and workplace characteristics</b>			
WfH workers perceived as more productive	-22.28 ** (-29.23; -15.32)	-15.01 ** (-22.80; -7.21)	-30.84 ** (-42.39; -19.29)
WfH workers perceived as less productive	-49.33 ** (-58.26; -40.39)	-35.29 ** (-43.82; -26.76)	-66.42 ** (-82.56; -50.28)
WfH perceived as beneficial for the company	-30.94 ** (-38.17; -23.72)	-19.51 ** (-26.83; -12.19)	-45.16 ** (-57.98; -32.33)
WfH perceived as not beneficial for the company	-51.04 ** (-60.14; -41.94)	-37.89 ** (-46.61; -29.18)	-67.41 ** (-84.02; -50.79)
High-quality talent management	-39.84 ** (-48.69; -31.00)	-30.17 ** (-39.65; -20.69)	-51.78 ** (-66.71; -36.84)
Low-quality talent management	-43.96 ** (-52.19; -35.73)	-30.46 ** (-38.20; -22.72)	-60.74 ** (-76.01; -45.46)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-43.80 ** (-54.16; -33.44)	-29.60 ** (-39.93; -19.27)	-61.83 ** (-79.87; -43.79)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-42.77 ** (-51.56; -33.99)	-30.87 ** (-39.63; -22.10)	-57.61 ** (-73.30; -41.92)
Men (employers)	-44.76 ** (-53.54; -35.98)	-32.49 ** (-41.16; -23.82)	-59.91 ** (-75.77; -44.05)
Women (employers)	-41.15 ** (-49.03; -33.27)	-28.00 ** (-35.42; -20.58)	-57.88 ** (-72.46; -43.30)
Age 20-34	-35.11 ** (-42.58; -27.65)	-22.46 ** (-29.78; -15.14)	-50.23 ** (-63.72; -36.74)
Age 35-49	-42.96 ** (-51.12; -34.80)	-32.24 ** (-40.39; -24.10)	-56.03 ** (-70.61; -41.45)
Age 50-64	-48.30 ** (-58.68; -37.91)	-31.37 ** (-41.11; -21.63)	-70.39 ** (-89.72; -51.07)
<b>Candidate characteristics</b>			
Non-routine analytical occupation	-37.59 ** (-45.84; -29.35)	-23.73 ** (-32.22; -15.24)	-54.88 ** (-69.93; -39.84)
Non-routine personal occupation	-39.95 ** (-48.68; -31.23)	-31.71 ** (-40.84; -22.58)	-50.24 ** (-65.42; -35.07)
Routine occupation	-47.10 ** (-55.92; -38.28)	-33.19 ** (-41.42; -24.95)	-64.24 ** (-80.34; -48.13)
Men (candidates)	-43.18 ** (-51.58; -34.77)	-30.51 ** (-38.80; -22.22)	-58.85 ** (-74.52; -43.18)
Women (candidates)	-43.11 ** (-51.62; -34.60)	-30.29 ** (-38.66; -21.92)	-59.28 ** (-74.80; -43.76)
Commute under 30 mins	-44.71 ** (-53.26; -36.16)	-33.00 ** (-41.44; -24.56)	-59.39 ** (-74.85; -43.93)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-43.12 ** (-51.49; -34.75)	-29.57 ** (-37.52; -21.61)	-60.52 ** (-76.32; -44.73)
Commute over 60 mins	-41.29 ** (-49.53; -33.06)	-28.13 ** (-36.28; -19.97)	-57.22 ** (-72.36; -42.08)
Up to 3 yrs of experience	-44.23 ** (-53.12; -35.34)	-30.19 ** (-38.89; -21.49)	-61.82 ** (-78.13; -45.51)
3-5 yrs of experience	-39.89 ** (-47.92; -31.86)	-25.37 ** (-33.10; -17.63)	-58.65 ** (-74.15; -43.15)
5-10 yrs of experience	-46.75 ** (-55.89; -37.61)	-35.88 ** (-45.21; -26.55)	-60.23 ** (-76.33; -44.13)
Over 10 yrs of experience	-42.14 ** (-50.61; -33.66)	-30.68 ** (-39.19; -22.17)	-55.78 ** (-71.08; -40.49)

*Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, differences in wage expectations, order of candidates presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 13,912 for all job offers; N = 6,922 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 6,990 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*

**Table D5. Employers' willingness to pay for working from home – unweighted estimations (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	All job offers	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
All employers – average effect	-36.38 ** (-42.13; -30.63)	-22.22 ** (-29.56; -14.89)	-59.24 ** (-74.48; -44.00)
WfH 2-3 days/week offered	-31.75 ** (-37.32; -26.18)	-	-
WfH 5 days/week offered	-40.82 ** (-47.15; -34.50)	-	-
<b>Employer and workplace characteristics</b>			
WfH workers perceived as more productive	-18.63 ** (-24.06; -13.19)	-11.19 ** (-16.95; -5.43)	-29.01 ** (-38.67; -19.35)
WfH workers perceived as less productive	-41.71 ** (-48.04; -35.38)	-27.37 ** (-32.99; -21.76)	-61.73 ** (-74.91; -48.56)
WfH perceived as beneficial for the company	-25.81 ** (-31.19; -20.43)	-14.51 ** (-19.74; -9.29)	-42.20 ** (-53.01; -31.39)
WfH perceived as not beneficial for the company	-43.68 ** (-50.24; -37.11)	-29.46 ** (-35.20; -23.73)	-64.77 ** (-78.97; -50.56)
High-quality talent management	-32.36 ** (-39.01; -25.70)	-21.57 ** (-28.23; -14.92)	-47.75 ** (-60.50; -35.00)
Low-quality talent management	-37.40 ** (-43.32; -31.48)	-23.85 ** (-29.08; -18.62)	-56.90 ** (-69.51; -44.29)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-37.08 ** (-44.75; -29.42)	-22.22 ** (-29.56; -14.89)	-59.24 ** (-74.48; -44.00)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-35.96 ** (-42.45; -29.47)	-24.10 ** (-30.23; -17.96)	-52.97 ** (-65.83; -40.11)
Men (employers)	-37.61 ** (-43.90; -31.33)	-25.20 ** (-30.99; -19.40)	-55.43 ** (-68.29; -42.56)
Women (employers)	-35.51 ** (-41.49; -29.54)	-22.14 ** (-27.54; -16.74)	-55.03 ** (-67.63; -42.42)
Age 20-34	-30.58 ** (-36.51; -24.65)	-17.93 ** (-23.51; -12.35)	-48.49 ** (-60.58; -36.41)
Age 35-49	-37.34 ** (-43.51; -31.16)	-25.18 ** (-30.85; -19.51)	-55.05 ** (-67.80; -42.29)
Age 50-64	-42.67 ** (-50.63; -34.71)	-26.18 ** (-33.51; -18.86)	-68.00 ** (-84.50; -51.50)
<b>Candidate characteristics</b>			
Non-routine analytical occupation	-30.36 ** (-36.34; -24.38)	-16.66 ** (-22.52; -10.79)	-50.07 ** (-62.36; -37.78)
Non-routine personal occupation	-34.29 ** (-40.85; -27.73)	-24.74 ** (-31.20; -18.28)	-48.17 ** (-60.81; -35.54)
Routine occupation	-40.03 ** (-46.46; -33.6)	-26.13 ** (-31.80; -20.45)	-60.08 ** (-73.52; -46.64)
Men (candidates)	-36.02 ** (-42.16; -29.87)	-23.25 ** (-29.05; -17.44)	-54.33 ** (-67.14; -41.52)
Women (candidates)	-36.77 ** (-42.95; -30.59)	-23.52 ** (-29.26; -17.77)	-56.14 ** (-69.16; -43.12)
Commute under 30 mins	-37.69 ** (-43.89; -31.48)	-25.43 ** (-31.16; -19.69)	-55.54 ** (-68.47; -42.61)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-37.04 ** (-43.20; -30.88)	-23.98 ** (-29.61; -18.35)	-56.27 ** (-69.16; -43.37)
Commute over 60 mins	-34.26 ** (-40.21; -28.31)	-20.27 ** (-25.85; -14.69)	-53.90 ** (-66.53; -41.27)
Up to 3 yrs of experience	-37.00 ** (-43.46; -30.54)	-22.85 ** (-28.82; -16.88)	-57.21 ** (-70.69; -43.74)
3-5 yrs of experience	-34.59 ** (-40.64; -28.54)	-20.86 ** (-26.46; -15.27)	-54.71 ** (-67.63; -41.79)
5-10 yrs of experience	-38.71 ** (-45.23; -32.20)	-27.08 ** (-33.28; -20.89)	-55.62 ** (-68.77; -42.48)
Over 10 yrs of experience	-35.42 ** (-41.60; -29.23)	-22.82 ** (-28.78; -16.87)	-53.12 ** (-65.87; -40.37)

*Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, differences in wage expectations, order of candidates presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 15,440 for all job offers; N = 7,634 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 7,806 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*

**Table D6. Employers' willingness to pay for working from home – linear probability models (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	All job offers	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
All employers – average effect	-41.29 ** (-48.58; -34.00)	-25.58 ** (-34.49; -16.68)	-60.5 ** (-77.95; -43.04)
WfH 2-3 days/week offered	-36.74 ** (-43.77; -29.71)	-	-
WfH 5 days/week offered	-45.69 ** (-53.68; -37.70)	-	-
<b>Employer and workplace characteristics</b>			
WfH workers perceived as more productive	-22.23 ** (-28.72; -15.74)	-14.57 ** (-21.41; -7.73)	-32.59 ** (-44.22; -20.96)
WfH workers perceived as less productive	-46.86 ** (-54.92; -38.80)	-31.92 ** (-39.23; -24.61)	-66.88 ** (-82.78; -50.99)
WfH perceived as beneficial for the company	-30.73 ** (-37.52; -23.94)	-18.68 ** (-25.23; -12.13)	-47.47 ** (-60.55; -34.40)
WfH perceived as not beneficial for the company	-48.36 ** (-56.60; -40.12)	-33.83 ** (-41.23; -26.42)	-68.69 ** (-85.46; -51.93)
High-quality talent management	-37.74 ** (-45.85; -29.62)	-26.66 ** (-34.91; -18.40)	-52.99 ** (-67.95; -38.03)
Low-quality talent management	-42.15 ** (-49.65; -34.65)	-27.97 ** (-34.69; -21.25)	-61.66 ** (-76.83; -46.50)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-40.07 ** (-49.35; -30.79)	-25.58 ** (-34.49; -16.68)	-60.50 ** (-77.95; -43.04)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-41.98 ** (-50.17; -33.79)	-28.98 ** (-36.76; -21.21)	-59.87 ** (-75.72; -44.03)
Men (employers)	-42.18 ** (-50.13; -34.23)	-29.00 ** (-36.43; -21.57)	-60.30 ** (-75.93; -44.67)
Women (employers)	-40.14 ** (-47.40; -32.89)	-26.11 ** (-32.62; -19.61)	-59.78 ** (-74.52; -45.04)
Age 20-34	-34.32 ** (-41.16; -27.48)	-21.02 ** (-27.35; -14.69)	-52.10 ** (-65.79; -38.41)
Age 35-49	-41.22 ** (-48.75; -33.70)	-29.08 ** (-36.16; -22.00)	-57.90 ** (-72.69; -43.10)
Age 50-64	-46.32 ** (-55.97; -36.68)	-29.34 ** (-38.06; -20.62)	-70.83 ** (-90.08; -51.57)
<b>Candidate characteristics</b>			
Non-routine analytical occupation	-36.3 ** (-43.83; -28.76)	-21.91 ** (-29.30; -14.53)	-64.55 ** (-80.55; -48.55)
Non-routine personal occupation	-38.86 ** (-46.91; -30.82)	-28.78 ** (-36.72; -20.83)	-56.22 ** (-71.26; -41.18)
Routine occupation	-44.80 ** (-52.87; -36.72)	-30.35 ** (-37.56; -23.13)	-53.04 ** (-68.41; -37.66)
Men (candidates)	-40.92 ** (-48.58; -33.25)	-27.51 ** (-34.73; -20.30)	-59.33 ** (-74.84; -43.82)
Women (candidates)	-41.70 ** (-49.50; -33.91)	-27.92 ** (-35.25; -20.59)	-60.92 ** (-76.46; -45.39)
Commute under 30 mins	-43.21 ** (-51.10; -35.33)	-30.51 ** (-37.90; -23.12)	-60.93 ** (-76.44; -45.42)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-41.13 ** (-48.77; -33.49)	-26.81 ** (-33.71; -19.92)	-61.38 ** (-77.09; -45.66)
Commute over 60 mins	-39.25 ** (-46.71; -31.80)	-25.29 ** (-32.34; -18.23)	-58.14 ** (-73.20; -43.08)
Up to 3 yrs of experience	-42.56 ** (-50.74; -34.38)	-27.70 ** (-35.30; -20.10)	-62.99 ** (-79.23; -46.76)
3-5 yrs of experience	-38.81 ** (-46.20; -31.42)	-23.86 ** (-30.69; -17.04)	-59.88 ** (-75.25; -44.51)
5-10 yrs of experience	-44.30 ** (-52.55; -36.04)	-32.15 ** (-40.10; -24.2)	-61.11 ** (-77.09; -45.14)
Over 10 yrs of experience	-39.64 ** (-47.33; -31.95)	-27.23 ** (-34.61; -19.85)	-56.13 ** (-71.21; -41.06)

*Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, differences in wage expectations, order of candidates presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 15,440 for all job offers; N = 7,634 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 7,806 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*



**Table D7. Employers' willingness to pay for working from home – probit regression (% of wage in an office job, 95% confidence intervals)**

Group	All job offers	WfH 2-3 days/week	WfH 5 days/week
All employers – average effect	-41.47 ** (-48.77; -34.17)	-25.45 ** (-34.3; -16.6)	-61.35 ** (-78.99; -43.72)
WfH 2-3 days/week offered	-36.86 ** (-43.89; -29.82)	-	-
WfH 5 days/week offered	-45.93 ** (-53.94; -37.93)	-	-
<b>Employer and workplace characteristics</b>			
WfH workers perceived as more productive	-22.29 ** (-28.77; -15.81)	-14.44 ** (-21.24; -7.65)	-32.99 ** (-44.71; -21.28)
WfH workers perceived as less productive	-47.11 ** (-55.19; -39.03)	-31.92 ** (-39.21; -24.63)	-67.61 ** (-83.71; -51.51)
WfH perceived as beneficial for the company	-30.96 ** (-37.77; -24.15)	-18.71 ** (-25.24; -12.18)	-48.13 ** (-61.37; -34.89)
WfH perceived as not beneficial for the company	-48.54 ** (-56.8; -40.29)	-33.74 ** (-41.11; -26.38)	-69.45 ** (-86.45; -52.45)
High-quality talent management	-38.03 ** (-46.17; -29.89)	-26.64 ** (-34.87; -18.41)	-53.83 ** (-69.01; -38.65)
Low-quality talent management	-42.30 ** (-49.81; -34.80)	-27.91 ** (-34.59; -21.23)	-62.28 ** (-77.63; -46.94)
COVID-19 perceived as a high threat	-40.29 ** (-49.57; -31.01)	-25.45 ** (-34.30; -16.60)	-61.35 ** (-78.99; -43.72)
COVID-19 perceived as a low threat	-42.15 ** (-50.35; -33.95)	-28.99 ** (-36.73; -21.24)	-60.44 ** (-76.46; -44.42)
Men (employers)	-42.38 ** (-50.34; -34.41)	-28.94 ** (-36.34; -21.54)	-61.00 ** (-76.83; -45.17)
Women (employers)	-40.32 ** (-47.58; -33.05)	-26.09 ** (-32.56; -19.61)	-60.40 ** (-75.31; -45.49)
Age 20-34	-34.54 ** (-41.40; -27.68)	-21.03 ** (-27.33; -14.72)	-52.76 ** (-66.62; -38.89)
Age 35-49	-41.44 ** (-48.98; -33.90)	-29.01 ** (-36.05; -21.97)	-58.65 ** (-73.65; -43.66)
Age 50-64	-46.44 ** (-56.09; -36.78)	-29.28 ** (-37.97; -20.6)	-71.39 ** (-90.84; -51.95)
<b>Candidate characteristics</b>			
Non-routine analytical occupation	-25.18 ** (-31.48; -18.88)	-14.03 ** (-20.33; -7.73)	-81.47 ** (-107.3; -55.65)
Non-routine personal occupation	-28.14 ** (-35.12; -21.15)	-21.15 ** (-28.12; -14.19)	-42.35 ** (-55.76; -28.94)
Routine occupation	-53.49 ** (-65.74; -41.24)	-36.44 ** (-48.26; -24.63)	-39.29 ** (-53.20; -25.38)
Men (candidates)	-41.11 ** (-48.79; -33.43)	-27.52 ** (-34.70; -20.33)	-59.97 ** (-75.65; -44.29)
Women (candidates)	-41.87 ** (-49.68; -34.06)	-27.82 ** (-35.11; -20.52)	-61.62 ** (-77.34; -45.89)
Commute under 30 mins	-43.34 ** (-51.23; -35.45)	-30.42 ** (-37.78; -23.07)	-61.48 ** (-77.15; -45.81)
Commute between 30 and 60 mins	-41.39 ** (-49.05; -33.73)	-26.81 ** (-33.68; -19.95)	-62.18 ** (-78.11; -46.25)
Commute over 60 mins	-39.43 ** (-46.89; -31.96)	-25.23 ** (-32.25; -18.21)	-58.79 ** (-74.03; -43.55)
Up to 3 yrs of experience	-42.76 ** (-50.95; -34.56)	-27.61 ** (-35.17; -20.05)	-63.76 ** (-80.22; -47.31)
3-5 yrs of experience	-38.89 ** (-46.28; -31.51)	-23.76 ** (-30.54; -16.97)	-60.45 ** (-75.99; -44.92)
5-10 yrs of experience	-44.50 ** (-52.76; -36.24)	-32.19 ** (-40.1; -24.27)	-61.69 ** (-77.82; -45.55)
Over 10 yrs of experience	-39.89 ** (-47.60; -32.18)	-27.20 ** (-34.55; -19.85)	-56.90 ** (-72.17; -41.63)

*Note: WTP estimated from models with controls for personal and workplace characteristics, differences in wage expectations, order of candidates presented on the screen, and vignette number. Full estimation results are available upon request. Standard errors clustered at the participant level. N = 15,440 for all job offers; N = 7,634 for WfH 2-3 days/week offers; N = 7,806 for WfH 5 days/week offers. \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1.*

*Source: Own estimations using data gathered for the experiment.*



[www.ibs.org.pl](http://www.ibs.org.pl)