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The influence of frustration and loneliness on job satisfaction

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Abstract. Contemporary emphasis is placed on concepts that look at intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence work activity in the workplace. This research focuses on identifying differences and correlations between concepts that designate the influence of frustration and loneliness on job satisfaction. A sample of 60 people, 31 women and 29 men, 27 rural and 33 urban, was assessed with the following instruments: the Basic Psychological Job Satisfaction and Frustration Scale-General Measure and the Workplace Loneliness Scale. The results show that significant differences were found between women and men in terms of perceived loneliness at work. On the other hand, a negative correlation was found between loneliness and frustration of the need for autonomy. Significant differences were also found in terms of background and satisfaction of the need to relate at work, where those from urban areas scored higher. The results of the research are analysed and discussed, thus gaining insights into loneliness, frustration and overall perceptions of job satisfaction.

Keywords. loneliness, satisfaction, frustration

1.Frustration
1.1Frustration-conceptual boundaries

Frustration is a key negative emotion that originates in disappointment (Latin frustrāor „in vain") and can be defined as irritable distress after a desire has collided with an unfulfilled reality. (Jeronimus et al. 2017)

Frustration is a type of emotional reaction to stress. It is common to have this feeling when encountering daily stressors at home, at school, at work, and in relationships. This frustration is often short-lived and tends to pass as the situation changes. But sometimes, such as when you find you are not meeting your goals or aspirations, it can be long-lasting and can more seriously affect your health and well-being. (Scott, 2023)

Frustration causes negative affect to signal that interests and interactions need to be adjusted, and emotional tension or "arousal" to instigate defensive or aggressive behavioral responses, such as striving to reduce or eliminate the blocking agent or circumstance.

Frustration has evolved to cope with some type of situation, evolutionarily recurring, and is experienced when people encounter unresolved problems, such as contextual or psychological barriers or obstacles, that must be removed to fulfill personal goals, desires, impulses, or needs. Technically, frustration is caused when a goal is not met when expected time in the behavioural sequence (an unexpected non-reward). The surest trigger of frustration is an externally attributed omission of a rewarding event or element, and in particular a perceived obstruction by an intentional antagonistic act (Jeronimus et al.2016).

1.2 Evolution of frustration

Experiences of frustration have a substantial genetic basis (about 50%) that can be observed from early life. In general, frustration appears in the first year of life and increases during infancy until peaking during early and middle adolescence (Buss 2011; Putnam et al. 2001), followed by slow declines with age. Specifically, children in infancy typically lack the impulse control that is necessary to refrain from an immediate intense response. Moreover, in the first 2 years, we usually cannot tolerate frustration, which may be expressed in tantrums. After the second year, this frustration tolerance also improves due to better language skills. A 3-year-old can say „I hate you" when frustrated by limits, while many 4-year-olds experience frustration when they can't understand an explanation to one of their „why" questions. New sources of frustration emerge in childhood. , including new expectations and comparisons with peers, older siblings and adults. Finally, adults who are prone to frustration early in life tend to score higher on the „anger-hostility" face of the neuroticism personality domain, in which frustration is compounded by betrayal and bitterness (McCrae et al. 2005).

Importantly, developmental patterns of frustration vary slightly by gender. Male infants are usually less able to physiologically regulate their frustration reactivity through behaviours. And while the predisposition to frustration in childhood is comparable in both genders, boys become somewhat more prone to frustration than girls in early adolescence through age 16, and adult males typically remain slightly more angry and hostile than females. (Jeronimus et al. 2017).

1.3. Symptoms of frustration

- People react to frustration in several ways. In response to frustration, they may:
- Get angry
- Give up
- Lose self-esteem
- Feel a loss of self-confidence
- Experience stress
- Feel sad, insecure, depressed or anxious
- Use substances
- May engage in other negative, self-destructive, or addictive behaviors (Kane, 2019)

A 2018 study(apud Kane, 2019), published in Frontiers in Human Neuroscience, examined facial expressions and brain activation mechanisms using functional near-infrared spectroscopy to detect driver frustration. The researchers found that frustrated drivers tend to activate muscles in the mouth region, such as chin lifting, lip curling and lip pressing). Frustrated driving can result in aggressive behaviour, as well as negative effects on cognitive processes important for driving, including attention, judgement and decision-making. Another study, published in 2016(apud Kane, 2019) in Frontiers in Psychology, listed some of the

emotional and affective responses following frustration, including acute stress, enduring anger, rage, and sadness.

1.4. Types of frustration

It is understood on a broad basis that individuals face different types of problems and challenges in their personal and professional lives. Problems and challenges are seen as an integral part of individuals' lives. They must be experienced by all individuals. All individuals, regardless of creed, race, ethnicity, religion, gender, age groups, educational qualifications, occupations, categories and backgrounds, have goals and objectives to achieve (5 Common Frustrations and How to Handle them, 2020; apud Kapur&Radhika, 2021).

In achieving their goals and objectives and improving their overall quality of life, they need to understand that they will experience situations and circumstances, which will give rise to the psychological problem of frustration. When the occurrence of various types of problems and challenges impose severe impediments in the course of implementing tasks and activities and achieving goals and objectives, individuals are likely to feel frustrated. When one conducts research on the types of frustration, one is able to increase one's knowledge and understanding of the factors, which gives rise to the psychological problem of frustration. The types of frustration primarily consider the causes, due to which frustration occurs among individuals. The types of frustration are presented as follows: personal frustration, conflict frustration, pressure frustration, environmental frustration (Kapur&Radhika, 2021).

1.4.1 Personal frustration

Personal frustration is frustration, when individuals face problems in the course of implementing job tasks and duties and achieving goals and objectives. Life without purpose cannot be lived effectively by individuals. All individuals, regardless of creed, race, religion, ethnicity, educational qualifications, occupations, categories and backgrounds, have goals and objectives to achieve. In achieving goals and objectives and in improving their their overall quality of life, individuals face obstacles. These obstacles are considered the main causes of frustration. Frustration is a psychological problem that is not experienced by individuals frequently. In educational institutions, when individuals work on tasks and projects and face barriers, they are likely to feel frustrated. While also in employment settings, when individuals work on tasks and projects and face barriers, they are likely to feel frustrated. Therefore, there are major as well as minor causes of frustration. Therefore, it is of utmost importance for individuals to ensure that frustration does not give rise to barriers and problems. In this way, one will be able to contribute in an effective way to reduce personal frustration (Kapur&Radhika, 2021).

1.4.4 Environmental frustration

Environmental frustration is the frustration that individuals experience when environmental conditions are not pleasant and friendly. It is apparently understood that all individuals aspire to live in a clean and green environment. They generate information in terms of factors that would significantly contribute to mitigating various forms of pollution and creating a clean and green environment. In urban and rural areas, individuals are provided with information on ways to reduce pollution. Living in crowded and polluted environments gives rise to feelings of frustration among individuals. Individuals therefore need to ensure that they check their vehicles so that air pollution can be reduced. Waste should not be dumped on land and water bodies and kept clean. In this way, water and land pollution can be mitigated. When

individuals live in a pollution-free environment, they are able to make a significant contribution to promoting health and well-being. Therefore, it can be argued, they will be able to reduce environmental pollution when they are well equipped in terms of measures and approaches that would contribute significantly to mitigating various forms of pollution and creating a clean and green environment (Kapur&Radhika, 2021).

1.5. Internal vs. external frustration

These sources of frustration can arise from either internal or external causes.

Internal frustration involves feeling dissatisfied with some aspect of yourself, whether it's your efforts or your behaviours.

External frustration involves being stressed about something in your external environment. Getting stuck in traffic when rushing to get to work is an example. (Scott, 2023)

1.6. Workplace frustration

For a person, work provides opportunities for the fulfillment of wants and needs and is also a gateway to earning name and fame. Though very few seek avenues to reach self-actualization, which can lead to doing what the heart desires. An employee's inclination is to constantly pursue progress at work, personal development or improvement in personal goals. In one of the earliest studies on frustration in organizations, Sirota (1959; apud Karamchandani& Kamal, 2020) examined employee frustration that arises due to promotion aspirations. This being an ego need, frustration due to blocking desired results for whatever reason can lead to a breakdown in communication between the employee and the organization. The researcher also argues that such a landscape provides fertile ground for frustration to breed. Communication breakdown can lead to the construction of a psychological barrier that prevents the employee from accessing or even seeking more information relevant to the individual's situation. The author concluded that the most frustrated employees are those who have the least knowledge about the organization's vision and mission. This can mean a failure to anticipate and foresee problems on the part of the organization as well as the individual in which both stand to lose.

Frustration due to unfulfilled aspirations for advancement or on a holistic level can have its genesis in the insecurity an employee may experience in the workplace. A broad spectrum of this particular issue was studied by Broek et al. (2014; apud Karamchandani& Kamal, 2020) on 451 respondents. The authors of their study looked primarily at job insecurity leading to counterproductive behaviour at work. As far as job insecurity is concerned, the study focuses on its qualitative aspect, i.e. fear of devaluation of job characteristics and conditions at work, rather than the job itself, which is the quantitative aspect of the situation. The employee's disposition encompassed by this aspect of insecurity is detrimental not only to the organisation, but also to the individual and through increased relationships with colleagues. According to the authors, such emotional outpourings do not stem from the insecurity mentality, but are preceded by frustration emanating from the employee's obstacles to establishing his or her own identity and efforts to create a synergistic affiliation within the organization.

2. Loneliness
2.1. Loneliness-conceptual boundaries

Loneliness is defined as a feeling of distress that accompanies the perception that one's social needs are not met by the quantity or, more importantly, the quality of social relationships. Loneliness is usually measured by asking individuals to respond to items such as those on the

frequently used loneliness scale: 'I feel isolated', 'There are people I can talk to' and 'I feel part of a group of friends'. (Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010)

Loneliness is a universal human emotion, complex and unique to each individual. Because it has no single common cause, prevention and treatment of this potentially harmful mood can vary dramatically. Researchers suggest that loneliness is associated with social isolation, poor social skills, introversion and depression. Loneliness, according to many experts, doesn't necessarily mean being alone. Instead, if you feel lonely and isolated, then loneliness plays into your mood (Cherry, 2023).

2.2 Impact of loneliness on cognitive functioning

The impact of loneliness on cognition has been assessed in a recent review of the literature. Perhaps the most striking finding in this literature is the extent of emotional and cognitive processes and outcomes that seem susceptible to the influence of loneliness. Loneliness has been associated with personality disorders and psychosis, suicide, impaired cognitive performance and cognitive decline over time, increased risk of Alzheimer's disease, impaired executive control and increased depressive symptoms. The causal nature of the association between loneliness and depressive symptoms appears to be reciprocal, but more recent analyses of five consecutive annual assessments of loneliness and depressive symptoms have shown that loneliness predicts increases in depressive symptoms at 1-year intervals, but depressive symptoms do not. predicts increases in loneliness at the same intervals. In addition, experimental evidence, in which feelings of loneliness (and social connectedness) were hypnotically induced, indicates that loneliness not only increases depressive symptoms, but also increases perceived stress, fear of negative appraisal, anxiety and anger, and decreases optimism and sense of self. esteem. These data suggest that a perceived sense of social connectedness serves as a scaffolding for the self - destroy the scaffolding and the rest of the self begins to crumble (Hawkley & Cacioppo, 2010).

2.3 Symptoms of loneliness

Loneliness can be defined as a feeling of restlessness or discomfort.

Symptoms of loneliness range from psychological to physical. Adjectives such as boredom, self-pity, sadness, emptiness and shame have been used to describe the feeling of loneliness.

Rubenstein and Shaver (1982; apud Madeson, 2023) classified behavioural symptoms of loneliness into four domains:

- Sad passivity, which includes crying, sleeping, doing nothing, overeating, tranquilizers, and excessive alcohol and drug use
- Active loneliness activities, which involve writing, listening to music, exercising, working on a hobby, studying and working to avoid loneliness
- Spending money through excessive shopping or buying unnecessary items
- Social contact through contact with friends, engaging in social activities and doing things to avoid being lonely

2.4 Theories of loneliness

Researchers have classified loneliness into chronic and transient loneliness (Choi et al., 2012; apud Madeson, 2023).

Chronic loneliness is a persistent internal experience, often extending over a period of many years, regardless of the situation. Chronic loneliness can vary in intensity over time (Choi et al., 2012; apud Madeson, 2023).

Transient loneliness is experienced over shorter periods of time and is usually the result of a particular situation or environmental factor (Choi et al., 2012; apud Madeson, 2023).

Psychologically, loneliness includes affective, cognitive and subjective components. These components can be represented by psychodynamic, cognitive and existential approaches in psychology.

The psychodynamic approach to loneliness was first described by Fromm-Reichmann (1959; apud Madeson, 2023), who based loneliness on early childhood experiences arising from the separation of parent and child and the lack of physical contact and loving intimacy.

Similarly, John Bowlby argued that the mechanisms of loneliness were a response model for the survival of the species and that the bond between mother and child was based on biological needs (Hojat, 1989; apud Madeson, 2023). According to the cognitive approach, loneliness results from thought processes. Loneliness results when an individual's perception and evaluation of social networks are not congruent (Heinrich & Cullone, 2006). Many of today's definitions of loneliness are based on this subjective experience of connectedness and the internal need for relatedness.

The existential approach to loneliness is based on a phenomenological perspective, feelings of loneliness and the human condition in relation to others (Jones, 1989; apud Madeson, 2023).

Existentialism is a philosophical approach and looks at loneliness as a starting point. This approach tries to understand what that experience is like for the client, rather than trying to treat symptoms.

2.5. Loneliness and health

The determinants of health can be divided into intrinsic (medical and genetic conditions, frailty, etc.) and extrinsic (physical and social environment), which in turn interact with each other, creating abnormal and bidirectional synergies. We note that some of these are social determinants, such as socio-economic level (level of education, occupation, income and social vulnerability), social relationships and support from family and friends. These factors have been linked to an increased risk of mortality. Our health and development are shaped by our involvement in community social activities, our ability to take care of ourselves, our level of control over our life circumstances and the context of our relationship with our neighbourhood, community and society. Typically, most of these factors tend to be grouped under the concept of social vulnerability, which is calculated in a similar way to the frailty index, i.e. as the sum of deficits that can be measured and quantified. This social vulnerability has been associated with a higher prevalence of frailty and higher levels of in-hospital mortality. (Yanguas, Pinazo-Henandis & Tarazona-Santabalbina, 2018)

Deficits related to social vulnerability should not be seen as separate; rather, they should be understood as an accumulation of impairments that cause changes at the cellular and tissue level. Loneliness can contribute to changes in cellular function, increased vascular resistance and increased incidence of specific diseases such as depression, cognitive impairment and progression of Alzheimer's disease, obesity, stroke and hypertension, many of which are mediated by altered vascular resistance, an increase in sympatho-adrenergic activity stimulated by an increase in hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis activity due to immune changes and increased inflammatory activity mediated by the action of glucocorticoids and pro-

inflammatory factors which increase leukocyte and lymphocyte activity. (Yanguas, Pinazo-Henandis & Tarazona-Santabalbina, 2018)

Social isolation, which is considered an objective and quantifiable reflection of reduced social network size and lack of social contact, is associated with an increased risk of developing cardiovascular disease, infectious disease, cognitive impairment and mortality. Once again, a link between social isolation and clinical disease has been described, resulting from an increase in inflammatory activity quantified by increases in CRP and fibrinogen and associated, in turn, with the onset of frailty. There are three general pathways by which social ties can impact on an individual's health, depending on behavioural, psychosocial and physiological characteristics. In fact, psychosocial mechanisms such as social support and capacity for personal control influence physiological processes, thereby modulating the body's immunity, metabolism and inflammatory capacity, all of which interfere with cardiovascular function. The HPA axis is sensitive to the brain's interpretation of threats and stressors and influences a wide range of physiological, behavioural and health outcomes. Perceived social isolation is associated with increased HPA activity, increased catecholamine blood levels, and increased cortisol and vascular resistance mediated by a decrease in glucocorticoid receptor sensitivity. (Yanguas, Pinazo-Henandis & Tarazona-Santabalbina, 2018)

Social isolation has been recognized as a significant risk factor for morbidity and mortality that may be mediated by neuroendocrine stress mechanisms, suggesting that chronic social isolation increases HPA axis activation and that these effects depend on the disruption of a social link: social perception.Isolation activates an increased sense of threat and leads to increased symptoms of anxiety, hostility, fragmented sleep, fatigue, vascular resistance, and genetic changes, along with decreased impulse control, increased negativity, and depressive symptoms, and greater age-related deterioration in cognitive ability and risk of dementia. In fact, it shows that those with a low social risk profile live on average 5.4 years longer than their counterparts with a high social risk profile. A review of lifestyle factors demonstrates the influence that social relationships have on survival and provides data from two meta-analyses to support this. In these analyses, it was found that people with adequate social networks or relationships were 50% more likely to survive than older adults with social problems or poor or insufficient social relationships. Furthermore, it was observed that having a spouse or partner was also a significant predictor of survival, evidenced by a 9-15% decrease in mortality risk. The authors of the review point out that stronger social connections can alleviate stress and reduce the practice of poor stress-related lifestyle habits. However, any interpretation of the role that many of these social factors play is hampered by the heterogeneity of life trajectories associated with genetic, social factors, play is hampered by the heterogeneity of life trajectories associated with genetic, social, environmental and biological factors and clinical conditions (Yanguas, Pinazo-Henandis & Tarazona-Santabalbina, 2018).

2.6 Loneliness at work

With the advent of globalisation, considerable changes in communities and rapid economic progress have brought to light many problems related to employees in the workplace. Work occupies a considerable part of an individual's life, making social relationships at work increasingly important for both professional and individual lives. In such environments, experiencing loneliness reveals that people are somewhat dissatisfied with their relationships and indicates a desire for extended social connections. On this basis, loneliness at work is an unpleasant emotion that stems from dissatisfaction with existing social relationships or a lack of such connections at work. In the hospitality industry, hotel employees meet other people

(customers, co-workers, supervisors) every day, and this engagement is the most important part of their work. Work encompasses us in a social boundary and there are few, if any, businesses where someone fulfils their responsibilities completely independently. Given the frequency of contact between hotel employees and others, complaints about social relationships often arise. Loneliness in the workplace has serious effects on organisations. It reduces creativity, erodes performance and increases turnover. The sense of isolation that results from loneliness diminishes solidarity between members of an organisation. Employees who experience high degrees of loneliness also experience considerable emotional exhaustion. This complication is why it is essential to explore loneliness in the workplace, as the insights derived can help organizations maintain engagement among employees and enable these individuals to cultivate positive relationships (Jung & Yoon, 2022).

Employees who want to recover from negative workplace situations can do so by recharging. Employees who face unfavorable circumstances, such as emotional problems and heavy workloads, often require substantial recovery time because they need to put in extra effort and regulate their emotions to accomplish their tasks. A particularly important requirement is that employees disconnect psychologically from work during working hours. Sonnentag (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022) offered that recovery experiences were positively connected with resulting workplace behavior. As reported by Etzion et al. (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022) psychological detachment from work during off-hours is highly significant for recovery to occur. In the same vein, Kilroy et al. (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022) indicated that recovery experiences are positively connected to resulting workplace behaviors. Although interest in psychological issues has grown, few empirical studies have been directed at loneliness in the workplace and the processes by which this condition arises. Research has also rarely linked emotional problems at work to relationships with colleagues. To address these shortcomings, the present study examined emotional and psychological problems related to loneliness at work from the perspective of employees in the hotel service industry. It also investigated the correlation between negative emotions and potential mechanisms.

The condition of general loneliness has long been studied, but limited research has been conducted on loneliness in the workplace. According to Weiss (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022), loneliness can take two forms: emotional isolation from lack of friendships and social isolation from lack of interpersonal connections. Prinz (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022) classified loneliness as an emotion, while Barrett et al. (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022) defined it as a sensory process. However, these definitions do not fully clarify what loneliness is. Inherently speaking, loneliness is an individual experience that may differ depending on context, environment and situation. Wright et al. (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022) defined loneliness at work as „the negative reflection of the quality of individual relationships and social interactions with employees at work".

The authors demonstrated that this condition is a two-dimensional structure; that is, it consists of emotional deprivation and lack of social companionship at work. Yilmaz (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022) referred to loneliness at work as „loneliness arising from and isolation from the social environment at work", while Ozcelik and Barsade (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022) defined it as the psychological pain of relationship deficit in work environments. The causes of loneliness among employees are their inability to socialize and lack of experience in terms of the quality of interpersonal relationships. According to Erdil and Ertosun (apud Jung & Yoon, 2022) „emotion is specific to the workplace and coexists with certain characters of the work environment, such as competitive work climate and alternative work arrangements".

3. Job satisfaction
3.1 Job satisfaction - conceptual delimitations

Happiness has been conceptualised from hedonic and eudaimonic approaches. The hedonic approach defines happiness in relation to the attainment of pleasure and avoiding pain. From this point of view, happiness is often referred to as subjective well-being, which consists of cognitive (life satisfaction) and emotional (positive and negative emotions) experiences. Life satisfaction is a person's judgment of their life in several domains and is the most extensive construct for assessing subjective well-being. A growing body of research has shown that higher life satisfaction is associated with more desired outcomes such as higher career satisfaction, organizational commitment, and especially job satisfaction (Unanue, Gomez, Cortez, Oyanedel&Mendiburo, 2017).

Job satisfaction is a key construct in industrial and organizational psychology and has been associated with multiple desirable outcomes such as job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, absenteeism, and life satisfaction. Most definitions of job satisfaction tend to focus on how employees feel and think about their work. These definitions, in much the same way as those of life satisfaction, involve emotional states, feelings, affective responses, and cognitive evaluations of work (Unanue, Gomez, Cortez, Oyanedel&Mendiburo, 2017).

3.2. Components of job satisfaction

- Communication

Communication can be extremely important in maintaining satisfaction levels, both personally and professionally. It is demonstrated by allowing employees to be open, collaborative, trusting and even confrontational when necessary (Bourne, 2020).

- Culture

Defining a company culture relates to job satisfaction as it provides values and guidance on topics ranging from organizational goals to appropriate levels of employee interaction. (Bourne, 2020)

- Security

Not surprisingly, once a culture is established in the workplace, satisfaction can then be enhanced by additional feelings of security. Security can arise from knowing that you work for a viable company with long-term goals, instilling feelings of belonging to that company. This can be enhanced by honest communication and transparency within a company (Bourne, 2020).

- Leadership

Linked to increased employee motivation, leading or influencing a group towards achieving a vision or set of goals can lead to job satisfaction by ensuring that communication and task instruction are appropriate and easy to understand.In turn, when employees feel that leaders can guide them through tasks, their motivation and satisfaction increases.Since leadership has a crucial influence on job satisfaction, this article on leadership activities is recommended reading (Bourne, 2020).

- Opportunities

Employees can gain more satisfaction with their jobs when more challenging opportunities arise. This can lead to participation in interesting and diverse projects and can take employees away from the monotony of a role (Bourne, 2020).

- Career development

Employees can become more satisfied with their job when they know there is an individualized plan for them. Beyond the formal nature of appraisals, if there is a path to growth, it can encourage employees to stay happier for longer (Bourne, 2020).

- Working conditions

Job satisfaction can be increased if a resilient workplace is a cooperative environment. This means a place with respect for diverse ideas and opinions, honest and constructive feedback, mentoring opportunities and freedom from harassment (Bourne, 2020).

- Employee personality

Most of the ingredients related to job satisfaction may be rooted in elements outside of employees' control (such as managers' leadership and company leaders' communication), but what about the employees themselves? Can they control their own satisfaction levels? (Bourne, 2020).

These researchers discuss how job satisfaction can be determined by how proactive an employee is at work. Does the employee proactively seek out a manager for feedback? Does the employee go the extra mile to accomplish tasks within a company? Does the employee try to meet company goals, lead meetings, and ask questions when unsure how to complete a task? If so, these employees are the ones who may show the most job satisfaction. Proactivity in the workplace can lead to positive job evaluations, which when passed on to the employee, can lead to satisfaction.For more on constructive feedback, read our article on ways to give negative feedback constructively (Bourne, 2020).

- Pay and benefits

Organizational success and job satisfaction are also linked to employee perceptions of adequate pay and benefits.

While pay and benefits are not the only reason employees find satisfaction in their jobs, research over 30 years shows that pay and benefits, at least in terms of how employees view themselves in their roles, have ranked. at the top of lists of job satisfaction factors (Bourne, 2020).

- Rewards and recognition

Beyond monetary gains and being paid fairly for the work they do, employee job satisfaction means that promotional policies are clear and in line with their expectations (Bourne, 2020).

3.3 The effects of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction causes a number of influences on different aspects of organisational life. The weight of research evidence indicates that there is not a strong link between satisfaction and productivity. For example, a comprehensive meta-analysis of the research literature finds only a best-estimate correlation between job satisfaction and productivity. Satisfied workers will not necessarily be the highest producers. There are many possible moderating variables, the most important of which seems to be rewards. If people receive rewards that they feel are fair, they will be satisfied and this is likely to result in higher performance effort. Recent research evidence also indicates that satisfaction may not necessarily lead to improved individual performance, but it does lead to improvements at departmental and organisational levels. Finally, there is still considerable debate, weather satisfaction leads to performance or performance leads to satisfaction (Luthans, 1998; apud Aziri, 2011).

Employee loyalty is one of the most important factors to consider. Employee loyalty is usually measured with the Loyalty Questonaire and can cause serious negative consequences when it is not at a high level. (Aziri, 2011)

Three types of employee loyalty are usually considered: affective loyalty, normative loyalty and continuity loyalty. Affective loyalty has to do with cases where an employee feels an emotional connection to the company, normative loyalty is a kind of loyalty that occurs in

cases where the employee feels that he or she owes something to the company, and continuity loyalty comes as a result of the fact. that the employee does not have the opportunity to find a job elsewhere. (Aziri, 2011)

Research conducted by Vanderberg and Lance (1992; apud Aziri, 2011) in which they surveyed 100 information service professionals for five months showed a strong relationship between job satisfaction and employee loyalty.

Their research showed that the higher the job satisfaction, the higher the level of employee loyalty. Employee absenteeism causes serious additional costs for companies, so managers are constantly looking for ways to reduce them and minimise them. Probably the best way to reduce employee absenteeism would be to increase employee satisfaction. The main idea behind this approach is that the higher job satisfaction, the lower employee absenteeism should be (Aziri, 2011).

Even if the effects are modest, the fact remains that job satisfaction contributes to lower levels of employee absenteeism. So it's worth paying attention to satisfaction, especially since it's potentially within your control - unlike some of the other causes of absenteeism (e.g. illness, accidents). But, as I said, circumstances can change this equation. As a manager, you could implicitly encourage absenteeism by enforcing company policies. If people are paid for sick days and if they have to be "use it or lose it", that's a pretty strong encouragement for employees to miss. In other words, you've helped create a culture of absenteeism that can outweigh the "satisfaction" effect. (Sweney and McFarlin, 2005; apud Aziri, 2011)

When satisfaction is high, absenteeism tends to be low; when satisfaction is low, absenteeism tends to be high. However, as with other satisfaction relationships, there are moderating variables, such as the degree to which people feel that jobs are important. In addition, it is important to remember that while high job satisfaction will not necessarily lead to low absenteeism, low job satisfaction is likely to lead to high absenteeism (Aziri, 2011).

4. Research methodology
4.1. Purpose of the research
Through this research we aimed to discover what impact loneliness and frustration have on life satisfaction.

4.2. Research objectives
The general objective of the research is the relationship between frustration and loneliness on satisfaction.

Based on the research aim mentioned above, we developed 4 specific objectives:

(1) To analyse gender differences in loneliness.

(2) To investigate the relationship between loneliness and the frustration of the need for autonomy.

(3) Identify the importance of the environment of origin on the satisfaction of the need to relate.

4.3. Research hypotheses
On the basis of the specific objectives we developed 3 hypotheses:

1. It is assumed that there are significant differences in loneliness by gender in the workplace.

2. It is presumed that there is a negative correlation between loneliness and frustration of the need for autonomy at work.

3. It is assumed that there are significant differences in the background and satisfaction of the need to relate at work.

4.4. Tools used

In order to achieve the objectives and hypotheses developed, the research involves the application of the following instruments: the Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration Scale - General Measure and the Workplace Loneliness Scale.

4.5. Study participants

The sample on which we applied the two instruments consists of 60 employed subjects and is non-probabilistically selected. They were divided by gender and background.

According to the structure diagram, 27 subjects with rural and 33 urban backgrounds resulted.

According to the structure diagram, 31 female and 29 male subjects were found.

4.6. Research design

In this research, we applied the tools mentioned above using the questionnaire survey method. The research design is descriptive, being longitudinal in time and having a number of subjects, and the data processing method is quantitative through statistical calculations. The resulting data were entered and analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (S.P.P.S.) software.

4.7. Ethical principles

The ethical aspects of the research were ensured by obtaining the consent of the subjects to participate in the study. This research complies with international ethical recommendations regarding absolute confidentiality of the data collected in the study as well as anonymity and safety of the participants. Respondents expressed their consent to use the overall research results in a scientific article. Withdrawal from the study could be done at any time by leaving the form.

5. Data analysis and interpretation
Hypothesis 1
I.1 It is assumed that there are significant gender differences in loneliness at work.

The first step to validate the first hypothesis is to check the distribution of scores using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test.

Table 5.1. Normality test of the distribution of loneliness and gender scores

Tests of Normality

	Gender	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Loneliness	Male	.133	29	.200*	.948	29	.160
	Female	.167	31	.027	.917	31	.019

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

In the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the result was Sig. with values of 0.200 for the male gender and 0.027 for the female gender. Since the significance threshold is not greater than 0.05 for both variables, a non-normal distribution results. The non-parametric method will be used for two independent samples.

Tables 5.2. Mann-Whitney U nonparametric test for loneliness and gender

Ranks

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Loneliness	Male	29	36.05	1045.50
	Female	31	25.31	784.50
	Total	60		

Test Statistics[a]

	Loneliness
Mann-Whitney U	288.500
Wilcoxon W	784.500
Z	-2.386
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.017

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

From the above table, where Sig (2-tailed) is less than 0.05, being 0.017, it appears that there are statistically significant differences between the loneliness scores of males and females.

The first hypothesis conceived was thus confirmed, meaning that there is a significant difference between loneliness at work experienced by women and men. The results also show that males (m=36.05) have a higher mean than females (m=25.31), meaning that men feel lonelier at work.

Psychological interpretation

The statistical analysis shows that male subjects feel lonelier at work than females. This can be explained by the fact that women are friendlier, more sociable and make friends more easily. Men, on the other hand, come with a desire to assert power that prevents them from having more open relationships with colleagues.

A study of 290 Chinese employees showed men feel lonely at work, but reported feeling less lonely and more supported as they advanced in their careers (Tiang G at all, 2021).

Although loneliness manifests itself in both genders, men in this sample do not find as much support at work, and those in leadership positions may feel that work, combined with responsibilities at home, has led to burnout.

Men may also experience loneliness more because they do not adjust to the environment and people at work. If there is a tense environment with colleagues who are constantly trying to prove something then there will be a tiring competition which will make them feel lonely at work instead of supported.

Hypothesis 2

I.2. It is assumed that there is a negative correlation between loneliness and the frustration of the need for autonomy at work.

The first step to validate the second hypothesis is to check the distribution of scores using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test.

Table 5.3. Normality test of the distribution of scores for loneliness and frustration of the need for autonomy

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Loneliness	.142	60	.004	.924	60	.001
Frustration_of_autonomy	.124	60	.022	.968	60	.119

In the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the result was Sig. with values of 0.004 for loneliness and 0.022 for frustration of the need for autonomy. Since the significance threshold is not greater than 0.05 for both variables, a non-normal distribution results. The non-parametric method for correlations will be used, namely Spearman.

Table 5.4. Calculation of Spearman correlation coefficient for loneliness and frustration of need for autonomy

Correlations

			Frustration_of_ autonomy	Loneliness
Spearman's rho	Frustration_of_autonomy	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.015
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.910
		N	60	60
	Loneliness	Correlation Coefficient	-.015	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.910	.
		N	60	60

According to Table 5.4, sig. has a value greater than 0.05, which means that there is no correlation between loneliness and the frustration of the need for autonomy.

The second hypothesis is not confirmed, as there is no correlation between loneliness and frustration with the need for autonomy.

Psychological interpretation

The statistical analysis shows that there is no correlation between loneliness and frustration of the need for autonomy, which means that the two variables are not influenced by each other. Loneliness at work comes from lack of support, lack of collegiality and harmony, while frustration of the need for autonomy comes from things that do not allow independent development at work and cause anxiety.

Autonomy is very important in the workplace because it provides security and self-confidence and when frustration arises from not achieving this, both internal and external conflicts arise.

Loneliness in the workplace is influenced by both the environment and the position one represents and this feeling becomes more intense as one moves up the workplace hierarchy.

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5.3. Hypothesis 3

I.3. It is assumed that there are significant differences in background and satisfaction of the need to relate at work.

The first step to validate the third hypothesis is to check the distribution of scores using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test.

Table 5.5. Normality test of the distribution of scores for background and satisfaction of relationship need

Tests of Normality

	Environment of origin	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Satisfaction_of_relationship_requirement	Urban	.175	33	.012	.943	33	.085
	Rural	.110	27	.200[*]	.962	27	.415

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

In the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the result was Sig. with values of 0.200 for rural and 0.012 for urban. Since the significance threshold is not greater than 0.05 for both variables, a non-normal distribution results. The non-parametric method will be used for two independent samples.

Tables 5.6. Mann-Whitney U nonparametric test for the source environment and satisfaction of relatedness requirement

Ranks

	Environment of origin	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	Urban	33	34.85	1150.00
Satisfaction_of_relationship_requirement	Rural	27	25.19	680.00
	Total	60		

Test Statistics[a]

	Satisfaction_of_relationship_requirement
Mann-Whitney U	302.000
Wilcoxon W	680.000
Z	-2.170
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.030

a. Grouping Variable: Mediul_de_provenienta

From the above table, where Sig (2-tailed) is less than 0.05, being 0.030, it appears that there are statistically significant differences between the scores of people from urban and rural backgrounds in terms of satisfaction of the need to relate.

The third hypothesis conceived was thus confirmed, meaning that there is a statistically significant difference between people from urban and rural backgrounds in terms of satisfaction of the need to relate. The results also show that people from urban backgrounds (m=34.85) have a higher mean than people from rural backgrounds (m=25.19), meaning that those from urban backgrounds have a higher satisfaction of the need for relationship at work.

Psychological interpretation

According to the statistical analysis it can be seen that urban people have a greater need to satisfy the need for relationship, which is very important at work. This may be due to the fact

that urban people may be more likely to be more open in relating to others due to the desire for affirmation.

A 2015 study conducted in the US on a sample of 635 people indicates that urban people socialize more easily in a larger group of people and relate more easily with co-workers (Carrie Henning at all, 2018).

From a psychological point of view, this can be explained by the fact that rural people are known as people who have a small and close-knit community but when interacting with new environments they are more reserved. This may be true for both rural and urban people.

Following all the steps taken, we can conclude that the objectives of the work have been achieved. Two of the formulated hypotheses proved to be valid because based on statistical analyzes we obtained results that confirm this.

Also, differences were identified between women and men in terms of loneliness at work, as well as between people from urban and rural backgrounds in terms of satisfying the need for relatedness. By doing this, an internal consistency is obtained because the work could be supported by other scientific research.

The first hypothesis shows the existence of a significant difference between women and men regarding loneliness at work, where men (m=36.05) scored higher than women, meaning that they feel more lonely at work ; the second hypothesis was not validated, which means that there is no correlation between loneliness and the frustration of the need for autonomy; the third one shows the existence of a significant difference between people from urban and rural backgrounds in terms of satisfying the need to relate, where those from the urban environment obtained a higher score (m=34.85), meaning that those from the urban environment have a greater satisfaction of the need to relate at work

Through the prism of the results obtained and the accumulated information it can be said that the validation of the hypotheses played a very important role in the construction of the paper because studies could be found to support the comparisons. So through the prism of these things we can understand the essential role of the theoretical elements presented by identifying the triggering factors at the workplace.

Finally, the frustration of the need for autonomy and loneliness on job satisfaction represent some concepts that have features of great complexity, being a subject of great interest in the field of work psychology, but also in the field of sociology. The importance given to them is outlined around the idea of analyzing how people integrate into the work environment, but also how they manage to cope with internal constraints.

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