Belongingness and Distinctiveness: The Compensating Effects of Personal Resources

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This research examines the relationships between the satisfaction of psychological needs (belongingness and distinctiveness) on affective and cognitive attitudes (job satisfaction and commitment). Specifically, this study evaluates how the satisfaction of one psychological need compensates for the lack of the other psychological need. Overall this study found that the satisfaction of one psychological need can, in certain circumstances, compensate for the lack of satisfaction of a different psychological need. Results and implications are presented through the JDR framework. This study offers an important extension of the JDR by incorporating personal resources as key predictors of job outcomes. Practical implications are discussed for EAP professionals/counselors.

Keywords: job demands-resource model, psychological needs, belongingness, distinctiveness, satisfaction, commitment

INTRODUCTION

All jobs present demands on employees. Whether it is facing a tight deadline, dealing with a frustrating coworker, or monotonous work, these demands can lead to a lack of engagement and burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). However, employees can utilize both work and personal resources to help cope with these demands. The Job-Demands Resource (JDR) model has been particularly useful to scholars seeking to understand the direct and indirect effects of both demands and resources on job attitudes (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Shaufli, 2001; Hakanen, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2005). However, despite an important theoretical role for *personal* demands and resources in the JDR, research to date has focused on the effects of *job-related* demands and resources. Thus, key tenets of JDR still need to be tested. This is surprising given that personal needs (i.e., demands) for such things as belongingness and distinctiveness and the satisfaction of these needs (i.e., resources) play such a pivotal role in understanding a person's well-being (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Lynn & Harris, 1997; Snyder & Fromkin, 1980), and consequently, likely have an effect on people's attitudes. This study examines the interactive effects of personal resources and personal demands on job attitudes of organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

The JDR framework separates job characteristics into demands and resources, which can be derived from the job or the person (Bakker & Demerouti, 2001; 2017). Job demands (e.g., high-pressure situations,

workload, dangerous workplace) are considered stressors and are associated with undesirable work outcomes (e.g., low motivation, burnout, and health concerns) when an employee lacks the resources needed to meet the demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job resources (e.g., supervisor support, schedule control, workload control) are beneficial to employees as they can mitigate the effects of job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Additionally, the JDR proposes that *personal* resources and demands also have direct and interactive effects on job attitudes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2001; 2017). Personal resources are "aspects of the self that are generally linked to resiliency and refer to an individual's sense of their ability to control and impact their environment successfully" (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, p. 124). Personal demands are defined as "the requirements that individuals set for their own performance and behavior that force them to invest effort in their work and are therefore associated with physical and psychological costs" (Barbier et al., 2013, p. 751). The present study extends the literature by considering the effects of the personal demand of psychological need strength and the resource of need satisfaction within the JDR framework. This study specifically addresses the role of the psychological needs of belongingness and distinctiveness within the JDR framework. The need for belongingness is defined as "the need to maintain or enhance feelings of closeness to, or acceptance by, other people" (Vignoles et al. 2008, p. 479). (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2017). The need for distinctiveness is defined as meaningful, personally ascribed differentiation from others (Lynn & Harris, 1997; Snyder & Fromkin, 1980). Both of these needs represent personal demands, and satisfaction of these needs represents personal resources.

Satisfaction of a need acts as a *personal resource*, whereas the strength of the need acts as a *personal demand*. Analogically, a sapling has a need for water as a basic nutriment. The sapling puts energy into growing its roots to satisfy this need. As the need is satisfied, the sapling shifts its effort into growing leaves to capture a different resource, the sun's rays. When a psychological need is satisfied, an individual is able to invest in the acquisition of other needs (Hobfoll, 2002). This is consistent with the JDR definition of a personal need that, once satisfied, fosters one's ability to act upon their environment (Baker & Demerouti, 2017); thus, the satisfaction of a need becomes a resource. Extending the analogy, different types of saplings will have different requirements for water. A Joshua tree growing in the desert will need less water than an oak tree. Similarly, need strength differs among individuals.

When psychological needs are not satisfied, it creates a dysphoric state (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Holt-Lunstad, Smith, & Layton, 2010). This is consistent with the JDR definition of a personal demand as the dysphoric state is associated with psychological costs and drives effort toward finding a remedy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2001; 2017). For example, Verhagen et al. found that psychological need strength for belongingness is an important predictor of depression and self-esteem (Verhagen, Lodder, Baumeister, 2018). Because the need for belongingness and distinctiveness differ in strength between individuals (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), it is important to consider both the strength and satisfaction of the needs for belongingness and distinctiveness as individual constructs.

The present study manifests this in two personal resource constructs and two personal demand constructs. Resources include satisfaction of the need for belongingness (SatNB), and satisfaction of the need for distinctiveness (SatND). Demands include belongingness need strength (BNStr), and distinctiveness, need strength (DNStr). Separating 'belongingness' and 'distinctiveness' by 'strength' and 'satisfaction' is important in the context of the JDR as the strength of the need is likely to operate as a demand and the satisfaction of the need is likely to operate as a resource. While we do not specifically evaluate the direct effects of BNStr and DNStr on job commitment and job satisfaction, we include these as important control variables.

Overall, this study contributes to the literature on the JDR by evaluating how high satisfaction of one psychological need compensates for low satisfaction of another need. More specifically, this study considers psychological need strength and satisfaction as related but distinct constructs. Need strength and need satisfaction are measured independently from each other. Need strength is conceptualized as a personal demand. Need satisfaction is conceptualized as a personal resource.

Belongingness and Distinctiveness

Scholars have long been fascinated with identifying basic psychological needs (e.g., Murray, 1938; Maslow, 1943, Sheldon, Elliott, Kim, & Kasser, 2001). As noted earlier, psychological needs are critical for an individual's continued "growth, integrity, and well-being" (p 229, Deci & Ryan, 2000). Although, the study of psychological needs largely fell out of favor when empirical research failed to confirm a needs hierarchy as famously proposed by Abraham Maslow (Wahbah & Bridwell, 1976; Sheldon & Bettencourt, 2002). More recently, scholars have again called on the psychological need constructs as a valuable way to understand human behavior (e.g., Brewer, 1991; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Antonides, 2015; Sheldon et al., 2001; Ryan & Deci, 2017). This finding is not surprising as psychological needs are useful predictors of behavior and attitudes (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Sheldon & Elliott, 1999; Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

The need for belongingness addresses the affective bond and connection one has with others and can occur within and across domains (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Distinctiveness refers to one's need to differentiate from others and can also be satisfied across domains (Vignoles et al., 2006). These needs are important for three reasons. First, both of these needs are not bound to a single domain. This means that they are present at work and outside of work. Consequently, these needs may be satisfied within and across life domains (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Snyder & Fromkin, 1985). This is important from the perspective of the JDR in that the need (i.e., demand) is personal rather than exclusively work-related. As noted earlier, this represents an important extension of the JDR beyond job demands.

Second, belongingness and distinctiveness satisfaction, irrespective of the domain, initiate a cognitive and affective process resulting in a positive self-concept (Avey, Luthans, Youssef, 2010). An increasingly satisfied need for distinctiveness or belongingness should result in a more crystalized sense of self. As one's self-concept improves, so should their resiliency, generating a belief that one can control and impact their environment. This is an important hallmark of a personal resource (Xanthoupoulou et al., 2007. p 124).

Third, once the need for belongingness and distinctiveness are understood, organizations can create targeted ways to improve the satisfaction of these needs. Because belongingness and distinctiveness are related to one's overall self-concept, an organization could develop ways to improve specific attitudes much the same way that targeting the organic needs of plants can improve thriving (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci et al., 2017; Jungert et al., 2018; Sheldon et al., 2001; Van den Broeck et al., 2016;). For example, an organization might sponsor a softball team to provide ways to satisfy the need for belongingness. Ultimately, to some degree, these needs are present across the entire population, and the satisfaction of these needs can be specifically targeted.

Psychological Needs and the JDR

Conceptually, psychological needs are the personal equivalent of job demands. Baumeister and Leary note that a psychological need will "have affective consequences, direct cognitive processing, affect behaviors and produce adverse impacts if not satisfied" (1995). The JDR notes that job resources and demands combine to trigger two separate psychological processes: a motivational process and a health impairment process (e.g., burnout) which each, in turn, affects behaviors (Albrecht, 2008; Bakker & Demerouti, 2001; 2007; 2017). These processes operate simultaneously and are identical to the processes stemming from psychological needs in two ways.

First, the JDR notes that job demand is motivational in that the strength of the demand generates affective responses (van Den Broeck & De Cuyper, 2010). More specifically, the JDR theorizes that an unsatisfied need results in a health impairment process (Bakker & Demerouti, 2001). For example, Crawford, Lepine, and Rich found through a meta-analysis that satisfied job demands are associated with lower levels of burnout (2010). Additionally, Schaufli, Bakker, and Van Rhenen found that increased job demands are associated with higher levels of burnout for telecom managers (2009). This process is identical to that which occurs when a psychological need is not satisfied. Previous research has shown that psychological need satisfaction is associated with lower levels of burnout from athletes (Curran et al., 2013; Hodge et al., 2008) to office workers (Hakanan et al., 2008; van Den Broeck et al., 2008), to teachers (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010).

Second, job demands direct cognitive processing. Van de Ven, Vlerick, and de Jong found that job demands are associated with lower levels of cognitive well-being (2008). This provides evidence for the link between job demands and the cognitive processing that occurs when demands are not satisfied. Specifically, this suggests that job demands activate a cognitive process that affects well-being. Psychological needs mirror this process. Psychological needs and job demands are so similar that Salanova et al. (2002) conceptualized the psychological need of self-efficacy as an explicit job demand and found that it is similarly associated with cognitive attitudes. This provides further evidence that psychological needs are most appropriately conceptualized as a demand.

We conceptualize the satisfaction of a psychological need as a resource. In a study looking specifically at the role of psychological needs within the JDR, Van den Broeck and colleagues found that psychological need satisfaction fully accounted for the relationship between job resources and exhaustion (2008). This suggests that, while psychological need satisfaction is distinct from job resources, it operates on the same underlying psychological mechanisms. Another study by De Cooman and colleagues found that high levels of psychological need satisfaction are associated with high levels of autonomous motivation and effort (2013). This mirrors the motivational and behavioral outcomes associated with job resources. This is important because it demonstrates that psychological need satisfaction and job resources operate based on the same underlying psychological processes. Consequently, as other scholars have noted, it is important to consider psychological needs, strength, and satisfaction as important personal demands and resources within the context of the JDR (Van den Broeck et al., 2008).

Compensating Effects of Psychological Need Satisfaction

The JDR "buffer" hypothesis notes that certain job demands are negatively related to attitudinal and motivational outcomes and that certain resources can reduce this negative relationship (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Tadic et al., 2014). However, not all demands are negatively related to attitudinal and motivational outcomes. For example, challenge stressors present positively valanced demands, whereas hindrance stressors present negatively valanced demands (Albrecht, 2015; Podsakoff et al., 2007; Van den Broeck & De Cuyper, 2010). It is not theorized that personal demands are inherently negatively or positively related to motivational and attitudinal outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Given the individual nature of psychological need strength, it is possible that need strength may be positively valanced for some individuals and negatively valanced for others. In the present study, given the multitude of competing factors, we do not hypothesize a main directional effect of psychological need strength on commitment and satisfaction.

Personal resources will have nothing to buffer if personal demands are not negatively related to motivational and attitudinal outcomes. However, a basic tenet of the JDR is that resources are positively associated with beneficial outcomes. As no studies have considered the personal resources of SatNB and SatND, it is important to understand how these two resources may interact and compensate for one another. Consequently, we offer an extension to JDR by proposing a compensatory effect of need satisfaction wherein the satisfaction of one need can offset or compensate for an unsatisfied need.

Psychological needs theories note that individuals are driven to satisfy the need for belongingness and distinctiveness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Leary et al., 2005, 2013; Snyder & Fromkin, 1980). As noted earlier, individuals differ with regard to the strength of the need for belongingness and distinctiveness. As the strength of a need increases, it follows that the personal demand one experiences becomes stronger.

The satisfaction of the need itself is considered a personal resource from a JDR perspective. This is particularly important when SatNB is high, SatND is low, or SatND is low, and SatND is high. An individual may feel a great deal of connection with others at work while at the same time feeling very little distinction from their colleagues. For example, an employee in a factory setting may be connected to their colleagues and have a great deal of belongingness. That employee may work on a factory line and do the same job functions as many of their colleagues, resulting in a very low level of distinctiveness. Alternatively, an individual working in an office setting, such as a graphic designer, could feel disconnected

from their colleagues and have very little SatNB. At the same time, that individual may be the only graphic designer in their organization and have a high degree of SatND.

Previous scholars have demonstrated that the particular balance of need satisfaction is a potentially important consideration (Dysvik et al., 2013; Milyavskaya et al., 2009; Sheldon & Niemiec, 2006). Balance refers to an equivalent degree of need satisfaction for two or more needs. This research has largely considered the imbalance of psychological needs (i.e. (when one need is high and another need is low) as a focal predictor of various outcomes without addressing the direction of the imbalance. However, looking at the specific combination of need satisfaction may be more instructive. Previous research suggests that in the absence of a specific resource, individuals will rely on another resource to compensate for the deficiency (Hobfoll et al., 1990). For example, consider a blind individual, the lack of the resource of sight induces greater reliance on sound. The same is likely to be true of psychological needs. When the satisfaction of one need is low, a high degree of need satisfaction for a different need will likely have compensatory effects. From the perspective of the JDR, the presence of one personal resource should compensate for the lack of a different personal resource while controlling for the need strength (see Figure 4).

H1: *Satisfaction of the need for distinctiveness compensates for a low level of belongingness satisfaction such that the relationship between satisfaction of the need for distinctiveness and a) affective job satisfaction and b) affective commitment is strongest for individuals with low (vs. high) levels of satisfaction of the need for belongingness.*

H2: *Satisfaction of the need for belongingness compensates for the low level of distinctiveness satisfaction such that the relationship between satisfaction of the need for belongingness and a) cognitive job satisfaction and b) cognitive commitment is strongest for individuals with low (vs. high) levels of satisfaction of the need for distinctiveness.*

METHODS

Data were collected from 472 alumni of a regional college in the mid-Atlantic United States. The average respondent was employed in a full-time job (84%), married (68%), female (67%), between 35 and 44 years old, with an average salary between $60,000 - $70,000 per year.

Belongingness need strength was measured using a previously validated scale (sample items: *I have a strong need to belong, I need to feel that there are people I can turn to in times of need)* (Leary et al., 2005). Distinctiveness need strength was measured using a measure from Lynn & Harris (sample items: *I have a need for uniqueness; Being distinctive is important to me*) (1995). Belongingness satisfaction was measured the general belongingness scale (sample items: *I am satisfied with my overall sense of belonging; I am satisfied with how connected I feel to other people in my life*) (Malone et al., 2012). Distinctiveness satisfaction was measured using the scale from Simcek and Yalencetin (sample items: *Overall in my life I am satisfied with how unique I feel; I am satisfied with how distinct I am from other people in my life)* (2010).

Dependent variables were similarly measured using previously validated scales. Affective job satisfaction and cognitive job satisfaction was measured using a scale from Schleicher et al. (sample items: affective - *I feel that I am happier in my work than most people;* cognitive - *I am satisfied with my pay and the amount of work I do*) (2004). Affective commitment and continuance commitment were measured using a scale from Allen & Meyer (sample items: affective – *This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me;* continuance – *It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to*) (1990). Alphas for all measures ranged from .80 (continuance commitment) and .93 (affective job satisfaction). A correlation table for all latent variables is provided in Table 1.

TABLE 1
CORRELATION TABLE FOR ALL VARIABLES

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Belongingness Need Strength	3.31	0.63	1												
2. Belongingness Satisfaction	4.15	0.72	-0.086	1											
3. Distinctiveness Need Strength	2.55	0.76	-0.047	-.030	1										
4. Distinctiveness Satisfaction	4.12	0.67	-.167**	.496**	.254**	1									
5. Affective Job Satisfaction	3.87	0.83	-.126**	.339**	-.134	.276**	1								
6. Affective Commitment	3.98	1.17	.000	.306**	-.082	.272**	.691**	1							
7. Cognitive Job Satisfaction	3.91	0.78	.002	.295**	-.188**	.216**	.700**	.655**	1						
8. Continuance Commitment	3.16	0.9	.047	-.147**	.115*	-.043	-.187**	-.088	-.136*	1					
9. Gender	1.67	0.48	.281**	.008	-.059	.023	-.103	-.108*	-.105	.070	1				
10. Age	3.90	1.3	-.254**	.073	-.127*	-.017	.208**	.230**	.077	.025	-.182**	1			
11. Education Level	5.54	0.66	-.030	.142**	.020	.091	.143**	.154**	.157**	.062	-.100	.181**	1		
12. Family Status	2.43	0.933	-.084	.090	-.120*	-.018	.169**	.141**	.103	-.043	-.186**	.339**	.128*1		
13. Weekly work hours	42.57	12.08	-.097	.057	.095	.083	.002	.086	-.012	.087	-.165**	.040	.255*-.130*	1	
14. Salary	6.37	2.89	-.273**	.120*	-.071	.095	.159**	.192**	.226**	-.030	-.397**	.276**	.241**	.119*	.342**

Note. N ranges from 337-340. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Results

Hypothesis one predicted that SatND compensates for a low level of SatNB on a) affective job satisfaction and b) affective commitment. Results indicated a significant interaction effect between SatND and SatNB on both affective job satisfaction ($R^2 = .04$, $F(1,317)=16.45$, $p < .001$) and affective commitment ($R^2 = .02$, $F(1,317)=7.66$, $p < .01$) (Table 2 and 3). Probing these results found that the effect of SatND was positive and significant at high, but not low, levels of SatNB for both affective job satisfaction and affective commitment (see Figures 2 and 3). This suggests that SatND compensates for low levels of SatNB on affective job satisfaction and commitment providing support for hypothesis one.

TABLE 2
REGRESSION RESULSTS FOR THE INTERATION OF SATNB AND SATND ON AFFECTIVE JOB STATISFACTION

Predictor	B	SE B	95% CI	
SatNB	0.21**	0.07	0.08	0.34
SatND	0.27***	0.07	0.13	0.42
SatNB X SatND	-0.27***	0.07	-0.41	-0.14
Gender	-0.12	0.1	-0.31	0.06
Age	0.08*	0.04	0.01	0.15
Education Level	0.11	0.06	-0.02	0.23
Family Status	0.05	0.05	-0.04	0.14
Working hours	0	0.01	-0.01	0.01

Predictor	B	SE B	95% CI	
Salary	0	0.02	-0.03	0.04
DNStr	0.04	0.07	-0.09	0.17
BNStr	-0.17**	0.05	-0.27	-0.07

Model	*R*	*Change in R^2*	*F(df)*
Entire model	0.53	0.29	11.50 (11, 317)***
SatNB X SatND	--	0.04	16.45(1, 318)*

Note. [a] p<=.10; *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; SatNB = Belongingness Satisfaction; SatND = Distinctiveness Satisfaction; DNStr= Distinctiveness Need Strength; BNStr = Belongingness Need Strength; N=328.

FIGURE 1
INTERACTION OF SATNB AND SATND ON AFFECTIVE JOB SATISFACTION

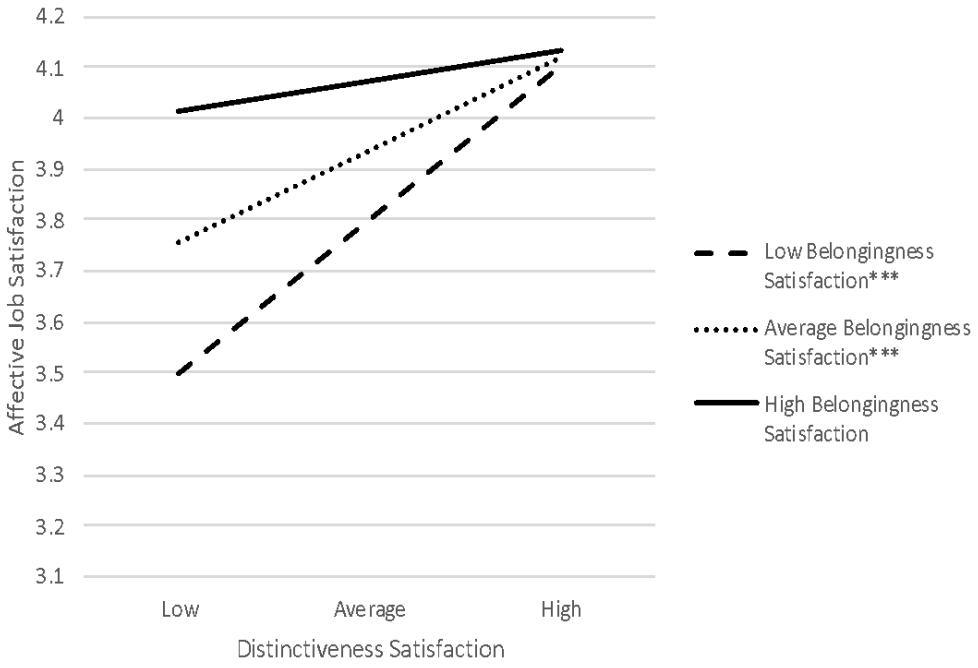


TABLE 3
REGRESSION REULTS FOR THE INTERACTION OF SATNB AND SATND ON AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

Predictor	B	SE B	
SatNB	0.21*	0.10	0.01
SatND	0.40***	0.11	0.19
SatNB X SatND	-0.27**	0.10	-0.47
Gender	-0.20	0.14	-0.47
Age	0.18***	0.05	0.07
Education Level	0.13	0.09	-0.05
Family Status	0.04	0.07	-0.10
Working hours	0.01	0.01	-0.01
Salary	0.02	0.02	-0.03
DNStr	0.30**	0.10	0.11
BNStr	-0.16*	0.08	-0.31
Model	*R*	*Change in R^2*	*F(df)*
Entire model	0.49	0.24	9.04(11,317)***
SatNB X SatND	--	0.02	7.67(1,317)**

Note. [a] p<=.10; *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; SatNB = Belongingness Satisfaction; SatND = Distinctiveness Satisfaction; DNStr= Distinctiveness Need Strength; BNStr = Belongingness Need Strength; N=328.

Hypothesis two predicted that SatNB compensates for low levels of SatND on a) cognitive job satisfaction and b) continuance commitment. Results were significant for interaction effects between SatNB and SatND on cognitive job satisfaction (R^2 = .01, F(1,317)=4.63, p < .05) (Table 4). Probing these results showed that the effect of SatNB on cognitive job satisfaction was positive and significant at low (but not high) levels of SatND (Figure 4). Results also indicated a marginally significant interaction between SatNB and SatND on continuance commitment (R^2 = .01, F(1,316)=2.75, p < .10) (Table 5). However, probing this result found that the effect of SatNB was significant and negative at high levels of SatND but not significant at low levels of SatND (Figure 5). Both the direction and moderating effect were not as expected. Overall results provide partial support for hypothesis two.

FIGURE 2
INTERACTION OF SATNB AND SATND ON AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT

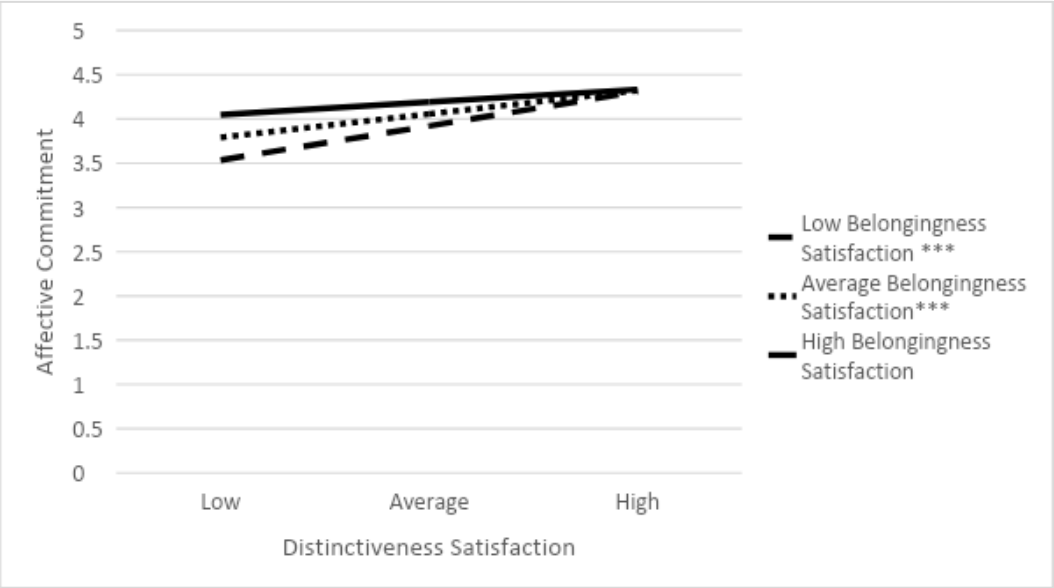


TABLE 4
REGRESSION RESULTS FOR THE INTERACTION OF SATNB AND SATND ON COGNITIVE JOB SATISFACTION

Predictor	B	SE B	95% CI	
SatNB	0.20**	0.07	0.07	0.33
SatND	0.25***	0.07	0.11	0.39
SatNB X SatND	-0.14*	0.07	-0.27	-0.01
Gender	-0.15	0.09	-0.33	0.04
Age	0.00	0.03	-0.07	0.06
Education Level	0.13*	0.06	0.01	0.25
Family Status	0.00	0.05	-0.09	0.09
Working hours	-0.01*	0.00	-0.02	0.00
Salary	0.05**	0.02	0.02	0.08
DNStr	0.15*	0.06	0.03	0.28
BNStr	-0.20***	0.05	-0.30	-0.10

Model	*R*	*Change in R^2*	*F(df)*
Entire model	0.50	0.25	9.84 (11, 317)***
SatNB X SatND	--	0.01	4.63(1,317)**

Note. [a] p<=.10; *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; SatNB = Belongingness Satisfaction; SatND = Distinctiveness Satisfaction; DNStr= Distinctiveness Need Strength; BNStr = Belongingness Need Strength; N=328.

FIGURE 3
INTERACTION OF BELONGINGNESS SATISFACTION AND DISTINCTIVENESS SATISFACTION ON COGNITIVE JOB SATISFACTION

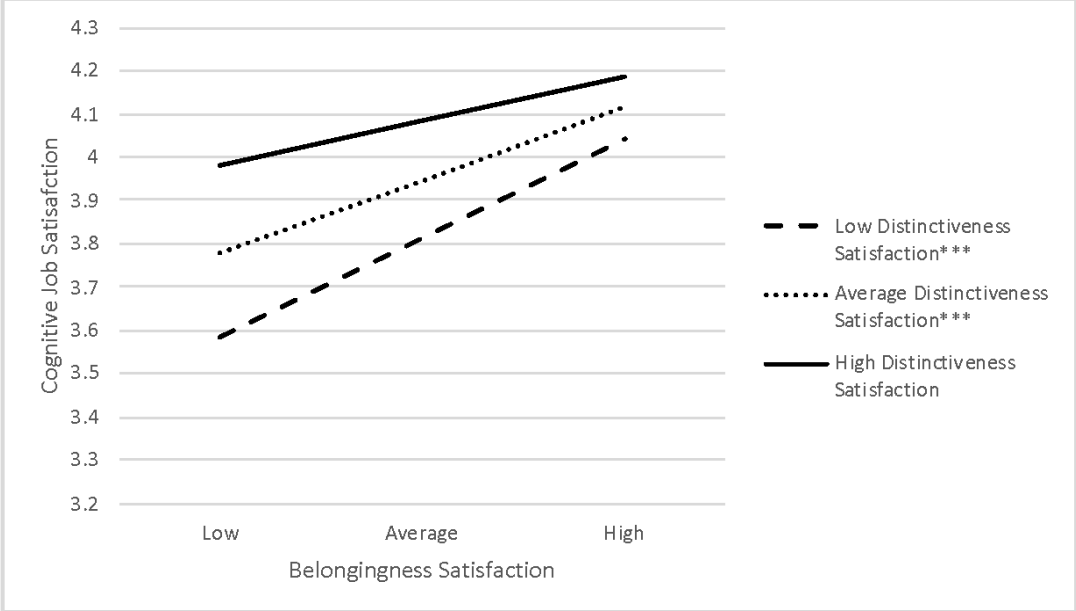


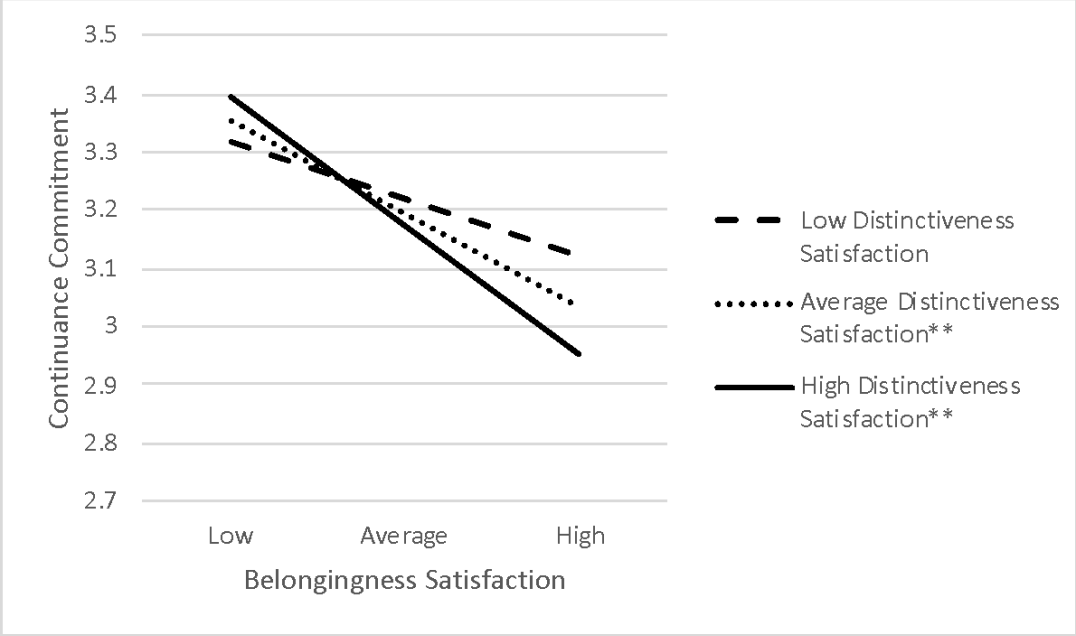
TABLE 5
REGRESSION RESULTS FOR THE INTERACTION OF BELONGINGNESS SATISFACTION AND DISTINCTIVENESS SATISFACTION ON CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT

Predictor	B	SE B	95% CI	
SatNB	-0.24**	0.09	-0.40	-0.07
SatND	-0.03	0.09	-0.22	0.15
SatNB X SatND	-0.14[a]	0.09	-0.31	0.03
Gender	0.17	0.12	-0.06	0.41
Age	0.05	0.05	-0.03	0.14
Education Level	0.09	0.08	-0.07	0.25
Family Status	0.00	0.06	-0.11	0.12
Working hours	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.02

Salary	-0.01	0.02	-0.05	0.03
DNStr	0.02	0.08	-0.15	0.18
BNStr	0.12[a]	0.07	-0.01	0.25
Model	*R*	*Change in R^2*		*F(df)*
Entire model	0.25	0.06		1.85(11,316)*
SatNB X SatND	--	0.01		2.75(1,316)[a]

Note. [a] p<=.10; *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; SatNB = Belongingness Satisfaction; SatND = Distinctiveness Satisfaction; DNStr= Distinctiveness Need Strength; BNStr = Belongingness Need Strength; N=328.

FIGURE 4
INTERACTION OF BLONGINGNESS SATISFACTION AND DISTINCTIVENESS SATISFACTION CONTUANCE COMMITMENT



DISCUSSION

Overall, the results indicated that a high level of belongingness satisfaction or distinctiveness satisfaction can compensate for a low level of the other. This suggests that the importance of satisfying both needs may not be as critical as expected in affective job satisfaction and commitment. Taken as a whole, this study has important theoretical implications for the JDR.

Hypothesis one and two suggested that a high level of either of the personal resources of SatNB or SatND can compensate for a low level of the other for affective job satisfaction, cognitive job satisfaction, affective commitment, and continuance commitment. The pattern of results indicated overall that a high level of SatNB did compensate for a low-level of SatND. As predicted, the compensation effect was positive for affective and cognitive job satisfaction and affective commitment. However, the compensation effect was negative for continuance commitment. This has three important implications. First, at a basic level

suggests that the high satisfaction of either belongingness or distinctiveness may foster resiliency and, in turn, improve affective and cognitive job satisfaction and commitment. This is important as it suggests that the presence of either personal resource of SatNB or SatND offers significant attitudinal improvements on the job. Second, not all personal resources operate as proposed by the JDR. JDR notes that resources are directly related to various job attitudes and that an increase in any resource will have a beneficial effect (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). However, SatNB has a significant negative effect on continuance commitment at average to high levels of SatND. Similar to the results of hypothesis one, this suggests that a personal resource may operate differently than a personal demand. This is important as it indicates that the type of resource is an important consideration from the perspective of the JDR.

Third, acquiring personal resources creates a situation where an individual is free to act in their self-interest. The JDR is attractive as it provides a parsimonious way to understand the factors that may lead to engagement or burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2001;2017; Tadic et al., 2015). This works very well when considering just job resources and demands, as there is a basic assumption that an individual has some baseline motivation to complete a job. The JDR is predicated on the notion that when possible (i.e., the right resources are present to meet the demands), an individual will engage in the specific job activity as it is in their self-interest. Presumably, an individual wants to complete the job so that they can earn money so that they can buy food…etc. In fact, nearly all theories of behavior in social and organizational psychology operate from this same premise (Meglino et al., 1999). However, personal resources may provide an individual with a more fundamental evaluation of their options. As noted earlier, SatNB may provide an individual with the security and support they need to make a career or job change and thus reduce their continuance commitment.

This represents an important change to the way the JDR theorizes about the role of personal resources and personal demands. Additional research is needed to explore and validate the potentially unique effects of personal demands and resources within the framework of the JDR. The present study does not address the potential boosting or buffering effects present between a job resource and a personal demand or a personal resource and a job demand. Additionally, the present study has some important limitations. Namely, we did not include any explicit job demands or job resources. While this is a clear limitation and does not allow a full or even partial evaluation of the propositions set out by Bakker and Demerouti, this study is an important incremental step forward in assessing the theorized role of personal demands and resources (2017).

The work/non-work conflict literature offers one particularly ripe area for exploring the effects of personal and job resources and demands from the perspective of the JDR. There are positive and negative interference effects across domains (e.g., Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Existing research in this area has addressed the role of various resources. For example, Grandey and Cropanzano evaluated the relationship between work and family stressors (i.e., demands) and various outcomes across domains (1999). Applying the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), they found that the role of self-esteem (i.e., personal resource) did not significantly moderate the relationship. Additionally, research in this area has also already begun to look at explicit domain-spanning demands. For example, recent research has found that the demand of workload predicts work-family conflict leading to lower levels of life satisfaction but that the job resource of supervisor support buffers this effect by negatively moderating the relationship (Goh et al., 2015). Other research has found that daily job satisfaction (i.e., work resource) affects daily marital satisfaction (i.e., personal resource), suggesting that a boosting effect might be present (Ilies et al. 2009). However, relatively few studies in this area have explicitly employed the JDR framework to address personal resources and demands. Building on this present study, future research could further explore the effect of personal resources garnered outside of the workplace on important JDR outcomes.

This study also has important practical implications for managers, EAP counselors, and psychologists and how they respond to employees. First, the results suggest that SatNB and SatND have important main effects on various job attitudes. This is important as it provides one possible explanation for why employees are dissatisfied or lack commitment to the job, which may allow the manager to address these needs.

Finally, the overall results of this study have practical implications for employees' well-being as EAP professionals and psychologists help them to understand their unique combination of need strength and

satisfaction. Recently, counseling psychology has focused on developing a growth mindset and the positive aspects of vulnerability (e.g., Brown, 2017; Dweck, 2015). When framed through these two trends in counseling psychology, the results of this study suggest that an unmet need is simply an individual difference and can change over time. A professional's guidance may allow the individual to proactively seek out other opportunities to satisfy unmet needs and improve their overall well-being – a fundamental goal of the JDR. Practitioners may find the results of this study useful as the workplace continues to adjust to the new normal after the COVID-19 pandemic and as a response to newer trends such as "quiet-quitting."

Despite the implications of this study, there are some important limitations. First, we cannot draw clear causal relationships as this study did not experimentally manipulate any factor and cannot establish temporal precedence, a primary goal of empirical research (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). A further limitation of this study is the relatively small effect sizes. While a significant result provides a degree of confidence about the presence of an effect, the small effect sizes of the significant results may be simply due to chance. An additional limitation of this study is that access to potentially important explanatory variables was limited. Specifically, many variables beyond the strength and satisfaction of psychological needs could play a role in the measured outcomes. For example, many personality traits, such as positive affectivity/negative affectivity could provide similar results. Additional research is needed to validate and address the numerous limitations.

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