

DIFFERENCES IN THE SATISFACTION AND FRUSTRATION OF BASIC NEEDS BASED ON EMPLOYMENT STATUS

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Abstract. *Although research on the benefits or constraints of working while studying began several decades ago, the differences in employment (student/work) groups are still under-researched. This study is based on the presumption that student/work status creates different possibilities for the satisfaction or frustration of the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. It aims to explore differences in basic needs, satisfaction, and frustration in different employment groups (whether a person is only working, only studying, working and studying, or not working and not studying). It is hypothesized that the four student/work status groups differ regarding the satisfaction and frustration of basic needs. The study sample included 286 participants from the youth age group, according to the World Health Organization's 2015 updated age classification standards. Respondents were aged 18 to 44 years, with a mean age of 28.7 years ($SD = 6.963$); 52.1% of respondents ($n = 149$) were solely employed, 12.9% solely studied ($n = 37$), 16.8% both worked and studied ($n = 48$), and 18.2% neither worked nor studied ($n = 52$); 41.3% of respondents were male ($n = 118$) and 58.7% were female ($n = 168$). This study applied a Lithuanian-translated version of The Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction & Frustration Scale (BPNSFS), which assesses the satisfaction and frustration of the needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. This study partially confirmed the hypothesis that the satisfaction and frustration of basic psychological needs differ depending on a person's employment (student/work) status. This research also demonstrated a statistically significant difference in the frustration of the need for autonomy between the respondents solely studying and solely working, and between those not working and not studying. Data on the satisfaction and frustration of relatedness and competence did not differ significantly between the employment (student/work) status groups. However, due to the limitations implied by the relatively small and non-representative sample size, these findings should be regarded with concern and should be researched further. This study is important as it adds value to the knowledge of factors in students' quality of life, which are important for public policy related to higher education and employment.*

Keywords: *employment, basic needs, satisfaction, frustration.*

Reikšminiai žodžiai: *užimtumas, baziniai poreikiai, patenkinimas, frustracija.*

1. Introduction

Work status (full-time, part-time, unemployed) indicates the amount of time and responsibilities related to a certain job position (Frasquilho et al. 2016). Whether a person is a bachelor's- or a master's-level student, student status implies a certain amount of time spent participating in lectures and seminars, reading special literature, and working on assignments. In Lithuania, master's-level studies are mostly organized so that the students can combine working and studying, and full-time work while studying is allowed. However, some of the world's best universities apply strict student work regulations. For example, Oxford University has established that "it is a criminal offense with serious penalties to work more hours than permitted," and "student visa holders are not allowed to be self-employed or fill a full-time, permanent vacancy" (<https://www.ox.ac.uk/students>).

Research on the benefits or constraints of working while studying started several decades ago. In 1989, based on previous research demonstrating that financial concerns and work roles affect students' experiences of stress, Koeske and Koeske (1989) conducted one of the first studies examining differences in the emotional states of working and non-working students. Their study aimed to identify differences in life roles and responsibilities, external support, and emotional well-being between working and non-working students. Three groups were compared: non-working full-time students, part-time working full-time students, and full-time working part-time students. Although the second group had more responsibilities and roles than the third group, the results revealed that both full-time and part-time working full-time students experienced the highest levels of stress and accompanying symptoms. Interestingly, the results also revealed that social support helped students to cope with stress and its symptoms.

Several studies have reported that stress-related mental health problems are particularly prevalent among students, and constant psychosocial stress strongly impacts students' emotional and physical condition (Hulla 2021; Shin 2015). Using the Depression, Anxiety, Stress Scale (DASS-21), Mahmoud, Staten, Hall, and Lennie (2012) found that 29% of students experienced increased levels of depression, 27% experienced increased anxiety, and 24% experienced excessive stress. Increased mental health problems were also reported in data collected by the American College Health Association (2019), which showed that 26% of undergraduate students had experienced symptoms of depression in the past 30 days. Moreover, students reported that it was difficult to perform simple daily activities, and 43% had experienced severe anxiety over the same period.

Entering high school is often associated with fundamental changes in existing relationships, the social environment, and place of residence – as a result, it causes stress, anxiety, and loss of security. This rather abrupt transition to a new stage of life is characterized by a rapid decline in psychological well-being and a marked increase in psychological stress and emotional vulnerability (Conley et al. 2014). A study conducted by Conley, Kirsch, Dickson, and Bryant (2014) analyzed students' well-being one week before they began their studies and at the end of the first-year semester. The study revealed that negative changes in students' emotional well-being usually linger for months. The researchers also found that women experience an additional increase in psychological stress immediately after entering a new high school. At the same time, men show decreased levels of social well-being, impaired cognitive functions, and increased emotional vulnerability.

The authors concluded that there is a need to create as many easily accessible services as possible for students to increase their psychological and physical well-being during this difficult adaptation to independent living.

Alongside these services, another important aspect of diminishing stress and helping students meet their psychological needs is a sense of belonging to family, friends, a social group, or a community. According to a study by Baumeister and Leary (1995) and the Need to Belong Theory, people are motivated to have stable and positive relationships with other people (Baumeister et al. 1995). A study by Williamson, Thomas, Eisenberger, and Stanton (2018) revealed that a lack of social connections or a clear sense of social exclusion exacerbates an experienced sense of anxiety (Williamson et al., 2018). Furthermore, a study by Raymond and Sheppard (2017) found that the symptoms and consequences of mental health disorders, including depression, loneliness, and anxiety regarding social situations, are greatly reduced when students feel a sense of belonging. This need to belong is particularly expressed among students, and appears to perform a protective function (Raymond and Sheppard 2017). These study results also revealed that mentoring programs implemented by third-year undergraduate students for first-year students reduced their stress levels and increased their sense of belonging and self-efficacy. The study's authors emphasize that mentors play an important role in students' lives.

Numerous studies have also demonstrated that a sense of community and belonging, which relates to social support, is also associated with students' quality of life. Alsubaie, Stain, Webster, and Wadman (2019) surveyed students by asking them to complete the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9), the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MPSS), and the Quality of Life Questionnaire (WHOQOL-BREF). The results revealed that 33 percent of students experience depressive symptoms. No statistically significant associations were found between working and non-working students and depression. The social and emotional support of family, friends, and life partners statistically significantly predicted depressive symptoms. The quality of life of the student groups differed significantly in subscales of psychological well-being and social relations. The group without depressive symptoms had the highest social support scores in all subscales (family, friends, and life partners). Statistically significant differences were observed from mild to moderate and moderate to severe depression groups. The results of the correlation analysis of this study revealed a statistically significant negative correlation between all social support subscales and depressive symptoms and between the two domains of quality of life (psychological well-being and social relationships) and depressive symptoms. A strong positive correlation was also found between social support subscales and quality of life. The social relations subscale, indicating significant social support from family and friends, predicted quality of life (Alsubaie et al. 2019).

Research by Alsubaie and others (2019) indicates that student well-being is closely related to the support of family and peers and the expectations that they create for the student. Although family love and psychological support are important for a person's happiness and life satisfaction, this influence begins to weaken upon entering higher education (Alsubaie et al. 2019). Peer support becomes a more important and influential decision-making factor for high school students than family. Nevertheless, peer support and influence factors provoke other problems, increasing alcohol and drug use (Abikoye et al. 2014) and concerns about personal appearance, which may lead to eating disorders (Webb and Zimmer-Gembeck 2013).

Some research has shown how severely first-year students change their behavior when entering a university or college environment. They have to adapt fairly quickly to new responsibilities and independence and partly withdraw from their safe social circle of family and friends,

with whom it becomes more difficult to communicate daily because they are studying or staying elsewhere. Adding work to all of these challenges of development and adaptation, which for some students may not be a choice but a necessity because their parents cannot afford to pay their bills, increases the relatively high levels of stress that they feel (Hulla 2021). For example, in the United States, students often travel hundreds or even thousands of miles from their native homes to study in a dream college, but studies, textbooks, and living have such high costs that the vast majority must work at least part-time. Due to both working and studying, some students do not meet all their psychological needs, especially connectedness. They do not have time to meet and make new friends, communicate with family, discover new things, play sports, and otherwise enjoy life. U.S. researchers call students' poor psychological well-being a pandemic and a national crisis (American College Health Association, 2019).

Interestingly, a study conducted by Levecque et al. (2017) revealed that one in two doctoral students experience psychological stress, with one in three at extremely high risk of anxiety, depression, and insomnia. Although undergraduate students experience much stress, this study revealed that doctoral students experience even more, and have an even higher risk of developing psychological disorders.

As high student stress levels might indicate frustrated psychological needs and diminished quality of life, the constituents of students' quality of life have been researched since the early 1990s. Bean and Bradley (1986), in one of the first studies on students' psychological well-being, described the term as "a pleasant emotional state arising from a well-performed student role." Another author, Frish (2000), described the term as "a subjective assessment of how strongly one's most important needs, goals, and desires were met and realized." The World Health Organization (2016) describes the term even more broadly: "A person's self-perception in the social systems in which a person lives according to his or her goals, expectations, values, standards, and interests."

Interestingly, research suggests a strong, statistically significant association between quality of life and life skills. In other words, increasing students' awareness of life skills improves their quality of life (Cronin et al. 2019). By having enough knowledge of life skills and using that knowledge in everyday life, people can effectively solve problems as soon as they face them. This gives confidence in themselves, their strengths, and skills, and improves the vision of a person's life and anticipated goals. Because life skills are in effect constantly repeated over time and inadvertently adapted to new situations, they help improve relationships with the environment and with people, which ultimately leads to high levels of self-efficacy and life satisfaction (Cronin et al. 2019).

The theory of self-determination is one of the most comprehensive theories in this regard, covering an extremely wide and empirically-based spectrum of human behavior and personal growth, motivation, and psychological needs (Ryan and Deci 2017). This theory explores how biological, social, and cultural factors enhance or weaken a person's innate ability to cultivate their psychological and physical well-being, both in general and in specific areas and activities (Ryan and Deci 2017). Self-determination theory examines a person's ability to develop awareness and self-reflection skills, including understanding basic needs, values, and goals, and a distinction between independence and subordination. This ability to raise awareness is directly related to effective self-regulation (Ryan and Deci 2017). Self-determination is strongly influenced by social connections, environmental conditions, and factors that promote or hinder personal prosperity and the satisfaction of basic psychological needs, a sense of community, and the need for independence (Ryan and Deci 2017). Although this theory is psychological, research has also revealed the biological underpinnings of these psychological processes, so the need for motivation and satisfaction

explained by self-determination theory correlates well with the theories of human nature posed by evolutionary psychology (Ryan and Deci 2017).

Ryan and Deci (2017) argued that some features of adaptive human nature also make people vulnerable when they find themselves in an environment where the satisfaction of basic needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) is lacking. Overly stressful, controlling, rejecting, critical, negative, or otherwise disruptive social environments hinder the satisfaction of basic psychological needs. Dissatisfaction or frustration, in turn, can lead to various problems, such as the development of certain defensive or compensatory strategies. Thus, people might become more focused on themselves or more likely to behave defensively, aggressively, or antisocially, losing motivation to work, study, and self-express (Ryan and Deci 2017). Thus, the active growth and development of the personality require specific “nutrients” obtained from the social environment. When they are sufficient, effective self-regulation develops, allowing the control of emerging desires, emotions, and impulses. Conversely, if needs are unsatisfied, personality starves, and fragmentation rather than personality integration may occur (Ryan and Deci 2017; Ryan, Deci and Vansteenkiste 2016).

This study was based on the presumption that student/work status creates different environments for the satisfaction or frustration of the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. We aimed to explore differences in the satisfaction and frustration of basic needs in different employment groups (whether a person is only working, only studying, working and studying, or not working and not studying). We hypothesized that the four student/work status groups would differ regarding the satisfaction and frustration of basic needs. This study is important as it adds value to knowledge of the factors of students’ quality of life, which are important for public policy related to higher education and employment.

2. Methods

2.1. Sample

This study is part of a larger project on psychological well-being. It included 286 participants and applied a convenient sample design. In this sample, 41.3% of respondents were males ($n = 118$) and 58.7% were females ($n = 168$). The target group in this study was young people, including those studying, not studying, working, and not working. Thus, according to the World Health Organization’s 2015 updated age classification standards, we have selected the youth age group. Respondents were aged 18 to 44 years, with a mean age of 28.7 years ($SD = 6.963$); 52.1% of respondents ($n = 149$) were solely employed, 12.9% were solely studying ($n = 37$), 16.8% were both working and studying ($n = 48$), and 18.2% were neither working nor studying ($n = 52$). The study involved former and current students from various study programs, with the most common study fields being technology (36.4%) and social sciences (35.7%). Fifty-nine participants rated their academic achievements as very good, 129 as good, 80 as average, 17 as poor, and one participant rated their achievements as very poor.

All respondents were informed about the study and provided their consent to participate in the research. Participation in the study was voluntary, and the participants did not receive any compensation. The procedure was administered online at <https://www.psytest.online>, and followed the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) guidelines and the Declaration of Helsinki. The Institutional Review Board approved the study at the Institute of Management and Psychology.

2.2. Instruments

This article presents only some of the data that the authors collected. This study applied a Lithuanian-translated version of The Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction & Frustration Scale (BPNSFS), which assesses the satisfaction or frustration of psychological needs (Chen et al. 2015). It is a scale of 24 statements that assess the satisfaction of the needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, or the frustration of these needs arising from their non-satisfaction. Participants rated each statement on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”). The Cronbach’s alpha for the BPNSFS in this study was 0.93.

The Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction and Frustration Scale has six subscales. The autonomy satisfaction subscale consists of 4 statements, such as: “I feel that my decisions reflect what I really want”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this subscale in this study was 0.79. The autonomy frustration subscale consists of 4 statements, such as: “I feel compelled to do many things I would not want to do”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this subscale in this study was 0.81. The relatedness satisfaction subscale consists of 4 statements, for example: “I feel that the people I care about also care about me”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this subscale in this study was 0.86. The relatedness frustration subscale consists of 4 statements, for example: “I feel separated from the group I want to belong to”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this subscale in this study was 0.81. The competence satisfaction subscale consists of 4 statements, for example: “I feel confident that I can do the job well”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this subscale in this study was 0.85. The competence frustration subscale consists of 4 statements, for example: “I have serious doubts about whether I can do the job well”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this subscale in this study was 0.85.

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the Basic Psychological Needs and Frustration Scale demonstrated a good model fit: $\chi^2 = 373.25$; $df = 237$; $p < 0.001$; CFI = 0.99; SRMR = 0.05; RMSEA = 0.045. The data distribution met the criteria for normality (George and Mallery 2019), as skewness ranged from -1.12 to 0.89, and kurtosis ranged from -0.71 to 1.13. We used SPSS v.26.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA) and JASP v. 0.14.1.0 (University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) for data analysis.

3. Results

The descriptive statistics, means, standard deviations, and correlations between subscales in The Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction & Frustration Scale (BPNSFS) in this study are reported in Table 1.

Table 1. The means, standard deviations, and correlations between subscales of The Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction & Frustration Scale (BPNSFS)

| Needs | M | SD | S | K | Pearson's | | | | | |
|-----------------------|------|------|-------|------|-----------|---|---|---|---|--|
| | | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | |
| Autonomy satisfaction | 3.47 | 0.79 | -0.51 | 0.31 | — | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|------|------|-------|-------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Autonomy frustration | 2.59 | 0.84 | 0.29 | -0.43 | -0.52*** | — | | | |
| Relatedness satisfaction | 4.04 | 0.73 | -1.12 | 1.13 | 0.46*** | -0.29*** | — | | |
| Relatedness frustration | 2.11 | 0.84 | 0.89 | 0.79 | -0.43*** | 0.44*** | -0.69*** | — | |
| Competence satisfaction | 3.73 | 0.82 | -0.64 | 0.02 | -0.69*** | -0.42*** | 0.46*** | -0.50*** | — |
| Competence frustration | 2.51 | 0.98 | 0.38 | -0.71 | -0.60*** | 0.52*** | -0.36*** | 0.57*** | -0.72*** |

M – mean; *SD* – standard deviation; *S* – skewness; *K* – kurtosis; *** $p < 0.001$.

A one-way analysis of variance was performed to check for statistically significant differences in the satisfaction or frustration of basic psychological needs between subjects with different employment (student/work) statuses. The calculations showed that the estimates of the satisfaction of the need for autonomy did not differ depending on the employment group ($F(3.278) = 1.939, p = 0.124, \eta^2 = 0.02$), but the estimates of the frustration of the need for autonomy differed in the employment groups ($F(3.278) = 4.66, p = 0.003, \eta^2 = 0.048$). Pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The comparison of the satisfaction and frustration of the need for autonomy in different student/work status groups.

| | | M.D. | S.E. | <i>t</i> | Cohen's <i>d</i> | <i>P</i> _{Tukey} |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|---------|------|----------|------------------|---------------------------|
| Autonomy need satisfaction | | | | | | |
| Just studying | Just working | 0.04 | 0.14 | 0.29 | 0.05 | 0.99 |
| | Working and studying | -0.11 | 0.17 | -0.61 | -0.13 | 0.93 |
| | Neither working nor studying | 0.27 | 0.17 | 1.57 | 0.34 | 0.40 |
| Just working | Working and studying | -0.15 | 0.13 | -1.11 | -0.19 | 0.68 |
| | Neither working nor studying | 0.22 | 0.13 | 1.76 | 0.29 | 0.30 |
| Studying and working | Neither working nor studying | 0.37 | 0.16 | 2.32 | 0.47 | 0.1 |
| Autonomy need frustration | | | | | | |
| Just studying | Just working | -0.48** | 0.15 | -3.18 | -0.59 | 0.01 |
| | Working and studying | -0.31 | 0.18 | -1.72 | -0.38 | 0.32 |
| | Neither working nor studying | -0.61** | 0.18 | -3.44 | -0.74 | 0.004 |

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|
| Just working | Working and studying | 0.17 | 0.14 | 1.22 | 0.21 | 0.62 |
| | Neither working nor studying | -0.13 | 0.13 | -0.97 | -0.16 | 0.77 |
| Studying and working | Neither working nor studying | -0.30 | 0.17 | -1.79 | -0.36 | 0.28 |

** $p < 0.01$.

A statistically significant difference in frustration of the need for autonomy was observed between the respondents only studying and only working ($MD = -0.48$, $p = 0.009$) and between those not working and not studying ($MD = -0.61$, $p = 0.004$). After analyzing the estimates of the need for relatedness between different employment groups, it was found that the estimates of the satisfaction of relatedness did not differ statistically significantly between the employment groups ($F(3,278) = 0.447$, $p = 0.719$, $\eta^2 = 0.005$), nor did the estimates of the frustration of relatedness ($F(3,278) = 1.027$, $p = 0.381$, $\eta^2 = 0.011$). Pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. The comparison of the satisfaction and frustration of the need for relatedness in different student/work status groups.

| | | M.D. | S.E. | t | Cohen's d | PTuckey |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|------|------|------|-----------|---------|
| Relatedness need satisfaction | | | | | | |
| Just studying | Just working | 0.08 | 0.13 | 0.59 | 0.11 | 0.93 |
| | Working and studying | 0.12 | 0.16 | 0.76 | 0.17 | 0.87 |
| | Neither working nor studying | 0.17 | 0.16 | 1.1 | 0.24 | 0.69 |
| Just working | Working and studying | 0.04 | 0.2 | 0.35 | 0.06 | 0.99 |
| | Neither working nor studying | 0.09 | 0.12 | 0.79 | 0.13 | 0.86 |
| Studying and working | Neither working nor studying | 0.05 | 0.15 | 0.34 | 0.07 | 0.99 |
| Relatedness need frustration | | | | | | |
| Just studying | Just working | 0.23 | 0.15 | 1.46 | 0.27 | 0.46 |
| | Working and studying | 0.14 | 0.18 | 0.75 | 0.17 | 0.88 |
| | Neither working nor studying | 0.05 | 0.18 | 0.29 | 0.06 | 0.99 |

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|
| Just working | Working and studying | -0.09 | 0.14 | -0.61 | -0.10 | 0.93 |
| | Neither working nor studying | -0.17 | 0.14 | -1.27 | -0.21 | 0.58 |
| Studying and working | Neither working nor studying | -0.09 | 0.17 | -0.51 | -0.10 | 0.96 |

Finally, estimates of the satisfaction and frustration of the need for competence between groups were examined, and it was found that satisfaction estimates did not differ statistically significantly between employment groups ($F(3.278) = 2.584, p = 0.054, \eta^2 = 0.027$), nor did estimates of frustration ($F(3.278) = 1.681, p = 0.171, \eta^2 = 0.018$). Pairwise comparisons are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The comparison of the satisfaction and frustration of the need for competence in different student/work status groups.

| | | M.D. | S.E. | t | Cohen's d | PTuckey |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|-------|------|-------|-----------|---------|
| Competence need satisfaction | | | | | | |
| Just studying | Just working | -0.26 | 0.15 | -1.71 | -0.32 | 0.32 |
| | Working and studying | -0.28 | 0.18 | -1.57 | -0.35 | 0.40 |
| | Neither working nor studying | 0.05 | 0.18 | 0.26 | 0.06 | 0.99 |
| Just working | Working and studying | -0.03 | 0.14 | -0.19 | -0.03 | 0.10 |
| | Neither working nor studying | 0.30 | 0.13 | 2.29 | 0.37 | 0.10 |
| Studying and working | Neither working nor studying | 0.33 | 0.17 | 1.99 | 0.40 | 0.20 |
| Competence need frustration | | | | | | |
| Just studying | Just working | 0.30 | 0.18 | 1.66 | 0.31 | 0.35 |
| | Working and studying | 0.30 | 0.22 | 1.42 | 0.31 | 0.49 |
| | Neither working nor studying | 0.03 | 0.21 | 0.15 | 0.03 | 0.1 |

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|
| Just working | Working and studying | 0.01 | 0.16 | 0.04 | 0.01 | 1.00 |
| | Neither working nor studying | -0.27 | 0.16 | -1.68 | -0.27 | 0.34 |
| Studying and working | Neither working nor studying | -0.27 | 0.20 | -1.38 | -0.28 | 0.52 |

To sum up, the research hypothesis – that estimates of the satisfaction and frustration of basic psychological needs differ depending on a person’s employment and study status – was partially confirmed.

4. Discussion

This study explored the presumption that student/work status creates different possibilities for the satisfaction or frustration of the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. This research aimed to analyze differences in the satisfaction and frustration of basic needs in different employment groups (whether a person is solely working, solely studying, working and studying, or not working and not studying). The hypothesis that the estimates of the satisfaction of basic psychological needs differ depending on a person’s employment and study activity was partially confirmed.

Although no statistically significant differences were observed between the means of the need for autonomy, it can be seen in Figure 1 that the satisfaction of this need was highest in the group of employed and studying respondents and lowest in the group of unemployed and non-studying respondents.

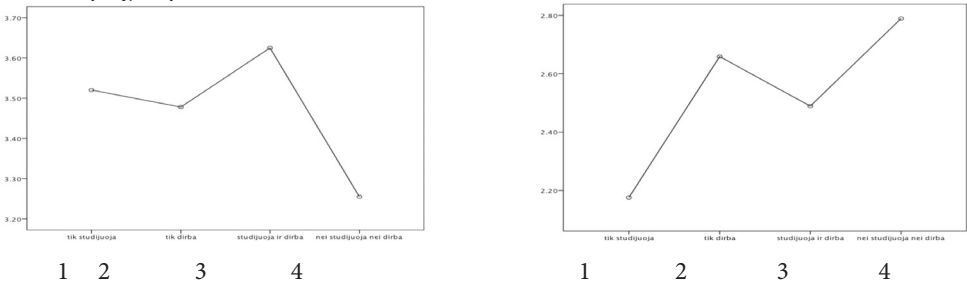


Figure 1. The means of the satisfaction (left) and frustration (right) of the need for autonomy in different student/work status groups.

1 – only studying, 2 – only working, 3 – working and studying, 4 – neither working nor studying.

Correspondingly, scores for the frustration of autonomy were highest in this group, and were lowest in the group of those who were only studying. Only two statistically significant differences were observed between groups: solely students and solely employed (MD = -0.48, $p = 0.009$); and solely students and non-employed, non-students (MD = -0.61, $p = 0.004$). It can be concluded that the frustration of student autonomy is lower than that of employed persons. It

can be assumed that this is because their work often requires accountability and following instructions, and students have only recently separated from their parents and gained independence. Furthermore, unemployed people and non-students may feel a lack of autonomy due to a lack of activity and self-actualization. Thus, employment status plays an important role in the frustration of the respondent's psychological need for autonomy ($p = 0.003$).

Although differences in the mean estimates of the satisfaction and frustration of the need for relatedness were not statistically significant between the four student/work status groups, the results are no less interesting. The need for relatedness (Figure 2) was best satisfied in the group of solely studying respondents, who have a favorable environment for socialization. However, the same group also had the highest estimates of the frustration of relatedness.

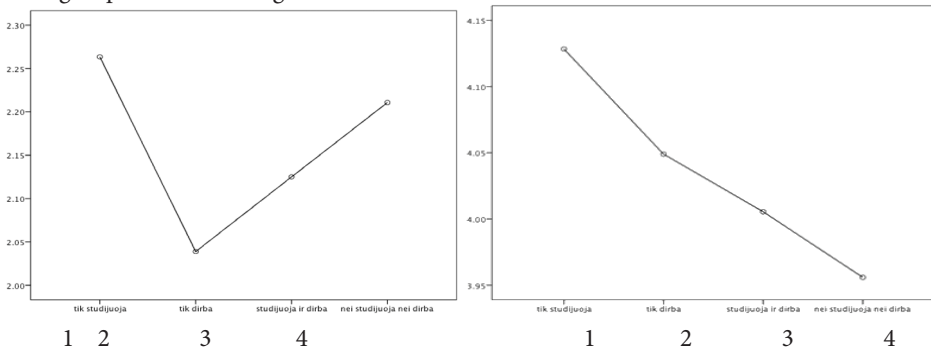


Figure 2. The means of the satisfaction (left) and frustration (right) of the need for relatedness in different student/work status groups.

1 – only studying, 2 – only working, 3 – working and studying, 4 – neither working nor studying.

These findings prove that students experience extreme psychological changes when separated from their families and entering a completely new environment that does not always easily become adopted into the inner circle (Alsubaie et al. 2019). Unemployed and non-studying respondents had the lowest scores of satisfaction of the need for relatedness and the highest scores of frustration of the need for relatedness. These findings confirm that these people lack socialization, community, and common goals due to a lack of involvement and employment (Van der Vaart et al. 2020; Andersen et al. 2022; Creed et al. 2001; Feather 1997; Frasilho et al. 2016; Huffman et al. 2015; Puciato et al. 2020; Zechmann and Paul 2019).

Differences in the mean estimates of the satisfaction and frustration of the need for competence (Figure 3) revealed that employees and working students are the most satisfied with this need. In contrast, those without employment and those respondents only studying demonstrated the highest level of frustration of the need for competence.

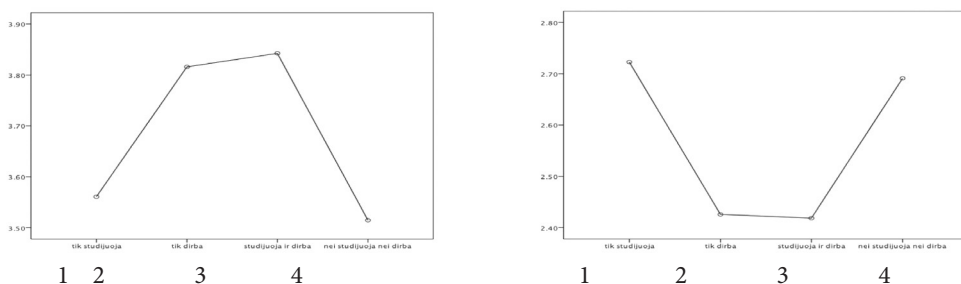


Figure 3. The means of the satisfaction (left) and frustration (right) of the need for competence in different student/work status groups.

1 – only studying, 2 – only working, 3 – working and studying, 4 – neither working nor studying.

The literature describes the frustration of competence as insecurity or failure when trying to reach personal goals using one's abilities (Chen et al. 2015). Thus, it can be assumed that these two groups – one constantly striving for academic results and the other with no academic or career achievement – fail to meet the need for competence. Given the significant differences in sample size between these groups, it can be concluded that increasing the sample size would provide more transparent results.

Several further limitations of this study should be noted. First, in this study, bias might have occurred due to the sole use of self-reported measures and the omission of objective indicators. Most importantly, the research samples were not representative, suggesting the necessity of analyzing representative samples; thus, generalizations should be made with caution. Although the sample size satisfied the minimal requirements for the applied statistical models and the data fit was good, the results should be considered in view of the relatively small sample size. Furthermore, this study was conducted in Lithuania, and the results may reflect the cultural specifics of this area, suggesting the necessity of analyzing the impact of cultural factors. Finally, the findings suggest the necessity of longitudinal research design.

5. Conclusions

This study partially confirmed the hypothesis that the satisfaction and frustration of basic psychological needs differ depending on a person's employment (student/work) status. The research demonstrated a statistically significant difference in the frustration of the need for autonomy between the respondents only studying and only working, and between those not working and not studying. Estimates of the satisfaction and frustration of the needs of relatedness and competence did not differ statistically significantly between the employment (student/work) status groups. However, due to the limitations of the relatively small and non-representative sample size, these findings should be regarded with concern and ought to be researched further.

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Bazinių poreikių patenkinimo ir frustracijos ypatumai skirtingose užimtumo statuso (studijuojančių/dirbančių) grupėse

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Anotacija. Įsidarbinimo studijuojant pranašumai ir ribotumai mokslininkų pradėti tirti prieš keletą dešimtmečių, tačiau skirtingo užimtumo statuso (studijuojančių / dirbančių) grupių ypatumai iki šiol yra nepakankamai ištirti. Šiame tyrime keliama prielaida, kad užimtumo statusas nulemia skirtingas bazinių psichologinių poreikių – autonomijos, kompetencijos ir sąryšingumo – patenkinimo galimybes. Tyrimu buvo siekiama išsiaiškinti bazinių poreikių patenkinimo ir frustracijos skirtumus įvairiose užimtumo statuso grupėse (1. tik dirbančiųjų, 2. tik studijuojančiųjų, 3. ir dirbančiųjų, ir studijuojančiųjų, 4. nei dirbančiųjų, nei studijuojančiųjų). Tyrimo imtį sudarė 286 respondentai. Tiriamųjų amžiaus vidurkis – 28,7 m. (standartinis nuokrypis – 6,963). 52,1 % respondentų ($n = 149$) tik dirbo, 12,9 % respondentų ($n = 37$) tik studijavo, 16,8 % respondentų ir dirbo, ir studijavo ($n = 48$), ir 18,2 % respondentų nei dirbo, nei studijavo ($n = 52$). 41,3 % respondentų ($n = 118$) buvo vyrai ir 58,7 % respondentų ($n = 168$) buvo moterys. Šiame tyrime buvo naudojama Bazinių psichologinių poreikių patenkinimo ir frustracijos skalė (angl. *The Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction & Frustration Scale, BPNSFS*), kuri leidžia įvertinti autonomijos, kompetencijos ir sąryšingumo poreikių patenkinimą ir frustraciją. Tyrimas iš dalies patvirtino hipotezę, kad bazinių psichologinių poreikių patenkinimas ir frustracija skiriasi įvairiose užimtumo statuso grupėse (tik dirbančiųjų, tik studijuojančiųjų, ir dirbančiųjų, ir studijuojančiųjų, nei dirbančiųjų, nei studijuojančiųjų). Šiuo tyrimu atkreiptinas dėmesys į studentų gyvenimo kokybės veiksnius, jis svarbus formuojant viešąją politiką aukštojo mokslo ir užimtumo srityse.

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