

Perceived organizational support-burnout-satisfaction relationship in workers with disabilities: The moderation of family support ^a

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Abstract^b

Our study tests the perceived organizational support-burnout-satisfaction relationship based on stressor—strain—outcome model of stress (Koeske & Koeske, 1993) and on the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) in workers with disabilities employed in ordinary or competitive jobs (open labor market), analysing the relationship between perceived organizational support, family support, job satisfaction and burnout. We use a sample of 246 workers with physical, motor, sensory and psychological disabilities working in ordinary jobs. To test our proposed model we used a regression-based path analysis using PROCESS software, which is a computational tool for estimating and probing interactions and the conditional indirect effects of moderated mediation models. We find that the positive relationship between organizational support and job satisfaction was partially mediated by the levels of cynicism and the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction was moderated by family support. Employees with low support from family had identical job satisfaction with high burnout or low burnout, but employees with high support from family when they had high burnout had lower job satisfaction than when they had low burnout, indicating that the support outside work could have a negative effect in workers' life. Practical implications and future research are discussed and proposed.

Introduction

Despite legislative endeavours, a wide gap still exists between levels of employment and unemployment among the people with disabilities and the rest of the working-age population, while prejudice and discrimination linger on in the workplace (Colella & Stone, 2005; Mitra & Kruse, 2016; Schur, Colella, & Meera, 2016; Schur, Kruse, Blasi, & Blanck, 2009), producing seriously detrimental effects for victims' quality of life (Baldrige & Swift, 2013). In Spain, the rate of employment among people with disabilities was 23.4% in 2015, compared to a rate of 60.9% among people without disabilities, while the unemployment rate was 31% compared to 21.9% among the general population (INE, 2016). Some 82% of workers with disabilities are employed by companies which do not meet the statutory 2% quota reserved by

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Spanish employment legislation for direct hiring of job-seekers with disabilities, a situation of precariousness that has been progressively accentuated since 2008 as a consequence of the economic downturn (Alcover, Rodríguez, Pastor, Fernández, & Chambel, 2017). These data show that considerable social, mental and environmental barriers remain despite the progress made in the last two decades in terms of legislative initiatives, social awareness and business attitudes. These multiple barriers hindering people with disabilities access to and normal integration in ordinary jobs, thwarting equal opportunity, wages and benefits and hampering efforts to end prejudice and discrimination (Alcover & Pérez, 2011; McMahon & Shaw, 2005).

Numerous measures have been designed to drive full integration and normalization of people with disabilities in the workplace (Colella, 1994; Klimoski & Donahue, 1997; Schur, Kruse & Black, 2005; Stone & Colella, 1996). One of the most widely used workplace interventions has been perceived social support, consisting of measures to encourage the worker's feeling that he/she is cared for by others, that assistance is available and that he/she is part of a supportive social network (Bültmann & Brouwer, 2013). Such social support in the workplace translates into perceived organizational support (POS). This construct refers to employees' perception concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being. POS has been found to have important positive consequences for employee performance and well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Huntington & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Previous research has found that perceived organizational and supervisor support can mitigate the effects of disability status on workplace attitudes and perceptions (Snyder, Carmichael, Blackwell, Cleveland & Thornton, 2010), and buffer the effects of psychological stress, thereby reducing burnout (Mutkins, Brown & Thorsteinsson, 2011). Other studies (Byrne & Hochwarter, 2006) have found that high levels of POS reduce the adverse effects of chronic pain (a highly debilitating condition) on work performance. As a primary source of support (Beehr, 1985), family members have a unique opportunity to provide both emotional encouragement and instrumental assistance to the worker outside of the work environment (Adams, King & King, 1996). Family support for a worker may thus be viewed as a source of social support in the same way as organizational support (Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000). However, the role of family support for people with disabilities in their efforts to integrate and adjust to work remains largely unresearched, although the potential importance of

this source in combination with other sources of job-related social support has been noted (Kendall & Buys, 1998).

In sum, perceived support from different sources is a key factor to explain well-being and job satisfaction of workers with disabilities. This study examines the combined role of support both in and outside of the workplace in explain stress and raising the ordinary job satisfaction experienced by people with disabilities. To this end, we treat the perception of organizational support as a source of support at work, and the perception of family support as an outside source. According the stressor—strain—outcome model of stress (Koeske & Koeske, 1993) and the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) the first purpose of this paper is to test the mediating role of burnout in the relationships between POS and job satisfaction; and second, using family-to-work spillover and the conservation of resources theory we investigated how family support moderates the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction.

Background and hypothesis

Social support at work and employee well-being

Prior research has shown that workers with disabilities are disproportionately relegated to entry-level occupations which do not emphasize the better-remunerated job skills. Moreover, underemployment among the population with disabilities results in lower wages and less job security and stability (Kaye, 2009). In general, workers with disabilities are less likely to be supervisors in their organizations, enjoy fewer training opportunities, are less likely to participate in decision-making at any hierarchical level, and are more likely to be closely supervised than workers without disabilities (Shure et al, 2009). Consequently, perceptions of poor working conditions, negative stereotypes and attitudes of employers and employees, and disability-related discrimination reflect work pressure and work stressors consistent with the general experience of psychological and physiological strain (Konrad, Moore, Ng, Doherty & Breward, 2013; LaMontagne, Krnjacki, Milner, Butterworth, & Kavanagh, 2016). The barriers to need fulfilment and status attainment facing workers with disabilities are typically experienced as job stressors, which result in strain and reduced well-being unless the individual has sufficient resources to cope (Liu, Spector & Jex, 2005). Where such resources are lacking or are not

effective, the continued experience of such barriers, poor working conditions and disability-related discrimination can produce burnout.

Burnout, a work-related syndrome of stress, is considered a consequence of chronic stress exposure and an indication that the employee is no longer able to adequately manage workplace stressors (Demerouti et al., 2001). It is a multidimensional construct with exhaustion and cynicism as core dimensions (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and depleted of one's resources, and cynicism denotes a negative and excessively detached response to work in general and the feeling that work has lost its meaning (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1986). The meta-analytic review carried out by Lee and Ashforth (1996) demonstrated that emotional exhaustion was strongly associated with job demand variables (e.g., strain perceptions), whereas cynicism was associated with resources (e.g., perceived organizational support and family support).

Several studies have argued that support can modulate the negative effects of stress (e.g. Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009; Van Yperen & Hagedoorn, 2003). Though not all study findings support these relationships (e.g. Akerboom and Maes, 2006), we may conclude that the positive effect of social support at work is robust, at least as regards the psychological well-being and job stress variables. POS helps to fulfill socio-emotional needs such as needs for esteem, approval, and affiliation, leading to organizational membership and role status becoming part of one's social identity. Furthermore, fulfillment helps to reduce occupational strain and to enhance employee well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Moreover, the POS effect on strain is related to the conservation of resources theory (Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson, & Laski, 2005; Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). This theory postulates that people work to obtain resources that they do not have, retain those resources that they possess, protect resources when threatened, and foster resources by positioning themselves so that their resources can be put to the best use. Moreover, the acquisition of resources alone has only a modest effect, but becomes more noticeable in a resource-loss context (Monnier, Cameron, Hobfoll, & Gribble, 2002). In fact, individuals invest their resources in order to deal with threatening situations and prevent negative outcomes (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, resources are important to avoid burnout in general and exhaustion in particular (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). The underlying mechanism is that the availability of resources that can be used to address

demands, largely determines the impact of those demands on employees, protecting them from the negative consequences of stress (Perry, Witt, Penney, & Atwater, 2010).

Existing studies have found that the support of supervisors and line managers is positively associated with the successful return to work of employees who have suffered mental health problems (Blank, Peters, Pickvance, Wilford & MacDonald, 2008). Likewise, frequent communication and contacts with the supervisor may elicit positive effects from employees and may be perceived as social support, which in turn may accelerate a return to work (Nieuwenhuijsen, Verbeek, de Boer, Blonk & van Dijk, 2004). Lysaght and Larmour-Trode (2008) found that employees identified trust, communication and knowledge of their disability on the part of supervisors and co-workers as key precursors in perceived social support at work. A study of work disability among nurses found that respect and social support from supervisors and co-workers was a key intermediate factor between workplace factors, including perceived organizational support and health and well-being at work (Tamminga, de Boer, Verbeek & Frings-Dresen, 2012). Overall, these findings bear out the insight that workplace support plays an important role in disability management processes and facilitates the return to work after absence period of sick leave (Cornelius, van der Klink, Groothoff & Brouwer, 2011).

One of the more deleterious consequences of burnout is that workers display diminished levels of positive attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction) (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). Job satisfaction refers to “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one’s job values” (Locke, 1969, p. 316), Need–satisfaction explanations of employee job satisfaction operate on the premise that the correspondence between the outcome desired, needed or wanted by an individual, and the outcome that is supplied by the work situation or organization, determines the effective employee reaction. When employees believe that their work organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being, then their socio-emotional needs are satisfied and as a result they feel more satisfied (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Although burnout and job satisfaction are outcomes of POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986) the underlying dynamic has not been specified. We adopted the stressor—strain—outcome model of stress conceptualized by Koeske and Koeske (1993). Within this framework, stressors were described as objective events in the environment that were perceived to be troublesome and potentially disruptive for

the individual worker. Strain, according to Koeske and Koeske (1993), is evidenced by burnout, while outcomes were "enduring behavioral or psychological consequences of prolonged stress and strain" (p. 111), including general attitudes such as job satisfaction. Prior research (e.g., Kelloway & Barling, 1991; Tetrick & LaRocco, 1987) has conceptualized job dissatisfaction as strain rather than as an outcome of strain. However, if one conceptualizes burnout as reflecting an affective and physiological depletion of resources resulting from perceived environmental demands, then burnout would mediate the effects of perceived stressors on outcomes as Koeske and Koeske (1993) suggested. Furthermore, in line with the conservation-of-resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) we considered that not only stressors but also resources (i.e. POS) could cause burnout, which is in turn related to job satisfaction. Thus, our assumption is that burnout is a mediator between the perception of organizational support and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1: Burnout mediates the relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational support and their job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1a: Exhaustion mediates the relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational support and their job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1b: Cynicism mediates the relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational support and their job satisfaction.

Family support and workers with disabilities

Existing research has found that family support is also important to explaining disabled worker's attitudes (Amstad, Meier, Elfering & Semmer, 2011; Ferguson, Carlson, Zivnuska & Whitten, 2012; Pérez, Alcover & Chambel, 2015) and to their adjustment to work, because it boosts motivation and confidence (Crudden, 2002; Kelley & Lambert, 1992). Initially, the measurement of family support depended on the size of the family network, considered as indicator of social support (e.g., Stokes, 1983). Although this measure indicates the availability of potentially supportive persons (i.e., number of family members) or supportive structures in the family environment, it does not reflect the extent to which the worker perceives that his/her actual needs for social support (emotional or instrumental) have been met (King, Mattimore, King, and Adams, 1995). Alternatively, these authors propose a family support model that differentiates two dimensions, based on prior industrial-organizational research (Beehr, 1985). In the first

place, emotional or socioemotional support includes those family members' positive behaviors or attitudes that reflect their interest in the employee's work, reflect willingness to listen to, talk to, and advise him/her about job, and furthermore sympathetic expressions or recommendations of care and concern for the worker. And secondly, instrumental or tangible support includes those family members' positive behaviors and attitudes aimed at facilitating day-to-day family/household functions for the employee, such as the family members' willingness to share household tasks or to choose activities and to structure family life so as to accommodate the employee's work schedule or job requirements in a flexible manner (King et al., 1995). In sum, behaviors, reactions and job attitudes are influenced by both work and non-work sources of perceived social support. And as King et al. (1995) argue, "the degree of family social support employees perceive as directed at their roles as workers may have an appreciable impact on attitudes and behaviors in the workplace" (p. 236).

However, it is also possible that perceptions of family support may result in negative outcomes. First, people with disabilities often experience suffocating overprotection and exclusion from everyday challenges (Cimarolli, Reinhardt & Horowitz, 2006). Low expectations of people with disabilities are widely held by society at large, by families and, indeed, by the disabled themselves (Yeo & Moore, 2003). For instance, Thompson & Sobolew-Shubin (1993) found that overprotection in chronically ill adults was associated with poorer adjustment, and respondents in their study who felt overprotected were more depressed. Workers with disabilities are often highly susceptible to feelings of being overprotected by their families, resulting in augmented self-perception of disability and negative self-cognition (perceptions of how others see them), the knock-on effect of which is to reduce everyday competence with the concomitant adverse impact on self-esteem (Diehls & Willis, 2003; Jetha et al, 2014). It seems that the family support can act as a sort of family-to-work negative spillover, which in turn may be related to work-related negative outcomes (Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts, & Pulkinen, 2006). Second, the COR theory also suggests that resources and demands impact strain within a person's idiosyncratic ecology (Hobfoll, 2001). In other words, the salience of a resource or demand plays a significant role in the strain experience. Hobfoll (1988, 1998) argued that people vary as regards how they define resources and demands and we may consider that when employees with disabilities have low family support achieving their need-satisfaction,

namely socio-emotional needs, is more dependent on their job. In this regard, for workers with low family support, we might expect job resources, especially POS, to be particularly salient and their job satisfaction to be directly dependent on this resource and less sensitive to their strain (Tetrick, Slack, Da Silva, & Sinclair, 2000). On the contrary, when they have high support from family, organizational support is less salient because the satisfaction of socio-emotional needs also occurs through the support from family and consequently their job attitudes, namely job satisfaction, are dependent on their strain. In this light, family support can cause unwanted outcomes which only add to the consequences of burnout at work.

In relation to hypothesis 1, then, perceived family support may interact with burnout and moderate its mediating role in job satisfaction. Based on these arguments, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: The mediating role of burnout between the perception of organizational support and job satisfaction is moderated by the family support, because this support interacts with burnout.

Hypothesis 2a: The relationship between exhaustion and job satisfaction is significantly stronger at high levels as compared to low levels of the family support.

Hypothesis 2b: The relationship between cynicism and job satisfaction is significantly stronger at high levels as compared to low levels of the family support.

Method

Participants

Some 246 workers with disabilities employed under ordinary contracts (open labor market) in Spanish service sector firms took part in the study. In Spain, about 80% of people with disabilities were employed in the service sector, which has a much greater weight (almost 10 percentage points more) with respect to the total national labor market. For this reason the service sector was considered the most representative to obtain a sample. The most frequent jobs are administrative office activities and other activities auxiliary to business, services to buildings and gardening activities, Public Administration, and social services activities (Servicio Público de Empleo Estatal, 2017). Women made up 53.7% of the participants. The average age was 37.34 years (SD = 9.36). The distribution of age was concentrated between 31 and 44

years (126 participants), while the intervals from 18 to 30 years and 45 years and older were distributed almost equally with 61 participants in the former and 59 in the latter.

Some 54.9% of the participants were affected by a physical or motor disability, 14.2% by a sense disability, 12.6% by a mental disability, 2% by intellectual disability, 8.1% by others (not specified), and 8.2% did not report on their type of disability.

In terms of marital status, 43.9% were single, 34.6% were married, 12.2% were separated or divorced, and 9.3% were in life partnerships. Meanwhile, 32.5% lived with a partner, 28.5% with their husband or wife, 17.5% with their parents, 3.7% with friends, and 17.8% other type of cohabitation.

In terms of educational level, 17.5% of the participants had a basic education, 24.4% had completed secondary education to the level of baccalaureate, 28% had undergone vocational training and 29.3% had completed university studies.

Finally, 22.8% of the sample was employed under permanent contracts, 60.6% under temporary contracts, and 16.7% under other arrangements. Full-time workers accounted for 53.7% of the participants and part-time workers for 38.6%, while the working hours of 7.7% were arranged according to some other system. The participants worked a mean 21.65 hours per week (SD = 8.15). Mean seniority was 2.92 years (SD = 4.05) and mean job experience was 7.92 years (SD = 8.25).

Procedure

The sample was selected with the assistance of *Fundación Adecco*, a non-profit entity which promotes labor market insertion of people facing major difficulties finding work for different reasons. The Foundation used its database of people with disabilities working in ordinary firms to e-mail invitations to participate in the study and explain the general objectives of the research project. After the voluntary applications had been accepted, the self-selected participants contacted were requested to complete the online questionnaire. All the participants received general information about the objectives of the study and instructions for the questionnaire. They were also asked to read and sign the informed consent form.

Five hundred invitations to participate in the study were sent, and 369 questionnaires were received (response rate of 73%). The completed questionnaires were then coded and

those containing more than 5% of missing data were eliminated. The final sample comprised 246 workers.

Instruments

Perceived Organizational Support: Abbreviated version (17 items) of the *Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS)* by Eisenberger et al (1986), adapted in Spanish by Ortega (2003). Responses were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1, "strongly disagree", to 7, "strongly agree". Example items include "The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me," and "The organization really cares about my well-being."

Family support: We use a short version of 8 items from the Spanish adaptation of the *Family Support Inventory for Workers* (King et al., 1995) prepared by Martínez-Pérez and Osca (2002). The original inventory consists of two subscales for emotional and instrumental support respectively, each with 22 items. For our selection, we run a factorial analysis with data from a previous study with a sample of workers with disabilities (Pérez et al., 2015), and we selected the 8 items with the highest factorial weight, 4 from the emotional support dimension and 4 from the instrumental support dimension. This solution was coincident with that obtained by Segado, Osca and López (2013) in another study with a Spanish sample. Finally, the Confirmatory Factor Analysis run with the data from our study confirmed the existence of one single factor. This one-dimensional solution was also used in another study using a reduced version (6 items) of the same measure (Lim & Kin, 2013). Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1, "strongly disagree" to 5, "strongly agree". An example item for emotional support is "When I have a problem at work, members of my family express concern"; and for instrumental support, "My family members do their fair share of household chores".

Job satisfaction: S10/12 Job Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Meliá and Peiró (1989), comprising 12 items. Responses were measured on a 7-point scale ranging to 1, "very unsatisfied" to 7 "very satisfied". Example items include "I am satisfied with the physical environment and the space available in my workplace", and "I am satisfied with the extent which my company fulfils the work agreement, provisions and labor laws".

Burnout: exhaustion and cynicism subscales of the *Maslach Burnout Inventory: General Survey (MBI-GS)* developed by Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) in the Spanish version prepared by Moreno-Jiménez, Rodríguez-Carvajal and Escobar (2001). Each subscale consists of 5 items. Responses refer to the general question "How often do you have the following feelings about working in your present job?", ranging from 1, "never", to 7 "daily". An example item of the exhaustion scale is "I feel burned out by my work". An example item of the cynicism scale "I have become less enthusiastic about my work".

Control Variables: We controlled for the potential confounding effects of four variables: gender was introduced as a dummy variable, coded 0 if the respondent was female and 1 if male; age in years was introduced as a continuous variable; education was included as an ordinal variable with 1 representing 'without studies', 2 as 'basic studies', 3 as 'secondary studies', 4 as 'professional studies' and 5 as 'graduate'; Family structure was included as dummy variables, with 1 for 'live with family' and 0 for 'live alone or with friends'.

Results

Confirmatory Factor and Descriptive Analysis

First, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis to examine the distinction between the various constructs. Two measurement models were compared: one and four models. In the one-factor model, all items were loaded onto a single latent variable, whereas in the four-factor model, all the observed items were loaded onto their respective latent variables (Perceived Organizational Support, Job satisfaction, Burnout, Family Support). The latent variables were correlated. The one factor model showed a poor fit to the data ($\chi^2(1034) = 6106.40, p < 0.001$; SRMR = 0.15; TLI = 0.42; CFI = 0.44; RMSEA = 0.14). The four-factor model showed an acceptable fit ($\chi^2(618) = 1090.47, p < 0.001$; SRMR = 0.08; TLI = 0.93; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.06), fitting the data significantly better than the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2(416) = 5015.93, p < 0.001$). These analyses showed that the factor structures of the research variables were consistent with the conceptual model, and the manifested variables loaded onto latent variables, as intended.

The means, standard deviations, Pearson correlation coefficients, and alpha reliability

coefficients for each of our constructs are shown in Table I.

Table 1. Means, SD, Pearson correlations and alpha reliability

	Mean	SD	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Perceived organizational Support	4.53	1.22	(.91)							
2. Cynicism	2.90	1.36	-.36**	(.80)						
3. Exhaustion	3.15	1.52	-.34**	.79**	(.86)					
4. Family Support	3.78	.69	.10	-.22**	-.19**	(.75)				
5. Job Satisfaction	5.02	1.36	.67**	-.32**	-.28**	.01	(.95)			
6. Age	37.3	9.36	-.22**	.06	.07	-.04	-.14*			
7. Gender ^a	-	-	-.00	-.11	.02	.04	-.03	-.09		
8. Education	3.88	1.39	.04	-.01	.05	.08	.08	-.15*	-.22*	
9. Family Structure ^b	-	-	.01	.03	-.02	.02	-.03	.02	-.12	.00

Notes: N=246. Cronbach's alpha is in parentheses. Level of significance *p < .05; **p < .01.

(a) Gender was a dummy variable (0=women; 1=men)

(b) Family Structure was a dummy variable (0=live alone or with friends; 1= live with family).

Hypotheses Analysis

To directly test our proposed model we used a regression-based path analysis using PROCESS software, which is a computational tool for estimating and probing interactions and the conditional indirect effects of moderated mediation models (Hayes, 2012; Preacher, Rucker & Hayes, 2007). This software provides many of the capabilities of INDIRECT (Preacher & Hayes, 2004), and MODMED (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes, 2007), estimates the coefficients of a model using OLS regression (for continuous outcomes), and generates direct and indirect effects in mediation models and conditional indirect effects in moderated mediation models using single or multiple mediators. PROCESS offers various tools for probing 2- and 3-way interactions and constructs percentile-based bootstrap confidence intervals for conditional and unconditional indirect effects. The application of bootstrapped confidence intervals avoids the power problems of asymmetry and non-normal sampling distributions of an indirect effect (MacKinnon, Lockwood & Williams, 2004). In addition, Preacher and Hayes (2004) advocate the Sobel Z test for assessing indirect effects, as this test is more powerful than the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach. However, the Sobel test assumes the normality of the product terms ab , and this is a nebulous assumption, particularly in a small sample. The use of bootstrapping techniques also avoid this assumption.

To examine Hypotheses, we estimated model 14 in PROCESS, which accounts for a first and second stage moderation model with 5000 bootstrap samples and 95% bias-corrected

bootstrap confidence intervals for all indirect effects, controlling for age, gender, education and family structure of participants. We conducted separate analyses for the exhaustion and cynicism (Table II).

Table 2

Moderated-mediation analyses of Family Support on the Burnout (e.g., Cynicism and Exhaustion) mediating pathway between Perceived Organizational Support and Job Satisfaction.

Predictor	Cynicism			Exhaustion		
	B	SE	t	B	SE	t
Constant	2.44	.66	3.70**	1.66	.74	2.24*
Perceived Organizational Support	-.41	.07	-6.05**	-.42	.08	-5.51**
	Job Satisfaction			Job Satisfaction		
Constant	1.84	.52	3.52**	1.67	.52	3.21**
Perceived Organizational Support	.70	.06	12.27**	.72	.06	12.70**
Cynicism/Exhaustion (V)	-.14	.05	-2.64**	-.06	.05	-1.27, n.s.
Family Support (E)	-.06	.09	-1.75, n.s.	-.11	.09	-1.15, n.s.
V×E	-.18	.06	-2.90**	-.13	.06	-2.24*

Bootstrap sample size=5000 (N=246); Unstandardised regression coefficients are reported and bootstrap p-values assume normal bootstrap distribution. **p<.01; *p<.05; Control variables: age, gender, education, family structure.

Hypotheses 1a and 1b proposed that the exhaustion and cynicism of employees', respectively, would mediate the relationship between the extent to which these employees perceived organizational support and job satisfaction. We observed a significant indirect effect of perceived organizational support on job satisfaction through exhaustion (indirect effect = 0.07, $p < .00$ 95% CI: 0.02 to 0.15). Additionally, we also observed significant and negative relationship between perceived organizational support and exhaustion ($B = -0.42$, $p < .00$, 95% CI: -0.58 to -0.27). However, the relationship between exhaustion and job satisfaction is non significant ($B = -0.06$, n.s., 95% CI: -0.01 to 0.86). Taking all results together, our hypothesis 1a was rejected, that is, employees perceived organizational support and job satisfaction relationship was not mediated through exhaustion.

Regarding our hypothesis 1b we observed a significant indirect effect of perceived organizational support on job satisfaction through cynicism (indirect effect = 0.12, $p < .00$, 95% CI: 0.05 to 0.22). Additionally, we also observed significant and negative relationship between perceived organizational support and cynicism ($B = -0.41$, $p < .00$, 95% CI: -0.55 to -0.28). Furthermore, the relationship between cynicism and job satisfaction is negative and significant ($B = -0.14$, $p < .00$, 95% CI: 0.08 to 0.98). Given the direct effect of the perception of organizational support on job satisfaction remained significant after controlling for cynicism ($B = 0.70$, $p < .001$, 95% CI: 0.59 to 0.81), we can assume a partial mediation, supporting partially hypothesis 1b.

To test for Hypotheses 2a and 2b we considered the conditional indirect effect with the estimation for three points of the moderator: one standard deviation above, and one standard deviation below the mean. Hypothesis 2a proposed that exhaustion and family support interacted to explain job satisfaction. A closer inspection of the interaction between exhaustion and the family support suggests that this moderation was significant ($B = -0.13$, $p < 0.5$, 95% CI: -0.24 to -0.02). As expected, the relationship between exhaustion and job satisfaction is significantly stronger at high levels as compared to low levels of the family support. In fact, the family support acts as moderator since employees that have higher family support and high levels of exhaustion are the ones who have lower job satisfaction, but employees with lower family support have similar job satisfaction when they experience high exhaustion or low exhaustion (Figure 1). These results give support to Hypothesis 2a.

Hypothesis 2b proposed that cynicism interacted with family support to explain job satisfaction. A closer inspection of the interaction between cynicism and the family support suggests that this moderation was significant ($B = -0.18$, $p < 0.01$, 95% CI: -0.30 to -0.06). Also, as expected, the relationship between cynicism and job satisfaction is significantly stronger at high levels as compared to low levels of the family support. The family support acts as moderator since employees who have higher family support and high levels of cynicism are the ones that have lower job satisfaction, but employees with lower family support have similar job satisfaction when they experience high exhaustion or low exhaustion (Figure 2). These results give support to Hypothesis 2b.

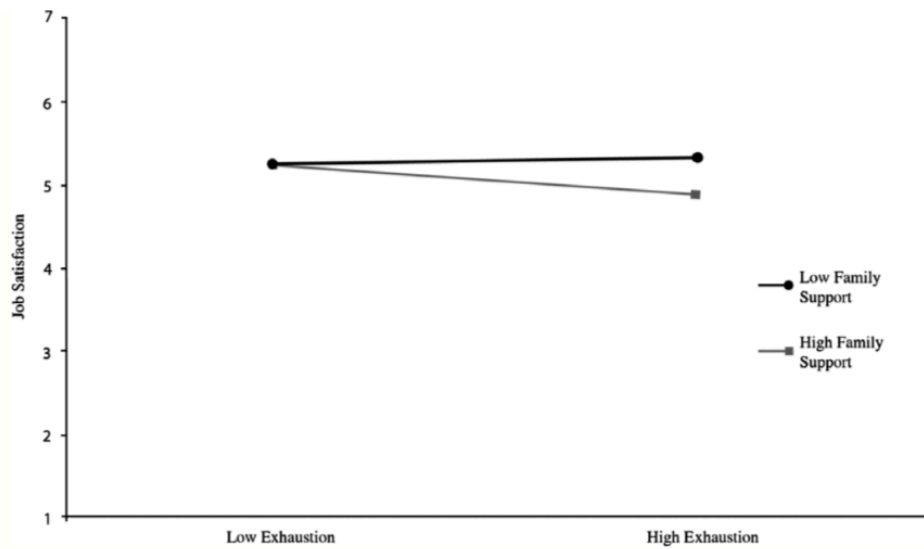


Fig. 1. Interaction between exhaustion and family support to explain job satisfaction.

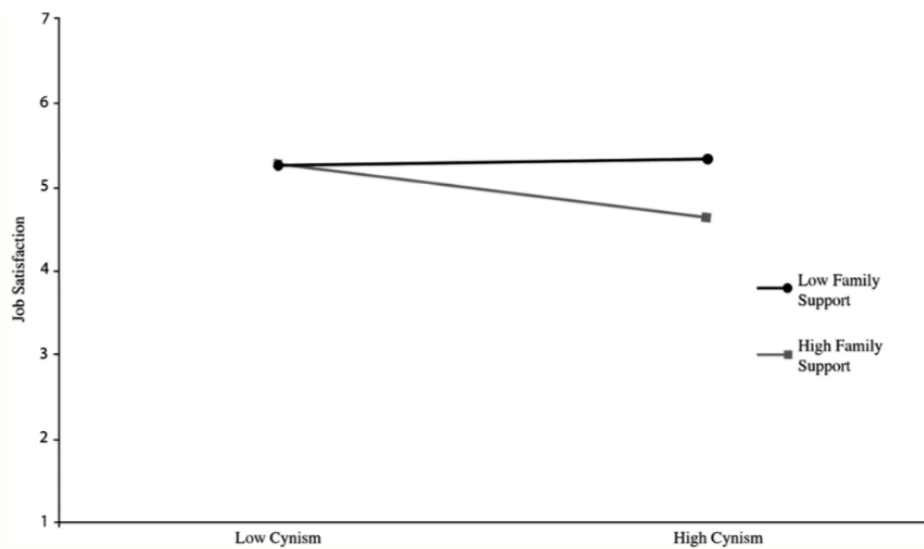


Fig. 2. Interaction between cynicism and family support to explain job satisfaction.

Discussion

Implications for theory and research

According to the stressor—strain—outcome model of stress (Koeske & Koeske, 1993) and the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) the first purpose of this paper is to test the mediating role of burnout in the relationships between POS and job satisfaction; and second, using family-to-work spillover (Kinnunen et al., 2006) and the conservation of resources theory, we investigated how family support moderates the relationship between burnout and job satisfaction.

Preliminarily, from a general view, our results confirm that POS is positively related with levels of job satisfaction (Block, Yuker, Campbell & Melvin, 1964; McAfee & McNaughton, 1997), consolidating our understanding that workers' interpersonal relationships with organizational agents are a key factor in generating perceptions of social support at work (Lysaght and Larmour-Trode, 2008), and in particular as regards the quality of such relationships and the perceived support received from supervisors and colleagues. Meanwhile, the assessments which workers with disabilities make of the support and treatment received from organizational agents and supervisors are also based on the outcomes obtained in earlier exchanges with organizational agents (Khazanchi & Masterson, 2011; Tekleab & Chiaburu, 2011). It is now accepted in both the organizational behaviour and social exchange literatures that organizational members typically engage in multiple exchange relationships with organizational agents, obtaining different benefits from each exchange (e.g., Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008). In this light, future research should analyse such exchange relationships in greater detail, along with their links with other variables like, the psychological contract (Alcover, Rico, Turnley & Bolino, 2017), affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours among groups of workers with disabilities in ordinary jobs.

In the second place, let us consider the observed mediating role of burnout in the relationship between POS and job satisfaction. The positive role of social support at work in relation to attitudes, absenteeism and job satisfaction among workers with disabilities has already been established in existing research (e.g. Blank et al, 2008; Cornelius et al, 2011; Pérez et al, 2015; Shaw, Kristman, & Vézina, 2013). Our study confirms the direct effect of POS on job satisfaction. Furthermore, our findings show that the positive role of POS in relation to job satisfaction is sustained in part when workers with disabilities experience feelings of cynicism at work, reflecting the mediating role of this dimension of burnout in the relationship between POS and job satisfaction. Our results can also be explained partly by the relationships already demonstrated (Lee and Ashforth, 1996) between emotional exhaustion and job demands, and between cynicism and resources. That is, the relationship between perceived organizational support and satisfaction was not mediated by emotional exhaustion because exhaustion is less dependent on resources than on job demands. On the other hand, the relationship between perceived organizational support and satisfaction was mediated by cynicism because this

burnout dimension is associated more with resources, in this case social resources provided by organizational support. These findings are of interest because they appear to show that the antecedents of burnout can be attributed to a lack of personal resources or to perceptions of an imbalance between job demands and resources, at least in the case of workers with disabilities employed in ordinary firms. Hence, the perception of a lack of organizational support and likely psycho-social job demands can be discarded as a cause of burnout. In this light, future research should investigate whether such causes are closely associated with physical job demands, work organization, or workplace beliefs and attitudes (Baumberg, 2014). If the factors associated with the experience of burnout could be precisely identified, it would become possible to design preventive strategies (Shaw et al, 2013) to improve the well-being of workers with disabilities.

In the third place, our findings with respect to external, non-work resources and their salience in work settings play a significant role in the strain experience (Hobfoll, 2001), open up a promising avenue, insofar as they show that family support, a known positive source of support for workers with disabilities (Crudden, 2002; Kelley & Lambert, 1992; Pérez et al, 2015), can have paradoxical effects. Our results show that in workers with disabilities employed in ordinary jobs family support may be counterproductive when he/she experiences medium to high levels of burnout, because this external support accentuates vulnerability to work strain and perceptions of a lack of work resources (POS) with which to combat the stresses and demands of the job. Thus, when they have high support from family, organizational support is less salient because the satisfaction of socio-emotional needs also occurs through the support from family and consequently their job attitudes, namely job satisfaction, are dependent on their strain. Paradoxically, the gain of resources obtained in the family environment, although it remains in the work activity (Hobfoll, 2001), seems to inhibit their search for resources at work – or they are less susceptible to perceive the mentioned resources. Thus, workers with disabilities are more vulnerable to stress and consequently they tend to experience more job dissatisfaction and psychological strain. On the contrary, when employees with disabilities have low family support the achievement of their need–satisfaction is more dependent on the resources obtained in the job domain. In this regard, for workers with low family support, job resources, especially POS, are particularly salient and their job satisfaction and psychological well-being might be directly dependent on this work resource and less sensitive to their job strain (Tetrick

et al., 2000). These results seem to indicate that the transfers of resources between different domains do not follow a pattern of reciprocity, contrary to what usually occurs between work-family conflict and outcomes (Demerouti, Bakker & Bulters, 2004; Jensen, 2016).

These findings may offer an interesting line of future research designed insofar as they identify a source of conflict between workers with disabilities and their families derived precisely from the family relationship, which has always been considered in principle to be positive. In addition, our results support the premise that negative family-to-work spillover should be related to work-related outcomes (Kinnunen et al., 2006). Future research should investigate what the optimal levels of family support would be, so that workers with disabilities could also be sensitive to the perception of organizational support, and both resources could mutually be reinforced. Thus, it could be expected that variable levels of support, which are balanced at the same time, in and outside the workplace would make them less vulnerable to the experience of stress, and consequently positively influence their job attitudes and well-being. In addition, future research should investigate whether negative spillover may be associated with the same kind of outcomes in the domain receiving the conflict (e.g., low general well-being or family dissatisfaction) (Kinnunen et al., 2006).

Implications for practice

The findings from our study have important practical implications for the management of people with disabilities in organizations. In the first place, the importance of designing instrumental and emotional support systems for workers with disabilities is clear. In addressing this task, however, organizational agents need to take into account the actual demand for support from workers with disabilities in every facet of their jobs and at each moment in their professional development. This would avert the negative impact on available resources to address job demands caused by perceptions not only that organizational support is lacking but also by the imbalance between support obtained at work and in the family domain. An integrative view of well-being and health should consider an employee's resources and outcomes as multi-domain processes, in the similar vein to what Bianchi, Truchot, Laurent, Brisson and Schonfeld (2014) propose when they define burnout as a multi-domain syndrome, related to employee's experiences in and outside work.

In the second place, our findings point to a need for organizations to design work-family support systems in line with the actual levels of support demanded by workers with disabilities. In this regard, it would be crucial to establish family-worker-organization feedback mechanisms in building a family-supportive organizational environment designed to foster family-work relations and to help the family provide appropriate support for workers with disabilities in their efforts to fit into their jobs (Ayree, Chun, Kim, & Ryu, 2013; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), so as to strike the right balance between the demand for support and the support actually offered (Ferguson et al, 2012). In the light of our results, it is also possible that emotionally distancing oneself from the family could be a coping strategy for workers with disability to gain sensitivity to organizational support and be less vulnerable to work stress and their negative outcomes. It would be the reverse mechanism used when disengagement or distancing oneself from work can act as a coping strategy causing lower levels of work-to-family conflict (Innstrand, Langballe, Espnes, Falkum, & Aasland, 2008).

In the third place, our findings could also help with job design to reinforce the autonomy of workers with disabilities, encourage their personal growth and boost job empowerment (Pati & Bailey, 1995) by fostering everyday competence in workers' transactions with their physical-spatial and social-interpersonal work surroundings (Diehls & Willis, 2003), and reducing underemployment and discrimination in the workplace (Colella & Stone, 2005; Schur et al, 2009; 2016). If work accommodations are designed taking into account real needs based on workers with disabilities' own assessments, and if organizational support is properly aligned with their actual needs (whether instrumental or emotional), then they will fit better into their jobs, allowing normalization of their situation as employees of ordinary, competitive organizations (Baldrige & Swift, 2013; Gilbride et al, 2003). At the same time, such measures would help people with disabilities improve their self-image, raise their self-esteem and avoid negative self-cognition, which they experience as a result of frequent stigmatization in many contexts (Jehta et al, 2014).

Limitations and conclusions

Despite the interesting findings obtained, our study is affected by the following limitations. First, the cross-sectional data used do not allow any investigation of the causal

relations between the variables analysed, and it will therefore be necessary to design longitudinal studies to observe changes over time. However, this will be no easy task given the low rate of employment and high rate of temporary working among people with disabilities in Spain (INE, 2016; Odismet, 2014). Second, the limitations of this study are obvious in relation to the participants and the size and representativity of the sample as a result of the procedure used. In particular, we were not able to obtain homogeneous groups of workers with different types of disabilities, preventing intergroup analysis. Third, another limitation is derived from the high number of questionnaires eliminated due to missing data, which is perhaps the consequence of a very extensive inventory, a condition that could be added to the usual response problems in online questionnaires. And four, all of the data used was obtained using a self-reporting procedure, and there is therefore a possibility of uncontrolled error due to common variance.

Moreover, our findings refer to a Spanish sample, which could limit the generalizability of the findings. In this light, it would be necessary to consider possible cultural features in each national context, and our finding should therefore be compared with the results obtained from samples taken in other countries with different cultures.

A final concern is the inclusion in future research of measures to capture the attitudes and responses of other actors, based on extended recognition of the perceptions of organizational agents (managers, supervisors and co-workers) and family members of the social support offered to workers with disabilities. Triangulation of the different sources of social support and the associated perceptions could throw light on the ways in which the experience of work is constructed by people with disabilities, by their non-disabled colleagues and by the members of their families, who live with them and share their experiences. All of this would help with the design of more effective integration strategies, eventually leading to full normalization of people with disabilities in ordinary jobs.

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