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Daily Work Engagement as a Mediator in the Relationship Between Self-Efficacy and Supervisory Support Toward Daily Performance

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Abstract

Research on the dynamic nature of work engagement and performance remains limited. This study aims to explore the impact of work engagement on performance through daily measurements over three weeks. Additionally, it strives to determine the role of supervisory support and self-efficacy in the dynamic interplay between work engagement and performance. This quantitative research employs a field experiment method involving 103 sales professionals in a multinational company over three working weeks. The analysis utilizes the Linear Growth Model approach, and mediation analysis is conducted using Mplus software. The results showed that work engagement is stable or insignificant changes each 5-day workweek for 3 weeks of measurement, this is supported by the measurement results that self-efficacy and supervisory support are proven to contribute significantly to work engagement. Meanwhile, performance is dynamic and shows a consistent decline each 5-day workweek for 3 weeks of measurement. Furthermore, self-efficacy and supervisory support are not proven to predict performance and work engagement is confirmed as a mediator between the roles of self-efficacy and supervisory support with performance. However, this mediating relationship only emerges during the 1st and 2nd week measurements. Research result and suggestion for future research are discussed.

Keywords: work engagement, performance, supervisory support, self-efficacy

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Introduction

Employee performance—behavior that is important in achieving organizational goals (Yin et al., 2019)—is a ubiquitous outcome variable in organizational behavior research (Colquitt et al., 2019). Employee performance is something that the organization desires to increase and optimize, so a high-performance employee is very much needed to reach the organization's goal of delivering products or services the organization specializes in and, ultimately, to achieve a competitive advantage.

The primary indicator of work performance can be seen through work engagement (Bakker et al. 2019). Work engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related psychological state that stems from the combination of three interrelated dimensions, namely vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) and is also known as the driver for improving performance (Gruman & Saks, 2011, pg. 123). Employees who are work engaged are more focused on their job tasks (Rich et al., 2010), present more pro-active behaviours (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008) and are more efficient at performing their tasks (Christian et al., 2011).

Performance and work engagement are both dynamic. Dalal et al. (2014), Park et al. (2015), Sonnentag & Frese (2012) stated that performance fluctuates over time and most employee performance varies from day to day (Dalal et al., 2009; Glomb, Bhave, et al., 2011, Dust et al., 2022). However, existing research provides limited insights into the dynamic pattern of daily work engagement and performance within a specific period (for example, in a week, Dust et al., 2022; Zuo et al., 2021).

Dust et al. (2022) research measured the change in performance across the workweek, and the result showed that the performance decreased from Monday to Friday, which was predicted by a depletion in motivational control. Zuo et al. (2021) have researched the trajectory of change in work engagement. The result showed that work engagement decreased from Monday to Friday, especially in dedication and absorption characteristics, which showed a significant decrease. Employees with work engagement view their jobs as challenges, which motivate them to finish the jobs in their best effort (Bakker, 2014). Yet, maintaining work engagement is challenging because it requires employees to keep using resources to carry out their work, and it is in line with the job demands-resources theory (JD-R). The theory of job demands-resources (JD-R) points out that employees who use resources continuously will experience increasing pressure over time (Hobfoll et al., 2018) and advises a decrease in work engagement.

The research conducted by Dust et al. (2022) and Zuo et al. (2021) was done over five working days, and the results showed that there are limitations and inconsistencies in looking at the dynamic cycle of work engagement. To answer the limitation of Zuo et al.'s research, this research has extended the research time for three weeks, considering the length of time would allow the researchers to get a more firm measurement of how work engagement is stable or changeable under the effect of work resources and how it is affected on performance.

To have a better understanding of the fluctuation cycle in work engagement, the researchers used the job demands-

resources (JD-R) theory, which states that work engagement changes when personal resources and job resources fluctuate (Bakker, 2014; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). The research conducted by Grobelna (2019) showed that the relationship between personal resources and job resources with performance is influenced by work engagement. Other research also found the same result. Rostiana & Lie (2019) found that the relationship between job resources and performance is also influenced by work engagement, and Perkasa & Rostiana (2018) showed that the relationships between personal resources and performance are influenced by work engagement. In the context of JD-R, job resources and personal resources are viewed as capable of increasing work engagement and reducing job demands.

Personal resources represent positive cognitions and self-evaluations concerning employees' perceptions of their ability to control and impact their environment (Bakker et al., 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009). Research also showed that self-efficacy is a personal resource related to work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Bandura (1977) stated that self-efficacy is defined as individuals' belief in their ability to perform tasks successfully. Based on the JD-R theory, self-efficacy works as a stable personal resource that helps employees interpret their jobs positively (Halbesleben, 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009) and manage their efforts for work, specifically those that are difficult and demanding (Bandura, 1977). The most recent research from Zuo et al. (2021) explained that daily self-efficacy has a positive relationship with daily work engagement. Self-efficacy will decrease significantly during consecutive 5-day working. To answer the limitations in Zuo et al.'s (2021) research, the researchers further included the job resource factor, which also functions as an external resource from the work environment that contributes to daily work engagement.

Job resources are the work aspects that can help an individual reach goals, manage job demands, or stimulate personal growth and development (Bakker & Demerouti 2017). The JD-R model shows that support from the supervisor is one of the organization's supports for the employees; hence, it is considered a job resource. Support from the supervisor is assistance from the supervisor to the employees (Susskind et al., 2003). In research conducted by Piotrowski et al. (2021), supervisory support has a stronger relationship with work engagement than support from coworkers. Heyns et al. (2021), Tauetsile (2021), and Schneider et al. (2018) also showed that supervisory support corresponds with work engagement. This research wishes to broaden the cross-sectional research that has been done by Piotrowski et al. (2021) on a wider research subject and longer research time to see if support from the supervisor could predict work engagement and daily performance in a 3-week study.

This research intends to understand the effect of work engagement and performance through a 3-week daily measurement. Moreover, this research aims to examine whether supervisory support and self-efficacy play a role in work engagement and performance relationship dynamics in the context of a finance company in Indonesia, where work engagement is positioned as the mediator. The research contributes to the literature on self-efficacy, supervisory support, work engagement, and performance. Firstly, the

researchers extend the literature by checking the pattern of daily change in work engagement and performance using a more elaborate weekly rhythmic approach over three weeks. Secondly, the researchers examine the correlation between self-efficacy and work engagement, supervisory support and work engagement, and work engagement and performance, which gave the researchers new insight into how personal resources and job resources could predict work engagement and performance. Thirdly, the researchers examine the mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between self-efficacy and supervisory support toward performance. Thus, the researchers extend the generalization of human resources management theory and practice that has been developed exclusively in Western countries.

Theoretical Basis and Hypothesis Development

The dynamic nature of work engagement: decrease in work engagement

Bakker (2014) explained that work engagement tends to fluctuate in conjunction with changes in the availability of scarce resources and willingness to expend these resources at work. In the midst of being engaged with work, employees often view their work as challenging and motivating (Bakker et al., 2014) and make substantial effort to excel in work tasks. However, sustaining heightened levels of engagement is difficult, because it requires employees to persistently consume resources in the execution of their roles. Following the JD-R model, employees who continuously use job resources and remain under pressure all the time (Zuo et al., 2021) will experience a decrease in work engagement. Research conducted by Zuo et al. (2021) showed that work engagement will keep decreasing within 5-day workweek because employees constantly encounter job demands that need to be done yet have no time to recharge their physical and mental resources after being used to work consecutively from Monday to Friday (Sonnentag et al., 2012), which may make it difficult for the employees to regulate their work behaviors and attention with diminished resources. However, the research conducted by Zuo et al. (2021) only measured the changes in work engagement over a 1-week period. How does work engagement change in a longer measurement, and does it show a similar pattern of change? Taking this into consideration, we extend the measurement time and hypothesised H_1 . There will be a decrease in work engagement across the 5-day workweek during the three weeks of measurement.

The dynamic nature of performance: decrease in performance

Dalal et al. (2009); Glomb, Bhave, et al. (2011), Dust et al. (2022) said that most of the employees' performance varied day by day. Furthermore, Dust et al. (2022), Kanfer (1990); Kanfer & Heggestad (1997) found that employees less able to maintain motivation, focus attention, and sustain their effort, they will also be less likely to complete their work tasks. Dust et al. (2022) research measured the change in performance across the workweek, and the result showed that the performance decreased from Monday to Friday, which was predicted

by a depletion in motivational control. Kahneman (1973) explained that there is short-term variability in performance which is due to changes in an individual's psycho-physiological state, including processing capacity across time. These changes may be caused by long working hours, or exposure to stress and may result in fatigue or in a decrease in activity. However, these states do not necessarily result in a performance decrease. Individuals are, for example, able to compensate for fatigue, be it by switching to different strategies or by increasing effort (Hockey, 1997; Van der Linden et al., 1971). With those two conditions, the result of Dust et al. (2022) research that there is a decrease in performance across the 5-day workweek and the condition that an individual's psycho-physiological changes do not necessarily cause performance decrease, it is necessary to measure performance in a longer time to see the consistency in performance change. How does performance change in measurement over three weeks working, and does it show a similar pattern? Taking this into consideration, we extend the measurement time and hypothesised H_2 . There will be a decrease in performance across the 5-day workweek during the three weeks of measurement.

The correlation between work engagement and performance

Employees view work as a challenge and motivation (Bakker et al., 2014) and strive to accomplish their tasks when they possess work engagement. Employees who are work engaged are more focused on their job tasks (Rich et al., 2010) and are more efficient at performing their tasks (Christian et al., 2011). Shimazu & Schaufeli (2009) point out the four characteristics of engaged employees that explain their better performance: 1) engaged employees feel more often positive emotions, 2) present better health, 3) are able to develop their own personnel resources and 4) engagement with others. Considering the evidence regarding the association between work engagement and performance, we hypothesised H_3 . Work engagement will have a positive correlation with performance.

The role of work engagement as a mediator in the relationship between self-efficacy and performance

Self-efficacy is a personal resource related to work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). More recent research by Zuo et al. (2021) found that changes in daily self-efficacy relate positively to the changes in daily work engagement. Self-efficacy can drive persistent effort and fuel work engagement (Bakker et al., 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009), because individuals with high self-efficacy have more confidence in their capacity to control over work and buttress against potential future losses. Self-efficacy determines people's perseverance of doing things, especially when they encounter difficulties (Bandura, 1991). Those who have high self-efficacy typically expect that things will go well, optimally use their capabilities, and actively seek help to obtain more resources in order to fulfill their roles and handle obstacles and unforeseen situations (Bakker et al., 2014). Taking into account that self-efficacy is proven has relationship with work engagement, the hypothesis is H_4 . Self-efficacy will have a positive correlation with work engagement.

Therefore, self-efficacy plays a role in performance increase or individual capabilities to reach goals or produce something (Bandura, 1971). Research conducted by Dewi & Rostiana (2018) explained that self-efficacy significantly has a positive attachment to individual performance. Self-efficacy is defined as individuals' belief in their ability to perform tasks successfully (Bandura, 1977). Employees' confidence is a predictor of their performance (de Jong, de Ruyter, & Wetzels, 2006). Individuals who have a high self efficacy are more likely to set themselves challenging goals which are most often achieved (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Stajkovic, 2006). Taking into account that self-efficacy is proven has relationship with performance, the hypothesis is H_5 . Self-efficacy will have a positive correlation with performance.

In addition, Tian et al. (2019) also found that employees with high self-efficacy will be more engaged in their work and make greater effort in their tasks, which should improve their performance. A highly confident employee is, thus, likely to be a more engaged and have higher performance. Employees engage in their work in a way that provides them with positive emotions that make them want to do their job better. Taking into account that work engagement is proven as a mediator of the relationship between self-efficacy and performance, the hypothesis is H_6 . Work engagement mediates the correlation between self-efficacy and performance.

The role of work engagement as a mediator of the relationship between supervisory support and performance

Employees with supportive supervisors have a higher intrinsic motivation to work (Eisenberger et al., 1986). This is because of the fact that employees feel that their supervisors value and care about them, provide the information they need, and listen to work and non-work issues, employees will be full of energy and passion at work, which will increase work engagement (Ocampo et al., 2018). Pattnaik & Panda (2020) stated that the support that employees get from supervisors is very helpful in increasing work engagement. Supervisor support can help employees improve operational efficiency to meet challenges quickly. Strong supervisor support leads to the formation of high-quality relationships between superiors and employees, which in turn affects work engagement. Employees believe that the supervisor's attention to their problems makes employees feel psychologically safe, and they will integrate all aspects of life such as work experience into their work. Taking into account that supervisory support is proven has relationship with work engagement, the hypothesis is H_7 . Supervisory support will have a positive correlation with work engagement.

Moreover, supervisory support could reduce the stress and anxiety of the employees, which is necessary for effective work performance (Babin & Boles, 1996), and make them remain engaged with their work (Sand & Miyazaki, 2000). Theoretically, perceived supervisory support leads to organizational productivity (Zhou et al., 2016) and business unit performance through work engagement (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2012). Therefore, we hypothesised H_8 . Supervisory support will have a positive correlation with performance, and H_9 . Work engagement mediates the correlation between supervisory support and performance.

Method

Participants

This research involved 103 male participants who work as salespersons at one of the Indonesian automotive financing companies. In the a priori calculation according to Westland (2010), the minimum sample size in both the mediation analysis and the growth model analysis is 87 to obtain adequate statistical power (>0.8), an a priori test is conducted based on the sample size (Westland, 2010; Cohen, 1988). This sample size was obtained with parameters such as low effect size, number of items 22, and alpha 95%. Participants are around 22–47 years old, with a dominant range of 26–30 years old (57.3%). The participants are salespersons with a minimum tenure of 2 to 38 months, dominated by >12 –24 months of tenure (41.7%). The participants' work locations are spread across Java (42.7%), Sumatera (45.6%), Sulawesi (7.8%), and Kalimantan (3.9%). Their education levels vary from high school (15.5%), diploma (9.7%), and bachelor's degree (74.8%). The sampling used for this research is the probability sampling method with cluster sampling technique.

Measurement

There were four instruments to measure self-efficacy, supervisory support, daily work engagement, and daily performance.

Self-efficacy was measured with the Salesperson Self-Efficacy Instrument, developed by Krishnan, Netemeyer, and Boles (2002), with a total of four items. Items were assessed using a 1–7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The instance of the item would be, "I know the right thing to do in selling situations." The Cronbach's alpha result for the measuring instrument was .904.

Supervisory support was measured with the Supervisory Support Scale, developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990), with a total of nine items. Items were assessed on a 1–5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). An instance of one of the items is as follows: "My supervisor takes the time to learn about my career goals and aspirations." The Cronbach's alpha result for the measuring instrument was .953.

Daily work engagement was measured with the Indonesian version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale-9 (UWES-9) instrument. The items in the instrument were nine and assessed on a 1–5 point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The instance of the item would be, "At my work, I feel bursting with energy." The Cronbach's alpha results for the measuring instrument was .933.

The daily performance was measured against the company's objective performance. Daily objective performance was measured using performance records in the form of the number of credit applications, the number of applications surveyed, and the number of daily sales within 3-week working.

Procedures

This study has received ethical clearance from the Tarumanagara University Research Ethics Committee with number No: 296-

TIM/KEPTM/3315/FPsi-UNTAR/X/2023. The research method used is quantitative, using the field experiment method and online questionnaire for data collection. On the other hand, performance measurement utilizes objective performance data. We recruited participants from employees working in automotive financing company in Indonesia. With the assistance of the company's Human Resources department, we asked participants for permission to send them daily surveys, explained the nature of the study (e.g., general purpose, format/length of surveys, timeline of surveys), and clearly stated that their responses were confidential, and that they could withdraw from the study at any time.

The data collection stage consists of three data collection times during one month period. There are Time 1 (T1), Time 2 (T2), and Time 3 (T3). T1, T2, and T3 were divided into two: measurements taken on Mondays and measurements taken from Tuesdays to Fridays, and all were taken after work. The measurements taken on Mondays were for self-efficacy, supervisory support, work engagement, and performance variables. On the other hand, the measurements taken on Tuesdays to Fridays only consist of variables on work engagement and performance. The daily data collection process was followed by the research explanation and the willingness to participate.

Analysis Technique

This study employs the Linear Growth Model (LGM) approach to analyze changes in work engagement and performance over time. The LGM framework is particularly suitable for capturing variations in these variables across multiple measurement points (Bliese & Ployhart, 2002). Mathematically, changes are represented as slopes or gradients, which describe the direction and magnitude of changes—either flat, increasing, or decreasing—across the measurement period. In this study, work engagement and performance were each measured three times, and the slope estimates were derived using Bayesian estimators. These estimators consider both sample-wide information and individual-level variability, making the estimates uniquely reflective of each participant's trajectory over time (Cohen et al., 2003; Pinheiro & Bates, 2000; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002).

The modeling process begins with a two-level equation. At Level 1, performance scores are modeled as a function of time and residuals, while Level 2 captures between-individual variability in both initial performance levels (intercept) and rates of change (slope). The critical parameter in these equations is the slope (π_{1j}), which reflects changes in performance for each individual across the five measurement points. The same approach is applied to work engagement,

enabling the calculation of daily changes in this mediator variable over the study period.

In addition, the study incorporates Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) and reliability testing to validate the consistency of the repeated measures. Average scores from the repeated measurements are used to calculate reliability and ensure that the data accurately reflect individual-level and group-level variability over time.

The use of LGM is justified because it offers a robust framework for examining longitudinal data, enabling researchers to capture individual trajectories and assess variability both within and between individuals. By incorporating fixed effects for general trends and random effects for individual differences, LGM provides a comprehensive understanding of how work engagement and performance evolve over time. This approach is particularly valuable in longitudinal research, where understanding dynamic changes is essential.

Furthermore, mediation analyses are conducted at each time point to explore how daily variations in work engagement influence performance over time. This approach acknowledges that the strength and direction of mediation effects may vary at different time points, providing a more nuanced understanding of the relationships between variables. By modeling mediation longitudinally, the study captures dynamic processes that a cross-sectional analysis might overlook, offering richer insights into the interplay between engagement and performance.

Results

The mean, standard deviation, and Pearson correlations between variables of self-efficacy, supervisory support, work engagement, and performance are presented in Table 1. Correlations revealed significant positive correlations between self-efficacy and work engagement ($r = .78, p < .01$) and also between supervisory support and work engagement ($r = .80, p < .01$). There were also statistically positive correlation between work engagement and performance ($r = .21, p < .05$). Self-efficacy and supervisory support were also positively correlated ($r = .74, p < .01$). There were not statistically correlations between self-efficacy and performance ($r = .07$) and also between supervisory support and performance ($r = .07$). ICC (Intraclass Correlation Coefficient) showed .99 for work engagement and .91 for performance, it indicates the rater correlation for each repeated measure with the criterion of $> .8$ consider a stable inter-rater correlation (Vangeneugden et al., 2005).

The research used the Linear Growth Model (LGM) approach to see the changes in work engagement and performance within

Tab. 1. Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlation Among Study Variables

	M	SD	ICC	α	1	2	3	4
1. Self-efficacy	25.82	3.35		0.904	1.00			
2. Supervisory support	40.28	6.86		0.953	.74**	1.00		
3. Work engagement	40.46	6.04	.99**	0.933	.78**	.80**	1.00	
4. Performance	5.92	3.61	.91**		.07	.07	.21*	1.00

Notes: $N=103$; ICC: interclass correlation coefficient

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

a time frame (Bliese & Ployhart, 2002). Change is described as a slope or gradient (flat, uphill, or downhill) calculated over a certain period (work engagement = 5-day measurement; performance = 5-day measurement). In this approach, a positive gradient value means an increase, and a negative value means a decrease, which happens over time in the variables included in the model. To obtain the estimated value from the gradient, the Bayes estimator that considers the overall and individual sample information is used (Cohen et al., 2003; Pinheiro & Bates, 2000; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). The result of LGM measurement can be seen in table 2.

Based on the output above, work engagement and performance fit with the LGM model (p -value < 0,05, BIC-DIC > 10). In the slope column, an insignificant value is found for work engagement (T1 means slope =-.097, p =.505; T2 means slope =-.179, p =.501; T3 means slope =-.098, p =.283). The value indicated no significant increase or decrease in the mean over the linear measurement time. Therefore, hypothesis 1 (H_1). There will be a decrease in work engagement across the 5-day workweek during the three weeks of measurement is not supported. Meanwhile, a significant value is found for variable performance, indicating a significant decrease in the mean within the linear measurement time (T1 means slope =-.834, p =.033; T2 means slope =-.851, p =.002; T3 means slope =-1.292, p =.006). Thus, hypothesis 2 (H_2). There will be a decrease in performance across the 5-day workweek during the three weeks of measurement is supported. The depiction of the LGM model can also be seen in this plot:

Fig. 1. Work Engagement Change Time 1

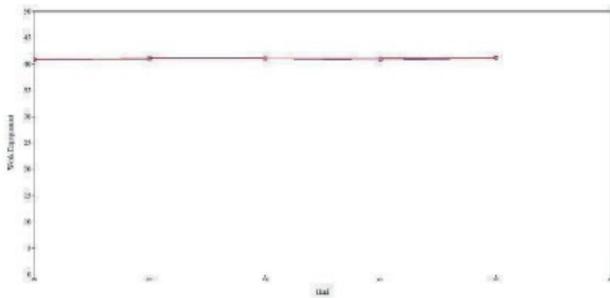


Fig. 2. Performance Change Time 1

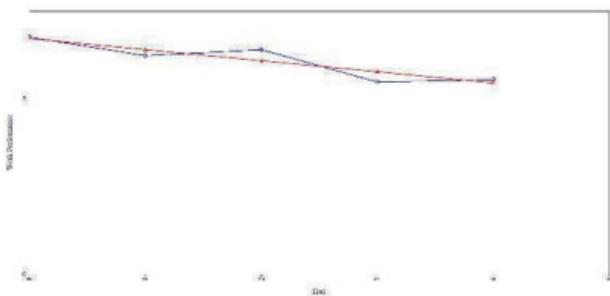


Fig. 3. Work Engagement Change Time 2

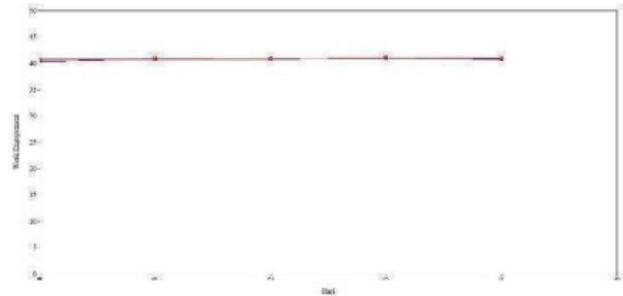


Fig. 4. Performance Change Time 2

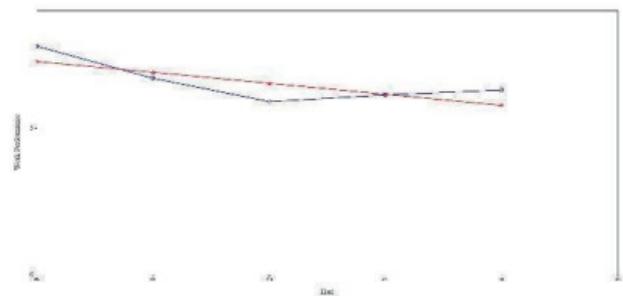


Fig. 5. Work Engagement Change Time 3

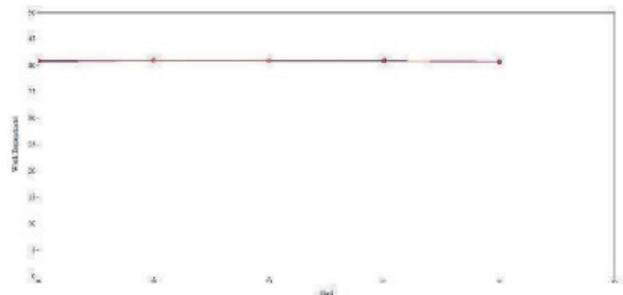
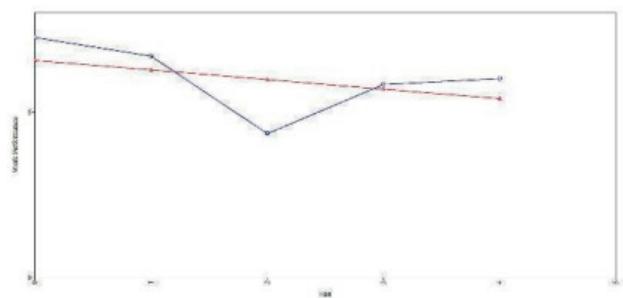


Fig. 6. Performance Change Time 3



Next, researchers examined our correlation and mediation hypotheses using Mplus software (Muthén & Muthén, 2017), based on the formulation of Baron and Kenny (1986), by

Tab. 2. Growth Model Analysis Time 1-3 of Work Engagement and Performance

Variable	Time Points	Posterior Predictive P-Value	BIC - DIC	Means Slope	P-Value	Notes
Work Engagement (T1)	5 (Daily)	.006	57.032	-.097	.505	Fit
Performance (T1)	5 (Daily)	.001	26.662	-.834	.033	Fit
Work Engagement (T2)	5 (Daily)	.031	26.412	.179	.501	Fit
Performance (T2)	5 (Daily)	.000	29.436	-.851	.002	Fit
Work Engagement (T3)	5 (Daily)	.031	26.967	-.098	.283	Fit
Performance (T3)	5 (Daily)	.000	26.967	-1.292	.006	Fit

calculating the analysis of the independent variable, the mediator, and the dependent variable to examine the indirect effect.

As shown in Table 3, the correlation and mediation hypotheses were measured in 3 measurement times, namely T1, T2 and T3. Based on the mediation analysis result using the Mplus software (Muthén & Muthén, 2017), a significant direct effect of work engagement ($\beta = .303$, $p = .027$) on performance was found in T1. It means hypothesis 3 (H_3).

Work engagement will have a positive correlation with performance on T1 is supported. Moreover, a significant direct effect of self-efficacy ($\beta = .750$, $p = .000$) on work engagement was found in T1. It means hypothesis 4 (H_4). Self-efficacy will have a positive correlation with work engagement on T1 is supported. There was also indirect effect of self-efficacy on performance was found significantly ($\beta = .227$, $p = .029$). However, there was no direct effect of self-efficacy ($\beta = .063$, $p = .139$) on performance in T1.

Tab. 3. Direct and Indirect Effects Among Study Variables and Work Engagement Analysis as Mediator

Time	Variable	Regression Coeff.	S.E.	Confidence Interval		T-Value	2-Tailed	Notes	Role of Mediation
				5%	95%		P Value		
T1	SE - WE - Pe								Full
	SE -> Pe	.063	.139	-.166	.292	.454	.650	Unaccepted	
	WE -> Pe	.303	.137	.078	.527	2.215	.027	Accepted	
	SE -> WE	.750	.043	.679	.821	17.409	.000	Accepted	
	Indirect Effect	.227	.104	.056	.227	2.178	.029	Accepted	
	Total Effect	.290	.090	.142	.439	3.217	.001	Accepted	
T1	SS - WE - Pe								Full
	SS -> Pe	.051	.136	-.173	.274	.375	.708	Unaccepted	
	WE -> Pe	.313	.133	.094	.531	2.352	.019	Accepted	
	SS -> WE	.735	.045	.660	.809	16.205	.000	Accepted	
	Indirect Effect	.230	.100	.066	.394	2.304	.021	Accepted	
	Total Effect	.281	.091	.131	.430	3.091	.002	Accepted	
T2	SE - WE - Pe								None
	SE -> Pe	-.016	.163	-1.133	1.004	-.099	.921	Unaccepted	
	WE -> Pe	.243	.161	-.070	1.460	1.510	.131	Unaccepted	
	SE -> WE	.808	.034	.995	1.261	23.641	.000	Accepted	
	Indirect Effect	.197	.131	-.019	.412	1.501	.133	Unaccepted	
	Total Effect	.180	.095	.024	.337	1.893	.058	Unaccepted	
T2	SS - WE - Pe								Full
	SS -> Pe	-.227	.140	-.458	.004	-1.620	.105	Unaccepted	
	WE -> Pe	.399	.137	.174	.624	2.919	.004	Accepted	
	SS -> WE	.744	.044	.672	.816	16.924	.000	Accepted	
	Indirect Effect	.297	.105	.124	.470	2.825	.005	Accepted	
	Total Effect	.070	.098	-.091	.231	.713	.476	Unaccepted	
T3	SE - WE - Pe								None
	SE -> Pe	.164	.184	-.139	.467	.888	.374	Unaccepted	
	WE -> Pe	.071	.185	-.233	.375	.384	.701	Unaccepted	
	SE -> WE	.855	.027	.811	.899	32.237	.000	Accepted	
	Indirect Effect	.061	.158	-.199	.321	.384	.701	Unaccepted	
	Total Effect	.224	.094	.070	.378	2.398	.016	Accepted	
T3	SS - WE - Pe								None
	SS -> Pe	.138	.149	-.108	.384	.921	.357	Unaccepted	
	WE -> Pe	.105	.150	-.141	.351	.702	.483	Unaccepted	
	SS -> WE	.769	.040	.703	.835	19.088	.000	Accepted	
	Indirect Effect	.081	.115	-.109	.270	.701	.483	Unaccepted	
	Total Effect	.219	.094	.064	.373	2.329	.020	Accepted	

Notes: WE=Work Engagement, Pe=Performance, SE=Self-efficacy, SS=Supervisory support, T1=1st week measurement, T2=2nd week measurement, T3=3rd week measurement

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

=.650) on performance. These mean hypothesis 5 (H_5). Self-efficacy will have a positive correlation with performance on T1 is not supported but hypothesis 6 (H_6). Work engagement mediates the correlation between self-efficacy and performance on T1 is supported. Self-efficacy predicted work engagement and work engagement predicted performance in T1 and also acted as a full mediator of the correlation between self-efficacy and performance.

The result of the mediation analysis in T1 also found a significant direct effect of supervisory support ($\beta = .735$, $p = .000$) on work engagement, it means hypothesis 7 (H_7). Supervisory support will have a positive correlation with work engagement is supported. Likewise, a significant direct effect of work engagement ($\beta = .313$, $p = .019$) on performance was also found. It means hypothesis 3 (H_3). Work engagement will have a positive correlation with performance on T1 is supported. Indirect effect of supervisory support on performance was found significantly ($\beta = .230$, $p = .021$). The researchers did not find a direct effect of supervisory support ($\beta = .051$, $p = .708$) on performance. Therefore, hypothesis 9 (H_9). Work engagement mediates the correlation between supervisory support and performance on T1 is supported, but hypothesis 8 (H_8). Supervisory support will have a positive correlation with performance on T1 is not supported. Supervisory support predicted work engagement and work engagement predicted performance in T1 and also acted as a full mediator of the correlation between supervisory support and performance.

While for the mediation result in T2, significant direct effect from self-efficacy ($\beta = -.016$, $p = .921$) and work engagement ($\beta = .243$, $p = .131$) on performance were not found but a significant direct effect was found from self-efficacy ($\beta = .808$, $p = .000$) on work engagement. These mean hypothesis 3 (H_3). Work engagement will have a positive correlation with performance on T2 and hypothesis 5 (H_5). Self-efficacy will have a positive correlation with performance on T2 are not supported, but hypothesis 4 (H_4). Self-efficacy will have a positive correlation with work engagement on T2 is supported. Moreover, indirect effect of self-efficacy on performance was not found ($\beta = .197$, $p = .133$). It means hypothesis 6 (H_6). Work engagement mediates the correlation between self-efficacy and performance on T2 is not supported. Self-efficacy predicted work engagement but work engagement did not predict performance. Work engagement also did not act as a full mediator of the correlation between self-efficacy and performance.

A different analysis result was found on the mediator role of work engagement towards the correlation between supervisory support and performance in T2. The result of the correlation was that T2 appeared to be consistent with T1. A significant direct effect of supervisory support ($\beta = .744$, $p = .000$) on work engagement was found. It means hypothesis 7 (H_7). Supervisory support will have a positive correlation with work engagement is supported. Likewise, a significant direct effect of work engagement ($\beta = .399$, $p = .004$) on performance was also found. It means hypothesis 3 (H_3). Work engagement will have a positive correlation with performance on T2 is supported. Indirect effect of supervisory support on performance was found significantly ($\beta = .297$, $p = .005$). The researchers did not find a direct effect of supervisory support ($\beta = -.227$, p

=.105) on performance. Therefore, hypothesis 9 (H_9). Work engagement mediates the correlation between supervisory support and performance on T2 is supported, but hypothesis 8 (H_8). Supervisory support will have a positive correlation with performance on T2 is not supported. Work engagement acted as a full mediator on the correlation between supervisory support and performance.

The result for T3 measurement was found no significant effect between work engagement and performance on both mediator relationships. No significant direct effect from self-efficacy ($\beta = .164$, $p = .374$) and work engagement ($\beta = .071$, $p = .701$) on performance were found. These mean hypothesis 3 (H_3). Work engagement will have a positive correlation with performance on T3 and hypothesis 5 (H_5). Self-efficacy will have a positive correlation with performance on T3 are not supported. Indirect effect of self-efficacy ($\beta = .061$, $p = .701$) on performance was not found significantly. Only a significant direct effect of self-efficacy ($\beta = .855$, $p = .000$) on work engagement was found in T3. These mean hypothesis 4 (H_4). Self-efficacy will have a positive correlation with work engagement on T3 is supported but hypothesis 6 (H_6). Work engagement mediates the correlation between self-efficacy and performance on T3 is not supported. Self-efficacy predicted work engagement but work engagement did not predict performance. Work engagement also did not act as a full mediator of the correlation between self-efficacy and performance.

Likewise, no significant direct effect from supervisory support ($\beta = .138$, $p = .357$) and work engagement ($\beta = .105$, $p = .483$) on performance were also found. These mean hypothesis 3 (H_3). Work engagement will have a positive correlation with performance on T3 and hypothesis 8 (H_8). Supervisory support will have a positive correlation with performance on T3 are not supported. Indirect effect of supervisory support ($\beta = .081$, $p = .483$) on performance was not found significantly. Only a significant direct effect of supervisory support ($\beta = .769$, $p = .000$) on work engagement was found in T3. Thus, hypothesis 7 (H_7). Supervisory support will have a positive correlation with work engagement is supported but hypothesis 9 (H_9). Work engagement mediates the correlation between supervisory support and performance on T3 is not supported.

Discussion and Conclusions

This research aims to examine the dynamic of work engagement and performance. The analysis result found insignificant changes in work engagement from Monday to Friday. The pattern is consistent within the three weeks of measurement. According to the research result from Xanthopoulou et al. (2009), work engagement is influenced by job and personal resources. Resources have been consistently identified as the strongest predictors of work engagement (Bailey et al., 2017). This research shows that job resources (supervisory support) and personal resources (self-efficacy) could predict work engagement. The result remains consistent over three weeks of measurement. Gillet et al. (2013) show that the more support from supervisors received as organizational support, the higher

employees' work engagement is. When employees believe their supervisors support them, they have a higher intrinsic motivation to work (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and remain engaged in their work (Sand & Miyazaki, 2000). The higher the self-efficacy is, employees will have personal resources that could help them interpret their tasks more positively (Halbesleben, 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007, 2009) and manage the efforts they put in for work, especially in challenging and demanding tasks (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, it can be concluded that work engagement is relatively stable across the 5-day workweek during the three weeks of measurement because of the role of job resources in the form of supervisory support and personal resources in the self-efficacy form.

On the other hand, the analysis results for performance exhibit consistent downward changes in performance from Monday to Friday across the 5-day workweek during the three weeks of measurement. The same case has been shown in the research conducted by Dust et al. (2022), using the entrainment theory to explain that performance subsides from Monday to Friday. Entrainment theory is when human activity begins to synchronize with the pattern and rhythm of social systems, norms, and institutions (Beal & Ghandour, 2011; Hülshager et al., 2014); its repercussions cannot be avoided as it is something we are not conscious of. Indeed, for the majority, work happens from Monday to Friday, and Saturday and Sunday are for leisure time. At the temporal starting point, in this case, Monday, employees tend to feel they can pull through the week and carry out their tasks (Schmidt et al., 2009). After going through the days of the week, employees tend to feel that they cannot finish their tasks. They choose more simple tasks that require less effort instead (Waller et al., 2001) or, for some, leave their tasks behind. Dust et al. (2022) also demonstrate the majority of employee performance fluctuates daily. Working consecutive days prevents employees from getting enough sleep to recuperate from their demanding jobs and return their bodies and minds to normal. There is empirical evidence to support the claim that workers who encounter high levels of stress at work frequently report poor recovery the following day (Sonnentag et al., 2012). Individual psycho-physiological variations give rise to short-term variability in performance, as explained by Kahneman (1973). These alterations, which could lead to weariness or a decrease in activity, could be brought on by lengthy workdays or stressful situations.

Further analysis is needed of the role of work engagement in predicting performance in mediating self-efficacy and performance and work engagement in mediating between supervisory support and performance. The participants of the research are staff in the sales team who work based on monthly targets. The T1 in this research is measured on the third week of the measurement. In T1, the analysis results exhibit that work engagement predicts performance and has a mediator role in self-efficacy and supervisory support with performance. The two resources, which are self-efficacy and supervisory support, take part in predicting work engagement. Self-efficacy contributes to the motivation that affects individuals' obstacles, efforts, and persistence (Bandura, 1989). A positive relationship with work engagement predicts that self-efficacy can support or absorb work engagement. Likewise, the results

also exhibit that supervisory support predicts work engagement. Employees who perceive that their supervisors support them have a higher intrinsic motivation to work (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Perceived supervisory support leads to organizational productivity (Zhou et al., 2016) and business unit performance through work engagement (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2012).

The T2 falls on the fourth week of the month of the measurement. It is the last week to meet the monthly targets. In that condition, supervisory support is more significant in predicting performance through work engagement. Supervisors who pay attention to their team's target goals and give feedback or advice to reach the targets could develop their employees' motivations, which leads to organizational productivity. However, self-efficacy in T2 also plays a role in predicting work engagement.

In T3, which falls on the first week of the month, the sales team staff start the week with a new monthly target. The results exhibit that self-efficacy and supervisory support could predict work engagement. However, work engagement could not predict performance. Therefore, it is assumed, there is another factor that influences performance. Sonnentag et al. (2002) show that performance is influenced by situational factors, or factors in an individual's environment that support performance and, at the same time, hinder performance. The situational factors that support performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), like job characteristics, influence an individual's psychological conditions. Eventually, those kinds of situational factors affect individual and work outcomes, including work engagement. On the other hand, situational factors that hinder performance, like situational constraints and limitations, distract performance directly (Sonntag et al., 2002). Situational constraints include stressors such as lack of necessary information, problems with machines and supplies as well as stressors within the work environment. Situational constraints are assumed to impair job performance directly. Moreover, situational constraints, as other stressors, can have an indirect effect on performance by requiring additional regulation capacity (Greiner & Leitner, 1989). This research explores objective performance, which is the number of credit applications, the number of prospective customers surveyed, and the number of credit applications financed, that determine the sales team staff performance and are influenced by external factors. Within the scope of sales staff's work, which can be classified into the top three situational constraints that occur in the T3, there are issues in inputting credit applications and problems with prospective customers and with the dealer or showroom PIC. Empirical support for the assumed detrimental effect of situational constraints and other stressors on performance is mixed (Jex, 1998). However, there are limitations in evaluating further the situational constraints due to data limitations.

There are many factors that can affect performance. In this study, it is seen that self-efficacy, supervisory support, and the role of work engagement as a mediator do not always affect performance, different results are seen from 3 weeks of measurement time. This is a limitation in this study, that there are other factors that affect performance, namely individual differences (abilities, personality, education and training, etc.), individuals' environment (reward systems, job characteristics,

etc.) which stimulate and support or hinder performance, and performance regulation perspective (Sonnentag et al., 2002). Because individual performance has very important role in organizational development and sustainable, it is suggested to explore many others personalities and situational variables that performance, especially for tasks in the marketing scope. For examples training and reward systems. Training has the potential to raise individual performance through improvements in key workplace attitudes and behaviors (Bartel, 2000; Santos & Stuart, 2003). Training is a key human resources management practice that influences work engagement and related behavioral and performance outcomes through organizational climate and the job demands and resources experienced by employees in their work roles (Albrecht et al., 2015; Shantz et al., 2016). Reward, such as monetary reward is a well known motivational incentive, as individuals expend more effort and utilize more cognitive resources to perform better on tasks with monetary reward (Knutson et al., 2000; Small et al., 2005; Engelman et al., 2009; Hübner and Schlösser, 2010). The next limitation is information used in the research was based on self-report responses, except performance. For further research, it would be desirable to collect data from multiple sources such as including superior sources in order to yield more robust results.

Overall, our study provides an important evidence regarding the dynamic nature of performance and tendency for work engagement to remain stable. This study also provides empirical evidence to support interests in understanding the effect of self-efficacy and supervisory support on work engagement and performance. The effect of supervisory support on work engagement and performance is more consistent than the effect of self-efficacy. This may encourage companies to train supervisors how to provide better support to their subordinates or train supervisors to be good leaders. Based on the study's findings and with an emphasis on the practical implications, companies must identify the situational elements that influence performance as well as the personal and job resources that influence work engagement. The goal of this is to raise employee performance.

Ethical Approval

This study's protocol was designed in concordance with ethical requirements specific to the Faculty of Psychology, University of Tarumanagara (No: 296-TIM/KEPTM/3315/FPsi-UNTAR/X/2023), before beginning the study. All participants voluntarily participated in the study and gave written informed consent regarding ethical conduct in scientific research

Data availability statement

The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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Author Contributions

Rostiana: Conceptualization, study design, literature review, data analysis, supervisor. Monika Dwi Kristiani: Paper writing, data collection, data analysis.

Conflict of Interests

The authors declare no financial interests/personal relationships, which may be considered as potential competing interests

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