Received: 4 September 2017 | Revised: 7 March 2019 | Accepted: 15 March 2019

DOI: 10.1111/ijsa.12238

FEATURE ARTICLE

International Journal of Selection and Assessment | WILEY

Transitioning from recruit to officer: An investigation of how stress appraisal and coping influence work engagement

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Funding information
European Union Seventh Framework Programme, Grant/Award Number: PCIG10-GA-2011-303880; Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia (FCT), Grant/Award Number: DFRH/BI/51845/2012; FCT and FEDER, Grant/Award Number: 22153-01/SAICT/2016

Abstract

This study investigated stress, coping, and work engagement among Portuguese police officers while undergoing academy training and then 1 year later, when on duty. It was hypothesized that stress appraisal and coping preferences predicted engagement. Additionally, in order to test a full cross-lagged prediction model, it was hypothesized that stress, coping, and engagement in recruits predicted these variables later when working as police officers. Structural equation modeling was used to test the research hypotheses. Results suggest that coping and stress appraisals do not seem to be strong predictors of work engagement among recruits and police officers on duty. With the exception of self-blame, that seems to be a strong predictor of work engagement among police officers on duty. These results highlight the need to investigate other potential variables such as working conditions that may better explain work engagement. Considering the positive influence of engagement on health, wellbeing, and performance of police recruits and officers future applied and theoretical implications are discussed.

KEYWORDS
coping, work engagement, police officers, police recruits, stress appraisal

1 | INTRODUCTION

According to the transactional perspective from Lazarus and Folkman (1984), stress occurs when demands exceed the person's adaptive resources. No event is considered inherently stressful, although it depends on the individual's subjective perception (Zakowski, Hall, Klein, & Baum, 2001). Considering that stress is an inevitable aspect in everyday life, coping makes the difference in adaptational processes, being characterized by people's efforts to manage the external and/or internal demands of a situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Evidence suggests that police work is a particularly stressful occupation even when undergoing academy training (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010; Strahler & Ziegert, 2015) therefore it seems important to understand how this population copes with stress early in their career while transitioning from academy training to working on duty as officers. Accordingly, further attention should be dedicated to this area of study in order to provide stronger training interventions for officers on duty. Although previous research in the area of occupational health has provided strong insights, some methodological and conceptual limitations restrict conclusions (Hickman, Fricas, Strom, & Pope, 2011). As an example a study by Kaiseler, Queirós, Passos, and Sousa (2014) investigating the influence of stress and coping on work engagement provided an important insight to this area of study, however conclusions may be limited by the cross-sectional nature of the research and the statistical analysis used.

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Moreover, previous research investigating police officers' occupational stress are mainly focused in describing the nature of stressors, without considering the appraisal process or potential impact on wellbeing (McCarty & Lawrence, 2016). Additionally, most of the police occupational health research has mainly focused in the relationship between psychological distress and coping, restricting conclusions on the understanding of wellbeing and optimal functioning.

Over the last two decades, growing evidence supports the study of engagement as an outcome variable for employee wellbeing (Ouweneel, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & van Wijhe, 2012). Engaged workers are energetic, dedicated, proactive, and committed to high-quality standards (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Following this argument, and considering that coping strategies seem to predict engagement among separate time points in an officer career, namely recruits (e.g., Kaiseler et al., 2014) and officers (e.g., Rothmann, Jorgensen, & Hill, 2011), it seems crucial to understand the relationship between these variables during the transition from recruits to officers. To pursue this line of investigation, the present study aims to investigate the relationship between stress appraisal, coping, and engagement across two important phases of a police officer career, respectively, while undergoing academy training, and 1 year later while working on duty.

2 | LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 | Stress and coping process

In order to explain how people, cope with stress, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) proposed the transactional model of stress and coping. This model has been extensively used, and its theoretical foundations are well accepted by the academic community and practitioners (e.g., Sakakibara & Endo, 2016; Young, Partington, Wetherell, Gibson, & Partington, 2014). According to this perspective, stress and coping is a dynamic and recursive process that includes interactions between the environment, individual appraisal and efforts to cope with the implications originated by these events. Accordingly, an event may be perceived as stressful, when the demands of a situation exceed the resources of the individual to deal with that situation. The key variable in this model is appraisal. Stress appraisal encompasses two types of appraisals. First, the primary appraisal is related with the meaning that an individual gives to an event. When an event is appraised as being a threat to the individual's wellbeing, the secondary appraisal process begins. Secondary appraisal refers to a complex evaluative process, whereas the individual assesses the available coping options in relation to the specific situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The secondary appraisal process addresses judgments of the resources available to the individual, such as coping strategies and the degree of perceived control in meeting the demands of the situation (Zakowski et al., 2001). Perceived control in this way influences the level of perceived stress as well as coping strategies. As an example, higher perceptions of control are associated with positive appraisals (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). When people face stressful situations, coping strategies are used in order to deal with the events. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined coping as a "constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (p. 141). According to the same authors, coping responses can be classified into two higher order categories or dimensions: problem-focused (PF) and emotion-focused (EF). PF involves ones' efforts to deal with the situation, (e.g., problem solving, planning) whereas EF involves efforts to regulate the emotional distress associated with the situation (e.g., acceptance, seeking social support).

2.2 | Stress and coping among police personnel

Policing is an example of a highly stressful occupation (Strahler & Ziegert, 2015). Police organizations are institutions opened 24 hr per day that need to be ready to respond effectively to a variety of societal demands. Police officers are likely to experience a vast array of stressors within a shift. For instance, an officer may be solving a confrontation with an offender, and simultaneously be called upon to help a family of a road trauma victim (Williams, Ciarrochi, & Deane, 2010). Some of these situations are stressful, frustrating, intense, and/or emotionally challenging, depending on the way officers' process and give meaning to their experiences (Colwell, Lyons, Bruce, Garner, & Miller, 2011). Considering that the majority of studies analyzing police stress are focused on stressors typology rather than the way officers' appraised events, there seems to be a clear need to understand police officers' subjective experience of events (Colwell et al., 2011).

Before becoming a qualified police officer, individuals undertake a demanding period of training in the academy, preparing them to real-world settings (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010) this. Academy training programs for officers are extremely demanding and include physical training, performing under stress, use of defensive tactics, weapons, and force. In what concerns to coping among police recruits, a longitudinal study conducted by McCarty and Lawrence (2016) among 227 American police recruits, concluded that coping shifted significantly over time, particularly recruits used more task-oriented and outreach strategies at the beginning of the academy and more avoidance coping strategies at the end. However, a limitation found was that although the paper suggested being informed by Lazarus and Folkman theoretical framework, stress appraisal was not assessed. Thus, restricting conclusions on whether the distinct coping strategies found were due to differences in appraisal. Accordingly, control appraisals may be related with more active and PF coping use, whereas lack of control appraisal may be associated with more use of EF coping (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004).

In regard to coping among officers, acknowledging that stress is inevitable in the profession, the understanding of how officers deal with it (i.e., coping) seems to be a research priority. Particularly considering the existing evidence suggesting that police personnel have limited coping abilities (Anshel, Umscheid, & Brinthaupt, 2013). Despite this need, the evidence on ways of coping used by officers and their respective effectiveness are ambiguous and sometimes

contradictory. As an example, Stepka and Basinska (2014) developed a study with 61 Polish police officers and found direct action and positive thinking were the most often used coping strategies. In contrast a study by Alexander and Walker (1994) aiming to investigate coping among 758 Scottish officers, found that officers typically used coping strategies such as talk with colleagues, work more, and keep things to themselves. Hence, further research is warranted investigating coping and among police force in order to inform effective stress management interventions for this population.

2.3 | Work engagement

Acknowledging the insightful influence of positive psychology in occupational health research, the focus has now changed from a negative and distressful perspective to positive functioning and wellbeing (e.g., Rothmann et al., 2011). Engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind, characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience at work. Dedication is defined as being strongly involved in work tasks and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and immersed in one's work, feeling that time flies while working (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Essentially, engaged workers perceive their work as stimulating, therefore they dedicate more time and effort (vigor), as an important and meaningful achievement (dedication), and as something that requires their full focus (absorption) (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). There seems to be a clear relationship between stress and engagement, particularly engaged workers are more motivated and less likely to experience stressed. Accordingly, Schiffrin and Nelson (2009) suggested that by reducing stress levels, work engagement should increase.

Evidence suggests that work engagement is a relatively stable phenomenon, and not a momentary state of mind (e.g., Rothmann et al., 2011; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). It seems to be a more persistent and pervasive affective cognitive state. However, this view is not unanimous and a contrast perspective suggests that engagement fluctuates over short periods of time (e.g., Sonnentag, Dormann, & Demerouti, 2010), and following this trend the concept has been studied also at a daily level (e.g., Ouweneel et al., 2012). Thus, longitudinal research is required to understand the variance of the concept over time.

2.4 | Work engagement among police personnel

Most empirical research up to date in the area of occupational health among police officers had mainly focused on negative concepts of health (e.g., stress, burnout). Following the positive psychology paradigm promoting the study of optimal functioning, as opposed to dysfunctions and problems (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), research in policing occupational health should further understand officers' wellbeing in order to inform effective solutions.

Engagement seems to be predicted by a combination of job and personal resources (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011). As an example, a study conducted by Rothmann et al. (2011) aiming to investigate the relationship between coping and work engagement among different professions, used a sample of 2,145 police officers. Findings suggest that personal resources, and particularly coping was the strongest predictor of work engagement. However, a limitation found in this study was that stress appraisal was not assessed.

A study conducted by Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, & Heuvel, 2015 with 847 Dutch police officers aiming to examine the process through which leader–member exchange (LMX) is related to followers' job performance. Results showed that employees in high-quality LMX relationships work in a more resourceful work environment (i.e., report more developmental opportunities and social support, but not more autonomy), facilitating work engagement and job performance. Other study conducted by Kaiseler et al. (2014) with a sample of 387 police recruits aimed to investigate the influence of stress appraisal (e.g., stress intensity and control) and coping on work engagement. Results showed that perceived control over a stressor was associated with engagement and police recruits with higher levels of engagement, also used more active coping and less behavioral disengagement. Although this study made an important contribution to knowledge, it presented some shortcomings, related with the cross-sectional nature and the use of hierarchical regression analysis (HRA). The ability to deal with latent factors and measurement error reduction makes structural equation modeling more suitable than HRA (Marôco, 2014).

Considering that work engagement is an important predictor of wellbeing among recruits and officers, it seems important to understand if engagement tends to be maintained or whether it fluctuates over time. This insight would be useful to inform future engagement interventions targeting police recruits and officers.

2.5 | The current study

Considering the importance of studying stress, coping, and engagement among police professionals and acknowledging the previous research limitations, the current study aims to investigate the relationship between stress appraisal, coping, and engagement among Portuguese police personnel transitioning from recruits to officers. Following the findings from Kaiseler et al. (2014), we intend to understand if, and how stress appraisal and coping are related with engagement in two important moments of an officer career. Considering the effectiveness of Lazarus and Folkman integrative model in analyzing the meaning, appraisal, and coping process, this theoretical framework will inform our study. Structural equation modeling will be used, considering that this powerful statistical technique will allow to assess the fit to the data of the theoretical model. Hence, three hypotheses were developed:

H1: Stress appraisal and coping predicts work engagement among police recruits.

H2: Stress appraisal and coping predicts work engagement among police officers.

H3: Stress, coping, and engagement among recruits predict stress, coping, and engagement among police officers.

3 | METHOD

3.1 | Participants and procedure

From a total of 387 Portuguese volunteers recruited as participants at wave 1—while undergoing academy, 356 officers accepted to participate at wave 2 of the study—while working on duty (324 men, 32 women). The recruits' ages ranged between 20 and 33 years (M = 24.1, SD = 2.5) on wave 1 and from 21 to 34 years (M = 25.3, SD = 2.4) on wave 2. Regarding participants' educational level, they had at least the secondary school grade, which is the national requirement to complete the proposed academy training. The study was approved by the University's ethical department as well as Police Academy and National Direction of national police force (Políca de Segurança Pública—PSP). After granting ethics approval, the researchers sent digital letters to academy police recruits by e-mail, providing specific information about the study. Data were collected at two different moments in time over a 12 months period. In the first moment, participants were police recruits enrolled in the Police Academy, undergoing their last month of training. In the second moment, participants were already police officers working on their first year of duty for the national police force in the city of Lisbon. The participants started by completing a consent form, and an online survey available on the academy Moodle platform (wave 1). Following 12 months, participants were contacted by e-mail and asked to complete the second online survey (wave 2).

3.2 | Measures

To assess stress appraisal, participants were asked to remember a particular stressor related with academy training at wave 1 and with the profession at wave 2. Following this, participants were asked to report their primary appraisal of that stressor in terms of stress intensity, and secondary appraisal relating to control over the stressor. For both appraisal measures, responses were recorded on a Likert scale with response anchors 1—"*Not at all stressful*" and 5—"*Extremely stressful*," or 1—"*No control at all*" and 5 – "*Full control*." This approach was similar to that used in previous research in the area of stress appraisal and coping among police personnel (e.g., Kaiseler et al., 2014).

Coping was assessed using BriefCOPE (Carver, 1997; Portuguese version: Pais-Ribeiro & Rodrigues, 2004). The same instrument was completed at wave 1 and 2 (BriefCOPE). The BriefCOPE comprises 28 questions on a 4-point Likert scale (1—"*I haven't been doing this at all*" to 4—"*I've been doing this a lot*"), where two items each form the following 14 subscales: Active Coping (AC); Planning (P); Positive Reframing (PR); Acceptance (A); Humour (H); Religion (R); Emotional Support (ES); Instrumental Support (IS); Self-Distraction (*SD*); Denial (D); Venting (V); Substance Use; Behavioural Disengagement (BD), and Self-Blame (SB).

Work engagement was assessed using the 9-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2009; Portuguese version: Picado, Marques Pinto, & Lopes da Silva, 2008) at wave 1 and at wave 2. This self-report scale was scored on a 7-point Likert scale (0—"*Never*" to 6—"*Always*"). The scale includes three subscales (Vigour; Dedication; Absorption) with three items each.

3.3 | Data analysis

All statistical analyses were performed with *R* (R Core Team, 2018) and through the integrated development environment *RStudio* (RStudio Team, 2018). Preliminary analyses were conducted to explore the data. The missing values were imputed with the predicted values obtained through linear regression. In order to analyze items' distributional properties, the descriptive statistics were produced using the *skimr* package (McNamara, Arino de la Rubia, Zhu, Ellis, & Quinn, 2018) to produce items' histograms, means, medians, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation, the package *plotrix* (Lemon, 2006) to produce the standard error of the mean (*SEM*). The coefficient of variation (CV) was estimated with the package *sjstats* (Lüdecke, 2019), and the skewness (sk) and kurtosis (ku) were calculated with package *psych* (Revelle, 2018). Severe violations to univariate normality were considered for values of sk greater or equal to 3, and for ku values greater or equal to 7 (Finney & DiStefano, 2013).

The dimensionality of the instruments was tested using a set of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the package *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012). Four CFAs were conducted, respectively, for the BriefCOPE and EWES-9 at wave 1 and wave 2. The goodness-of-fit indices used were: χ^2/df (ratio of chi-square to its degrees of freedom), SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual), TLI (Tucker Lewis Index), NFI (Normed Fit Index), RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation), and the CFI (Comparative Fit Index). The fit of the model was considered good for TLI, CFI, and TLI values above 0.95; SRMR below 0.08, and RMSEA values below 0.08, and χ^2/df smaller than 5 (Boomsma, 2000; Byrne, 2010; Hoyle, 1995; McDonald & Ho, 2002). The convergent validity was assessed with the average variance extracted (AVE; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Values greater or equal to 0.50 were indicative of acceptable convergent validity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009).

The reliability of the scores in terms of internal consistency was calculated for each of the dimension of the psychometric instruments used. The ordinal omega (ω; Bollen, 1980; Raykov, 2001) was calculated; in addition the second-order factor reliability through the omega coefficient was assessed with three different estimators (Jorgensen, Pornprasertmanit, Schoemann, & Rosseel, 2018). The ω_{L2} (i.e., proportion of the second-order factor explaining the variance of the first-order factor level); the $\omega_{partial\ L1}$ (i.e., proportion of observed variance explained by the second-order factor after controlling for the uniqueness of the first-order factor), and the ω_{L1} (i.e.,

proportion of the second-order factor explaining the total score). The reliability estimates were calculated with the *semTools* package (Jorgensen et al., 2018).

To test the causal models (*H1*, *H2*, and *H3*), a two-step approach was conducted according to the procedures described in Marôco (2014). The weighted least squares means and variances (WLSMV) estimation method was used (Muthén, 1983) for the CFAs, *H1*, and *H2*. For *H3* due to the number of parameters to be estimated, and since WLSMV performance with small samples is affected (Marôco, 2014), the maximum likelihood estimation with robust (Huber–White) standard errors (MLR) estimator was used (Finney, DiStefano, & Kopp, 2016). The regression paths were provided with 95% confidence intervals.

4 | RESULTS

4.1 | Measurement model

4.1.1 | Items' distributional properties

Table 1 presents items' descriptive statistics for all items used in the structural models. For UWES at wave 1-9, no items presented sk or ku values indicative of severe violations to normality. Items 1, 5, 8, 9, and 14 did not presented answers in all points of the Likert scale. UWES-9 at wave 2 did not present values of sk or ku indicative of severe normality violations. All items had answers in all Liker-scale points. The BriefCOPE data in the wave 1 presented two items (i.e., item 18 and item 25) with values of sk and ku indicative of severe normality violations, thus those items, and consequently their correspondent factors were removed from the CFA. All items presented answers in all Likert points. At wave 2, two items of the BriefCOPE presented sk and ku values indicative of severe normality violations (item 4 and item 11). Thus, those two items were removed, and consequently, the correspondent factor was removed from the CFA. Items 11, 4, and 16 were the only items that did not present answers for all point of Likert scale. Regarding stress appraisal items, acceptable sk and ku values were found for waves 1 and 2, and answers were included in all points of the used Likert scale.

4.1.2 | Dimensionality

The UWES-9 at wave 1 with a second-order latent factor had an excellent fit to the data ($\chi^2(27) = 25.218$, $p = 0.562$, $N = 360$, $\chi^2/df = 0.934$, *NFI* = 0.992, *CFI* = 1.000, *TLI* = 1.000, *SRMR* = 0.049, *RMSEA* < 0.001, *P*(*rmsea* ≤ 0.05) = 0.994, 90% CI]0.000; 0.034[). The convergent validity evidence was satisfactory for all factors (AVE_{Vigor} = 0.66; $AVE_{Dedication}$ = 0.68; $AVE_{Absorption}$ = 0.76).

For the UWES-9 at wave 2, a second-order latent factor was also proposed with a residuals' correlation among item 1 and item 4 errors. This model presented a good fit to the data ($\chi^2(23) = 59.572$, $p < 0.001$, $N = 360$, $\chi^2/df = 2.590$, *NFI* = 0.998, *CFI* = 0.999, *TLI* = 0.998, *SRMR* = 0.033, *RMSEA* = 0.067, *P*(*rmsea* ≤ 0.05) = 0.089, 90% CI]0.046; 0.088[). In terms of convergent validity evidence, this was satisfactory for all factors (AVE_{Vigor} = 0.70; $AVE_{Dedication}$ = 0.83; $AVE_{Absorption}$ = 0.55).

Regarding the BriefCOPE at wave 1, and since each factor has two items, the loadings for each pair of items in each factor were constrained to be equal. The CFA for the reduced model (with 12 of the 14 original dimensions of BriefCOPE) showed an unacceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2(273) = 3{,}965.918$, $p < 0.001$, $N = 360$, $\chi^2/df = 14.527$, *NFI* = 0.862, *CFI* = 0.870, *TLI* = 0.820, *SRMR* = 0.182, *RMSEA* = 0.194, *P*(*rmsea* ≤ 0.05) < 0.001, 90% CI]0.189; 0.199[). Several pairs of items presented loadings below 0.50, such pairs of items were removed, and a reduced version with eight dimensions was obtained. This version presented acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2(88) = 413.856$, $p < 0.001$, $N = 360$, $\chi^2/df = 4.703$, *NFI* = 0.957, *CFI* = 0.966, *TLI* = 0.953, *SRMR* = 0.079, *RMSEA* = 0.102, *P*(*rmsea* ≤ 0.05) < 0.001, 90% CI]0.092; 0.112[). The convergent validity evidence was satisfactory (AVE_{AC} = 0.86; AVE_{ES} = 0.46; AVE_{R} = 0.60; AVE_{PR} = 0.68; AVE_{SB} = 0.51; AVE_{A} = 0.48; AVE_{D} = 0.52; AVE_{BD} = 0.37).

Similarly, to the BriefCOPE at wave 1, the BriefCOPE at wave 2 had the loadings of each pair of items in each factor constrained to be equal. The CFA presented good fit ($\chi^2(234) = 627.159$, $p < 0.001$, $N = 360$, $\chi^2/df = 2.680$, *NFI* = 0.977, *CFI* = 0.985, *TLI* = 0.979, *SRMR* = 0.072, *RMSEA* = 0.068, *P*(*rmsea* ≤ 0.05) < 0.001, 90% CI]0.062; 0.075[). The convergent validity evidence was satisfactory (AVE_{AC} = 0.60; AVE_{P} = 0.65; AVE_{IS} = 0.77; AVE_{ES} = 0.74; AVE_{R} = 0.93; AVE_{PR} = 0.75; AVE_{SB} = 0.53; AVE_{A} = 0.63; AVE_{V} = 0.72; AVE_{D} = 0.59; AVE_{SD} = 0.43; AVE_{BD} = 0.76; AVE_{H} = 0.79).

4.1.3 | Reliability of the scores

The UWES-9 at wave 1 presented good values of internal consistency estimates for the first-order factors: ω_{Vigor} = 0.81, $\omega_{Dedication}$ = 0.81, $\omega_{Absorption}$ = 0.88. Regarding the internal consistency estimates of the second-order factor, the values were also good: ω_{L1} = 0.91, ω_{L2} = 0.96, $\omega_{partial\ L1}$ = 0.95. For the UWES-9 at wave 2, the values were good, both for the first-order factors (ω_{Vigor} = 0.92, $\omega_{Dedication}$ = |0.90, $\omega_{Absorption}$ = 0.74) as for the second-order factor (ω_{L1} = 0.91, ω_{L2} = 0.97, $\omega_{partial\ L1}$ = 0.94). At wave 1, the BriefCOPE first-order factors presented acceptable values (ω_{AC} = 0.84; ω_{ES} = 0.55; ω_{R} = 0.68; ω_{PR} = 0.72; ω_{SB} = 0.61; ω_{A} = 0.56; ω_{D} = 0.62; ω_{BD} = 0.48). Overall, the BriefCOPE had good internal consistency values at wave 2 (ω_{AC} = 0.68; ω_{P} = 0.72; ω_{IS} = 0.79; ω_{ES} = 0.73; ω_{R} = 0.90; ω_{PR} = 0.79; ω_{SB} = 0.59; ω_{A} = 0.71; ω_{V} = 73; ω_{D} = 0.65; ω_{SD} = 0.51; ω_{BD} = 0.74; ω_{H} = 0.77).

4.2 | Structural models

Regarding the formulated hypotheses testing, the measurement model to test *H1* revealed an acceptable fit ($\chi^2(297) = 1{,}188.684$, $p < 0.001$, $\chi^2/df = 4.002$, $N = 360$, *NFI* = 0.974, *CFI* = 0.980, *TLI* = 0.977, *SRMR* = 0.084, *RMSEA* = 0.091, *P*(*rmsea* ≤ 0.05) < 0.001, 90% CI]0.086; 0.097[). None of the predictors had a *meaningful* effect in work engagement, nevertheless the model explained 34.9% of the work engagement variance ($r^2_{work\ engagement}$ = 0.349). Table 2 presents the standardized factor weights (β) and their 95% confidence intervals.

TABLE 1 Items' distributional properties

Item	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Mdn*	*Max*	Histogram	*Mode*	*SEM*	*CV*	*sk*	*ku*
BriefCOPE wave 1											
Item 1	2.52	0.86	1	3	4		2.00	0.05	0.34	0.02	−0.65
Item 2	1.86	0.87	1	2	4		1.00	0.05	0.47	0.61	−0.63
Item 3	1.73	0.81	1	2	4		1.00	0.04	0.47	0.88	0.07
Item 4	2.88	0.78	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.27	−0.49	0.03
Item 5	2.86	0.75	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.26	−0.36	−0.06
Item 6	2.51	0.81	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.32	−0.14	−0.51
Item 7	1.95	0.86	1	2	4		2.00	0.05	0.44	0.41	−0.84
Item 8	2.26	0.73	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.32	0.17	−0.24
Item 9	2.84	0.76	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.27	−0.29	−0.24
Item 10	2.49	0.78	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.31	−0.11	−0.42
Item 11	2.23	0.85	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.38	0.19	−0.66
Item 12	2.91	0.75	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.26	−0.49	0.17
Item 13	1.46	0.76	1	1	4		1.00	0.04	0.52	1.60	1.73
Item 14	2.53	0.74	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.29	−0.18	−0.30
Item 15	3.00	0.77	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.26	−0.75	0.61
Item 16	2.21	0.80	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.36	0.06	−0.68
Item 17	2.87	0.81	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.28	−0.43	−0.21
Item 18	1.16	0.51	1	1	4		1.00	0.03	0.44	3.25	9.49
Item 19	2.59	0.77	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.30	−0.09	−0.38
Item 20	2.14	0.75	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.35	0.32	−0.12
Item 21	1.62	0.75	1	1	4		1.00	0.04	0.46	1.02	0.45
Item 22	3.13	0.76	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.24	−0.64	0.14
Item 23	1.46	0.76	1	1	4		1.00	0.04	0.52	1.52	1.32
Item 24	2.50	0.83	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.33	−0.06	−0.57

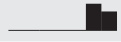
(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Item	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Mdn*	*Max*	Histogram	*Mode*	*SEM*	*CV*	*sk*	*ku*
Item 25	1.16	0.53	1	1	4		1.00	0.03	0.45	3.37	10.97
Item 26	1.72	0.81	1	2	4		1.00	0.04	0.47	0.83	−0.14
Item 27	3.05	0.79	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.26	−0.68	0.24
Item 28	2.51	0.84	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.33	0.03	−0.59
BriefCOPE wave 2											
Item 1	1.99	0.76	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.38	0.43	−0.16
Item 2	2.58	0.77	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.30	−0.04	−0.40
Item 3	1.51	0.72	1	1	4		1.00	0.04	0.48	1.37	1.41
Item 4	1.06	0.30	1	1	3		1.00	0.02	0.28	5.42	29.75
Item 5	2.04	0.82	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.40	0.47	−0.28
Item 6	1.23	0.54	1	1	4		1.00	0.03	0.44	2.53	6.33
Item 7	2.85	0.82	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.29	−0.16	−0.71
Item 8	1.27	0.54	1	1	3		1.00	0.03	0.42	1.82	2.38
Item 9	1.96	0.72	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.37	0.47	0.16
Item 10	2.34	0.84	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.36	0.19	−0.53
Item 11	1.05	0.26	1	1	3		1.00	0.01	0.25	5.96	37.10
Item 12	2.60	0.79	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.30	0.05	−0.51
Item 13	1.91	0.80	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.42	0.51	−0.39
Item 14	2.69	0.75	1	3	4		3.00	0.04	0.28	0.05	−0.49
Item 15	2.15	0.75	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.35	0.42	0.06
Item 16	1.20	0.46	1	1	3		1.00	0.02	0.38	2.27	4.48
Item 17	2.61	0.79	1	3	4		2.00	0.04	0.30	0.13	−0.57
Item 18	2.04	0.80	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.39	0.33	−0.50
Item 19	2.18	0.79	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.36	0.23	−0.44
Item 20	2.38	0.86	1	2	4		2.00	0.05	0.36	0.38	−0.49

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Item	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Mdn*	*Max*	Histogram	*Mode*	*SEM*	*CV*	*sk*	*ku*
Item 21	2.03	0.70	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.35	0.44	0.30
Item 22	1.46	0.64	1	1	4		1.00	0.03	0.44	1.28	1.28
Item 23	2.24	0.81	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.36	0.22	−0.46
Item 24	2.50	0.82	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.33	0.14	−0.55
Item 25	2.51	0.79	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.32	0.11	−0.46
Item 26	1.31	0.54	1	1	4		1.00	0.03	0.42	1.69	2.48
Item 27	1.42	0.64	1	1	4		1.00	0.03	0.45	1.37	1.23
Item 28	2.25	0.81	1	2	4		2.00	0.04	0.36	0.25	−0.43
*UWES-9** wave 1											
Item 1	5.01	1.04	1	5	6		6.00	0.05	0.21	−0.99	0.46
Item 10	4.43	1.20	0	5	6		5.00	0.06	0.27	−0.78	0.33
Item 11	4.56	1.18	0	5	6		5.00	0.06	0.26	−0.89	0.69
Item 14	4.81	1.01	1	5	6		5.00	0.05	0.21	−0.89	0.65
Item 4	4.31	1.25	0	5	6		5.00	0.07	0.29	−0.85	0.51
Item 5	4.67	1.13	1	5	6		5.00	0.06	0.24	−0.86	0.44
Item 7	4.26	1.29	0	5	6		5.00	0.07	0.30	−0.77	0.33
Item 8	5.01	1.04	1	5	6		6.00	0.05	0.21	−1.06	0.76
Item 9	4.70	1.11	1	5	6		5.00	0.06	0.24	−0.91	0.47
*UWES-9** wave 2											
Item 1	4.99	0.96	0	5	6		5.00	0.05	0.16	−1.57	3.31
Item 10	5.02	1.27	0	5	6		6.00	0.07	0.21	−1.62	2.36
Item 11	4.12	1.47	0	5	6		5.00	0.08	0.29	−1.06	0.66
Item 14	4.13	1.57	0	5	6		5.00	0.08	0.31	−1.19	0.76
Item 4	5.03	0.97	0	5	6		5.00	0.05	0.16	−1.81	4.90
Item 5	4.86	1.15	0	5	6		5.00	0.06	0.20	−1.54	2.64

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Item	M	SD	Min	Mdn	Max	Histogram	Mode	SEM	CV	sk	ku
Item 7	4.69	1.19	0	5	6		5.00	0.06	0.21	−1.24	1.61
Item 8	4.48	1.24	0	5	6		5.00	0.07	0.23	−1.28	1.33
Item 9	4.78	1.08	0	5	6		5.00	0.06	0.19	−1.08	1.30
Stress Appraisal wave 1											
Control^R	2.42	1.44	1	2	5		2.00	0.08	0.59	0.76	−0.85
Intensity	2.92	1.06	1	3	5		3.00	0.06	0.36	−0.08	−0.40
Stress Appraisal wave 2											
Control^R	2.64	1.28	1	2	5		2.00	0.07	0.48	0.36	−1.04
Intensity	2.69	1.15	1	3	5		3.00	0.06	0.43	0.12	−0.73

Note. *Items' numbers from the UWES-17 version (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2009); ^{R}—Reversed.

The measurement model of the latent factors to test *H2* revealed a good fit ($\chi^2(545)$ = 1,734.162, p < 0.001, χ^2/df = 3.182, N = 360, NFI = 0.971, CFI = 0.980, TLI = 0.975, $SRMR$ = 0.084, $RMSEA$ = 0.078, $P(rmsea \le 0.05)$ < 0.001, 90% CI]0.074; 0.082[) explaining 21.9% of the work engagement variance ($r^2_{work\ engagement}$ = 0.219). Only self-blame had a *meaningful* effect in work engagement. Table 3 presents the standardized factor weights (β) and their 95% confidence intervals.

In order to test the proposed cross-lagged model, and considering that the sample size was small regarding the number of parameters to be estimated in the cross-lagged model with the WLSMV estimator, the MLR estimator was used. The full cross-lagged model of the latent factors (*H3*) revealed an acceptable fit ($\chi^2(1,659)$ = 2,925.881, p < 0.001, χ^2/df = 1.764, NFI = 0.785, CFI = 0.891, TLI = 0.867, $SRMR$ = 0.057, $RMSEA$ = 0.046, $P(rmsea \le 0.05)$ = 0.992, 90% CI]0.043; 0.049[). The explained variance ranges from low to moderate levels ($r^2_{work\ engagement}$ = 0.250; r^2_{AC} = 0.222; r^2_{P} = 0.032; r^2_{IS} = 0.210; r^2_{ES} = 0.284; r^2_{R} = 0.393; r^2_{PR} = 0.040; r^2_{SB} = 0.115; r^2_{A} = 0.075; r^2_{V} = 0.289; r^2_{D} = 0.156; r^2_{A} = 0.075; r^2_{SD} = 0.265; r^2_{BD} = 0.100; r^2_{H} = 0.166; $r^2_{Stress\ Appraisal}$ = 0.247). The path between active coping at wave 1 predicted religion at wave 2, and positive reframing at wave 1 predicted the same variable at wave 2. Table 4 shows βs and their correspondent 95% confidence intervals. Additionally data are included in Appendix 1 for reproducibility proposes.

5 | DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between stress appraisal, coping, and engagement among police recruits undergoing academy training and 1 year after while working as officers. Findings suggest that individual processes such as coping or stress appraisal do not seem to be strong predictors of work engagement among recruits undergoing academy training and police officers working on duty. With the exception of self-blame that has shown to be a strong predictor of work engagement among police officers. In regard to the study hypotheses, *H1* suggested that stress appraisal and coping would predict work engagement among police recruits; however findings did not confirm this prediction. Although the literature suggests that important drivers of engagement are both related with personal and job resources (Bakker et al., 2011), our findings suggest that personal resources particularly related to the way recruits appraise stress and cope do not seem to influence engagement. It is important to consider that these findings may be related with fact that police recruits in the current study perceived a reduced level of control over stressors (M = 2.42) experienced during academy training, what may consequently affect their coping strategies and respective link to engagement. Further research is warranted to confirm this assumption. Alternatively, these findings may suggest that other personal (e.g., personality) or job resources factors should be considered when aiming to predict work engagement among police recruits undergoing academy settings. In agreement with this assumption, previous

TABLE 2 *H1*—work engagement predictors' estimates at wave 1

Predictor	*B*	*se*	*z*	β	]95% CI[	
Stress Appraisal	1.470	1.085	1.354	0.440	−0.657	3.597
AC	0.106	0.175	0.606	0.100	−0.237	0.450
ES	0.061	0.245	0.248	0.051	−0.420	0.542
R	0.685	1.022	0.670	0.613	−1.319	2.688
PR	0.046	0.279	0.163	0.043	−0.501	0.593
SB	0.710	1.633	0.435	0.672	−2.492	3.911
A	−0.439	0.796	−0.551	−0.359	−1.999	1.121
D	−0.646	0.616	−1.048	−0.513	−1.854	0.562
BD	−0.121	0.414	−0.292	−0.108	−0.932	0.690

TABLE 3 *H2*—work engagement predictors' estimates at wave 2

Predictor	*B*	*se*	*z*	β	]95% CI[	
Stress Appraisal	1.384	0.715	1.936	0.439	−0.017	2.784
AC	−0.434	0.381	−1.138	−0.435	−1.181	0.313
P	0.739	0.664	1.114	0.741	−0.562	2.041
IS	−0.087	0.259	−0.336	−0.087	−0.594	0.420
ES	−0.379	0.291	−1.304	−0.380	−0.948	0.191
R	−0.125	0.165	−0.758	−0.126	−0.449	0.199
PR	0.427	0.335	1.277	0.429	−0.229	1.084
SB	0.501	0.152	3.302	0.159	0.203	0.798
A	−0.442	0.428	−1.034	−0.444	−1.281	0.396
V	−0.121	0.191	−0.632	−0.121	−0.496	0.254
D	−0.485	0.300	−1.613	−0.486	−1.074	0.104
SD	−0.359	0.340	−1.058	−0.360	−1.025	0.306
BD	0.154	0.325	0.475	0.155	−0.482	0.790
H	0.289	0.194	1.490	0.290	−0.091	0.669

research in an educational context (e.g., Alzyoud, Othman, & Mohad Isa, 2015) found support that job resources are strong predictors of engagement levels. Similarly, emerging evidence (Akhtar, Boustani, Tsivrikos, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015) in the work context supports the link between personality and work engagement. Hence, it is recommended that future research aiming to understand work engagement among police recruits considers the role of personality and job resources. Another possible explanation for the findings is the lack of sensitivity of the BriefCOPE scale to assess coping among student population (e.g., Lee & Liu, 2001). Accordingly Carver (1997) recommended that researchers should use the BriefCOPE flexibly and creatively, such as by proposing the possibility of only selecting a subset of the subscales. This could be suggestive of the need to use a new version of the BriefCOPE adapted to educational contexts and students needs.

Regarding *H2*, it was hypothesized that stress appraisal and coping would predict engagement among police officers. Results only partially supported this hypothesis, as only statistically significant paths were found between self-blame and engagement. Self-blame can be classified as a form of EF coping indicating an inclination to respond to stressful situations, by criticizing or blaming oneself. This EF coping may decrease stress in the short term, but does not result in situational change (O'Neill & Kerig, 2000). However, it is important to reinforce that using self-blame as a coping strategy, this mean that officers are actually involved in the situations, to a point of blaming themselves for the problems encountered. Accordingly, evidence suggests that, this coping strategy is ineffective for police professional as it does not actively solve the problems, (Anshel et al., 2013). It is believe that these findings may be related with the nature of the police organization. This is a quasi-military structure with formal rules, rigid authority, resistance, and an authoritarian chain of command (Terpstra & Schaap, 2013). Hence, police officers that perceive low perceptions of control over organizational decisions tend to use more EF coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Further research is warranted to confirm this assumptions among police personnel, particularly controlling for perceptions of control over organizational decisions.

In what concerns to *H3*, it was predicted that stress appraisal, coping, and engagement among recruits would predict stress appraisal, coping, and engagement among police officers. Results fail to support this hypothesis, as no statistically significant path was found between a specific coping strategy, or stress appraisal and work engagement. It is important to note that the policing academy context and demands are completely different from those required

TABLE 4 H3—work engagement, coping, and stress appraisal predictors' estimates

Predicted	Predictor	*B*	*se*	*z*	β	]95% CI[	
Stress appraisal[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	0.099	2.213	0.045	0.070	−4.239	4.437
	Work Engagement[1]	−0.081	0.159	−0.512	−0.140	−0.393	0.230
	AC[1]	−0.044	0.337	−0.130	−0.055	−0.705	0.617
	ES[1]	−0.081	0.455	−0.178	−0.078	−0.974	0.811
	R[1]	−0.377	0.802	−0.470	−0.388	−1.949	1.195
	PR[1]	0.066	0.360	0.183	0.074	−0.639	0.771
	SB[1]	−0.724	0.793	−0.913	−0.769	−2.278	0.830
	A[1]	0.893	0.786	1.136	0.865	−0.648	2.434
	D[1]	0.301	1.332	0.226	0.270	−2.309	2.911
	BD[1]	−0.213	0.859	−0.249	−0.234	−1.897	1.470
Work Engagement[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.428	0.483	−0.885	−0.182	−1.374	0.519
	Work Engagement[1]	0.199	0.380	0.523	0.207	−0.546	0.943
	AC[1]	0.057	0.202	0.285	0.044	−0.339	0.454
	ES[1]	0.130	0.293	0.444	0.076	−0.444	0.705
	R[1]	−0.519	0.531	−0.977	−0.325	−1.560	0.522
	PR[1]	0.409	0.268	1.528	0.278	−0.116	0.934
	SB[1]	−0.314	0.544	−0.578	−0.203	−1.380	0.752
	A[1]	−0.067	0.452	−0.148	−0.039	−0.954	0.820
	D[1]	0.117	0.426	0.275	0.064	−0.717	0.951
	BD[1]	0.029	0.446	0.064	0.019	−0.845	0.902
AC[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.305	0.328	−0.931	−0.189	−0.948	0.337
	Work Engagement[1]	0.041	0.054	0.769	0.063	−0.064	0.146
	AC[1]	0.067	0.133	0.505	0.074	−0.193	0.327
	ES[1]	0.100	0.277	0.359	0.085	−0.444	0.643
	R[1]	−0.071	0.389	−0.181	−0.064	−0.833	0.692
	PR[1]	0.240	0.232	1.035	0.237	−0.215	0.695
	SB[1]	−0.340	0.402	−0.845	−0.319	−1.129	0.449
	A[1]	0.344	0.468	0.736	0.294	−0.572	1.261
	D[1]	0.202	0.287	0.705	0.160	−0.360	0.765
	BD[1]	−0.132	0.391	−0.339	−0.128	−0.898	0.634
P[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.086	0.463	−0.186	−0.055	−0.993	0.821
	Work Engagement[1]	0.128	0.077	1.658	0.199	−0.023	0.279
	AC[1]	0.180	0.194	0.929	0.205	−0.200	0.560
	ES[1]	−0.261	0.423	−0.616	−0.227	−1.090	0.569
	R[1]	0.152	0.539	0.283	0.142	−0.904	1.209
	PR[1]	0.499	0.386	1.293	0.505	−0.257	1.255
	SB[1]	−0.360	0.553	−0.651	−0.346	−1.443	0.724
	A[1]	0.928	0.781	1.188	0.813	−0.603	2.459
	D[1]	0.061	0.422	0.145	0.050	−0.765	0.888
	BD[1]	−0.659	0.667	−0.987	−0.652	−1.967	0.649
IS[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.360	0.507	−0.710	−0.211	−1.354	0.634
	Work Engagement[1]	0.066	0.081	0.815	0.095	−0.093	0.226
	AC[1]	0.020	0.239	0.082	0.021	−0.448	0.487
	ES[1]	−0.309	0.348	−0.891	−0.248	−0.991	0.372
	R[1]	−0.477	0.781	−0.610	−0.410	−2.007	1.054

(Continues)

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Predicted	Predictor	*B*	*se*	*z*	β	]95% CI[	
	PR[1]	0.332	0.316	1.050	0.310	−0.288	0.952
	SB[1]	−0.954	0.855	−1.116	−0.846	−2.631	0.722
	A[1]	0.991	0.667	1.486	0.800	−0.316	2.297
	D[1]	0.520	0.590	0.881	0.388	−0.637	1.677
	BD[1]	−0.115	0.745	−0.154	−0.105	−1.575	1.345
ES[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.056	0.420	−0.133	−0.035	−0.878	0.767
	Work Engagement[1]	0.046	0.075	0.619	0.071	−0.100	0.193
	AC[1]	0.013	0.173	0.074	0.014	−0.327	0.352
	ES[1]	0.170	0.383	0.445	0.146	−0.580	0.921
	R[1]	−0.708	0.568	−1.247	−0.649	−1.821	0.404
	PR[1]	0.046	0.293	0.157	0.046	−0.529	0.621
	SB[1]	−0.953	0.685	−1.391	−0.900	−2.295	0.390
	A[1]	0.288	0.636	0.452	0.248	−0.959	1.534
	D[1]	0.615	0.423	1.453	0.490	−0.215	1.445
	BD[1]	0.338	0.511	0.660	0.329	−0.665	1.340
R[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	0.062	0.226	0.273	0.047	−0.382	0.505
	Work Engagement[1]	−0.036	0.034	−1.060	−0.066	−0.102	0.030
	AC[1]	0.538	0.092	5.865	0.731	0.358	0.718
	ES[1]	0.129	0.153	0.844	0.134	−0.171	0.429
	R[1]	−0.105	0.228	−0.461	−0.117	−0.553	0.342
	PR[1]	0.020	0.132	0.152	0.024	−0.238	0.278
	SB[1]	−0.111	0.250	−0.444	−0.127	−0.601	0.379
	A[1]	−0.062	0.241	−0.256	−0.064	−0.534	0.410
	D[1]	−0.147	0.172	−0.855	−0.142	−0.484	0.190
	BD[1]	0.084	0.219	0.385	0.099	−0.345	0.513
PR[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.504	0.572	−0.882	−0.304	−1.625	0.616
	Work Engagement[1]	0.114	0.088	1.303	0.169	−0.058	0.286
	AC[1]	0.167	0.233	0.714	0.180	−0.291	0.624
	ES[1]	−0.461	0.454	−1.016	−0.381	−1.350	0.428
	R[1]	−0.122	0.644	−0.189	−0.108	−1.385	1.141
	PR[1]	0.884	0.406	2.177	0.849	0.088	1.679
	SB[1]	−0.268	0.636	−0.422	−0.245	−1.515	0.978
	A[1]	1.019	0.841	1.212	0.848	−0.628	2.667
	D[1]	0.048	0.506	0.094	0.037	−0.945	1.040
	BD[1]	−0.714	0.743	−0.962	−0.672	−2.170	0.741
SB[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	0.029	0.405	0.073	0.025	−0.765	0.824
	Work Engagement[1]	−0.028	0.081	−0.346	−0.057	−0.187	0.131
	AC[1]	0.286	0.184	1.557	0.429	−0.074	0.646
	ES[1]	−0.333	0.391	−0.850	−0.382	−1.100	0.434
	R[1]	0.130	0.472	0.276	0.160	−0.794	1.055
	PR[1]	0.422	0.349	1.208	0.563	−0.262	1.106
	SB[1]	−0.019	0.558	−0.034	−0.024	−1.113	1.075
	A[1]	0.929	0.761	1.221	1.072	−0.563	2.421
	D[1]	−0.147	0.384	−0.382	−0.156	−0.899	0.605
	BD[1]	−0.644	0.628	−1.026	−0.840	−1.874	0.586

(Continues)

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Predicted	Predictor	*B*	*se*	*z*	β	]95% CI[	
A[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.198	0.582	−0.341	−0.112	−1.339	0.942
	Work Engagement[1]	0.100	0.097	1.029	0.138	−0.090	0.289
	AC[1]	0.236	0.235	1.002	0.239	−0.225	0.697
	ES[1]	−0.701	0.522	−1.343	−0.543	−1.723	0.322
	R[1]	0.156	0.667	0.234	0.129	−1.151	1.462
	PR[1]	0.764	0.441	1.733	0.688	−0.100	1.628
	SB[1]	−0.452	0.679	−0.666	−0.387	−1.784	0.879
	A[1]	1.125	0.900	1.249	0.877	−0.640	2.889
	D[1]	−0.140	0.527	−0.266	−0.101	−1.172	0.892
	BD[1]	−0.576	0.757	−0.762	−0.508	−2.059	0.907
V[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.259	0.451	−0.574	−0.178	−1.144	0.625
	Work Engagement[1]	0.072	0.070	1.021	0.120	−0.066	0.209
	AC[1]	−0.233	0.177	−1.312	−0.287	−0.580	0.115
	ES[1]	0.097	0.394	0.247	0.092	−0.674	0.869
	R[1]	−0.873	0.603	−1.447	−0.881	−2.054	0.309
	PR[1]	−0.045	0.313	−0.142	−0.049	−0.659	0.570
	SB[1]	−0.840	0.764	−1.098	−0.873	−2.338	0.659
	A[1]	0.398	0.672	0.592	0.377	−0.920	1.715
	D[1]	0.480	0.480	0.999	0.421	−0.461	1.421
	BD[1]	0.515	0.540	0.953	0.552	−0.544	1.574
D[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	0.213	0.261	0.817	0.193	−0.298	0.724
	Work Engagement[1]	0.062	0.041	1.526	0.137	−0.018	0.142
	AC[1]	−0.003	0.091	−0.032	−0.005	−0.181	0.175
	ES[1]	−0.058	0.177	−0.326	−0.071	−0.404	0.289
	R[1]	0.009	0.256	0.034	0.011	−0.493	0.510
	PR[1]	0.069	0.155	0.447	0.100	−0.234	0.372
	SB[1]	0.328	0.300	1.094	0.449	−0.260	0.916
	A[1]	0.060	0.302	0.199	0.075	−0.531	0.651
	D[1]	−0.171	0.191	−0.893	−0.197	−0.546	0.204
	BD[1]	0.011	0.240	0.047	0.016	−0.460	0.483
SD[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.454	0.497	−0.913	−0.285	−1.427	0.520
	Work Engagement[1]	−0.142	0.077	−1.858	−0.219	−0.293	0.008
	AC[1]	0.102	0.202	0.504	0.115	−0.294	0.498
	ES[1]	0.030	0.373	0.081	0.026	−0.700	0.760
	R[1]	−0.685	0.598	−1.145	−0.632	−1.858	0.488
	PR[1]	0.244	0.301	0.811	0.245	−0.346	0.835
	SB[1]	−0.820	0.713	−1.150	−0.779	−2.218	0.578
	A[1]	0.494	0.610	0.810	0.428	−0.702	1.690
	D[1]	0.329	0.494	0.666	0.264	−0.639	1.298
	BD[1]	0.193	0.555	0.348	0.189	−0.895	1.282
BD[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.165	0.153	−1.084	−0.178	−0.464	0.134
	Work Engagement[1]	−0.027	0.031	−0.878	−0.072	−0.089	0.034
	AC[1]	−0.020	0.060	−0.342	−0.039	−0.138	0.097
	ES[1]	−0.095	0.123	−0.773	−0.140	−0.335	0.145
	R[1]	−0.071	0.162	−0.437	−0.112	−0.389	0.247

(Continues)

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Predicted	Predictor	*B*	*se*	*z*	β	]95% CI[	
	PR[1]	0.055	0.109	0.503	0.094	−0.159	0.270
	SB[1]	0.151	0.202	0.747	0.245	−0.245	0.547
	A[1]	−0.024	0.221	−0.109	−0.036	−0.457	0.409
	D[1]	0.014	0.125	0.110	0.019	−0.231	0.259
	BD[1]	0.022	0.166	0.135	0.038	−0.302	0.347
H[2]	Stress Appraisal[1]	−0.178	0.319	−0.559	−0.107	−0.803	0.447
	Work Engagement[1]	0.001	0.051	0.019	0.001	−0.100	0.102
	AC[1]	0.082	0.116	0.704	0.088	−0.146	0.310
	ES[1]	−0.069	0.234	−0.296	−0.057	−0.527	0.389
	R[1]	0.214	0.358	0.599	0.189	−0.487	0.915
	PR[1]	0.435	0.226	1.919	0.415	−0.009	0.878
	SB[1]	0.426	0.398	1.071	0.387	−0.354	1.207
	A[1]	−0.022	0.410	−0.053	−0.018	−0.826	0.782
	D[1]	−0.200	0.273	−0.733	−0.153	−0.736	0.335
	BD[1]	−0.202	0.351	−0.577	−0.189	−0.889	0.485

Note: [1]wave 1; [2]wave 2.

for police officers on duty. Therefore, a recruit that may cope well with stress in an academy setting might find it difficult to cope similarly with the professional demands. Similarly, as seen, the recruits coping experiences might be ineffective predicting work engagement, whereas there can be coping dimensions as police officers that can predict work engagement. Accordingly, Colwell et al. (2011) and Williams et al. (2010) suggested that officers face vastly different stress experiences over the course of their careers and particularly in the transition phase from being a recruit to officer. According to the authors, this transition comprises a complex process associated with changes at both individual and work level. In support of this argument Li, Cheung, and Sun (2018) have found that external factors such as job and family variables are important predictors of engagement levels among Asian police officers. Considering these findings, further longitudinal research is required to explore the transition from recruits to officers and implications for work engagement.

5.1 | Limitations and future research avenues

There are limitations in the present study that need to be acknowledged. First, results are primarily applied to the current sample, restricting generalizability to police forces from different countries. In addition, although the sample size (considering the difficult access to this population) is large, from a statistical perspective was not large enough to test *H3* with the desired estimator (i.e., WLSMV).

Second, the instrument used to assess coping strategies (BriefCOPE) in police recruits show some limitations. Namely, low reliability estimates in some of its factors, although it might be due to the low number of indicators (i.e., two per factor). Hence, considering the complexity and the dynamic nature of stress and coping process, future research is warranted investigating these variables using complementary longitudinal research methods (e.g., daily diaries), attempting to reduce retrospective bias. Third, although stressors reported were related with work demands experienced, their typology was not defined in the current study. Hence, future qualitative research is encouraged to understand stress typology and respective appraisal among police recruits transitioning to officers. Considering the limited use of qualitative research designs in this area of study (e.g., Larsson, Berglund, & Ohlsson, 2016) and their pertinence when aiming to understand stress and coping among police officers (e.g., Rodrigues, Kaiseler, Queirós, & Basto-Pereira, 2017) we recommend a plea for more qualitative research. Finally, this study highlight the need to consider wider personal (e.g., personality; social support) and job resources (e.g., autonomy, role clarity, supervisor support) variables when aiming to fully understand the predictors of engagement among recruits and officers.

5.2 | Implications for practice

Current findings suggest that internal processes such as stress appraisal and coping do not seem to be strong predictors of work engagement among recruits and police officers. Policy makers and practitioners aiming to increase work engagement among police recruits and officers should therefore consider wider personal (e.g., social support and personality) and job resources variables (e.g., autonomy, role clarity, supervisor support). Considering the compelling body of research investigating.

It is worth reflecting that stress has been a common problem over the years in police organizations, which makes us think that this problem should not only be addressed at a micro level, that is focusing mainly on the individual, but also at a macro level, that is the organization (Shane, 2013). The organization has shown to have a crucial role in enhancing officers' engagement as proposed by Gillet, Huart, Colombat, and Fouquereau (2013). The authors

suggested that police professionals who feel that they are supported by their organization (e.g., recognition, approval, appreciation of work) show higher levels of work engagement. Based on the assumption that engaged workers are less susceptible to experience stress (Bakker, 2009), police practitioners and officers themselves should focus on enhancing both personal and job resources in order to increase engagement levels, starting in the academy period.

Acknowledging the importance of personal and job resources on police officers engagement, it is recommended that future intervention in this area are holistic in nature, comprising both organizational as well as health promotion elements. Accordingly, recent evidence from a systematic review of health promotion intervention studies among police officers conducted by Kolt et al., 2017 reinforces the importance of education and behavior change interventions among this population.

In conclusion, the present study found that police recruits coping strategies have very limited impact in engagement levels during the academy period. Hence, future research should consider the importance of job resources when promoting engagement in this setting. Additionally, it seems that EF coping (i.e., self-blame) predicts engagement levels among police officers. Given that emerging evidence suggesting that high engagement levels may have a positive influence on health, wellbeing, and work-related attitudes, more attention should be dedicated to ways of developing engagement levels throughout the policing career.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by the European Union Seventh Framework Programme ([FP7/2007-2013] [FP7/2007-2011]) under grant agreement n° [PCIG10-GA-2011-303880] and from Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia (FCT), Portugal (DFRH/BI/51845/2012). This work was produced with the support of INCD funded by FCT and FEDER under the project 22153-01/SAICT/2016. We would like to thank the Portuguese National Police Force (Polícia de Segurança Pública) and the Police Academy for the collaboration provided in this study.

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Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

How to cite this article: Rodrigues S, Sinval J, Queirós C, Marôco J, Kaiseler M. Transitioning from recruit to officer: An investigation of how stress appraisal and coping influence work engagement. *Int J Select Assess*. 2019;27:152–168. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijsa.12238