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Coping With Work–Nonwork Stressors Over Time: A Person-Centered, Multistudy Integration of Coping Breadth and Depth

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Coping is a dynamic response to stressors that employees encounter in their work and nonwork roles. Scholars have argued that it is not just whether employees cope with work–nonwork stressors—but how they cope—that matters. Indeed, prior research assumes that adaptive coping strategies—planning, prioritizing, positive reframing, seeking emotional and instrumental support—are universally beneficial, suggesting that sustaining high levels of these strategies is ideal. By returning to the roots of coping theory, we adopt a person-centered, dynamic approach using latent profile analysis and latent transition analysis across three multiwave studies (N = 1,370) to consider whether employees combine coping strategies and how remaining in or shifting between such combinations also matters. In a pilot study (N = 361), we explored profiles and their transitions during a time frame punctuated with macrolevel transitions that amplified employees' work–nonwork stressors (i.e., COVID-19), which revealed three profiles at Time 1 (*comprehensive copers*, *emotion-focused copers*, and *individualistic copers*) and a fourth profile at Time 2 (*surviving copers*). In Study 1 (N = 648), across all three time points, we replicated three profiles and found evidence for *constrained copers* instead of emotion-focused copers. In Study 2 (N = 361), across both time points, we replicated all four profiles from Study 1 and tested hypotheses regarding the profiles, their transition patterns, and implications of such patterns for work, well-being, and social functioning outcomes. Altogether, our work suggests that maintaining high-coping depth or increasing depth is generally beneficial, whereas maintaining or increasing coping breadth is generally harmful.

Keywords: coping, work–nonwork interface, latent profile analysis, latent transition analysis, social support

Stressors capture "specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141). To address such demands, people engage in coping strategies, defined as "constantly *changing* cognitive and behavioral efforts" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 141, emphasis added). The long-standing literature on coping suggests that such strategies are directed toward work stressors (Brown et al., 2005), such as organizational change (Amiot et al., 2006; Ashford, 1988; Fugate et al., 2008); job change or promotion (Latack, 1984); job loss, unemployment, and layoffs (Armstrong-Stassen, 1994; Gowan et al., 1999; Wanberg, 1997); and abusive supervision (Mawritz et al., 2014; Nandkeolyar et al., 2014), as well as nonwork stressors, including childbirth, domestic responsibilities, and divorce (Crawford et al., 2019; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987; Wanberg et al., 2023). This literature has shown that it is not only *whether* employees cope but also *how* they cope that matters. Whereas adaptive coping strategies equip people "to resolve problems, relieve emotional distress, and stay on track toward achieving their goals" (Brown et al., 2005, p. 792), maladaptive strategies are ultimately ineffective in dealing with stressors (Brown et al., 2005;

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Carver et al., 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Indeed, coping strategies vary in their impact on job satisfaction, job performance (Amiot et al., 2006; Mawritz et al., 2014; Pearsall et al., 2009; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005; Zhang et al., 2019), and well-being (Folkman et al., 1986; Hecht & McCarthy, 2010; Zellars & Perrewé, 2001).

Employees also regularly encounter work–nonwork stressors, defined as demands that affect—and span across—both work and nonwork domains because they "have characteristics that are inherently part of both domains" and are appraised as taxing or surpassing the employee's resources (Voydanoff, 2005, p. 492; see also Crawford et al., 2019; Hagan et al., 2017; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Voydanoff, 2004; e.g., interruptions while working from home, personal or family health problems, new family member or pet, sleep problems, and financial insecurity). It is important to understand the most efficacious ways to cope with work–nonwork stressors, given increased proportions of employees with remote, hybrid, or flexible work arrangements (Parker, 2023; Wigert & Agrawal, 2022) in which work and nonwork roles become more closely intertwined. Because work–nonwork stressors involve distinct demands and social relationships across work and nonwork roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Hall, 1972; Shockley et al., 2021; ten Brummelhuis & Greenhaus, 2018), coping with such stressors involves additional layers of complexity and coordination.

Indeed, scholars have shown that employees engage in a multitude of adaptive coping strategies to address work–nonwork stressors. These include creating a plan of action (hereinafter, "planning"); concentrating on the most important role activities and settling for "good enough" in other role activities (hereinafter, "prioritizing"; Baltes et al., 2011; Jennings & McDougald, 2007; Matias & Fontaine, 2015; Neal & Hammer, 2009; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007); seeking advice, assistance, and/or information from supervisors, coworkers, and partners (hereinafter, "seeking instrumental support"; Crawford et al., 2019; Hammer et al., 2009; Higgins et al., 2010; Qin et al., 2021; Shockley et al., 2021; Vaziri et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2021); seeking understanding from others and sharing feelings (hereinafter, "seeking emotional support"); and reappraising the stressor in a more positive way (hereinafter, "positive reframing"; Aryee et al., 1999; Bryant, 2009; Major & Morganson, 2011; Rantanen et al., 2011; Slaughter et al., 2021; see also Carver et al., 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Taylor, 2011, 2012).

Despite this progress, we see several areas that have limited collective understanding about coping with work–nonwork stressors. First, work–nonwork scholars have predominately used variable-centered approaches to consider how coping strategies "operate separately between individuals" (Bennett et al., 2016, p. 1637; Wang & Hanges, 2011). Prior research of coping with work–nonwork stressors suggests that employees "select a coping strategy in an attempt to regulate the stressor," that is, pick one strategy from a repertoire of options (Thompson et al., 2007, p. 95). This is problematic from a theoretical standpoint because seminal coping theory suggests treating "coping functions as separate and competing is a serious epistemological mistake" that "distort[s] the way coping actually works" (Lazarus, 2006, pp. 22–23). Indeed, in recent years a growing body of research has used person-centered approaches to explore whether coping strategies "*combine within* individuals" (Bennett et al., 2016, p. 1637, emphasis in original; Wang & Hanges, 2011). This work reveals profiles of individuals who meaningfully vary in how they combine adaptive coping strategies, concluding that the profile consistently associated with positive outcomes is characterized by simultaneous high use of all adaptive coping strategies (e.g., Achnak & Vantilborgh, 2021; Doron et al., 2013, 2015; Eisenbarth, 2012; Mauno et al., 2014).

Second, prior coping research has implicitly assumed that coping strategies and profiles are static and do not change over time. For example, coping strategies are often portrayed as "styles" or "characteristics" (Hecht & McCarthy, 2010; Peng et al., 2012). Moreover, much of the existing research on coping profiles has operationalized coping strategies as "tendencies" (e.g., Aldridge & Roesch, 2008; Doron et al., 2013; Eisenbarth, 2012). This assumption is problematic from a theoretical standpoint because change is central to the conceptualization of coping: "to speak of a coping process means speaking of *change in coping thoughts and acts*" which may occur "as the status of the person–environment relationship changes" (i.e., coping strategies may change in response to shifts in a given stressor, how the stressor is appraised, or one's resources; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 142, emphasis added). Indeed, meta-analytic research shows that more than half of the variance in coping is within-person (Podsakoff et al., 2019). Moreover, change versus stability in coping strategies may hold important implications for one's functioning (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This assumption is also problematic from a practical standpoint because it implies that concurrently engaging in high levels of adaptive coping strategies over time is sustainable. Indeed, coping with work–nonwork stressors by engaging in adaptive strategies may expend resources (e.g., time, energy; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). This calls into question whether coping "on all cylinders" over time—continuously coping with such a high depth (i.e., level of utilized adaptive strategies) together with such a high breadth (i.e., range of adaptive coping strategies utilized, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984)—is the most efficacious way to cope with work–nonwork stressors. Yet existing research cannot explain how sustaining or changing coping depth and/or breadth influences employees over time.

The purpose of this research is to address the above limitations by first exploring profiles (i.e., combinations) of adaptive strategies to cope with work–nonwork stressors (hereinafter, "work–nonwork coping profiles"). Building on coping theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), we explore the relative efficacy of coping depth and breadth over time by considering how employees combine adaptive coping strategies. As we elaborate below, we focus on five empirically validated adaptive coping strategies that build on the seminal coping theory (i.e., Carver et al., 1989) and align with the most common strategies in the work–nonwork coping literature (e.g., Aryee et al., 1999; Baltes et al., 2011; Neal & Hammer, 2009; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Across a pilot study and two main studies, we examine work–nonwork coping profiles using latent profile analysis (LPA; Campion & Csillag, 2022; Chawla et al., 2020; Gabriel et al., 2015; Shockley et al., 2021) and examine their transition patterns over time using latent transition analysis (LTA; Slaughter et al., 2021; Vaziri et al., 2020). After revealing the profiles and transition patterns, we examine whether transition patterns that theoretically reflect maintaining, increasing, or decreasing depth and/or breadth of coping are ultimately associated with changes in "coping efficacy and functioning" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 175), namely employee work, well-being, and social functioning outcomes.

Our work offers several contributions to the work–nonwork and coping literatures. First, we contribute to the work–nonwork literature by exploring adaptive work–nonwork coping profiles. Our person-centered approach focusing on adaptive strategies reveals

insights about coping that would not be evident from prior variable- or person-centered approaches by revealing *profiles varying in coping depth and breadth*. Second, we investigate *transition patterns* of work–nonwork coping profiles, showing whether employees change profiles over time and to which profiles they change (i.e., maintaining, increasing, or decreasing depth and breadth of coping strategies). By focusing on such patterns, our work suggests that depth, breadth, and transition patterns are interlinked. This expands our understanding of how the coping process works, which contributes to coping theory. Third, we explore how *profile transition patterns affect changes in employee outcomes* in their work, social functioning across roles, and well-being, thereby broadening the criteria space of coping. Altogether, using a person-centered approach to understand profiles of coping with work–nonwork stressors has the potential to challenge existing conclusions regarding the efficacy of coping, which has overlooked simultaneous consideration of both depth and breadth of adaptive coping strategies.

Theoretical Background: Adaptive Coping Strategies

Coping Theory

According to a seminal, cross-disciplinary body of research led by Lazarus and Folkman, coping functions include problem-focused coping, whereby people address the stressor head-on to change their relationship with their environment, and emotion-focused coping, whereby people regulate emotions prompted by the stressor to change their attention or meaning vis-à-vis their environment (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Building from their work, Carver et al. (1989) developed a framework that distinguished specific coping strategies within each function because "these responses are very different from each other, and they may have very different implications for a person's success in coping" (p. 268). Their proposed adaptive-problem-focused strategies include planning, suppressing competing activities to focus on the stressor (i.e., prioritizing), seeking instrumental support, active coping (i.e., increasing efforts), and restraint coping (i.e., waiting for the right opportunity to act), and adaptive emotion-focused strategies include reframing the stressor in a positive way (i.e., reappraising as a source of growth), seeking emotional support, and acceptance (Carver et al., 1989).

A contemporary perspective of coping, affiliative coping theory, also known as the tend and befriend theory, focuses on an affiliative set of coping strategies: seeking emotional support and seeking instrumental support (Taylor, 2011). The theory adopts an evolutionary perspective on coping, positing that humans evolved to cope with stressors by seeking affiliation (Taylor & Master, 2011). As such, the theory emphasizes the importance of "mere social contact and the ability to affiliate with others under stress" (Taylor, 2011, p. 95). This suggests that the social connection forged by seeking social support[1]—rather than the support itself—is what helps people cope with stressors. More broadly, social support is associated with improved work outcomes, work–nonwork outcomes, well-being, and social functioning (Bavik et al., 2020; French et al., 2018; Jolly et al., 2021; Kossek et al., 2011; Michel et al., 2011).

Work–Nonwork Coping Strategies

Around the time that seminal coping theory was developed, Hall (1972) introduced a theoretical model of coping with work–nonwork stressors. Her model included altering one's environment and altering one's perceptions and expectations, which these loosely parallel problem- and emotion-focused coping functions, respectively (Carver et al., 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Hall's (1972) work jumpstarted research on the specific work–nonwork coping strategies that employees use. Some scholars drew from Hall's (1972) framework to develop such strategies (e.g., Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Kirchmeyer, 1993), whereas others have applied strategies from the coping literature at large (e.g., Carver et al., 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) to work–nonwork stressors specifically (Andreassi, 2011; Behson, 2002; Bryant, 2009; Hecht & McCarthy, 2010; Kalliath & Kalliath, 2014) or integrated theoretical perspectives and/or qualitative work to develop work–nonwork coping strategies (Aryee et al., 1999; Baltes et al., 2011; Burke, 1994; Clark et al., 2014; Desrochers, 2001; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987; Higgins et al., 2010; Matias & Fontaine, 2015; Neal & Hammer, 2009; Paden & Buehler, 1995; Schnittger & Bird, 1990; Skinner & McCubbin, 1982; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007).

This literature has revealed numerous coping strategies that capture the complexity of dealing with work–nonwork stressors. In order to distill this literature, we integrate it with Carver et al.'s (1989) framework of coping strategies and bound our investigation to the most commonly examined adaptive strategies that map onto their framework. Specifically, of 35 work–nonwork coping publications we reviewed, 26 examined what Carver et al. refer to as planning, such as creating a plan of action, getting organized, and (re)scheduling appointments to address work–nonwork stressors (e.g., Adams & Jex, 1999; Clark et al., 2014; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987; Kirchmeyer, 1993; Latack, 1984; Major & Morganson, 2011; Matias & Fontaine, 2014, 2015; Paden & Buehler, 1995; Schnittger & Bird, 1990). The next most common type of strategy examined in this literature, present in 22 publications we reviewed, captures what Carver et al. refer to as "suppression of competing activities." This strategy entails prioritizing the most important role or role activities by concentrating efforts on those and being good enough in the less important activities (e.g., Adams & Jex, 1999; Baltes et al., 2011; Desrochers, 2001; Higgins et al., 2010; Kirchmeyer, 1993; Neal & Hammer, 2009; Skinner & McCubbin, 1982; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007, 2012).

Similar to Carver et al.'s (1989) framework, this literature also revealed strategies that capture seeking instrumental support (e.g., seeking assistance from others at work, with child care, and other domestic duties; e.g., Kirchmeyer, 1993; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007) and seeking emotional support (e.g., talking with others, sharing feelings, pursuing "emotional sustenance"; Lapierre & Allen, 2006), present in 20 and 15 studies reviewed, respectively. These were either examined as separate strategies (e.g., Clark et al., 2014; Higgins et al., 2010) or combined together (e.g., Andreassi, 2011; Hecht & McCarthy, 2010). Of the publications we reviewed, 20 examined a strategy that maps onto what Carver et al. call "positive reinterpretation and growth" (i.e., positive reframing).

[1] On this point, it is important to note that, whereas *seeking* social support is theoretically considered to be a coping strategy (e.g., Carver et al., 1989; Taylor, 2011), *receiving* social support (for reviews, see, e.g., Bavik et al., 2020; Jolly et al., 2021) is not a coping strategy because it is not an effort on the part of the person experiencing the stressor, and disconnects could exist between support sought and received (e.g., employees may receive unsolicited or unwanted support, which can be harmful; Ehrhardt & Ragins, 2019; Song & Chen, 2014; Taylor, 2011).

This strategy has been referred to as "cognitive restructuring" (Clark et al., 2014; Paden & Buehler, 1995; Schnittger & Bird, 1990), "positive thinking coping" (Haar, 2006), "cognitive reappraisal" (Latack, 1984), and "positive attitude toward multiple roles" (Matias & Fontaine, 2014, 2015; see also Behson, 2002; Bryant, 2009; Skinner, 1980); all captured reframing work–nonwork stressors in a more positive way.

A smaller set of publications (seven) examined coping responses that correspond to the "active coping" strategy from Carver et al. (1989), which entails trying to "do it all" (e.g., increase efforts and work harder to be a high-performing employee and parent; Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Rotondo et al., 2003; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007; Stewart, 1990). We excluded active coping because it was examined less frequently in the work–nonwork literature, and its scale showed poorer psychometric properties compared to the other coping strategies scales from Carver et al. (1989).[2] Work–nonwork coping strategies examined by fewer than five publications included exercise and relaxation; given these were not addressed by Carver et al.'s (1989) framework nor by seminal coping theory, we excluded these strategies. Carver et al.'s (1989) framework also included maladaptive (i.e., dysfunctional) strategies, namely, denial of the stressor, behavioral disengagement (i.e., giving up), cognitive disengagement (i.e., seeking distractions such as TV), and use of alcohol and drugs, which we excluded because these did not emerge in the literature on work–nonwork coping.

Integrating seminal coping theory with research on work–nonwork coping strategies, we seek to understand how employees combine coping strategies and whether they change these combinations over time. Overall, we focused our investigation on planning, prioritizing, seeking instrumental support, seeking emotional support, and positive reframing because these are most commonly examined and captured nonredundant work–nonwork coping strategies that map onto coping theory (planning, prioritizing, and seeking instrumental support captured problem-focused; seeking emotional support and positive reframing captured emotion-focused) as well as affiliative coping theory (seeking emotional and instrumental support are affiliative; planning, prioritizing, and positive reframing are what we refer to as individualistic strategies, i.e., these do not involve other people and can be enacted by one's self). Next, we offer a roadmap of our studies.

Overview of Studies

To examine work–nonwork coping profiles over time, we adopted a person-centered, dynamic approach using LPA and LTA across three studies. Specifically, we first conducted a fully inductive pilot study to explore whether work–nonwork coping profiles exist. We collected data from full-time employed staff, faculty, and graduate students of large Midwestern public universities during a time frame punctuated with macrolevel events that intensified work–nonwork stressors. Namely, data were collected during two transitional time points during the COVID-19 pandemic in the United States. Time 1 data were collected in April 2020 (during the height of lockdown restrictions, which included state-mandated shelter-in-place policies; Vaziri et al., 2020), and Time 2 data were collected in September 2020 (when many started transitioning back to the office; Slaughter et al., 2021). In light of the pilot study results, in Study 1, we developed research questions to explore profiles and transitions across three time points in a time frame not affected by macrolevel events associated with COVID-19 and with a different sample and time interval. Integrating our theoretical foundation with results of the pilot study and Study 1, we took a deductive approach in Study 2 to develop hypotheses regarding the nature of work–nonwork coping profiles, their transitions, and whether specific transition patterns are associated with beneficial or harmful changes in employee outcomes.

Study 1

Exploring Work–Nonwork Coping Profiles and Their Transitions

Coping Profiles Research

Methodological developments in person-centered approaches (e.g., Gabriel et al., 2018; Nylund-Gibson et al., 2023; Wang & Hanges, 2011) have aided in the progression of a growing body of research on coping profiles across such disciplines as clinical psychology, health psychology, and organizational psychology. Scholars have explored profiles of coping with acute stressors, such as psychological contract breach and sexual harassment, sports competitions, and cancer diagnosis (Achnak & Vantilborgh, 2021; Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Hasselle et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2021; Martinent & Nicolas, 2016; McDermott et al., 2019) and chronic stressors related to workplace, health, or academic problems (Amai & Hojo, 2022; Burns et al., 2022; Cruz & Nagy, 2024; Freese et al., 2018; Freire et al., 2018; Vitaliano et al., 1990). Other studies examined coping tendencies, irrespective of stressors (Doron et al., 2013, 2015; Eisenbarth, 2012; Herres, 2015; Kavčič et al., 2022; Kenntemich et al., 2023; J. D. Livingston et al., 2022; Mauno et al., 2014; Okafor et al., 2016). A subset of studies used employee samples (Achnak & Vantilborgh, 2021; Burns et al., 2022; Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Cruz & Nagy, 2024; Ganster et al., 2023; Mauno et al., 2014; Vitaliano et al., 1990). Nearly all studies found a profile characterized by engaging in high levels of adaptive coping strategies, a profile with high levels of maladaptive strategies, and a profile with low levels of adaptive and maladaptive strategies. A smaller group of studies also revealed a profile with moderate levels of adaptive and maladaptive strategies. Such studies conclude that the high-adaptive profile is the "one best profile" in terms of mental health outcomes (e.g., depression, anxiety, stress), consistent with variable-centered findings.

Although the existing literature of coping profiles has advanced our understanding of how individuals combine coping strategies, there are several reasons why its conclusions may not generalize to work–nonwork stressors. Several theoretical–empirical disconnects exist between what seminal and contemporary coping theory predict and what prior coping profiles research has found. First, whereas coping theory distinguishes between adaptive and maladaptive strategies, prior coping profiles studies typically bundle both of these

[2] Of these seven publications, four used a qualitative approach of measuring strategies by coding responses to open-ended questions, and three either developed scales or used existing scales. Of note, none of the seven used Carver et al.'s (1989) active coping strategy scale. In Carver et al.'s (1989) work, all factor loadings for this scale were .42 or below, and coefficient α across their three samples ranged from .56 to .69, the lowest of the adaptive coping scales they developed. In their Study 1 and Study 3, active and planning coping strategies were strongly correlated ($r = .67$ and $r = .64$, respectively), indicating some degree of conceptual overlap between them (Carver et al., 1989).

strategies in forming the profiles, which confounds adaptiveness and level of the coping strategy. Second, this literature has often revealed profiles that vary in terms of coping breadth (i.e., by finding a profile of participants who report low or high levels of coping across the board) but has largely not revealed profiles characterized by higher depth in which individuals engage in a specific set of adaptive coping strategies outlined by coping theory (i.e., problem-focused, emotion-focused, affiliative, or individualistic). The absence of profiles in which people engage in high levels of specific sets of strategies means that direct comparisons between depth and breadth cannot be made, which would be theoretically and practically meaningful for work–nonwork stressors (i.e., revealing whether depth and breadth are both necessary for coping efficacy).

Third, whereas coping theory suggests that coping is dynamic, most coping profiles studies consider such profiles at a single point in time. Of the small subset of studies examining transitions between coping profiles (Amai & Hojo, 2022; Kim et al., 2021; Martinent & Nicolas, 2016; McDermott et al., 2019), only one examined outcomes of profile transition patterns. Therefore, it remains unclear whether maintaining, increasing, or decreasing coping depth or breadth over time is most efficacious. Fourth, whereas coping theory posits that coping strategies influence functioning in multiple ways (e.g., work, well-being, social, etc.), the criteria space of existing coping profiles research is narrowly focused on well-being. Finally, employee samples are less common, and most coping profiles studies focus on general or domain-specific stressors, which means that findings from this literature do not necessarily generalize to our understanding of coping with stressors that span across work and nonwork domains. Taken altogether, it cannot be concluded that high breadth of work–nonwork coping strategies is necessarily ideal or can be sustained over time, nor can it be ruled out that in some cases high depth in only a subset of strategies (i.e., higher depth–lower breadth) may be more beneficial.

Exploring Work–Nonwork Coping Profiles

Against this backdrop, we return to the roots of seminal coping theory to explore how employees combine adaptive strategies to cope with work–nonwork stressors. A person-centered approach is inherently inductive; as such, it is not possible to a priori predict work–nonwork coping profiles that exist (Diefendorff et al., 2019; Slaughter et al., 2021; Wang & Hanges, 2011). That being said, according to Lazarus and Folkman, "to understand coping, and to evaluate it, we need to know what the person is coping with" (1984, p. 142). Accordingly, the nature of work–nonwork stressors may provide clues about whether and how employees combine coping strategies. Seminal coping theory suggests that people engage in problem-focused strategies when the stressor is perceived as changeable and engage in emotion-focused strategies when the stressor is viewed as nonmodifiable (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Given that work–nonwork stressors entail both modifiable and nonmodifiable elements (e.g., employees can control how they enact their work and nonwork roles but may not necessarily control events such as illness), employees may combine problem- and emotion-focused strategies, such that emotion-focused coping downregulates negative emotions (Shockley et al., 2022) that make the stressor less intimidating to cope with in problem-focused ways. Because employees enact and negotiate their roles with others at work and at home (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Hall, 1972; B. A. Livingston, 2014; Shockley et al., 2021), they may call upon these others for support by engaging in affiliative strategies or, alternatively, focus more on individualistic strategies.

In our pilot study, four work–nonwork coping profiles emerged: *comprehensive copers* (high levels of all strategies), *individualistic copers* (higher levels of planning, prioritizing, and positive reframing and lower levels of seeking instrumental and emotional support), *surviving copers* (moderate levels of all strategies), and *emotion-focused copers* (higher levels of seeking emotional support and positive reframing and lower levels of planning, prioritizing, and seeking instrumental support). These results suggest that employees vary in their breadth of coping (i.e., the degree to which they engage in a range of problem-focused, emotion-focused, affiliative, and individualistic sets of strategies at once) and their depth of coping (i.e., the level of a given coping strategy). Take for example, the following work–nonwork stressor: as an employee arrives at their workplace to begin their workday, they receive a phone call from their child's school saying their child has a fever and needs to be taken home. A person-centered approach allows for thought trials regarding potential profiles of coping with work–nonwork stressors like this one, and such profiles may differ quantitatively or qualitatively (Diefendorff et al., 2019; Howard et al., 2016; Shipp et al., 2022; Wang & Hanges, 2011).

Profiles that differ quantitatively would occur if all adaptive coping strategies vary to the same extent in terms of level (e.g., Shipp et al., 2022), revealing for example, a higher depth–higher breadth profile (i.e., employees engage in high levels of all sets of strategies) or a lower depth–higher breadth profile (e.g., employees engage in all strategies but to a much lesser extent). It is reasonable to speculate that to cope with the work–nonwork stressor above, employees would engage in all sets of coping strategies: planning (making a doctor's appointment, rescheduling in-person work meetings, and making arrangements to work from home), seeking instrumental support (perhaps coordinating with their partner to take work shifts that day; Shockley et al., 2021), seeking emotional support (perhaps commiserating with others on how disruptive the situation is), prioritizing (perhaps by pushing back less important work deadlines as much as possible to get through the day), and positive reframing (perhaps by reappraising the situation as a chance to hone their time management and multitasking skills). Indeed, the emergence of the comprehensive copers and surviving copers profiles in the pilot study gives preliminary credence to the idea that some employees engage in high breadth of coping.

Profiles might also emerge that vary qualitatively with regard to shape (e.g., Shipp et al., 2022), such that employees engage more deeply in a subset of coping strategies, revealing for example, higher depth–lower breadth profiles (i.e., employees engage in higher levels of some strategies and lower levels of others). This seems particularly likely for work–nonwork stressors, given employees expend resources by coping with such stressors; for example, "by using a problem-focused coping style, individuals invest some of their time and energy in planning and carrying out ways of dealing with challenges in their work and family environments to more easily fulfill role obligations" (Lapierre & Allen, 2006, p. 172). This suggests that employees may attempt to conserve such resources by focusing on a specific set of coping strategies. Coping theory points to several possibilities of higher depth–lower breadth profiles. For example, perhaps employees more deeply engage in problem- or emotion-focused sets of strategies as per seminal coping theory or

affiliative or individualistic sets as per affiliative coping theory.[3] Indeed, the pilot study revealed individualistic and emotion-focused copers, suggesting the presence of higher depth–lower breadth coping profiles. Given these theoretical possibilities and exploratory results of the pilot study, we advance the following research question:

> *Research Question 1 (RQ1)*: Do distinct profiles of work–nonwork coping strategies (planning, prioritizing, seeking instrumental support, seeking emotional support, positive reframing) exist that vary quantitatively (in level) and qualitatively (in shape)?

Exploring Transitions Between Profiles of Work–Nonwork Coping Strategies

Recognizing the dynamic nature of coping strategies is central to understanding coping as a process (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; see also Hecht & McCarthy, 2010; Pearsall et al., 2009; Zellars & Perrewé, 2001; Zhang et al., 2019). Indeed, "stress implies a disturbed person–environmental relationship that coping is meant to change … unless we focus on *change* we cannot learn how people come to manage stressful events and conditions" (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985, p. 150, emphasis added). For example, people may rely on different coping strategies as the person–environment relationship shifts over time because the nature of the stressor may change, the stressor may abate, or individuals may adjust to the presence of the stressor (Carver & Scheier, 1994; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Supporting this notion is research showing that, on average, from 2 days before a midterm exam to 5 days following the exam, students decreased their level of problem-focused coping, support-seeking, and positive reframing (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). In other words, individuals may transition their coping strategies.

Given that work–nonwork stressors fluctuate within employees (French & Allen, 2020; Podsakoff et al., 2019), employees may either maintain or change their coping strategies over time in response to changes in these stressors. Longitudinal perspectives are necessary to uncover whether and how coping profiles evolve as employees face work–nonwork stressors because "coping and social support are dynamic processes in which certain actions are used jointly or discarded in favor of others" (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1987, p. 56). Such perspectives can account for how individuals differentially react to discrete stressors over time (Bliese et al., 2017). Indeed, an emerging body of research has revealed profile transition patterns, including profiles of work–nonwork conflict and enrichment from immediately before and then during the COVID-19 pandemic (Vaziri et al., 2020; see also Huyghebaert-Zouaghi et al., 2022), profiles of emotions that employees experienced as changes took place at their organization during the COVID-19 pandemic (Slaughter et al., 2021) and during career transitions (Parmentier et al., 2021), profiles of alcohol use during the college-to-work transition (Liu et al., 2023), profiles of union participation (McKay et al., 2020), and profiles of organizational commitment (Houle et al., 2020) and work motivation (Howard et al., 2021; for a review, see Woo et al., 2024).

This body of work suggests that people may either remain in the same profile or change profiles of coping with work–nonwork stressors and that the theoretical meaning of the transition patterns (i.e., which profiles people remain in or change between) can be gleaned from the nature of the profiles involved in a given transition pattern. Indeed, exploratory transition pattern results of our pilot study showed that slightly more than half of the participants remained in the same profile over time (and this may be conservative given a new profile emerged in T2). For example, those who remained in the comprehensive copers profile maintained higher depth and breadth, and those who changed from individualistic to comprehensive increased breadth. With these theoretical possibilities and results in mind, we pose the following research question:

> *Research Question 2 (RQ2):* How do employees transition between work–nonwork coping profiles?

Study 1: Method

Transparency and Openness for Pilot Study, Study 1, and Study 2

In the Method section of each study, we describe our sampling plan and all measures. We adhered to the *Journal of Applied Psychology*'s methods checklist. We analyzed the data with Mplus Version 8.6 (L. K. Muthén & Muthén, 2017) using LPA and LTA following the procedures described in each Analytic Approach section below. The studies were not preregistered. All studies were approved and determined exempt by institutional review board (IRB; Pilot Study: Purdue University IRB-2020-522 "Managing Work and Nonwork During COVID-19"; Study 1 and Study 2: Purdue University IRB-2022-1188 and Indiana University No. 16800 "Managing Work and Nonwork During COVID-19 Study 2"). The data presented in Study 1 were part of a broader data collection effort; this is the first publication from that data set. The data, annotated syntax and results output, and full measures for each study (Appendix A) supplemental variable-focused results for the pilot study and Study 2 (Appendix B), full results and discussion of the pilot study (Appendix C), and elbow plots (Appendix D) can be accessed as additional online materials available at https://osf.io/tbp8k/?view_only=59e8145e71d24faea22fc1f21f1ecec5.

Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited through Prolific. To be eligible, participants were required to work full time (i.e., at least 30 hr/week), be at least 18 years old, and reside in the United States. Participants completed a registration survey and then three surveys approximately 1 week apart. They were paid $3 for each survey. We chose a 1-week interval because the participants' general work–nonwork stressors would be less likely to change within this short time period, making it less likely that such change would be responsible for profile transitions. A total of 800 participants completed the registration survey (T0). Of those, 717 completed the Time 1 (T1) survey,

[3] In light of the sets of strategies outlined by coping theory, it seems theoretically unlikely (albeit possible) that a work–nonwork coping profile would emerge in which employees would be higher on a single coping strategy and lower on all of the other strategies. This would represent higher depth and extremely narrow breadth. For example, it would be unlikely to find a profile higher only on prioritizing, because someone engaged in this strategy would likely either create a plan of action to address the stressor themselves (i.e., planning) or delegate tasks to someone else (i.e., seek instrumental support) in the process. Theoretical possibilities notwithstanding, our inductive, person-centered approach would be able to empirically detect the emergence of such a profile.

717 completed Time 2 (T2), and 722 completed Time 3 (T3). We retained for analysis participants who did not fail more than one attention check and completed the T1, T2, and T3 surveys. After matching participants across surveys, our final sample was 648 participants (81% response rate). Job titles included teacher, construction manager, technology support, sales associate, and restaurant worker. Of the final sample, 83% were White, 8% were Asian, 8% were African American/Black, 7% were Latino/a, and 2% were Native American. The majority of participants were male (61%). Participants were an average age of 38.99 years old (SD = 10.69), 59% had a partner living with them, and 42% had at least one child under 18 living with them.

Measures

All measures used response anchors from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and were assessed at all three time points. In all measures, we asked participants to think about their experiences over the last week.

Work–Nonwork Coping Strategies. At T1, T2, and T3, we asked participants to think about and describe (Penley et al., 2002) some of their work–nonwork stressors over the last week using the following definition:

> Stressors that have affected your work and nonwork life over the past week. These stressors are demands that span your life at work and outside of work and that tax or surpass your resources you need to deal with these stressors.

Participants then responded to five scales from Carver et al. (1989) assessing adaptive coping strategies in reference to their work–nonwork stressors over the last week. Specifically, planning was captured with four items (T1 α = .91; T2 α = .92; T3 α = .92). An example item is "I make a plan of action." Prioritizing was assessed using four items (T1 α = .81; T2 α = .81; T3 α = .86). An example item is "I focus on dealing with this problem, and if necessary, let other things slide a little." Seeking instrumental support was measured with four items (T1 α = .93; T2 α = .93; T3 α = .93). An example item is "I try to get advice from someone about what to do." Seeking emotional support was measured with four items (T1 α = .95; T2 α = .96; T3 α = .95). An example item is "I talk to someone about how I feel." We measured positive reframing with four items (T1 α = .88; T2 α = .89; T3 α = .89). An example item is "I look for something good in what is happening."

Analytic Approach

Prior to examining our research questions, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis. Our hypothesized model demonstrated good fit to the data: $\chi^2(1565) = 4411.40$, $p < .001$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .92, Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) = .91, root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .05, and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) = .05. Loading the coping strategies onto a single factor added significant misfit, $\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df = 102) = 18253.84$, $p < .001$. We thus proceeded with profile analysis as described below.

In the first step, we conducted LPA (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) to identify coping profiles (RQ1; Slaughter et al., 2021; Vaziri et al., 2020). Consistent with recommendations (Nylund et al., 2007), we began by specifying two latent profiles and increased the number of profiles until the improvement in model fit no longer justified the reduced parsimony. To avoid misestimation and for robustness, we conducted profile enumeration separately for each time point (Nylund-Gibson et al., 2023; Slaughter et al., 2021; Talley, 2020). At each time point, we examined log-likelihood, Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC), sample-size adjusted BIC (SSA-BIC), consistent Akaike information criterion (CAIC), bootstrap likelihood ratio test (BLRT), Lo et al.'s (2001) likelihood ratio test (LMR), and entropy, following prior LPA research (e.g., Campion & Csillag, 2022; Chawla et al., 2021; Shipp et al., 2022). Significant values ($p < .05$) for BLRT and LMR show that the k profile solution is a significantly better fit than the $k - 1$ profile solution (Gabriel et al., 2015). Entropy indicates profile separation, such that higher values are preferable, and values exceeding .80 indicate a high degree of profile separation (Diallo et al., 2016).

Prior LPA research suggests that "the 'best' profile solution has (a) the lowest relative fit statistics (AIC, BIC, SSA-BIC, and CAIC), (b) the highest relative entropy, and (c) statistically significant LMR and BLRT" (Campion & Csillag, 2022, p. 1268; see also Morin et al., 2011; Nylund et al., 2007; Tofighi & Enders, 2008). However, these fit statistics may not necessarily be in consensus (Chawla et al., 2020; Vaziri et al., 2020), and simulation research shows that BIC, CAIC, and SSA-BIC more optimally identify the best-fitting solution versus LMR and BLRT statistics (Diallo et al., 2016, 2017; Gabriel et al., 2018; Nylund et al., 2007). We followed recent recommendations (Nylund-Gibson et al., 2023) and prior LTA research (Slaughter et al., 2021) to conduct profile enumeration for each time point. Therefore, we also examined whether "the number and type of profiles stayed the same over time" (Slaughter et al., 2021, p. 1122)—that is, whether evidence for longitudinal invariance exists (Nylund-Gibson et al., 2023). If the profiles are found to be noninvariant, that would suggest that, over time, the number of profiles differ or the profiles themselves differ quantitatively (i.e., in levels of coping strategies) or qualitatively (i.e., in shape). As such, we took into account longitudinal invariance evidence as another data point when selecting the optimal profile solution at each time point. In addition to these statistical criteria, we considered in our decision the theoretical criteria of profile meaning and parsimony by inspecting descriptive information per profile (i.e., each profile's means on the coping strategies) at each time point (Foti et al., 2012; Gabriel et al., 2018; Howard et al., 2016).

In the second step, we conducted LTA to explore the probabilities of profile transition patterns (RQ2; Slaughter et al., 2021; Vaziri et al., 2020). To calculate these probabilities more robustly, we included all three time points in the same analysis, rather than conducting separate LTAs from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3. Full information maximum likelihood estimation was used to handle missing data.

Study 1: Results

Table 1 presents means, standard deviations, and correlations among Study 1 variables. As Table 2 shows, participants described a wide variety of work–nonwork stressors, for example, related to health problems, finances, child care, elder care, and interruptions.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Study 1 Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Planning T1	4.05	0.74	(.91)													
2. Planning T2	4.06	0.77	.45**	(.92)												
3. Planning T3	4.05	0.76	.42**	.49**	(.92)											
4. Prioritizing T1	3.54	0.80	.44**	.30**	.32**	(.81)										
5. Prioritizing T2	3.56	0.81	.29**	.46**	.23**	.38**	(.81)									
6. Prioritizing T3	3.63	0.85	.23**	.25**	.46**	.41**	.32**	(.86)								
7. Seeking instrumental support T1	2.85	1.18	.21**	.16**	.14**	.25**	.14**	.15**	(.93)							
8. Seeking instrumental support T2	2.86	1.19	.17**	.26**	.17**	.13**	.21**	.17**	.49**	(.93)						
9. Seeking instrumental support T3	2.86	1.19	.15**	.15**	.26**	.21**	.13**	.27**	.55**	.49**	(.93)					
10. Seeking emotional support T1	3.28	1.19	.16**	.10*	.14**	.23**	.16**	.16**	.54**	.37**	.40**	(.95)				
11. Seeking emotional support T2	3.28	1.22	.14**	.14**	.16**	.16**	.14**	.11**	.37**	.54**	.39**	.60**	(.96)			
12. Seeking emotional support T3	3.22	1.22	.11**	.09*	.21**	.10*	.12**	.22**	.36**	.35**	.56**	.59**	.58**	(.95)		
13. Positive reframing T1	3.43	0.97	.42**	.30**	.30**	.31**	.27**	.23**	.25**	.29**	.32**	.26**	.25**	.23**	(.88)	
14. Positive reframing T2	3.45	1.00	.21**	.33**	.24**	.20**	.31**	.22**	.25**	.34**	.34**	.20**	.27**	.22**	.54**	(.89)
15. Positive reframing T3	3.45	1.00	.25**	.26**	.37**	.26**	.24**	.34**	.26**	.27**	.38**	.21**	.25**	.26**	.53**	.58**
16. Constrained copers T1[a]	0.04	0.20	−.55**	−.22**	−.31**	−.28**	−.17**	−.14**	−.20**	−.13**	−.15**	−.31**	−.23**	−.19**	−.36**	−.16**
17. Individualistic copers T1[a]	0.29	0.45	.14**	.05	.04	−.09*	−.04	−.07	−.46**	−.30**	−.27**	−.75**	−.42**	−.45**	−.09*	−.10*
18. Surviving copers T1[a]	0.08	0.25	−.50**	−.23**	−.21**	−.22**	−.16**	−.17**	−.11**	−.09*	−.09	.07	.06	.03	−.21**	−.12**
19. Comprehensive copers T1[a]	0.61	0.49	.35**	.16**	.19**	.30**	.19**	.20**	.56**	.37**	.36**	.79**	.45**	.47**	.33**	.22**
20. Constrained copers T2[a]	0.03	0.16	−.23**	−.48**	−.30**	−.16**	−.29**	−.18**	−.17**	−.26**	−.22**	−.20**	−.31**	−.24**	−.25**	−.27**
21. Individualistic copers T2[a]	0.29	0.45	.01	.11**	.00	−.04	.03	−.01	−.26**	−.39**	−.29**	−.46**	−.80**	−.45**	−.10*	−.15**
22. Surviving copers T2[a]	0.15	0.36	−.19**	−.40**	−.17**	−.17**	−.40**	−.16**	−.03	−.13**	−.03	.11**	.18**	.10*	−.21**	−.36**
23. Comprehensive copers T2[a]	0.53	0.50	.20**	.35**	.22**	.21**	.35**	.18**	.31**	.52**	.36**	.41**	.70**	.42**	.32**	.49**
24. Constrained copers T3[a]	0.05	0.22	−.24**	−.23**	−.54**	−.20**	−.18**	−.29**	−.20**	−.19**	−.28**	−.24**	−.23**	−.35**	−.28**	−.24**
25. Individualistic copers T3[a]	0.30	0.46	.05	.05	.13**	.05	−.02	−.04	−.25**	−.27**	−.41**	−.44**	−.41**	−.75**	−.07	−.11**
26. Surviving copers T3[a]	0.06	0.23	−.24**	−.24**	−.46**	−.24**	−.12**	−.33**	−.06	−.08	−.11**	.01	.03	.09*	−.14**	−.11**
27. Comprehensive copers T3[a]	0.59	0.49	.17**	.17**	.34**	.16**	.15**	.32**	.35**	.38**	.56**	.51**	.48**	.81**	.26**	.26**

Variable	*M*	*SD*	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
15. Positive reframing T3	3.45	1.00	(.89)												
16. Constrained copers T1[a]	0.04	0.20	−.20**	—											
17. Individualistic copers T1[a]	0.29	0.45	−.09*	−.13**	—										
18. Surviving copers T1[a]	0.08	0.25	−.19**	−.06	−.17**	—									
19. Comprehensive copers T1[a]	0.61	0.49	.26**	−.26**	−.79**	−.33**	—								
20. Constrained copers T2[a]	0.03	0.16	−.15**	.35**	.06	−.05	−.17**	—							
21. Individualistic copers T2[a]	0.29	0.45	−.17**	.06	.40**	−.08	−.36**	−.11**	—						
22. Surviving copers T2[a]	0.15	0.36	−.21**	−.06	.13**	.31**	−.01	−.07	−.27**	—					
23. Comprehensive copers T2[a]	0.53	0.50	.35**	−.12**	−.29**	−.14**	.39**	−.18**	−.68**	−.45**	—				
24. Constrained copers T3[a]	0.05	0.22	−.32**	.42**	.04	.05	−.23**	.39**	.05	.00	−.18**	—			
25. Individualistic copers T3[a]	0.30	0.46	−.07	−.05	.45**	−.07	−.36**	.03	.43**	−.10*	−.33**	−.15**	—		
26. Surviving copers T3[a]	0.06	0.23	−.20**	.02	−.08*	.34**	−.11**	.00	−.07	.30**	−.15**	−.06	−.16**	—	
27. Comprehensive copers T3[a]	0.59	0.49	.30**	−.15**	−.40**	−.12**	.49**	−.21**	−.39**	−.05	.46**	−.28**	−.79**	−.29**	—

Note. Correlations reported on matched data across Time 1 (T1), Time 2 (T2), and Time 3 (T3). $N = 648$. Values on the diagonal represent coefficient alpha. The correlations presented for the profile variables assume that participants are 100% within each profile (i.e., the correlations do not take into account posterior probabilities.). *SD* = standard deviation.

[a] 0 = no, 1 = yes.

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

Table 2
Exemplar Work–Nonwork Stressors Per Latent Profile Over Time (Study 1)

Most frequent transition pattern	Exemplar work–nonwork stressor		
	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
Surviving → comprehensive → comprehensive: Participant A	"I got a cold that turned into a respiratory infection this week. This impacted what I was able to accomplish at home and the things I wanted to do with my partner on the weekend. It also caused me to miss 2 days of work, which for me means the loss of 2 days' income."	"My partner was ill this past week, which required a lot of physical and emotional caretaking from me … meant I did not have as much time for myself, my house chores, or some extra work tasks."	"I had planned a flight that got delayed over 10 hr. I was stuck at the airport starting at 9 a.m. and didn't get to my destination until 9 p.m. My laptop charger stopped working, so I was unable to get any work done. It also significantly impacted the social time I was planning to spend with the person I was visiting. I am also quite tired from the trip and haven't gotten much done."
Individualistic → individualistic → individualistic: Participant B	"My wife is sick, so it was stressful caring for her while also caring for our baby and trying to get work done. I also wanted to avoid getting sick myself. But it was hard to maintain a healthy lifestyle like working out and eating fresh foods while I had other responsibilities too."	"In my industry (tech), there have (been) lots of layoffs. This was stressful because while I'm still currently employed, I may not have a job in the near future. Stock valuations are falling, so my compensation is also falling. That means I have less of a cushion to fall on. This affects my well-being and I worry about the future."	"We have a baby who's 8 months old. We're trying to introduce more foods (purees, finger foods) into her diet. But it's been challenging and taking more time than expected. So, this has resulted in less time to work in the evening and getting late to work since we also try to feed her these foods in the morning before work."
Surviving → surviving → comprehensive: Participant C	"Several days last week, two of my direct reports had a personal conflict with each other. I had to meet with them a few times to help resolve their issues, but they were both slow to compromise, which left me feeling frustrated and somewhat angry during the workday. Because of this, I found myself in a bad mood at home after work, snapping at my husband and feeling very impatient with him."	"My daughter is at college out-of-state and has COVID. She is nervous about being sick so far away from home, so she has been calling me several times a day at work. I am not angry with her because I know she is feeling very anxious, but the interruptions at work have left me feeling impatient during interactions with my colleagues. I have noticed myself rushing people through conversations and spending little to no time on pleasantries and socialization."	"Two of my direct reports were out sick with the flu last week, so I had to stay late several days to complete the assignments I was not able to delegate to other workers. Because of this, I was not able to spend much time in the evenings with my daughter who is home while on break from college."
Comprehensive → individualistic → individualistic: Participant D	"My mother had some health issues that she needed some help with which took me away from work and my regular life. Someone at work also had a death in their family which left me having to do a lot of extra stuff which kept me very busy when clocked in. I had barely anytime to take care of myself or my dog, it's been exhausting as usual."	"I've been having to work later and later recently, and it's been detracting from any chance of serious downtime during the week. Sometimes it even bleeds into the weekend and I lose all chances to relax. I can't enjoy a movie or catch up on a tv show or even just order some takeout and relax with my dog. My job continues to push me for more and more of late especially this past weekend and I'm really approaching my breaking point."	"We are dealing with trying to not lose our home at the moment which is incredibly stressful. I've been trying to refinance and have been running into a lot of roadblocks and it's just really scary to think about being homeless. It has kept me distracted for months now but the last week we got several rejections regarding refinancing and its made it a lot more stressful."
Comprehensive → individualistic → comprehensive: Participant E	"A couple stressors were getting calls from my immediate family and extended for tech support during my work hours. It is already hard enough to do my job but I had to do impromptu troubleshooting over the phone which is very difficult … the older generation of my family are completely technology incapable."	"One of the stressors this past week was actually self-inflicted. I told this couple that I would be more than happy to dog sit for them while they went on a 10-day cruise. I love their dog and hanging out with a fluffer is a very merry time. The hard part was the constant attention that the dog required when I happened to be completing the busy part of a project that required a lot of group video calls that lasted a long time. I couldn't always give the dog what it wanted right away because of my work obligations."	"One of the stressors this past week was dealing with an elderly relative who needed to go through some medical screenings. I was the closest one in the area so therefore I was the one that was responsible for taking care of them. It was kind of difficult trying to make sure I'm taking care of their needs thoroughly because English isn't their first language. I wanted to make sure they got all the answers from the doctor they wanted."

Research Question 1: Exploring Work–Nonwork Coping Profiles

In RQ1, we explore whether work–nonwork coping profiles exist that vary quantitatively (in level of strategies used) and qualitatively (in shape). Fit statistics for profile solutions at each time point are shown in Table 3 (elbow plots of BIC and CAIC values are in Appendix D available at https://osf.io/5yn2x?view_only=59e8145e71d24faea22fc1f21f1ecec5). Descriptive information for each profile at each time point is presented in Table 4 and Figure 1.

As Table 3 and the elbow plots show, the slope for BIC and CAIC values began to flatten at four profiles for T1, T2, and T3. The LMR statistic was significant for the four-profile solution at T2 but not at T1 or T3. However, the entropy values for the four-profile solution exceeded .80 at each time point, indicating a high degree of profile separation, and the entropy values were higher for the four-profile solution than the three-profile solution at T1 and T3. Additionally, we examined evidence for longitudinal invariance with the four-profile solution at all three time points; the same number and type of profiles existed at T1, T2, and T3, $\chi^2(40) = 47.69$, $p = .188$ (Nylund-Gibson et al., 2023; Satorra, 2000; Slaughter et al., 2021). Altogether, the four-profile solution received more empirical support than the three-profile solution when taking the three time points together as a set. The descriptive information (outlined below) indicated the profiles were meaningful and parsimonious, offering theoretical justification for the four-profile solution.

Across all three time points, the most common profile was comprehensive copers (61%, 53%, 59%, respectively). In line with the descriptive information for this profile in the pilot study, comprehensive copers engaged in relatively high planning (M = 4.34), prioritizing (M = 3.92), seeking instrumental support (M = 3.56), seeking emotional support (M = 4.09), and positive reframing (M = 3.95). As such, this profile was characterized by higher coping depth and higher coping breadth. The second most common profile that emerged across all three time points was individualistic copers (29%, 29%, 30%, respectively). Similar to the individualistic copers profile from the pilot study, these individuals reported higher use of planning (M = 4.22), prioritizing (M = 3.59), and positive reframing (M = 3.34) and lower use of seeking instrumental support (M = 2.10) and seeking emotional support (M = 1.83). Accordingly, this profile was characterized by higher coping depth (in individualistic strategies) and lower coping breadth.

Next, the profile surviving copers emerged at all three time points (7%, 15%, 6%). In line with the shape of the surviving copers profile

Table 3
Fit Statistics for Latent Profile Solutions (Study 1 and Study 2)

Number of profiles	LL	FP	AIC	BIC	SSA-BIC	CAIC	BLRT (p)	LMR (p)	Entropy
				Study 1 (N = 648)					
Time 1									
2	−4252.74	16	8537.48	8609.06	8558.26	8625.06	.000	.044	.919
3	−4118.18	22	8280.58	8379.01	8309.16	8401.01	.000	.005	.857
4	−4069.93	28	8195.86	8321.12	8232.23	8349.12	.000	.100	.905
5	−4034.70	34	8137.39	8289.50	8181.55	8323.50	.000	.001	.850
6	−3976.15	40	8032.30	8211.25	8084.25	8251.25	.000	.367	.885
Time 2									
2	−4310.60	16	8653.21	8724.79	8673.99	8740.79	.000	.000	.904
3	−4214.94	22	8473.87	8572.30	8502.45	8594.30	.000	.036	.883
4	−4125.16	28	8306.31	8431.58	8342.68	8459.58	.000	.001	.856
5	−4086.90	34	8241.79	8393.90	8285.95	8427.90	.000	.193	.817
6	−4043.91	40	8167.81	8346.77	8219.77	8386.77	.000	.122	.866
Time 3									
2	−4319.60	16	8671.20	8742.79	8691.99	8758.79	.000	.000	.878
3	−4181.99	22	8407.99	8506.42	8436.66	8528.42	.000	.000	.864
4	−4132.19	28	8320.39	8445.66	8356.76	8473.66	.000	.055	.914
5	−4087.41	34	8242.82	8394.93	8286.98	8428.93	.000	.011	.813
6	−4052.44	40	8184.88	8363.83	8236.83	8403.83	.000	.053	.855
				Study 2 (N = 361)					
Time 1									
2	−2228.80	16	4489.59	4551.51	4501.05	4567.81	.000	.000	.911
3	−2185.27	22	4414.55	4500.10	4430.31	4522.10	.000	.049	.918
4	−2140.44	28	4336.87	4445.76	4356.93	4473.76	.000	.036	.777
5	−2120.10	34	4308.19	4440.41	4332.55	4474.41	.000	.586	.825
6	−2097.27	40	4274.54	4430.09	4303.19	4470.09	.000	.076	.844
Time 2									
2	−2322.37	16	4676.74	4738.96	4688.20	4754.96	.000	.169	.797
3	−2250.25	22	4544.49	4630.05	4560.25	4652.05	.000	.006	.877
4	−2216.53	28	4489.06	4597.95	4509.12	4625.95	.000	.196	.863
5	−2198.78	34	4465.57	4597.79	4489.92	4631.79	.000	.191	.859
6	−2183.37	40	4446.75	4602.30	4475.40	4642.30	.000	.544	.872

Note. LL = log likelihood; FP = free parameters; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; SSA-BIC = sample-size adjusted BIC; CAIC = consistent AIC; BLRT (p) = p value for the bootstrapped log-likelihood ratio tests; LMR (p) = p value for Lo et al.'s (2001) test.

Table 4
Descriptive Information Per Work–Nonwork Coping Profile Over Time (Study 1 and Study 2)

Time point and profile	%	Planning *M*	Prioritizing *M*	Seeking instrumental support *M*	Seeking emotional support *M*	Positive reframing *M*
			Study 1 profiles			
Time 1						
Constrained	4.0	2.08	2.43	1.68	1.46	1.79
Individualistic	28.6	4.20	3.43	2.02	1.90	3.32
Surviving	6.6	2.70	2.90	2.37	3.59	2.62
Comprehensive	60.8	4.26	3.74	3.37	4.03	3.69
Time 2						
Constrained	2.8	1.86	2.20	1.08	1.08	1.89
Individualistic	29.0	4.20	3.61	2.15	1.76	3.21
Surviving	15.0	3.37	2.87	2.52	3.77	2.70
Comprehensive	53.2	4.30	3.81	3.44	4.06	3.88
Time 3						
Constrained	5.1	2.29	2.59	1.44	1.39	2.10
Individualistic	29.9	4.19	3.58	2.12	1.84	3.34
Surviving	5.6	2.68	2.55	2.32	3.67	2.65
Comprehensive	59.4	4.27	3.85	3.42	4.03	3.71
			Study 2 profiles			
Time 1						
Constrained	5.3	2.55	2.84	1.64	1.48	2.37
Individualistic	20.5	4.23	3.60	2.11	1.75	3.65
Surviving	35.5	3.82	3.32	2.77	3.69	3.34
Comprehensive	38.8	4.41	3.84	3.80	4.22	3.97
Time 2						
Constrained	5.3	2.23	2.30	1.46	1.88	2.30
Individualistic	23.0	4.22	3.54	1.91	1.73	3.49
Surviving	14.1	3.36	2.98	2.41	3.64	2.78
Comprehensive	57.6	4.29	3.74	3.56	4.06	3.89

in the pilot study, these individuals engaged in moderate levels of all coping strategies: planning ($M = 3.65$), prioritizing ($M = 3.12$), seeking instrumental support ($M = 2.69$), seeking emotional support ($M = 3.75$), and positive reframing ($M = 2.89$). This profile was characterized by lower coping depth (i.e., moderate rather than high levels of strategies) and higher coping breadth (i.e., all strategies were used). Last, a profile solution emerged at all time three points (4%, 3%, 5%) that was unique from the profiles found in the pilot study. Individuals in this profile reported lower use of all strategies: planning ($M = 2.27$), prioritizing ($M = 2.46$), seeking instrumental support ($M = 1.44$), seeking emotional support ($M = 1.43$), and positive reframing ($M = 1.95$). Accordingly, this profile was labeled constrained copers, given their lower depth and breadth of coping. Altogether, Study 1 revealed four profiles: higher depth and breadth (comprehensive), higher depth and lower breadth (individualistic), lower depth and higher breadth (surviving), and lower depth and breadth (constrained), which vary both quantitatively and qualitatively.

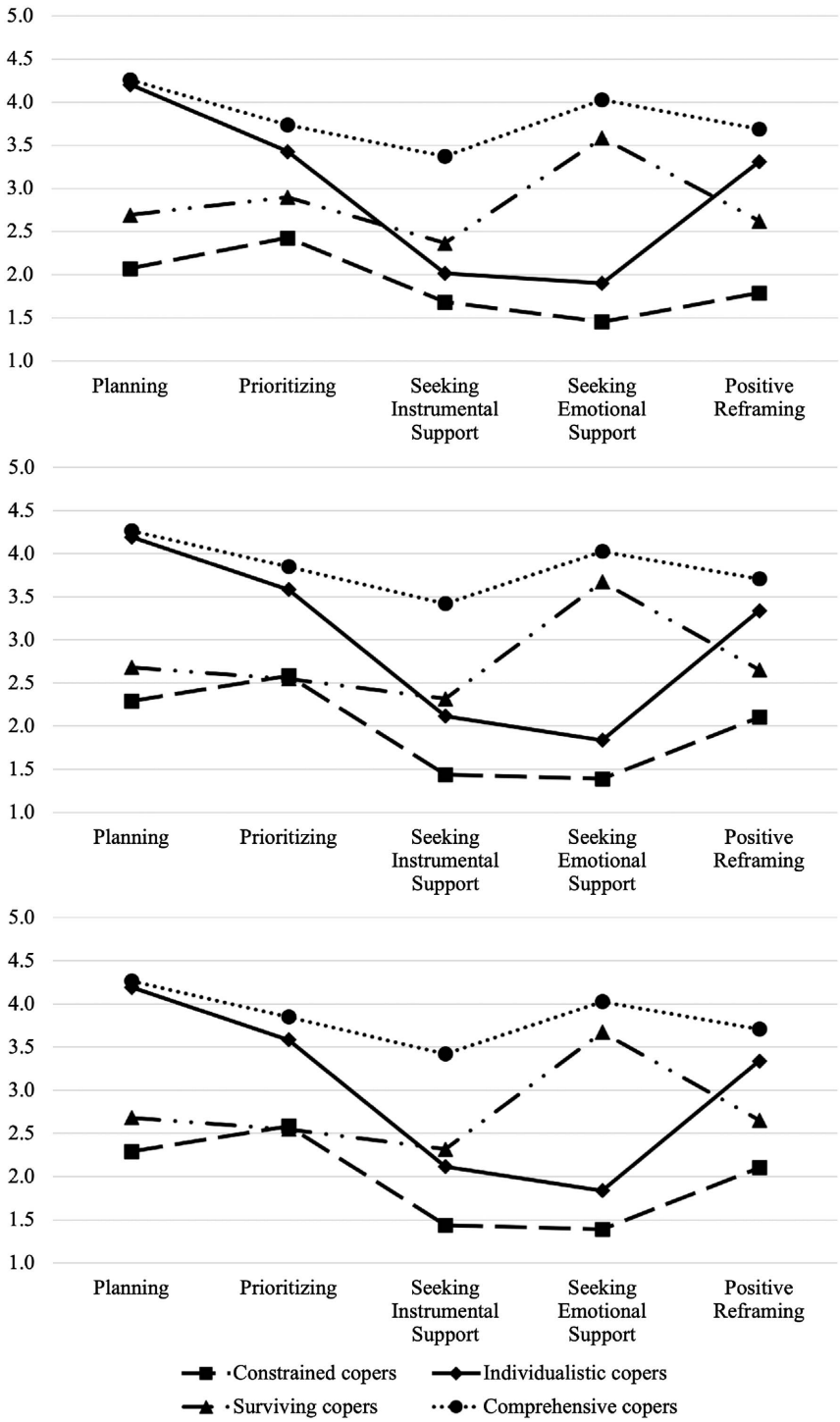
RQ2: Exploring Work–Nonwork Coping Profiles Transition Patterns

In RQ2, we explore transition patterns of work–nonwork coping profiles. Given evidence of longitudinal invariance outlined above, we used the invariance model to examine profile transitions. Transition probabilities are presented in Table 5. Cells in the top section indicate the probability of a given profile transition pattern from T1 (in rows) to T2 (in columns). Cells in the middle section indicate the probability of a given profile transition pattern from T2 (in rows) to T3 (in columns). Along the diagonals are the probabilities of remaining in the same profile.

From T1 to T2, 63% of participants remained in the same profile, and from T2 to T3, 65% of participants remained in the same profile. The most stable profile was comprehensive; from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, it was 89% ($p < .001$) and 87% ($p < .001$) likely that a participant would remain in this profile, respectively. This theoretically captures people sustaining higher coping depth and higher breadth over time. The next most stable profile was surviving; from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, it was 84% ($p < .001$) and 69% ($p < .001$) likely to remain in this profile, respectively. This theoretically captured maintaining lower depth and higher breadth of coping over time. In terms of individualistic, from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, it was 66% ($p < .001$) and 71% ($p < .001$) likely that a participant would remain in this profile, respectively. This theoretically captured maintaining higher depth and lower breadth over time. The least stable profile was constrained copers. From T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, it was 36% ($p = .005$) and 71% ($p < .001$) likely that a participant would remain in the constrained profile, respectively (notably, the probability of this pattern exceeded the constrained profile's other transition pattern probabilities, which captured moving out of this profile). This theoretically captured maintaining lower depth and lower breadth over time. Overall, these results suggest that the most common transition pattern was remaining in the same profile and that the higher breadth profiles, comprehensive and surviving, had the highest likelihoods of remaining in the same profile.

Figure 1

Study 1 Work–Nonwork Profiles for Time 1 (Top Panel), Time 2 (Middle Panel), and Time 3 (Bottom Panel)



Note. Constrained copers profile (N = 18–33); Individualistic copers profile (N = 185–194); Surviving copers profile (N = 36–97); Comprehensive copers profile (N = 345–394).

Table 5
Work–Nonwork Coping Profile Transition Probabilities (Study 1 and Study 2)

Study 1 transition pattern Time 1 profile	Time 2 profile			
	1. Constrained copers	2. Individualistic copers	3. Surviving copers	4. Comprehensive copers
1. Constrained copers	.356**	.345**	.197†	.102
2. Individualistic copers	.048*	.662**	.091	.198**
3. Surviving copers	.021	.120**	.843**	.016
4. Comprehensive copers	.003	.106**	.000	.891**
	Time 3 profile			
Time 2 profile	1. Constrained copers	2. Individualistic copers	3. Surviving copers	4. Comprehensive copers
1. Constrained copers	.705**	.252†	.043	.000
2. Individualistic copers	.052*	.708**	.105*	.136**
3. Surviving copers	.058*	.136*	.688**	.118*
4. Comprehensive copers	.005	.122**	.004	.868**
Study 2 transition patterns Time 1 profile	Time 2 profile			
	1. Constrained copers	2. Individualistic coper	3. Surviving copers	4. Comprehensive copers
1. Constrained copers	.375**	.259*	.366*	.000
2. Individualistic copers	.082†	.568**	.143*	.207**
3. Surviving copers	.120*	.078	.802**	.000
4. Comprehensive copers	.000	.117**	.000	.883**

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

We next review results of profile transition patterns capturing changing profiles over time (i.e., increasing or decreasing depth and/or breadth). Of profile transitions capturing *increased coping depth*, first, from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, it was 35% ($p = .003$) and 25% ($p = .069$) likely that a participant would transition from constrained to individualistic profile (i.e., increase depth only). Second, from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, it was 12% ($p = .007$) and 14% ($p = .013$) likely that a participant would transition from surviving to individualistic profile (i.e., increase depth and decrease breadth of coping). Third, nonsignificant transition patterns that reflected increased depth included constrained to comprehensive (T1 to T2 and T2 to T3 were each *ns*) and surviving to comprehensive (T1 to T2 was *ns*; from T2 to T3 this was 12% likely, $p = .012$).

In terms of profile transition patterns capturing *decreased coping depth*, first, from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, it was 5% ($p = .016$) and 5% ($p = .020$) likely that a participant would transition from individualistic to constrained, and from T2 to T3 it was 11% likely ($p = .030$) that a participant would change from individualistic to surviving (for the latter, T1 to T2 was *ns*). Next, the other transition patterns indicating decreased depth, comprehensive to constrained and comprehensive to surviving, were not significant (T1 to T2 and T2 to T3).

With regard to profile transition patterns capturing *increased coping breadth*, first, from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, it was 20% ($p = .001$) and 14% ($p = .002$) likely that a participant would change from individualistic to comprehensive (i.e., increase breadth and maintain higher depth). As reported above, the likelihood of changing from individualistic to surviving was not significant from T1 to T2 and 11% likely from T2 to T3. Last, the constrained to surviving transition pattern was 20% likely ($p = .066$) from T1 to T2 and not significant from T2 to T3.

Turning to profile transition patterns capturing *decreased coping breadth*, first, it was 11% ($p < .001$) and 12% ($p < .001$) likely that a participant would move from comprehensive to individualistic from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3, respectively (i.e., maintain depth and decrease breadth). As reported above, the transition probabilities for comprehensive to surviving, comprehensive to constrained, and surviving to individualistic were not significant.

Study 1: Discussion and Transition to Study 2

In Study 1, we explored work–nonwork coping profiles and their transition patterns. Four work–nonwork coping profiles emerged that varied in depth and breadth: comprehensive (higher depth and higher breadth), individualistic (higher depth and lower breadth), surviving (lower depth and higher breadth), and constrained copers (lower depth and lower breadth). Study 1 results showed that these four profiles replicated across each of the three time points. The most likely transition pattern was remaining in the same profile (i.e., maintaining coping depth and breadth). If participants changed profiles over time, they were unlikely to (a) increase both their depth and breadth or (b) decrease both their depth and breadth (i.e., transitions between constrained and comprehensive profiles were not significant). Nevertheless, Study 1 is limited because it does not consider whether profile transition patterns are ultimately efficacious for employees in terms of functioning and well-being. With this in mind, we sought to replicate and extend Study 1 findings by examining employee outcomes of profile transitions in Study 2.

Study 2: Replication and Extension of Work–Nonwork Coping Profiles Transitions

Work–Nonwork Coping Profiles and Transitions

Coping theory advocates for attending to three important features of the coping process: (a) whether and to what extent a given coping strategy is used (which we refer to as depth; see also

Doron et al., 2013, 2015; Eisenbarth, 2012), (b) "*range* of coping strategies used by the person at any given time and across times in dealing with a stressful situation" (which we refer to as breadth), and (c) "whether the individual uses the same strategy or set of strategies … or instead varies them" (which we refer to as profile transition patterns, which capture whether people use the same set of strategies over time or change them; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 174, emphasis added). Results of Study 1 theoretically and empirically integrated these three features. First, results of RQ1 revealed coping profiles varying in both depth and breadth. The higher depth profiles included comprehensive and individualistic, and the lower depth profiles included surviving and constrained; the higher breadth profiles included comprehensive and surviving, and the lower breadth profiles included individualistic and constrained.

Going further, results of RQ2 in Study 1 integrated all three of these coping features by showing how some participants remained in the same profile (i.e., maintained coping depth and breadth) or changed profiles over time (i.e., increased or decreased coping depth or breadth). Overall, from T1 to T2 and T2 to T3 in Study 1, the transition pattern with the highest likelihood was to remain in the same profile. This is consistent with profile transition patterns for other relevant behaviors and experiences (e.g., profiles of work–nonwork conflict and enrichment, emotions, alcohol use, and union participation, Liu et al., 2023; McKay et al., 2020; Slaughter et al., 2021; Vaziri et al., 2020). Interestingly, Study 1 indicated that the stability of profiles over time (i.e., likelihood of remaining in the same profile) varied, such that participants in the two higher breadth profiles (comprehensive and surviving) had the highest probabilities of remaining in the same profile. This is also consistent with research showing that some coping profiles are more stable than others (e.g., Amai & Hojo, 2022; Martinent & Nicolas, 2016).

The likelihoods of increasing depth and breadth simultaneously (i.e., constrained to comprehensive) or decreasing both simultaneously (i.e., comprehensive to constrained) were not significant, suggesting that participants did not make extreme changes to their coping. This is consistent with transition patterns of emotions profiles (e.g., probabilities of moving from "glass full" profile, characterized by high positive emotion and low negative emotion, to "glass empty" profile, characterized by low positive emotion and high negative emotion and vice versa, were not significant, Slaughter et al., 2021; see also Vaziri et al., 2020). With these findings and coping theory in mind, we expect the profiles and transition patterns from Study 1 to replicate; we accordingly propose:

Hypothesis 1: Four distinct work–nonwork coping profiles will emerge (comprehensive copers, individualistic copers, surviving copers, and constrained copers).

Hypothesis 2a: The most likely transition pattern for each work–nonwork coping profile is to remain in the same profile over time.

Hypothesis 2b: Employees who are in a higher breadth coping profile (comprehensive and surviving) are more likely to remain in the same profile over time, compared to employees in a lower breadth coping profile (individualistic and constrained).

Hypothesis 2c: Employees who move to a different coping profile over time are unlikely to increase coping depth and breadth simultaneously (i.e., move from constrained to comprehensive) and are unlikely to decrease coping depth and breadth simultaneously (i.e., move from comprehensive to constrained).

Outcomes of Work–Nonwork Coping Profile Transition Patterns

Coping theory distinguishes coping efforts (i.e., strategies) from their outcomes (i.e., their efficacy or impact on functioning; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Assessing coping efficacy is complex because "no one strategy is considered inherently better than any other" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 134). To account for this complexity, we integrate the three features of the coping process outlined above (i.e., coping depth, breadth, and transition patterns) to develop hypotheses regarding the efficacy of work–nonwork coping profile transition patterns. That is, we build on Hypotheses 1 and 2 to examine whether it is most efficacious to increase, decrease, or maintain one's coping depth and/or breadth over time in dealing with work–nonwork stressors. Coping efficacy involves successfully managing emotions and the problem or stressor itself in the context of the stressor at hand (i.e., behaviors and engaging with one's environment; Hall, 1972; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). With this in mind and given our focus on work–nonwork stressors, the efficacy of a given coping profile transition pattern would be reflected in effective regulation of emotions and behaviors across work and nonwork roles.

Underlying the ability to effectively cope is the availability of resources that can be mobilized to address the stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping with work–nonwork stressors likely necessitates investment of one's resources across work and nonwork roles (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). This suggests that coping may tax or consume one's resources and that such investment may or may not pay off (i.e., varies in efficacy). To reiterate, the experience of one's resources being taxed is stressful (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Moreover, "if coping is ineffective, stress is apt to be substantial" (Lazarus, 2006, p. 20; see also Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In other words, experiencing stress after coping suggests poor coping efficacy, whereby one's resources were excessively taxed or investment of resources did not pay off. This suggests that the amount of stress following coping serves as an overall barometer of coping efficacy.

According to coping theory, different coping strategies "can both facilitate and impede each other in the coping process" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 153), which suggests that coping profile transition patterns may differ in their efficacy. In terms of how coping strategies may impede each other, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) highlighted how breadth of coping may be ineffective (i.e., associated with increased depression, Coyne et al., 1981). This is consistent with our pilot study, which showed that transition patterns that reflect maintaining higher coping breadth (i.e., remaining comprehensive; comprehensive to surviving) or increasing breadth (i.e., individualistic to surviving; emotion-focused to comprehensive) were associated with increased stress. Taking the theoretical tenets above together with this finding, such transition patterns may mean that employees are spreading themselves too thin, excessively taxing their resources (i.e., their investment across so many different types of resources is less likely to pay off). Our pilot study also showed that transition patterns reflecting decreasing depth (i.e., comprehensive or individualistic to surviving) were associated with increased stress. With such transition patterns, it appears not enough resources were invested for the coping to be effective (or investment in them was decreased or stopped short). In both cases, employees

may find it difficult to adequately regulate their emotions and behaviors across work and nonwork roles due to overstretched resources or insufficient investment of resources, respectively. Therefore, we theorize that higher breadth transitions (i.e., maintaining higher breadth or increasing breadth of coping with work–nonwork stressors) and lower depth transitions (i.e., maintaining lower depth or decreasing depth) will be associated with harmful changes.

In regard to how coping strategies facilitate one another (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), the aforementioned pilot study findings imply that higher depth transition patterns (i.e., maintaining higher depth or increasing depth over time) may allow employees to generate sufficient resources for the coping to be effective (i.e., their high investment of resources, reflected by their deep engagement in coping strategies, pays off). They also suggest that lower breadth transition patterns (i.e., maintaining lower breadth or decreasing breadth) allow employees to focus their resources and conserve them in the process. Accordingly, we theorize that higher depth transitions and lower breadth transitions will be associated with beneficial changes. Three categories of outcomes from coping theory that are relevant to our investigation include "functioning in work and social living" and "quality of life" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 181). We conceptualize coping efficacy as changes in outcomes within these three categories as they relate to regulation of emotions and behavior across work and nonwork roles.

First, we conceptualize functioning in work (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) as a behavior in terms of increased task adaptivity, the extent to which employees respond to and handle unexpected changes in their individual work roles (Griffin et al., 2007; Pulakos et al., 2000), and as a psychological state in terms of increased thriving, which refers to vitality (energy and aliveness) and learning (acquisition and application of new knowledge and skills) at work (Spreitzer et al., 2005). We examine task adaptivity because the "prime importance of … coping processes is that they affect *adaptational* outcomes" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 181, emphasis added) and because it is a behavioral manifestation of coping well with stress in one's work role (Jundt et al., 2015; Pulakos et al., 2000), thereby signifying coping efficacy from a problem-focused standpoint. We focus on thriving because increased thriving following coping signifies poststressor growth at work (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Maitlis, 2020; Vogel & Bolino, 2020) and indicates coping efficacy from both an emotion-focused standpoint (an increase in vitality represents improved emotions toward the work environment) and a problem-focused standpoint (an increase in learning represents improvements in how people engage with their work environment; i.e., coping efficacy captures both addressing the problem or stressor and the associated emotions, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In light of this theorizing and the pilot study results, we expect that employees who reduce coping depth by changing from a higher depth to a lower depth profile (e.g., comprehensive or individualistic to surviving or constrained) will experience reduced thriving and task adaptivity because they are no longer coping as deeply (i.e., they reduce their resource investment). Moreover, employees who maintain high breadth or increase breadth are expected to experience less thriving and task adaptivity because they expend many resources (Lapierre & Allen, 2006), coping in such a broad variety of ways.

Second, we conceptualize "functioning … in social living" (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 181) as decreased enacted social conflict (i.e., unkind and argumentative behaviors toward others; e.g., Lanaj et al., 2021; Schulz et al., 2004; Spector & Jex, 1998). We examine enacted social conflict at work and at home because ineffective coping can result in "hostile, aggressive behavior" toward others at work and family members (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 191), which captures a dysfunctional social response during the stress process (Lanaj et al., 2018). Enacting social conflict indicates ineffective coping from both an emotion-focused standpoint (i.e., it captures emotional dysregulation as one's negative emotions are directed toward others) and a problem-focused standpoint (i.e., it captures behavioral dysregulation or lack of self-control by engaging negatively with others; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For example, we expect that employees who maintain higher coping depth (e.g., remain comprehensive or individualistic or transition between these) or increase depth (e.g., transition from surviving to comprehensive) will enact less social conflict toward others at work and at home because their coping efforts are deep enough to improve both emotional and behavioral regulation in the ways they engage with others (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In contrast, we expect that employees who maintain lower depth (e.g., remain surviving or constrained or shift between these) will enact increased social conflict because their coping remained superficial and was never deep enough to regulate emotions or behaviors toward others. Meanwhile, because coping breadth consumes resources (Lapierre & Allen, 2006), we expect maintaining higher breadth or increasing breadth will make it more difficult to regulate emotions and behaviors, leading to increased enactment of social conflict.

Third, we conceptualize quality of life (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) in terms of decreases in stress, increases in life satisfaction (the subjective appraisal of one's life; Diener et al., 1985, 1999), and increases in recovery (the unwinding and restoration outside of work that facilitates a decrease in strain reactions from effort and resource expenditure at work; Sonnentag et al., 2017; Sonnentag, 2003). We focus on this set of well-being outcomes because they capture regulation of emotion indicative of coping efficacy (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Specifically, an increase in life satisfaction following coping profile transitions indicates an uplift in well-being (e.g., Diener et al., 1999; Luhmann et al., 2012). We examine recovery because of its relevance to stress in general (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) and work–nonwork stressors in particular (e.g., Sonnentag et al., 2016, 2022; Wilson et al., 2021) and because it captures the return to well-being (Sonnentag et al., 2017). With our theorizing and the pilot study's exploratory outcomes results in mind, we expect that maintaining or increasing depth (e.g., remaining individualistic, comprehensive, or moving between these) or decreasing breadth will generate increased recovery and life satisfaction and decreased stress, whereas maintaining lower depth (e.g., remaining in or moving between constrained and surviving) or decreasing depth (e.g., moving from comprehensive or individualistic to surviving) and increasing breadth (e.g., moving from individualistic to comprehensive) will be associated with decreased recovery and life satisfaction and increased stress. Altogether, we propose:

> *Hypothesis 3a:* Employees who remain in or move to a higher depth work–nonwork coping profile (i.e., maintain higher depth or increase depth) will experience beneficial changes: higher (a) task adaptivity, (b) thriving, (c) life satisfaction, and (d) recovery and lower (e) stress, (f) social conflict at work, and (g) social conflict at home. In contrast, employees who remain in or move to a lower depth work–nonwork coping profile

(i.e., maintain lower depth or decrease depth) will experience harmful changes in these outcomes.

Hypothesis 3b: Employees who remain in or move to a higher breadth work–nonwork coping profile (i.e., maintain higher breadth or increase breadth) will experience harmful changes: lower (a) task adaptivity, (b) thriving, (c) life satisfaction, and (d) recovery and higher (e) stress, (f) social conflict at work, and (g) social conflict at home. In contrast, employees who remain in or move to a lower breadth work–nonwork coping profile (i.e., maintain lower breadth or decrease breadth) will experience beneficial changes in these outcomes.

Study 2: Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited through Prolific. To be eligible, participants were required to work full time (i.e., at least 30 hr/week), be at least 18 years old, reside in the United States, and not have participated in Study 1. Similar to Study 1, participants completed the T1 survey then 1 week later completed the T2 survey. They were paid $2 for each survey. A total of 411 participants completed the T1 survey, and 361 completed the T2 survey. Job titles included sales associate, nurse, attorney, teacher, and therapist. Our final sample was 361 participants (88% response rate). Of those, 89% were White, 6% were Asian, 5% were Black, 4% were Latino/a, and 1% were Native American. The majority of participants were female (54%). Participants were an average age of 37.70 years old ($SD = 10.89$). Of participants, 66% indicated they had a partner living with them, and 45% had at least one child under the age of 18 living with them.

Measures

All measures used response anchors from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and were captured at both T1 and T2. In the instructions before each measure, participants were asked to think about their experiences over the last week.

Work–Nonwork Coping Strategies. Similar to Study 1, at each time point, participants were asked to consider some of their work–nonwork stressors that have affected their work and nonwork lives in the last week and respond to the coping strategies scales in reference to those stressors. We used the same measure of adaptive coping strategies (Carver et al., 1989) from Study 1 to assess planning (T1 $\alpha = .86$; T2 $\alpha = .90$), prioritizing (T1 $\alpha = .72$; T2 $\alpha = .78$), seeking instrumental support (T1 $\alpha = .90$; T2 $\alpha = .92$), seeking emotional support (T1 $\alpha = .94$; T2 $\alpha = .94$), and positive reframing (T1 $\alpha = .86$; T2 $\alpha = .86$).

Task Adaptivity. We used the three-item scale from Griffin et al. (2007) to assess task adaptivity (T1 $\alpha = .81$; T2 $\alpha = .83$). An example item is "I adapt well to changes in core tasks."

Thriving at Work. We measured thriving using the 10-item scale from Porath et al. (2012) using the stem "When I am working …" (T1 $\alpha = .92$; T2 $\alpha = .94$). Example items include "I feel alive and vital" and "I see myself continually improving."

Enacted Social Conflict at Work and at Home. We adapted three items from Schulz et al. (2004) used by Lanaj et al. (2021) to measure enacted social conflict at work (T1 $\alpha = .78$; T2 $\alpha = .83$) and at home (T1 $\alpha = .88$; T2 $\alpha = .88$). We adapted the scale to refer to "people at work" and "people in my nonwork life," respectively. An example item is "I am argumentative toward people at work [in my nonwork life]."

Stress. To measure stress, we adapted Motowidlo et al.'s (1986) four-item scale to refer to stress in general (T1 $\alpha = .87$; T2 $\alpha = .86$). An example item is "I feel a great deal of stress."

Life Satisfaction. We used Diener et al.'s (1985) five-item scale to measure life satisfaction (T1 $\alpha = .92$; T2 $\alpha = .92$). An example item is "I am satisfied with my life."

Recovery. We measured recovery with Sonnentag's (2003) three-item scale (T1 $\alpha = .97$; T2 $\alpha = .97$). An example item is "Because of the leisure activities I pursue, I feel recovered."

Analytic Approach

As in Study 1, prior to examining our hypotheses, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis. This model demonstrated good fit to the data: $\chi^2(4661) = 7612.68$, $p < .001$, CFI = .91, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .04, and SRMR = .06. Loading the coping strategies onto a single factor added significant misfit to the data, $\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df = 172) = 4882.46$, $p < .001$.

We tested Hypotheses 1 − 3 using a three-step procedure using Mplus Version 8.10. In the first step, which allowed us to test Hypothesis 1 (profiles), we followed the same procedures for testing RQ1 in Study 1. Specifically, we conducted LPA to identify the optimal number of profiles at T1 and T2, applying the same empirical and theoretical criteria from Study 1 RQ1 during the profile enumeration process. In the second step, which allowed us to test Hypothesis 2 (profile transition patterns), we followed the same procedures for testing RQ2 in Study 1. Specifically, we used LTA to examine transition probabilities for each transition pattern (i.e., the odds of remaining in or changing to a given profile over time). Last, in the third step, which allowed us to test Hypothesis 3 (outcomes of profile transition patterns), we followed prior research using LTA procedures to examine outcomes of profile transitions (Slaughter et al., 2021; Vaziri et al., 2020). Specifically, the most likely class membership estimates (i.e., the highest probability) from the second step were used to conduct paired *t* tests in the third step to investigate the outcomes of profile transitions. Such paired *t* tests reveal whether the outcome variables significantly differed from T1 to T2 for each transition pattern, therefore capturing beneficial changes or harmful changes over time (Slaughter et al., 2021; Vaziri et al., 2020). Full-information maximum-likelihood estimation was used to handle missing data in our final sample.

Study 2: Results

Table 6 shows means, standard deviations, and correlations among Study 2 variables.

Hypothesis 1: Work–Nonwork Coping Profiles

Hypothesis 1 predicted that four distinct work–nonwork coping profiles would emerge, namely, comprehensive, individualistic, surviving, and constrained copers. The fit statistics for the profile solutions at each time point are presented in Table 3 (elbow plots of BIC and CAIC values are shown in Appendix D available at https://osf.io/5yn2x?view_only=59e8145e71d24faea22fc1f21f1ecec5). At T1, the LMR statistic and entropy statistics were discrepant, with LMR supporting the four-profile solution and with entropy

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Study 2 Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Planning T1	4.08	0.68	(.86)															
2. Planning T2	4.02	0.78	.46**	(.90)														
3. Prioritizing T1	3.56	0.72	.32**	.23**	(.72)													
4. Prioritizing T2	3.50	0.79	.20**	.46**	.28**	(.78)												
5. Seeking instrumental support T1	2.97	1.14	.26**	.21**	.16**	.19**	(.90)											
6. Seeking instrumental support T2	2.91	1.17	.22**	.32**	.17**	.26**	.54**	(.92)										
7. Seeking emotional support T1	3.37	1.16	.26**	.19**	.16**	.13*	.59**	.45**	(.94)									
8. Seeking emotional support T2	3.36	1.17	.07	.17**	.18**	.11*	.35**	.58**	.55**	(.94)								
9. Positive reframing T1	3.60	0.89	.37**	.34**	.26**	.23**	.23**	.23**	.17**	.20**	(.86)							
10. Positive reframing T2	3.54	0.91	.27**	.41**	.17**	.33**	.19**	.34**	.15**	.22**	.61**	(.86)						
11. Task adaptivity T1	3.84	0.71	.34**	.25*	.18**	.18**	.07	.14*	.13*	.10	.36**	.33**	(.81)					
12. Task adaptivity T2	3.82	0.72	.24**	.32**	.17**	.25**	.13*	.18**	.18**	.17**	.31**	.40**	.54**	(.83)				
13. Thriving T1	3.49	0.82	.32**	.24**	.22**	.16**	.10	.18**	.22**	.17**	.34**	.32**	.54**	.43**	(.92)			
14. Thriving T2	3.47	0.86	.26**	.32**	.17**	.17**	.09	.22**	.16**	.15**	.31**	.38**	.46**	.58**	.74**	(.94)		
15. Stress T1	3.48	0.91	.04	−.05	.05	−.03	.07	.05	.05	.08	−.12*	−.12*	−.20*	−.13*	−.28**	−.27**	(.87)	
16. Stress T2	3.47	0.91	.06	.01	.07	.08	.13*	.11*	.08	.11*	−.11*	−.14*	−.10	−.12*	−.20**	−.25**	.71**	(.86)
17. Life satisfaction T1	3.27	0.99	.19**	.13*	.03	.10	.07	.15**	.17**	.16**	.31**	.26**	.29**	.28**	.47**	.45**	−.51**	−.45**
18. Life satisfaction T2	3.27	1.01	.17**	.15**	.03	.10	.05	.13*	.16**	.14**	.30**	.27**	.28**	.29**	.37**	.46**	−.46**	−.51**
19. Social conflict at work T1	1.84	0.74	−.10	−.07	−.09	.09	.13*	.08	−.05	−.03	−.02	.00	−.16**	−.12*	−.19**	−.16**	.14**	.19**
20. Social conflict at work T2	1.88	0.82	−.11*	−.11*	−.02	.07	.17**	.19**	.01	.06	−.05	−.06	−.18**	−.25**	−.14*	−.22**	.10	.20**
21. Social conflict at home T1	2.12	1.01	−.11*	−.05	−.05	.06	.09	.07	.00	.00	.02	−.04	−.12*	−.17**	−.14**	−.20**	.25**	.28**
22. Social conflict at home T2	1.92	0.88	−.15**	−.11*	−.00	.04	.08	.13*	.03	.10	−.01	−.08	−.14**	−.20**	−.14**	−.22**	.23**	.30**
23. Recovery T1	3.43	1.01	.07	.02	−.07	−.04	−.01	.02	.14**	.06	.08	.07	.18**	.16**	.33**	.27**	−.44**	−.33**
24. Recovery T2	3.37	1.01	.12*	.16**	.05	.03	−.03	.06	.12*	.10	.17**	.26**	.19**	.24**	.29**	.37**	−.42**	−.49**
25. Constrained copers T1[a]	0.05	0.22	−.53**	−.20**	−.24**	−.11*	−.29**	−.25**	−.40**	−.20**	−.34**	−.23**	−.22**	−.12*	−.23**	−.18**	−.01	−.04
26. Individualistic copers T1[a]	0.21	0.40	.13*	−.03	.04	−.05	−.38**	−.30**	−.73**	−.39**	.04	−.00	.03	−.08	−.09	−.03	.01	−.02
27. Surviving copers T1[a]	0.35	0.48	−.30**	−.24**	−.29**	−.17**	−.17**	−.07	.18**	.03	−.26**	−.20**	−.16**	−.21**	−.09	−.12**	−.01	−.01
28. Comprehensive copers T1[a]	0.39	0.49	.44**	.35**	.37**	.26**	.62**	.43**	.61**	.38**	.38**	.30**	.24**	.33**	.27**	.23**	.01	.04
29. Constrained copers T2[a]	0.06	0.24	−.20**	−.59**	−.11*	−.37**	−.17**	−.33**	−.19**	−.28**	−.26**	−.35**	−.15**	−.16**	−.17**	−.19**	.00	−.10
30. Individualistic copers T2[a]	0.16	0.37	.08	.14*	−.02	.04	−.22**	−.52**	−.33**	−.69**	−.03	.02	.03	−.01	−.04	−.01	−.07	−.06
31. Surviving copers T2[a]	0.29	0.45	−.24**	−.16**	−.13*	−.16**	−.24**	−.35**	−.05	.11*	−.13*	−.27**	−.13*	−.18**	−.07	−.16**	.02	.03
32. Comprehensive copers T2[a]	0.49	0.50	.26**	.33**	.18**	.29**	.46**	.85**	.38**	.54**	.27**	.39**	.17**	.25**	.17**	.24**	.03	.07

Variable	*M*	*SD*	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
17. Life satisfaction T1	3.27	0.99	(.92)															
18. Life satisfaction T2	3.27	1.01	.87**	(.92)														
19. Social conflict at work T1	1.84	0.74	−.08	−.09	(.78)													
20. Social conflict at work T2	1.88	0.82	−.08	−.08	.68**	(.83)												
21. Social conflict at home T1	2.12	1.01	−.20**	−.23**	.42**	.40**	(.88)											
22. Social conflict at home T2	1.92	0.88	−.20**	−.21**	.42**	.51**	.55**	(.88)										
23. Recovery T1	3.43	1.01	.44**	.39**	−.14**	−.09	−.23**	−.23**	(.97)									
24. Recovery T2	3.37	1.01	.41**	.47**	−.10	−.11*	−.20**	−.27**	.54**	(.97)								
25. Constrained copers T1[a]	0.05	0.22	−.15**	−.15**	.01	−.09	−.06	−.03	−.04	−.09	—							
26. Individualistic copers T1[a]	0.21	0.40	−.09	−.07	.00	−.02	−.04	−.06	−.10	−.04	−.12*	—						
27. Surviving copers T1[a]	0.35	0.48	−.06	−.05	.06	.09	.17**	.14**	.06	.03	−.18**	−.38**	—					

(*table continues*)

Table 6 (*continued*)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
28. Comprehensive copers T1[a]	0.39	0.49	.20*	.18**	−.06	−.03	−.10	−.08	.05	.04	−.19**	−.40**	−.59**	—				
29. Constrained copers T2[a]	0.06	0.24	−.12*	−.12*	.00	−.07	−.05	−.04	.07	−.01	.25**	.07	−.02	−.16**	—			
30. Individualistic copers T2[a]	0.16	0.37	−.06	−.05	−.07	−.17**	−.09	−.18**	−.05	−.03	.07	.32**	−.14*	−.16**	−.11*	—		
31. Surviving copers T2[a]	0.29	0.45	−.08	−.10	.01	.06	.08	.09	−.02	−.09	.04	−.05	.28**	−.25**	−.16**	−.28**	—	
32. Comprehensive copers T2[a]	0.49	0.50	.18**	.18**	.05	.11*	.02	.07	.03	.11*	−.21**	−.23**	−.14**	.24**	−.25**	−.43**	−.62**	—

Note. Correlations reported on matched data across Time 1 (T1) and Time 2 (T2). $N = 361$. Values on the diagonal represent coefficient alpha. The correlations presented for the profile variables assume that participants are 100% within each profile (i.e., the correlations do not take into account posterior probabilities.). Social conflict refers to enacted social conflict. *SD* = standard deviation.
[a] 0 = no, 1 = yes.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

more supportive of the three-profile solution. At T2, LMR and entropy were more supportive of the three-profile solution. However, given existing recommendations regarding discrepant fit statistics when the entropy values indicate high class separation (i.e., nearing .80; Diallo et al., 2016; Shipp et al., 2022), we more heavily weighed the BIC and CAIC statistics, which favored the four-profile solution. We then examined the longitudinal invariance of the four-profile solution across the two time points. Results suggested that the same number and type of profiles existed at T1 and T2, $\chi^2(20) = 21.81$, $p = .351$ (Satorra, 2000). We thus retained the four-profile solution for T1 and T2. The descriptive information for the four-profile solution (Table 4 and Figure 2) indicated that the profiles from Study 1 replicated in Study 2: comprehensive, individualistic, surviving, and constrained copers. As such, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2: Work–Nonwork Coping Profile Transition Patterns

Hypothesis 2 focused on coping profile transition patterns over time, predicting that (a) the most likely transition pattern for each profile is to remain in the same profile over time, (b) employees in the higher breadth profiles had the highest likelihoods of remaining in the same profile, and (c) employees who do change profiles are unlikely to increase their depth and breadth or decrease depth and breadth simultaneously (i.e., assuming the profiles replicate, the transition patterns for constrained to comprehensive and comprehensive to constrained will not be significant). Profile transition pattern probabilities are presented in Table 5 (bottom section). As in Study 1, each cell indicates the probability of a given transition pattern from T1 to T2.

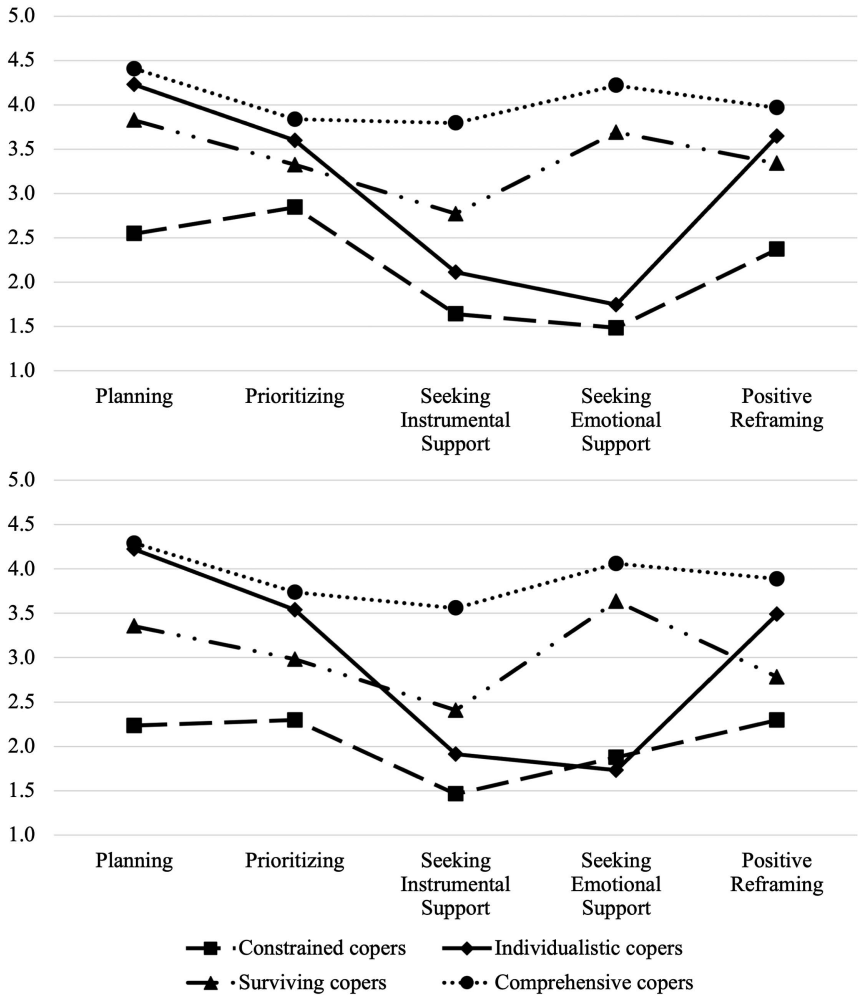
Overall, 55% of participants remained in the same profile over time. The most likely transition pattern for each coping profile at T1 was to remain in the same profile at T2. Specifically, as Table 5 shows, it was 88% ($p < .001$) likely that a participant in the comprehensive profile at T1 remained in this profile at T2, 80% ($p < .001$) likely that a participant in the surviving profile at T1 remained in this profile at T2, 57% ($p < .001$) likely that a participant in the individualistic profile at T1 would remain in this profile at T2, and 38% ($p = .009$) likely that a constrained coper at T1 would remain as such at T2 (for constrained, this probability exceeded the probabilities for transition patterns that captured moving out of the constrained profile: 37% and 26%). This set of results supported Hypothesis 2a. Of the four profiles, the two higher breadth profiles, comprehensive and surviving, had the highest likelihoods of remaining in the same profile (i.e., 88% and 80%, respectively, as noted above). As such, Hypothesis 2b was supported.[4]

As Table 5 shows, the likelihoods of increasing coping depth and breadth simultaneously (i.e., changing from constrained to comprehensive) and decreasing coping depth and breadth simultaneously

[4] As an interesting aside, surviving and comprehensive profiles each only had one significant transition pattern corresponding to changing profiles. Specifically, surviving copers had a 12% likelihood of moving to constrained ($p = .032$), and comprehensive copers had a 12% likelihood of moving to individualistic ($p = .001$); both transition patterns captured decreased breadth.

Figure 2

Study 2 Work–Nonwork Coping Profiles at Time 1 (Top Panel) and Time 2 (Bottom Panel)



Note. Constrained copers profile (N = 19–22); individualistic copers profile (N = 58–74); surviving copers profile (N = 103–128); comprehensive copers profile (N = 140–178).

(i.e., changing from comprehensive to constrained) were not significant. Accordingly, Hypothesis 2c was supported.[5]

Hypothesis 3: Outcomes of Work–Nonwork Coping Profile Transitions

Hypothesis 3a predicted that remaining in or moving to a higher depth work–nonwork coping profile (i.e., maintaining or increasing depth of coping over time) will be associated with beneficial changes, namely increases in task adaptivity, thriving, life satisfaction, and recovery as well as decreases in stress and social conflict at work and home, whereas remaining in or moving to a lower depth coping profile (i.e., maintaining lower depth or decreasing depth of coping over time) would be tied to harmful changes in these outcomes. Table 7 presents mean differences of changes in work outcomes from T1 to T2 using paired sample t tests.[6]

With regard to maintaining higher depth of coping, remaining in the comprehensive profile was associated with an increase in task adaptivity (ΔM = .10, p = .089) and a decrease in social conflict at home (ΔM = −.16, p = .097); remaining individualistic was associated with a decrease in social conflict at home (ΔM = −.40, p = .014); and shifting from comprehensive to individualistic was associated with a decrease in social conflict at work (ΔM = −.19, p = .089). In terms of increasing coping depth, shifting from surviving to comprehensive was associated with a decrease in social conflict at home (ΔM = −.29, p = .038). Next, with regard to decreasing depth of coping, shifting from individualistic to surviving was associated

[5] As an interesting aside, participants in the constrained copers profile were the most likely of the four profiles to change to a different profile over time: it was 37% likely (p = .011) that T1 constrained copers increased their breadth of coping to transition to the surviving copers profile at T2 and 26% (p = .036) likely that T1 constrained copers increased their depth of coping to change to the individualistic copers profile.

[6] For robustness, we ran analyses using a variable-focused approach, the results of which are shown in Appendix B available at https://osf.io/sgwkq?view_only=59e8145e71d24faea22fc1f21f1ecec5.

Table 7
Changes in Outcomes by Transition Pattern (Study 2)

	Work outcome		Well-being outcome			Social functioning outcom	
Transition Pattern	Task adaptivity	Thriving	Stress	Life satisfaction	Recovery	Social conflict at work	Social conflict at home
Constrained (no transition)	.89 (.62)	.40 (.29)	−.79 (.42)	.07 (.11)	−.22 (.40)	−.33 (.23)	.00 (.38)
Constrained → individualistic	−.27 (.31)	.22 (.29)	.20 (.31)	.16 (.31)	.20 (.34)	−.27 (.22)	−.60 (.31)
Constrained → surviving	−.14 (.36)	−.59 (.46)	.29 (.48)	−.23 (.17)	−.62 (.31)†	−.29 (.11)*	.33 (.31)
Constrained → comprehensive	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]
Individualistic (no transition)	−.03 (.10)	.15 (.11)	−.05 (.09)	.14 (.10)	.06 (.15)	−.16 (.11)	−.40 (.15)*
Individualistic → constrained	−.24 (.21)	−.27 (.22)	.00 (.19)	−.14 (.15)	−.33 (.52)	−.10 (.28)	−.24 (.14)
Individualistic → surviving	−.33 (.13)*	.07 (.15)	−.11 (.13)	−.07 (.09)	.06 (.28)	.17 (.11)	−.31 (.20)
Individualistic → comprehensive	−.18 (.14)	.08 (.13)	−.06 (.16)	.04 (.12)	.25 (.18)	.12 (.17)	.17 (.19)
Surviving (no transition)	−.06 (.10)	−.10 (.07)	.00 (.09)	.07 (.05)	−.05 (.14)	.21 (.09)*	−.23 (.11)*
Surviving → constrained	−.57 (.32)	−.30 (.28)	−.39 (.26)	.06 (.20)	−.48 (.41)	−.19 (.16)	−.10 (.33)
Surviving → individualistic	.08 (.07)	−.04 (.18)	.04 (.23)	−.17 (.18)	−.25 (.19)	−.08 (.14)	−.36 (.33)
Surviving → comprehensive	−.03 (.07)	.03 (.07)	.01 (.09)	−.02 (.07)	−.05 (.13)	−.01 (.08)	−.29 (.14)*
Comprehensive (no transition)	.10 (.06)†	.03 (.05)	.05 (.07)	.01 (.04)	.02 (.09)	.14 (.07)†	−.16 (.09)†
Comprehensive → constrained	−.50 (.17)	−.60 (.20)	−.25 (.25)	[a]	−.67 (.33)	[a]	−.33 (.67)
Comprehensive → individualistic	−.28 (.22)	−.22 (.19)	−.02 (.23)	−.12 (.23)	−.03 (.17)	−.19 (.10)†	−.17 (.13)
Comprehensive → surviving	.13 (.15)	−.28 (.15)†	.00 (.15)	−.18 (.20)	−.52 (.26)†	−.12 (.15)	−.18 (.22)

Note. $N = 361$.
[a] t tests could not be calculated for these outcomes due to the lack of variance between Time 1 and Time 2 (i.e., there was no mean difference in these outcomes over time).
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$.

with a decrease in task adaptivity over time ($\Delta M = -.33$, $p = .020$); and shifting from comprehensive to surviving was associated with a decrease in recovery ($\Delta M = -.52$, $p = .058$) and a decrease in thriving ($\Delta M = -.28$, $p = .086$). In terms of maintaining lower depth of coping, remaining in the surviving profile involved an increase in social conflict at work ($\Delta M = .21$, $p = .025$), and moving from constrained to surviving copers was associated with a decrease in recovery ($\Delta M = -.62$, $p = .095$). Altogether, these sets of results were consistent with Hypothesis 3a.

We also note a set of results that were in contrast to what Hypothesis 3a predicted: In terms of maintaining higher depth, remaining comprehensive was associated with an increase in social conflict at work ($\Delta M = .14$, $p = .050$). In terms of maintaining lower depth, shifting from constrained to surviving was associated with a decrease in social conflict at work ($\Delta M = -.29$, $p = .045$), and remaining surviving involved a decrease in social conflict at home ($\Delta M = -.23$, $p = .042$). Overall, the results corresponding to Hypothesis 3a were mixed, but the number of outcomes results that were in the direction we predicted (10) exceeded the number of outcomes results that were in the opposite direction of what we predicted (three).

Hypothesis 3b[7] predicted that employees who remain in or transition to a higher breadth work–nonwork coping profile (i.e., maintain or increase breadth) will experience harmful changes in terms of lower task adaptivity, thriving, life satisfaction, and recovery and higher stress and social conflict at work and at home, whereas remaining in or changing to a lower breadth coping profile (i.e., maintaining lower breadth or decreasing breadth of coping over time) would be tied to beneficial changes in these outcomes. With regard to maintaining higher coping breadth, remaining comprehensive or surviving was associated with an increase in social conflict at work ($\Delta M = .14$, $p = .050$ and $\Delta M = .21$, $p = .025$, respectively). Shifting from comprehensive to surviving was associated with a decrease in recovery ($\Delta M = -.52$, $p = .058$) and decrease in thriving ($\Delta M = -.28$, $p = .086$). In terms of increasing coping breadth, moving from individualistic to surviving was associated with a decrease in task adaptivity ($\Delta M = -.33$, $p = .020$), and moving from constrained to surviving was associated with a decrease in recovery ($\Delta M = -.62$, $p = .095$). Regarding maintaining lower breadth, remaining individualistic was associated with a decrease in social conflict at home ($\Delta M = -.40$, $p = .014$). In terms of decreasing breadth, moving from comprehensive to individualistic was associated with a decrease in social conflict at work ($\Delta M = -.19$, $p = .089$). Overall, this set of results offered support for H3b.

We also note a set of results in contrast to what Hypothesis 3b predicted. First, maintaining higher breadth was associated with some beneficial changes. Remaining comprehensive was associated with increased task adaptivity ($\Delta M = .10$, $p = .089$) and decreased social conflict at home ($\Delta M = -.16$, $p = .097$). Remaining surviving and shifting from surviving to comprehensive were associated with decreased social conflict at home ($\Delta M = -.23$, $p = .042$ and $\Delta M = -.29$, $p = .038$, respectively). Second, increasing breadth was beneficial: Moving from constrained to surviving copers was associated with decreased recovery ($\Delta M = -.62$, $p = .095$).

Study 2: Discussion

In Study 2, we sought to replicate the profiles and transitions from Study 1, as well as extend Study 1 by examining outcomes of these transitions. Notably, Study 2 replicated all four profiles from Study 1: comprehensive, individualistic, surviving, and constrained copers. Figure 3 summarizes the profiles we found across the pilot

[7] Given that several of the transition patterns overlap in Hypotheses 3a and 3b, some of the reported results are repeated, but the focus of interpretation changes (i.e., focus on depth over time in Hypothesis 3a, focus on breadth over time in Hypothesis 3b).

study and our two main studies by depicting each profile in terms of relative coping depth and breadth. Study 2 also replicated the profile transition patterns from Study 1. Namely, the most likely transition pattern was to remain in the same profile, the higher breadth profiles (surviving and comprehensive) had the highest likelihoods of remaining in the same profile, and participants were unlikely to increase depth and breadth of coping simultaneously and unlikely to decrease depth and breadth simultaneously (i.e., the transition patterns constrained to comprehensive and vice versa were not significant).

Study 2 extended Study 1 by showing how maintaining, increasing, or decreasing depth and/or breadth over time (in terms of profile transition patterns) is associated with beneficial and/or harmful changes for employees. Figure 4 summarizes what each transition pattern means theoretically and what we hypothesized and found in Study 2. In terms of coping depth over time, we predicted maintaining higher depth or increasing depth would be associated with beneficial changes (Category 1 of Figure 4), and maintaining lower depth or decreasing depth would be associated with harmful changes (Category 2). In terms of coping breadth over time, we predicted maintaining higher breadth or increasing breadth would be associated with harmful changes (Category 3 of Figure 4), and maintaining lower breadth or decreasing breadth would be associated with beneficial changes (Category 4). Altogether, the results of Study 2 showed the most consistent support for predictions relating to beneficial changes associated with coping depth over time (Hypothesis 3a). There was some support for our predictions relating to coping breadth (Hypothesis 3b), but the results were more mixed; for example, there were nearly as many beneficial changes as harmful changes from maintaining higher breadth and increasing breadth.[8] Notably, maintaining higher breadth and depth of coping (i.e., remaining comprehensive) was sustainable for employees (i.e., employees were likely to remain in this profile) yet was less efficacious than what prior research would suggest (i.e., this transition pattern was associated with both beneficial and harmful changes).

General Discussion

We adopted a person-centered approach to examine profiles of coping with work–nonwork stressors, the profile transition patterns over time, and whether profile transition patterns are associated with beneficial or harmful changes in employee outcomes. To do so, we developed a framework of coping breadth and depth, revealing findings that would not be evident from prior coping research. In particular, variable-focused approaches cannot account for people combining work–nonwork coping strategies, and prior coping profiles research has not been able to untangle the role of coping depth and breadth because it has not revealed any lower breadth–higher depth coping profiles (e.g., in which participants focus their coping efforts on a specific set of adaptive strategies). The profiles revealed across our studies capture both breadth and depth of coping, allowing us to draw conclusions about whether maintaining, increasing, or decreasing coping depth and/or breadth is most efficacious for employees in addressing work–nonwork stressors. Our work offers novel theoretical and practical implications outlined below.

Theoretical Implications

Our primary contribution is theoretically and empirically integrating three important features of the coping process outlined by Lazarus and Folkman (1984): what we refer to as coping depth, breadth, and transition patterns. Importantly, across two main studies, we replicated four work–nonwork profiles over time, which showed that employees combine coping strategies and vary on coping depth and breadth. Specifically, the profiles involved higher breadth and higher depth (comprehensive copers), higher breadth and lower depth (surviving copers), lower breadth and higher depth (individualistic copers), and lower breadth and lower depth (constrained copers). Such profiles could not be gleaned from the variable-centered approaches that dominate work–nonwork and coping literatures nor from existing coping profiles research. Therefore, we integrated Carver et al.'s (1989) framework of coping strategies with the existing literature on work–nonwork coping. In doing so, we distilled the most prevalent ways employees cope with work–nonwork stressors and combinations of strategies they mobilize to address such stressors. Our transition analyses showed that the most likely transition pattern was remaining in the same profile over time. Moreover, transition patterns for extreme changes in coping (i.e., increasing both depth and breadth or decreasing both) were unlikely. Whereas coping theory outlined coping depth, breadth, and change over time as separate aspects of coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), we show that they are interlinked. In doing so, we extend our understanding of how the coping process works, thereby contributing to coping theory.

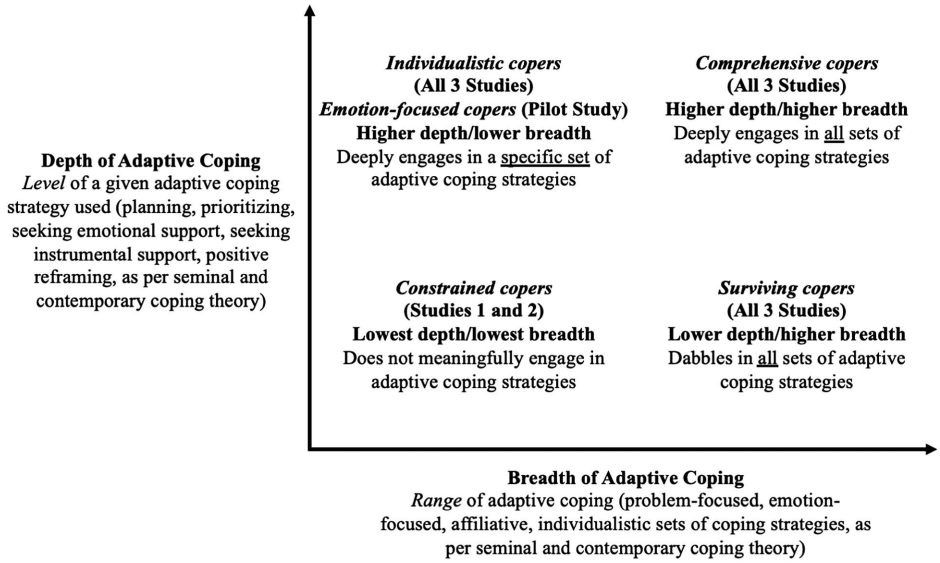
Second, our findings regarding the outcomes of coping profile transition patterns contribute to our understanding of coping efficacy. In particular, "the issue of determining coping effectiveness remains one of the most perplexing in coping research" (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004, p. 753). We drew from coping theory to categorize the coping profile transitions according to what they represented theoretically: (a) maintaining higher depth and increasing depth, (b) maintaining lower depth and decreasing depth, (c) maintaining higher breadth and increasing breadth, and (d) maintaining lower breadth and decreasing breadth. This allowed for direct comparisons between the transition patterns vis-à-vis depth versus breadth. We found that coping depth "won out" (i.e., was more consistently supported): Maintaining higher coping depth or increasing depth is beneficial (e.g., in terms of increased task adaptivity and reduced social conflict across domains), whereas maintaining lower depth or decreasing depth is harmful (e.g., in terms of increased social conflict across domains, decreased recovery, and thriving; see Figure 4). This suggests that focusing one's resources on a more limited set of coping strategies over time (i.e., depth) may be most effective for addressing work–nonwork stressors, rather than throwing many irons in the fire (i.e., breadth). This insight challenges the idea that adaptive strategies are always effective.

Third, our consideration of outcomes across work and nonwork roles and outcomes capturing regulation of emotions and behaviors

[8] We note that Hypotheses 3a and 3b involved competing predictions for several transition patterns. Remaining comprehensive entails maintaining higher depth (which Hypothesis 3a predicted would be associated with beneficial changes) and maintaining higher breadth (which Hypothesis 3b predicted would be tied to harmful changes). This pattern was associated with two beneficial changes and one harmful change. Moving from surviving to comprehensive involves increasing depth and maintaining higher breadth. This pattern was associated with one beneficial change. The other transition patterns that involved competing predictions—namely, individualistic to comprehensive, constrained to comprehensive, surviving to constrained, remaining constrained, individualistic to constrained, and comprehensive to constrained—were not associated with significant changes in outcomes.

Figure 3

Summary of Work–Nonwork Coping Profiles That Emerged in the Pilot Study, Study 1, and Study 2



Note. Full results and discussion of the pilot study are available in Appendix C at https://osf.io/d6gwx?view_only=59e8145e71d24faea22fc1f21f1ecec5

(i.e., both necessary for coping to be considered successful, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) broadens the criteria space of work–nonwork coping. This is important because "coping responses that are effective with respect to one outcome may have a negative impact on another" (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004, p. 754). Indeed, our findings revealed that coping breadth over time had mixed results; for example, remaining a comprehensive coper (i.e., higher depth together with higher breadth) over time is less efficacious than what prior research would predict, such that this transition pattern was associated with increased task adaptivity and decreased enacted social conflict at home yet increased enacted social conflict at work. Whereas prior research of coping with work–nonwork stressors has largely prioritized outcomes such as work–nonwork conflict and enrichment (e.g., Clark et al., 2014; Hecht & McCarthy, 2010; Vaziri et al., 2020), we show that the ways employees cope over time has a broader impact in terms of how they engage with others across domains (i.e., enacted social conflict), recovery, and behaviors and psychological states at work.

Practical Implications

In terms of practical implications, our work shows that employees stand the most to gain in terms of their work outcomes, social functioning across domains, and well-being when they maintain higher depth or increase their depth of coping. Organizations and managers should facilitate employees' ability to, for instance, plan and prioritize across their work and nonwork demands. For example, managers could encourage planning at the start of each workweek or workday in which employees create a list of goals and an action plan. Managers can also help employees prioritize their work tasks and provide uninterrupted time to focus and complete the highest priority(ies) during the day. To help employees engage more deeply with—and benefit from—multiple coping strategies, organizations might also encourage employees to be mutual sources of support through initiatives such as employee resource groups (e.g., new working parents, employees with both child care and elder care) and offer training on concrete ways to ask for support from colleagues and partners to make support seeking less taxing.

Our work also reveals that employees should approach "comprehensively coping" with caution. Firing on all cylinders by continuing to use all adaptive coping strategies over time may ultimately help employees be more adaptive with their work tasks, but it also is associated with a shorter fuse when interacting with others at work (e.g., impatient and argumentative), painting a picture of individuals who excel in their work tasks yet show less regard for colleagues. While this profile may be sustainable in that it was one of the most common profile transition patterns, this does come at a cost. If it becomes too difficult to comprehensively cope, the best route employees can take is to maintain coping depth while decreasing breadth to become an individualistic coper, which we found was associated with a reduction in social conflict at work (i.e., people become more patient and less argumentative by paring down their coping strategies).

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Our work represents a starting point to examine transitions in profiles of coping with work–nonwork stressors. As such, several limitations bear mentioning. First, we examined coping from week to week (Studies 1 and 2); however, work–nonwork stressors are often episodic (French & Allen, 2020). Indeed, recent research shows that recovery profiles fluctuate day-to-day (Chawla et al., 2020). Thus, we recommend that future research adopts a daily lens to understand microtransitions in coping profiles using experience sampling methodology. This could focus on discrete stressors (e.g., needing to pick up a sick child during the workday, experiencing

Figure 4

Summary of Work–Nonwork Coping Profile Transition Pattern Outcomes (Study 2)

Outcomes Interpreted From Perspective of *Coping Depth*		
1. Maintain higher depth or increase depth of coping		→ **Hypothesized: beneficial changes [+]** Results: 5+ & 1-
Maintain higher depth: Significant outcomes		
Remain comprehensive*	2+ (↑task adaptivity, ↓social conflict at home), 1- (↑social conflict at work)	
Remain individualistic	1+ (↓social conflict at home)	
Individualistic → Comprehensive*	none	
Comprehensive → Individualistic	1+ (↓social conflict at work)	
Increase depth: Significant outcomes		
Constrained → Individualistic	none	
Surviving → Individualistic	none	
Surviving → Comprehensive*	1+ (↓social conflict at home)	
Constrained → Comprehensive*	none	
2. Maintain lower depth or decrease depth of coping		→ **Hypothesized: harmful changes [-]** Results: 5- & 2+
Maintain lower depth: Significant outcomes		
Remain surviving	1- (↑social conflict at work), 1+ (↓social conflict at home)	
Surviving → Constrained*	none	
Remain constrained*	none	
Constrained → Surviving	1- (↓recovery), 1+ (↓social conflict at work)	
Decrease depth: Significant outcomes		
Individualistic → Surviving	1- (↓task adaptivity)	
Individualistic → Constrained*	none	
Comprehensive → Surviving	2- (↓thriving, ↓recovery)	
Comprehensive → Constrained*	none	

Outcomes Interpreted From Perspective of *Coping Breadth*		
3. Maintain higher breadth or increase breadth of coping		→ **Hypothesized: harmful changes [-]** Results: 6- & 5+
Maintain higher breadth: Significant outcomes		
Remain comprehensive*	2+ (↑task adaptivity, ↓social conflict at home), 1- (↑social conflict at work)	
Remain surviving	1- (↑social conflict at work), 1+ (↓social conflict at home)	
Surviving → Comprehensive*	1+ (↓social conflict at home)	
Comprehensive → Surviving	2- (↓thriving, ↓recovery)	
Increase breadth: Significant outcomes		
Individualistic → Comprehensive*	none	
Individualistic → Surviving	1- (↓task adaptivity)	
Constrained → Surviving	1- (↓recovery), 1+ (↓social conflict at work)	
Constrained → Comprehensive*	None	
4. Maintain lower breadth or decrease breadth of coping		→ **Hypothesized: beneficial changes [+]** Results: 2+
Maintain lower breadth: Significant outcomes		
Remain individualistic	1+ (↓social conflict at home)	
Individualistic → Constrained*	none	
Remain constrained*	none	
Constrained → Individualistic	none	
Decrease breadth: Significant outcomes		
Comprehensive → Individualistic	1+ (↓social conflict at work)	
Surviving → Constrained*	none	
Surviving → Individualistic	none	
Comprehensive → Constrained*	none	

Note. Transition patterns in each set of unshaded rows are ordered from highest to lowest probabilities. Hypothesis 3a contrasts Categories 1 and 2. Hypothesis 3b contrasts Categories 3 and 4. + indicates beneficial changes, – indicates harmful changes, "none" indicates no significant changes, * indicates transition patterns with competing predictions.

an acute illness, specific interruptions from others at work or at home) instead of the more general work–nonwork stressors that we considered.

Second, although our measures were temporally separated, it is possible that the direction of the effects may differ from those theorized, such that well-being, social functioning, and work outcomes prompt transitions of coping profiles instead of following them. Conducting interventions, such as at the daily level, could address this limitation, for example, by randomly assigning participants to engage in a specific combination of coping strategies during a given time frame (Lambert et al., 2022). Relatedly, consistent with prior research of profiles and their transition (e.g., Gabriel et al., 2020; Slaughter et al., 2021; Vaziri et al., 2020), our measures were self-reported, which could raise concerns regarding common method variance. However, this is less likely to be a concern using LPA and LTA, given their inductive nature; profiles are not known a priori (i.e., participants cannot anticipate which profile to which they belong), compared to variable-centered approaches (Gabriel et al., 2020; Keller et al., 2017; Stanley et al., 2017).

Third, we found that moving into or remaining in the surviving copers profile (higher breadth–lower depth) was more harmful than the constrained copers profile (lowest breadth and depth). This stands in contrast to prior research showing that people who do not adaptively cope are the worst off. It is possible that employees who remain constrained copers may experience more intractable outcomes (e.g., mortality, Gonzalez-Mulé & Cockburn, 2017, 2021) than those we considered. Future studies should investigate such outcomes.

Having revealed that coping depth and breadth—as a set and over time—are consequential for employees, we suggest that future research develops new theory to advance a deeper understanding of their interplay. It would be particularly fruitful for such theory to adopt a person-centered approach to also consider why employees fall into patterns of low depth or high breadth and why they intensify their coping efforts (i.e., increase depth or breadth) in response to work–nonwork stressors.

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