



Consideration of Future Consequences, Moral Foundations, and Corporate Volunteering Intentions: A Study on Polish Employees with Volunteering Experience

Iwona Nowakowska¹ · Michał Szulawski¹ · Izabela Pawłowska¹ · Maura Pozzi^{2,3}

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Abstract

In Poland's developing corporate social responsibility landscape, encouraging employees to participate in corporate volunteering initiatives is becoming increasingly important. This study examined the relationship between the consideration of future consequences and corporate volunteering intentions among Polish employees with prior volunteering experience, taking into account individualizing moral foundations as a moderator and binding moral foundations as a covariate. Grounded in the norm activation model and moral foundations theory, we explored how temporal and moral dimensions relate to intentions to engage in corporate volunteering over three time horizons: tomorrow, a month, and a year. $N=227$ Polish employed individuals with volunteering experience participated in a cross-sectional online survey. We found that binding moral foundations predicted corporate volunteering intentions for the next day, whereas consideration of future consequences and individualizing moral foundations related to corporate volunteering intentions in one month and one year. Moreover, consideration of future consequences predicted higher volunteering intentions in a year only when individualizing moral foundations were moderate to high. These findings underscore the necessity of combining future-oriented thinking with individualizing moral values to foster sustained engagement in corporate volunteering. The study provides theoretical and practical insights into designing corporate social responsibility programs that effectively align with employee motivations and ethical orientations.

Keywords Consideration of future consequences · Corporate volunteering · Moral foundations

Introduction

Volunteering refers to work done without financial compensation, where individuals freely contribute their time to support activities either through an organization or by helping people outside their household (International Labor Organization, 2011; Musick & Wilson, 2008). It can take the form of formal volunteering, which occurs within

organizations such as public institutions or nonprofits, or informal volunteering, which involves personal initiatives outside organizational settings, like helping neighbors or engaging in community support (Lee & Brudney, 2012). Its specific type is corporate volunteering, which is an activity in which employees devote part of their work time to a charitable or nonprofit organization or group external to the company (Basil et al., 2011; Rodell et al., 2016) as part of the social responsibility activities (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2019). Corporate volunteering, apart from being an instrument of social support to beneficiaries, is viewed by employees as a way to gain personal benefits (such as satisfaction, new relationships, and experience, and overall job satisfaction; Gatignon-Turnau & Mignonac, 2015), enhance positive image of the company (Nowakowska et al., 2024a), and bring community benefits by creating healthier environments (Sekar & Dyaram, 2017).

Poland is an example of a country where corporate volunteering is still in its development stage. Despite its growing

✉ Iwona Nowakowska
inowakowska@aps.edu.pl

¹ Institute of Psychology, Maria Grzegorzewska University, Szczęśliwicka 40, 02-353 Warsaw, Poland

² Department of Psychology, Catholic University of the Sacred Heart, Largo Gemelli 1, 20123 Milan, Italy

³ CERISVICO (Research Centre on Community Development and Organisational Quality of Life), Catholic University of the Sacred Heart, Via Della Garzetta 48, 25133 Brescia, Italy

popularity in Poland, only one in five companies offers opportunities for their employees to engage in this activity (Nowakowska et al., 2024a; Schimanek, 2022). Thus, there is room for dissemination of the corporate volunteering idea. Importantly, in Poland, voluntary engagement generally co-occurs with ambivalence toward formal organizations that offer it (Włodarczyk, 2011), which may be one reason for the higher involvement of Poles in informal rather than formal voluntary action (Statistics Poland, 2022). Moreover, it may hinder the willingness to participate in programs organized by highly formalized institutions, such as workplaces.

The majority of opportunities for corporate volunteering in Poland are based on cooperation between companies and external partners, primarily non-governmental organizations, or, rarely, other companies or institutions, such as offices, schools, or libraries (Schimanek, 2022). A qualitative study of 440 Polish employees from middle- and large-sized companies, both engaged and non-engaged in corporate volunteering (Nowakowska et al., 2024a), revealed that they often do not know the benefits that this activity may have for the employer, themselves, and the beneficiaries. This aligns with other recent Polish report that shows a lack of interest among employees in corporate volunteering is one of the main factors leading to its abandonment in companies, and regaining this interest would be a key factor in encouraging the reactivation of corporate volunteering (Schimanek, 2022).

The aforementioned phenomena highlight the need to improve Polish employees' understanding of corporate volunteering. This will enable them to recognize its potential value and understand the psychological factors that influence their willingness to participate. This understanding will inform the tailoring of communication and recruitment strategies for corporate volunteering programs within companies. This could be helpful not only for Polish companies, but also for those in other countries where corporate volunteering is developing and/or which, like Poland, experienced the dominance of collectivist narratives throughout the socialist system after World War II until the transformation in 1989, followed by a shift to neoliberal individualism. This affected the behaviors expected within society and on the labor market (Adam, 2003).

Psychological factors are universally crucial to understanding the correlates of volunteering intentions (Snyder & Omoto, 2009). In the current study, we draw on the insights from the norm activation model (Schwartz, 1977), which explains the conditions under which people display intentions for prosocial behavior. Importantly, volunteering generally requires considering the future and the distal consequences of one's behavior. For example, volunteering involves an activity that does not yield rewards quickly, and seeing its benefits is often not immediate (Maki et al., 2016). It is also oriented toward benefiting others and helping

them cope better in the future (Nowakowska, 2024). Thus, acknowledging that individual differences play a vital role in voluntary activities, we integrate norm activation model with the theory of consideration of future consequences (Joireman et al., 2001; Strathman et al., 1994), as well as moral foundations theory (Graham et al., 2009). Specifically, we investigate under what conditions consideration of future consequences relates to intentions for corporate volunteering: for the next day, a month, and a year, among individuals with volunteering experience who are working full-time or part-time. Understanding this dynamic is key to fostering a culture of sustained, meaningful engagement in corporate social responsibility initiatives.

Literature Review

According to the previous data and theoretical propositions about prosocial behaviors, temporal (awareness of consequences) and social (concern for others' well-being) considerations play a role in deciding to undertake them (Maki et al., 2016; Milfont & Gouveia, 2006). The idea stems from the norm activation model (Schwartz, 1977). According to this model, awareness of consequences of a particular event leads to a feeling of responsibility for mitigating them (if the anticipated consequences are adverse) or taking part in achieving positive results (if the anticipated consequences are beneficial). This leads to activating personal norms (relevant to the moral obligation to perform a particular behavior) that guide further behavioral intentions and actual behavior performance (Kim & Hwang, 2020; Onwezen et al., 2013; Schwartz, 1977; Steg & DeGroot, 2010). The perspective of personal-norm activation is consistent with self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which proposes that when people act in accordance with values they have internalized and integrated, they experience need satisfaction (Onwezen et al., 2013). This, in turn, fosters work engagement and reduces turnover intentions (Trépanier et al., 2015). Consequently, acting in congruence with personal norms can be positively related to extra-role activities such as corporate volunteering. In the case of corporate volunteering, a person can become aware of the long-term consequences of undertaking such behavior (e.g., relief or support for the beneficiaries), which might lead to feeling responsible for these consequences, and activation of a personal norm congruent with helping (e.g., care for the well-being of other people, or reciprocity in social relationships; Nowakowska et al., 2024b).

We argue that for the generalized intentions to undertake a behavior such as corporate volunteering, the tendency to consider this behavior's consequences and personal norms' aspects might rely not only on momentary appraisals, but on relatively stable dispositions (Joireman et al., 2012; Nowakowska et al., 2024b). For considering the consequences of

behavior, a relevant theory by Strathman et al. (1994) suggests the crucial role of individuals' consideration of future, distal consequences, which might play a particular role in displaying the intention to undertake prosocial behaviors (Joireman et al., 2001).

In the consideration of future consequences theoretical framework (Strathman et al., 1994; Joireman et al., 2001, 2012), immediate outcomes refer to the short-term, proximal consequences of one's actions, those that are experienced or realized almost directly (e.g., instant gratification, relief from discomfort), whereas future (distant) outcomes denote the long-term, distal effects that accrue only after a significant temporal delay (e.g., benefits that occur years from undertaking an activity, such as well-being, better education or quality relationships that are the result of a volunteering activity). Individuals who consider distant outcomes strategically prioritize actions whose benefits materialize in the future, whereas those attuned to immediate outcomes favor behavior that yields prompt rewards, even at the expense of long-term costs (Joireman et al., 2012; Strathman et al., 1994). Theoretically, consideration of future consequences is situated at the intersection of temporal construal theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010), which posits that temporally distant events are mentally represented in more abstract terms and self-regulation models that emphasize how temporal framing influences goal setting and decision-making (Simon et al., 2004).

In contrast to the norm activation model's "awareness of consequences," consideration of future consequences does not refer to specific results of a given event or activity. Instead, it describes the personal disposition to envisage future, distal results that may occur from one's own actions. However, there is a clear overlap between the norm activation model and the consideration of future consequences regarding the ability to take into account the potential effects of one's own behavior which might lead to the decision to undertake it or not (Joireman et al., 2001).

Higher consideration of future consequences has been linked to a broad array of adaptive behaviors, including health-promoting activities and environmental stewardship, as well as academic persistence, where the benefits of sustained effort are realized only in the future (Joireman et al., 2012; Strathman et al., 1994). Similarly, undertaking corporate volunteering may require discounting the short-term consequences for the agent, such as the loss of free time, for the potential long-term positive effects (such as supporting others through voluntary work). Considerations of the future positively relate to the strength of volunteer motivation and satisfaction (Maki et al., 2016; Metzger et al., 2018). Moreover, considering future consequences might support persistence in voluntary activity despite the fruits of work being only visible after a longer time (Maki et al., 2016). Thus, given that consideration of future consequences provides

motivation to volunteer despite the absence of immediate feedback or gratification, it can be presumed that this is also related to the willingness to engage in corporate volunteering in contexts of high uncertainty and ambiguous institutional trust, such as in Poland (Łopaciuk-Goncaryk, 2019; Włodarczyk, 2011).

Nevertheless, considering future consequences may not be enough to display prosocial intentions for undertaking voluntary activities. In light of the norm activation theory, a person has to imagine the potential adverse outcomes of not taking up prosocial action (Schwartz, 1977), but what is important for understanding these consequences is what a person (in this case, a volunteer) values and believes to be important (Schwartz, 1977). Taking the perspective of dispositions that affect behaviors, personal norms bear conceptual resemblance to the newer and more comprehensive notion of moral foundations that guide intentions and behaviors (Graham et al., 2009, 2013). Moral foundations describe several functional mechanisms that emerged from adaptation to the environment and evolution, accounting for both emotional and cognitive aspects of moral decision-making (Haidt & Graham, 2007). They were found to be relevant to the business ethics context, as a reflection of a moral sense in an organization requires considering compassion for others, acknowledging the values of hierarchy, reciprocity, affiliation, and purity (Sadler-Smith, 2012).

Moral foundations are traditionally classified into five dimensions: Harm/Care, Fairness/Reciprocity, Ingroup/Loyalty, Authority/Respect, and Purity/Sanctity (Graham et al., 2009). The five-dimensional theoretical structure of the MFT has been confirmed to be stable in a 30-country study of WEIRD and non-WEIRD samples (Doğruyol et al., 2019). Specifically, the results of studies conducted in European countries, including Poland, align with the original proposition of the MFT authors (Bobbio et al., 2011; Jarmakowski-Kostrzanowski & Jarmakowska-Kostrzanowska, 2016; Nilsson & Erlandsson, 2015).

Graham et al. (2013) described the details regarding each of them, along with the emotions associated with them. Harm/Care is activated when a person witnesses others' suffering, neediness, or distress, and promotes a compassionate attitude toward them, as well as anger at the one who caused harm to another. Virtues related to this moral foundation include caring and kindness. Fairness and reciprocity are crucial for assessing the benefits of two-way partnerships, as well as situations involving cooperation, deception, or cheating. It is related to guilt after behaving unfairly, anger at those who do so, and gratitude to those who respect reciprocity. Virtues congruent with this moral foundation are fairness, justice, and trustworthiness. Ingroup/Loyalty is triggered by perceived threats and associates with the assumption that, in danger, people should cling to their group, offer help to its members, and display anger toward

those outside it. Virtues associated with this moral foundation include patriotism, self-sacrifice, and loyalty. Authority/Respect regards the respect to people high in social hierarchies, regardless of whether they are right or wrong. In the workplace context, it can regard relationships with managers, more experienced professionals or bosses. Virtues related to this moral foundation are obedience and deference. Finally, Purity/Sanctity describes the care for maintaining purity, avoiding communicable diseases, and refraining from anything considered depraved. The virtues relevant to this foundation are temperance, cleanliness, and chastity.

When considering a particular situation or appraisal (e.g., willingness to engage in corporate volunteering), not every moral foundation is relevant (Chan, 2021); however, one or more can be activated simultaneously (Dickinson et al., 2016). There are typically two broad categories of moral foundation that are considered akin. Harm/Care and Fairness/Reciprocity constitute a category of individualizing moral foundations that focus on the well-being of others, whereas Ingroup/Loyalty, Authority/Respect, and Purity/Sanctity form a category of binding moral foundations that concentrate on preserving group integrity (Graham et al., 2013).

Integrating the moral foundations theory perspective with Schwartz's norm activation model, it ought to be acknowledged that personal norms are hypothesized to lead to behavioral intentions/actual behaviors, and thus need to be congruent with these behaviors. Individualizing moral foundations are evidenced to predict prosocial behaviors, such as higher donations to charity (Nilsson et al., 2020), public service motivation (Wang et al., 2024), and acceptance of prosocial nudging (Nilsson et al., 2021). Moreover, Clark et al. (2017) demonstrated that individuals prioritizing the individualizing moral foundations over binding ones tend to exhibit higher levels of cooperation during the Prisoner's Dilemma game. Stüssenbach et al. (2019) demonstrated that individuals with a more individualizing orientation exhibited increased moral responsibility, greater attention to visual cues indicating a substantial need for help or suffering, and more prosocial intentions in response to these stimuli. Furthermore, a study of individuals who have engaged in real-world extraordinary altruism, such as donating their kidneys to strangers, showed that they are distinguished by their heightened concern for the moral foundation of harm and care (Amormino et al., 2022). In contrast, evidence about the linkages between binding moral foundations shows that they are positively related to negative behavioral intentions toward outgroup members, and negatively associated with positive behavioral intentions (Hadarics & Kende, 2018). Moreover, contrary to the trends observed for individualizing moral foundations, binding intuitions are associated with a lower willingness to comply with requests to engage in voluntary or donation behaviors, as well as with lower

self-reported amounts of charity donations (Nilsson et al., 2020).

Summing up, volunteering engagement typically involves temporarily discounting one's well-being (e.g., continuing despite feeling unwell on a particular day or not experiencing satisfaction from every particular activity) to elevate others' well-being. It is also a socially generative action (Snyder & Clary, 2004) that concerns the well-being of future generations (McAdams & Logan, 2004), which suggests that the individual differences in individualizing moral foundations (focused on other individuals' well-being; Graham et al., 2013) and consideration of future consequences (Nowakowska et al., 2024b) are valid to be tested as the potential predictors of corporate volunteering intentions.

We also argue that the concern for individualizing morals moderates the relationship between consideration of future consequences and corporate volunteering intentions in people with volunteering experience, so a high individualizing orientation is needed to consider future consequences to relate to corporate volunteering intentions. Consideration of future consequences refers to the general propensity to plan and capacity to engage in lasting or sometimes boring activities for the results visible in the future (Maki et al., 2016; Strathman et al., 1994). Moral considerations may be crucial in shaping these plans and promoting care for the future consequences of acting by the endorsed morality (e.g., considering the potential positive outcomes of corporate volunteering engagement), as suggested by the norm activation model (Schwartz, 1977).

Current Study

To understand the readiness of employees to undertake corporate volunteering, it is helpful to consider psychological factors – relatively stable individual differences that may be crucial for their decision-making processes and prosocial behavior. Based on the aforementioned literature review, the current study investigated how consideration of future consequences relates to readiness to perform corporate volunteering in the next day, month, and year, depending on the level of individualizing moral foundations endorsed.

The hypothesized relationships were tested among individuals with prior experience in formal or informal voluntary activities (not exclusive to corporate volunteering) at least once in their lifetime who were employed full-time or part-time at the time of the study. It should be noted that there exists an intention-behavior gap, referring to the incongruence between intending to perform an action and actually doing so (Sniehotta et al., 2005). Nevertheless, intentions to act are a proxy for the action itself (Ajzen, 1985), which has been confirmed for volunteering behaviors (Marta et al., 2014).

Corporate volunteering is not widespread in Poland (Schimanek, 2022), and in some cases, it is even impossible to assess the actual corporate volunteering behavior of even the most keen candidates. Thus, it is useful to ask about intentions to volunteer in order to explore how people would engage if they had the opportunity. Through purposive sampling, we included individuals in whom the intention-behavior gap might be less pronounced because they had previous experience with voluntary activities (Marta et al., 2014; Niebuur et al., 2018) and could pioneer engagement if their companies introduced a corporate volunteering program. This is because past behavior robustly predicts similar future actions (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). In the context of volunteering, previous voluntary behaviors relate to volunteering habits (Charng et al., 1988; Niebuur et al., 2018). Therefore, people with volunteering experience are the primary targets who could be successfully encouraged to undertake corporate volunteering. Such a sample has not yet been investigated in the context of corporate volunteering intentions or behaviors.

According to Schwartz's (1977) norm activation model, personal norm activation precede behavioral intentions. Individualizing moral foundations can be considered relevant personal norms that guide volunteering intentions (Nilsson & Erlandsson, 2020), as they take into account key virtues related to helping (Graham et al., 2013). They were also found to have a positive relationship with corporate volunteering intentions among employees (Nowakowska et al., 2024b). We hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1 *Individualizing moral foundations are related to intentions to undertake corporate volunteering.*

Volunteering is oriented toward the future and is a socially generative activity (Snyder & Clary, 2004). However, awareness of consequences precedes norm activation (Schwartz, 1977) and may not be enough to display prosociality if not accompanied by relevant moral considerations. That is why we hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2 *Consideration of future consequences is related to intentions to undertake corporate volunteering only when individualizing moral foundations are high.*

For exploratory purposes, we tested three models for intentions to undertake corporate volunteering tomorrow, in a month, and a year. Time horizon might be important for considering future consequences, so a more extended time horizon might make it more difficult for people not concerned about future consequences to visualize and declare their intentions (Joireman et al., 2001; Strathman et al., 1994), which is related to construal level theory assumptions that more temporally distant events are construed in more

abstract terms than these which are more proximal (Trope & Liberman., 2010). We also controlled for basic demographic data, including age, gender, and involvement in corporate volunteering, as well as binding moral foundations, acknowledging their potential predictive value for engagement in work-related behavior in the Polish cultural context, which lies between collectivist care for loyalty toward authorities and individualist orientation (Adam, 2003).

Our analysis is novel in several ways. First, we take into account individual differences conceptually linked to constructs from the norm activation model, searching for characteristics-based mechanisms that might relate to displaying corporate volunteering intentions. We also apply these established constructs to investigate corporate volunteering – a specific form of voluntary activity; whereas a vast majority of available data concerns volunteering in general or other contexts in which it is undertaken. Such approach has been taken previously only by Nowakowska and colleagues (2024b), but not on a homogeneous sample of employees that had a previous experience with volunteering. This is a research gap we intend to fill, conducting our study on a different and specific sample of employed volunteers. Thus, our analysis may serve to test the predictive power of the norm activation model, the consideration of future consequences theory, and the moral foundations theory in work-related prosociality contexts. Testing separate models for various time horizons is also a novel approach applied in our study. It might give detailed insights into prosocial intentions depending on the level of temporal construal involved in displaying intentions. In terms of practice, our research results could be helpful while organizing corporate volunteering activities, for example, by providing information about psychological factors associated with the willingness to engage. This could support in tailoring the communication of corporate volunteering opportunities and help align the activities with the values endorsed by the interested volunteers.

Method

Participants

Our study included a total of 227 participants aged 18–55 ($M = 35.99$; $SD = 8.79$), 116 men (51.1%), 110 women (48.5%), and 1 of other gender/preferring not to declare it (0.4%). Fifty-four participants lived in a village (23.8%), 72 in a town of fewer than 100,000 inhabitants (31.7%), 56 in a town of 100,001–499,999 inhabitants (24.7%), and 45 in a town with over 500,000 inhabitants (19.8%). Most participants held a master's degree or its equivalent (105, 46.3%). Sixty-nine participants (30.4%) were high school graduates, while 9 people (4%) finished vocational school, and 2 people (.9%) finished primary or secondary school. Thirty-seven

participants (16.3%) had a bachelor's degree, and 4 (1.8%) had a PhD or a higher degree. One person chose the option "Other." Nearly all participants worked full-time (207; 91.2%). Twenty-one participants (9.3%) worked part-time or on civil law contracts, while 11 people (4.8%) were studying. One person answered that they are either a business owner or self-employed. Table 1 presents information about the participants' volunteering activities and their experiences with corporate volunteering.

No official statistical data is available regarding the particular population of employees who have volunteer experience in their lifetime, however, we might compare our sample to other available data such as the 2021 census data for the situation on the labor market in Poland (Statistics Poland, 2024), and the statistics regarding voluntary activity among the general population (Statistics Poland, 2022). The slightly higher percentage of men in the sample reflects the trend visible among employed Poles (59.7% men *versus* 47.8% women active on the labor market). Moreover, the

highest percentage of people with higher education is congruent with the highest percentage of employability of this group in Poland (ca. 94% employed in the age group 18–54 compared to ca. 86% for high school graduates, 83% for vocational education graduates, and 70% of secondary or lower school graduates; Statistics Poland, 2024). Moreover, in the general population, the ratio of institutionalized to individual (informal) volunteers is ca. 1 to 5. In our study, this ratio is approximately similar (nevertheless, it should be taken into account that multiple choice was allowed, and some respondents engaged in both forms of volunteering in their lifetime).

Procedure

The analysis is a part of a larger study targeted at people who worked as formal or informal (Lee & Brudney, 2012) volunteers (of any kind) when conducting the study (purposeful sampling). People interested in participation self-selected

Table 1 Information about the volunteering activities of the participants and their experiences with corporate volunteering

Variable	Value	N	%
Volunteering	Formally, in an NGO	62	27.3
	Informally, in a public organization	41	18.1
	Informally in a self-help group, neighborhood group, or in a meaningful context	148	65.2
	Other	4	1.8
Frequency of participating in volunteering	Once/twice a year	77	33.9
	A couple of times a year	72	31.7
	Once a month	25	11.0
	2–3 times a month	33	14.5
	Once a week	12	5.3
	More than once a week	8	3.5
Volunteering field/beneficiary type	Children	77	33.9
	Seniors	58	25.6
	People with disabilities	38	16.7
	Education	37	16.3
	Fundraising	6	2.6
	Office work	13	5.7
	Animals	55	24.2
	Scouting	8	3.5
	Firefighting	9	4.0
	Pandemic-related activities (e.g., food delivery, walking animals, shopping for ill people)	28	12.3
	Refugees	26	11.5
	Organizing events	33	14.5
	Other	7	3.1
Availability of corporate volunteering in the workplace	Yes	56	24.7
	No	148	65.2
	I do not know	23	10.1

Not all percentages within a category sum to 100, as multiple choice was allowed

based on their status as those who volunteered at least once in their lifetime. Previous experience with corporate volunteering or being a working person was not subject to self-selection. A quota was applied to involve 40–50% of men in the sample to mirror demographic structure of gender in the Polish population. Choosing respondents for the current analysis was done in further steps, after data collection, namely, out of the original sample, $N=287$, due to the specificity of the research question, we selected only those volunteers who were also employed, did not declare being “not in education, employment or training,” and therefore could have been concerned about corporate volunteering, which resulted in the final $N=227$ described above. We collected data using an anonymous online survey set in Qualtrics™ in October 2023 with the assistance of a research panel. Participants were remunerated with points later exchangeable into money, vouchers, items or donatable to charity (based on the individual decision of the panelist). The Maria Grzegorzewska University research ethics committee approved the study materials and protocol. All participants provided informed consent before taking the survey.

Measures

Consideration of Future Consequences was measured by the Consideration of Future Consequences-14 Scale (CFC-14; Joireman et al., 2012; Polish adaptation: Frydrysiak, 2018). The scale consists of 14 items and two subscales, Future and Immediate, with each with seven items. For the current study, only the Future (focal variable) subscale was of interest; sample item: *Often, I engage in a particular behavior in order to achieve outcomes that may not result for many years*. The respondents assessed whether the items resembled their behavior on a scale from 1 (not at all like you) to 7 (very much like you). The general score was calculated using the mean of the relevant items that constituted the subscale. Cronbach's α was .78.

Moral Foundations

The moral foundations postulated by the Moral Foundations Theory (Graham et al. 2013) were measured by the Moral Foundations Questionnaire (MFQ; Graham et al., 2011; Polish adaptation: Jarmakowski-Kostrzanowski & Jarmakowska-Kostrzanowska, 2016). It is a self-report measure comprising 30 items divided into two parts. Part 1 asks to what extent the specific considerations are relevant to the person's decision about whether something is right or wrong, e.g., *Whether or not someone suffered emotionally*. The respondents' answers are on a scale from 1 (not at all relevant) to 6 (extremely relevant). Part 2 asks to indicate whether a person agrees or disagrees with statements, e.g., *Compassion for those who are suffering*

is the most crucial virtue. The respondents answered on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Items from both parts form five subscales: Harm/Care, Fairness/Reciprocity, Ingroup/Loyalty, Authority/Respect, and Purity/Sanctity. However, for the analyses performed in the current study, aggregated results of individualizing (focal variable) and binding (control variable) moral foundations were obtained, consisting of items that are part of the Harm/Care and Fairness/Reciprocity (individualizing) and Ingroup/Loyalty, Authority/Respect, and Purity/Sanctity (binding) subscales. The index was computed as the mean of these items. Cronbach's α was 0.89 for both individualizing and binding moral foundations.

Corporate volunteering intentions (dependent variables) measurement was preceded by a definition of corporate volunteering based on Basil et al., (2011) and Rodell et al., (2016) reading: *Corporate volunteering is an activity that involves initiating and supporting employees' social activity by the employer. Employees-volunteers work in various ways, using their skills and talents, whereas the employer lets them undertake such initiatives and support their actions*. The intentions to undertake corporate volunteering were measured by asking three questions, same as in Nowakowska and colleagues (2024b): *How probable is it for you (in percentage 0–100%) to become a corporate volunteer (1) tomorrow; (2) in a month; (3) in a year?* The items were analyzed separately as dependent variables for the three statistical models investigated in our analysis. As the indices are one-item based, Cronbach's α cannot be provided. A similar measure regarding volunteering intentions in general, regarding a month, a year and a 2-year period showed a test–retest reliability in a yearly longitudinal study, along with positive correlations with dispositional empathy and social value orientation (Nowakowska & Rajchert, 2025).

Analytic Strategy

We performed analyses with IBM SPSS 29.0.1.0 for Windows (IBM, 2023). Post hoc tests of interactions and visualizations were done with Andrew F. Hayes PROCESS 4.0 macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018). First, we explored correlations between the variables of interest. In this analysis, we also included gender, age, involvement in corporate volunteering, and binding moral foundations as control variables. The independent variables of interest and the continuous control variable were then standardized to z-scores. An interaction variable was computed based on the standardized variables. Next, we performed linear regression to test the hypotheses. Finally, in the case of significant interaction effects, we performed post hoc tests. The effects were considered statistically significant if $p < 0.05$.

Note on Data

The dataset can be accessed openly at <https://osf.io/934w5> (see Database Poland folder, data only for employed volunteers). To date, one article has been published based on this database (Nowakowska & Pozzi, 2024). The analysis presented here is original and has not been published elsewhere. It is based on a subset of participants who were of interest to our research question (employed volunteers), and this subset was not used in previous reports. The analysis has not been preregistered.

Results

First, in Table 2, we provide Pearson's r (or point-biserial correlations for dichotomous and continuous variables), which allow us to discover the associations between the variables of interest. Additionally, in Supplementary Material Table S1, we provide 95% confidence intervals for all correlation coefficients.

Data from Table 2 suggests positive correlations between all variables of interest at $p < .001$. Significant correlations at the $p < .001$ level were also found for the relationships between the dependent variables, binding moral foundations and current involvement in corporate volunteering; therefore, these variables were controlled in the subsequent analyses. No significant correlation was found between age, gender, and the dependent variables. Thus, these demographic variables were not controlled in the linear regression models.

Next, we performed linear regression analyses with interactions for three models, predicting corporate volunteering intentions for the next day (Model 1), a month (Model 2), and a year (Model 3). The results of these analyses are presented in Table 3.

As indicated in Table 3, for intentions to engage in corporate volunteering tomorrow, the only significant and positive predictors were binding moral foundations ($\beta = 0.20$; $p < 0.01$) and current involvement in corporate volunteering ($\beta = 0.15$; $p < 0.05$). The effects of individualizing moral foundations, consideration of future consequences, and their interaction were not statistically significant. However, for intentions to engage in a month, the only significant and positive predictors were consideration of future consequences ($\beta = 0.16$; $p < 0.05$), individualizing moral foundations ($\beta = 0.16$; $p < 0.05$), and current involvement in corporate volunteering ($\beta = 0.18$; $p < 0.01$). Binding moral foundations' effect and the interaction between individualizing moral foundations and consideration of future consequences were not statistically significant. For intentions to engage in a year, the significant and positive predictors were consideration of future consequences ($\beta = 0.16$; $p < 0.05$), individualizing moral foundations ($\beta = 0.20$; $p < 0.05$) and current involvement in corporate volunteering ($\beta = 0.18$; $p < 0.01$), as well as the interaction between consideration of future consequences and individualizing moral foundations ($\beta = 0.17$; $p < 0.05$). Binding moral foundations' effect was not statistically significant.

A post hoc test indicated that consideration of future consequences related to intentions to perform corporate volunteering in a year only when individualizing moral foundations were average, $B = 5.14$; 95% CI [.63; 9.65]; $p < 0.05$; and high, $B = 9.06$; 95% CI [3.77; 14.34]; $p < 0.001$. This relationship was insignificant when individualizing moral foundations were low, $B = 0.43$; 95% CI [-4.44; 6.89]; $p = 0.671$. Figure 1 illustrates the observed interaction effect.

Table 2 Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Individualizing moral foundations	–							
2. Binding moral foundations	0.43***	–						
3. Consideration of Future Consequences	0.50***	0.41***	–					
4. Corporate volunteering intentions: tomorrow	0.28***	0.34***	0.31***	–				
5. Corporate volunteering intentions: in a month	0.29***	0.30***	0.32***	0.79***	–			
6. Corporate volunteering intentions: in a year	0.28***	0.22***	0.30***	0.68***	0.89***	–		
7. Age	0.17*	0.15*	0.06	–0.01	–0.03	–0.02	–	
8. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male)	–0.17*	0.09	–0.03	–0.02	–0.09	–0.12	0.12	–
9. Current involvement in corporate volunteering	0.22***	0.26***	0.22***	0.27***	0.30***	0.29***	–0.04	–0.07
<i>M</i>	5.00	4.17	4.99	51.65	55.44	58.03	35.99	–
<i>SD</i>	0.72	0.77	0.88	33.64	31.27	31.29	8.79	–

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. Descriptive statistics are provided for non-standardized variables

Table 3 Linear regression analysis predicting corporate volunteering intentions for tomorrow (Model 1), a month (Model 2), and a year (Model 3)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			VIF						
	B (95% CI)	SE	β	t	p	B (95% CI)	SE	β	t	p	t	p				
Consideration of future consequences	4.54 (-0.28, 9.36)	2.44	0.14	1.86	0.065	4.85 (0.39, 9.32)	2.27	0.16	2.14	0.033	5.14 (0.63, 9.65)	2.29	0.16	2.25	0.026	1.44
Individualizing moral foundations	4.29 (-0.94, 9.52)	2.65	0.13	1.62	0.108	4.87 (0.02, 9.72)	2.46	0.16	1.98	0.049	6.29 (1.39, 11.18)	2.48	0.20	2.53	0.012	1.70
Consideration of Future Consequences * Individualizing moral foundations	2.54 (-0.78, 5.87)	1.69	0.10	1.51	0.133	2.64 (-0.45, 5.72)	1.57	0.11	1.69	0.093	3.92 (0.80, 7.03)	1.58	0.17	2.48	0.014	1.20
Binding moral foundations	6.71 (2.06, 11.37)	2.36	0.20	2.84	0.005	4.21 (-0.11, 8.53)	2.19	0.14	1.92	0.056	1.04 (-3.31, 5.40)	2.21	0.03	0.47	0.637	1.35
Current involvement in corporate volunteering	12.66 (2.23, 23.10)	5.30	0.15	2.39	0.018	13.83 (4.15, 23.51)	4.91	0.18	2.81	0.005	13.82 (4.05, 23.59)	4.96	0.18	2.79	0.006	1.13
R^2_{adj}	0.173					0.176					0.162					
Durbin-Watson	1.93					1.96					1.99					
F(5, 221)	10.43					10.66					9.73					
p	<0.001					<0.001					<0.001					

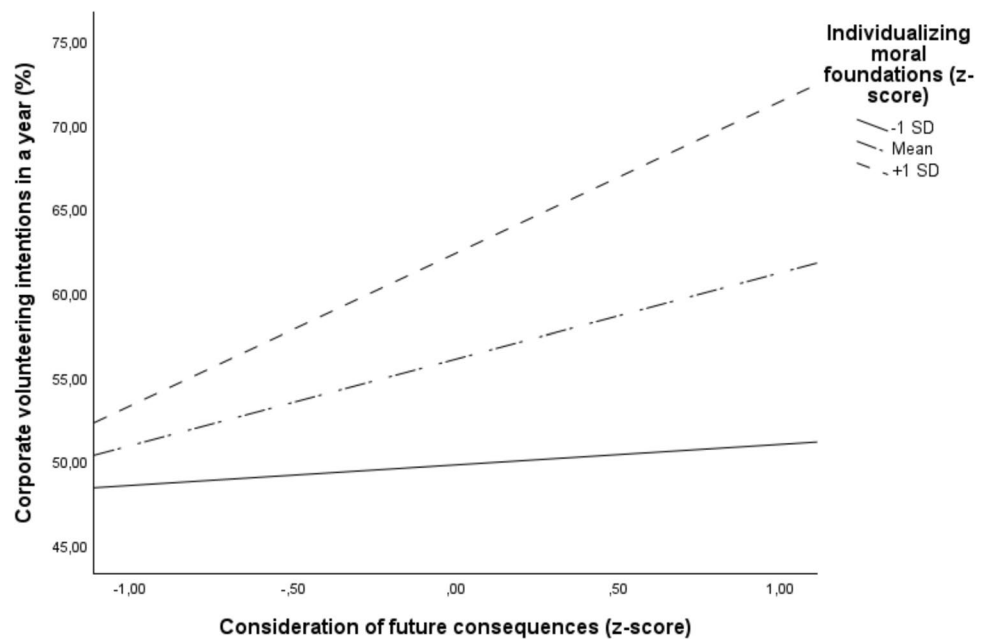
Discussion

This study aimed to investigate the interplay between the consideration of future consequences and individualizing moral foundations in predicting corporate volunteering intentions highlighting the nuanced ways in which temporal and moral dimensions shape prosocial intentions (Maki et al., 2016; Milfont & Gouveia, 2006; Schwartz, 1977) among Polish employees with prior volunteering experience – thus, those who could be primarily interested in joining corporate volunteering programs in a country which still develops them across companies (Schimanek, 2022).

The first hypothesis (H1) posited a positive association between individualizing moral foundations and corporate volunteering intentions across all investigated time horizons (tomorrow, 1 month, and 1 year). Despite the positive correlations entirely consistent with H1, linear regression analysis revealed that the effect of individualizing moral foundations is observable for intentions in both one month and one year, but not for the next day (partial confirmation of H1). In the latter case, binding moral foundations were a positive predictor. Moreover, binding moral foundations were positively correlated with corporate volunteering intentions both in the short term (a month) and the long term (a year). However, in the linear regression analysis, they proved to be insignificant.

The positive correlations between individualizing and binding moral foundations and corporate volunteering intentions are consistent with previous literature on the topic (Nowakowska et al., 2024b). The differences in the results of the regression analyses can be interpreted in light of construal level theory (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Previous research has shown that abstract thinking (i.e., involving a higher construal level) promotes appraisals of individualizing moral foundations and decreases valuing the binding ones (Napier & Luguri, 2013). Upholding individualizing moral foundations was also found to require mental effort and analytic thinking skills (Yilmaz & Saribay, 2017). Moreover, binding moral foundations are associated with intolerance of uncertainty (Strupp-Levitsky et al., 2020). Thus, in our study, making declarations about the proximal future (tomorrow) could have been easier for binding-oriented individuals, who tend to prefer what is certain, close in time, concrete, and thus refers to a low construal level. More distal (or postponed) declarations (regarding corporate volunteering in a month or a year) could have been facilitated for individualizing-oriented respondents, who are more inclined to construe what is abstract and distant in time. Our results suggest that, paradoxically, binding-oriented individuals might be easier to recruit for corporate volunteering programs, as they tend to declare their readiness to participate immediately, whereas the primarily individualizing-oriented individuals might want to consider the opportunity for longer.

Fig. 1 Corporate volunteering intentions in a year dependent on the consideration of future consequences dependent on individualizing moral foundations



Moreover, the interaction between consideration of future consequences and individualizing moral foundations provides a deeper insight into corporate volunteering intentions in a year (the most distant perspective out of the three investigated ones). Consideration of future consequences significantly predicts volunteering intentions in a year only when individualizing moral foundations are moderate to high, partially confirming H2. It supports the norm activation theory (Schwartz, 1977) which states that personal norms, including moral values, amplify the effects of cognitive considerations on prosocial behaviors. This result is congruent with a study on employees' intentions for corporate volunteering (Nowakowska et al., 2024b).

Nevertheless, this interaction was not significant for the more proximal time horizons (tomorrow, a month). As argued above, for the shortest time horizon, concrete thinking associated with binding moral foundations might have appeared crucial for declaring intentions to engage. Moreover, immediate actions or intentions might be guided rather by situational cues, present desires, or habitual behavior than deliberation over future consequences or moral obligations (Strathman et al., 1994). For the model predicting intentions to engage in one month, simple effects of consideration of future consequences and individualizing moral foundations were significant. Our result broadens the perspective on the norm activation model (Schwartz, 1977), providing evidence that immediate declarations do not relate to consequences' consideration or personal norms; mid-temporal proximity declarations are associated with considering future consequences regardless of the level of relevant personal norms, whereas the declarations regarding the distant points in time are possible for future-oriented individuals, but only when

relevant moral foundations are at least on an average level. Consideration of future consequences can involve envisioning not only positive but also negative aspects of behavior (e.g., losing free time by engaging in corporate volunteering, the risk of frustration or inadequate help to others), which might lead to a more selfish attitude (Zimbardo & Boyd, 2008). Our finding aligns with the empirical findings by Joireman et al. (2012), who emphasize that consideration of future consequences alone may not predict positive behavior unless it appears together with promotion orientation, that is, strivings for ideals, gains, and accomplishments. In the case of our data, individualizing moral foundations might serve as a form of promotion orientation, and that is why, in our study, primarily for the most distal declarations, associated personal norms are necessary to outweigh the possible adverse effects of engaging in voluntary action (congruent with Schwartz, 1977).

Furthermore, building on our findings, it is essential to situate corporate volunteering within the broader Polish socio-cultural and institutional landscape. As Adam (2003) and Nowotny (1992) have argued, time is framed differently across cultures and organizational fields. In the Polish context, where historical legacies of collectivism, pervasive uncertainty, and fluctuating levels of institutional trust shape everyday horizons, the future cannot be assumed to carry the same valence as in more individualistically oriented societies. Polish institutional cultures of time have shifted from emphasizing collective moral obligations (e.g., solidarity and communal welfare) toward valorizing individualized moral performance and entrepreneurial self-management (Adam, 2003; Nowotny, 1992). Consequently, individuals' reflections on future consequences may depend not only on

stable personality dispositions but also on culturally specific narratives about what constitutes a desirable future and how certain the future can be. With higher uncertainty and lower trust for institutions (Łopaciuk-Gonczaryk, 2019), the future consequences in Poland may not be valued as strongly as they are much less predictable than the immediate consequences. That might be why consideration of future consequences is related to intentions for prosocial behaviors, such as volunteering, only when a person can consider the values that guide their actions.

Włodarczyk (2011) also highlights the specifics of Polish volunteering, noting that altruistic engagement often coexists with ambivalent attitudes toward formal organizations. It may suggest that employees' intentions to volunteer may be tempered by skepticism about the authenticity of organizations and by the perceived necessity to demonstrate moral performance. Similarly, Łopaciuk-Gonczaryk (2019) demonstrates that participation in social networks in Poland fosters generalized trust and respect for others, but this effect is contingent on the strength and quality of interpersonal ties; weak or purely transactional networks may exacerbate social distrust. Thus, enhancing corporate volunteering intentions among Polish employees should require not only appeals to future consequences and individual moral foundations, but also explicit efforts to build organizational trust and demonstrate tangible, community-embedded outcomes (Knieć & Piszczek, 2023).

The quality of experiences during volunteering influences its outcomes and the overall consequences of engagement, as stated by the volunteer process model (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). In general, the more satisfied and committed volunteers are and the more they develop a volunteer role identity, the more they will engage in their corporate volunteering activities, especially if they are intrinsically motivated and can choose the type of activity they want to undertake (van Schie et al., 2019). Our results extend beyond these observations by demonstrating that moral foundations can facilitate engagement intentions, as well as future-oriented volunteers' willingness to get involved in the distant future. Thus, framing volunteering as an activity that is socially generative (caring for the future; Magatti et al., 2019), congruent with both care and justice, but also moral concerns related to group integrity, might be important in enhancing corporate volunteers' recruitment.

Practical Implications

The findings have implications for the design and implementation of corporate social responsibility (CSR) programs. This is particularly important for today's companies, given that the environmental, social, and governance (ESG) criteria that need to be fulfilled (Kulej-Dudek & Dudek, 2024). Corporate volunteering can support organizations in

enhancing their social responsibility (Rodell et al., 2017) and build a positive image for clients and future employees, as indicated in qualitative studies (Nowakowska et al., 2024a). Training programs and workshops can further emphasize the alignment of individual and organizational values. For employees with high individualizing moral foundations, offering CSR activities as extensions of their ethical values could enhance participation rates. Conversely, for employees with lower moral foundations, targeted interventions could aim to build awareness of the moral significance of volunteering. In this regard, one practical extension would be to apply structured moral profiling tools (such as brief versions of the Moral Foundations Questionnaire) to segment employees based on their moral orientations. This would enable the delivery of targeted communication strategies: messages emphasizing compassion and fairness for those high in individualizing foundations, and messages appealing to loyalty or group cohesion for those higher in binding foundations. Such moral tailoring could increase engagement by aligning outreach with the values that matter most to employees, and support companies in fulfilling the ESG criteria related to care for practices that enhance employee well-being at work.

Notably, the corporate volunteering activities suggested by the company should align with employees' motivations to volunteer (Stukas et al., 2009), thereby enhancing the positive outcomes for both beneficiaries and employees (Stukas et al., 2016). Unfortunately, there is evidence that corporate volunteering programs are sometimes used primarily for reputational purposes rather than serving the community and making a genuine impact. Employees also notice this, as seen in Poland (Nowakowska et al., 2024a). When corporate volunteering programs do not meaningfully align with employees' values, it can be challenging to encourage and maintain participation among potential volunteers, as internalizing a volunteer role identity may be difficult or impossible (van Schie et al., 2019). This important ethical issue ought to be acknowledged in future policies for designing, implementing, reporting, and evaluating corporate volunteering programs. For example, impact measurements could be introduced, and the perspectives of potential and actual corporate volunteers could be taken into account. Organizations could implement impact measurements aligned with ESG reporting to ensure authenticity and transparency of their activities. One way to achieve this is through the participatory design of such initiatives, which can increase engagement and foster a sense of shared responsibility.

A further recommendation involves embedding corporate volunteering activities into employees' formal career development trajectories. This could include integrating volunteering experiences into leadership training, personal development plans, or even performance review systems. Such integration would reinforce the future-oriented motivation

identified in this study, and promote volunteering not only as an ethical act but also as a recognized dimension of professional growth within the organization. Moreover, it could help the company excel in ESG criteria related to supporting employees' professional and personal development.

Organizations seeking to increase employee participation in corporate volunteering should consider strategies that foster future-oriented thinking and emphasize individualizing moral values simultaneously. For example, CSR initiatives could highlight the long-term impacts of volunteering on beneficiaries, thus appealing to employees' consideration of future consequences. Additionally, organizations can cultivate a workplace culture that prioritizes harm reduction and fairness, potentially enhancing employees' moral engagement and motivation to volunteer.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

While this study provides valuable insights, it is not without limitations. First, the sample is limited to Polish employees, which may restrict the generalizability of the findings to other cultural contexts, especially those in which corporate volunteering has a longer tradition or is not yet popular. Future research could examine similar dynamics in diverse cultural settings to explore potential cross-cultural variations in the interplay between moral foundations and future-oriented cognition. Furthermore, given the lack of statistical data regarding employees with volunteering experience in Poland, we were able only to compare and approximate the similarities of our sample with the employee/volunteers populations in Poland. Therefore, the representativeness of our sample is not certain.

Second, the study relies on self-reported measures, which may be subject to social desirability bias. The measurement of volunteering intentions on a percentage scale was based on strategies previously used in corporate volunteering literature – a modification of a set of items with confirmed test–retest reliability to adjust it to corporate volunteering intentions. This urges to treat the results with caution. Employing longitudinal designs or incorporating objective measures of volunteering behavior (e.g., assessments by managers, coworkers, or beneficiaries, as well as diaries of voluntary engagement) could provide more robust evidence and enable the examination of the test–retest reliability of the percentage-based items used. For the moral foundations measurement, future studies in the field could employ implicit measures of morality-related constructs, such as the Implicit Association Test, affective priming techniques or linguistic analysis of spontaneous utterances of participants. Furthermore, experimental designs could help explore the impact of consideration of future consequences on volunteering intentions or actual behaviors (e.g., over time in a follow-up study). For example, priming thinking about

the future or immediate consequences of undertaking or not undertaking a behavior could be used in experimental schemes.

Participants also self-selected, reporting their prior volunteering experience with details such as length, time, and type of engagement; however, objective data about it was unobtainable due to the design we employed. Future studies could involve verifying voluntary activities and objectively classifying the participants' voluntary engagement. Lastly, while this research focuses on employees with prior volunteering experience as the primary source of people who might want to engage in another type of voluntary activity, it would be valuable to investigate how these findings apply to individuals without such experience (thus, do not have a reference point regarding volunteering in general), or to people who are not employed and seek job (thus, might be less concerned about the activities outside the regular responsibilities). Understanding the factors that motivate non-volunteers to engage in corporate volunteering could further enhance the practical applications of the findings.

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Data Availability The underlying data can be found on Open Science Framework at <https://osf.io/934w5>

Declarations

Conflict of interest The Authors declare no conflict of interest.

Ethical Approval The study protocol and materials were approved by Maria Grzegorzewska University Research Ethics Committee, decision no. 147/2023.

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