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The Psychological Impact of Global Crises on Conscripts:
Motivation, Life Satisfaction, Future Anxiety, and Moral
Foundations

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Introduction

We are currently living in a time marked by multiple, overlapping global crises. A crisis can be defined as "a situation in which something or someone is affected by one or more very serious problems" (Collins English Dictionary, 2024). In recent years, people across Europe and the world have been confronted with several life-altering events. These include the COVID-19 pandemic, which led to widespread lockdowns, job losses, social isolation, and economic instability; the increasing frequency of extreme weather events, highlighting the growing urgency of the climate crisis; and, most recently, the war in Ukraine, a conflict that has brought armed warfare back to European soil, causing sharp rises in inflation and living costs.

The uncertainty and fear associated with these crises have had far-reaching societal consequences, including the rise of political polarisation, the spread of extremist views, and a weakening of trust in democratic institutions (Törnberg et al., 2021). While different types of crises may affect individuals in distinct ways (Levin et al., 2021), the overall psychological impact remains under-researched, particularly in younger populations who may be especially vulnerable due to direct exposure to the consequences of such events. One institution with a particular interest in understanding these effects is the Austrian Armed Forces (AAF). According to a survey on the social situation in the AAF, various crises have contributed to increased levels of stress and financial insecurity, particularly among conscripts (Straub et al., 2023). Given its role in national crisis management and its close engagement with young people through mandatory military service, the AAF has a vested interest in examining how these global challenges impact the psychological well-being of conscripts.

The present study therefore aims to explore the potential psychological impact of three major contemporary crises, the COVID-19 pandemic, the climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine, on conscripts ("Stellungspflichtige"). The investigation focuses on three key constructs: work and learning motivation, to assess engagement with occupational and educational responsibilities; life satisfaction, to capture general well-being; and future anxiety, to reflect concerns about personal and societal prospects. Additionally, the moral foundations of the conscripts are investigated to identify any potential influence they may have on the relationship between crises and outcome constructs, and on the crises and outcomes themselves. Together, the investigation intends to provide a comprehensive understanding of the emotional and motivational landscape of young conscripts. Given the very limited study situation and the unique setting of this investigation, this study provides novel insights into the influences of the COVID-19 pandemic, climate change, the war in

Ukraine, and the underlying moral foundations.

The next section first summarizes the documented adverse influences of the three crises under study. Each crisis is then linked to the focal outcomes, work and learning motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety, and hypotheses are derived within the Conservation of Resources framework. Finally, drawing on Moral Foundations Theory, the potential role of moral orientations in shaping these associations is substantiated and corresponding moderation expectations are outlined.

The Effects of Crises

In recent years, the world has been confronted with multiple, overlapping global crises that have profoundly affected individual and societal well-being, especially amongst young people (Lass-Hennemann et al., 2024). The COVID-19 pandemic, the accelerating climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine have each posed unique psychological, social, and economic challenges. These crises not only threaten physical health and global stability but also exert considerable pressure on mental health and subjective well-being across diverse populations (Kurapov et al., 2023; Lawrance et al., 2022; Mishra et al., 2025; OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19), 2021). The following section provides an overview of the psychological and societal impacts associated with each of these global challenges, highlighting their relevance to public health, mental well-being, and individual life trajectories.

The COVID-19 pandemic, which was officially declared as such on 11th of March 2020 (CDC, 2023), substantially influenced the lives of many people, showing adverse effects on mental health, anxiety and depression (Prati & Mancini, 2021). Among others, health care workers, children, college students, individuals in economic vulnerability, and individuals with mental illnesses were found to be at increased risk of the adverse effects of the pandemic (Cullen et al., 2020; Pedrosa et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). A study in Saudi Arabia found that the generally moderate to severe psychological impact observed in the study depended on the symptoms experienced and the preventive measures taken (Alkhamees et al., 2020). In addition, psychological factors and reactions, such as maladaptive behaviour, emotional distress, and defensive reactions, were found to play a substantial role in public health compliance (Cullen et al., 2020). Collectively, these adverse outcomes will take a toll on the well-being of people worldwide and have contributed to increased polarisation and division in societies globally (Carothers & O'Donohue, 2020; Han & Lee, 2023).

The COVID-19 pandemic has had a considerable impact on mental health worldwide. However, another ongoing and escalating crisis, the climate crisis, is also having a profound

impact on psychological well-being and societal functioning. It is defined as 'the serious problems that are being caused, or are likely to be caused, by changes in the planet's climate, including weather extremes and hazards, ocean acidification and sea-level rise, loss of biodiversity, food and water insecurity, health risks, economic disruption, displacement, and even violent conflict.' (United Nations Development Programme, 2023). Since the year 2000, around 7.2% of the global intact forest landscape, defined as a contiguous area of forests and naturally treeless ecosystems that show no signs of human disturbance, has been lost (Potapov et al., 2017). Despite their significant contributions to biodiversity and climate, wilderness areas are disappearing at an alarming rate, especially in the Amazon and central Africa (Watson et al., 2016). Berry et al. (2010) found that climate change might affect mental health by exposing individuals to trauma, affecting physical health as well as community well-being. Additionally, concern about climate change was found to have a negative influence on well-being and psychological distress (McBride et al., 2021), and rapid global warming was even found to be associated with increased violent behaviour and aggression (Miles-Novelo & Anderson, 2019). In their systematic review, Aylward et al. (2022) identified evidence indicating that climate hazards, when interacting with social vulnerabilities, can elevate risks related to mental health, well-being, and anxiety. The terms "climate anxiety" (Clayton, 2020) and "nature deficit disorder" emerged, with the latter being defined as the deprivation of contact with nature and outdoor play, especially in children and adolescents (Todt, 2006).

In addition to the gradual yet escalating threat of climate change, the emergence of more acute geopolitical conflicts, such as the Russian invasion in Ukraine, has further contributed to global instability, affecting individuals both directly and indirectly through media exposure and economic fallout. This war on European soil was found to have a significant negative impact on the well-being of people across Europe (Scharbert et al., 2024). Resulting in the largest refugee crisis since World War II, huge impacts on the global economy, the environment (Pearce, 2022), and global food shortages (Scharbert et al., 2024), the war in Ukraine grew into a crisis affecting approximately 1.6 billion people around the world (United Nations, 2022). Around 60% of working people experienced a drop in their real incomes, and billions were missing from the accounts of various states for social protection and achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (United Nations, 2022). Kurapov et al. (2022) found that the war in Ukraine had a negative influence on mental health, fear, substance abuse, stress, loneliness, and burnout among Ukrainian university students and personnel. The crisis was found to affect not only those directly involved in the war, but also consumers of war-related information through various forms of media, who were equally

impacted (Murthy & Lakshminarayana, 2006), a finding similar to that of 9/11 (Mills, 2021). Supporting these findings, well-being has been shown to be affected by the salience of war in social media (Scharbert et al., 2024).

Taken together, these overlapping global crises have created unprecedented challenges for mental health and societal well-being, particularly among young people. Each crisis has introduced distinct stressors while also compounding one another's effects, leading to widespread psychological, social, and economic strain. In order to better understand the scope and nature of these impacts, the following sections examine the specific relationships of the discussed crises with the outcomes of work and learning motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety, in order to highlight their significance for public health and individual life outcomes.

Crises and Work Motivation

The first factor that is proposed to be influenced by the crises is work motivation, which is a pivotal factor in employee performance, job satisfaction, and organisational success (Sanjaya & Indrawati, 2025; Wang et al., 2024). It can be defined as 'a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity & duration' (Pinder, 1998; cited in: Anderson et al., 2001). The concept of work motivation encompasses the direction, intensity and persistence of behaviours related to one's occupation (Diefendorff et al., 2022).

In times of crisis, work motivation can be influenced by a range of contextual factors. A study conducted in Romania (Pânișoară & Pânișoară, 2012) highlighted the particular importance of workplace security during periods of economic downturn, alongside appreciation, inclusion, and support with personal problems. The study found that, while financial rewards and benefits remained key motivators, engaging and meaningful work was found to be a consistent driver of motivation. This assertion is further corroborated by the findings of Hitka et al. (2014), who identified basic salary as the predominant motivator in the aftermath of the 2012 financial crisis, followed by social benefits, job security, and other financial incentives. However, the same study found no significant change in overall work motivation compared to the pre-crisis period. Conversely, Pouchová (2011) reported an increase in motivation following the 2009 financial crisis, attributing this shift to heightened loyalty towards employers and a heightened fear of job loss. This change was accompanied by a diminished emphasis on financial rewards and an increased appreciation for workplace conditions, underscoring the notion that motivational responses can vary significantly

depending on the specific organisational and cultural context.

While the impact of economic downturns on work motivation has been explored in past research, the impact of more recent global crises, namely the COVID-19 pandemic, the climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine, has only recently begun to attract scholarly attention. The following section provides an overview of emerging findings on how these events have shaped work motivation in different contexts.

Research on the connection between the COVID-19 pandemic and work motivation is relatively scarce, and often limited to the immediate effects during and shortly after the pandemic. A meta-analysis of 135 samples ($N = 61,470$) explored workers COVID-19 distress, more specifically their psychological and psychosomatic strain in regards to experiencing the COVID-19 pandemic and the virus (Jimenez et al., 2023). Overall, it was found that COVID-19 distress affected job satisfaction, burnout, and task performance, with anxiety and depression, not COVID-19 distress itself, being linked to reduced work engagement. In another study, Doan et al. (2023) assessed the work motivation of Vietnamese health workers in hospitals and facilities during the COVID-19 pandemic, with results suggesting a substantial decrease in work motivation among the health workers during the outbreak. In addition to more conventional factors such as workload and the administrative level of the workplace, factors like adaptability to work pressure and work safety were found to have large impacts on motivation. Additionally, the results indicate a shift from extrinsic to intrinsic motivators for COVID-19 tasks, particularly a decrease in the importance of financial motivators. In line with this, Bajrami et al. (2021) found that the COVID-19 pandemic negatively impacted job motivation, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions in the hospitality industry, with key predictors being job insecurity and changes in the organisation. Also, it was found that work engagement was lower than usual during the COVID-19 pandemic, with anxiety, depression, insomnia, and somatisation being more prevalent among those who resumed work (Song et al., 2020). The major risk factor identified was worrying about unemployment. In contrast, work intensity induced through the COVID-19 pandemic and COVID-19-related organisational support were found to positively influence public service motivation and job satisfaction (Lee & Na, 2023). Wolor et al. (2020) found that working from home as well as working shifts can be useful approaches for maintaining employee motivation during the COVID-19 pandemic, while Sonnenschein et al. (2022) found that working from home increased motivation and productivity only for some. These findings align with those of Tovmasyan and Minasyan (2020), which state that work motivation differed depending on whether individuals work at their workplace or remotely from home,

with only 12% finding working from home motivating.

While the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic has presented an acute and immediate disruption to employment opportunities, the ongoing and long-term nature of the climate crisis (i.e. the ongoing and long-term changes in global temperatures, resulting in extreme weather events, rising sea levels and decreased air quality, amongst other effects) has introduced new, more subtle motivational challenges for individuals, especially members of younger generations who are concerned about the future. To date, research on the direct relationship between climate change and work motivation is minimal. Related findings suggest that environmental awareness and workplace culture can shape how motivated individuals feel, particularly in pro-environmental contexts. For example, research has indicated that employees are more engaged and motivated when their workplace incorporates environmental practices into policies such as training and performance appraisals, and that this can also translate to non-workplace settings (Hicklenton et al., 2019). It has been found that climate change concerns can influence work motivation, particularly among young people. A global survey published in *The Lancet Planetary Health* found that over 80% of young Americans are concerned about climate change, with 64% stating that it could impact their career decisions (Hickman et al., 2021). Furthermore, 67.4% reported a preference for working with employers who are committed to sustainability. The study also revealed that some young individuals question the relevance of their future careers in a world impacted by climate crises. This may reduce traditional work motivation or redirect it toward more environmentally meaningful careers. Additionally, climate concerns are often integrated into long-term career planning as a form of climate action. These findings suggest an indirect connection between climate change and work motivation through climate change anxiety, as employees who experience climate anxiety may be more likely to engage in environmental actions at work if their organisation supports such behaviours. At the same time, climate change anxiety could occupy the thoughts of employees, rendering them less able to motivate themselves and concentrate on work tasks.

In contrast to both the global health emergency and the climate crisis, the war in Ukraine poses a significant geopolitical threat with direct consequences for national stability, economic structures, and individual work conditions, particularly for those residing in affected regions. It is unclear whether there is a direct relationship between the war in Ukraine and work motivation. Horbal and Melnychuk (2023) examined problematic factors influencing motivation among Ukrainian employees and the potential impact of demotivation on work efficiency in the context of the ongoing war in Ukraine and the associated challenges

posed by the COVID-19 pandemic. The primary factors identified were unfair remuneration, a lack of recognition, and a lack of meaning in assigned tasks. Evidence showed that, due to the crises, existing problems increased and new ones emerged, such as the outflow of qualified personnel (see Luhova et al., 2023), and the freezing and reduction of wages in many industries. Generally, the hypotheses regarding the decrease in work efficiency due to demotivation as well as the emergence of motivation problems were confirmed. Similarly, Barda and Pozniak (2024) examined staff motivation during wartime in Ukraine, highlighting demotivators such as insecurity, emotional strain, and uncertainty. They recommend open communication, support measures, and development opportunities to sustain morale and productivity in crisis conditions.

Overall, work motivation was found to be sensitive to external stressors, particularly during times of crisis (Sanjaya & Indrawati, 2025; Wang et al., 2024). Research on economic downturns has shown varied motivational responses, shaped by cultural and organisational factors. Emerging studies suggest that the COVID-19 pandemic led to both declines and shifts in motivation, influenced by job insecurity, remote work, and leadership adaptability. While research on the climate crisis and the war in Ukraine remains limited, early findings indicate that environmental anxiety and geopolitical instability may indirectly affect motivation, especially among younger individuals and those in directly affected regions. These findings highlight the intricate and dynamic relationship between global crises and work motivation.

Crises and Learning Motivation

For individuals not yet engaged in formal employment, whether due to age or other factors, learning motivation is proposed as another important factor. Learning motivation can be defined as "the factors that drive individuals to engage in goal-directed behaviour related to acquiring knowledge and skills" (Learning Motivation – an Overview | ScienceDirect Topics, n.d.; based on Boekaerts, 2001).

The COVID-19 pandemic has had a notable impact on learning motivation, influenced by a range of personal, social, and environmental stressors (Rahiem, 2021). However, findings remain mixed. While some studies point to positive motivational outcomes during the pandemic (Rahiem, 2021), others emphasise negative consequences (Corpus et al., 2022; Tan, 2020; Tang & He, 2023; Suarsi & Wibawa, 2021), often linked to a lack of infrastructure and reduced social support (Tan, 2020). A systematic review and meta-analysis of distance learning in nursing was conducted, which revealed statistically significant declines in student motivation and satisfaction in controlled studies. These findings highlight the mixed effectiveness of online education during the pandemic (Choi & Kim, 2024). Marler et al.

(2024) found that academic motivation was positively related to a sense of belonging, an experience that, along with socioeconomic status, was negatively affected by COVID-19-related distress. Drawing on self-determination theory, further research has shown that feelings of competence and autonomy are significant predictors of intrinsic learning motivation in university students (Pelikan et al., 2021; Holzer et al., 2021), with the latter most likely being heavily influenced by the COVID-19 pandemic.

In contrast to the growing body of research on COVID-19, the climate crisis remains an underexplored area in terms of its impact on learning motivation. Most existing studies focus on motivation to learn about climate change or to take climate-related action (e.g., Brick et al., 2021; Karpudewan & Mohd Ali Khan, 2017; Semenza et al., 2011), rather than investigating broader motivational dynamics. Generally, the stress induced by the climate crisis could have had negative influences on learning and learning motivation (Marsch et al., 2024), through the hindering of memory retrieval (see Wolf, 2009), or through other mental health problems like burnout (Zhang et al., 2025) and depression (Deng et al., 2022).

Similarly, research directly examining the impact of the war in Ukraine on learning motivation remains scarce. Nonetheless, existing studies offer valuable insights. Mamontova et al. (2023) found that the Russian invasion significantly disrupted academic life: 36% of students reported reduced time for education, and 18.67% noted decreased engagement in scientific work. Despite infrastructural damage, resource shortages, and the shift to remote learning, 67% of students still considered research an integral part of their academic experience. For female students in particular, a shift toward intrinsic interest and perceived value of research outcomes was observed. However, the overall trend indicated a decline in academic motivation. Moreover, the broader psychological toll of the invasion, such as increased mental health strain (Kurapov et al., 2023), likely further compromised the internal resources needed for sustained academic engagement.

Taken together, during the COVID-19 pandemic, learning motivation was influenced by factors such as social connection, autonomy, and perceived competence, though findings were mixed across contexts (Corpus et al., 2022; Rahiem, 2021). While some students maintained or even increased motivation, others experienced declines due to lack of support and infrastructure (Tan, 2020). Research on the climate crisis and war in Ukraine remains limited. However, early findings suggest that stress, mental health challenges, and disrupted learning environments could negatively affect motivation to learn, particularly through mechanisms like burnout, depression, and reduced academic engagement (e.g., Marsch et al., 2024; Mamontova et al., 2023).

Crises and Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is defined as 'the extent to which individuals perceive their life as meaningful, fulfilling, and of high quality' (American Psychological Association, n.d.). It is a key indicator of psychological well-being, and has been associated with increased productivity and effectiveness (Diener & Seligman, 2004; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Given that research in this field is not always exhaustive, studies on general well-being have also been included.

Building on this foundational understanding, numerous studies have explored how life satisfaction fluctuates during times of economic instability. Concerning the findings on economic downturn and life satisfaction, specifically the financial crisis, Clench-Aas and Holte (2017) investigated the impact of the financial crisis on life satisfaction in Europe for the years 2008 and 2010-2012, as part of the second period of recession. They identified a substantial decrease in life satisfaction for both periods, with the latter being less pronounced. Additionally, a continued decrease in life satisfaction was observed over the following three years, regardless of employment status. On the contrary, Lindblom and Lindblom (2017) found that life satisfaction was relatively high in Finland following the financial crisis. Significant differences emerged between socio-demographic groups. Higher life satisfaction was reported by women, individuals living with a partner, those with more than basic education, self-employed individuals, people with higher incomes, and students. In contrast, lower satisfaction was observed among the unemployed, those in precarious employment, individuals with only primary education, and those living alone or with their parents. Corroborating these findings, Boyce et al. (2018) also found generally limited change in life satisfaction following the financial crisis. However, they identified substantial changes in life satisfaction for unemployed individuals, those who lost their income, and for sick and disabled individuals. Older, wealthier and more educated people tended to have higher levels of life satisfaction. Beyond the economic factors, researchers have also explored the buffering role of social capital in times of crisis. Habibov and Afandi (2015) found that life satisfaction declined sharply in transition countries during the 2007 financial crisis, particularly in terms of economic outlook and optimism. While institutional trust decreased, interpersonal trust increased, suggesting its potential as a protective factor. Both forms of trust positively influenced life satisfaction, with institutional trust gaining importance in the post-crisis period. Strengthening social capital may therefore help mitigate the negative impact of large-scale crises on well-being in vulnerable regions.

More recently, the relevance of life satisfaction has become even more pronounced in

the context of ongoing global crises. In the face of major global crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic, climate change, and the war in Ukraine, life satisfaction has been subject to considerable strain. The ensuing sections explore the impact of these crises on individuals' perceptions of their lives, emphasising both the challenges encountered and the potential protective factors that have been identified.

The effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on life satisfaction have been widely studied, providing valuable insight into how people coped with the sudden and prolonged uncertainty. Large-scale reviews paint a somewhat mixed picture. A substantial meta-analysis across European countries ($N = 69,136$) showed that poor housing conditions, such as living alone or lacking outdoor space, were linked to heightened loneliness and diminished life satisfaction (Keller et al., 2022). In contrast, a comprehensive review by Aknin et al. (2022) concluded that, somewhat surprisingly, life satisfaction remained relatively stable during the first year of the pandemic, despite significant increases in anxiety, distress, and depression. Findings from national studies further illustrate this heterogeneity. In Germany, Wettstein and Vogel (2021) observed a slight increase in life satisfaction following the first wave, although depressive symptoms simultaneously rose, particularly among older adults. Similarly, O'Donnell et al. (2020) found that the salience of the pandemic even led to short-term increases in both happiness and life satisfaction. On the other hand, Bittmann (2022) reported a pronounced decline in life satisfaction in Germany, especially among individuals with lower levels of institutional trust before the crisis. Moreover, Bidzan-Bluma et al. (2020) found that older adults reported higher life satisfaction than younger and middle-aged participants, despite the former experiencing greater depressive symptoms, lower trait anxiety, and perceiving less threat from the coronavirus. Several studies also shed light on protective and risk factors for life satisfaction during the pandemic. Bakkeli (2021) identified ill health, unstable employment, and reduced access to family support as predictors of lower life satisfaction. Conversely, higher scores on psychological well-being and adaptive coping were found to act as protective factors (Lopes & Nihei, 2021). Trzebiński et al. (2020) likewise reported that stronger meaning in life, higher life satisfaction, and basic hope were associated with lower levels of anxiety and COVID-19-related stress. Finally, loneliness emerged as one of the most powerful predictors, accounting for up to 52% of the variance in life satisfaction and nearly half of the variance in overall mental well-being (Lorber et al., 2023).

While the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic precipitated acute disruptions to daily life and health systems, the climate crisis poses a more gradual yet pervasive threat, with implications for environmental conditions, public health, and overall life satisfaction on a

global scale. In their study, Maddison and Rehdanz (2011) found that countries with higher numbers of degree-months, describing the deviation, warm and cold, from a base temperature of 18.3 degrees Celsius, show significantly lower levels of life satisfaction. More specifically, rainfall, temperature, and sunshine were found to have small, significant effects on life satisfaction (Lignier et al., 2023). Ortega-Gil et al. (2021) found a negative relationship between life satisfaction and both environmental problems and energy taxes, as well as a positive relationship between life satisfaction and a circular economy, environmental tax, and environmental protection expenditure parameters. In another study, Timlin et al. (2021) examined the impact of climate change and permafrost thaw on mental wellness. They found nature and outdoor activities to increase mental wellness and satisfaction with life. Additionally, participants expressed concern about climate change and the perceived lack of effort by local authorities in addressing it. In a study conducted in Russia, Mkrtchyan et al. (2018) investigated the impact of climate change on the subjective well-being of households, more specifically satisfaction with life. A significant negative impact was found, comparable to factors such as income, employment, health, and the quality of potable water and air. While Rajani et al. (2019) did not find an association between mean temperature and precipitation and life satisfaction, they identified a significant negative relationship between environmental degradation and life satisfaction. Lastly, Barrington-Leigh and Behzadnejad (2017) found that temporal weather variations affect life satisfaction, with a more substantial impact found for women and individuals with poor health conditions. In line with these findings, a significant negative association was found between air pollution levels and life satisfaction among Londoners (MacKerron & Mourato, 2009).

While climate change influences life satisfaction primarily through environmental degradation and existential concern, the war in Ukraine presents a more immediate, human-driven crisis. Its psychological effects extend far beyond the borders of the conflict, affecting both those directly exposed to violence and individuals globally through media coverage, economic instability, and heightened fear. Research shows that the war in Ukraine negatively affected mental health, fear, substance use, stress, loneliness, burnout, and other related conditions in university students and personnel in Ukraine, as well as those relocated in Russia (Kurapov et al., 2022; Konstantinov et al., 2023). Those exposed to more violence and suffering showed higher levels of anxiety, depression, stress, and trauma-related symptoms, while overall depression and anxiety levels were surprisingly low (Kurapov et al., 2023). Optimism, hope, resilience, post-traumatic growth, the use of emotional support, and life in occupation were all predictors of life satisfaction among Ukrainian students (Pavlova et al.,

2024). Looking at people outside of Ukraine, Mărcău et al. (2022) found that the quality of life of people in Romania was negatively affected by the Russian invasion of Ukraine, even though they were not directly affected. Participants reported fear of escalation and fear of the Russian Federation using its nuclear arsenal. Kaniasty et al. (2024) found that a high sense of danger due to the Russian invasion of Ukraine is associated with higher levels of psychological distress as well as lower levels of affect balance in Poles. A sense of country's mastery and confidence in personal mastery were identified as protective factors. Contradicting these findings, Coupe and Obrizan (2016) found that while people directly affected by the war showed a decline in happiness comparable to the loss of happiness a well-off person would experience when suddenly becoming poor, people not directly affected by the war showed no change in happiness.

Overall, life satisfaction is a key indicator of psychological well-being and is influenced by broader societal conditions (Diener & Seligman, 2004). Research indicates that crises such as economic downturns, the COVID-19 pandemic, the climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine can negatively affect life satisfaction, particularly among vulnerable populations (Clench-Aas & Holte, 2017; Bittmann, 2022; Mkrtchyan et al., 2018; Kurapov et al., 2022). While some groups exhibit resilience, factors such as trust, coping strategies, and social conditions have been found to play a crucial role in moderating these effects. These findings underscore the need to investigate further how intersecting global crises impact life satisfaction and well-being.

Crises and Future Anxiety

While life satisfaction reflects an individual's current appraisal of their quality of life, in periods of global instability and crisis, concerns regarding the future can be exacerbated, resulting in a condition characterised by apprehension about what lies ahead. This emotional state, often termed "future anxiety", encompasses anticipatory fear and uncertainty. It can be argued that this condition is particularly vulnerable to external threats, including, but not limited to, pandemics, environmental degradation and armed conflict (see Barchielli et al., 2022; Nazir et al., 2025; Xie et al., 2023). These threats have the potential to influence individuals' perspectives on the future uniquely.

The global COVID-19 pandemic has had profound and wide-reaching consequences for health, society and the economy, as a crisis of such scope has never happened before (Adiga et al., 2020). It has become a pivotal event in exploring how such crises shape individuals' fears and expectations about the future. Generally, results indicate up to a threefold increase in anxiety levels compared to pre-pandemic levels (Santabárbara et al.,

2021), with healthcare workers (36%) and students (34.7%) being most affected, followed by the general population (34%), teachers (27.2%), parents (23.3%), pregnant women (19.5%), and police (8.79%) (Saeed et al., 2022). Duplaga and Grysztar (2021) found an association between the COVID-19 Pandemic and increased future anxiety. More specifically, significant relationships between the future anxiety scale scores and gender, vocational status, health literacy, perceived health threat through COVID-19, and COVID-19-related conspiracy belief scores were found. Kästner et al. (2022) found 47% of school-aged children 'sometimes' to 'often' indicated COVID-19-related fears about the future, and that those with future anxiety reported lower health-related quality of life. In their study, Paredes et al. (2020) found that higher resilience acts as a protective factor against the COVID-19 threat's influence on future anxiety and subsequent effects on well-being.

Beyond public health emergencies, the ongoing climate crisis poses a threat to human existence that is both slow-moving and increasingly recognised as a significant factor influencing future-related anxiety, particularly among younger generations. The relationship between climate change and future anxiety is investigated mainly by looking at climate change anxiety. In their systematic review of qualitative literature, Soutar and Wand (2022) investigated the scope of and responses to climate change anxiety. According to the authors, climate change anxiety encompasses concerns about threats to livelihood, future generations, apocalyptic futures, the perceived lack of responses to climate change, and competing worries. Responses include, amongst others, symptoms of anxiety, feelings of helplessness, and various coping strategies like distancing or fostering support. Unsurprisingly, Daeninck et al. (2023) found that environmental degree students reported more climate anxiety compared to non-environmental degree students, indicating that increased education leads to more anxiety. Environmental degree students were found to consider the implications of climate change for their future planning and to use coping strategies more frequently. Stewart et al. (2023) found that worry is the most frequent response to climate change impacts, particularly concerning future generations and the lack of societal responses to these concerns. Even though anxiety was less prevalent, it was more intense when present. Also, it was found that political conservatives were less likely to express worry or anxiety. In another study, climate anxiety demonstrated a statistically significant positive association with anxiety and depression, avoidance of climate change in everyday life, and frustration of basic psychological needs (Wullenkord et al., 2021). In general, future-related anxiety about climate change was found to be shaped by the perceived severity of environmental degradation, being either hindering or motivating depending on the intensity (Parmentier et al., 2024). Lastly,

contrary to other findings, Zander et al. (2019) were unable to reproduce an adverse effect of natural hazards and climate change on life satisfaction, happiness, or other measures of well-being (see above; e.g., Luechinger and Raschky, 2009; Maddison & Rehdanz, 2011). However, it was found that heat stress is linked to uncertainty about one's future, making it difficult to plan for the long term.

In addition to environmental and health concerns, geopolitical instability, such as the war in Ukraine, introduces another layer of uncertainty, further amplifying fears about safety, security, and long-term global stability. It has the potential to exacerbate widespread concerns, as it could portend an escalation in armed conflicts on European soil. Kurapov et al. (2023) found that six months into the war, many Ukrainians directly affected by the war reported increased levels of anxiety, depression and stress, with women being affected more strongly and young people showing more resilience. Those that fled to other countries displayed higher levels of anxiety, depression and stress. Regarding those not directly affected by the war, an online study of students in Germany and Finland by Greenglass et al. (2024) found that anxiety from watching the war increased through interference, war worry, and coronavirus threat. Another study on media exposure of the war conducted in Germany found similar results, with participants reporting high fear of the impact of war and higher levels of anxiety than at the highest point during the COVID-19 pandemic (Gottschick et al., 2023). Investigating the influence of the Russian invasion of Ukraine on mental well-being in Germany, Massag et al. (2023) found that while anxiety and emotional distress decreased after six months compared to during the first few weeks of the war, levels remained elevated, and this was especially the case in low-income households. Similar results were replicated in a Polish sample for anxiety and depression, with women, low-income individuals, unemployed persons, and people with poor relationships and sleep problems being more affected than others (Kasierska et al., 2023). Celuch et al. (2024) discovered that elevated anxiety related to COVID-19 and the war was linked to increased psychological distress and perceived stress. Additionally, their findings revealed an interaction effect between the two crises on psychological distress, underscoring the compounded burden of these overlapping events. Finally, Shevlin et al. (2022) argue that the war in Ukraine and its effects on anxiety are likely to remain over time and across generations, within and outside of Ukraine.

Taken together, future anxiety was found to intensify during periods of global crisis generally. The COVID-19 pandemic, climate change, and the war in Ukraine have each contributed to elevated anxiety levels, particularly among vulnerable groups such as students, healthcare workers, and low-income individuals. Studies show that COVID-19 increased

future-related anxiety across populations, while climate change has been linked to existential worry and motivational shifts, especially in youth. The war in Ukraine has added another layer of uncertainty, with media exposure and proximity to conflict amplifying distress. Together, these crises underscore how external threats can shape individuals' outlook on the future and heighten psychological vulnerability.

Crises and the Conservation of Resources Theory

In the context of these concurrent crises and their diverse psychological ramifications, it becomes crucial to adopt a theoretical framework that can help elucidate how individuals respond to such large-scale disruptions. The Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 1991) offers a compelling framework for understanding the psychological effects of crisis exposure, particularly in relation to work and learning motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety. The subsequent section details this theoretical model and its application to the present study.

The COR Theory is based on the idea that human beings aspire to a world that provides them with pleasure as well as physical, social, and psychological resources (see Freud, 1900/1913; Maslow, 1968, cited in: Hobfoll, 1989). According to Mullen (1981; cited in: Hobfoll, 1989), the safety and enhancement of the self are fundamental goals that individuals strive for. Therefore, the model proposes that individuals seek to develop and sustain personal characteristics and social circumstances that increase the likelihood of reinforcement while avoiding their loss (see Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 1982, cited in Hobfoll, 1989). Psychological stress, defined as the threat of resource loss, the loss of resources, and the lack of resource gain following resource investment, can lead to a resource conservation response, as these resources are needed for attaining the individual's goals, status, objects, and characteristics. This stress is often exacerbated by environmental circumstances, thereby threatening individuals' most fundamental resources and those that help them define themselves (see Brown & Andrews, 1986; Cooley, 1902; Erikson, 1968; James, 1890, cited in Hobfoll, 1989). In short, the theory proposes that individuals are motivated to protect, maintain, and acquire resources (such as health, stability, and future opportunities) to cope with stressors and minimise the loss of such resources.

In the present study, the various global crises can be interpreted as threats to an individual's resources, such as security and financial stability, and could lead to a loss of these resources. They would therefore result in a motivation to protect one's resources, and potentially in harmful effects on well-being and feelings of security, both in the present and the future, while having potential positive effects on motivation in the context of work

(protecting financial resources) or helping to defend one's country from aggressors. This research examines how the COVID-19 pandemic, the climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine may pose threats to these resources. Drawing on existing literature and empirical evidence, specific hypotheses were developed to explore the directional influence of these crises on work motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety among conscripts at the AAF. These hypotheses are detailed below.

Combined Motivation. In summary, previously discussed research showed that the COVID-19 pandemic had an overall negative impact on work motivation (Doan et al., 2023), with the extent and direction of this effect being moderated by factors such as job type, perceived job security (Bajrami et al., 2021), adaptability, and work setting (e.g., remote vs. on-site; Wolor et al., 2020). At the same time, no clear direction of influence could be identified for learning motivation, with motivation often depending on individual competence and autonomy (Corpus et al., 2022; Holzer et al., 2021; Rahiem, 2021; Tan, 2020). Regarding the climate crisis, previous research has shown that employees who experienced higher levels of climate change concern reported greater work motivation when employed by organisations that demonstrated strong environmental commitments (Hicklenton et al., 2019). In contrast, the absence of such alignment may have led to reduced motivation and career disengagement (Hickman et al., 2021). For learning motivation, due to the lack of direct previous research, no conclusions can be drawn. Finally, Employees exposed to the consequences of the war in Ukraine reported lower work motivation unless buffered by supportive workplace conditions (Barda & Pozniak, 2024), while learning motivation was generally negatively impacted, primarily due to a lack of time and decreased engagement (Mamontova et al., 2023).

Within the framework of the COR Theory, crises represent threats to core resources such as health, stability, and livelihood. When individuals perceive risks of resource loss (e.g., financial insecurity, diminished safety, interrupted careers), they may increase effort and motivation to protect or replenish these resources (e.g., through work or learning). Conversely, when resource loss is too severe or when resource investment is not expected to yield gains, motivation may decline (resource conservation response). In the specific context of conscripts in the AAF, which are directly affected by the investigated crises, work and learning motivation may be enhanced by the willingness to defend or help one's country against the various crises. Nevertheless, COR Theory suggests that the effect of concurrent crises on work and learning motivation (summarized under combined motivation) could be context-dependent, supporting an undirected hypothesis:

H1: The COVID-19 pandemic, the climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine collectively

have an impact on combined motivation.

Life satisfaction. Regarding life satisfaction, the previously discussed research found that the COVID-19 pandemic affected life satisfaction in complex and varied ways, with overall stability or decline depending on individual factors such as age (Wettstein & Vogel, 2021), psychological resilience (Bakkeli, 2021; Lopes & Nihei, 2021), and institutional trust (Bittmann, 2022). COR Theory posits that well-being is linked to the stability and sufficiency of one's resources. The pandemic threatened essential resources such as health, social connections, and economic security. Perceived or actual loss of these resources could diminish life satisfaction, consistent with COR Theory's prediction that resource loss is disproportionately more powerful than resource gain. It is therefore hypothesized that:

H2: The COVID-19 pandemic yields a negative impact on life satisfaction.

Individuals who experienced high levels of climate-related worry or anxiety report lower life satisfaction, unless buffered by active engagement in environmental action or affiliation with environmentally responsible communities or organisations (Mkrtchyan et al., 2018; Ortega-Gil et al., 2021; Timlin et al., 2021). Regarding COR, the climate crisis threatens both tangible resources (e.g., safety from natural disasters, food and water security) and psychological resources (e.g., a sense of control over the future). Persistent exposure to climate-related stress undermines individuals' ability to maintain and accumulate resources, thereby reducing life satisfaction. This chronic resource threat, the ongoing climate anxiety, could erode psychological well-being even in the absence of immediate disaster. It is therefore hypothesized that:

H3: The climate crisis yields a negative impact on life satisfaction.

Individuals experiencing higher exposure to war-related stressors, either directly or indirectly, reported lower life satisfaction, unless moderated by psychological resilience, optimism, or confidence in personal and national coping capacities (Kurapov et al., 2022; Konstantinov et al., 2023; Mărcău et al., 2022; Pavlova et al., 2024). War directly jeopardizes basic resources such as safety, housing, social belonging, and financial stability (depending on proximity). According to COR Theory, such acute and large-scale losses could have immediate and strong negative effects on life satisfaction, as individuals are confronted with the simultaneous depletion of multiple essential resources, often with limited opportunities for recovery or replacement. Also, conscripts at the AAF, might be specifically prone to experiencing such worries. It is therefore hypothesized that:

H4: The war in Ukraine yields a negative impact on life satisfaction.

Future anxiety. In the previously discussed research, it was found that the COVID-19

pandemic increased levels of future anxiety, particularly due to prolonged uncertainty, perceived loss of control, and disruption of life plans, with younger individuals and those with lower psychological resilience being especially affected (Duplaga & Grysztar, 2021; Kästner et al., 2022; Paredes et al., 2020). COR Theory emphasizes that the anticipation of resource loss (not only actual loss) generates stress. The pandemic introduced prolonged uncertainty about health, employment, and societal functioning, thereby potentially undermining individuals' sense of control and resource security. This anticipated instability could foster heightened anxiety about the future, and it is therefore hypothesized that:

H5: The COVID-19 pandemic yields a positive impact on future anxiety.

The climate crisis increased future anxiety, particularly among individuals with higher environmental awareness, as perceived environmental degradation and uncertainty about future conditions undermine long-term planning and psychological well-being (Daeninck et al., 2023; Parmentier et al., 2024; Soutar & Wand, 2022). The climate crisis exemplifies a chronic, global threat to resources that individuals cannot easily control or replenish. Awareness of worsening environmental conditions signals an inevitable erosion of resources critical for survival and well-being, which could reinforce persistent future anxiety, specifically in young people. COR Theory's principle that resource threat fuels stress further supports this expectation. It is therefore hypothesized that:

H6: The climate crisis yields a positive impact on future anxiety.

Exposure to the war in Ukraine, whether direct, via displacement, or indirect, through media coverage, was found to be associated with increased future anxiety, particularly among individuals with lower socioeconomic status or limited coping resources, and may be compounded by concurrent global crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic (Gottschick et al., 2023; Greenglass et al., 2024; Kurapov et al., 2023). Overall, war creates acute and ongoing threats to safety, stability, and economic security, not only for those directly exposed but also for those indirectly affected via media or economic repercussions, or those who would be affected if the conflict were to escalate. COR Theory highlights that when individuals foresee continuous or escalating resource losses (e.g., through prolonged conflict or geopolitical instability), their future anxiety could increase. The compounding effect of multiple crises may amplify this threat, heightening anticipatory stress. It is therefore hypothesized that:

H7: The war in Ukraine yields a positive impact on future anxiety.

Crises and Moral Foundations

While the aforementioned research is useful to establish connections between crises and work and learning motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety, the underlying convictions and

moral foundations often remain underinvestigated. The Moral Foundations Theory (MFT) offers a framework for understanding how people's intuitive moral values influence their reactions to crises (Haidt & Graham, 2007, Graham et al., 2013; Haidt, 2013). It posits that humans evolved intuitive moral foundations, on which moral systems are built depending on the culture. The main foundations are Care/Harm, Fairness/Cheating, which can be summarized under individualising foundations, and Loyalty/Betrayal, Authority/Subversion, Purity/Degradation, which can be summarized under binding moral foundations. Liberals tend to emphasise the individualising foundations, while conservatives draw more evenly but especially on the binding foundations (Clark et al., 2017; Graham et al., 2009; Malka et al., 2016).

For instance, these binding foundations have been linked with a strong adherence to the ideologies of Donald Trump (Graham et al., 2020), the incumbent Republican president widely regarded as conservative. Individuals who strongly support Trump have been observed to exhibit a propensity for authority and group loyalty. Similarly, in the context of organizational crisis management, it was found that crises amplify authority and loyalty foundations, while fairness and care became contested (Alpaslan & Mitroff, 2021). On the other hand, it was found that the care/Harm and fairness foundations predicted behavioural compliance during the COVID-19 pandemic, with Sanctity being found to be predictive for wearing face masks and complying with social distancing (Chan, 2021). Corroborating these findings, regarding the climate crisis, it was found that compassion (Care/Harm) and fairness are strong positive predictors of climate action (Dickinson et al., 2016). Similarly, Milfont et al. (2019) observed an interaction between liberalism, the individualising foundations, and environmental action. In another study, Hall et al. (2024) investigated the connection between war, more specifically the Battle of Mosul (2017-2017), and moral foundations. Quite surprisingly, it was found that home damage was connected to both binding and individualising foundations, with the latter connection being more pronounced. Interestingly, higher individualising foundations were found to be connected to parochial altruism, meaning altruism for the in-group, primarily for shielding potential threats of the out-group. Generally, the interaction between war and moral foundations was found to be context-dependent, e.g. on lack of resources or cultural institutions, with both individualising and binding foundations positively influencing group cohesion.

Overall, these findings demonstrate the complex ways in which moral foundations can influence, or are influenced by, the individual's perception of crises. Building on Moral Foundations Theory, moral intuitions act as interpretive lenses that shape appraisals of

societally salient threats. From an appraisal perspective, the motivational and affective impact of crises depends on how individuals evaluate their personal and moral relevance. Even though the previous research indicates some directional influences regarding the investigated crises in the present study, for example the connection of both the climate crisis and the COVID-19 pandemic with the individualising foundations (Chan, 2021; Dickinson et al., 2016; Milfont et al., 2019), any hypothesis regarding the investigated constructs of work and learning motivation (summarized under combined motivation), life satisfaction, and future anxiety cannot be definitely deducted, as they are highly individual and context dependent. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H8: The influence of the COVID-19 pandemic, the climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine on combined motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety is moderated by moral foundations.

Methods

Design and Setting

This study employed a cross-sectional observational design to examine associations between three concurrent crises (COVID-19 pandemic, climate crisis, war in Ukraine) and three outcomes (work and learning motivation, life satisfaction, future anxiety). Data collection was conducted in cooperation with the Austrian Ministry of Defence; permission was granted by the Stellungskommission (recruitment commission).

Recruitment and Sample

The initial sample consisted of 181 conscripts, recruited at the recruitment commissions in Vienna and St. Pölten. Most of the participants therefore came from an urban context. Recruitment was carried out using convenience sampling: all conscripts present on the day of the researcher's visit were invited to voluntarily participate in the study. Due to the Austrian conscription process, most participants were male. As compensation, three gift cards were randomly drawn among those who completed the questionnaire.

Exclusions. Two self-report honesty items flagged 2 cases for exclusion. Two MFQ attention checks were applied (high endorsement of "good at math" relevance; low endorsement of "better to do good than bad"). A lenient rule (exclude responses of 5-6 on the former and 1-2 on the latter) excluded 20 cases. Additional exclusions were applied for >5% missing data (2 cases), patterned responding (e.g., straightlining; 3 cases), and implausible age (2 cases). Outliers were removed using $|z| > 3.29$ on scale totals (Field, 2018). All analyses used listwise deletion.

After the exclusion of participants, the final sample consisted of $N = 151$ participants.

Of the 151 participants, 35 completed the work motivation questionnaire and 101 completed the learning-motivation form; 15 had incomplete motivation data for these subgroup forms. A combined motivation score was computed and used in primary analyses to maximize power and comparability. The descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of the Sample

Variable	n	%
Age M (SD)	17.71 (1.20)	—
Sex		
Female	4	2.6
Male	147	97.4
Education		
Still a pupil / in secondary school	99	65.6
Finished school without a degree	4	2.6
Secondary school leaving certificate (“Haupt-, Mittelschulabschluss”)	15	9.9
Graduation from a vocational or secondary school, or polytechnic school	12	7.9
Graduation from a general secondary school (Matura)	13	8.6
Completed apprenticeship	2	1.3
University of applied sciences / university degree	3	2.0
Other degree	3	2.0

Note. Percentages are based on valid responses.

Regarding their socioeconomic status, 37.7% ($N = 57$) indicated a combined income between 500€ - 2500€, 6% ($N = 9$) indicated an income between 2500€ - 5000€, and 8% ($N = 12$) indicated a combined income of +5000€. 37.7% ($N = 57$) preferred not to answer. Finally, out of the participants, 44.4% ($N = 67$) indicated that they want to complete the basic military sample.

A Priori Power (Correlations). Monte Carlo simulations (10,000 replications; Morris et al., 2019) were used to estimate per-pair power for the correlation matrices with Bonferroni-adjusted tests ($\alpha = .05/m$; $m = 9$ for 3×3 , $m = 15$ for 3×5). For a 3×3 matrix, achieving $\geq .80$ per-pair power required approximately $N = 330$ for $r = .20$ and $N = 140$ for $r = .30$. For a 3×5 matrix, the corresponding requirements were approximately $N = 360$ for $r = .20$ and $N = 160$ for $r = .30$. For the detailed process, see Appendix A.

A Priori Power (Regressions). Using G*Power (v3.1.9.7; Faul et al., 2009), multiple regression models with 3 predictors were powered for the overall R^2 increase (linear multiple regression; fixed model) with $f^2 = .04$, $\alpha = .0167$ (Bonferroni adjustment across three separate analyses), and $1\beta = .80$, yielding $N = 530$. For $f^2 = .15$, the required sample size was $N = 146$.

Post Hoc Power (Moderations). A post hoc power analysis was conducted for the moderation models. All moderation analyses were estimated using PROCESS Model 2 (v4.2, in SPSS 29.0.0.0; Hayes, 2018). Predictors were mean-centered prior to analysis, 10,000 bootstrap samples were applied for inference, and HC3-robust standard errors were used. Each model included one focal predictor, two covariates, two moderators, and their corresponding interaction terms. Because the study's sample size was determined a priori for a different analysis, statistical power for the moderation models was evaluated post hoc; the results of these calculations are reported in the Results section.

Measures

Translation. A forward-translation and expert-review procedure was used for the COVID-19 Impact, War-related Stress, and Climate Change Worry scales (see Beaton et al., 2000; Schmitt & Eid, 2007). Two bilingual translators produced independent German versions, which were reconciled by consensus and reviewed by a native English speaker and a German-English teacher. Conceptual equivalence was prioritized; documentation is provided in Appendix B. For the final translations used see Appendix C.

COVID-19 Impact. The influence of the COVID-19 pandemic (COVID-19 impact) was assessed using a German translation of the COVID-19 Impact Scale (Stoddard et al., 2023), initially developed for children and families. It consists of 11 items, where Items 1 - 9 are scored on an ordinal scale ranging from '0' for 'No change', to '4' for 'Severe', Items 10 and 11 have an additional fifth level for 'Immediate family member died from coronavirus' for Item 10 and 'Extended family member and/or close friend died of coronavirus' for Item 11, and the 12th Item being a free response item. The scale's impact score is calculated for items 1-8, which demonstrated good internal consistency with adequate Cronbach's α values of .64-.75 (Cronbach, 1951). In the current sample, the scale showed good internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$). Examples of areas covered include 'Medical health care access' and 'Access to extended family and non-family social supports'.

Climate Change Worry. Climate worry was assessed using a German translation of the Climate Change Worry Scale (Stewart, 2021), which was developed to investigate proximal worry about climate change, rather than social/global impacts. The scale consists of 10 items, with answer options ranging from '1' for 'Never' to '5' for 'Always'. The scale showed high

internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .95$) and good reliability ($r = 0.91, p < 0.001$). In the present sample, the scale demonstrated excellent internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$). Example items included 'I worry about climate change more than other people' and 'I worry that I might not be able to cope with climate change'.

War-Related Stress. The impact of the war in Ukraine (war stress) was operationalised using a German translation of the War-related Stress Scale hereinafter referred to as war stress; Vargová et al., 2024), which was developed specifically for those outside of the conflict area. The inventory consists of 21 items that can be divided into three factors: society-related stressors (8 items), person-related stressors (7 items), and security-related stressors (6 items), and demonstrated convergent validity. In this study, the scale showed excellent internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$). Items are scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from '1' for 'no concerns/difficulties' to 7 for 'major concerns/difficulties'. Example items include 'Access to essential items (e.g., food, medicine, toiletries)' and 'Uncertainty about the future development of the situation'.

Work Motivation. Work motivation was assessed using the German version of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (Vallerand, 1997; Gagné et al., 2015, 2016), which was developed to measure work motivation at the domain level. The scale consists of 19 items and is based on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from '1' for 'Not at all' to '7' for 'Completely/entirely'. The German version showed overall acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.73$), with only identified (95% CI = 0.55;0.73) and introjected (95% CI = 0.43;0.65) work motivation with alpha coefficients below $\alpha = .7$. Translations to other languages showed higher internal consistency. The scale also demonstrated discriminant and convergent validity in studies conducted in different languages, with a Cronbach's α of .89 in the present sample. Example items include 'Because I have to prove to myself that I can' and 'Because I have fun doing my job '.

Learning Motivation. Due to the demographics of the participants, many had not started working at the time of the analysis. Therefore, the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (Vallerand, 1997) was adapted to the context of learning. In the present sample, the adapted scale demonstrated good internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$). For an overview of the changes made to the wording, see Appendix C (C4-C5).

Life Satisfaction. Life satisfaction was assessed using the German version of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985; Janke & Glöckner-Rist, 2012). The scale consists of five items, based on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from '1' for 'Strongly Disagree' to '7' for 'Strongly Agree'. The scale demonstrated high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha =$

.82 - .87; Pavot & Diener, 1993), high temporal reliability, as well as convergent and discriminant validity. In the present study, internal consistency was found to be acceptable (Cronbach's $\alpha = .74$). Example items include 'In most ways my life is close to my ideal.' and 'I am satisfied with life.'

Future Anxiety. Future anxiety was assessed using the German version of the Future Anxiety Scale (FAS-d; Wieczorek & Hock, 2023; Zaleski, 1996). The scale consists of 25 items and four buffer items (Items Nr. 4, 11, 16, 23), and is scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from '0' for 'Decidedly false' to '6' for 'Decidedly true'. Item 24 is to be inverted. The scale demonstrated excellent internal consistency for the English scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$) and the German version (Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$), as well as good test-retest reliability and convergent and discriminant validity. In the present study, these findings were replicated, with Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$. Example items include 'My future is uncertain' and 'I believe that in the future I will be able to solve my problems by myself'.

Moral Foundations. Moral foundations were assessed using the German version of the Moral Foundations Questionnaire (MFQ; Graham et al., 2011A; Iurino & Saucier, 2020), which can be found on the official website. The scale consists of 32 items divided into five subscales (Care/Harm, Fairness/Cheating, Loyalty/Betrayal, Authority/Subversion, Purity/Degradation), including two items for assessing truthful responses. It is based on a six-point scale regarding the relevance and the assessment of statements, with alpha coefficients mostly below the acceptable cutoff of .70 (Graham et al., 2011B; see Nunnally, 1978, cited in: Tamul et al., 2020). In the present study, an overall acceptable level of internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$) was found. Regarding the subscales, the following alpha coefficients were found: Care/Harm (Cronbach's $\alpha = .50$), Fairness/Cheating (Cronbach's $\alpha = .64$), Loyalty/Betrayal (Cronbach's $\alpha = .59$), Authority/Subversion (Cronbach's $\alpha = .75$), and Purity/Degradation (Cronbach's $\alpha = .68$), indicating problems with reliability. As, except for the Authority/Subversion subscale, all alpha coefficients fall below the acceptable cutoff, the results must be interpreted with caution. The data for the Moral Foundations Questionnaire was analysed using the SPSS file and Syntax provided by the researchers (Moral Foundations Theory, 2017). For all MFQ subscales (e.g., Care/Harm, Fairness/Cheating), higher scores reflect greater endorsement of the positive pole (e.g., care, fairness), whereas lower scores indicate weaker emphasis on that foundation rather than endorsement of the opposite pole (e.g., harm, cheating).

Scale Scoring and Measurement Level. All multi-item measures used Likert-type response formats. Sum or mean scores were treated as approximately continuous, consistent

with common psychometric practice. For the Future Anxiety Scale (0-6 response format), a sum score was computed and used in analyses.

Work and Learning Motivation. To examine whether the adaptation of the German Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (Gagné et al., 2016) for students introduced bias, descriptive statistics of the work and learning motivation versions were compared (Table 2). No substantial differences emerged. Because both scales reflect the same construct of motivation and the work motivation subgroup was small ($N = 35$), a combined motivation score was used in subsequent analyses.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Work Motivation and Learning Motivation

Variable	n	M (SD)	Min	Max
Work motivation	35	73.40 (20.33)	19	110
Learning motivation	101	66.49 (16.20)	19	120

Scale Comparison. To contextualize the observed scale scores, descriptive values were compared with reference values reported in previous studies. Detailed reference tables are provided in Appendix D.

Procedure

In Austria, male adolescents are required to undergo *Stellung* (conscription) at age 17 (upon request and with parental consent, registration can take place as early as age 16); new citizens are obliged to do so within one year of naturalization. On day 1 or 2 of the standard recruitment process (typically 20-60 conscripts), potential participants received a flyer (see Appendix E) with study information and a QR code linking to the online survey (SoSci Survey; Leiner, 2024). The flyer specified the study purpose, ~15-minute duration, voluntariness, anonymity, and a raffle of three gift cards. Questionnaires were presented in randomized order to mitigate order effects. Participants completed the survey immediately when time allowed or later the same day during scheduled breaks; questions were answered on site or via email.

Data Analysis

Software. Analyses were conducted in IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 29.0.0.0), PROCESS (Version 4.2; Hayes, 2018), and G*Power (Version 3.1.9.7; Faul et al., 2009).

Correlational Analysis. First, the present study employed a correlational research design to examine the relationships between three predictor variables (COVID-19 impact, climate worry, war stress) and three outcome variables (combined motivation, life

satisfaction, future anxiety). Also, the relationships between the predictor and outcome variables with the moral foundation variables were examined (Care/Harm, Fairness/Cheating, Loyalty/Betrayal, Authority/Subversion, Purity/Degradation). Data were collected in a cross-sectional manner, meaning all variables were measured at a single point in time. The relationships between the variables were analysed using Pearson's correlation coefficients, presented in a 3 x 3 correlation matrix, for the predictor and outcome variables, and two 3 x 5 correlation matrices for the moral foundation subscales. The assumption of continuous variables was met with the exception of future anxiety, and the moral foundation subscales (ordinal). Related pairs were given, with the exception of work motivation and learning motivation, which only together make up the entire sample. Outliers were excluded using z-scores (see above), and linearity was confirmed by looking at the corresponding scatterplots.

Multiple Regression Analysis. To gather a better understanding of the influence the different crises have on the outcomes, multiple linear regression analyses were conducted. For each of the multiple linear regression analyses, the crises (COVID-19 impact, climate worry, war stress) were used as independent variables, and one of the outcomes (combined motivation, life satisfaction, or future anxiety) was used as the dependent variable. All variables used were metric, except for future anxiety, which was transformed correspondingly. Linearity was verified by examining the scatterplots. The assumption of homoscedasticity was checked using a scatterplot of standardised residuals versus predicted residuals. Normality of the residuals was checked by conducting the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, as well as by inspecting the Q-Q plots. As the assumption of normality was violated for life satisfaction, the outcome variable was transformed using the log transformation (ln).

Moderation Analysis. Based on moral foundations theory, it was hypothesized that moral foundations would moderate the associations between the crises (COVID-19 impact, climate worry, war stress) and outcomes. Similarly to before, linearity was verified by examining the scatterplots and normality of the residuals was checked by conducting the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, as well as by inspecting the Q-Q plots. The assumption of homoscedasticity was checked using a scatterplot of standardised residuals versus predicted residuals, multicollinearity was assessed using tolerance values, with values below 0.20 indicating potential concerns about multicollinearity. Life satisfaction was transformed using the log transformation (ln). To limit the number of tests and to increase interpretability, ideological orientation was operationalised based on the Moral Foundations Questionnaire subscales: conservatism as the average of the binding moral foundations

(Loyalty/Betrayal, Authority/Subversion, Purity/Degradation) and liberalism as the average of the individualising foundations (Care/Harm, Fairness/Cheating; see Clark et al., 2017). For each crisis indicator (COVID-19 impact, climate worry, war stress), PROCESS Model 2 (Hayes, 2018) was estimated with the indicator specified as the focal predictor, liberalism and conservatism as parallel moderators, and the remaining crisis indicators as covariates. All predictors were mean-centered. Each model included two interaction terms ($X \times$ liberalism, $X \times$ conservatism). Heteroskedasticity-consistent (HC3) standard errors and 10,000 bootstrap resamples were used to obtain 95% confidence intervals. Separate analyses were conducted for the different outcome variables. In addition, an exploratory hierarchical regression analysis was carried out (Step 1: crisis indicators; Step 2: moral foundation subscales) to examine the added explanatory value of moral foundations without interactions.

Exploratory Analyses. To explore potential differences between work and learning motivation, multiple regression analyses were conducted. In addition, it was examined whether socioeconomic status (measured by income) accounted for additional variance in the associations between the crisis indicators and the outcomes. For this purpose, a hierarchical regression analysis was performed.

Results

Scale comparisons. Descriptive scores from the present sample were compared with reference values reported in previous studies (see Appendix D). On average, COVID-19 impact scores were lower than those reported by Stoddard et al. (2023), particularly for disruptions of routines ($M = 2.38$, $SD = 1.03$), supports ($M = 1.64$, $SD = 0.79$), and personal stress ($M = 1.82$, $SD = 0.87$). Similarly, climate change worry ($M = 23.37$, $SD = 9.68$) was lower than in Stewart (2021), and war stress ($M = 63.65$, $SD = 22.39$) was markedly lower than in Vargova et al. (2024). In contrast, life satisfaction ($M = 25.21$, $SD = 5.32$) was comparable to prior research (e.g., Diener, 1985; Ryff et al., 2010). For work and learning motivation, subscale patterns diverged: identified (work motivation: $M = 4.75$, $SD = 1.72$; learning motivation: $M = 4.01$, $SD = 1.60$) and intrinsic motivation (work motivation: $M = 4.69$, $SD = 1.70$; learning motivation: $M = 3.87$, $SD = 1.48$) were similar to those reported in Gagné et al. (2015), whereas external regulation (work motivation: $M = 3.69$, $SD = 1.49$; learning motivation: $M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.22$) and introjection (work motivation: $M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.22$; learning motivation: $M = 3.96$, $SD = 1.42$) were considerably lower, and amotivation (work motivation: $M = 2.31$, $SD = 1.45$; learning motivation: $M = 2.69$, $SD = 1.29$) was higher. Future anxiety was substantially elevated in the present sample ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 1.05$) compared to Wiczorek and Hock (2023). Finally, in contrast to the large international dataset of Graham

et al. (2011B), participants in this study endorsed all moral foundation subscales at markedly higher levels, with mean scores ranging between 3.54 and 4.61.

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to examine the relationships between the crisis variables, COVID impact, climate worry, and war stress, and the psychological constructs of combined motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety. Descriptive statistics and the full correlation matrix can be found in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study Variables

Variable	n	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Covid impact	151	13.99	4.28	—					
2. Climate worry	151	23.34	9.68	.10	—				
3. War stress	151	63.48	22.56	.33**	.29**	—			
4. Combined motivation	151	61.48	26.39	-.16*	.16*	.14	—		
5. Life satisfaction	151	25.16	5.32	-.14	-.07	-.11	.03	—	
6. Future anxiety	151	72.30	26.13	.31**	.56**	.53**	.14	.29**	—

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

Next, different multiple regression analyses were conducted in order to investigate whether the crises can predict the outcome variables combined motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety.

Combined Motivation. A multiple linear regression was conducted to predict the combined motivation scores based on war stress, climate worry, and COVID impact. The overall model was statistically significant, $F(3, 147) = 4.58$, $p = .004$, and explained 8.5% of the variance in combined motivation ($R^2 = .085$, adjusted $R^2 = .067$). The analysis showed that COVID impact was a significant negative predictor of combined motivation ($\beta = -.235$, $p = .006$), indicating that higher levels of COVID-related impact were associated with lower combined motivation. War stress was also a significant positive predictor ($\beta = .184$, $p = .036$), suggesting that greater war stress was associated with increased combined motivation. Climate worry, however, was not a significant predictor ($\beta = .132$, $p = .112$). These findings suggest that both COVID impact and war stress significantly influenced combined motivation scores in opposite directions, while climate worry did not contribute significantly to the model, thus partially supporting H1.

Life Satisfaction. A multiple linear regression was conducted to predict life satisfaction based on war stress, climate worry, and COVID impact. The overall model was

not statistically significant, $F(3, 147) = 1.00, p = .396$, explaining only 2.0% of the variance in life satisfaction ($R^2 = .02$). The analysis indicated that none of the predictors were statistically significant. Specifically, COVID impact ($\beta = -.11, p = .205$), climate worry ($\beta = -.02, p = .811$), and war stress ($\beta = -.05, p = .575$) did not significantly predict life satisfaction. Overall, these results suggest that war stress, climate worry, and COVID impact did not meaningfully contribute to the prediction of life satisfaction. Therefore, these results do not support H2-H4.

Future Anxiety. A multiple linear regression was conducted to predict future anxiety based on war stress, climate worry, and COVID impact. The overall model was statistically significant, $F(3, 147) = 45.72, p < .001$, explaining 48.3% of the variance in future anxiety ($R^2 = .483$, adjusted $R^2 = .472$). The analysis indicated that all three predictors were statistically significant. Climate worry was the strongest predictor of future anxiety ($\beta = .444, p < .001$), suggesting that for each one-unit increase in climate worry, future anxiety increased by $B = 1.198$ units. War stress was also a significant predictor ($\beta = .352, p < .001$), with each one-unit increase in war stress being associated with an increase of $B = 0.408$ units in future anxiety. COVID impact had a smaller but still significant effect ($\beta = .149, p = .019$), indicating that an increase in COVID impact by one unit corresponded to an increase of $B = 0.913$ units in future anxiety. Overall, these results suggest that climate worry, war stress, and COVID impact are significant predictors of future anxiety, with climate worry having the strongest influence. Therefore, these results confirm H5-H7. Beyond these associations, it is noteworthy that mean levels of future anxiety in this sample were markedly higher than reference values (Wieczorek & Hock, 2023), underscoring the salience of this construct for conscripts.

For the investigation of the underlying moral foundations, first, Pearson correlation coefficients were computed for investigating any potential correlations of the initially investigated variables (covid impact, climate worry, war stress, combined motivation, life satisfaction, future anxiety) with the subscales of the moral foundations questionnaire (Care/Harm, Fairness/Cheating, Loyalty/Betrayal, Authority/Subversion, Purity/Degradation). Results for the correlation coefficients between the crises and the moral foundation subscales can be found in Table 4, between the outcome variables and the moral foundation subscales in Table 5.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Crises x Moral Foundations

Variable	n	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. COVID-19 impact	151	13.99	4.28	—							

Variable	n	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
2. Climate worry	151	23.34	9.68	.10	—						
3. War stress	151	63.48	22.56	.33**	.29**	—					
4. Care/Harm	151	4.35	0.71	.06	.28**	.17*	—				
5. Fairness/Cheating	151	4.61	0.75	.03	.26**	.15	.52**	—			
6. Loyalty/Betrayal	151	3.98	0.79	.05	-.38**	.05	.01	-.14	—		
7. Authority/Subversion	151	4.07	0.90	.10	-.32**	.08	.17*	.01	.69**	—	
8. Purity/Degradation	151	3.54	0.90	.26**	-.15	.14	.13	-.06	.52**	.60**	—

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

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Outcomes x Moral Foundations

Variable	n	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Combined motivation	151	61.48	26.39	—							
2. Life satisfaction	151	25.16	5.32	.09	—						
3. Future anxiety	151	72.30	26.13	.14	-.30**	—					
4. Care/Harm	151	4.35	0.71	-.02	.06	.25**	—				
5. Fairness/Cheating	151	4.61	0.75	.04	-.12	.15	.52**	—			
6. Loyalty/Betrayal	151	3.98	0.79	-.03	.14	-.22**	.01	-.15	—		
7. Authority/Subversion	151	4.07	0.90	.02	-.04	-.06	.17*	.01	.69**	—	
8. Purity/Degradation	151	3.54	0.90	-.10	-.02	.15	.13	-.06	.52**	.61**	—

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

Then, moderation analyses were conducted to clarify whether moral foundations, categorized under liberalism for the individualising foundations (Care/Harm, Fairness/Cheating), and conservatism for the binding foundations (Loyalty/Betrayal, Authority/Subversion, Purity/Degradation), moderate the relationship between covid impact, climate worry, war stress and combined motivation, life satisfaction, future anxiety.

A post hoc power analysis (G*Power; linear multiple regression, R^2 increase) specified two tested predictors (the interaction terms) within a seven-predictor model (one focal predictor, two covariates, two moderators, two interactions). With $N = 151$ and a Bonferroni-adjusted $\alpha = .0056$ (.05/9), the achieved power to detect a small-to-medium effect ($f^2 = .04$) was $1 - \beta = .26$. Therefore, the following results have to be interpreted with caution.

Combined motivation. A series of moderation analyses tested whether liberalism and

conservatism moderated the associations between COVID-19 impact, climate worry, and war stress with motivation.

The first model tested COVID-19 impact as the focal predictor while controlling for climate worry and war stress. The overall model with HC3 standard errors was not significant, $F(7, 143) = 1.75, p = .102, R^2 = .092$. COVID-19 impact negatively predicted motivation, $b = -1.43, SE = 0.61, t = -2.35, p = .020, 95\% CI [-2.63, -0.22], sr^2 = .04$. Climate worry ($b = 0.47, SE = 0.27, t = 1.75, p = .083, sr^2 = .02$) and war stress ($b = 0.21, SE = 0.12, t = 1.80, p = .096, sr^2 = .02$) showed small, non-significant positive associations. Neither liberalism nor conservatism showed significant main effects ($p \geq .45$), and the COVID-19 impact $\times$ liberalism and COVID-19 impact $\times$ conservatism interactions were non-significant ($p \geq .565$). Adding both interactions did not improve model fit, $\Delta R^2 = .003, F(2, 143) = 0.17, p = .847, f^2 = .003$.

In the second model, climate worry was entered as the focal predictor while controlling for war stress and COVID-19 impact. The HC3-robust model was significant, $F(7, 143) = 2.33, p = .028, R^2 = .095$, but climate worry was not a significant predictor, $b = 0.44, SE = 0.28, t = 1.56, p = .120, 95\% CI [-0.12, 1.00], sr^2 = .02$. COVID-19 impact again predicted lower motivation, $b = -1.46, SE = 0.60, t = -2.43, p = .016, 95\% CI [-2.64, -0.27], sr^2 = .04$, and war stress showed a small, non-significant positive effect, $b = 0.22, SE = 0.12, t = 1.80, p = .074, 95\% CI [-0.02, 0.46], sr^2 = .02$. Interactions of climate worry with liberalism and conservatism were non-significant ($p \geq .454$), and model fit was not improved, $\Delta R^2 = .005, F(2, 143) = 0.29, p = .751, f^2 = .006$.

The third model tested war stress as the focal predictor, controlling for COVID-19 impact and climate worry. The model was significant, $F(7, 143) = 3.35, p = .003, R^2 = .114$. War stress positively predicted motivation, $b = 0.23, SE = 0.12, t = 2.00, p = .048, 95\% CI [0.00, 0.46], sr^2 = .03$, while COVID-19 impact again negatively predicted motivation, $b = -1.54, SE = 0.59, t = -2.59, p = .011, 95\% CI [-2.71, -0.36], sr^2 = .04$. Climate worry was non-significant, $b = 0.47, SE = 0.27, t = 1.75, p = .083, sr^2 = .02$. Interactions with liberalism and conservatism were again non-significant ($p \geq .157$), and adding both did not improve fit, $\Delta R^2 = .024, F(2, 143) = 1.04, p = .355, f^2 = .027$.

Across the motivation models, higher COVID-19 impact was consistently associated with lower motivation, war stress showed a small positive association, and climate worry was not a reliable predictor. None of these relations were moderated by ideological orientation.

Life satisfaction. The next set of models tested life satisfaction.

The first model tested COVID-19 impact, controlling for climate worry and war stress.

The model was not significant, $F(7, 143) = 1.26, p = .273, R^2 = .039$. COVID-19 impact did not predict life satisfaction, $b = -0.0031, SE = 0.0019, t = -1.61, p = .109, sr^2 = .02$. Climate worry and war stress were also non-significant (climate worry: $b \approx 0.00, SE = 0.0011, t = 0.04, p = .966, sr^2 < .01$; war stress: $b = -0.0003, SE = 0.0004, t = -0.61, p = .542, sr^2 = .003$). Although the COVID-19 impact $\times$ liberalism interaction trended toward significance ($\Delta R^2 = .014, F = 3.40, p = .067$), neither this nor the COVID-19 impact $\times$ conservatism interaction was reliable, and adding both did not improve fit, $\Delta R^2 = .015, F = 1.70, p = .187, f^2 = .016$.

In the second model, climate worry was the focal predictor, controlling for war stress and COVID-19 impact. The model was not significant, $F(7, 143) = 1.47, p = .182, R^2 = .046$. Climate worry was not a predictor, $b = 0.0000, SE = 0.0011, t = -0.02, p = .982, sr^2 < .01$. COVID-19 impact and war stress were also non-significant (COVID-19 impact: $b = -0.0026, SE = 0.0019, t = -1.37, p = .172, sr^2 = .013$; war stress: $b = -0.0003, SE = 0.0004, t = -0.61, p = .542, sr^2 = .003$). Climate worry $\times$ liberalism and climate worry $\times$ conservatism were non-significant ($p \geq .137$), and model fit did not improve with their inclusion, $\Delta R^2 = .022, F = 2.08, p = .129, f^2 = .023$.

The third model tested war stress, controlling for COVID-19 impact and climate worry. The model was not significant, $F(7, 143) = 0.68, p = .690, R^2 = .028$. War stress was not a predictor, $b = -0.0003, SE = 0.0005, t = -0.66, p = .510, sr^2 = .003$. COVID-19 impact and climate worry were also non-significant (COVID-19 impact: $b = -0.0028, SE = 0.0020, t = -1.43, p = .154, sr^2 = .014$; climate worry: $b \approx 0.00, SE = 0.0011, t = 0.04, p = .966, sr^2 < .01$). Interactions with liberalism and conservatism were non-significant ($p \geq .592$), and adding both did not improve fit, $\Delta R^2 = .004, p = .663, f^2 = .004$.

Future anxiety. Finally, analyses examined future anxiety.

The first model tested COVID-19 impact, controlling for climate worry and war stress. The overall model was significant, $F(7, 143) = 31.47, p < .001, R^2 = .491$. COVID-19 impact was a positive predictor, $b = 0.79, SE = 0.38, t = 2.05, p = .043, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.03, 1.55], sr^2 = .03$. Climate worry and war stress were also significant predictors (climate worry: $b = 1.20, SE = 0.21, t = 5.59, p < .001, sr^2 = .18$; war stress: $b = 0.41, SE = 0.09, t = 4.50, p < .001, sr^2 = .12$). Neither liberalism nor conservatism predicted future anxiety, and the COVID-19 impact $\times$ liberalism and COVID-19 impact $\times$ conservatism interactions were non-significant. Adding both interactions did not improve fit, $\Delta R^2 = .006, p = .465, f^2 = .012$.

In the second model, climate worry was tested while controlling for war stress and COVID-19 impact. The overall model was significant, $F(7, 143) = 25.88, p < .001, R^2 = .488$. Climate worry strongly predicted future anxiety, $b = 1.24, SE = 0.21, t = 5.84, p < .001, 95\%$

CI [0.82, 1.66], $sr^2 = .19$. War stress and COVID-19 impact were also significant predictors (war stress: $b = 0.40$, $SE = 0.09$, $t = 4.43$, $p < .001$, $sr^2 = .12$; COVID-19 impact: $b = 0.88$, $SE = 0.37$, $t = 2.41$, $p = .017$, $sr^2 = .04$). Neither ideological orientation nor its interactions with climate worry were significant, and adding both interactions did not improve fit, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $p = .681$, $f^2 = .006$.

The third model tested war stress, controlling for COVID-19 impact and climate worry. The overall model was significant, $F(7, 143) = 27.11$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .486$. War stress was a positive predictor, $b = 0.40$, $SE = 0.09$, $t = 4.28$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.21, 0.58], $sr^2 = .11$. COVID-19 impact and climate worry also significantly predicted future anxiety (COVID-19 impact: $b = 0.88$, $SE = 0.37$, $t = 2.40$, $p = .018$, $sr^2 = .04$; climate worry: $b = 1.23$, $SE = 0.21$, $t = 5.78$, $p < .001$, $sr^2 = .19$). Again, liberalism, conservatism, and their interactions were non-significant, and adding interactions did not improve fit, $\Delta R^2 = .001$, $p = .876$, $f^2 = .002$.

Across the future-anxiety models, COVID-19 impact, climate worry, and war stress were all consistent positive predictors, but none of these associations varied by ideological orientation. Overall, the results provide no evidence for a moderating role of ideological orientation, thereby failing to support H8.

For clarifying, whether the different subscales of the moral foundations questionnaire added explanatory value in the relationship between covid impact, climate worry, war stress and combined motivation, life satisfaction, future anxiety, exploratory hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted. In order to ascertain the potential for supplementary explanatory value, the variables were incorporated using the inclusion method.

Combined Motivation. A hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to examine whether moral foundations predict combined motivation beyond the effects of crisis-related variables, of COVID impact, climate worry, war stress. In Step 1, the crisis variables were entered into the model. This model was statistically significant, $F(3, 147) = 4.58$, $p = .004$, explaining 8.5% of the variance in combined motivation ($R^2 = .085$). In Step 2, the moral foundation subscales were added to the model, resulting in a statistically significant improvement in model fit, $\Delta R^2 = .028$, $F(8, 142) = 2.27$, $p = .026$, with the total explained variance increasing to 11.3% ($R^2 = .113$). In the final model, all three crisis-related variables remained statistically significant: COVID impact was a negative predictor ($\beta = -.219$, $p = .013$; $B = -1.35$), climate worry was a positive predictor ($\beta = .200$, $p = .040$; $B = 0.55$), and war stress also showed a positive association with combined motivation ($\beta = .180$, $p = .045$; $B = 0.21$). None of the moral foundation variables reached statistical significance in the final model. These results suggest that combined motivation was primarily predicted by the crisis-

related variables.

Life satisfaction. A hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to examine whether moral foundations predict life satisfaction beyond the effects of crisis-related variables, of COVID impact, climate worry, war stress. In Step 1, the crisis variables were entered into the model. This model was not statistically significant, $F(3, 147) = 0.996$, $p = .396$, and explained only 2.0% of the variance in life satisfaction ($R^2 = .020$). In Step 2, the moral foundation subscales were added, resulting in a statistically significant improvement in model fit, $\Delta R^2 = .090$, $F(8, 142) = 2.19$, $p = .032$, with the total explained variance increasing to 11.0% ($R^2 = .110$). In the final model, three moral foundations emerged as significant predictors. Harm/Care was positively associated with life satisfaction ($\beta = .215$, $p = .030$; $B = 0.031$), Loyalty/Betrayal was also positively associated ($\beta = .336$, $p = .005$; $B = 0.043$), and Authority/Subversion was negatively associated with life satisfaction ($\beta = -.261$, $p = .038$; $B = -0.030$). None of the crisis-related predictors were statistically significant in the final model, nor were Fairness/Cheating or Purity/Degradation.

Future anxiety. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine whether moral foundations predict future anxiety beyond the effects of crisis-related variables of climate worry, war stress, and COVID impact. In the first step, the crisis-related variables together significantly predicted future anxiety, $F(3, 147) = 45.72$, $p < .001$, accounting for 48.3% of the variance ($R^2 = .483$). All three predictors were statistically significant: climate worry ($\beta = .444$, $p < .001$; $B = 1.20$), war stress ($\beta = .352$, $p < .001$; $B = 0.41$), and COVID impact ($\beta = .149$, $p = .019$; $B = 0.91$). In the second step, the five moral foundation subscales were added to the model. This led to a significant increase in explained variance, $\Delta R^2 = .054$, $F(8, 142) = 20.52$, $p < .001$, bringing the total explained variance to 53.6% ($R^2 = .536$). In the final model, climate worry ($\beta = .401$, $p < .001$; $B = 1.08$) and war stress ($\beta = .357$, $p < .001$; $B = 0.41$) remained significant predictors. Additionally, Purity/Degradation was positively associated with future anxiety ($\beta = .214$, $p = .006$; $B = 6.22$), and Loyalty/Betrayal was negatively associated ($\beta = -.254$, $p = .003$; $B = -8.38$). COVID impact ($\beta = .100$, $p = .114$), Care/Harm ($\beta = .069$, $p = .330$), Fairness/Cheating ($\beta = -.069$, $p = .318$), and Authority/Subversion ($\beta = .061$, $p = .501$) were not statistically significant in the final model.

In order to achieve better insight into the differences between work and learning motivation, which were combined for the previous analyses due to statistical constraints, the differences between both constructs were further explored. Starting with the relationship between the crises and work and learning motivation, a correlation analysis was conducted using the same variables as previous analyses (for the results see table 6) and then separate

multiple regression analyses were conducted for both constructs, with the crisis indicators as predictor variables, and work motivation, learning motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety as outcomes.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study Variables, Work and Learning Motivation

Variable	n	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Covid impact	151	13.99	4.28	—						
2. Climate worry	151	23.34	9.68	.10	—					
3. War stress	151	63.48	22.56	.33**	.29**	—				
4. Work motivation	35	73.40	20.33	.11	-.06	.29	—			
5. Learning motivation	101	66.49	16.20	-.06	.22*	.29**	—	—		
6. Life satisfaction	151	25.16	5.32	-.14	-.07	-.11	.09	.02	—	
7. Future anxiety	151	72.30	26.13	.31**	.56**	.53**	.09	.29**	.29**	—

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

Work Motivation. A multiple linear regression was conducted to predict work motivation based on war stress, climate worry, and COVID impact. The overall model was not significant, $F(3, 31) = 1.44$, $p = .250$, explaining 12.2% of the variance ($R^2 = .12$). The analysis indicated that war stress was a marginally significant predictor of work motivation ($\beta = .40$, $p = .068$), suggesting that an increase in war stress by one unit was associated with an average increase of $B = 0.33$ in work motivation. However, climate worry ($\beta = -.19$, $p = .308$) and COVID impact ($\beta = -.06$, $p = .781$) were not significant predictors of work motivation.

Learning Motivation. A multiple linear regression was conducted to predict learning motivation based on war stress, climate worry, and COVID impact. The overall regression model was statistically significant, $F(3, 97) = 4.71$, $p = .004$, and explained 12.7% of the variance in learning motivation ($R^2 = .13$). The analysis indicated that war stress was a significant predictor of learning motivation ($\beta = .29$, $p = .004$), suggesting that for each one-unit increase in war stress, learning motivation increased by $B = 0.22$ units. However, climate worry was not a significant predictor ($\beta = .17$, $p = .092$), nor was COVID impact ($\beta = -.12$, $p = .210$). Overall, these findings suggest that war stress is positively associated with learning motivation, while climate worry and COVID impact did not significantly contribute to the model.

Socioeconomic status. Finally, to test whether socioeconomic status explained additional variance in the outcome variables, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted.

In Step 1, the three crisis indicators (COVID-19 impact, climate worry, war stress) were entered; in Step 2, socioeconomic status was added. Due to a large number of participants not providing income information, the effective sample size for these models was markedly reduced ($N = 78$). Across all outcomes (combined motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety), Step 1 models replicated the earlier findings, while the inclusion of socioeconomic status in Step 2 did not significantly improve model fit ($\Delta R^2 \leq .013$, $p \geq .229$). Socioeconomic status was not a significant indicator in any model (all $ps > .23$). These results indicate that socioeconomic status did not meaningfully contribute to the associations with motivation, life satisfaction, or future anxiety in this sample.

Discussion

The present study examined how three major global crises, the COVID-19 pandemic, the climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine, relate to work and combined motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety among. Results showed that the crises were not significantly associated with life satisfaction, while their impact on combined motivation was mixed: COVID-19 impact reduced motivation, whereas war stress increased it. In contrast, all three crises significantly were significantly associated with future anxiety, with climate worry emerging as the strongest indicator. Perhaps the most striking result was the substantially elevated levels of future anxiety relative to established norms, suggesting that young conscripts face particularly heightened concerns about their personal and societal future. Moderation analyses indicated that neither liberalism nor conservatism moderated these relationships.

Crises and Motivation

Regarding H1, COVID-19 impact was found to be negatively associated with combined motivation, while war stress showed a positive significant association. Climate worry was not significant. This partially confirms H1, indicating that crises can both undermine and strengthen motivation, depending on context.

COVID Impact. The negative association between COVID-19 impact and combined motivation aligns with prior findings of decreased engagement during the pandemic (see Doan et al., 2023). However, the extent of this effect may be shaped by the specific circumstances of the present sample. Many conscripts experienced the pandemic during their teenage years, often in the context of school closures and online learning rather than full-time employment. As a result, unemployment-related stressors, which strongly affected adults in the labour market (Song et al., 2020), were likely less influential in this group. Instead, pandemic-related disruptions to routines, education, and social life may have weakened

overall motivation. Additionally, with the acute phase of the pandemic now past, changes in attitudes and perceived relevance may have diminished over time, contributing to a weaker and more diffuse impact on motivation. Moreover, given the receding salience of the pandemic in the public consciousness, the probability of a resource conservation response, as posited by the Conservation of Resources Theory, appears low.

Climate Worry. Contrary to expectations based on prior research linking climate concern with motivation in pro-environmental organizations (Hicklenton et al., 2019), climate worry was not significantly associated with combined motivation. One likely explanation lies in the comparatively low levels of climate concern observed in this sample, when compared with the values reported by Stewart (2021). For many conscripts, climate change may represent an abstract, long-term challenge with little immediate relevance to their current role or daily lives. Within the AAF, environmental obligations exist, for example, in disaster relief or resource management, but the institution as a whole does not position itself primarily as a climate-oriented organization. This lack of alignment between participants' institutional context and environmental concerns may explain why climate worry showed little connection with their motivation.

War Stress. In contrast, war stress was positively associated with combined motivation, suggesting that the perception of geopolitical instability may foster greater readiness and engagement. Unlike factors such as wage reductions or personnel loss, which directly affect civilian labour markets (Luhova et al., 2023), conscripts are not immediately exposed to such consequences. Instead, the salience of an external threat like the war in Ukraine may heighten motivation through mechanisms of vigilance, duty, and preparedness, even among those not directly affected by the conflict. This interpretation fits within the framework of the Conservation of Resources Theory, which holds that individuals mobilize their energy and resources to protect what they perceive as threatened.

Overall, these results show parallels to findings on motivation during past economic downturns. For example, the aftermath of the 2008 and 2012 financial crises produced inconsistent effects, ranging from stability (Hitka et al., 2014) to increases in motivation linked to heightened loyalty and job insecurity (Pouchová, 2011). Similarly, the present findings suggest that while some crises (e.g., the pandemic) can erode motivation, others (e.g., war stress) can enhance it by increasing the perceived need to act. Taken together, these dynamics highlight the context-dependent nature of motivation under crisis conditions, consistent with the Conservation of Resources Theory.

Crises and Life Satisfaction

Regarding H2-H4, none of the crises was significantly associated with life satisfaction. These null findings diverge from prior literature suggesting negative effects of crises, but may reflect the buffering role of youth, social context, or indirect exposure in this sample.

COVID Impact. Previous studies examining the pandemic's influence on life satisfaction have produced mixed results, ranging from increases (Wettstein & Vogel, 2021; Bidzan-Bluma et al., 2020) to stability (Aknin et al., 2022) or declines (Bittmann, 2022). Against this heterogeneous backdrop, the absence of a significant effect in the present study appears plausible. For young people primarily affected by temporary changes in schooling and social routines, the pandemic may not have had the sustained resource-depleting impact necessary to lower overall life satisfaction.

Climate Worry. Although prior research has linked environmental degradation and climate-related stressors with reduced life satisfaction (Ortega-Gil et al., 2021; Rajani et al., 2019; Mkrtchyan et al., 2018), this association was not observed here. This may be attributable to the abstract and long-term nature of climate worry, which does not impact daily life as directly as factors such as income or health. Low average climate worry scores in the present sample further suggest that participants did not experience environmental concerns as pressing challenges to their daily lives. Moreover, evidence indicates that nature-based activities can buffer against climate-related stress (Timlin et al., 2021), which could also help explain the absence of negative effects, although this cannot be directly confirmed by the present research design.

War Stress. Despite the existence of prior research highlighting the psychological impact of the war in Ukraine on those directly exposed (Kurapov et al., 2022; Pavlova et al., 2024) and even some indirect effects in neighbouring countries (Mărcău et al., 2022; Kaniasty et al., 2024), no such relationship was found in the present study. This likely reflects the geographical and psychological distance of Austrian conscripts from the immediate conflict. As Coupe and Obrizan (2016) hypothesise, individuals not directly threatened may maintain stable levels of well-being, even when following events closely through media.

Overall, while life satisfaction often declines during crises such as economic recessions (Clench-Aas & Holte, 2017; Habibov & Afandi, 2015), the present findings suggest that the investigated crises did not deplete resources in a way that translated into diminished life satisfaction for this group. These findings are consistent with studies that identified minimal or even positive shifts during periods of financial or social disruption

(Boyce et al., 2018; Lindblom & Lindblom, 2017). Consequently, the hypothesised threats to resources and well-being (H2–H4) were unable to be substantiated in this particular sample.

Crises and Future Anxiety

Regarding H5–H7, it was found that all three crises were significantly associated with future anxiety, with climate worry exerting the strongest effect. These results confirm H5–H7 and align with Conservation of Resources Theory: threats to health, stability, or environmental security intensify anticipatory fears about the future.

COVID Impact. The significant association between COVID-19 impact and future anxiety is consistent with previous research documenting elevated anxiety during the pandemic (Santabárbara et al., 2021; Duplaga & Grysztar, 2021). The pandemic had a profoundly disruptive effect on daily life, engendering prolonged uncertainty, particularly for students and young people (Kästner et al., 2022), thereby rendering concerns about the future more salient. This lends further credence to the proposition that significant global crises have the capacity to influence the development of future-oriented fears.

Climate Worry. Climate worry emerged as the strongest indicator of future anxiety. This finding is in line with research showing that climate concerns often center on threats to future generations, environmental degradation, and perceived political inaction (Soutar & Wand, 2022; Stewart et al., 2023). These concerns are particularly prevalent among younger people and those studying environmental fields, who tend to report higher levels of climate anxiety and engage more with future-oriented coping strategies (Daeninck et al., 2023). As Parmentier et al. (2024) have observed, the perceived severity of climate-related threats has the capacity to impede or encourage future planning, thus rendering climate anxiety a pivotal factor in the development of future-related anxiety in a world grappling with persistent environmental uncertainty.

War Stress. The significant relationship between war stress and future anxiety reflects mounting evidence that geopolitical instability contributes to long-term psychological distress. A substantial body of research has indicated that exposure to the war in Ukraine, whether direct or indirect, has resulted in heightened levels of anxiety, with this being particularly evident among female demographics and individuals with limited financial resources (Kurapov et al., 2023; Massag et al., 2023). It has been demonstrated that media exposure and concerns regarding escalation have the capacity to intensify future-related concerns, even in the absence of conflict zones (Greenglass et al., 2024; Gottschick et al., 2023). The ongoing uncertainty surrounding global security, compounded by the intersecting crises of the pandemic and the war in Ukraine, has further exacerbated these anxieties (Celuch

et al., 2024). The findings of this study indicate that exposure to war stress, even in the absence of a direct personal impact, has the capacity to exert a substantial influence on an individual's future outlook.

Together, these results confirm that crises exacerbate anticipatory fears by threatening individuals' sense of security and stability. Within the framework of the Conservation of Resources Theory, future anxiety reflects the anticipation of resource loss, which can undermine psychological well-being and affect decision-making and long-term planning. Notably, levels of future anxiety in this study were substantially higher than those reported in prior literature (Wieczorek & Hock, 2023). This may reflect the transitional life stage of conscripts, who face both global uncertainty and the personal challenges of moving from adolescence into adulthood and from civilian to military life. Such existential uncertainties likely amplify already heightened global anxieties, making future anxiety a particularly salient outcome for this group.

Crises and Moral Foundations

Contrary to expectations (H8), neither liberalism nor conservatism moderated the associations between crisis indicators (COVID-19 impact, climate worry, war stress) and the outcomes of combined motivation, life satisfaction, or future anxiety. These null findings suggest that broad ideological orientation, operationalised via aggregated moral foundations (liberalism and conservatism), did not systematically shape crisis responses in this sample.

At the same time, correlational analyses indicated meaningful associations between specific crises and moral foundations. Climate worry, for example, correlated positively with the liberal-aligned foundations of Care/Harm and Fairness/Cheating, but negatively with the binding foundations of Loyalty/Betrayal and Authority/Subversion. COVID-19 impact was positively associated with Purity/Degradation, while war stress correlated with Care/Harm. These patterns are broadly consistent with prior research showing that liberal orientations are linked to stronger emphasis on Care/Harm and Fairness/Cheating (e.g., Chan, 2021; Dickinson et al., 2016), whereas conservative orientations place more weight on Authority/Subversion, Loyalty/Betrayal, and Purity/Degradation (Clark et al., 2017; Graham et al., 2009).

Exploratory regression models further revealed that individual moral foundations offered explanatory value beyond the crises themselves. In the context of life satisfaction, Care/Harm and Loyalty/Betrayal was associated higher well-being, consistent with the idea that compassion and belonging can act as protective resources (e.g. Greenberg et al., 1990). By contrast, Authority/Subversion was negatively associated with life satisfaction, echoing

earlier work linking strong Authority/Subversion orientation to lower psychological adjustment in times of crisis. For future anxiety, Purity/Degradation emerged as a significant positive association, in line with research connecting sensitivity to contamination and degradation with heightened existential fears (Horberg et al., 2009). In contrast, Loyalty/Betrayal affiliation was negatively related to future anxiety, supporting prior evidence that social identification can buffer against distress (Kaniasty et al., 2024).

Taken together, these findings suggest that while the broad ideological composites of liberalism and conservatism failed to moderate crisis-outcome relationships, individual moral foundations potentially still shaped experiences of motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety. This points to the limits of applying aggregated ideological categories in the present context, but also underscores the relevance of moral intuitions as psychological resources, or vulnerabilities, in times of overlapping global crises.

A noteworthy finding is that the present sample exhibited substantially higher endorsement across all moral foundations subscales compared to the large international dataset of Graham et al. (2011B). While prior work typically shows clear ideological differences between individualising and binding foundations, the present study's participants endorsed both categories at consistently high levels. This pattern may reflect the unique institutional and cultural context of Austrian conscripts, where duty, group cohesion, and social responsibility are strongly emphasized. However, the elevated values also raise the possibility of sample-specific response tendencies (e.g., social desirability), which should be considered when interpreting moderation effects.

Also, it should be emphasized that the comparatively low statistical power of the present study limits the strength of inferences, particularly with regard to null and moderation findings, which therefore ought to be viewed as preliminary. The low internal consistency of several of the subscales also highlights the need to interpret the aforementioned findings with caution. Finally, the reliance on a combined measure of work and learning motivation, derived from two slightly different versions of the scale, further limits the interpretability of motivational findings and should be regarded as a provisional approach.

Exploratory Analyses: Work vs. Learning Motivation and Socioeconomic Status

Beyond the main hypotheses, and the exploratory investigation of the moral foundation subscales, to provide additional nuance beyond the primary hypotheses two additional exploratory analyses were conducted. Their findings should be regarded as tentative and interpreted with caution. The separation of work and learning motivations was intended to provide a clearer distinction than the combined motivation score. For work

motivation ($N = 35$), war stress showed only a marginal association and the overall model did not reach significance, which may in part be due to the very small sample size. In contrast, for learning motivation ($N = 101$), war stress emerged as a significant positive indicator, suggesting that in the context of geopolitical instability, conscripts may perceive education and skill development as particularly valuable resources. This pattern aligns with the Conservation of Resources Theory, which emphasizes that individuals under threat may invest in future-oriented assets to protect or regain resources. Neither COVID-19 impact nor climate worry was significantly associated with work or learning motivation when examined separately, reinforcing the conclusion that their influence on motivational processes was less pronounced in this population. The additional hierarchical analyses further indicated that socioeconomic status did not meaningfully contribute to explaining variance in any outcome, even though a much smaller effective sample size was available due to missing income data. Taken together, these exploratory findings suggest that war-related stress may uniquely enhance the drive for educational engagement in young conscripts, whereas broader socioeconomic differences appear to play a limited role in shaping motivational or well-being outcomes in this specific institutional context. These exploratory insights are valuable for shaping future research questions, but they should not be over-interpreted given the limited power and secondary nature of the analyses.

Strengths

Scope. A major strength of this study lies in its broad scope. By conducting a survey of key psychological dimensions, including work and learning motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety, the study provides a comprehensive insight into the experiences and perspectives of individuals undergoing compulsory military service. Moreover, incorporating an exploratory analysis into the underlying fundamental views and convictions of conscripts serves to broaden the scope of the present study. Utilising a range of statistical methodologies, including correlation analyses, hierarchical regression models, and moderation testing, the study generated reliable and comprehensible outcomes, supported by consistent trends inherent within the data. Additionally, it is noteworthy that the study incorporates three significant global crises: the ongoing climate crisis, the war in Ukraine, and the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic, which contribute to a substantial enhancement of the study's contextual depth. By examining both acute (e.g., war) and long-term (e.g., climate change) sources of stress, alongside a recent but waning public health crisis, the research provides a nuanced picture of how different types of societal challenges shape psychological outcomes.

This differentiation is crucial, as their combined inclusion enables a more comprehensive understanding of current sources of stress and concern among conscripts.

Underrepresented population. Another notable strength of this study lies in its demographic focus on individuals undergoing compulsory military service, a demographic frequently overlooked in psychological research. The majority of existing studies on mental health, motivation, and crisis-related stress have focused on civilian populations, including students, healthcare workers, and the general public. By examining conscripts in particular, this study provides valuable insights into a unique and structured social environment, characterised by its stressors, responsibilities and cultural expectations.

Limitations

Moral Foundations Questionnaire. A limitation of this study is its reliance on the Moral Foundations Questionnaire. Over the past, different concerns regarding the MFQ have been voiced (see Iurino & Saucier, 2020; Kim, Kang, & Yun, 2012; Kivikangas, Lönnqvist, & Ravaja, 2017; Nilsson & Erlandsson, 2015; Yilmaz, Harna, Bahcekapili, & Cesur, 2016, cited in Harper & Rhodes, 2021), and it has been updated (Harper & Rhodes, 2021; Zakharin & Bates, 2023). Additionally, internal consistency and reliability were significantly improved with the second iteration of the questionnaire, the Moral Foundations Questionnaire 2 (Zakharin & Bates, 2023). Due to availability of a German translation for the first iteration and the sole use of the Moral Foundations Questionnaire for exploratory purposes, the Moral Foundations Questionnaire 2 was not utilised. In this case, linguistic accuracy, especially with such a sensitive topic as moral foundations, was given preference over improved validity and internal consistency. However, the partially unacceptable alpha coefficients found for the present sample render this decision questionable, and indicate caution for any far-reaching interpretation.

Work and Learning Motivation. Another limitation concerns the construction of the combined motivation variable. Because the majority of participants (approximately two-thirds) were still in education, they completed the adapted “learning motivation” version of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale, while a smaller subsample completed the original “work motivation” version. Although descriptive comparisons suggested no critical differences between the two forms, the merging of these measures into a single combined motivation score inevitably introduces some uncertainty regarding construct validity. It remains possible that subtle differences in the context of work versus learning shaped how participants interpreted the items, which could have influenced the results. Consequently, findings involving the combined motivation measure should be interpreted with caution, and

future studies should ideally employ larger, more balanced samples that allow for separate analyses of work and learning motivation.

Study Design. The utilisation of self-report measures and a cross-sectional design, while practical, introduces certain limitations. The validity of the observed relationships is contingent on the willingness and ability of the participants to respond with honesty. Despite efforts to eliminate careless or patterned responses, the possibility of response bias or random answering could not be entirely ruled out. Moreover, the cross-sectional nature of the study, while appropriate for an exploratory investigation, precludes any definitive conclusions about causality. In order to ascertain the directionality or temporal stability of the observed effects, it would be necessary to employ longitudinal or experimental designs.

Statistical Power. A further limitation concerns the comparatively low statistical power achieved in this study. Both the a priori and post hoc calculations indicated that the present sample of $N = 151$ fell short of the requirements for reliably detecting small-to-moderate effects, particularly for regression and moderation analyses. As such, the study was sufficiently powered only to identify relatively large associations, whereas smaller but practically meaningful effects may have gone undetected. This caveat is especially relevant for the numerous null results, which should not be interpreted as evidence of absence, but rather as inconclusive findings that warrant replication with larger samples. The limited power is further compounded by multiple testing and the cross-sectional design, both of which increase the risk of Type II errors. Consequently, the present findings—especially those relating to moderation and non-significant associations—must be interpreted with caution and primarily as exploratory in nature.

Generalisability. While the present study provides valuable insights into the thoughts, motivations, and moral orientations of conscripts, its generalisability is limited by the demographic composition of the sample. The vast majority of participants were young males from urban areas who were undergoing mandatory military recruitment, which may not reflect the broader population in terms of gender, age, and socioeconomic background. Consequently, it is imperative to exercise caution when attempting to generalise the present findings.

Future Research

The present study identifies several avenues for future investigation. Firstly, due to its cross-sectional design, future research should employ longitudinal or repeated-measures approaches in order to better assess potential causal relationships and temporal changes

among the examined constructs. This would facilitate a more nuanced understanding of how individuals' experiences of crises develop over time and influence psychological outcomes.

Secondly, the observed relationship between war stress and learning motivation in the exploratory analysis warrants further exploration. Investigating the underlying mechanisms, such as perceived threat, future orientation, or the need for structure, could offer valuable insights into the influence of crisis contexts on educational engagement, particularly in structured environments like the military.

Thirdly, a significant proportion of conscripts articulated concerns regarding their future income and employment prospects in the context of the prevailing global crises. Whilst the present findings could not confirm such influences, it is recommended that future studies incorporate validated measures of financial insecurity or economic threat. The objective of such studies would be to assess the potential role of perceived financial vulnerability as a mediator or moderator of crisis-related psychological outcomes.

Fourthly, in view of recent advances in the field of moral psychology, future research should incorporate the revised Moral Foundations Questionnaire (MFQ-2) or other updated instruments with improved psychometric properties. These tools have the potential to more accurately capture individual moral orientations, especially in politically or culturally distinct samples such as military conscripts.

Finally, the minimal levels of climate anxiety evident in this sample underscore the necessity to examine the formation and expression of environmental and general attitudes within duty-based institutions such as the military. In line with this, the high levels of future anxiety observed in this study raise the question of whether conscription-related uncertainty, or other factors, contribute uniquely to future anxiety. Moreover, the consistently high scores across all moral foundations subscales open another avenue for research. It remains unclear whether this uniformly strong endorsement reflects genuine moral orientations among military populations, or whether it is shaped by situational influences such as social desirability, institutional norms, or the structured context of conscription. Future work should therefore examine the mechanisms underlying both the low climate concern and high future anxiety, as well as the elevated moral foundation scores, for example by incorporating measures of climate change knowledge, longitudinal designs, and cross-cultural comparisons of service members.

Practical Implications for the Austrian Armed Forces

The findings have several implications for the AAF. Elevated levels of future anxiety in this cohort point to the importance of preventive mental-health initiatives. Measures such

as resilience-building programs, routine-stabilising interventions, and structured spaces where conscripts can reflect on global events may help to mitigate these concerns. In terms of motivation, the results suggest targeted levers: COVID-type disruptions were linked to reduced motivation, highlighting the need for e.g. training continuity, predictable schedules, unit cohesion, and clear purpose cues during disruptive events. In contrast, war stress was positively associated with motivation, suggesting that the AAF could channel this heightened readiness into scenario-based training and skill development. Climate worry did not emerge as a motivational driver in this sample, implying that environmental messaging alone is unlikely to foster engagement; however, environmental responsibilities (e.g., disaster relief, infrastructure protection) could be framed in terms of operational readiness to enhance perceived relevance. The absence of significant crisis effects on life satisfaction suggests short-term resilience, though ongoing monitoring is advisable to capture delayed or cumulative impacts. Finally, the lack of ideological segmentation in responses indicates that broad, non-partisan interventions are feasible and likely to resonate across this cohort.

Conclusion

In summary, the present study provides valuable insights into how ongoing global crises, the COVID-19 pandemic, the climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine, relate to the psychological experiences of conscripts. A noteworthy finding was the elevated levels of future anxiety compared to established norms, suggesting that young conscripts experience heightened concerns about their personal and societal prospects. This underscores the relevance of future anxiety as a key construct in understanding the psychological landscape of this group. Beyond this, the results indicated that crises did not significantly influence life satisfaction, and their effects on motivation were mixed: COVID-19 impact was associated with reduced motivation, whereas war stress appeared to increase it, while climate worry showed no consistent link. These patterns highlight the context-dependent nature of motivational responses to crises. The integration of moral foundations contributed further nuance, suggesting that specific moral orientations may act as resources or vulnerabilities, even though broad ideological moderation effects were not observed.

Practically, the findings point to the need for preventive mental-health support and structured guidance to help conscripts manage uncertainty, alongside measures to sustain motivation under disruptive conditions. Despite methodological limitations (self-report, cross-sectional design, constrained power, and the provisional nature of the combined motivation measure), the study contributes to a broader understanding of how overlapping societal crises shape both motivation and future-oriented distress in a structured, duty-based context. Future

longitudinal research with larger and more diverse samples will be important to clarify causal mechanisms and inform targeted interventions that safeguard both well-being and preparedness among young service members.

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Appendix A

Power Estimation and Python Codes

For the correlation matrices, the power estimation was calculated utilizing the Anaconda Navigator (Anaconda, Inc., 2024), more specifically the Jupyter notebook (Kluyver et al., 2016) for Python (Python Software Foundation, 2023) and the Monte Carlo power estimation (Morris et al., 2019). The Code was generated with the help of ChatGPT (OpenAI, 2025) and can be found below.

A1: 3x3 Correlation Matrix Power Estimation

```
# per_pair_power_3x3.py
import numpy as np
from scipy.stats import t as student_t
np.random.seed(123)

def pair_power(N, r_true, reps=10000, alpha=0.05, m_tests=9):
    """Monte Carlo per-pair power for a single correlation tested at Bonferroni alpha/m."""
    alpha_eff = alpha / m_tests
    # simulate bivariate normals with true correlation r_true
    z1 = np.random.normal(size=(reps, N))
    eps = np.random.normal(size=(reps, N))
    z2 = r_true * z1 + np.sqrt(max(1e-12, 1 - r_true**2)) * eps
    # row-wise (per-rep) Pearson r
    z1c = z1 - z1.mean(axis=1, keepdims=True)
    z2c = z2 - z2.mean(axis=1, keepdims=True)
    num = np.sum(z1c * z2c, axis=1)
    den = np.sqrt(np.sum(z1c**2, axis=1) * np.sum(z2c**2, axis=1))
    rhat = num / den
    # two-sided p-values
    df = N - 2
    tvals = rhat * np.sqrt(df / np.maximum(1e-12, 1 - rhat**2))
    pvals = 2 * (1 - student_t.cdf(np.abs(tvals), df=df))
    return np.mean(pvals < alpha_eff)

def power_matrix_3x3(N, r_spec=0.2, reps=10000, alpha=0.05):
    """
    r_spec: either scalar (same r for all 9 pairs) or 3x3 array of true r_ij.
    Returns 3x3 matrix of per-pair powers under Bonferroni (.05/9).
    """
```

```

"""
R = np.full((3,3), float(r_spec)) if np.isscalar(r_spec) else np.asarray(r_spec, float)
out = np.zeros_like(R, dtype=float)
for i in range(3):
    for j in range(3):
        out[i, j] = pair_power(N, R[i, j], reps=reps, alpha=alpha, m_tests=9)
return out
def min_N_for_target_3x3(target=.80, r_spec=0.2, Ns=range(60, 401, 10), reps=8000,
alpha=0.05):
    for N in Ns:
        P = power_matrix_3x3(N, r_spec=r_spec, reps=reps, alpha=alpha)
        if P.min() >= target:
            return N, P
    return None, None
if __name__ == "__main__":
    for r_true in (0.20, 0.30):
        N_star, P = min_N_for_target_3x3(target=.80, r_spec=r_true, Ns=range(60, 501, 10),
reps=8000)
        if N_star is None:
            print(f'[3x3] r={r_true:.2f}: did not reach .80 per-pair power within N≤500.')
        else:
            print(f'[3x3] r={r_true:.2f}: min N for ≥.80 per-pair power = {N_star}')
            print(np.round(P, 2))

```

A2: 3x5 Correlation Matrix Power Estimation

```

# per_pair_power_3x5.py
import numpy as np
from scipy.stats import t as student_t
np.random.seed(123)
def pair_power(N, r_true, reps=10000, alpha=0.05, m_tests=15):
    """Monte Carlo per-pair power for a single correlation tested at Bonferroni
alpha/m."""
    alpha_eff = alpha / m_tests
    z1 = np.random.normal(size=(reps, N))
    eps = np.random.normal(size=(reps, N))

```

```

z2 = r_true * z1 + np.sqrt(max(1e-12, 1 - r_true**2)) * eps
z1c = z1 - z1.mean(axis=1, keepdims=True)
z2c = z2 - z2.mean(axis=1, keepdims=True)
num = np.sum(z1c * z2c, axis=1)
den = np.sqrt(np.sum(z1c**2, axis=1) * np.sum(z2c**2, axis=1))
rhat = num / den
df = N - 2
tvals = rhat * np.sqrt(df / np.maximum(1e-12, 1 - rhat**2))
pvals = 2 * (1 - student_t.cdf(np.abs(tvals), df=df))
return np.mean(pvals < alpha_eff)

def power_matrix_3x5(N, r_spec=0.2, reps=10000, alpha=0.05):
    """
    r_spec: scalar (same r for all 15 pairs) or array (3x5) of true r_ij.
    Returns 3x5 per-pair power matrix under Bonferroni (.05/15).
    """
    R = np.full((3,5), float(r_spec)) if np.isscalar(r_spec) else np.asarray(r_spec, float)
    out = np.zeros_like(R, dtype=float)
    for i in range(3):
        for j in range(5):
            out[i, j] = pair_power(N, R[i, j], reps=reps, alpha=alpha, m_tests=15)
    return out

def min_N_for_target_3x5(target=.80, r_spec=0.2, Ns=range(60, 601, 10), reps=8000,
alpha=0.05):
    for N in Ns:
        P = power_matrix_3x5(N, r_spec=r_spec, reps=reps, alpha=alpha)
        if P.min() >= target:
            return N, P
    return None, None

if __name__ == "__main__":
    for r_true in (0.20, 0.30):
        N_star, P = min_N_for_target_3x5(target=.80, r_spec=r_true, Ns=range(60, 601,
10), reps=8000)
        if N_star is None:
            print(f"[3x5] r={r_true:.2f}: did not reach .80 per-pair power within N≤600.")

```

else:

```
print(f"[3x5] r={r_true:.2f}: min N for  $\geq .80$  per-pair power = {N_star}")  
print(np.round(P, 2))
```

Appendix B

English - German Translation of the Questionnaire

In the following, the translation procedure as well as the translations, including the corresponding comments by the translators (Table A1-A3), for the different scales can be found. The procedure was as follows:

1. Forwards and backwards translation by two individuals (C1, pink), with help of the software deepL
2. Check and correction by author (blue)
3. Check and correction by two individuals, a native english speaker (green) and a teacher (orange)
4. Finalisation of the questionnaires (for the final versions, see Appendix C)

Table B1

German Translation of the Coronavirus Impact Scale

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
Routines	Routinen	Routines	
No change.	Keine Änderung.	No change.	
Mild. Change in only one area (eg, work, education, social life, hobbies, religious activities).	Geringfügig. Veränderung in nur einem Lebensbereich (z. B. Arbeit, Ausbildung, soziales Leben, Hobbys, religiöse Aktivitäten).	Minor. Change in only one area (e.g. work, education, social life, hobbies, religious activities).	Mild = geringfügig, leicht, mild? “Mild” passt Mild contrasts most with “Major”, not “Severe”. General meaning is still retained in the backwards translation. Würde geringfügig nehmen Hier könnte man auch im Dt. “moderat” nutzen Würde moderat nehmen
Moderate. Change in two areas (eg, work, education, social life, hobbies,	Mäßig. Veränderung in zwei Bereichen (z. B. Arbeit, Ausbildung, soziales Leben,	Moderate. Change in two areas (e.g. work, education, social life, hobbies, religious activities).	

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
religious activities).	Hobbys, religiöse Aktivitäten).		
Severe. Change in three or more areas (eg, work, education, social life, hobbies, religious activities).	Schwerwiegend. Veränderung in drei oder mehr Bereichen (z. B. Arbeit, Ausbildung, soziales Leben, Hobbys, religiöse Aktivitäten).	Severe. Change in three or more areas (e.g. work, education, social life, hobbies, religious activities).	Könnte man hier auch auf den Plural gehen? Ist eigentlich logisch, da es mindestens drei Veränderungen sind, allerdings gibt dies Englische nicht eindeutig her
Family Income/Employment	Familieneinkommen/Beschäftigung	Family income/employment	
No change.	/	/	
Mild. Small change; able to meet all needs and pay bills.	Geringfügig. Kleine Veränderung ; kann alle Bedürfnisse befriedigen und Rechnungen bezahlen.	Minor. Small change; can meet all needs and pay bills.	Alternative: '[...] alle Bedürfnisse können befriedigt und Rechnungen bezahlt werden.', alles Notwendige und alle Rechnungen können bezahlt werden
Moderate. Having to make cuts but able to meet basic needs and pay bills.	Mäßig. Einschnitte, aber in der Lage, die Grundbedürfnisse zu befriedigen und Rechnungen zu bezahlen.	Moderate. Cuts, but able to meet basic needs and pay bills.	"Can" is slightly less precise than "able" but meaning is retained. Alt: Moderate Einschränkungen sind nötig, um die Grundbedürfnisse zu befriedigen und Rechnungen zu bezahlen

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
			“Cuts” is not specific enough of a phrase and does not retain the <i>need</i> for those cuts to happen. Could be “cuts” as a choice. Also has connotations of self-harm. Moderate Einschränkungen
Severe. Unable to meet basic needs and/or pay bills.	Schwerwiegend. Unfähig, die Grundbedürfnisse zu befriedigen und/oder Rechnungen zu bezahlen.	Severe. Unable to meet basic needs and/or pay bills.	Nicht in der Lage, die Grundbedürfnisse zu erfüllen/befriedigen und Rechnungen zu bezahlen
Food Access	Zugang zu Lebensmitteln	Access to food	
No change.	/	/	
Mild. Enough food but difficulty getting to stores and/or finding needed items.	Geringfügig. Genügend Lebensmittel, aber Schwierigkeiten, Geschäfte zu erreichen und/oder benötigte Artikel zu finden.	Mild. Plenty of food, but difficulty reaching shops and/or finding needed items.	“Plenty” connotes something not originally present—abundance, excess even—but the general meaning is retained.
Moderate. Occasionally without enough food and/or	Mäßig. Gelegentlich ohne ausreichende und/oder hochwertige	Moderate. Occasionally without sufficient	“High-quality” is maybe a bit stronger of a phrase than “good quality”, but

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
good quality (eg, healthy) foods.	(z. B. gesunde) Lebensmittel.	and/or high-quality (e.g. healthy) food.	the general meaning is retained.
Severe. Frequently without enough food and/or good quality (eg, healthy) foods.	Schwerwiegend. Häufig ohne ausreichende und/oder hochwertige (z. B. gesunde) Lebensmittel.	Severe. Often without sufficient and/or high-quality (e.g. healthy) food.	
Medical health care access	Zugang zur medizinischen Gesundheitsversorgun g	Access to medical healthcare	
No change.	/	/	
Mild. Appointments moved to telehealth.	Geringfügig. Verlegung von Terminen in die Telemedizin.	Mild. Transferring appointments to telemedicine.	This doesn't make quite as much sense, implying the patient is the one transferring their appointments, or is planning to transfer their appointments themselves.
Moderate. Delays or cancellations in appointments and/or delays in getting prescriptions; changes have minimal impact on health.	Mäßig. Verzögerungen oder Stornierungen von Terminen und/oder Verzögerungen bei der Beschaffung von Rezepten; Änderungen haben minimale	Moderate. Delays or cancellations of appointments and/or delays in obtaining prescriptions; changes have minimal impact on health.	Moderat.

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
	Auswirkungen auf die Gesundheit.		
Severe. Unable to access needed care resulting in moderate to severe impact on health.	Schwerwiegend. Kein Zugang zur benötigten Versorgung mit mäßigen bis schweren Auswirkungen auf die Gesundheit.	Severe. Inability to access needed care with moderate to severe health effects.	“With” (instead of “resulting in” is unspecific. Did they have these “health effects” before their need to access care?
Mental health treatment access	Zugang zur psychiatrischen Behandlung	Access to psychiatric treatment	Zugang zu psychischen Gesundheitsfürsorge/Behandlung Zugang zu psychiatrischer Behandlung
No change.	/	/	
Mild.	/	/	
Appointments moved to telehealth.			
Moderate. Delays or cancellations in appointments and/or delays in getting prescriptions; changes have minimal impact.	Mäßig. Verzögerungen oder Stornierungen von Terminen und/oder Verzögerungen beim Erhalt von Rezepten; Änderungen haben minimale Auswirkungen.	Moderate. Delays or cancellations of appointments and/or delays in receiving prescriptions; changes have minimal impact.	“Of appointments” is correct here, “in” (original) is actually slightly inaccurate.
Severe. Unable to access needed care resulting in severe risk	Schwerwiegend. Kein Zugang zur erforderlichen Versorgung, was zu	Severe. No access to necessary care, resulting in high risk	

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
and/or significant impact.	einem hohen Risiko und/oder erheblichen Auswirkungen führt.	and/or significant impact.	
Access to extended family and non-family social supports	Zugang zu erweiterten familiären und außerfamiliären sozialen Hilfen	Access to extended family and extra-familial social support	“Extra-familial” sounds better to me than “non-family”, but they mean generally the same thing.
			Unterstützung könnte hier auch ein passendes Nomen sein
No change.	/	/	
Mild. Continued visits with social distancing and/or regular phone calls and/or televideo or social media contacts.	Geringfügig. Fortgesetzte Besuche mit sozialer Distanzierung und/oder regelmäßige Telefonanrufe und/oder Televideokontakte oder Kontakte über soziale Medien.	Mild. Continued visits with social distancing and/or regular phone calls and/or televideo contacts or contacts via social media.	‘Kontinuierliche’ oder ‘fortlaufende’ Besuche Besuche meint hier doch eher “Soziale Kontakte”, oder? Also vielleicht eher: Durchgängig soziale Kontakte auf Distanz?
Moderate. Loss of in person and remote contact with a few people, but not all supports.	Mäßig. Verlust des persönlichen Kontakts und des Fernkontakts mit einigen (wenigen) Personen, aber nicht allen Unterstützern.	Moderate. Loss of personal contact and remote contact with a few people, but not all supporters.	‘Stützen’? “Personal” is wrong, as it implies social familiarity more than it implies an offline setting.
Severe. Loss of in person and remote contact with all supports.	Schwerwiegend. Verlust des persönlichen Kontakts und des Fernkontakts	Severe. Loss of personal contact and remote contact with all supporters.	“

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
	mit allen Unterstützern.		
Experiences of stress related to coronavirus pandemic	Stresserfahrungen im Zusammenhang mit der COVID-19 Pandemie.	Stress experiences in connection with the coronavirus pandemic	
None.	Keine.	None.	
Mild.	Geringfügig.	Mild. Occasional	Oxford comma after the
Occasional	Gelegentliche Sorgen	worry and/or minor	“sad” helps clarify the
worries and/or	und/oder geringfügige	stress-related	structure of the list.
minor stress- related	stressbedingte	symptoms (e.g.	Otherwise fine!
symptoms (eg,	Symptome (z. B. ein	being a little	
feel a little	wenig ängstlich,	anxious, sad and/or	Ich würde hier für
anxious, sad,	traurig und/oder	angry; mild/rare	trouble sleeping
and/or angry;	wütend sein;	sleep problems).	Schlafstörungen nehmen
mild/rare trouble sleeping).	leichte/seltene Schlafprobleme).		
Moderate.	Mäßig. Häufige	Moderate. Frequent	Anstatt “Häufig”
Frequent	Sorgen und/oder	worry and/or	“Regelmäßig”
worries and/or	mäßige stressbedingte	moderate stress-	
moderate stress- related	Symptome (z. B.	related symptoms	
symptoms (eg,	mäßig ängstlich,	(e.g. being	
feel moderately	traurig und/oder	moderately anxious,	
anxious, sad,	wütend sein;	sad and/or angry;	
and/or angry;	mäßige/gelegentliche	moderate/occasional	
moderate/occasi onal trouble sleeping).	Schlafstörungen).	sleep disturbances).	
Severe.	Schwerwiegend.	Severe. Persistent	
Persistent	Anhaltende Sorgen	worry and/or severe	
worries and/or	und/oder schwere	stress-related	

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
severe stress-related symptoms (eg, feel extremely anxious, sad, and/or angry; severe/frequent trouble sleeping).	stressbedingte Symptome (z. B. extrem ängstlich, traurig und/oder wütend sein; schwere/häufige Schlafstörungen).	symptoms (e.g. being extremely anxious, sad and/or angry; severe/frequent sleep disturbances).	
Stress and discord in the family	Stress und Unfrieden in der Familie	Stress and discord in the family	‘Zwietracht’ oder ‘Unstimmigkeiten’? “Unfrieden” gefällt mir hier auch besser, ist jedoch alles möglich (s.o.#9)
None.	/	/	
Mild. Family members occasionally short-tempered with one another; no physical violence.	Geringfügig. Familienmitglieder sind gelegentlich kurzatmig zueinander; keine körperliche Gewalt.	Mild. Family members are occasionally short with each other; no physical violence.	“Short” is very inaccurate—that’s just being blunt and rude, not so much having a tendency to anger. The usual meaning of short on its own adds to the confusion here. Anstatt kurzatmig vielleicht “gereizt” oder “reizbar”
Moderate. Family members frequently short-tempered with	Mäßig. Familienmitglieder sind häufig kurzatmig zueinander; und/oder	Moderate. Family members are often short-tempered with each other; and/or	

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
one another; and/or children in the home getting in physical fights with one another.	die Kinder im Haushalt geraten in körperliche Auseinandersetzungen untereinander .	the children in the household get into physical altercations.	
Severe. Family members frequently short- tempered with one another and adults in the home throwing things at one another, and/or knocking over furniture, and/or hitting and/or harming one another.	Schwerwiegend. Die Familienmitglieder sind häufig kurzatmig und die Erwachsenen im Haushalt werfen sich gegenseitig mit Gegenständen ab und/oder werfen Möbel um und/oder schlagen und/oder verletzen sich gegenseitig.	Severe. Family members are often short tempered and the adults in the household throw objects at each other and/or knock over furniture and/or hit and/or hurt each other.	“With each other” is missing, which loses context for where the anger arises. ‘Bewerfen sich zu Hause mit Gegenständen und...’
Personal diagnosis of coronavirus	Persönliche Diagnose des Coronavirus	Personal diagnosis of the coronavirus	
None.	/	/	
Mild. Symptoms effectively managed at home.	Geringfügig. Die Symptome werden/ wurden zu Hause wirksam behandelt.	Minor. The symptoms are effectively treated at home.	
Moderate. Symptoms severe and	Mäßig. Schwere Symptome, die einen kurzen	Moderate. Severe symptoms that	

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
required brief hospitalization.	Krankenhausaufenthalt erforderlich machten.	required a short hospitalisation.	
Severe.	Schwerwiegend.	Severe. Severe	
Symptoms severe and required ventilation.	Schwere Symptome, die eine Beatmung erforderten .	symptoms requiring ventilation.	
Number of immediate family members diagnosed with coronavirus: ____	Anzahl der unmittelbaren Familienmitglieder, bei denen das Coronavirus diagnostiziert wurde: ____	Number of immediate family members diagnosed with coronavirus: ____	
Rate the symptoms of the person who was most sick:	Bewerten Sie die Symptome der Person, die am meisten krank war:	Evaluate the symptoms of the person who was most ill:	“Evaluate” is slightly more clinical than “rate”, but the general meaning is the same. ‘Geben Sie eine Einschätzung des Krankheitsgrades/Schwere der Erkrankung der am meisten erkrankten Person’
None.	/	/	
Mild. Symptoms effectively managed at home.	/	/	
Moderate.	/	/	
Symptoms severe and			

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
required brief hospitalization.			
Severe.	/	/	
Symptoms severe and required ventilation.			
Routines	Routinen	Routines	
No change.	Keine Änderung.	No change.	
Mild. Change in only one area (eg, work, education, social life, hobbies, religious activities).	Geringfügig. Veränderung in nur einem Lebensbereich (z. B. Arbeit, Ausbildung, soziales Leben, Hobbys, religiöse Aktivitäten).	Minor. Change in only one area (e.g. work, education, social life, hobbies, religious activities).	Mild = geringfügig, leicht, mild? “Mild” passt Mild contrasts most with “Major”, not “Severe”. General meaning is still retained in the backwards translation.
Moderate. Change in two areas (eg, work, education, social life, hobbies, religious activities).	Mäßig. Veränderung in zwei Bereichen (z. B. Arbeit, Ausbildung, soziales Leben, Hobbys, religiöse Aktivitäten).	Moderate. Change in two areas (e.g. work, education, social life, hobbies, religious activities).	Würde geringfügig nehmen Hier könnte man auch im Dt. “moderat” nutzen Würde moderat nehmen
Severe. Change in three or more areas (eg, work, education, social	Schwerwiegend. Veränderung in drei oder mehr Bereichen (z. B. Arbeit,	Severe. Change in three or more areas (e.g. work, education, social	Könnte man hier auch auf den Plural gehen? Ist eigentlich logisch, da es mindestens drei

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
life, hobbies, religious activities).	Ausbildung, soziales Leben, Hobbys, religiöse Aktivitäten).	life, hobbies, religious activities).	Veränderungen sind, allerdings gibt dies Englische nicht eindeutig her
Family Income/Employ ment	Familieneinkommen/ Beschäftigung	Family income/employment	
No change.	/	/	
Mild. Small change; able to meet all needs and pay bills.	Geringfügig. Kleine Veränderung ; kann alle Bedürfnisse befriedigen und Rechnungen bezahlen.	Minor. Small change; can meet all needs and pay bills.	Alternative: '[...] alle Bedürfnisse können befriedigt und Rechnungen bezahlt werden.', alles Notwendige und alle Rechnungen können bezahlt werden "Can" is slightly less precise than "able" but meaning is retained.
Moderate. Having to make cuts but able to meet basic needs and pay bills.	Mäßig. Einschnitte, aber in der Lage, die Grundbedürfnisse zu befriedigen und Rechnungen zu bezahlen.	Moderate. Cuts, but able to meet basic needs and pay bills.	Alt: Moderate Einschränkungen sind nötig, um die Grundbedürfnisse zu befriedigen und Rechnungen zu bezahlen "Cuts" is not specific enough of a phrase and does not retain the <i>need</i> for those cuts to happen. Could be "cuts" as a

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/ suggestions
			choice. Also has connotations of self-harm.
			Moderate Einschränkungen

Table B2*German Translation of the War-related Stress Scale*

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/suggestions
In relation to the war in Ukraine, please indicate the extent to which you (do not) experience difficulties or concerns in the following areas:	Bitte geben Sie im Zusammenhang mit dem Krieg in der Ukraine an, inwieweit Sie in den folgenden Bereichen Schwierigkeiten oder Bedenken haben (oder nicht haben):	In connection with the war in Ukraine, please indicate to what extent you have (do not have) difficulties or concerns in the following areas:	
Your own safety.	Ihre eigene Sicherheit.	Your own safety.	
Safety of your loved ones.	Sicherheit für Ihre Angehörigen.	Security for your loved ones.	Direkte Übersetzung wäre ‘geliebte Menschen’, unpassend im deutschen? “Security” connotes something different than “safety”— security is more about defence, being armed, etc.

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/suggestions
Work/school future.	Berufliche und schulische Zukunft.	Professional and educational future.	Sicherheitsgefühl? Hier würde ich auch den Schrägstrich erhalten oder 'und bzw. oder' daraus machen
Access to essential items (e.g., food, medicine, toiletries).	Zugang zu lebensnotwendigen Dingen (z. B. Lebensmittel, Medikamente, Toilettenartikel).	Access to essentials (e.g. food, medication, toiletries).	Hygieneartikel statt Toilettenartikel
Social relationships with your loved ones.	Soziale Beziehungen zu Ihren Angehörigen.	Social relationships with your loved ones.	Relatives → loved ones
Social relationships in general.	Soziale Beziehungen im Allgemeinen.	Social relationships in general.	Agreed!
Economic crisis in Austria [country of residence].	Wirtschaftskrise in Österreich [Land des Wohnsitzes].	Economic crisis in Austria [country of residence].	
Functioning of public institutions (e.g., governmental bodies, authorities, police).	Funktionieren der öffentlichen Einrichtungen (z. B. Regierungsstellen, Behörden, Polizei).	Functioning of public institutions (e.g. government agencies, authorities, police).	
Functioning of the healthcare system.	Das Funktionieren des Gesundheitssystems.	The functioning of the healthcare system.	

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/suggestions
Worsening of public health.	Verschlechterung der öffentlichen Gesundheit.	Deterioration of public health.	
Spending your free time.	Wie Sie Ihre Freizeit verbringen.	How you spend your free time.	Freizeitgewohnheiten?
Uncertainty about the future development of the situation,	Ungewissheit über die zukünftige Entwicklung der Situation,	Uncertainty about the future development of the situation,	
Fear of the war moving to Austria [country of residence].	Angst vor dem Krieg, der nach Österreich [Wohnsitzland] zieht.	Fear of the war moving to Austria [country of residence].	‘Angst davor, dass der Krieg nach Österreich kommt/zieht.’ Stimme zu
Concern about the war moving to the EU or the world.	Besorgnis über die Ausweitung des Krieges auf die EU oder die ganze Welt.	Concerns about the expansion of the war to the EU or the whole world.	
Nuclear threat.	Nukleare Bedrohung.	Nuclear threat.	
Austria [country of residence] coping with a migration wave.	Österreich [Wohnsitzland] bei der Bewältigung einer Migrationswelle.	Austria [country of residence] in coping with a wave of migration.	
Rising prices (inflation).	Steigende Preise (Inflation).	Rising prices (inflation).	
Lack of energy resources (e.g., gas, oil, electricity).	Mangel an Energieressourcen (z. B. Gas, Öl, Strom).	Lack of energy resources (e.g. gas, oil, electricity).	

Original	German (forwards)	English (backwards)	Comments/suggestions
Worsening of your mental health (e.g., stress, anxiety, depression).	Verschlechterung der (Ihrer) psychischen Gesundheit (z. B. Stress, Angstzustände, Depressionen).	Deterioration in mental health (e.g. stress, anxiety, depression).	‘Ihrer’
Development of the political situation in Austria [country of residence].	Entwicklung der politischen Situation in Österreich [Wohnsitzland].	Development of the political situation in Austria [country of residence].	
Quality of your life.	Ihre Lebensqualität.	Your quality of life.	

Table B3*German Translation of the Climate Change Worry Scale*

Original	German (forwards)	English(backwards)	Comments/suggestions
Read each statement and indicate how frequently each statement applies to you. Respond in terms of how you generally feel. There are no right or wrong answers.	Lesen Sie jede Aussage und geben Sie an, wie häufig die jeweilige Aussage auf Sie zutrifft. Antworten Sie so, wie Sie sich im Allgemeinen fühlen. Es gibt keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten.	Read each statement and indicate how often each statement applies to you. Answer the way you generally feel. There are no right or wrong answers.	
I worry about climate change	Ich Sorge mich mehr über den	I'm more worried about climate	The tense is different—"I'm worried" is <i>right now</i> ,

Original	German (forwards)	English(backwards)	Comments/suggestions
more than other people.	Klimawandel als andere Menschen.	change than other people.	“I worry” is more general.
Thoughts about climate change cause me to have worries about what the future may hold.	Der Gedanke an den Klimawandel bereitet mir Sorgen, was die Zukunft bringen könnte.	The thought of climate change worries me about what the future might bring.	‘Gedanken über den Klimawandel lassen mich mit Sorge in die Zukunft blicken.’
I tend to seek out information about climate change in the media (e.g., TV, newspaper, internet).	Ich neige dazu, mich in den Medien (z. B. Fernsehen, Zeitung, Internet) über den Klimawandel zu informieren.	I tend to find out about climate change from the media (e.g. television, newspapers, internet).	“Seek out” is something you <i>try</i> to do, actively. “Find out” is something that happens to you, passively. Very different!
			‘Tendiere dazu’? Je nach Bildungsstand der Befragten
I tend to worry when I hear about climate change, even when the effects of climate change may be some time away.	Ich neige dazu, mir Sorgen zu machen, wenn ich vom Klimawandel höre, auch wenn die Auswirkungen des Klimawandels noch eine Weile auf sich warten lassen könnten.	I tend to worry when I hear about climate change, even if the effects of climate change are still a while away.	
I worry that outbreaks of severe weather may be the	Ich befürchte, dass Ausbrüche von Unwettern die Folge des	I fear that outbreaks of severe weather could be the result of climate change.	Fear is not worry. These are different emotions.

Original	German (forwards)	English(backwards)	Comments/suggestions
result of climate change.	Klimawandels sein könnten.		Ich mache mir Sorgen, dass...
I worry about climate change so much that I feel paralyzed in being able to do anything about it.	Ich mache mir so viele Sorgen über den Klimawandel, dass ich mich wie gelähmt fühle, wenn es darum geht, etwas dagegen zu tun.	I worry so much about climate change that I feel paralysed when it comes to doing anything about it.	Ich mache mir über den Klimawandel so viel Sorgen, dass ich mich wie gelähmt fühle, in der Lage zu sein, etwas dagegen zu tun. Den "Gelähmt-Teil" könnte man auch wegelassen und stattdessen: dass ich den Eindruck habe, dass ich nichts dagegegn tun kann.
I worry that I might not be able to cope with climate change.	Ich mache mir Sorgen, dass ich dem Klimawandel nicht gewachsen sein könnte.	I'm worried that I might not be able to cope with climate change.	‘Ich mache mir Sorgen, dass ich nicht mit dem Klimawandel umgehen können werde.’
I notice that I have been worrying about climate change.	Ich stelle fest, dass ich mir Gedanken über den Klimawandel gemacht habe und noch machen werde.	I realise that I have been thinking about climate change.	Das übermittelt dies nicht, progressive form bedeutet hier andauernd: Ich stelle fest, dass ich mir die ganze Zeit über den Klimawandel Sorgen gemacht habe. (und noch machen werde).
Once I begin to worry about climate	Wenn ich einmal anfangen, mir über den Klimawandel	Once I start thinking about	Worry, as an emotion, is not the same as just

Original	German (forwards)	English(backwards)	Comments/suggestions
change, I find it difficult to stop.	Gedanken zu machen, fällt es mir schwer, damit aufzuhören.	climate change, I find it hard to stop.	thinking about climate change. Wenn ich 'erst einmal anfänge'... kann ich gar nicht damit aufhören - wäre die freie Übersetzung
I worry about how climate change may affect the people I care about.	Ich mache mir Sorgen darüber, wie sich der Klimawandel auf die Menschen auswirken könnte, die mir wichtig sind.	I worry about how climate change could affect the people I care about.	

Appendix C

Final Questionnaires

C1: Coronavirus Impact Scale

Bewerten Sie, wie sehr die COVID-19 Pandemie Ihr Leben in jeder der folgenden Hinsichten verändert hat.

1. Routinen
 - a. Keine Änderung.
 - b. Mild. Veränderung in nur einem Lebensbereich (z. B. Arbeit, Ausbildung, soziales Leben, Hobbys, religiöse Aktivitäten).
 - c. Moderat. Veränderung in zwei Bereichen (z. B. Arbeit, Ausbildung, soziales Leben, Hobbys, religiöse Aktivitäten).
 - d. Schwerwiegend. Veränderung in drei oder mehr Bereichen (z. B. Arbeit, Ausbildung, soziales Leben, Hobbys, religiöse Aktivitäten).
2. Familieneinkommen/Beschäftigung
 - a. Keine Änderung.
 - b. Mild. Kleine Veränderung; alles Notwendige und alle Rechnungen können bezahlt werden.
 - c. Moderat. Einschränkungen sind nötig, um die Grundbedürfnisse zu befriedigen und Rechnungen zu bezahlen.
 - d. Schwerwiegend. Nicht in der Lage, die Grundbedürfnisse zu erfüllen/befriedigen und Rechnungen zu bezahlen.
3. Zugang zu Lebensmitteln
 - a. Keine Änderung.
 - b. Mild. Genügend Lebensmittel, aber Schwierigkeiten, Geschäfte zu erreichen und/oder benötigte Artikel zu finden.
 - c. Moderat. Gelegentlich ohne ausreichende und/oder hochwertige (z. B. gesunde) Lebensmittel.
 - d. Schwerwiegend. Häufig ohne ausreichende und/oder hochwertige (z. B. gesunde) Lebensmittel.
4. Zugang zur medizinischen Grundversorgung
 - a. Keine Änderung.
 - b. Mild. Verlegung von Terminen in die Telemedizin.
 - c. Moderat. Verzögerungen oder Stornierungen von Terminen und/oder Verzögerungen bei der Beschaffung von Rezepten; Änderungen haben

minimale Auswirkungen auf die Gesundheit.

- d. Schwerwiegend. Kein Zugang zur benötigten Versorgung mit mäßigen bis schweren Auswirkungen auf die Gesundheit.
5. Zugang zur psychischen Gesundheitsfürsorge/Behandlung
 - a. Keine Änderung.
 - b. Mild. Verlegung von Terminen in die Telemedizin.
 - c. Moderat. Verzögerungen oder Stornierungen von Terminen und/oder Verzögerungen beim Erhalt von Rezepten; Änderungen haben minimale Auswirkungen.
 - d. Schwerwiegend. Kein Zugang zur erforderlichen Versorgung, was zu einem hohen Risiko und/oder erheblichen Auswirkungen führt.
6. Zugang zu erweiterten familiären und außerfamiliären sozialen Hilfen/Unterstützungen
 - a. Keine Änderung.
 - b. Mild. Durchgängig soziale Kontakte auf Distanz und/oder regelmäßige Telefonanrufe und/oder Televideokontakte oder Kontakte über soziale Medien.
 - c. Moderat. Verlust des persönlichen Kontakts und des Fernkontakts mit einigen (wenigen) Personen, aber nicht allen Stützen.
 - d. Schwerwiegend. Verlust des persönlichen Kontakts und des Fernkontakts mit allen Unterstützern.
7. Stresserfahrungen im Zusammenhang mit der COVID-19 Pandemie.
 - a. Keine.
 - b. Mild. Gelegentliche Sorgen und/oder geringfügige stressbedingte Symptome (z. B. ein wenig ängstlich, traurig und/oder wütend sein; leichte/seltene Schlafstörungen).
 - c. Moderat. Häufige Sorgen und/oder mäßige stressbedingte Symptome (z. B. mäßig ängstlich, traurig und/oder wütend sein; mäßige/gelegentliche Schlafstörungen).
 - d. Schwerwiegend. Anhaltende Sorgen und/oder schwere stressbedingte Symptome (z. B. extrem ängstlich, traurig und/oder wütend sein; schwere/häufige Schlafstörungen).
8. Stress und Unfrieden in der Familie
 - a. Keine.
 - b. Mild. Familienmitglieder mit gelegentlich geringer Frustrationstoleranz

untereinander, keine körperliche Gewalt.

- c. Moderat. Familienmitglieder häufig mit geringer Frustrationstoleranz untereinander; und/oder die Kinder im Haushalt geraten in körperliche Auseinandersetzungen miteinander.
- d. Schwerwiegend. Familienmitglieder häufig mit geringer Frustrationstoleranz untereinander und die Erwachsenen bewerfen sich zu Hause gegenseitig mit Gegenständen und/oder werfen Möbel um und/oder schlagen und/oder verletzen sich gegenseitig.

9. Persönliche Diagnose des Coronavirus

- a. Keine.
- b. Mild. Die Symptome wurden zu Hause wirksam behandelt.
- c. Moderat. Schwere Symptome, die einen kurzen Krankenhausaufenthalt erforderlich machten.
- d. Schwerwiegend. Schwere Symptome, die eine Beatmung erforderten.

10. Anzahl der nahen Familienmitglieder, bei denen das Coronavirus diagnostiziert wurde: ____

Geben Sie eine Einschätzung der Schwere der Erkrankung der am meisten erkrankten Person

- a. Keine.
- b. Mild. Die Symptome wurden zu Hause wirksam behandelt.
- c. Moderat. Schwere Symptome, die einen kurzen Krankenhausaufenthalt erforderlich machten.
- d. Schwerwiegend. Schwere Symptome, die eine Beatmung erforderten.
- e. Ein nahes Familienmitglied ist an dem Coronavirus gestorben.

11. Anzahl der entfernten Familienmitglieder und/oder engen Freunde, bei denen das Coronavirus diagnostiziert wurde: ____

- a. Keine.
- b. Mild. Die Symptome wurden zu Hause wirksam behandelt.
- c. Moderat. Schwere Symptome, die einen kurzen Krankenhausaufenthalt erforderlich machten.
- d. Schwerwiegend. Schwere Symptome, die eine Beatmung erforderten.
- e. Ein entferntes Familienmitglied und/oder enger Freund ist an dem Coronavirus gestorben.

12. Sonstiges. Bitte erzählen Sie uns, wie sich die COVID-19 Pandemie noch auf Ihr

Leben ausgewirkt hat:

C2: Climate Change Worry Scale

Lesen Sie jede Aussage und geben Sie an, wie häufig die jeweilige Aussage auf Sie zutrifft. Antworten Sie so, wie Sie sich im Allgemeinen fühlen. Es gibt keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten.

1 = 'nie'; 2 = 'selten'; 3 = 'manchmal'; 4 = 'oft'; 5 = 'immer'.

1. Ich Sorge mich mehr über den Klimawandel als andere Menschen.
2. Gedanken über den Klimawandel lassen mich mit Sorgen auf die Zukunft blicken.
3. Ich neige dazu, mich in den Medien (z. B. Fernsehen, Zeitung, Internet) über den Klimawandel zu informieren.
4. Ich neige dazu mir Sorgen zu machen, wenn ich vom Klimawandel höre, auch wenn die Auswirkungen des Klimawandels noch eine Weile auf sich warten lassen könnten.
5. Ich mache mir Sorgen, dass Ausbrüche von Unwettern die Folge des Klimawandels sein könnten.
6. Ich mache mir über den Klimawandel so viel Sorgen, dass ich den Eindruck habe, dass ich nichts dagegen tun kann.
7. Ich mache mir Sorgen, dass ich dem Klimawandel nicht gewachsen sein könnte.
8. Ich stelle fest, dass ich mir die ganze Zeit über den Klimawandel Sorgen gemacht habe (und noch machen werde).
9. Wenn ich erst einmal anfangen, mir über den Klimawandel Gedanken zu machen, kann ich gar nicht damit aufhören.
10. Ich mache mir Sorgen darüber, wie sich der Klimawandel auf die Menschen auswirken könnte, die mir wichtig sind.

C3: War-related Stress Scale

Bitte geben Sie im Zusammenhang mit dem Krieg in der Ukraine an, inwieweit Sie in den folgenden Bereichen Schwierigkeiten oder Bedenken haben (oder nicht haben):

1. Ihre eigene Sicherheit.
2. Sicherheit Ihrer Angehörigen.
3. Berufliche/schulische Zukunft.
4. Zugang zu lebensnotwendigen Dingen (z. B. Lebensmittel, Medikamente, Hygieneartikel).
5. Soziale Beziehungen zu Ihren Angehörigen.
6. Soziale Beziehungen im Allgemeinen.
7. Wirtschaftskrise in Österreich [Wohnsitzland].

8. Funktionieren der öffentlichen Einrichtungen (z. B. Staatliche Einrichtungen, Behörden, Polizei).
9. Das Funktionieren des Gesundheitssystems.
10. Verschlechterung der öffentlichen Gesundheit.
11. Wie Sie Ihre Freizeit verbringen.
12. Ungewissheit über die zukünftige Entwicklung der Situation,
13. Angst davor, dass der Krieg nach Österreich kommt.
14. Besorgnis über die Ausweitung des Krieges auf die EU oder die ganze Welt.
15. Nukleare Bedrohung.
16. Österreichs [Wohnsitzland] Fähigkeit, eine Migrationswelle zu bewältigen.
17. Steigende Preise (Inflation).
18. Mangel an Energieressourcen (z. B. Gas, Öl, Strom).
19. Verschlechterung Ihrer psychischen Gesundheit (z. B. Stress, Angstzustände, Depressionen).
20. Entwicklung der politischen Situation in Österreich [Wohnsitzland].
21. Ihre Lebensqualität.

C4: Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale - Work Motivation

Es gibt verschiedene Gründe dafür, sich anzustrengen und gute Arbeit zu leisten.

Warum strengen Sie sich bei Ihrer Arbeit an? Bitte kreuzen Sie für jeden der Gründe an, wie sehr Sie der jeweiligen Aussage zustimmen.

1 = 'stimme überhaupt nicht zu'; 2 = 'stimme nicht zu'; 3 = 'stimme eher nicht zu'; 4 = 'neutral'; 5 = 'stimme eher zu'; 6 = 'stimme zu'; 7 = 'stimme voll und ganz zu'.

Ich strenge mich bei der Arbeit an, ...

1. Um von anderen Anerkennung zu erhalten (z.B. von Vorgesetzten, Kollegen, Familie, Kunden).
2. Weil andere mich stärker respektieren (z.B. Vorgesetzte, Kollegen, Familie, Kunden).
3. Um zu vermeiden, dass ich von anderen kritisiert werde (z.B. von Vorgesetzten, Kollegen, Familie, Kunden).
4. Weil andere mich nur dann finanziell belohnen, wenn ich mich anstrengende (z.B. Arbeitgeber, Vorgesetzte).
5. Weil andere mir größere Job-Sicherheit bieten, wenn ich mich genug anstrengende (z.B. Arbeitgeber, Vorgesetzte).
6. Weil ich riskiere, meine Arbeit zu verlieren, wenn ich mich nicht genug anstrengende.
7. Weil ich mir beweisen muss, dass ich es kann.

8. Weil ich dann stolz auf mich bin.
9. Weil ich mich sonst dafür schämen würde.
10. Weil ich mich sonst schlecht fühlen würde.
11. Weil ich es persönlich richtig finde, mich bei dieser Arbeit anzustrengen.
12. Weil es meinen Wertevorstellungen entspricht, mich bei dieser Arbeit anzustrengen.
13. Weil es mir persönlich etwas bedeutet, mich bei dieser Arbeit anzustrengen.
14. Weil ich Spaß an meiner Arbeit habe.
15. Weil das, was ich bei meiner Arbeit mache, spannend ist.
16. Weil die Arbeit, die ich leiste, interessant ist.
17. Ich strengte mich nicht an, denn ich habe das Gefühl, bei dieser Arbeit meine Zeit zu verschwenden.
18. Ich strengte mich kaum an, denn diese Arbeit ist die Anstrengung nicht wert.
19. Ich weiß nicht, warum ich diese Arbeit mache; sie ist sinnlos.

C5: Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale - Learning Motivation

Es gibt verschiedene Gründe dafür, sich anzustrengen und gute Leistungen zu erzielen. Warum strengen Sie sich in der Schule/Lehre an? Bitte kreuzen Sie für jeden der Gründe an, wie sehr Sie der jeweiligen Aussage zustimmen.

1 = 'stimme überhaupt nicht zu'; 2 = 'stimme nicht zu'; 3 = 'stimme eher nicht zu'; 4 = 'neutral'; 5 = 'stimme eher zu'; 6 = 'stimme zu'; 7 = 'stimme voll und ganz zu'.

Ich strengte mich in der Schule/Lehre an, ...

1. Um von anderen Anerkennung zu erhalten (z.B. von Lehrkräften, Mitschüler:innen, Kollegen, Familie).
2. Weil andere mich stärker respektieren (z.B. Lehrkräfte, Mitschüler:innen, Kollegen, Familie).
3. Um zu vermeiden, dass ich von anderen kritisiert werde (z.B. von Lehrkräften, Mitschüler:innen, Kollegen, Familie).
4. Weil andere mich nur dann anerkennen oder belohnen, wenn ich mich anstrengte (z.B. Lehrkräfte, Ausbilder:innen).
5. Weil ich von anderen mehr Unterstützung für meine Zukunft bekomme, wenn ich mich genug anstrengte (z.B. von Lehrkräften oder Ausbilder:innen).
6. Weil ich riskiere, der Schule/Lehre verwiesen zu werden, wenn ich mich nicht genug anstrengte.
7. Weil ich mir beweisen muss, dass ich es kann.
8. Weil ich dann stolz auf mich bin.

9. Weil ich mich sonst dafür schämen würde.
10. Weil ich mich sonst schlecht fühlen würde.
11. Weil ich es persönlich richtig finde, mich in der Schule/Lehre anzustrengen.
12. Weil es meinen Wertevorstellungen entspricht, mich in der Schule/Lehre anzustrengen.
13. Weil es mir persönlich etwas bedeutet, mich in der Schule/Lehre anzustrengen.
14. Weil ich Spaß an meiner Schule/Lehre habe.
15. Weil das, was ich in meiner Schule/Lehre mache, spannend ist.
16. Weil das, was ich lerne, interessant ist.
17. Ich strenge mich nicht an, denn ich habe das Gefühl, in der Schule/Lehre meine Zeit zu verschwenden.
18. Ich strenge mich kaum an, denn die Schule/Lehre ist die Anstrengung nicht wert.
19. Ich weiß nicht, warum ich die Schule/Lehre mache; sie ist sinnlos.

C6: Life Satisfaction Scale

Bitte bewerten Sie die folgenden Aussagen.

1 = 'trifft überhaupt nicht zu'; 2 = 'trifft nicht zu'; 3 = 'trifft eher zu'; 4 = 'teils/teils'; 5 = 'leichte Zustimmung'; 6 = 'Zustimmung'; 7 = 'starke Zustimmung'.

1. In den meisten Bereichen entspricht mein Leben meinen Idealvorstellungen.
2. Meine Lebensbedingungen sind ausgezeichnet.
3. Ich bin mit meinem Leben zufrieden.
4. Bisher habe ich die wesentlichen Dinge erreicht, die ich mir für mein Leben wünsche.
5. Wenn ich mein Leben noch einmal leben könnte, würde ich kaum etwas ändern.

C7: Future Anxiety Scale

Die folgenden Aussagen beziehen sich auf Ihre Einstellungen gegenüber der Zukunft. Lesen Sie diese bitte aufmerksam durch und geben Sie auf der neben den Aussagen stehenden Skala an, wie gut die jeweilige Aussage ihre eigene Einstellung beschreibt.

0 = 'trifft überhaupt nicht zu'; 1 = 'trifft nicht zu'; 2 = 'trifft eher nicht zu'; 3 = 'schwierig zu sagen'; 4 = 'trifft eher zu'; 5 'trifft zu'; 6 = 'trifft vollkommen zu'.

Bitte beantworten Sie die folgenden Fragen.

1. Meine Zukunft ist ungewiss.
2. Ich bin besorgt, dass bald eine Katastrophe eintreten wird.
3. Ich erschauere vor Angst bei dem Gedanken, was der nächste Tag, der nächste Monat, das nächste Jahr bringt.

4. Ich bin mir sicher, dass ich in der Zukunft nicht allein sein werde oder zurückgewiesen werde.
5. Ich habe Angst, die Zukunft zu planen.
6. Ich bin über mögliche Missgeschicke besorgt.
7. Ich fürchte, dass ich an wachsenden Schwierigkeiten scheitern werde.
8. Ich Sorge mich um die Fehlschläge, die auf mich zukommen.
9. Ich bin durch den Gedanken verängstigt, dass ich manchmal Lebenskrisen oder Schwierigkeiten gegenüberstehen könnte.
10. Ich bin angespannt und mir ist unbehaglich, wenn ich an meine künftigen Angelegenheiten denke.
11. Ich bin mir sicher, dass ich in der Zukunft die wichtigsten Ziele und Werte in meinem Leben erreichen werde.
12. Ich mache mir Sorgen, dass ich meiner Familie keine guten materiellen Bedingungen bieten kann.
13. Ich habe das Gefühl, dass die Welt auf einen Kollaps, ein apokalyptisches Ende, zusteuert.
14. Ich fürchte mich vor dem Moment, in dem ich Verantwortung für die Entscheidungen und Handlungen in meinem Leben übernehmen muss.
15. Je näher ich dem Tod komme, desto mehr fürchte ich mich vor ihm.
16. Ich glaube, dass ich in der Zukunft fähig bin, meine Probleme selbst zu lösen.
17. Ich bin besorgt, dass wirtschaftlich-politische Veränderungen meine Zukunft gefährden.
18. Ich bin von dem Gedanken verängstigt, dass das Leben schnell vorübergeht.
19. Ich bin von dem Gedanken beunruhigt, dass ich in Zukunft nicht fähig sein werde, meine Ziele zu verwirklichen.
20. Ich bin besorgt, dass die Probleme, die mich momentan beschäftigen, noch lange Zeit anhalten werden.
21. Selbst wenn die Dinge gut laufen, wird sich das Schicksal gegen mich wenden.
22. Ich bin von der Möglichkeit eines plötzlichen Unfalls oder einer ernsthaften Krankheit (z.B. AIDS, Krebs) beunruhigt.
23. Es ist lebenswert in dieser schönen, sich stetig weiter entwickelnden Welt.
24. Ich bin nicht besorgt, dass die Menschen in der Zukunft "Raubtiere" zueinander sein werden.
25. Ich bin besorgt, dass andere in der Zukunft schlechte Meinung von mir haben werden.

26. Ich bin besorgt, dass ich mein Leben in einigen Jahren als sinnlos bewerte.
27. Ich bin besorgt, dass sich mein Leben in der Zukunft zum Schlechten wenden wird.
28. Ich bin besorgt, dass ich in meinem Beruf künftig nicht anerkannt werde.
29. Ich Sorge mich, dass ich im Alter jemandem zur Last fallen werde.

C8: Moral Foundations Questionnaire

Wenn Sie entscheiden, ob etwas richtig oder falsch ist, inwieweit sind folgende Überlegungen für Sie von Bedeutung? Bitte bewerten Sie jede Aussage anhand dieser Skala. "Überhaupt nicht relevant" bedeutet diese Überlegung hat rein gar nichts mit meinem Urteil, ob etwas richtig oder falsch ist zu tun. "Extrem relevant" bedeutet, dies ist eine der wichtigsten Grundlagen, wenn ich entscheide, ob etwas richtig oder falsch ist. Mit den Angaben dazwischen können Sie Ihre Meinung abstufen.

1. Ob die Gefühle von jemandem verletzt werden.
2. Ob einige Menschen anders behandelt werden als andere.
3. Ob Handlungen aus Vaterlandsliebe geschehen.
4. Ob jemand einen Mangel an Respekt vor Autoritäten gezeigt hat.
5. Ob jemand gegen Anstand und Reinheit verstoßen hat.
6. Ob jemand in Mathematik gute Leistungen zeigt.
7. Ob sich jemand für eine andere verletzbare und schwache Person einsetzt.
8. Ob jemand ungerecht handelt.
9. Ob jemand etwas getan hat, um seine oder ihre Gruppe zu hintergehen und sie zu betrügen.
10. Ob jemand sich an die Traditionen der Gesellschaft gehalten hat.
11. Ob jemand etwas ekelhaftes getan hat.
12. Ob jemand grausam war.
13. Ob jemandem seine oder ihre Rechte verweigert wurden.
14. Ob jemand einen Mangel an Loyalität zeigt.
15. Ob jemandes Handlungen Chaos und Unordnung verursacht haben.
16. Ob jemand so gehandelt hat, dass Gott es in dieser Weise befürworten würde.

Bitte lesen Sie auch die folgenden Aussagen durch und geben Sie an, wie sehr Sie diesen zustimmen oder diese ablehnen:

1. Mitgefühl für die, die leiden, ist die wichtigste Tugend.
2. Wenn die Regierung Gesetze erlässt, sollten diese immer so sein, dass jeder fair behandelt wird.
3. Ich bin stolz auf die Geschichte meines Landes.

4. Alle Kinder sollten Respekt gegenüber Autoritäten lernen.
5. Menschen sollten keine Dinge tun, die eklig sind, auch wenn keiner dabei gestört oder verletzt wird.
6. Es ist besser, gute Dinge zu tun, als schlechte.
7. Ein wehrloses Tier zu verletzen ist eines der schlimmsten Dinge, die ein Mensch tun kann.
8. Gerechtigkeit ist der wichtigste Grundstein für eine Gesellschaft.
9. Menschen sollten ihren Familienmitgliedern gegenüber loyal sein, auch wenn sie etwas falsches getan haben.
10. Männer und Frauen nehmen in der Gesellschaft verschiedene Rollen ein.
11. Ich würde bestimmte Taten falsch finden, weil sie unnatürlich sind.
12. Es kann niemals richtig sein, einen Menschen zu töten.
13. Ich finde es moralisch verwerflich, dass reiche Kinder viel Geld erben, während arme Kinder nichts erben.
14. Es ist wichtiger ein guter Teamspieler zu sein, als sich selbst zu verwirklichen
15. Wenn ich als Soldat mit den Befehlen meines Vorgesetzten nicht einverstanden wäre, würde ich sie aus Dienstpflicht dennoch befolgen.
16. Keuschheit ist eine wichtige und wertvolle Tugend.

Appendix D

Scale Comparisons with Previous Literature

Table D1

Comparison of the WM and LM subscale Scores with Scores from Gagné et al., 2015, with M (SD)

	WM	LM	WM (Gagné et al., 2015)
N	35	101	187
External Regulation	3.69 (1.49)	3.22 (1.22)	6.11 (0.85)
Introjection	4.10 (1.22)	3.96 (1.42)	5.83 (0.75)
Identified	4.75 (1.72)	4.01 (1.60)	4.54 (1.07)
Motivation			
Intrinsic Motivation	4.69 (1.70)	3.87 (1.48)	3.73 (1.21)
Amotivation	2.31 (1.45)	2.69 (1.29)	1.18 (0.40)

Note. WM = work motivation, LM = learning motivation

Table D2

Comparison of the Covid Impact Subscores with Stoddard et al., 2023, with M (SD)

	Present Study	CI (Stoddard et al., 2023)
N	151	561-563
Routines	2.38 (1.03)	3.39 (0.78)
Income	1.72 (0.74)	2.09 (1.00)
Food	1.66 (0.82)	1.48 (0.68)
Medical Access	1.68 (0.86)	1.87 (0.84)
Psychological Access	1.40 (0.74)	1.70 (0.80)
Supports	1.64 (0.79)	2.54 (0.85)
Personal Stress	1.82 (0.87)	2.54 (0.86)
Family Stress	1.76 (0.80)	1.98 (0.76)

Notes. CI = Coronavirus Impact Scale

Table D3

Comparison of the Satisfaction With Life Scale Scores with Different Previous Studies (Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), 2021), with M (SD)

SWLS sample	M (SD)
Present study (N = 151)	25.21 (5.32)
Ryff et al., 2010 (N = 394)	24.58 (6.37)

SWLS sample	M (SD)
Banks et al., 2006 (N = 600)	26.27 (6.11)
Pavot & Diener, 1993 (N = 244)	23.5 (6.4)
Pavot, 1991 (N = 130)	24.5 (6.3)
Diener, 1985 (N = 176)	23.5 (6.4)
Judge, 1990 (N = 255)	23.6 (6.1)
Allison et al., 1991 (N = 127)	24.3 (6.2)

Notes. SWLS = Satisfaction With Life Scale

Table D4

Comparison of the War Stress Scale Scores with Vargova et al., 2024, with M (SD)

Item	Present Study	Varagova et al. (2024)
Your own safety	2.75 (1.70)	4.13 (1.95)
Safety of your loved ones	2.83 (1.77)	4.66 (1.95)
Work/school future	2.52 (1.63)	3.94 (1.96)
Access to essential items	2.77 (1.72)	4.14 (1.91)
Social relationships with your loved ones	2.24 (1.60)	3.39 (1.93)
Social relationships in general	2.49 (1.58)	4.03 (1.88)
Economic crisis in country of residence	3.83 (1.62)	5.42 (1.62)
Functioning of public institutions	2.79 (1.66)	3.94 (1.85)
Functioning of health care system	3.00 (1.77)	4.66 (1.84)
Worsening of public health	2.86 (1.64)	4.38 (1.83)
Spending your free time	2.04 (1.44)	3.23 (1.84)
Uncertainty about the future development of the situation	3.36 (1.62)	5.05 (1.74)
Fear of the war moving to country of residence	2.68 (1.69)	4.84 (1.92)

Item	Present Study	Varagova et al. (2024)
Concern about the war moving to the EU or the world	3.51 (1.76)	4.94 (1.87)
Nuclear threat	3.12 (1.78)	4.93 (1.85)
Country of residence coping with a migration wave	3.62 (2.02)	4.67 (1.79)
Rising prices (inflation)	4.49 (1.65)	5.95 (1.37)
Lack of energy resources	3.80 (1.68)	5.21 (1.75)
Worsening of your mental health	2.28 (1.55)	3.47 (1.94)
Development of the political situation in country of residence	3.94 (1.91)	5.02 (1.75)
Quality of your life	2.79 (1.73)	4.19 (1.86)
Overall Score	63.65 (22.39)	89.56 (26.76)

Table D5

Comparison of the Climate Change Worry Scale Scores with Stewart, 2021, with M (V)

Item	Present Study	Stewart (2021)
I worry about climate change more than other people.	1.96 (1.40)	2.98 (1.47)
Thoughts about climate change cause me to have worries about what the future may hold.	2.80 (1.93)	3.22 (1.56)
I tend to seek out information about climate change in the media (e.g. TV, newspaper, internet).	2.60 (1.68)	2.96 (1.46)
I tend to worry when I hear about climate change, even	2.51 (1.62)	3.19 (1.67)

Item	Present Study	Stewart (2021)
when the effects of climate change may be some time away.		
I worry that outbreaks of severe weather may be the result of a changing climate.	2.75 (1.71)	3.24 (1.76)
I worry about climate change so much that I feel paralyzed in being able to do anything about it.	2.03 (1.44)	1.93 (1.31)
I worry that I might not be able to cope with climate change.	2.19 (1.42)	2.12 (1.35)
I notice that I haven been worrying about climate change.	2.15 (1.65)	2.63 (1.52)
Once I begin to worry about climate change, I find it difficult to stop.	1.87 (1.16)	2.01 (1.32)
I worry about how climate change may affect the people I care about.	2.54 (1.44)	2.84 (1.81)
Overall Score	23.37 (SD = 9.68)	women M = 47.6 (SD = 12.1); men M = 45.4 (SD = 11.8)

Table D6

Comparison of the Future Anxiety Scale with Wieczorek & Hock, 2023, with M (SD)

Item	Present study	Wieczorek & Hock (2023)
My future is uncertain.	3.81 (1.88)	2.69 (1.61)

Item	Present study	Wieczorek & Hock (2023)
I am afraid, that some catastrophe will soon occur.	2.88 (1.66)	1.83 (1.51)
I tremble with fear at the thought of what the next day, month, year will bring.	2.12 (1.38)	0.99 (1.35)
I am certain that in the future I will not be alone or rejected.	/	/
I am afraid to plan for the future.	2.50 (1.57)	1.78 (1.62)
I am uneasy about possible mishaps.	3.06 (1.66)	2.41 (1.73)
I fear I will fail to overcome mounting difficulties.	2.50 (1.49)	2.28 (1.72)
I worry about the failures which await me.	3.22 (1.80)	2.16 (1.67)
I am terrified by the thought that I might sometimes face life's crises or difficulties.	2.74 (1.52)	2.10 (1.74)
I fall into a state of tension and uneasiness when I think of my future affairs.	2.74 (1.50)	2.19 (1.66)
I am sure that in the future I will realize the most important goals (values) in my life.	/	/
I worry that I will not provide good material conditions for my family.	2.81 (1.74)	1.68 (1.59)

Item	Present study	Wieczorek & Hock (2023)
I have the impression that the world tends toward collapse (apocalyptic end).	3.00 (1.90)	1.72 (1.90)
I fear the moment when I will have to account for the decisions and actions of my life.	2.74 (1.75)	1.68 (1.68)
The closer I am to death the more I fear it.	2.48 (1.74)	1.58 (1.70)
I believe that in the future I will be able to solve my problems by myself.		
I am afraid that changes in the economic-political situation will threaten my future.	3.70 (1.78)	2.91 (1.65)
I am frightened by the thought that life is quickly passing away.	3.30 (1.88)	2.49 (1.90)
I am disturbed by the thought that in the future I won't be able to realize my goals.	3.15 (1.77)	2.31 (1.62)
I am afraid that the problems which trouble me now will continue for a long time.	2.89 (1.60)	2.70 (1.78)
Even when things go well, fate will turn against me.	2.20 (1.42)	0.93 (1.37)
I am disturbed by the possibility of a sudden	2.91 (1.67)	2.21 (1.66)

Item	Present study	Wieczorek & Hock (2023)
accident or serious illness (e.g. AIDS, cancer). Life is worth living in this beautiful, ever developing world.		
I am not afraid that in the future people will be 'wolves' to each other.	4.50 (1.98)	2.28 (1.85)
I am afraid that in the future others will have a negative opinion of me.	2.55 (1.60)	1.08 (1.74)
I am afraid that after several years I will evaluate my life as purposeless.	2.53 (1.66)	1.80 (1.80)
I am afraid that in the future my life will change for the worse.	2.69 (1.68)	1.81 (1.71)
I am afraid that I won't be appreciated in my profession.	2.50 (1.56)	2.02 (1.75)
I worry that in my old age I will be a burden to someone.	2.69 (1.66)	2.44 (1.85)
Overall Mean Score	2.89 (1.05)	1.92 (1.69)

Table D7

Comparison of the Moral Foundations Subscales with Graham et al. (2011B), with M (SD)

Subscales	Present Study	Graham et al., 2011
N	151	34,476
Care/Harm	4.35 (0.71)	3.42 (0.84)
Fairness/Cheating	4.61 (0.75)	3.55 (0.73)
Loyalty/Betrayal	3.98 (0.79)	2.26 (0.87)

Subscales	Present Study	Graham et al., 2011
Authority/Subversion	4.07 (0.90)	2.27 (0.90)
Purity/Degradation	3.54 (0.90)	1.54 (1.08)

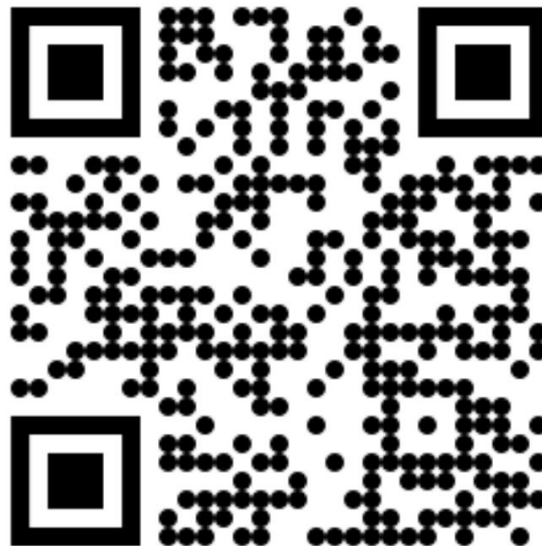
Appendix E

Flyer

Figure E1

Umfrage zum Einfluss aktueller Krisen

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Teilnahmedauer ungefähr 15 Minuten.

Nur Stellungspflichtige.

Die Befragung findet im Rahmen einer Masterarbeit an der Universität Wien
unter der Betreuung von Univ.-Prof. Christian Korunka statt
(christian.korunka@univie.ac.at).

Appendix F

Abstract and Declaration on the Use of AI Tools

F1: Abstract English

There is a lack of research examining the psychological impact of ongoing global crises on vulnerable populations. One such group potentially at elevated risk are conscripts. To provide a comprehensive perspective, this study focused on three major contemporary crises: the COVID-19 pandemic, the climate crisis, and the war in Ukraine. The study investigated the influences of these crises, measured through COVID impact, climate worry, and war stress, on the psychological outcomes of motivation, life satisfaction, and future anxiety, as well as the potential moderating role of moral foundations. A total of 151 conscripts participated in the cross-sectional observational study using standardized questionnaires. Guided by the Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory, it was hypothesized that the crises would influence motivation and decrease life satisfaction while increasing future anxiety. Results showed mixed relationships with motivation: COVID-19 impact indicated lower motivation, whereas war stress indicated higher motivation; climate worry was unrelated. None of the crises significantly affected life satisfaction. In contrast, all three crises were strongly associated with heightened future anxiety, which was markedly elevated compared to population norms. Confirmatory moderation analyses revealed that neither liberalism nor conservatism significantly moderated the relationships between the crises and psychological outcomes. Exploratory analyses, however, highlighted the role of specific moral foundations, which explained additional variance in life satisfaction and future anxiety. These findings emphasize the context-dependent nature of crisis effects and underline the importance of targeted mental-health support for conscripts.

F2: Declaration on the Use of AI Tools

AI-based tools (ChatGPT by OpenAI, DeepL Write, and DeepL Translator) were used exclusively for language editing and translation (German–English abstract). They were not employed to generate academic content. All intellectual and scientific work contained in this thesis is solely my own.

F3: Abstract German

Es mangelt an Forschungsarbeiten, die sich mit den psychologischen Auswirkungen anhaltender globalen Krisen auf gefährdete Bevölkerungsgruppen befassen. Eine solche Gruppe sind Wehrpflichtige, die potenziell einem erhöhten Risiko ausgesetzt sind. Um eine umfassende Perspektive zu bieten, konzentrierte sich diese Studie auf drei große aktuelle Krisen: die COVID-19-Pandemie, die Klimakrise und den Krieg in der Ukraine. Die Studie untersuchte die Auswirkungen dieser Krisen, gemessen anhand der COVID-Auswirkungen, der Klimasorgen und des Kriegsstressses, auf die psychologischen Folgen der Motivation, der Lebenszufriedenheit und der Zukunftsangst sowie die potenzielle moderierende Rolle moralischer Grundlagen. Insgesamt nahmen 151 Wehrpflichtige an der Querschnittsbeobachtungsstudie unter Verwendung standardisierter Fragebögen teil. Ausgehend von der Theorie der Ressourcenerhaltung (Conservation of Resources, COR) wurde die Hypothese aufgestellt, dass die Krisen die Motivation beeinflussen und die Lebenszufriedenheit verringern, während sie gleichzeitig die Zukunftsangst erhöhen würden. Die Ergebnisse zeigten gemischte Beziehungen zur Motivation: Die Auswirkungen von COVID-19 deuteten auf eine geringere Motivation hin, während Kriegsstress eine höhere Motivation anzeigte; Klimasorgen standen in keinem Zusammenhang. Keine der Krisen hatte einen signifikanten Einfluss auf die Lebenszufriedenheit.. Im Gegensatz dazu waren alle drei Krisen stark mit einer erhöhten Zukunftsangst verbunden, die im Vergleich zur Bevölkerungsnorm deutlich erhöht war. Konfirmatorische Moderationsanalysen ergaben, dass weder Liberalismus noch Konservatismus die Beziehungen zwischen den Krisen und den psychologischen Ergebnissen signifikant moderierten. Explorative Analysen hoben jedoch die Rolle spezifischer moralischer Grundlagen hervor, die zusätzliche Varianzen in der Lebenszufriedenheit und Zukunftsangst erklärten. Diese Ergebnisse unterstreichen die Kontextabhängigkeit von Kriseneffekten und betonen die Bedeutung einer gezielten psychologischen Betreuung von Wehrpflichtigen.