

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Examining the Volunteering Behavior of Filipino Youth Using the Extended Theory of Planned Behavior

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Young people are vital human resources who can significantly contribute to social change through volunteerism. This study sought to examine Filipino youth's volunteering behavior using an extended theory of planned behavior with behavioral modeling by family and peers as additional antecedents of volunteering intention. Participants in this study were undergraduate students of De La Salle University – Manila. A total of 438 students (60% female, 39% male, and 1% preferring not to say) aged 17 to 23 years old ($M = 19.60$ years, $SD = 1.12$) participated in the study. The scales were found to have good internal consistency reliability. Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .757 to .936. Results showed that attitudes toward volunteering ($p < .001$), perceived behavioral control ($p < .001$), and ($\beta = .089$, $p = .026$) are significant predictors of volunteering behavior. The findings suggest that their peers influence Filipino youth to volunteer for civic engagement activities. The results of this study serve as a basis for developing interventions or programs that would increase the voluntary participation of Filipino youth in civic engagement activities.

Keywords: volunteerism, Theory of Planned Behavior, Filipino youth, peer modeling, family modeling

JEL Classifications: M14

Volunteers are an integral human resource of most events organizations in producing successful events (Bang et al., 2009). Nearly one billion people throughout the world volunteer through public, non-profit, or for-profit organizations (Salamon et al., 2011). Volunteering comprises activities that are undertaken of one's own free will, for the common good, and where a monetary reward is not the primary motivation (United Nations Volunteers, 2015). The United Nations Volunteers (1999) identified four types of volunteering activities: mutual aid/self-help, philanthropy and service to others, civic participation, and advocacy and campaigning.

For most young adults, exposure to volunteering of various kinds begins in adolescence (Hill & den Dulk, 2013). One estimate suggests, for example, that as many as 75% of adolescents in the United States will participate in formal volunteering opportunities before adulthood (Hill & den Dulk, 2013; Johnson et al., 1998). Moreover, contrary to the broad pattern of disengagement across various age cohorts, the trend line for adolescent volunteering appears to be moving up. By the mid-2000s, nearly a third of older teenagers (ages 16–19) reported participating in some form of volunteering activity in a given year, a rebound of more than twice the volunteering rate for that age group in

1989 (Grimm et al., 2006). Although most of these volunteers are “episodic” or contribute 99 or fewer hours a year according to the definition by Grimm et al. (2006), one data analysis suggests that 11% of 12th graders volunteer every week (Smith & Faris, 1999). In the global arena, the United Nations estimates that close to a thousand of their volunteers were under the age of 29, and of these, about 60% were female, and 80% were from developing countries (United Nations, 2012, as cited in *Youth and Volunteerism* fact sheet).

Volunteering has social and economic benefits to communities as it contributes to social capital (Virola & Reyes, 2011). Social capital includes different “features of social organizations, such as networks, norms and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit” (Putnam, 1995, p. 67). There is empirical evidence that communities with high social capital index are more likely to have high levels of educational performance, better child welfare, lower crime rates, better health, and better compliance with the law (Putnam, 2001).

It has also been shown that volunteering benefits not only the community but also the volunteers themselves (Stukas et al., 2016). In particular, undergraduate volunteering has been linked to positive academic outcomes, such as students’ aspiration for advanced degrees and actual attendance in graduate school and to an increased sense of civic responsibility (Astin et al., 1999).

Volunteering at the university level also helps develop various skills among students, including leadership ability, self-confidence, interpersonal skills, conflict resolution skills, ability to work collaboratively, and an understanding of problems facing the community and the nation (Astin & Sax, 1998). Even though university student volunteers only provide supportive roles in volunteer organizations, they still make important contributions to these organizations and the constituencies they serve (Edwards et al., 2001). Moreover, volunteering has the potential to increase students’ well-being as it gives them a sense of purpose and brings about a range of positive emotions. It also improves their employability skills and soft skills, the latter including communication skills, confidence, and time management (Williamson et al., 2017).

Considering the social and personal benefits brought about by student volunteering, it is necessary for educational institutions to enhance the volunteerability

of their students. Volunteerability refers to the “willingness, capability and availability of individuals to volunteer” (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010, p. 141). Universities can increase student volunteerability by developing programs that provide volunteering opportunities and by providing service learning courses (Haski-Leventhal et al., 2010). In developing a customized service-learning framework for De La Salle University-Dasmariñas, Alcartado et al. (2017) found that students who are enrolled in the Religious Education course had participated in community activities that had positively affected both students and communities involved. A study of 110 Korean college students enrolled in service-learning courses at a large university meanwhile revealed that students with higher intrinsic motivation to serve had more confidence in their purpose after doing service-learning-related activities (Shin et al., 2018).

In a study of family influences on the lifestyle of Filipino adolescents, Cruz et al. (2001) found that a strong, stable, and intact family environment is associated with fewer risk behaviors such as smoking and drinking. However, there is a dearth of studies that examine family influences on prosocial behaviors, particularly volunteering behavior, among Filipino adolescents. In fact, there are very few studies that examine adolescent volunteering in the Philippines (e.g., Kinyua, 2017; Lalap et al., 2013; and Llenares & Deocarís, 2015). These studies explored the motivations of adolescents for volunteering, but none of them used a specific theoretical or conceptual framework to explain why Filipino adolescents engage in volunteering behavior. Moreover, none of these studies examined the influence of family and peers on adolescent volunteering.

Purpose of the Study

The current study sought to extend the theory of planned behavior (TPB) to include behavioral modeling as precursors of intention to volunteer. In particular, family and peer modeling are considered important antecedents of youth volunteering, especially among Filipinos. It also aims to address the lack of a theoretical framework by examining adolescent volunteerism through the lens of an extended TPB.

Significance of the Study

This study addresses the University's research strategic area on learners and learning innovations. The results of this study provide information that may be useful for the development of programs and interventions that would enhance Lasallian students' motivations to volunteer and help form service-driven citizens. This study's findings also provide relevant data to the administrators of De La Salle University, in particular to the Ramon V. del Rosario College of Business, in improving the business curriculum to produce graduates who are not just technically competent but also humanistic, socially responsible, and sustainability-oriented.

The study's findings are also useful to De La Salle University's Center for Social Concern and Action (COSCA). In particular, the results can inform COSCA's efforts in marketing their civic engagement programs to prospective volunteers.

This study is also expected to provide useful insights to both local and international organizations, whether profit- or non-profit-oriented, to better understand their prospective youth, particularly in the Philippines, when it comes to the youth performing volunteering activities. This study adds to the literature on the youth, particularly on volunteerism behavior, among university students in the Philippines.

Assumptions, Scope, and Limitations of the Study

This study focuses on several factors: attitudes toward volunteering, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral modeling, and how these factors influence volunteering intention and behavior among university students at De La Salle University. Specifically, the researchers test the traditional TPB model, which includes attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control as predictors of intention to volunteer and, subsequently, volunteering behavior. The original TPB model is then extended to include behavioral modeling by family and peers as additional antecedents of volunteering intention. The two models are then compared to determine which one best captures the volunteering behavior of Filipino adolescents.

Theoretical Framework

Theory of Planned Behavior

One model that may explain why students engage in volunteering activities is TPB (Ajzen, 1991).

According to the TPB, human action is guided by three kinds of considerations, namely: (a) beliefs about the likely outcomes of the behavior and the evaluations of these outcomes (behavioral beliefs), (b) beliefs about the normative expectations of others and motivation to comply with these expectations (normative beliefs), and (c) beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of the behavior and the perceived power of these factors (control beliefs). In their respective aggregates, behavioral beliefs produce a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the behavior, normative beliefs result in perceived social pressure or subjective norm; and control beliefs give rise to perceived behavioral control. In combination, attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perception of behavioral control lead to the formation of a behavioral intention. As a general rule, the more favorable the attitude and subjective norm, and the greater the perceived control, the stronger should be the person's intention to perform the behavior in question. Finally, given a sufficient degree of actual control over the behavior, people are expected to carry out their intentions when the opportunity arises (Ajzen, 1991).

Intention is thus assumed to be the immediate antecedent of behavior. However, because many behaviors pose difficulties of execution that may limit volitional control, it is useful to consider perceived behavioral control in addition to intention. To the extent that perceived behavioral control is veridical, it can serve as a proxy for actual control and contribute to the prediction of the behavior in question. Figure 1 is a schematic representation of the theory (Ajzen, 1991).

Extended Theory of Planned Behavior

TPB has been found to support the prediction of a wide range of human behaviors (Beck & Ajzen, 1991). In particular, Warburton and Terry (2000) found the theory to be helpful in predicting volunteering behavior. More recent studies have also used the TPB to explain volunteering. Specifically, MacGillivray and Lynd-Stevenson (2013) and Veludo-de-Oliveira et al. (2013) found that only subjective norms significantly predicted intention to volunteer, and intention significantly predicted volunteering behavior. Greenslade and White (2005) also used the TPB to predict volunteering behavior, and they found that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control were significant predictors of intention to

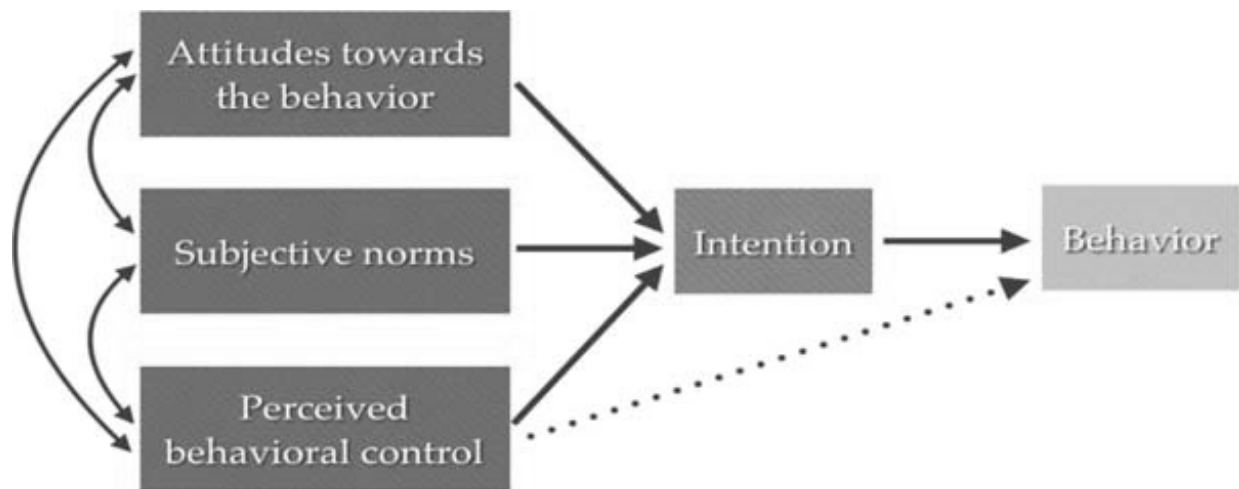


Figure 1
Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991)

volunteer, and in turn, intention significantly predicted volunteerism.

Some studies have also extended the TPB to include either other antecedents of volunteering intention or mediators of the intention-behavior link. Marta et al. (2014) added past volunteering behavior, parental modeling, hours dedicated to volunteer work, intention to continue volunteering, and role identity to the TPB model as other predictors of volunteering intention. They found that attitude toward volunteering, subjective norms, past behavior, and parental modeling significantly predicted role identity, which in turn predicted intention to volunteer. Similarly, MacGillivray and Lynd-Stevenson (2013) proposed a revised TPB with emotion as a mediator between volunteering intention and behavior. However, emotion did not mediate the relationship between intention and actual volunteerism. Meanwhile, Reuveni and Werner (2015) used an expanded TPB model, which includes attitudes toward volunteering, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, past behavior, personal identity, and perceived moral obligation to determine the factors that influence 258 Israeli ninth graders' willingness to volunteer with elderly persons. They found that although willingness to volunteer is low, it has a statistically significant relationship with personal identity, attitudes toward volunteering, and subjective norms and are, therefore, its main predictors.

Behavioral Modeling

Youth volunteering is influenced by parental and peer modeling. Law and Shek (2009) found that family members' belief in volunteering as meaningful, family support, and modeling significantly predicted Chinese Hong Kong adolescents' volunteering intention and actual service hours. Ottoni-Wilhelm et al. (2014) also found that parental role modeling (i.e., giving to charities and doing actual volunteering) and conversations about giving significantly are associated with adolescent giving and volunteering. In a study of 698 adolescents ($M = 15.19$ years old, $SD = 1.43$), Van Goethem et al. (2014) also found that young people were more likely to volunteer if their best friends and parents were also involved in volunteer work. Similarly, McGinley et al. (2010) found that parents positively influenced adolescents' intention to volunteer by affecting their tendency to be sympathetic towards others. Figure 2 shows the extended TPB model used in this study.

Method

Participants

Participants in this study were undergraduate students of De La Salle University – Manila. A total of 438 students (60% females, 39% males, 1% prefer

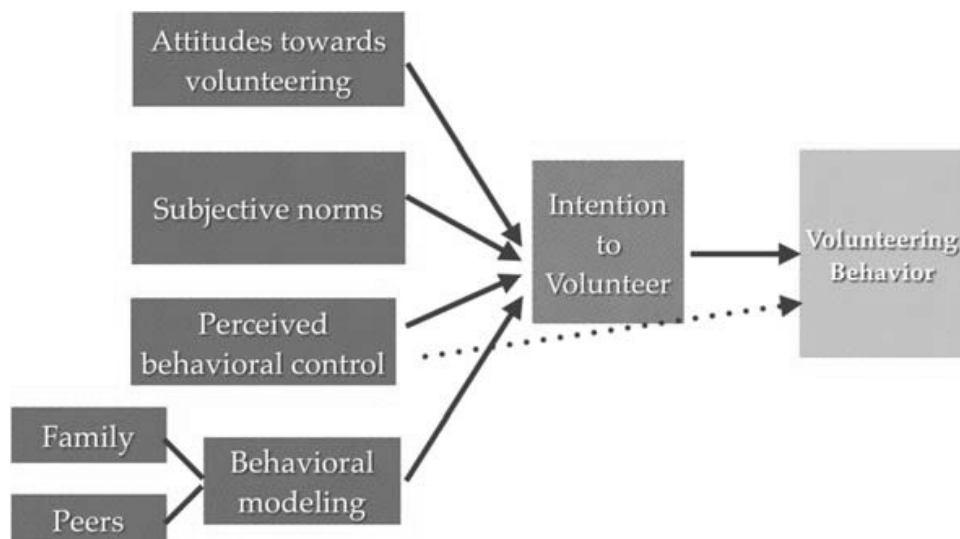


Figure 2
Extended Theory of Planned Behavior to Predict Volunteerism

not to say), aged 17 to 23 years old ($M = 19.60$ years, $SD = 1.12$) responded to the study questionnaire.

Instruments

TPB Volunteerism Scale

The researchers developed a TPB Volunteerism Scale to measure participants' intention to volunteer, perceived subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and attitudes toward volunteering using the guidelines provided by Fishbein and Ajzen (2010). Items were based on the literature on volunteering behavior and TPB.

Intention to Volunteer. Students' intention to volunteer in civic engagement activities was measured using a three-item scale. Participants indicated their degree of agreement with each item using a 6-point Likert agreement scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). A sample item was "*I intend to volunteer in civic engagement activities (e.g., participate in charity events) in the near future.*"

Attitudes Toward Volunteering. Students' attitudes toward volunteering were measured using a six-point evaluative semantic differential scale. Participants chose between pairs of adjectives to indicate their response to this statement: "*My volunteering in civic engagement activities (e.g.,*

participate in charity events) would be (e.g., good vs. bad; pleasant vs. unpleasant)."

Subjective Norms. Students' normative beliefs about volunteering were measured using a three-item scale. Participants indicated their degree of agreement with each item using a 6-point Likert agreement scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). A sample item was "*If I volunteer in civic engagement activities (e.g., participate in charity events), most people who are important to me would approve.*"

Perceived Behavioral Control. Students' perceptions about how much control they had over their own volunteering were measured using a three-item scale. Participants indicated their degree of agreement with each item using a 6-point Likert agreement scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). A sample item was "*I think I am capable of volunteering in civic engagement activities (e.g., participate in charity events).*"

Family Modeling. Family modeling was measured using items adapted from the study of Law & Shek (2009). Participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement to seven items (e.g., *My family members actively participate in volunteer activities*) using a 6-point Likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree.

Peer Modeling. Peer modeling was measured using seven agreement-type items (e.g., *My friends actively participate in volunteer activities*), with a 6-point Likert scale, 1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree.

Procedures

We sought clearance from the DLSU University Research Coordination Office (URCO), and the DLSU Research Ethics Office (REO) before data gathering. We also obtained permission from Course Coordinators and faculty to administer the questionnaire to targeted classes. The online questionnaire was distributed through AnimoSpace, the official learning management system of DLSU.

Data Analysis

We first generated descriptive statistics, intercorrelations, and reliability coefficients of the scales. To test the applicability of the original TPB model and the extended TPB model to predict volunteerism, structural equation modeling (SEM) was used. In the original TPB model, attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control were considered as predictors of intention to volunteer. In the extended TPB model, the predictors of intention to volunteer were attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and family and peer modeling.

Model fit was assessed using a combination of fit indices, as recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). The goodness-of-fit index was generated, but because this fit index is sensitive to large sample sizes, we also used the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI). For these two fit indices, Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended a cutoff value close to .95 to indicate a good fit.

We also used two absolute fit indices, namely, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). We also reported the 90% confidence interval for the RMSEA, as recommended by Steiger (1990). Hu and Bentler (1999) noted that RMSEA values less than .06 and SRMR values less than .08 are indicative of good model fit. All statistical analyses were performed using Mplus version 8.4 (Muthen & Muthen, 2017).

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics, intercorrelations, and reliability coefficients are presented in Table 1. Preliminary analysis of the data showed some departure from normality, with skewness ranging from -1.137 to -0.053 and kurtosis ranging from 0.067 to 1.174. The scales were found to have good internal consistency reliability. Cronbach's values ranged from .757 to .936. The observed correlations among the study variables were significant and in the hypothesized direction.

Predicting Intention to Volunteer

We predicted the intention to volunteer by testing two structural equation models. Model 1 included attitude toward volunteering, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control as predictors. In Model 2, we added family and peer modeling to the original set of predictors. Because nonnormality was observed in the data, we used the robust maximum likelihood (MLM) estimation method. MLM yields "maximum likelihood parameter estimates with standard errors and a mean-adjusted chi-square test statistic that are robust to non-normality" (Muthen & Muthen, 2017, p. 667).

Model 1, which made use of the original TPB model, had acceptable fit indices, $\chi^2(71, N = 438) = 243.985$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 3.45$, CFI = .943, TLI = .926, RMSEA = .075, 90% CI for RMSEA = [.064, .085], SRMR = .059. This suggests that the selection and application of the TPB to predicting volunteering behavior is acceptable. Attitudes toward volunteering significantly predicted intention to volunteer ($\beta = .280$, $p < .001$). Perceived behavioral control also significantly predicted intention to volunteer ($\beta = .567$, $p < .001$). However, perceived subjective norms did not significantly predict the intention to volunteer ($\beta = .023$, $p > .05$).

To extend the TPB, we added behavioral modeling by family and peers as predictors of intention to volunteer. This model yielded the following fit indices: $\chi^2(335, N = 438) = 1174.895$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 3.51$, CFI = .87, TLI = .854, RMSEA = .075, 90% CI for RMSEA = [.071, .080], SRMR = .084. Because these fit indices indicate mediocre fit, we checked modification indices and respecified the model by covarying the

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics, Intercorrelations, and Reliability Coefficients

	Pearson <i>r</i>									
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's	Attitude	Norms	Control	Family	Peers
Intention	4.823	1.133	-1.022	0.780	0.936	0.650***	0.447***	0.674***	0.205***	0.347***
Attitude	5.299	0.682	-0.822	0.067	0.897		0.442***	0.641***	0.185***	0.344***
Norms	5.046	0.999	-1.103	1.083	0.913			0.559***	0.312***	0.195***
Control	5.129	0.860	-1.137	1.174	0.757				0.156**	0.285***
Family	3.736	1.097	-0.053	-0.546	0.880					0.272***
Peers	4.342	1.000	-0.406	-0.341	0.858					

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$

residuals of attitude items 2 and 4, and those of peer modeling items 1 and 2. The respecified extended TPB model resulted in a more acceptable model with the following fit indices: $\chi^2(333, N = 438) = 1024.494$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 3.08$, CFI = .893, TLI = .879, RMSEA = .069, 90% CI for RMSEA = [.064, .074], SRMR = .084. Among the exogenous variables, only attitudes toward volunteering ($\beta = .278$, $p < .001$) perceived behavioral control ($\beta = .545$,

$p < .001$), and peer modeling ($\beta = .089$, $p < .026$) significantly and positively predicted intention to volunteer. Subjective norms and family modeling did not significantly predict intention to volunteer ($p > .05$). Figure 3 shows our final model with the standardized path coefficients and their corresponding standard errors. Note that non-significant paths are indicated by dashed lines.

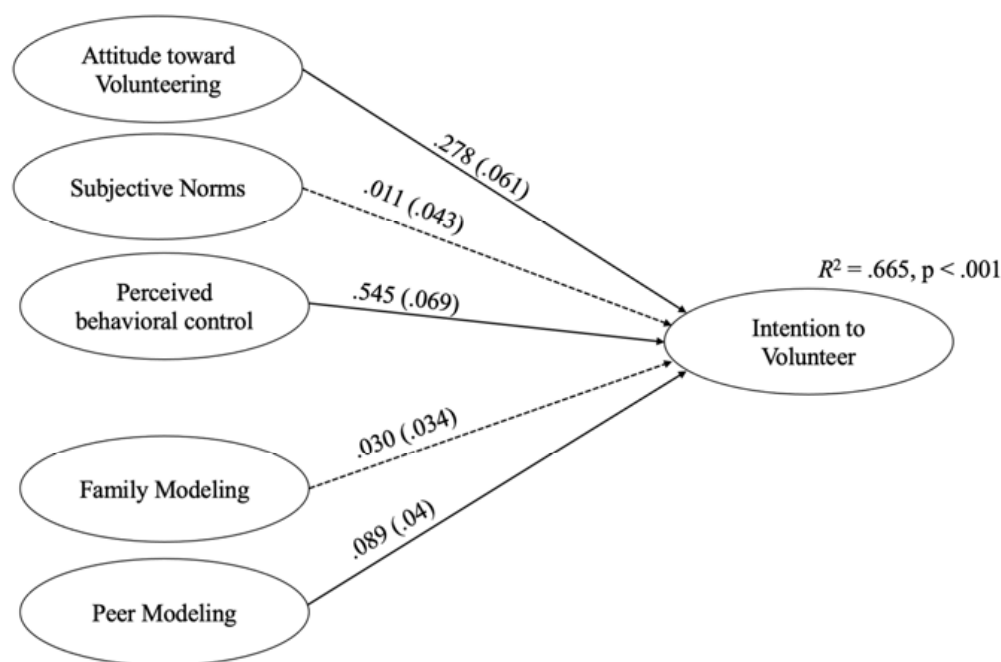


Figure 3
Extended TPB Model of Volunteerism

Discussion

The present study sought to examine Filipino youth's volunteering behavior using an extended TPB with behavioral modeling by family and peers as additional antecedents of volunteering intention.

Results showed that attitudes toward volunteering, perceived behavioral control, and peer modeling significantly and positively predict volunteering intention. The major contribution of this paper is providing evidence on the significant influence of peer modeling on intention to volunteer, which highlights the importance of friends in encouraging participation in volunteering activities. The results are aligned with previous studies (i.e., Van Goethem et al., 2014 and Taylor-Collins et al., 2019), which noted that the tendency to participate in similar activities as your friends is high among adolescents.

Equally important variables that influence volunteering intention are attitude towards volunteering and perceived behavioral control. A synergy among peer modeling, attitude towards volunteering, and perceived behavioral control could further increase the tendency of young people to volunteer. Activities that promote a positive attitude towards volunteering, such as discussions about the benefits of volunteering, could be embedded in the curriculum. Furthermore, providing various volunteering venues for students would make it easier for them to volunteer, as this will heighten their control over their behavior. By activating these variables, the younger generation would be more inclined to sign up for volunteering activities.

As regards the original predictors of volunteering intention based on the TPB, our study supports the findings of Greenslade and White (2005) and Reuveni and Werner (2015) that intention to volunteer is significantly predicted by attitude towards volunteering and perceived behavioral control. Moreover, Marzana et al. (2015) found that attitudes toward volunteering are influenced by the quality and quantity of previous experiences and, therefore, these can be used as effective tools to promote the youth's social participation. Moreover, perceived behavioral control also predicts intention to volunteer, consistent with the findings of Taylor-Collins et al. (2019).

This study's subjective norms, being an insignificant predictor of intention to volunteer, might be ironically explained by the findings of Reuveni and Werner (2015) that subjective norm is a significant predictor and that

it has a significant although moderate correlation with willingness to volunteer. They attributed the probable significance of subjective norms to age, which means that the younger the person is, the more their willingness to volunteer leans on external factors such as family and friends. This present study focused on college students, whereas Reuveni and Werner's study focused on high school students, in particular, ninth-grade students, which might have affected the results. The result of this study is also contrary to other previous research (Greenslade & White, 2005; MacGillivray & Lynd-Stevenson, 2013; Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2013) and Ajzen's TPB framework in 1991 that subjective norms, coupled with attitudes, bring about perceived behavioral control that results in stronger behavioral intent.

In contrast, Taylor-Collins et al. (2019) found a significant positive relationship between a parent's/guardian's participation and their children's participation in social action, more likely due to the support and encouragement that adolescents need from their families. A volunteering study among Spanish children 10 to 29 years of age also found a positive relationship between willingness to volunteer and parental modeling in that the parents' volunteering activity has a strong influence on their children's civic commitment, especially at a young age and declines when children become older due to environmental factors like school, friends, and media (Mainar, Servos, & Gil, 2015). Similar to subjective norms, the age of survey respondents might have contributed to parental modeling being an insignificant predictor of willingness to volunteer among Filipino youth. Other studies that have conflicting results from this study are Law and Shek (2009), McGinley et al. (2010), Ottoni-Wilhelm et al. (2014), and Van Goethem et al. (2014).

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study's findings highlight the importance of peer modeling, attitudes toward volunteering, and perceived behavioral control in predicting young people's willingness to volunteer. Policymakers, educators, and practitioners who aim to promote youth social participation should consider the power of peer influence, the significance of attitudes toward volunteering, and the importance of creating a supportive environment in encouraging young people to participate in social action. However, the study's

insignificant findings on subjective norms and parental modeling suggest that external factors' influence may vary across cultural and social contexts. Further studies are needed to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the factors influencing young people's volunteering behavior.

This knowledge can help universities and other local, national, and international organizations create the best communication materials when attempting to encourage young people to participate in civic engagement activities. For instance, marketing materials emphasizing the fun of participating in activities with peers will make a great impression on the target audience. Also, using social networking sites (SNS) like Facebook and Twitter is advised. According to a 2019 study by Filsinger and Freitag on the relationship between Internet use and volunteerism among a representative sample population of Swiss citizens, young people who use the Internet for entertainment but do not use social networking sites (SNS) are less likely to volunteer than those who do.

In addition, institutions should remove the barriers and provide more accessible opportunities and support for the youth to develop the habit of being involved in social action, which can then develop a culture of social action as the norm (Taylor-Collins et al., 2019). In particular, the youth can be involved in civic engagement projects that require collaboration with others, especially adults, to experience discussing ideas with them and to feel a sense of community or association (Marzana et al., 2015). For schools with service learning courses, it is recommended to include a reflection of one's experiences in volunteering activities and to redesign the service learning curriculum to provide students the opportunity to address their intrinsic motivation (Shin et al., 2018).

Also, politicians should consider allocating funds to provide volunteer opportunities and initiatives that address the different interests and needs of young people around the world to boost youth social participation. To foster an atmosphere that promotes youth social participation, practitioners could also work with families, schools, and community organizations. When developing and implementing volunteer programs, cultural and societal aspects that affect young people's volunteering behavior should also be considered. For instance, parental engagement might be more important in some cultures than peer influence. Thus, policymakers and practitioners should modify

their approaches accordingly. Future research should also use longitudinal designs to analyze the causal relationship between antecedents and willingness to volunteer to examine the elements that affect volunteering behavior across various cultural and social situations.

On the other hand, in contrast to other studies, subjective norms and family modeling are insignificant predictors of volunteering intentions. Future research is recommended to explore the rationale for why these variables turned out to be insignificant and whether additional variables, such as altruism, should be added to the proposed model. Because age was noted as a probable factor for the discrepancy of results, it is also recommended to test if differing individual youth characteristics affect the intention to volunteer. In addition, a different set of sample populations or a longitudinal analysis can also be performed to shed more light on the volunteering behavior of Filipino youth. Finally, the conversion from intention to actual behavior is still a gap that should be addressed.

Consequences for Business

There are a number of implications for businesses wanting to promote volunteering among the Filipino young based on the study's findings. First, businesses and schools can work together to integrate lessons that encourage volunteering into the curriculum. To positively affect young people's perceptions of volunteering, it is possible to add classroom discussions about its advantages.

Second, businesses can offer students various volunteer opportunities to make it simpler for them to volunteer. As a result, they will have better behavioral control, which is one of the key indicators of volunteering intention. Businesses can encourage youth to volunteer by offering opportunities that are accessible and in line with their interests.

Lastly, businesses can work with families and peer groups to promote volunteering. According to the study, modeling by parents and peers significantly affects one's intention to volunteer. By giving them volunteer opportunities or by sharing their own volunteer experiences, businesses can interact with young people's peers and parents to promote volunteering behavior.

In summary, the results of this study can also be used by firms to improve their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives. The study's emphasis

on social influence, attitude, and perceived behavioral control related to volunteering intention can help firms create CSR initiatives that successfully encourage volunteering among Filipino youth. Youth can be inspired to volunteer by CSR programs that align with their interests and values, including peer and family modeling, and improve their control over their conduct.

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