WHAT DETERMINES VOLUNTEER WORK? STUDY OF PEOPLE'S LAW ENFORCMENT BOARD (PLEB) VOLUNTEERS IN SELECTED LOCAL AREAS IN THE PHILIPPINES

Celeste Felice Capote, MIR

School of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of the Philippines, Diliman

ABSTRACT

This study focuses on what determines volunteer work, through a study of the engage-ment of citizen volunteers with the People's Law Enforcement Board (PLEB), whose activitiesand functions are provided by law, with oversight by the Department of Interior and LocalGovernment. The People's Law Enforcement Board is a complaint and redress mechanismmandated to receive and try cases filed by civilians against police officers. Volunteer work inthe PLEB is unpaid, uncoerced and done outside the household.Factors that significantly affect volunteers' motivation to render volunteer work through the PLEB are their perceptions on justice and their demographic characteristics. Nor-mative organizational commitment due to loyalty and obligation, their affective organizationalcommitment or their emotional attachment to the organization, and their adherence to Fili-pino values in the workplace also significantly affect their motivation to do volunteer work.

Self-directed professionals volunteer as PLEB members.They tend to be younger, andwith relatively high income. They see the need to contribute to security for the communityand they perceive just processes as a key standard of police behavior and action. They staylonger in PLEB, even until retirement, because of the social obligation and emotional attach-ment that they have acquired through years of volunteer work in the organization.

Key words:

volunteer work, civic duty, normative organizational commitment, workplace Filipino values

A. Background of the Problem

Volunteerism in law enforcement is present in the Philippines. The country, being known as a close knit culture, community involvement is a natural trait among its people. It is a natural trait to care for other members of the community. This trait is very much evident in the organization of the The People's Law Enforcement Board, a complaint and redress mechanism mandatedto receive and try cases filed by civilians against police officers. Its creation is mandated by *RA 6975 (1990), "An Act Establishing the Philippine National Police Under a Reorganized Department of the Interior and Local Government, and for other Purposes".*The PLEB, as it may sound apt, is composed of the members of the community – mostly professionals who can allocate a part of their time and resource to maintain peace and order within their respective communites. The Philippine National Police, given a sole task to protect civilians, most oftenly is presented by a number of harrasment cases against its lair. This brings forth the organization of PLEB in 1991 in the quaint city of Subic, Pampanga. Subsequently,the National Police Commission (*NAPOLCOM) issued the implementing rules*of RA6975*, which was updated to Memorandum Circular No. 2016-002,* the *"Revised Rules of Procedure Before the Administrative Disciplinary Authorities and the Internal Affairs Service of the Philippine National Police".*

Membership in the PLEB is a civic duty. Nevertheless, PLEB members may be paid per diem as may be determined by the city or municipal council from city or municipal funds. PLEBhas two mechanisms—a complaintsdesk beingmanned by a secretariat composed of regular employees of the local government, and a jury composed of five members. The jury hears and tries cases filed against a policeman.

As provided by Section 43 of RA 6975,"thedecision of the PLEB shall become final and executory, provided, that a decision involving demotion or dismissal from the service may beappealed by either party with the regional appellate board within ten days from receipt of the copy of the decision."The PLEB is embedded in the community.Complaints are however very few. The number greatly varies from at most two cases per year in relatively peaceful cities like San Juan, to three every month for busier and crime-infested cities like the City of Manila. This is due to the very little information dissemination being done to promote awareness to the public. PLEBmembers in the cities admit that " . .complaints reaching their desks are very few but the number of cases still enable them to have a PLEB session at least once a month, as required by law. PLEBs in cities is more operational than those located in the suburban areas. Some PLEB members are observed to be 'close' to the subject of the complaints of the community members", either as a "kapitbahay," "kamag-anak," or "kaibigan." The PLEBs in Manila and Quezon City are the busiest among the boards in Metro Manila. Informants admit that police officers fear

being reported because of known PLEB impartiality concerning police officers, incontrast to complaints filed with the the PNP IAS and the NAPOLCOM, which could be subject to mediation, negotiation,"pakiusap",appeals and consideration."

Citizens' Complaint Desk in the Philippines

The Philippine National Police has been in the limelight since the start of PresidentDuterte's administration. The PNP has been in the frontline in implementing the President'sThrust on the War on Drugs which targets to eradicate drug peddlers in the cities or in mostly busy places. Because of the number of unwanted deaths, tagged by the public asextrajudicial killings, the police officers have been put in bad light.As an organization that has direct interaction with the community, the PNP is subjectto theperception of the public. The community can form a public perspective on anorganization and the individuals comprising it. The citizen's role in an honest and effectivepolicing is to check whether police' performance worked in accordance to their perception of procedure, or what scholars name as procedural justice. Given the importance of thecitizens' role in policing, the police must understand themselves as subservient to the community, andallow for citizens to evaluate their performance and assist in the construction of police policy (Herbert, 2006).

By affirming and enhancing a person's status within the community, the police aregiving that person something valuable, a positive sense of self and identity, which is moreimportant to them than the material consequences of the outcome of their interaction withthe police. This means good policing is more likely to be achieved by measuring policeperformance against broad, subjective, norms and standards, as opposed to sharp-edged rules.Citizen's desks are present in first world countries, more specifically those adhering tostrong institutions. Arguments have often focused on the effectiveness of complaint desks inaddressing complaints, misconduct or broader police policy. However, the appearance to thecommunity that complaints, misconduct or police policy are addressed in a transparent andfair way is also an important argument for oversight. Civilian oversight of policing can alsobeseen as consistent with democracy, particularly given the significant power the police hold over its citizens.The five members of the PLEB is a representation of the community. Their mandate todiscipline police officers must be guided with a form of performance appraisal.However, performance appraisals

are quaint and are not conducted regularly. PLEB's strength is its nearness to its constituency. However, according to the interview conducted with members of the PLEB, lack of information dissemination and the view that PLEB is a politicized organization hinder citizens from airing their complaints to PLEB.

Public Safety as Public Good

Law enforcement in particular is an important public good, the effective delivery ofwhich could only be done with cooperation and support of the community, and governmentlaw officers.Safety, security and peace in the workplace are necessary conditions for productiveemployment and engagement of citizens.It is necessary to secure health, safety, security,and peace and order in order to be productive workers, who should also be good family members and law abiding citizens both inside and outside the workplace.Citizen's volunteerism in law enforcement is motivated by the common public good,whereas labor laws, rules and regulations on employment and the social contract withrespect to enhancing workers' rights and welfare in balance with the profitability of the enterprise in the private sector.Hryniewicz (2010) argues that policing is a public good and civilian oversight is a source of security. Loader (2006) explored the associations between democratic policing, civilian oversight and the 'social.' He furthered that task performance is an often overlooked aspect of public policing. Police functions, then, must be performed in ways that sustain the conditions of a democratic life in which the security of all individuals and groups is protected. Loader (2006) furthers that civilian oversight provides a way in which the police may reinforce and their public functions as democratic protectors.Participation of the public within the review process is fundamental to democratic governance. Loader (2006) furthers that external investigation of police complaints providescitizens a mechanism by which they can re-affirm their social values and where citizens areable to critically question and influence state proceedings. The contribution that civilianoversight makes to security provides citizens with a place of their membership to a politicalcommunity (Loader, 2006). Therefore, individuals who advocate for external review are defending something that is inherently social, or what Loader puts as a desire for common security and protection from undemocratic acts. In other words, civilian oversight provides a political platform that all citizens

can access.Through civilian oversight, citizens engage the state in public dialogue, raising concerns that are responded to and considered within policy forums. As Loader (2006) contends, public dialogue is fundamental to political processes. The security and politicalfreedom of each person is more likely to be nurtured and protected through their participationwith others. In other words, the securities and freedoms of one are inextricably linked to thoseof another. In considering civilian oversight as a source of public security, we might furtherthis statement by considering that civilian oversight is an example of a public good—a goodthat is prerequisite to the generation of other political goods (Loader & Walker, 2001). Furthermore, public goods are thought to be implicated in the process through which justice and equality are conceived. If civilian oversight is seen as a public good—a source of security whose actualization is so pivotal to the purpose of community that it helps to construct and sustain a sense of community (Loader & Walker, 2001).

Defining volunteer work

The first important feature of voluntary work is its independence from either government and/or private work (Ouchi, 1980). Because of the ambiguity of voluntary work,the parameters of its definition are difficult to define. However, some scholars made attemptsto define voluntary work. The first set of definitions is in terms of the scope of voluntary work. According to Edwards & Fowler (2003), volunteer work belongs to the "third sector," the first sector of which is public administration (government), and the second sector being the private or for-profit (business). Some scholars went beyond classifying volunteer work from either public or private. Ouchi (1980) used "clan" to describe labor collective initiatives that lack market and bureaucratic mechanisms. Another definition given by Rothschild-Whitt (1979) referred to volunteer work as part of "collectivist democratic organizations." He described that these organizations display a value rational orientation to social action, encompassing values for their own sake, independent from any prospects of financial success. Butler (1983) used "voluntary agency" to define and distinguish collective action from public agencies. These organizations that exhibit voluntary

agency are further called "communes" or "collectives".There is also private component in volunteer work. The 'private' component entails voluntary work to be independent of the government, and since the government is equated with the public sector, voluntary initiatives are in the 'private' realm. However, this definition does not readily equate voluntary work with business or private work. Businesses differ from voluntary organizations in the sense that the former distributes profits to owners whereas the latter "accumulates profits in a given year and ploughs back profits to fulfill the basic mission of the organization."

Some scholars stated volunteer work can enter the realm ofthepublic.Etzioni(1973)placed voluntary work to revive grassroots democracy in the public welfare system, serving as "indispensable intermediaries" between the state and welfare receivers wherepoliticscanbedemocratized,activecitizenship strengthened, and thepublicspherereinvigorated. Volunteer work can trace its roots from government bodies which strictly adhere to statutory directions and with staff that entertain more liberal actions when implementing welfare services.Volunteer work can also be defined in terms of compensation or remuneration. The most common definition of volunteer work describes it as voluntary and unpaid labor (Orlowski & Wicker, 2014). Another close definition by Wilson & Musick (2014) defined volunteer work as "any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group, or organization. The key to this definition is the criterion that volunteer work is without wage which classifies it as a non-market good. Although some members of a voluntary organization are paid,the organizations remaintobe with theirtitleasvoluntaryorganizations. Membership

ofvoluntary organizationisno inheritedthroughfamilialorsocietal connections and aim for membership is not securing economic benefits from the organization (Orlowski & Wicker, 2014).While according to the purest definition of voluntary work, volunteers do not accept any pay or reimbursement, broader definitions include individuals receiving but not expecting remuneration as volunteers. The broadest definition includes reimbursement for expenses, and even stipend or low pay (Orlowski & Wicker, 2014). In other words, volunteer work is not completely unpaid. Volunteers can receive moderate reimbursements. This is the case for volunteers working in non-profit sports clubs. For example, coaches are allowed to receive moderate reimbursements for their work (Orlowski & Wicker, 2014).Because of lack of salary among volunteers, they are basically different from paid employees in that the behavior of volunteers is less likely to be subject to coercive power than is the behavior of paid employees. This is because volunteers are likely to be less dependent onorganizational rewards than with employees who depend on the income from their employer for their livelihood (Pearce, 1993). Volunteers are also more likely to be part-time rather than full-time organizational participants and may have additional roles at other organizations.

Volunteer work can also be defined in terms of the goods it provides. Volunteer organizations aim at achieving a social goal. Commercial gains are the aim of theseorganizations. Although, some voluntary organizations sell goods and services they

do not specifically seek profit, they set up profit seeking subsidiary trading companies to providefunds for their activities (Orlowski & Wicker, 2014).

Another definition of volunteer work is in terms of membership.Volunteer work is different from paid work because the relationship does not derive from an employment contract (Musella & Nappo, 2008). Even without contract, volunteer work must be of freechoice. This means that the volunteer chooses deliberately to engage in a certain activity. Some definitions include relatively uncoerced volunteers as well as volunteers with an obligation to volunteer. For example, individuals engaging in community service instead of military service can be defined as volunteers within the latter category (Cnaan, 2004).Volunteer work can also be defined according to activity structure. Two categories are distinguished—pure definitions only accept formally organized activities carried out in organizations, whereas broader definitions also include informal voluntary activities such as neighborly help, helping friends, or sporadic volunteering (Cnaan, 2004).

The last definition includes the beneficiary of the voluntary activity. The purest definitions only include voluntary activities targeted toward strangers, while others also recognize help carried out to friends or relatives. Within this definition, voluntary activities which benefit the volunteers themselves are also accepted in the broadest

definitions of theterm (Musella & Nappo, 2008).Given the above citation, volunteer work

can be defined as uncoereced work done outside of the household.

B. Statement of the Problem

What determines volunteer work in case of the PLEB? This is the main problem being tackled in this study.The following questions shall further be explored, to expound on the main problem:

1.   To what extent is the motive to contribute to public safety a sharedresponsibility,

and a strong predictor doing volunteer work among PLEB members?

2.   What are the other determinants to membership and commitment to the PLEB?

C.Scope and Delimitation

The researcher conducted a paper and pen ssurvey among PLEB members of the 18

legislative disctricts of Metro Manila, 39 municipalities of Quezon Province, 15

municipalities of Eastern Samar, and 7 municipalities of Leyte for its survey method. The

study also employed key informant interviews and focus group discussion among the

PLEB members of District 1 Quezon City, San Juan City, Districts 1 and 2 Manila, and

Pasay. The study delimits itself into the provinces and municipalities that can be

personally reached by the researcher. While the researcher sought help from DILG

officers in Region VIII to conduct field surveys. The same scenario is true with key

informant interviews and focus group discussions. The researcher is only able to conduct

interviews in areas in Quezon City, San Juan City, Manila, and Pasay which responded to the researcher's request and are accessible by land travel.

The survey could also have benefited from more intensive statistical analysis of variations, and better regression models that should enable analysis of interactions or endogeneity between the explanatory variables, such as motivation, commitment, perceptions of justice and adherence to Filipino values that could affect other independent variables. Technical and time constraints and deadlines did not allow for such indepth statistical analysis.

D. Review of Related Literature

Factors behind the motivation to provide for the community

One of the early models of volunteer motivation conceptualized people as being motivated to volunteer by concerns for the welfare of others (altruistic motives) and by self-interest (egoistic motives) such as the desire to feel good about oneself (Frisch & Gerrard,1981). An alternative bipartite model posited people as being motivated to volunteer byextrinsic and intrinsic factors (Gidron, 1984). Extrinsic motives stem from external incentivesthat compel people to volunteer such as injunctive social norms. Intrinsic motives propelpeople to volunteer because of the inherent value, interest, and enjoyment of the activity

(Geiser, Okun, & Grano, 2014).
Self-determinationtheory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) considers the motivational and regulatory processes that are implicated in goal-directed action within a domain of behaviorsuch as academic performance. Self-determination theorists have been able to identify several distinct types of motivation, which vary in terms of their perceived locus of causality and regulatory processes (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Individuals who are unwilling to engage in goal-relevant activity or who go through the motions are labeled amotivated.

In contrast, when individuals engage in an activity for the inherent satisfaction of performing the activity, they are labeled intrinsically motivated and when they engage in an activity as a means to another end, they are said to be extrinsically motivated. Self-determination theory distinguishes among four types of extrinsic motivation on the basis of the relative autonomy of the regulatoryprocesses. The least autonomous extrinsic form of motivation is referred to as external regulation. For example, external regulation occurs when behavior is regulated by external incentives such as status. Moving along the continuum of relative autonomy, behavior thatinvolves regulation by internal incentives and disincentives such as the desire to maintain feelings of self-worth or to avoid negative affective states represents introjected regulation. A more autonomous form of extrinsic motivation reflects identified regulation, in which a behavior is valued as important. Finally, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is called integrated regulation, as it entails assimilation of the behavior into one's self-concept (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Another model suggests people as being motivated to volunteer by extrinsic and intrinsic factors (Gidron, 1984 in Geiser, Okun, & Grano, 2014). Extrinsic motives stem from

external incentives that compel people to volunteer such as intrinsic social norms. Intrinsicmotives propel people to volunteer because of the inherent value, interest, and enjoymentof the activity. Because of these intrinsic values, people may opt to benefit from these through volunteering. Hence comes later the behaviorist theory that assumes that the decision to volunteer is based on a rational choice of weighing cost and benefit (Smith, 1994). It assumes that actors will not contribute goods and services to others unless they profit from the exchange (Smith, 1982). This would help explain some the variations in volunteering. People clearly do weigh costs and benefits when considering volunteer work. For example, the stigmaattached to some kinds of volunteering makes it harder to recruit people (Snyder et. al, 1999). Second, many volunteers have a stake in their volunteer work. Furthermore, that many people volunteer because they anticipate needing help themselves or have already received volunteer efforts because they anticipate needing help themselves or have already received help and want to give something back. Another factor is that volunteers explicitly acknowledge the benefits they receive from their work (Omoto & Snyder, 1993). In addition, volunteers are not indifferent

to rewards-recognition for their efforts and are more likely to drop out if they fail to receive them (Omoto & Snyder, 1993).

Education

If one thinks rationally, high level of education are expected to be positively correlated with high opportunity cost and so it was thought that people with high education are hard to recruit as volunteers. Yet on the average, volunteers are found to be more educated, wealthier, and healthier than non-volunteers (Wymer, 1999).

Bruno & Fiorillo (2016) revealed that on average, volunteers in their study are older and have higher education. This is because individual attribute such as education assume a different significance. McPherson & Rotolo (1996) reported that level of education is the most consistent predictor of volunteering because it heightens awareness of problems, thus increases and builds self-confidence. When it comes to opportunity to volunteer, Brady et al. (1995) stated that educated people are also more likely to be asked to volunteer. Education is treated as a function of their membership to more organizations where they can develop more civic skills, such as the ability to organize community activities (Brady et al., 1995). In a studyconducted by Bruno & Fiorillo (2016) among volunteers in Italy, they reported that on average, volunteers are older, have higher education, have more labor market experience, are employed in professional occupations and in large firms, are employed in the public sector.

13

Age

As people age, their stock of human capital increases, and thus the likelihood that theywill volunteer. Aging also reconfigures social roles, creating fresh opportunities and imposingnew constraints. Most of the studies on the matter agree that older people are pushed mainlyby altruistic rather than by more egoistic motivations (Narushima, 2005). One benefit ofvolunteering for older people is that it can be a cure to some degenerative diseases which canalso serve as motivation to volunteer. Guiney & Machado (2018) reported evidence from thesmall number of relevant studies to date that supports the idea of volunteering to protectagainst cognitive aging with respect to global functioning and at least some specific cognitivedomains.

Age also affects the number of hours or frequency a volunteer devotes to volunteerwork. Rational choice theory predicts an increase in volunteering at retirement because more free time becomes available, while exchange theory assumes that retirees seek volunteer work to replace social benefits formerly derived from paid employment (Midlarsky & Kahana, 1994). On the other hand, Tang (2016) proposed that generalized linear mixed models showed those experiencing work–retirement transitions were significantly more involved in volunteering than the not-retired. Partial retirees and full retireesweremore likely to start volunteering, and full retirees were also more likely to end volunteering than the not-retired over the 10- year observation period. When income is considered in addition to age, the positive effect of post-retirement work was found to be more significant in the near-poverty group (Tang, 2016).

Contesting these two theories, all things held equal, Social Resource Theory would predict a decline in volunteering in the retirement age to the extent that withdrawing from the labor force weakens social integration. Numerous studies have shown that retirement does not draw people into the volunteering labor force, although it does increase the number of hours worked among those already volunteering (Caro & Bass, 1997).

Wilson and Musick (2003) hypothesized that life course changes may affect individual resources, and, hence, volunteering in terms of hours spent on volunteer work and of the number of organizations in which to volunteer. People of different ages and generations have different outlooks in life, which may change their attitude toward volunteering. The rate of volunteering tends to decrease during the transition from adolescence to young adulthood, when the structure of school-related activities gives way to the social freedoms. Volunteering then rises to its peak in middle age. The exception to this pattern is high-risk volunteering, which attracts mainly younger people, and this, coupled with a high burnout rate (Thompson, 1993).

Civil Status

Volunteers are also typically married and likely to be working in the labor market (Moen & Flood, 2005). On the contrary, Okun & Michel (2006) proposed that high working hours and being divorced, separated, or widowed were found to have a role in abstaining from volunteering.

Sex

It was long believed that the volunteer labor force is only for women, most likely homemakers. However, Gerstel & Gallagher (1994) showed that women are slightly less inclined to take a step back in their job than men, hence making them more impossible to

recruit as volunteers. They furthered that women get more positive effect from paid employment than men.The effect of gender varies by life cycle stage. Among younger people, females tend to volunteer more hours than males (Wuthnow, 1995). Females score higher on measures on empathy in which they attach more value to helping others (Flanagan et. al, 1993). Daniels (1988) believes female are expected to care for the personal. Many women see their volunteer work as their roles as wives and mothers. The reason these do not produce much higher volunteer rates for women is that men have higher human capital and free time. Women would volunteer even more if they are given same amount of human capital as men (Gallagher, 1994).

Employment Security and Job Characteristics

Employment security in terms of the type of contract (fixed or temporary), flexibility in working arrangements, and the number of times unemployed during the same reference period are looked into by Orlowski & Wicker (2014). Their findings suggested that individuals working in full-time jobs are more likely to engage in voluntary work.

In addition to employment security, job characteristics were measured by Orlowski & Wicker (2014) as the extent to which one performs executive work, and the level of dynamism in the job. According to Status Generalization Theory, managerial and professional level people are more likely to be asked to volunteer. Also it is probable that

these people get more intrinsic rewards from their work, building up an attachment to work and work-like activities that easily translates into volunteerism (Herzog & Morgan, 1993). People who have self- directed jobs, those that have high autonomy, decision-making, complexity and variety, volunteer for a wider range of activities than other workers (Wilson & Musick, 1997).It is possible that some people find in their volunteer work some form of satisfaction, one that is denied of them in paid employment. Rational choice theory predicts that volunteer work replicates paid work because the volunteer is using skills developed in the workplace (Herzog & Morgan, 1993).

According to this spillover theory, the type of work that people do can impact their propensity to be involved in the community and their social activities. Some of the workplace factors affecting community attachment and involvement are the sector of employment, the nature of the work being done, and being a professional or manager.

For instance, public- sector and nonprofit-sector workers are much more likely to volunteer than private-sectorworkers (Rotolo & Wilson, 2006). People who have a great amount of autonomy, task variety and empowerment at work are much more likely to be involved than those who do routine and repetitive work. People in workplace positions that require more leadership, management or supervision of others are more likely to be civically engaged than those whose jobs require less interaction with others. Finally, blue-collar workers whose jobs allow them more flexibility and autonomy tend to

engage in leisure activities that require more initiative and decision-making. Given the impact of working in the labor market on other aspects of social participation and civic engagement, it is likely that working in the labor market will strongly impact volunteering as well (Rotolo & Wilson, 2006).

Income from Paid Work

The association between income and volunteering measured by Bekkers (2005) throughhours of volunteer work. Each added hour of volunteer work means less time for paid workand a subsequent loss of income, and the higher the hourly wage the greater the financial loss. This is called the "low-cost hypothesis" because people are expected to give their time more freely to others if their opportunity costs are low. This is supported by an earlier modelproposed by Wolff et. al (1993). Income Rational Choice Theory assumes that volunteer hours are inversely related to wages because opportunity costs rise as pay rises (Wolff et. al, 1993). However, the findings for this theory are mixed. Looking at hours volunteered among those who volunteer, Freeman (1997) finds a negative relation between wage income and volunteering. While Menchik & Weisbrod (1987) find that hours of volunteering work are positively related to income from all sources, but at a decreasing rate. Menchik & Weisbrod (1987) finds that, among single adults aged 18-54, volunteer hours are positively related to wages and negatively related to wealth, but only among men. Among the elderly, income has a positive effect on the number of groups to which people belong, but has no effect on the number of hours volunteered overall (Gallagher, 1994). Furthermore, Gallagher (1994) finds that incomeis positively associated only withhealth-related and education-related volunteering and has no impact on religious or informal volunteering. These studies deny the contention that an increase in income will depress volunteering hours. The net effect of income on volunteering varies by how income is measured, how volunteering is measured, and which other variables are included in the model. It was long theorized that volunteering is only for people who have a lot of time in their hands. However, a competing hypothesis is that social integration and a means of building civic skills, both increases of chances of volunteering. Role Overload Theory by Markham & Bonjean (1996) investigated the relation between paid work hours and volunteer hours. However, the relation between paid work and volunteering is

complicated by two other facts. The lowest rates of volunteering is among those not in the labor force, unemployed people, and homemakers (Humble, 1984). This suggests that work encourages volunteering. Getting a paid job can also boost self-teach organizational skills (Brady et. al 1995).If income and motivation to volunteer are taken into consideration, volunteering can be taken as any other kind of good. Freeman (1997) defines volunteering as a "conscience good" or an activity that gives pleasure in the form of a "warm glow" of good feeling that results from being generous to others. If volunteer work is an object of consumption or a "normal good" those with more disposable income should consume more of it (Freeman 1997). In short, "volunteering should behave like any other source of utility, increasing as income rises" (Freeman, 1997).

Religion

Religion is one of the major factors in the promotion of volunteering. Church attendance has been particularly noted to play an important role (Putnam, 2000). In fact, many empirical studies have found that church attendance correlates positively with volunteering and charity work (De Graaf 2006). De Graaf (2006), in a study using international data from53 countries, demonstrated that both church attendance of individuals and national religious context positively promote volunteering. There are two types of explanations concerning theinfluence of church attendance on volunteering. The first one interprets it as cultural capital, claiming that a religious environment produces a culture of benevolence, promoting people to help others (Wilson & Musick, 1997). The second interpretation explains it as social capital, noting that the networks through churches or religious associations give people opportunities with respect to the subjective dispositions. Unsurprisingly, religiosity prompts altruistic motivations (values) and volunteering for social reasons. As expected, a higher amount of cultural capital (religiosity) positively affects motivations for volunteering (Lim & McGregor, 2009).Empathy and religious mind are less likely to be associated with volunteering than with informal volunteering. Subjective dispositions have such a strong influence on the basis volunteering with higher costs, involves more finding of this research essential facilitators of both types interesting finding.

Rewards and incentives

Orlowski & Wicker (2014) computed the value of an hour of voluntary work to be at €14.27 the highest and €1.78 the lowest. Volunteer work is defined simply as voluntary and unpaid labor. Being unpaid, why do people volunteer? This serves as take off point in asking what determines volunteer work. This study offers demographic factors (e.g. age, sex, income, employment status) as intervening variables to intrinsic factor, that is the independent variable, (e.g. motivation to provide security for the community) and membership as dependent variable. Setting motivation to provide for the community as intrinsic factor agrees with Deci & Ryan's (1985) take on volunteers "typically intrinsically motivated and are rewarded by being in control and exercising self-determination . Defining volunteer work in terms of motivation differentiated it from paid employment. They continued that "volunteers have very different motivations and thus view the commitment to their jobs differently." Providing security also expounds Orlowski's (2014) definition of voluntary organization as "not inherited through familial or societal connections and aim for membership is not securingeconomic benefit from the organization." Other variables mentioned in the study—affective and normative organizational commitment and Filipino values determine as to what makes a volunteer stay in a voluntary organization.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been defined as a positive emotional state developed from a feeling of sharing the beliefs and values of one's entire organization (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006). Harrison, Newman, & Roth's (2006) study defined the characteristicsof commitment to school, students, teaching, career and profession along with a body of knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviors are those which compose the organizational commitment of teachers. They studied teachers' views about their organizational commitment to their primary schools. The study's sample consisted of 245 primary education teachers. The results showed that teachers recognize the importance of the factors regarding teamwork characteristics. Moreover, age became an intervening factor as teachers' views are significantlyinfluenced by their age and their teaching experience.Organizational commitmentis a construct in that the termdenotesa general representation of a wide range of attitudes. Loader (2004) noted four types of organizational commitment: morally committed, calculatively committed, normatively committed, and alienatively committed. In Loader' study conducted in a sample of 154 public sector employeesconsisting of firefighters, police officers, and utility district employees, firefighters were significantly more satisfied with their jobs than police officers and utility district employees.Significant differences were found for moral and

alienative commitment forms. Firefightersexpressed significantlyhigher moralcommitment and significantly lower alienativecommitment than did the police officers and utility district employees. No significantdifferences were found between police officers and utility district employees. The three groupsdid not differ significantly on calculative commitment.Organizational commitment also suggests that members of a group become morally or affectively committed as they fully embrace the organization's goals and values. A person becomes calculatively committed as the relationship with the organization becomes based on weighing what is received from organizational membership against what would lost by leavingthe organization. Calculative factors not only include pay and benefits, but also social associations with coworkers. A normatively committed person is one whose obligation to the organization is based on social norms or expected standards of behavior. A person is alienatively committed when he or she feels that they have no choice but to remain with an organization.Janoski (2010) adopted a definition for organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in a particular organization which can be characterized by a strong belief in the organizations values, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the company, as well as a strong desire to maintain membership within the organization". Given the volunteerism context that is the object of the present study, we will use the term 'role

satisfaction' to represent the construct often termed job satisfaction or engagement satisfaction. As was the case with organizational commitment, role satisfaction has been defined in many ways. His study is conducted to examine the perception of public servants towards the fairness of performance appraisal and its effect on organizational commitment. The study also examined the intermediary effects of satisfaction in these two relationships. It was conducted through a survey among 425 employees of government agencies. The findings show that perceived fairness of performance appraisal has influenced their commitment towardsorganization through the mediatingfactor of satisfaction. This finding is consistent with the efforts by the government to establish a more transparent and more accountable decision-making process in an organization. The study concludes thatimprovement on performanceevaluation is vital for a moreeffectiveorganizational commitment among civil servants.Monjoo (2017) used a cross-section survey among 197 servants. Transformational leadership significantly affects the increase organizational commitment and job satisfaction.However, a good transformational leadership is not able to improve the performance ofservants if it is not supported by organizational commitment and high job satisfaction.

Egoistic Motivation and Normative Organizational Commitment

There is an established connection between self-interest behavior motivation to volunteer and organizational commitment. Hartenian & Lilly (2009) have shown that egoism composed of three dimensions relate differentially to each of three dimensions of commitment. They showed that positive correlations exist between egoism and commitment. This finding provides some support for believing that egoistic individuals will develop attitudes that can lead to longer-term relationships with an organization. The study also is not able to conclude that egoism is more important than altruism, or vice versa, but it was able to show that those who study egoism should use a multidimensional conceptualization of egoism.

Normative and Affective Organizational Commitment in Volunteer Work Among Leadership Position

Only a few studies have examined the commitment of employees in volunteer organizations. However, it is important to have a specific gauge among the volunteer sector as their dynamic differ from that of private and public organizations. Volunteers are typically intrinsically motivated and are rewarded by being in control and exercising self-determination(Deci & Ryan, 1985). Therefore, paid employees and volunteers have very different motivations and thus view the commitment to their jobs differently. Further, volunteers lack the same compelling reason for

24

continuing their service as do paid employees. There are no tangible considerations such as pensions at risk, and many other outlets for volunteer work exist. In building a theoretical model of commitment, Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) argue that mindsets are important in determining commitment.

A few findings indicate that for-profit workers were the most committed to their organizations, followed by non-profit employees. Workers with the lowest levels of organizational commitment were those in the public sector. While there is a handful of studies that had specifically analyzed the organizational commitment of volunteers rather than employees, Dailey (1986) suggested that job satisfaction, work autonomy, job involvement and feedback from the work itself were strong predictors of organizational commitment among volunteers. While Jenner (1984) surveyed a sample of 250 women volunteers and gave evidence that relationships among organizational commitment and measures of involvement and satisfaction were stable. The attitude measures were related to the number of volunteer hours per month reported at the time of measurement. Knoke (1981) used hierarchical regression analysis between committee functioning and organizational commitment and plotted them among age group, occupation, years of membership, and time spent on administration among volunteers. The study demonstrated a temporal relationship between the two variables.

This study wanted to focus on normative and affective organizational commitment and thus the succeeding discussion would focus with these two types.

Normative commitment revolves around an employee or volunteer's feelings of obligation and loyalty to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). These feelings may be the result of normative pressures internalized by the employee or volunteer through familial or cultural socialization prior to organizational membership, from organizational socialization processes following entry into the organization, or from a combination of both prior experience and organizational socialization. A person having a high degree of normativecommitment feels that they ought to continue his or her association with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). There are a number of studies that plot normative commitment of volunteers among other factors. Meyer and Allen (1997) theorize that normative commitment may develo on the basis of

psychological contractsbetween employees and their organizations. These contracts are based on a sense of reciprocal obligations between the employee and the organization (Rousseau, 1995). Affective commitment refers to the employee's or volunteer's state of emotional attachment to the organization. This emotional response has also been described as a linking of the identity of the individual with the identity of the organization and as an attachment to the organization for its own sake, apart from its

purely instrumental worth. Affective commitment results in a situation where the employee or volunteer wants to continue his or her association with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Because the subject of this study is a board that creates and executes top decisions, the succeeding discussion would focus on this particular segment of volunteer work. Stephens, Dawley & Stephens (2004) studied a board of directors in volunteer organizations. They found out that volunteer directors who perceive that they have a high service role potential may develop feelings of obligation to share their advice as they come to understand the alignment between their experience and expertise and the needs of the organization. These feelings of obligation to share advice and participate more fully in organizational processes are likely to increase dramatically after one assumes a leadership role on the board. In return for being designated as a leader, the director may experience a greater need to justify his or her presencein the position by increasing the quantity and quality of advice shared (Stephens, Dawley, &Stephens, 2004). A similar study conducted by Deci & Ryan (1985) concluded that for part- time, volunteer directors, motivation for participation in organizational processes is not dependent on direct compensation but is argued to be a result of intrinsic motivation through self-determination and competence (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Another study conducted by Pearce (1993) among board members of a volunteer organization, concluded that normative, affective, and continuance commitment based on low alternatives are the three distinct constructs applicable to volunteer employees. Moreover, these components have a positive effect on board member's roles. Meyer & Allen (1991) differentiated between genders. Normative and affective commitments have more priority than continuous commitment in females and males and females have higher motivation in emotional and normative commitment than males. The actions of board leaders are more public and explicit than those of ordinary board members, by virtue of the increased visibilityinherent in the leader role. Also, since they represent the board as a whole, leader actions are less revocable than those of ordinary board members. Finally, due to higher levels of legitimacygranted to the board leader by virtue of their formal position, the advice of board leaders is likely to be more specific and explicit than that of other board members.Dunham, Grube, and Casteneda (1994) focused on volunteer board members of a cancer health and education organization. The findings would suggest that variables similar to those that are   found   to   affect volunteers and paid

employees   also   affect board   members' participation. More specifically,   the researchers   found   that   board   members   who   were motivated by an emotional attachment to their organization were more likely to intend to continue serving and to be more satisfied with their volunteer position than those who were not motivated by strong

emotional bonds to their organization. There is similar but weaker relationships found between the same variables such as intention to stay and satisfaction and those for whom feelings of moral obligation, rather than emotional attachment, formed the basis of their commitment.

D. Theoretical Framework: Work as Social Relation

This study will situate work as social relation (Budd, 2010). In this definition, social context of work is emphasized. Work is embedded in complex social phenomena in whichindividuals seek approval, status, sociability, and power (Grannoveter, 1985). From this definiton, work is a way of achieving more than the material gains or the intrinsic rewards emphasized in industrial-organizational psychology (Budd, 2010). The social context also provides constraints, whether in the form of social norms that define the boundaries of acceptable behaviors or work roles, or in the form of power relations that define access to resources.This incorporation of the social structure into theorizing on work "shifts attention away from seeing the world as composed of egalitarian, voluntarily chosen, two-person ties andconcentrates instead on seeing it as composed of asymmetric ties bound up in hierarchicalstructures" (Wellman, 1983). To conceptualize work as social relation is therefore to see it asconsisting of human interactions that are experienced in and shaped by social networks, socialnorms and institutions, and socially-constructed power relations.Theories of social exchange and social networksfocus on the social dynamics of interpersonal work interactions. A social exchange is defined as an open-ended, ongoing relationship based on trust and reciprocity that has imperfectly-specified obligations and a multiplicity of objectives—not only money,butperhapsstatus, respect,andothersocioemotional items (Mitchell, 2005). When work is a social exchange, employees expect to be rewarded or taken care of in the long run, but they are less concerned with how their daily effort ties explicitly to specific rewards. Employees are also predicted to develop emotional attachments to their organization and feel proud to work for that organization. The perceived mutual obligations between employee and employer are also theorized to form a psychological contract (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006). Social exchange theory can also explain why employees engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (Wayne, Shore, and Liden 1997). In a related vein, seeing work as a set of interpersonal interactions also means that

how an individual experiences work can depend on the characteristics of their social network, or what is frequently called social capital (Portes, 1998).

E. Research and Sampling Design

The survey was conducted within the span of one month (April-May 2018).The total population of active PLEB members all over the country is 1,555. This number comes from 311 PLEBs which convene at least once a month and with at least one case filed before them for the past year. The following table shows PLEB distribution byregion.

Table 1.   Distribution of PLEB Members by Region

REGION	Cities and Municipalities with Organized PLEB	Percent active Organized PLEB [See note 1]
I	123	20
II	85	27
CAR	71	25
III	125	40
IV-A	85	27
MIMAROPA	71	25
NCR	16	15
V	14	1
VI	65	11
VII	68	23
VIII	90	26
IX		0
X	79	24
XI	48	14
XII	46	32
XIII	52	21
ARMM		0
TOTAL	1038	311

Note: Percent of PLEBs which convenes at least once a month and with at least one case filed.

The online sampling calculator was used to determine the sample size given thepopulation is known research sample, the researcher used 95% confidence level and 5%margin of error. This would yield a 308 target sample. There were 320 questionnaires retrieved and processed. The unit of analysis of the study is individual PLEB member.

Variables

From the main research question, the study aims to define the intrinsic factors

(e.g.perception on justice and providing security for the community) that motivate PLEB

members into volunteer work. Demographic factors such as age, income, status of

employment,   andeducation   are   also   independent variables   intomotivation.

Normative   and   affective organizational commitment and Filipino values are

independent variable to staying in PLEB to do volunteer work.

The following matrix of variables lists the indicator for each independent and

dependent variable:

Table 2. Variable Matrix

Independent Variable	Indicators
Intrinsic Motivators	
Motivation to Provide for Security	Attendance in community meetings
Perception on justice	Inclination to fair and unbiased trial for police under investigation
Demographic Factors	
Age	Age of a PLEB member
Sex	Sex of a PLEB member
Income from paid work	Income from paid work apart from PLEB remuneration which is disclosed in the annual Income Tax Return.
Civil status	Civil status of a PLEB member
Education	Education of a PLEB member
Religion	Religion of a PLEB member
Type of employment	Regular or non-regular employment outside of PLEB work
Sector of employment	Any sector of work outside of PLEB work
Years of employment	Number of years of being employed even prior to being a PLEB member
Other volunteering work	Active religious, academic, or other community engagement a PLEB member is signed in
Affective organizational commitment	Reason for staying in PLEB is to go with sentiments of not leaving long-time friend from

	work
Normative organizational commitment	Reason for staying in PLEB is because he wants to uphold the values that the people around him expects him to deliver.
Filipino values	Unwritten rules and often not part of the organization's formal mission/vision or core values but are exercised by members of the organization.
Dependent Variable	**Indicators**
Membership in PLEB	Attending PLEB meetings every month
Stay in PLEB	Number of years a PLEB member is being active in attending meeting

Self-Designed Survey Questionnaire

The study employs a 5-part questionnaire in a Likert scale format to be answered by the members of the PLEB of each district/municipality. The questionnaire is composed of thefollowing sub-categories (*Please see appendix A*):

1.   Motivation as PLEB

2.   Normative Organizational Commitment

3.   Affective Organizational Commitment

4.   Perceptions on Justice

5.   Filipino Values and my PLEB Decisions and Actions

Part I is composed of 8 questions. These questions are answerable in a 4-point Likert Scale, 4 as Strongly Agree, 3 as Agree, 2 as Disagree, and 1 as Strongly Disagree. All items arepositively phrased.Part II is composed of 7 questions. These questions are answerable in a 4-point LikertScale, 4 as Strongly Agree, 3 as Agree, 2 as Disagree, and 1 as Strongly Disagree. All items arepositively phrased.
Part III is composed of 12 questions. These questions are answerable in a 4-point LikertScale, 4 as Strongly Agree, 3 as Agree, 2 as Disagree, and 1 as Strongly Disagree. Items 8, 10,and 12 are negatively phrased.Part IV is composed of 10 questions. These questions are answerable in a 4-point LikertScale, 4 as Strongly Agree, 3 as Agree, 2 as Disagree, and 1 as Strongly Disagree. All arepositively phrased.

Part V Filipino values and my PLEB decisions and actions are composed of 8 questions.These questions are answerable in a 4-point Likert Scale, 4 as Strongly Agree, 3 as Agree, 2 asDisagree, and 1 as Strongly Disagree. All items are positively

phrased.The survey was conducted in a PLEB Training of Trainers on December 3, 2017 held in Lucena City.

F. Results and Discussion

The following matrix shows the regression result between the independent

 and dependent variables.

Table 3. Regression Matrix

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Regression Result
Intrinsic Motivators		
Motivation to Provide for Security	Membership in PLEB	.000
Perception on justice		.000
Demographic Factors		
Age		.003
Sex		.581
Income from paid work		.011

Civil status		.366
Education		.670
Religion		.785
Type of employment		.093
Sector of employment		.124
Years of employment		.601
Other volunteering work		.123
Affective organizational commitment	Stay in PLEB	.000
Normative organizational commitment		.000
Filipino values		.000

Motivation to Provide Security for the Community and Membership in PLEB

*This section discusses the respondents' agreeability on the statement to provide securityfor the community as their motivation to join the PLEB.*Hryniewicz (2010) argues that policing is a public good and civilian oversight is a sourceof security. Thestudy shows that the motivation to provide for security to the community,
treating security as a public good motivates the PLEB members to participate in voluntary lawenforcement. Thus, this section answers the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Motivation to provide security to the community has significant positiveeffect on membership to PLEB, the greater is the motivation to provide for security, the greateris the likelihood for membership in PLEB.The study shows that majority of the respondents "Strongly Agreed" to statements 1 and 5 as their motivation to join the PLEB. The statements that compose Part I, Motivation
to PLEB work all states a person's inclination to provide security to the community.

The firststatement "There are a number of dangers in my community that require police attention," yield 47.4% Strongly Agree responses out of the total 333 respondents, while the statement"My task as a PLEB member is to ensure that there is an ongoing collective project in thecommunity that promotes security, peace and order," yield 53.5% Strongly Agree responsefrom the respondents.

Respondents agreed to statements 2,3,4,6,7, and 8.Sixty six point seven percent of the respondents say that they agree that "the police must ensure security of every member of thecommunity." This result is furthered by 69.7% of the respondentswho say that "ensuringsecurity in the community must be carried out by the police with maximum respect to everymember of thecommunity." Both statements are supported by Loader's (2006) claim thatpolice functions must be performed in ways that sustain the conditions of a democratic life inwhich the security of all individuals and groups is protected. Thus, civilian oversightprovidesa way in which the police may reinforce and their public function as democratic protectors.Statements 4 and 7 both state the police' responsibility to provide for security. Statement 7that emphasizes on check and balance on police performance yield 63.7% Agree

response. Fortyeight point nine percent of the respondents say that they don'tmind giving

up a part of mypersonal time to help the community.

Table 4. Membership in PLEB Regression Table

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Membership in PLEB	.002	.059	.456	.000

The regression table shows strong positive relationship between motivation to providesecurity for the community and membership in PLEB.The result supports a number of findings on altruistic behavior to provide for thecommunity as a motivation to join a volunteer organization. The findings support Bergstromet al.'s (1986) theory that volunteers are interested in the total supply a good whose overall provision guarantees that the demands of the people are satisfied. The good can be providedby the volunteer himself, by other individual or group, or by the government. The act of giving

urges volunteers to give, the key motivation of the volunteer's behavior is not other people'swell-being, but his own well-being that he secures out from providing to the collective(Menchik-Weisbrod, 1987).

However, most studies (Fischer & Schaffer, 1993; Flanagan et. al, 1999) do not regard these motives as predispositions but they would treat motives as part of action that would help

shape behavior. According to Schervish & Havens (1997), if motive talk is learned as part of alarger set of cultural understandings, makes sense to expect these frameworks of consciousnesswill influence the person to volunteer directly to improve their communities, aiding the lessfortunate and doing something for their country.

One of the early models of volunteer motivation is altruistic motives. It explains that

individuals volunteer for the welfare of others, while another theory, egoistic model, explainsother self-interest behavior such as the desire to feel good. Volunteering in terms ofmeaningfulness of volunteer work or the employees' understanding of the purpose and

significance of his/her volunteer work. Tyler (2002) stated that volunteering is tied with theirpride towards the work that they do or contribute to the community. While Andreoni (2002)stated that satisfaction is taken from the action to provide for the community. In other words,contributing to the community induces them to feel good while giving them the opportunity to help others.

Perception on Justice and Motivation to Provide Security for the Community

Twenty point four percent respondents who have agreed that they adhere to justice

upon making decisions in PLEB also agree that they agree to provide security to the

community as theirmotivation to volunteer to the PLEB

Table 5. Perception on Justice Regression Table

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Perception on Justice	.220	.052	3.968	.000

The regression analysis shows strong positive relationship between perceptionon

justice and motivation to provide for the community. Respondents with high perception on justice also have high motivation to provide for the community. The finding supports Walker (2001), Loader (2006), Tyler and Meares et.al (2016) which suggests that civilian's perception to uphold justice among the community entices them to join in civilian law enforcement. These studies provide reason on why civilians join law enforcement and it is to meet the need to affirm their social values—in this context a strong perception on justice. Re-affirming personal values is a part of egoistic motivation to volunteer. The possible explanation of no relationship found between the respondents' perception on justice and motivation to provide for the community was given by Narushima (2005) that says older people are pushed mainly by altruistic rather than by more egoistic motivations(Narushima, 2005). The findings support Walker's (2001) claims that civilians' participation in

police complaints and misconduct are addressed more effectively – especially in an oversight position. He further argued that police policies and priorities are more effective and more responsive to the community when civilians are involved than when the police make decisions without civilian input. Walker further claims (2001) on the merits of an oversight committee over police performance. Both scholars argue that civilian oversight ensures more thorough and fair investigations, in that more complaints are sustained, or that they result in more disciplinary actions and, as a result, more police misconduct is deterred. Similar types of arguments could be constructed for other areas of police policy.Being motivated to be involved in a civilian oversight is underscored by a mindset of compassion (Ribera, 2015). The police must build around the mindset that people areinherently good and has value. Tyler (2017) suggests that the police can contribute to the goalof promoting public trust by designing their policies and practice around the civilian mindset.

This approach requires evaluating police practices with reference to public conceptions ofprocedural justice (Meares et. al, 2016). Judgments about fairness of the police will be the mostimportant factor in such processes.Bradford's (2014) accounts of the relationship between police and citizen converge onthe idea that police behavior carries important identity-relevant information. Opinions aboutthe police are implicated in the formation of social identities. Meares et. al (2001) argues thatthe actual lawfulness of police action has at best a minor influence on public evaluations ofappropriate police behavior. Public judgments about whether police officers should bedisciplined for misconduct are largely shaped by people's procedural justice evaluations.

Membership in PLEB and Demographic Factors

In addition, other dimensions of work such as number of years spent in previous or current job, type of employment in previous or current job, and the sector are plotted againstthe motivation to PLEB work as well. This section will answer the following hypothesis:Hypothesis 3: Demographic variables such as age and education, sex, employment andjob position, income are significantly related to motivation and commitment in the PLEB.

As shown in the frequency table, 15 respondents at age 40 Agree that they are motivated to volunteer to PLEB to provide security to the community.Twenty eight point eight percent of the respondents aged 30 to 35 reported to bmotivated to render volunteer work in the community by joining the PLEB, while only 0.6% respondents aged 56-60 strongly agreed that they are motivated a volunteer organization.

Table 6. Age Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Age	-.170	.000	-3.029	.003

From the regression analysis, the study shows that age has strong negative significancas plotted against PLEB membership, as shown by p-value .003 and beta coefficient of -.170.This significance value also shows strong relationship between age and motivation to join thePLEB, while beta coefficient of -.170 shows a negative relationship between age and themotivation to provide for the community—as age of the volunteer increases, the less that theyget motivated to render volunteer work to provide security for the community.To support this finding, Social Resource Theory offered anexplanation to thedeclinein volunteering in the retirement age to the extent thatwithdrawing from the labor forceweakens social integration. Numerous studies have shown that retirement does not drawpeople into the volunteering labor force, although it does increase the number of hours worked

among those already volunteering (Caro & Bass, 1997). As recommendation, it is bettertoaskif the hours dedicated in PLEB work increased among retirees who are already in PLEB.Sixty four respondents with college degree Agree that they are motivated to join thePLEB to provide security to the community. The p-value shows no significant relationshipbetween education and motivation. It can be concluded that higher education does notdetermine motivation to provide security for the community.

Thirteen point six percent of the respondents who have post graduate education

agreed to be motivated to volunteer in the community.

Table 7. Highest Education Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Education	.007	.045	.119	.000

The study's result on education shows strong significant relationship between educationand PLEB membership. The higher education a PLEB member gets, the more likely is he motivated to volunteer to provide security for the community.On the average, volunteers are found to be more educated, wealthier, and healthier than non-volunteers (Choi, 2003; Wymer, 1999). This finding does supports a number of findings (McPherson &Rotolo, 1996; Brady et. al, 1995) on education as determinant to volunteering. These studies assume education as predictor to volunteer because higher level of knowledge and skills increases awareness with the community's issues. In addition, people with higher education are more likely to be asked to volunteer because they have higher and better stock of knowledge and skills needed for volunteering such as community organizing and public speaking.

Forty nine point eight percent of the female respondents agree to be volunteering for

PLEB because of the motivation to provide security for the community, while 4.4%

strongly disagree.

Table 8. Sex Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Sex	.005	.009	.552	.581

P-value shows no significant relationship between sex and PLEB membership. One

possible explanation for this finding is that the effect of gender varies by life cycle stage.

Among younger people, females tend to volunteer more hours than males (Wuthnow, 1995). Females score higher on measures on empathy in which they attach more value to helpingothers (Flanagan et. al, 1993). Wuthnow (1995) believes female are expected to care for thepersonal. Many women see their volunteer work as their roles as wives and mothers (Negrey,1993). The reason these do not produce much higher volunteer rates for women is that menhave higher human capital and free time. Women would volunteer even more if they are given same amount of human capital as men (Wuthnow, 1995).

Five point five percent married respondents strongly agreed to be motivated to work

as volunteer in PLEB, while 5.2% percent single respondents claim the same thing.

Table 8. Civil Status Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Civil Status	-.051	.004	-.906	.366

As shown in the regression, the study's result shows no significance between civil statusand motivation to join PLEB to provide security for the community. The finding does notsupport Okun & Michel (2006) finding that states volunteers are typically married and likelyto be working in the labor market. On the contrary, high working hours and being divorced,
separated, or widowed were found to have a role in abstaining from volunteering.

Table 9. Income Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Income	.055	.018	.959	.000

As shown in the regression (p-value .011), the respondent's income is a significant

predictor to join the PLEB. As the respondent's income increases, the more likely that

they are motivated to join the PLEB to provide security for the community. The findings

is supported by Gallagher (1994) and Raskoff & Sundeen (1995) that suggest positive

relationship between income and the motivation to provide for the community among the

elderly. If other variable is considered, Role Overload Theory by Markham & Bonjean (1996) explains that volunteering among the highly-paid elderly is brought about by their accumulated life skill. Getting a paid job can also boost self-teach organizational skills (Brady et. al, 1995).Humble (1984) and Brady et. al, (1995) suggested that paid work encourages volunteer work. The lowest rates of volunteering is among those not in the labor force, unemployed people, and homemakers.Freeman (1997) associated income with motivation to volunteer. Volunteering can betaken as any other kind of good. Freeman (1997) defines volunteering as a "conscience good"

or an activity that gives pleasure in the form of a "warm glow" of good feeling that results frombeing generous to others. If volunteer work is an object of consumption or a "normal good"those with more disposable income should consume more of it (Freeman, 1997). In short,"volunteering should behave like any other source of utility, increasing as income rises"(Bauer, Bredtman, and Schmidt, 2012).

This result also supports the findings that among single adults aged 18-54, volunteer hours are positively related to wages and negatively related to wealth, but only among men(Segal, 1993), while negates Wolff et. al's (1993) and Freeman's (1997) findings that statesvolunteer hours are inversely related to wages because opportunity costs rise as pay rises.Thirty respondents with 10 years of employment Agree that they are motivated to jointhe PLEB to provide security for the community.Twenty point seven percent of the respondents who rendered work outside of PLEB for 11-15 years agreed to be motivated to volunteer for PLEB to provide security for the community.

Table 10. Years of Employment Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
No. of Years Employed	-.030	.001	-.524	.601

The regression shows no significant relationship between the number of years being employed and the motivation to provide security for the community. As shown by betacoefficient .095, number of years being employed is a strong positive predictor to join thePLEB. As number of years being employed increases, the likelihood to be motivated to join thePLEB to provide for security increases.One hundred twenty two respondents with regular type of employment Agree thatthey are motivated to join the PLEB to provide security for the community. The regressionresult shows that type of employment is negatively related to motivation to provide securityfor the community. This means that as their employment arrangement becomes less regular, the less likely that they will be motivated to provide for security.

Fifty two point three percent of the respondents who are employed in

regularemployment agree to be motivated by public security to render volunteer

work in PLEB.

Table 11. Type of Employment Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Type of Employment	.095	.006	-1.684	.093

The result shows significant relationship between the type of employment and PLEB membership. Thus, the result support Orlowski & Wicker's (2014) findings that statesindividuals working in full-time   jobs   are more   likely   toengage involuntary   work. Employment security in terms of the type of contract (fixed or temporary),flexibility in working arrangements, and the number of times

unemployed during the same reference period are looked into by Orlowski &Wicker

(2014). Their findings suggested that individuals working in full-time jobs are more likely to engage in voluntary work. In addition to type of employment, job characteristics were measured by Orlowski & Wicker (2014) as theextent to which one performs executive work, and the level of dynamism in the job. Accordingto Status Generalization Theory, managerial and professional level people are more likely to be asked to volunteer. Also it is probable that these people get more intrinsic rewards from theirwork, building up an attachment to work and work-like activities that easily translatesinto volunteerism (Herzog & Morgan, 1993). People who have self- directed jobs, those that have high autonomy, decision-making, complexity and variety, volunteer for a wider range of activities than other workers (Wilson &Musick, 1997).

One hundred two respondents working in the government sector Agree that they are motivated to join in PLEB to provide security for the community. Regression analysis shows no significant relationship between sector of employment and motivation to provide security.Fifty nine point nine percent of the respondents who work in the government agree to be motivated to work in PLEB to provide security for the community.

Table 12. Sector of Employment Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Sector of Employment	.087	.008	1.543	.124

The regression analysis shows no significant relationship between sector of employment and the motivation to provide security for the community. The findings support Bruno & Fiorillo's study (2016) among volunteers in Italy, they reported that on average,volunteers are older, have higher education, have more labor market experience, are employedin professional occupations and in large firms, are employed in the public sector.

The result negates Rotolo & Wilson's (2006) theory that states the type of work that

people do can impact their propensity to be involved in the community and their social

activities. The result further negates the theory that public sector and nonprofit sector

workers are much more likely to volunteer than private-sector workers (Rotolo & Wilson, 2006).One hundred twenty eight respondents who are Catholic Agree that they are motivatedto join PLEB to provide security to the community. Regression analysis shows no significantrelationship between religion and motivation to provide security for the community.

Twenty nine point four percent respondents who are Iglesia ni Cristo agreed to be motivated to volunteer work in PLEB.

Table 13. Religion Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Religion	-.015	.007	-.273	.785

The results found no significant relationship between religion and the motivation to provide for the community. This finding negates a number of findings by Putnam (2000),Wilson & Janoski (1995), Wilson & Musick (1997), Jackson et. al (1995) that state religion asone of the major factors in the promotion of volunteering and that churchattendancecorrelates positively with volunteering and charity work. Church attendance has beenparticularly noted to play an important role.

One hundred forty nine respondents who have other volunteer work aside from PLEBAgree that they are motivated to join the PLEB to provide security for the community.Regression analysis shows no significant relationship between other volunteer work andmotivation to provide security for the community.
Fourteen point one percent of respondents who have no other volunteering jobs other than PLEB disagree to be motivated to volunteer work in PLEB.

Table 14. Other Volunteering Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Other Volunteer Work	.087	.021	1.546	.123

The regression result shows no significant relationship between involvement in other volunteer work and the motivation to provide security for the community. The result shows that membership in PLEB is not correlated with inclination to volunteering.

Motivation to Provide for Security for the Communityand Normative Organizational Commitment

Fifty five point three percent of the respondents say that they agree to the statement "Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave PLEB now," while49.8% agree to the statement "I owe a great deal to the PLEB."

Twenty eight point seven percent of the respondents who agree to be motivated to work in PLEB also agree to have high normative organizational commitment.

Table 15. Normative Organizational Commitment Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Normative Organizational Commitment	.622	.035	14.190	.000

The following regression table shows strong significance between motivation and normative organizational commitment. Thus, a respondent with high motivation to volunteerstay longer in PLEB because of obligation or loyalty to the organization.Meyer and Allen (1997) theorize that normative commitment may develop on the basis

of psychological contracts between employees and their organizations. These contracts arebased on a sense of reciprocal obligations between the employee and the organization(Rousseau, 1995). The findings support Hartenian & Lilly's (2009) findings on strongconnection between self interest and the commitment to stay in the organization. Theirfinding provides support for believing that egoistic individuals will still eventually developattitudes that can lead to longer-term relationships with an organization. There is anestablished connection between self-interest behavior motivation to volunteer and normative

organizational commitment. Hartenian & Lilly (2009) have shown positive correlationsbetween egoism and commitment. The respondent's reason to provide for the community ismore for personal consumption than for the greater good. This finding provides some supportfor believing that egoistic individuals will develop attitudes that can lead to longer-termrelationships with an organization.

Motivation to Provide Security for the Community and

Affective Organizational Commitment

Twenty nine point one percent of the respondents who agree to have high affective orgabizational commitment also agreed to be motivated to volunteer in PLEB to provide security for the community.

Table 16. Affective Organizational Commitment Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Affective Organizational Commitment	.528	.058	11.095	.000

Regression shows strong positive significance between the respondents' motivation to provide security and their affective organizational commitment to PLEB. Thus, motivation to provide security predicts staying longer in PLEB.

Filipino Values and Motivation and Commitments to PLEB Work

Twenty seven point four percent who have high inclination to workplace Filipino

values also agree to be motivated to work in PLEB to provide security for the community.

Table 17. Filipino Values Regression

	Beta Coefficient	Std. Error	t	p-value
Filipino Values	.549	.061	11.461	.000

Regression shows strong significant relationship between the respondent's adherence to Filipino values in the workplace and their motivation to provide security to the community.The beta coefficient shows positive relationship between the two variables which means thatstrong adherence to Filipino values result in strong motivation to provide security for thecommunity.

F. Summary, Conclusion, and Recommendation

The study answered the first question---To what extent is the motive to contribute to

public safety a shared responsibility, anda strong predictor doing volunteer work

among PLEB members? The motivation to contribute to the welfare of others

(altruistic) is being shown in the findings of the research (Frish & Gerrard, 1981).

Intrinsic motivations posed by the researcher is supported by Geiser, Okun, & Grano's

(2014) claim that "intrinsic motives propelpeople to volunteer because of the inherent

value, interest, and enjoyment of the activity." Self-determinationtheory (Deci &

Ryan, 2000) also supports the afore-cited claims, PLEB members are intrinsically motivated because they engage in an activity for the inherent satisfaction of performing the activity, and when they engage in an activity as a means to another end, which is to help the community, they are said to be extrinsically motivated.

There is strong positive relationship between motivation to provide security for the

community and membership to PLEB. The findings can be explained in terms of situating workas social relations (Budd, 2010) who is "consisting of human interactions that are experiencedin and shaped by social networks, social norms and institutions, and socially-constructedpower relations." PLEB members are motivated to join the PLEB and render volunteer workbecause they are aware of the present social networks (i.e. collective project in the communitythat promotes security, peace and order, question 5, part I Motivation in PLEB), social normsand institutions (i.e. dangers in my community that require police attention, question 3, part

IMotivation in PLEB; police ensuring security of everymember of the community, question4,part I Motivation in PLEB; ensuring security in the community must be carried outby thepolice with maximum respect to every member of the community, question 5, part IMotivation in PLEB), andsocially-constructed power relations (i.e. performance of the policein my community needs check and balance, question 6part I Motivation in PLEB). Beingsituated in these "social interactions" enables PLEB members to view security as a public goodin which every member of the community needs and can benefit from.Another question the study answered is---
What are the other determinants to membership and commitment to the PLEB?

Apart from provision of public good, other factors to volunteer work are as follows:
The regression analysis shows strong positive relationship between perception onjustice and motivationto provide for the community. Respondents with high perception onjustice also have high motivation to provide for the community. The finding supports Walker(2001), Loader (2006), Tyler (2017), and Meares et.al (2016) findingswhich suggest reason onwhy civilians join law enforcement and it is to meet the need to affirm their social values—inthis context a strong perception on justice. Re-affirming personal values is a part of egoisticmotivation to volunteer (Hartenian & Lilly, 2009).Demographic factors are taken as independent variables to motivation to volunteer.

The findings for each demographic factor are as follows:

Result from regression shows strong positive relationship between income, years of employment, education, and type of employment, while no significant relationship with civil status, years in PLEB, religion, sex, sector of employment, and other volunteering work.Regression shows negative significance with age. The findings show basic human developmentfactors such as age, income, and type of employment to be positively correlated to PLEBmembership. Age and income are paramount in increasing life skills which are needed involunteer work (e.g. community organizing and public speaking). Freeman (1997) associatedincome with motivation to volunteer. Volunteering can be taken as any other kind of good.Freeman (1997) defines volunteering as a "conscience good" or an activity that gives pleasurein the form of a "warm glow" of good feeling that results from being generous to others. If volunteer work is an object of consumption or a "normal good" those with more disposableincome should consume more of it (Freeman, 1997). In short, "volunteering should behavelike any other source of utility, increasing as income rises" (Bauer, Bredtman, and Schmidt,2012). Type of employment has link with autonomy to direct ones time in work to forgo forvolunteering. Although this finding is contradictory to an empirical observation that bosses inhigh ranking positions are too occupied with work—professionals in high ranking positionswho are demanded of high decision-making and work complexity also has more workautonomy, for example, a CEO who can instruct his secretary to cancel a meeting versus arank-and-file who has to meet a quota and thus could not afford to leave his workplace tovolunteer. There is difference in age average between NCR-located PLEBs (52 years old) andprovincial PLEBs (35 years old). The difference is explained by year of establishment. NCR-located PLEBs are established early 1990s, most of the respondents surveyed and interviewedare pioneers to the organization, while PLEB members in Eastern Samar who comprises bulkof the respondents are younger members of the community who are recruited to institutePLEB by the DILG only in 2016 upon creation of the Program Enhancement Team. The resultis a negation to a few findings on age and volunteering which state likelihood to volunteerincreases with age (Narushima, 2005). The older population in NCR has stayed in theorganization since its formation and may be their longevity with the organization is a betterstand point. Caro & Bass (1997) have shown that retirement does not draw people into thevolunteering labor force, although it does increase the number of hours worked among thosealready volunteering.Apart from determining the factors to membership, factors to staying in theorganization are also determined in the study. There is significant between the three factors—

normative organizational commitment, affective organizational commitment, and Filipinovalues and years in volunteering in PLEB. Because volunteer work lacks the compensatorybenefits as paid work can offer, these factors mentioned are mindsets that have to be developed in a volunteer to assure stay in the organization. PLEB members stay in the organization because they perceive that they have high service roles and thus maypotentially develop feelings of obligation to share their advice as they come to understand the alignment betweentheir experience and expertise and the needs of the organization. From the study's findings, younger, of high income, and self-directed professionalsvolunteer as PLEB members. They want to provide security for the community and theyperceive just processes to become standard of police behavior and actions. They stay longer inPLEB, even until retirement, because of the social obligation and emotional attachment thatthey have acquired in years of volunteer work in the organization

Volunteer work is present inthe country, and more interestingly, within the bounds of law enforcement that is a dangerous field. The motivations of the PLEB members being provision forsecurity and strong adherence to justice are intrinsic values that are strong motivators forvolunteer work.

The researcher recommends for volunteer work to be introduced to more young, high earning, with self-directed jobs, and with a strong civic sense. Volunteer work can be culled from individuals with the same strand of intrinsic values.The researcher recommends for the The Government of the Philippines, through theDepartment of Interior and Local Government, to provide support to the PLEBs interms of remuneration, training, and insurance policy.

This study shows the need for more research to clarify the nature of volunteer work, in relation to paid work with employer - employee relations, and public service in the government sector, and the possible impact of new technology in facilitating such work. This study shows the dilemna of crossing boundaries between paid work and unpaid volunteer work, and whether there are significant variations in values, beliefs, perceptions, commitment and attitudes to such work. The researcher also recommends to analyze the integration of a loose volunteer organization into a formalized state instituion such as the local government unit.

Future work can deal with the questions regarding organizational development of a volunteer organization and the inherent permeability of an institution on which the volunteers can be a part of.

REFERENCES

Andreoni, James. (2002). Giving According to GARP: An Experimental Test of the Consistencyof Preferences forAltruism. *The Econometric Society*, Vol 70 Issue 2.

Amato, Paul R.; Booth, Alan. (1997). A Generation at Risk: Growing Up in an Era of Family Upheaval. *Harvard University Press, 79 Garden Street, Cambridge.*

Bayley, David H. (2001). The New Structure of Policing: Description, Conceptualization, and Research Agenda.

Bergstrom et al., (1986). A correction. *Journalof Public Economics*, Vol 90 Issue 4-5.

Budd, John. (2004). Achieving Decent Work by GivingEmployment a Human Face. *InFocusProgramme on Social Dialogue, Labour Law and Labour Administration, Paper no. 7.*

Butler, Richard. (1983). Time in organizations: Its Experience, Explanations and Effects. *Organization Studies*, Vol 16 Issue 6.

Brady, Henry E., Kay Lehman Schlozman and Sidney Verba. (1999). Prospecting for Participants: Rational Expectations and the Recruitment of Political Activists. *American Political Science Review*,Vol 93 No 1.

Bradford, Ben et. al. (2009). Policing and social identity: procedural justice, inclusion and cooperation between police and public. *Policing & Society,* Vol 24 Issue 1, 22-43.

Bradford, Ben et. al. (2014). Policing in an inclusive society. *Policing & Society*, Vol 26 Issue 2, 12-14.

Boezeman, E. J., & Ellemers, N. (2014). Volunteer leadership: The role of pride and respect in organizational identification and leadership satisfaction. *Leadership*, Vol 10 No.

Carlotto, Mary Sandra, Guilherme Welter Wendt, Alice P. Jones. (2017). Technostress, Career Commitment, Satisfaction with Life, and Work-Family Interaction Among Workers in Information and Communication Technologies. *Actualidades en Psicologia,* Vol 31 Issue 122.

Caro, Francis & Scott Bass. (1997). Receptivity to Volunteering in the Immediate Postretirement Period. *Journal of Applied Gerontology*. Vol 56 Issue 1.

Chen, Hsiu-Kuei & Hongdan Zao. (2017). Compulsory Citizenship Behaviorand Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Role of Organizational Identification and Perceived Interactional Justice. *The Journal of Psychology,* Vol 148 Issue 2, 177-196.

CreativeResearch Systems, *Sample Size Calculator*, Retrieved March 10, 2018, from https://www. Suyveysystem.com/sscalc.htm.

Cnaan, R. A., & Boddie, S. C. (2004). Philadelphia census of congregations and their involvement in social service delivery. *Social Service Review*. Vol 75 Issue 7.

Davis, Fred, Richard P. Bagozzi & Paul R. Warshaw. (1989). User Acceptance of Computer Technology: A Comparison of Two Theoretical Models. *Management Science,* Vol 35 Issue 2, 982-1003.

De Graaf, Ruiter, S., &, N. D. (2006). National Context, Religiosity, and Volunteering: Results from 53 Countries. *American Sociological Review*, Vol 71 No. 2.

Edwards, Gerie & Edna Fowler. (2016). NGOs, Management and Development: Harnessing Counter-Hegemonic Possibilities. *Organization Studies*, Vol 37 Issue 2.

Erickson et. al, (2001). Recent Developments in Employment Relations in the Philippines. *Collective Bargaining, Labor Law, and Labor History,* Vol paper 2.

Etzioni, A. (1973). On Unlocking Policy Makers: A Comment. *The Journal of AppliedBehavioral Science*, Vol 9 Issue 408–408.

Fisher, Sandra L. & Anna W. Howell. (2004). Beyond user acceptance: An examination of employee reactions to information technology systems. *Human ResourceManagement,* Vol 43 Issue 3.

Fischer, L. R., & Schaffer, K. B. (1993). *Older volunteers: A guide to research and practice*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publications.

Filstad, Cathrine; Gottschalk, Peter. (2011). Performance Evaluation of Police Oversight Agencies. *Policing & Society,* Vol. 21 Issue 1, 96-109.

Freeman, Willam. (1997). Stakeholder Theory: Modelling Stakeholder Theories As A Research Tradition. *SME Australian Evidence*, Vol. 1 Issue 2.

Gerstel, Naomi & Sally Gallagher. (1994). Men's Caregiving. *Gender and the ContingentCharacter of Care,*Vol 24 Issue 3.

Geiser, Christian, Alan Okun, Caterina Grano. (2014). Who is motivated to volunteer? A latent profile analysis linking volunteer motivation to frequency of volunteering. *Psychological Test and Assessment Modeling,* Vol. 56 No.1.

Giddens, Anthony. (1998). The Third Way: The Renewal of Social Democracy, Polity. *Cambridge Publication,* Vol 33 Issue 4.

Gneezy, Uri, Muriele Niederle, & Aldo Rustichini. (2003). Performance in Competitive Environments: Gender Differences. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*.

Gora, J. A. G., & Nemerowicz, G. M. (1985). *Emergency squad volunteers: Professionalism in unpaid work*. New York: Praeger.

Gidron, B. (1984). Predictors of retention and turnover among service volunteer workers. *Journal of Social Service Research*, Vol 8 No. 1.

Guiney, Carson & Machado (2018). Volunteering Among Older Adults: Life Course Correlates and Consequences. *The Journals of Gerontology.*Vol 73 Issue 3.

Haines, Victor Y. & Andre Petit. (1997). Conditions for successful human resource information systems. *Human Resource Management,* Vol. 36 Issue 2.

Midlarsky, Elizabeth and Eva Kahana Jerrome, D. (1994). Altruism in Later Life, *Ageing andSociety*. Vol 15, Issue 3.

Herbert, Steve. (2006). Conceptions of Space and Crime in the Punitive Neoliberal City. *Antipode*. Vol. 38 Issue 4.

Hustinx, Lesley. (2003). Collective and Reflexive Styles of Volunteering: A Sociological Modernization Perspective. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, Vol. 14, Issue 2.

Hryniewicz, Danielle (2010). Civilian oversight as a public good: democratic policing, civilianoversight, and the social. *Contemporary Justice Review.* Vol. 14 Issue 1.

Institute of Employment Studies (2005). Employment Rights at Work: *Survey of Employees2005.*
http://www.employmentstudies.co.uk/system/files/resources/files/errs51.pdf.

Igbaria, M., & Tan, M. (1997). The consequences of information technology acceptance on subsequent individual performance. *Information and Management,* Vol. 32 Issue 3, 113-121.

Janoski, T. (2010). The Dynamic Processes of Volunteering in Civil Society: A Group and Multi-Level Approach. *Journal of Civil Society*. Vol. 6. No. 2.

Johnson, Devon; Wilson, David B.; Maguire, Edward R.; Lowrey-Kinberg, Belen V. (2017). Race and Perception of Police: Experimental Results on the Impact of Procedural Justice. *Justice Quarterly,* Vol 34 Issue 7, 1184-1212.

Jordan, G., & Maloney, W. A. (1997). Accounting for Sub Governments: Explaining the Persistence of Policy Communities. *Administration & Society*, Vol. 29 No. 5.

Kissinger, Deborah A., (2003). Renegotiating the Social Contract Hobbes to Rawls. *University of Hawaii.*

Kramer, Roderick M. (1979). Trust in Organizations. Frontiers of Theory and Research. Organization Studies. Vol 18 Issue 3.

Malinen, Sanna & Lotta Harju. (2017). Volunteer Engagement: Exploring the Distinction Between Job and OrganizationalEngagement. *Voluntas, Vol 28 Issue 1, 69-89.*

Markham, William T., Margaret A. Johnson, and Charles M. Bonjean. Nonprofit Decision Making and Resource Allocation: The Importance of Membership Preferences, Community Needs, and Interorganizational Ties. *Nonprofit and Voluntary SectorQuarterly*. Vol 28 Issue 2.

Mattei, U and J. Haskell, (2014). Handbook on Political Economy and Law.
University ofWindsor Faculty of Law.

Meares, Tracey L. et. al (2016). Criminal Law: Lawful or Fair? How Cops and Laypeople
Perceive Good Policing. *The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology,* Vol 105
(No. 2), 297-343.

Merry, Simon et. al (2011). Drivers of Public Trust and Confidence in Police in the UK.
International Journal of Police Science and Management, Vol 14 (No. 2), 118-135.

Menchik, Paul. L & Burton A. Weisbrod. Volunteer Labor Supply. *Journal of PubicEconomics*.
Vol 32 Issue 2.

Musella, Marco & Nunzia Nappo, 2008. Voluntary Work and Reciprocity: A Normative Approach.
Rivista Internazionaledi Scienze Sociali. Vol 116 Issue 1.

Nalla, Mahesh. (2009). The Expanding Boundaries of Crime Control: Governing Security
through Regulation. *TheANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social
Science,*Vol 679 Issue 1.

Narushima, J. (2016). Learning Through Political Participation: A Case Study of Spanish
Elders Involved in Political Organizations. *Adult Education Quarterly*, Vol 66 No2.

Narushima, J. (2005). Social Capital and Feelings of Unsafety in Later Life: A Study on the
Influence of Social Netwroks, Place Attachment,And Civic Participation on Perceived
Safety Belgium. Research on Aging,Vol 34 No 4.

Occupational Safety and Health Administration (2016). *Workers'Rights*.
https://www.osha.gov/Publications/osha3021.pdf.

Ofreneo, Rene E., (2013). Precarious Philippines: Expanding Informal Sector,
"Flexibilizing" Labor Market. *American Behavioral Scientist,* Vol 57 Issue 4.

Okun, M. A., & Michel, J. (2006). Sense of community and being a volunteer among the
young-old. *Journal of Applied Gerontology*, Vol 25 Issue 2.

Ouchi, William G. (1980). Types of organizational control and their relationship to
emotional well-being. *Administrative Sconce Quarterly*, Vol 23 Issue 2.

Orlowski, J., Wicker, P., & Breuer, C. (2018). Labor migration among elite sport coaches:
An exploratory study. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, Vol 53 Issue 3.

Pearce (1993). Volunteering and organisational participation. *Evidence from the British
Household Panel Survey.* (pp. 277-296).

Philippine Statistics Authority, (2016). 2016 Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment.
https://psa.gov.ph/content/2016-gender-statistics-labor-and-employment-0.

Philippine Statistics Authority, (2015). 2015 Family Income and Expendiure Survey. https://psa.gov.ph/survey/annual-poverty-indicator.

Philippine Statistics Authority, (2014). Social Security Statistics of the Philippines in the New Millenium. https://psa.gov.ph/sites/default/files/vol18_16.pdf.

Philippine Statistics Authority, (2016). Gender Statistics on Labor and Employment. https://psa.gov.ph/sites/default/files/attachments/ird/pressrelease/GSLE%202016%20PUBLICATION.pdf

RA 6975. *AN ACT ESTABLISHING THE PHILIPPINE NATIONAL POLICE UNDER A REORGANIZED DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT, AND FOROTHERPURPOSES*
h*ttps://www.lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra1990/ra_6975_1990.html*

Reyes, Jeremiah. (2014). Loob and Kapwa: An Introduction to a Filipino Virtue Ethics. *Asian Philosophy*, Vol 25 Issue 2.

Reyes, Jeremiah. (2016). In Defense of Hiya as a Filipino Virtue. *Asian Philosophy*. Vol 26 Issue 1.

Rothschild-Whitt, J. (1979). The Collectivist Organization: An Alternative to Rational-Bureaucratic Models. *American Sociological Review,* Vol 44 No 4.

Rosenthal. et. al. (1998). Further evidence of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory's validity problems: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Research in Personality* Vol45.

Smith, David Horton. (1994). Determinants of Voluntary Association Participation and Volunteering: A Literature Review. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*. Vol 23 No 3.

Snyder, M. et. al (1999). The Motivations to Volunteer: Theoretical and Practical Considerations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, Vol 8 No 5.

Sundeen, R. A., & Raskoff, S. A. (1995). Teenage Volunteers and Their Values. *Nonprofit andVoluntary Sector Quarterly*, Vol 24 No 4.

Tang, F. (2016). Retirement Patterns and Their Relationship to Volunteering. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*. Vol 45 No 5.

Tyler, Tom R. (2017). From Hard Reduction to Community Engagement: Redefining the Goals of American Policing in the Twentyfirst Century. Northwestern University Law Review, Vol 111 (No 6).

Tyler, T. R. (1996). Psychological models of the justice motive: Antecedents of distributive and procedural justice. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol 67.

Tyler, T., & Blader, S. (2002). Autonomous vs. comparative status: Must we be better than othersto feel good about ourselves? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*. Vol 89.

Tajfel, H. (1978). Differentiation between social groups: Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations. London: Academic Press.

Loader, Ian. (2006). Policing, Recognition, and Belonging.*The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science,* Vol 605 Issue 1.

Loader, Ian & Neil Walker. (2001). Policing as a Public Good: Reconstituting the Connections between Policing andthe State. *Theoretical Criminology*. Vol 5 Issue 1.

Marwell, Gerald and Pamela E. (1988). Oliver Social Networks and Collective Action: A Theory of the Critical Mass. *AJS*. Vol 94 No 3.

Murphy, Christopher. (2009). Police Studies Go Global in Eastern Kentucky. *Police Quarterly,* Vol 8 Issue 1, 137-145.

Menzies, Heather. (1990). Re-Thinking the Social Contract: Women, Work, and Technology in the Post-Industrial Era. Canadian Journal of Women & the Law, Vol 4 Issue 1.

Ouchi, William. (1980). Markets, Bureaucracies, and Clans. *Administrative Science Quarterly.* Vol 25 Issue 1.

Pe Pua, Rogelio. (2000). Sikolohiyang Pilipino: A legacy of Virigilio Enriquez. *Asian Journalof Social Psychology*. Vol 3 Issue 49.

Richards, Beverly, Terrence Obrien, & Duane Akroyd. (1994). Predicting the Organizational Commitment of Marketing Education and Health Occupations Education Teachers by Work Related Rewards.*Journal of Industrial Teacher Education,* Vol 32 No. 1.

Rothschild, Joyce and J. Allen Whitt. (1979). The Cooperative Workplace Potentials and Dilemmas of Organizational Democracy and Participation. *Organization Studies*. Vol 9 Issue 1.

Schaufeli, Wilmar B. And Arnold B. Bakker. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: a multi-sample study. *Journal ofOrganizational Behavior,* Vol 25 Issue 3, 293-315.

Selmer & Deleon. (2010). Developing a Filipino Needs Theory of Motivation. *Journal ofProgressive Psychology,* Vol 2 Issue 1.

Walker, J.W. (2001). Perspectives. *Human resource planning*. Vol. 24 no. 1.

Social Science Research (2018) *Survey Research*, Retrieved March 10, 2018, from https://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/survey.php.

Weisburd D. & Braga A. (2006). Police innovation: contrasting perspectives. Cambridge Studies in Criminology; Cambridge University Press ISBN-10 0-521-54483-1.

Wu, Rohan & Xueyu Cheng. (2016). Gender Equality in the Workplace: The Effect of Gender Equality on Productivity Growth Among the Chilean Manufacturers. *The Journal ofDeveloping Areas,* Vol 50 No 1.

Wayne, S.J., Shore, L.M. and Liden, R.C. (1997) Perceived Organizational Support and Leader-Member Exchange. *A Social Exchange Perspective*. Vol 40 Issue 2.

Wayne, Kenneth. (2009). A Conceptual Model of Volunteer Engagement; The Influence of Organizational Assimilation and Psychological Capital Constructs as Reflections of Overall Volunteer Engagement Attitude on Multidimensional and Overall Individual Effective Volunteer. *Dissertation presented to the Faculty of the College of BusinessAdministration.*

Wrzesniewski, A., & Dutton, J. E. (2001). Crafting a job: Revisioning employees as active crafters of their work. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol 26.

Wymer, J. (1999). The Lower Palaeolithic occupation of Britain. (Le Paléolithique inférieur de Grande-Bretagne). Salisbury, Wessex Archaeology and English Heritage.

Yim, Frederick & Henry Fock. (2013). Social Responsibility Climate as a Double-EdgedSword: How Employee-Perceived Social Responsibility Climate Shapes the Meaning of Their Voluntary Work? *Journal of Business Ethics*. Vol 114, Issue 4.