An Examination of Motives, Identity, and Future Intentions with a Cause-Related Running Event for Military Veterans

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Running, as a form of leisure time physical activity is generally popular due to its low-cost entry, easy access to practice, and the convenience and accessible nature of the activity. Specifically, one type of running experience sought by many is charitable running or running for a cause (i.e., cause-related sport event). While there is a growing body of literature on charity sport events, little is known about how the charitable motives and participant identity with the event affect future behaviors associated with the cause and the event. Grounded in identity theory, the purpose of this article was to examine the effect of salient identities and charitable motives on future intentions associated with a cause-related event. Data were collected from the second annual Norfolk Freedom Half Marathon, in Virginia, via an online survey that was sent to all registered runners (1,372) one week after the race and 557 participants responded. We found charity motives to be the dominant influence on both charitable and purchase intentions in cause-event participants. This study contributes to the existing amateur sport literature as one of the first to report on a military-oriented sport event with military affiliated participants; the creation of the Charitable Motives in Sport Scale (CMISS), the Runner Identity Scale (RIS) and the Military Identity Scale (MIS); and the addition of a new military/runner identity typology, which we hope would be useful for future military-affiliated running events.

Running remains a popular activity among many for its health benefits (Lee et al., 2017; Janssen et al., 2020). In the U.S., running peaked in 2013, but continues to be popular with nearly 18 million runners in organized races in 2019 (Running USA, 2020). Globally, the International Association of Athletics Federation (IAAF) reported 108 million recreational runners at 70,000 running events in 2019, and although there has been a slight global decline in running since 2016, running popularity has grown by approximately 57% over the past decade (Anderson, 2021).

Anderson's (2021) IAAF report indicated two additional worldwide trends related to women and motives. The year 2018 marked the first time, globally, where there were more women (50.2%) than men in recreational running events. In the U.S., the number is even higher with women representing 60% of registrants in organized races (Running USA, 2020). In terms of motives, trends indicate that runners are motivated less by achievement goals and more because of psychological, health, and social reasons. Some of these social aspects include running clubs, social competitors/runners and "companion runners" (Janssen et al., 2020). Furthermore, the average runner today is focused on the experience, rather than competition (Anderson, 2021).

One type of experience sought by social runners is charitable running or running for a cause (i.e., cause-related sport event). Mass participation sporting events, such as road races, triathlons, and cycling events have become an increasingly popular way for charitable organizations to build awareness and raise funds for their cause, and the hosting of charity-based sport events is now widespread across the U.S. and Canada (Goodwin et al., 2017; Scott & Solomon, 2013). While there is a growing body of literature on charity sport events, little is known about how the charitable motives and participant identity with the event affect future behaviors associated with the cause and the event, especially when the cause is military related. The purpose of this paper is to examine the effect of salient identities (runner identity, military identity) and charitable motives on intentions of future behaviors associated with a cause-related event.

Literature Review

Charity Sport Events

Early research on charity sporting events focused on identifying motivations or reasons for participation (Bennet et al., 2007; Scott & Solomon, 2003). Scott and Solomon (2003) conducted in-depth interviews with 11 participants in a Race for the Cure 5K event to understand the motivation behind participation and explore the benefits that participants consumed in a cause-related fitness event. They found the level of personal involvement with the cause impacted the story told and had implications for marketing. Bennet et al. (2007) collected data from 579 individuals who reported they had previously taken part in one or more charity-related sporting events. Their results indicated

two primary motives for taking part in charity-affiliated sporting events, which were involvement with the cause and desire to pursue a healthy lifestyle. They also found that these motives induced individuals to be willing to pay higher fees to enter events.

Next, a series of investigations were conducted by Filo, Funk and O'Brien (2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2014) to gain a deeper understanding of motives for participating in charity sport events. The context for most of these studies was the Lance Armstrong Foundation LIVESTRONG Challenge. Using Funk and James' (2001) psychological continuum model as a theoretical framework, they sought to better understand the attraction and attachment processes. This line of investigations included both qualitative (2008, 2009) and quantitative (2010, 2011, 2014) methodologies to identify various motives related to attraction (2008) and three value-laden constructs associated with attachment to charity sport events (2009). These constructs included camaraderie with event participants, connection with the cause, and competency or connection with the sport. Findings revealed both recreation-based motives and charity-based motives contribute to attraction and attachment to charity sport events (2010, 2011), while value-laden constructs make a stronger contribution to event attachment (2014). They also found charity motives and event attachment contribute to sponsor image, which influences intent to purchase sponsors' products (2010).

Snelgrove and colleagues (2013) investigated attachment to charity sport events. They collected data from people who had raised funds for the Multiple Sclerosis (MS) Society of Canada's annual walk/run for a five-year period. Results suggested that participants developed attachments to the event when their personal and social identities became tied to fundraising for the cause. Snelgrove and Wood (2010) compared differences between first-time and repeat participants in two cycling events that were fundraisers for the MS Society. They examined a variety of motives along with two identity factors – identity with the cause and identity with the sport of cycling. Findings revealed that repeat participants were more motivated than first-time participants by identities tied to the cause and the sport.

Wood et al. (2010) sought to understand if both fundraising for a cause and engaging in physical activity are personally meaningful for all charity sport participants or if various profiles of participants exist in terms of their relative attachment to the cause and/or to the activity. This study used identity theory (Stryker, 1968, 1980) as a framework for the conceptualization of a personally meaningful pursuit. Data were collected via surveys distributed at the end of two bike tours for the MS Society of Canada. Results indicated that not all participants found both the cause and the sport of cycling personally meaningful. Rather, four distinct market segments were found.

The group of respondents who reported that fundraising for MS and cycling were both part of their identities raised the most amount of money, followed closely by the group whose identities were related only to the cause. The results suggested that if charitable organizations want to maximize participant numbers, events need to be designed to reach various target markets. One way of targeting markets is to look at identities associated with participants. As such, the current study uses identity theory as the theoretical framework. A general overview of identity theory is provided below, followed by more specific ascriptions to runner identity and military identity related to the participants in this study.

Identity Theory

Identification has been a core component of social science research for decades (Burke & Stets, 1999). The concept is based on the tenets of symbolic interactionism, which suggests individual roles are developed through social interaction (Mead, 1934). Thus, identification has received much attention within the context of sport. Research on identification in sport has been focused on both spectator sport (Heere & James, 2007; Laverie & Arnett, 2017; Shapiro et al., 2013; Trail et al., 2005; Wann & Branscombe, 1990, 1993) and participatory sport (Green, 2001; Ridinger et al., 2012; Zhou & Kaplanidou, 2018). Identification is developed through sport, helps define individual experiences watching or participating in sport, and influences consumption.

The sport literature has examined identification through two theoretical frameworks, which include identity theory (Stryker, 1968, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000) and social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Identity theory is focused on individual roles, where identities are developed through group interactions and the resulting social structures (Stryker, 1968, 1980). Both self-identity and social identity are integral components of identity theory. On the other hand, social identity theory revolves around groups and individual motivations to find groups that are aligned with a person's view of themselves (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). According to Lock and Heere (2017), these frameworks are distinct even though they have been used concurrently in previous sport literature.

Both frameworks are born from symbolic interactionism, but it is important to determine whether individual role identity or group structure is driving an investigation. In terms of participatory sports, such as running, and connection to a community or cause, such as the military, the focus is on what it means to an individual to be considered a runner and a member of the military. Therefore, identity theory (Stryker, 1968, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000) provided an appropriate framework in which to examine the relationships between runner identification, military identification and sport participation and consumption.

According to Hogg and colleagues (1995), Stets and Serpe (2013), and Stryker and Burke (2000), identity theory stipulates identity as role-related behaviors that captures how individuals conceptualize their role in society. Individual identity formation happens using two processes: (a) reacting to or reassessing one's roles because of one's interaction with various groups (social identity), and (b) determining how one uniquely sees oneself (self-identity) (Hogg et al., 1995; Stets & Serpe, 2013). Additionally, these internalized role identities are often hierarchical or have different saliency. For example, one can identify as gay, Latino, a spouse, a veteran, and a runner, but the most salient (strongest) identity might be the runner identity. Thus, the runner identity would (generally) exert more influence over other identities in one's self-definition, and an individual generally commits more time and energy towards the more salient identity; however, identity saliency may change over time. Furthermore, multiple role identities reinforce one another; and, when they do not, this introduces identity competition or identity conflicts that lead to the re-evaluation of commitments, identity salience, and self-perceptions (Stryker & Burke, 2000).

Identity with the Sport of Running

Stereotypically, the identity of a runner has been traditionally viewed as a White male participating in an individual-oriented sport. However, more recent attention has been given to the diversity of non-professional runners and how self-identity and social identity have been formed given changing runner demographics. Researchers have explored the intersectionality of ethnicity, body type, gender and other variables associated with runner identity (Evans et al., 2019; Fisette, 2015; Wegner, 2016). For example, gender identity and runner identity intersect when running is viewed as a "white woman activity" where black women who run have been stigmatized as wanting to be like white women (Wegner, 2016; Wenger et al., 2020). Black Girls Run was established to increase participation of Black women by enhancing the social identity aspects of running and expanding what it means to be a runner.

The focus on social identity has made "team" runs a staple at running events. Team runs offer more social runners the opportunity to run together, or as a relay, and target social groups, rather than the individual in the sport of running. Evans and colleagues (2019) determined that individuals who run as a group, formally or informally, had stronger runner identities than those who run by themselves. Traditional long-distance runners, often perceived to be individual runners, were found to identify more with running if training with others (Robinson et al., 2014). Running with a club helps with learning about the sport, provides comradery, gives a sense of safety, and is often more fun.

Some training programs at clubs share a sense of purpose (e.g., charity), which can be targeted towards runners. For example, *Runner's World* (Kuzma,

2020) highlighted specific women's running charities in 2020. Girls on the Run is one charity that uses running to create a runner identity, but more specifically uses running as a platform to create strong, independent young women who can think critically. In addition to a running club, one's runner identity could be influenced by the number and type of races. Many runners identify as a "5k runner" or a "marathoner," creating subcultures within runner identities (Kazimierczak et al., 2020).

In the sport psychology literature, the notion of runner identity is relatively new. Traditionally, the general conceptualization has been "athletic identity" (AI), rather than having an ascription to any specific sport (e.g., running). AI has been most popularly operationalized by Brewer et al.'s (1993) 10-item Athletic Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) measuring social, cognitive and affective elements of AI. Brewer and colleagues noted AI as a very distinct form of identity. Horton and Mack (2000) were the first to use AIMS and apply it specifically to runners by researching marathoners and changing the wording from "athlete" to "runner" in the items. Horton and Mack found that runners with high AI expressed a greater commitment and greater investment in running, as compared to lower AI runners. Lough and colleagues (2014) were among the first to apply runner identity to amateur or recreational runners at the Las Vegas Rock 'n' Roll Marathon. They found runner identity influenced the ability to recall and recognize a sponsor, as well as predict intentions to purchase products of sponsors. Both Horton and Mack and Lough et al. mentioned Stryker's (1973) work, but operationalized items based on Brewer et al.'s (1993) AIMS, which did not directly focus on internal (self-identity) and external (social identity) aspects of identity theory.

Identity with the Military

When considering military identity, it's important to define the term "military." Cozza and Lerner's (2013) defined *military* as people who are in active duty, the National Guard and Reserve, their families and children, veterans, and extended family members of veterans. To address the development of a military identity, identity theory's processes are applied to military personnel, veterans, and family members. Identity theory stipulates identity as role-related behaviors that captures how individuals assess their role(s) in society through their interactions with various groups (social identity), and how they uniquely see themselves (self-identity) (Hogg et al., 1995; Stets & Serpe, 2013). Additionally, individuals can have multiple identities (e.g., military personnel, branch of service, military parent/spouse/child, sergeant, veteran) based on the internalization of their role in a group or groups or have "as many identities as distinct networks of relationships in which they occupy positions and play roles" (Stryker & Burke, 2000, p. 286). Multiple role identities reinforce one another; however, when they do not, this introduces identity competition or identity conflicts that lead to the re-evaluation

of commitments, identity salience, and self-perceptions (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Superimposing identity theory onto military service persons, one could surmise that, given the demands and the structure of the military, the saliency of one's military identity is generally at the top of the role identity hierarchy and exerts the most influence on/over other identities. Military identification has been referred to as military/identity fusion, where the identity is more akin to a vocation (e.g., once a soldier, always a soldier) (Hart & Lancaster, 2019).

As service members are integrated into a new military culture, so are their families. Military integration means that the military member subordinates the self to the team and practices military collectivism, usually while transitioning to adulthood (Keeling, 2018). Hall (2012) reported that a service person's commitment and attitude towards the military is heavily influenced by the spouse's and family's commitment and satisfaction with the military, which in turn led to military responsiveness to the needs of family to address potential conflicts between the military and the family. Support systems have been put in place so that military identity is facilitated through the process of shared norms, beliefs and values to allow for continuous "buy-in" from both military personnel and their families (Hall, 2012; Keeling, 2018). Generally, if military support systems have been responsive and positive to the service person, veteran, or family member, then they are more apt to support other military-oriented events (Hall, 2012; Hart & Lancaster, 2019; Keeling, 2018).

No studies were found that specifically focused on military identity and sport participation behavior. However, studies on sports fans using the identity theory framework have found that role identification in a group had a positive influence on behavioral intentions for watching a sport (Shapiro et al., 2013) and for advanced ticket purchases (Dwyer et al., 2013). Conversely, in a study of post-9/11 veterans, Hart and Lancaster (2019) did not find predictive behavior from one's military identity but did find that military fusion significantly predicted willingness to give money to veterans, as well as positively influenced behavior to give time to veterans. Given the paucity of literature related to military identity and military-related sport events, this study seeks to fill this gap.

Based on the empirical research regarding the relationship between charity motives, runner identity and military identity, research questions were developed, in lieu of directional hypotheses, and they are as follows:

- **RQ1**: How do charity motives, runner identity and military identity impact intentions to *donate* to charities associated with this event?
- **RQ2**: How do charity motives, runner identity and military identity impact intentions to *volunteer* for charities associated with this event?
- **RQ3**: How do charity motives, runner identity and military identity impact intentions

to participate in other events that *support the military*?

- **RQ4**: How do charity motives, runner identity and military identity impact intentions to *buy* products of the sponsors of this event?
- **RQ5**: How do charity motives, runner identity and military identity impact intentions to *participate in this race* in the future?
- **RQ6**: Do market segments exist by combing runner identity and military identity to develop a typology?
- **RQ7**: If market segments are identified, are there significant differences between the identified segments and charitable intentions or purchase intentions?

Research questions 1-3 refer to charitable intentions (donate, volunteer, support). Research questions 4-5 refer to purchase intentions (purchase products/ entry fee to another running event). Research questions 6 and 7 explore the possibility of a military/runner identity typology, given the military uniqueness of this cause-related running event and underlying identity theory.

Methods

Background. Building on the Wood et al. (2010) study, this current investigation of the Norfolk Freedom Half Marathon (NFHM) examined how the presence of two salient identities and charitable motives combine to impact future intentions. The two identities of interest for the NFHM were identity with the military and identity with the sport of running. While the military is not a charity, it does serve as a source of national pride, and there were several military-based charities associated with the NFHM, most notably the Wounded Warriors Project. One of the primary purposes of this event was to raise awareness and support for veterans' causes.

Because of this, this event is distinguished from the generic "charity sport event," to the more specific "cause-related event." The NFHM was focused on supporting the military "cause," while also helping various charities that may or may not have been related to the military. This event took place in Norfolk, Virginia, a military-friendly community where people may feel connected to the military and identify with military values even if they are not active duty or a veteran due to having family, friends, neighbors, or colleagues associated with the military.

Data were collected from the second annual Freedom Marathon, Inc's NFHM event via an online survey that was sent to all registered runners (1,372) one week after the race. Freedom Marathon, Inc is a non-profit organization whose mission is to raise awareness of veterans' issues and support the needs of veterans and their families. The event included a health and fitness expo, carbo load dinner, relays, family runs and wheelchair invitational, with the main event being the NFHM. Proceeds from

the NFHM benefited The Wounded Warrior Project and the Norfolk Office to End Homelessness. The NFHM was sanctioned by USA Track & Field.

Norfolk is one of seven cities that make up the greater Hampton Roads area of southeastern Virginia (U.S. Navy, n.d.). Hampton Roads has over 20 military installations. Norfolk is home to the largest naval complex in the world (U.S. Navy, n.d.) – Naval Station Norfolk. Hampton Roads has several additional active military installations, among the more notable are Fort Eustis (Newport News; Army), Langley Airforce Base (Hampton), NATO's Allied Command Transformation (Norfolk), Joint Expeditionary Base-Little Creek (Virginia Beach; Marines), Naval Air Station Oceana (Virginia Beach), and Coast Guard Sector Hampton Roads. Given the large military presence of every branch of military service, and Hampton Roads' humid subtropical climate, many veterans retire or relocate to the area.

Variable operationalization and statistical analyses. The three primary independent variables were (a) charity motives, (b) runner identity, and (c) military identity. Charity motives were operationalized by using four items, which were developed from the previously mentioned literature. These charity motives included (a) supporting a cause or charity associated with the event, (b) being part of an event that provides financial resources to worthy causes, (c) doing the right thing by contributing to a good cause, and (d) showing that one cares about a charitable cause. Charity motive items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 = "not a reason" to 7 = "a most important reason." While runner motives have been explored in previous studies, most notably using the Motivation for Marathoners Scale (MOMS), the MOMS did not include charity motive as one of its dimensions (Masters et al., 1993; Zach et al., 2017). We included this 4-item charity motive scale because the literature on charity-related sporting events suggested that it was influential.

The runner and military identity scales were adapted from Wood et al.'s (2010) self-identity and social identity scales, which were adapted from Callero (1985). As noted earlier, role-identity saliency is predicated upon two aspects: (a) self-identity (i.e., the extent to which one's *self* describes, affirms, or has strong feelings about oneself), and (b) social identity (i.e., the extent to which *others* view one's identity, give importance to one's identity, and would be surprised if one no longer participated in behavior consistent with one's identity). As such, runner identity and military identity were operationalized by using six items (3 items for self-identity; 3 items for social identity) for each identity scale. Runner/military identity items were measured on a 6-point Likert-type scale, but the end points varied: (a) from 1 = "does not describe me" to 6 = "describes me" (self-described identity); (b) from 1 = "does not affirm my values" to 6 = "affirms my values" (values related to identity); and (c) from 1 = "do not have strong feelings about" to "have strong feelings about"

(feelings about one's identity). The social identity items included statements about what others think, such as "Many people think of me as being a runner." These items were measured on a 6-point Likert-type scale, from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 6 = "strongly agree."

Additionally, the dependent variables all relate to intentions for future behavior. These dependent variables were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 = "definitely not" to 5 = "definitely." Demographic and sample statistics are reported below. To explore the various scales, factor analyses are employed. Impact of the independent variables on the five dependent variables will be assessed using regression analyses. The exploration of typologies is examined using cluster analysis. Assuming significant clusters/types, ANOVAs explore statistically significant differences between the clusters and future behavior intentions.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Demographic characteristics. Table 1 shows half marathon participant demographics. Out of 557 respondents (40.6% response rate), 55.5% were female. Respondents' age groupings were well distributed, with the (slightly) largest group being the "younger than 35" group (29.2%). The racial background of the respondents was primarily White (86.6%). Nearly three quarters (72.2%) of the sample were married, affluent (47.4% had household incomes over $100,000), and well-educated (36.2% with a baccalaureate degree, 37.1% with a graduate degree). In terms of the runner's military connection, the majority were family and friends of someone in the military (44.2%), and only 19.3% had no military connection. In summary, the sample highlights a mostly White, married, well-educated, female, with post-secondary education, having some connection to the military, and the majority reside in Hampton Roads (75.8%).

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Data were assessed for non-normality by screening for outliers following suggestions by Osborne (2012). Based on skewness and kurtosis assessment, all items fell within acceptable ranges (Kline, 2011) for normal distribution. An EFA was conducted using IBM-SPSS v25 to examine the underlying factors, using the NFHM data. A *p*-value of .05 was used to determine statistical significance in all analyses. Two analyses were conducted: the first on the 4-item Charity Motives construct, and the second on the 12-item Identity construct. Results for the EFA are found in Table 3. All items correlated .30 or higher with at least one other item (Stevens, 2002). Second, the KMO was .81 for the Charity Motives scale, .85 for the Identity Scale, and BTS was significant for both scales, indicating that correlations between items were sufficiently large for EFA (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988; Tabacknick & Fidell, 2007). Next, items met the minimum criteria of having a primary factor loading (λ)

Table 1

Demographics of Norfolk Freedom Half Marathon

Variables	N = 557	
	n[a]	%
Gender Categories		
Female	259	55.5
Male	208	45.5
Ethnic/Race Categories		
White	401	86.6
Latino/Hispanic	16	3.5
Black/African American	15	3.2
Asian/Pacific Islander	13	2.8
Native American	5	1.1
Other	13	2.8
Marital Categories		
Unmarried	128	27.8
Married	332	72.2
Income Categories		
< 60,000	95	21.7
60,000 - 99,999	135	30.9
100,000 - 149,999	125	28.5
150,000+	83	18.9
Education Categories		
< Baccalaureate	124	26.7
Baccalaureate	168	36.2
Graduate	172	37.1
Age Categories		
18-35	162	29.2
35-44	161	29.0
45-54	158	28.4
55+	74	13.3
Military Connection		
Active Duty	91	19.5
Military Veteran	79	17.0
Family/Friends	206	44.2
No Connection	90	19.3
Live in Hampton Roads		
Yes	354	75.8
No	113	24.2

[a] – N/n varies by variable due to missing cases

of .40 or above (Stevens, 2002). All coefficients in the diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were above .5, supporting the inclusion of each item in the EFA (Field, 2009). Lastly, the communalities (λ^2) were all above .3 (see Table 3), confirming that each item shared some common variance with other items (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Given these overall indicators, all items were retained for the EFA using ML with promax rotation (Thompson, 2004).

Table 2

Exploratory Factor Analysis, Maximum Likelihood Extraction, Promax Rotation

Items	λ^2	CHMOTV [a]	RUNID [b]	MILID [c]	M	SD
Chmotv02. To be part of an event that provides financial resources to a worthy cause or charity	.788	**.888**	-	-	5.29	1.91
Chmotv03. To do the right thing by contributing to a good cause	.776	**.881**	-	-	5.02	2.02
Chmotv01. To support a cause or charity associated with this event	.683	**.826**	-	-	5.11	1.91
Chmotv04. To show that I care about a charitable cause	.515	**.718**	-	-	4.17	2.19
Exrunid02. Other people think that running is important to me	.899	-	**.949**	-.009	4.73	1.45
Exrunid01. Many people think of me as being a runner	.778	-	**.880**	.016	4.53	1.58
Exrunid03. People would be surprised if I stopped running	.711	-	**.847**	-.022	4.51	1.65
Inrunid03. Feelings about/towards running	.600	-	**.774**	.004	4.77	1.27
Inrunid01. The sport of running describes who I am	.575	-	**.758**	.004	4.55	1.38
Inrunid02. The sport of running affirms my values	.389	-	**.618**	.043	4.31	1.42
Exmilid01. Many people think of me as being associated with the military	.802	-	-.061	**.900**	3.55	2.19
Inmilid01. The military describes who I am	.782	-	-.047	**.888**	3.76	2.04
Exmilid02. Other people think that our military is important to me	.773	-	.003	**.879**	4.23	1.85
Exmilid03. People would be surprised if I were not involved in military-related causes/functions	.704	-	-.003	**.839**	3.25	1.99
Inmilid02. The military affirms my values	.606	-	.069	**.769**	4.52	1.58
Inmilid03. Feelings about/towards the military	.456	-	.082	**.662**	4.99	1.37
Standardized Cronbach's α		.896	.922	.928		
Eigenvalues		3.057	3.914	4.863		
% Variance		76.437	73.142			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure		.805	.854			
N		500	494			

[a] – CHMOTV = Charity Motives Factor; all items measured from 1 = "not a reason" to 7 = "a most important reason"
[b] – RUNID = Runner Identity Factor; all *Exrunid01-03* measured from 1 = "disagree" to 6 = "agree"; *Inrunid01* measured from 1 = "does not describe me" to 6 = "describes me"; *Inrunid02* measured from 1 = "does not affirm my values" to 6 = "affirms my values"; *Inrunid03* measured from 1 = "do not have strong feelings about" to "have strong feelings about"
[c] – MILID = Military Identity Factor; all *Exmilid01-03* measured from 1 = "disagree" to 6 = "agree"; *Inmilid01* measured from 1 = "does not describe me" to 6 = "describes me"; *Inmilid02* measured from 1 = "does not affirm my values" to 6 = "affirms my values"; *Inmilid03* measured from 1 = "do not have strong feelings about" to "have strong feelings about"
λ^2 = communalities; λ = factor loadings; factor loadings > .40 are in boldface

The Charity Motives construct (CHMOTV) was a unidimensional factor with an eigenvalue over Kaiser's criterion of 1.0 and explained 76.44% of the variance. The Identity construct had two dimensions with eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1.0 and in combination explained 73.12% of the variance. Table 3 shows factor loadings and factors after rotation.

Items clustering on the same factors for the Identity construct suggest that Factor 1 represents Runner Identity (RUNID), and Factor 2 reflects Military Identity (MILID). All factors had good reliabilities (Table 3), with Cronbach's α of .89, .92 and .93 for CHMOTV, RUNID and MILID, respectively. Items representing these constructs were then averaged and new composite variables representing CHMOTV, RUNID and MILID were created for consequent analyses. Our expectation was that we would have four dimensions – a social identity and a self-identity on each scale; however, the EFA found that both social identity and self-identity was grouped as one dimension in each of the identity scales.

Correlation and Regression Analyses
A linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the effect that (a) CHMOTV, (b) RUNID, and (c) MILID have on charitable intentions. Correlations were assessed to see if an association exists, as it makes no sense to include independent variables in a regression, if there is no association with the dependent variable. Analyses are presented in order of the research questions (RQs) noted earlier. The regression results are shown in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3

Regression Results for Variables Predicting Charitable Intentions

Variable	RQ1 – donate			RQ2 – volunteer			RQ3 – support the military		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Constant	1.537	0.140		1.693	0.145		1.815	0.164	
Charitable Motives	0.227	0.022	0.411***	0.130	0.023	0.252***	0.127	0.019	0.244***
Runner Identity	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.101	0.027	0.135***
Military Identity	0.150	0.025	0.127***	0.079	0.026	0.136***	0.293	0.021	0.503***
N	467			467			467		
R²	0.266			0.096			0.395		
F	84.26***			24.59***			100.68***		

* - *p* < .05   ** - *p* < .01   *** - *p* > .001

Table 4

Regression Results for Variables Predicting Purchase Intentions

Variable	RQ4 – buy			RQ5 – repeat race		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Constant	2.387	0.142		3.386	0.114	
Charitable Motives	0.131	0.023	0.253***	0.146	0.022	0.296***
Runner Identity	-	-	-	-	-	-
Military Identity	0.129	0.026	0.223***	-	-	-
N	467			467		
R²	0.136			0.088		
F	36.524***			44.648***		

* - *p* < .05   ** - *p* < .01   *** - *p* < .001

RQ1 – intent to donate to a charity. Correlation analyses revealed that RUNID is not correlated with one's intent to donate to one or more charities associated with NFHM (*donate*). Thus, only CHMOTV and MILID were used in the regression analysis. For this regression analysis, 26.6% of the variance in respondent's intent to donate can be explained by the combined model variance of CHMOTV and MILID. This means that knowing these two (composite) variables allows us to better predict intent to *donate* 26.6% of the time. Furthermore, the standardized beta weights (β) indicate that CHMOTV is a much stronger predictor than MILID. Charity motives is just over three times as impactful as one's military identity in predicting donating to charities associated with this running event.

RQ2 – intent to volunteer for a charity. Correlation analyses revealed that RUNID is not correlated with one's intent to volunteer (*volunteer*). Thus, only CHMOTV and MILID were used in the regression analysis. For this regression analysis, knowing these two (composite) variables allows us to better predict intent to *volunteer* 9.6% of the time. While not as strong as the previous finding, the standardized beta weights (β) indicate that CHMOTV is a stronger predictor than MILID. Charity motives is just about twice as impactful as one's military identity in predicting volunteering for charities associated with this running event.

RQ3 – intent to participate in military supporting events. Correlation analyses revealed that all variables are correlated with one's intent to participate in other events that *support the military*. For this regression analysis, the combined model variance of CHMOTV, RUNID and MILID allows us to better predict intent to participate in other events that *support the military* 39.5% of the time (Table 4). The standardized beta weights (β) indicate that MILID is the strongest predictor of future participation in support of other military events, followed by CHMOTV and then RUNID. Military identity has about twice the impact of charitable motives and about three times as impactful as one's runner identity in predicting future participation in events that support our military.

RQ4 – intent to buy products of event sponsors. Correlation analyses revealed that RUNID is not correlated with one's intent to buy products of event sponsors (*buy*). For this regression analysis, the combined model variance of CHMOTV and MILID allow us to better predict intent to *buy* 13.6% of the time. The standardized beta weights (β) indicate that CHMOTV is the strongest predictor of buying behavior, followed closely by MILID. Charity motives and military identity are about the same in terms of impact predicting purchase behavior.

RQ5 – intent to participate in this race again. Correlation analyses revealed that RUNID is not correlated with one's intent to run in the NFHM the following year (*repeat race*). Initial regression analysis showed that MILID was not significant.

Thus, only CHMOTV was used in the regression analysis (Table 5). For this regression analysis, knowing one's charity motives allows us to predict intent to *repeat race* 8.8% of the time.

Cluster Analysis and ANOVAs
   **RQ6 and RQ7 – existence of market segments and charitable intentions or purchase intentions.** For RQ6, the sample was segmented based on levels of identification for runner identity (RUNID) and military identity (MILID). These segments were used to assess differences in each of the future charitable intentions and each of the purchase intentions (RQ7). The Ward's cluster algorithm was used for this study in an exploratory hierarchal cluster analysis to assist in selecting the number of clusters (segments) for a subsequent K-means analysis. Following the segmentation of the sample, the data were then analyzed using an ANOVA model to ascertain whether statistically significant differences could be identified between clustered segments and charitable intentions.

    Multiple cluster solutions were examined through cluster analysis and a four-cluster solution was considered the most appropriate and interpretable. The four clusters were identified as (see Figure 1 and Figure 2):
   • *Integrators* (37.6%; high RUNID, high MILID),
    • *Competitors* (31.4%; high RUNID and moderate to low MILID),
    • *Contributors* (16.4%; high Military ID and moderate to low RUNID), and

    • *Moderates* (14.6%) (moderate to low RUNID, moderate to low MILID).
Figure 1 represents the conceptualization on the Runner/Military Identity Model along two axes. Figure 2 represents the percent breakdown by each cluster, based on our findings.
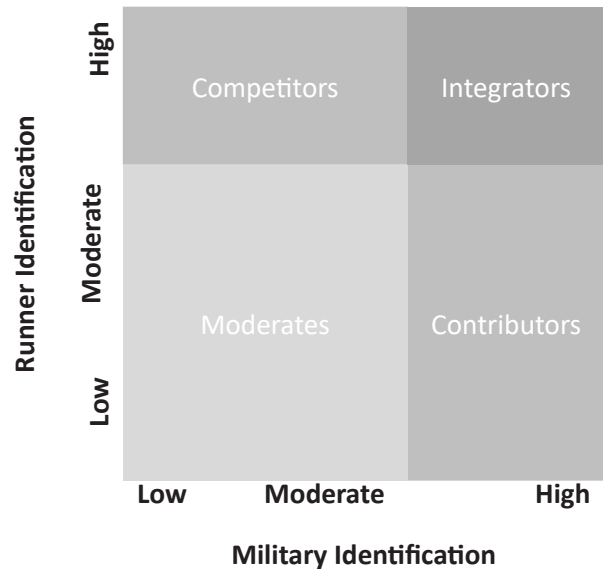
Figure 1
Conceptual Model of Runner and Military Identity Typology
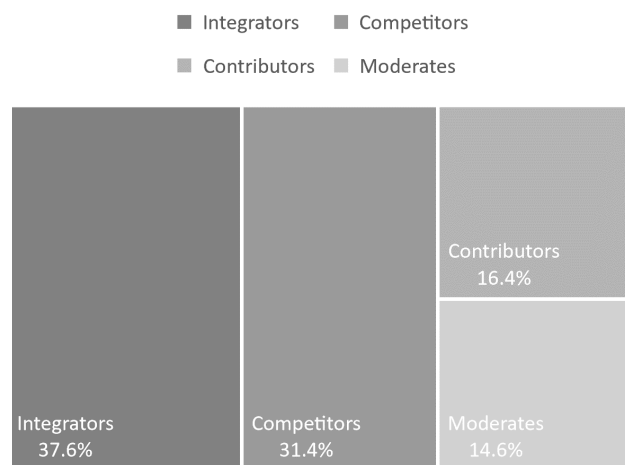
Figure 2
Percent Breakdown of Runner and Military Identity Typology

ANOVA models examining group cluster differences based on either of the purchasing intentions (e.g., intent to participate in this race again [*repeat race*]; intent to *buy* products of event sponsors) were not found to be significant. The ANOVA model examining group cluster differences based on intent to participate in military supporting events was not found to be significant (*military support*). Thus, no significant differences were found between runner/military identity and purchase intentions, and one of the charitable intentions. However, findings related to the remaining two charitable intentions (*donate* and *volunteer*) were found to be significant.

The ANOVA model examining group cluster differences based on intentions to *donate* in the future was found to be significant, $F(3, 463) = 9.32$, $p<.001$. Integrators ($M = 3.51$, $SD = .997$) had the highest donation intentions followed by Contributors ($M = 3.33$, $SD = .878$), Competitors ($M = 3.06$, $SD = .998$), and Moderates ($M = 2.89$, $SD = .862$). A post-hoc Tukey's test identified significant differences in donation intentions between Integrators and Competitors ($p < .001$), Integrators and Moderates ($p < .001$), and Contributors and Moderates ($p = .033$).

The ANOVA model examining group cluster differences based on intentions to *volunteer* in the future was also found to be significant, $F(3, 463) = 4.96$, $p = .002$. Integrators ($M = 2.84$, $SD = .989$) had the highest volunteer intentions followed by Contributors ($M = 2.65$, $SD = .978$), Competitors ($M = 2.53$, $SD =$

.909), and Moderates ($M = 2.41$, $SD = .701$). A post-hoc Tukey's test identified significant differences in volunteer intentions between Integrators and Competitors ($p = .013$) and Integrators and Moderates ($p = .006$).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of salient identities (runner identity, military identity) and charitable motives on intentions of future behaviors associated with a cause-related event. Previous studies have not specifically examined military identity or cause-related events specific to the military. However, researchers (Bennet et al., 2007; Filo et al., 2009, 2010, 2011, 2014; Snelgrove et al., 2013) have looked at involvement or connection with a cause or cause related events (e.g., LIVESTRONG). These studies are analogous to the current study in that previous study participants typically have an identity with the cause behind the event (e.g., cancer survivors; family/ friends of someone who has died from, or survived, cancer) and this notion will be used to help inform our discussion related to military identity.

Charitable intentions. While multiple studies have examined charitable motives as an antecedent to event participation or event attachment (Bennett et al., 2007; Filo et al., 2009, 2010, 2011, 2014; Snelgrove et al., 2013), only one study was found that investigated charitable intentions as an outcome variable, as was done in this study. Goodwin et al. (2017) explored

how charity sport events can be leveraged as an opportunity for nonprofit organizations to stimulate participants' interest in other cause-related activities. They found that individuals motivated by helping a cause and by social aspects of the event had the strongest relationship with future intentions to engage in additional cause-related activities. Similarly, the charity motives factor in this study was a significant predictor of all three charitable intention outcomes: (a) donating to charities associated with the event, (b) volunteering for charities associated with the event, and (c) participating in other events that support the military. Unlike any previous study, this study additionally assessed the impacts from runner identity and military identity on charitable intentions. While charity motives had the greatest impact on donating and volunteering, military identity also predicted all three charitable intentions and had the greatest impact on participating in future events that support the military. Runner identity played no role in predicting donations or volunteering and had the least impact on participating in future events supporting the military. The fact that military identity predicted charitable intentions, whereas runner identity did not, supports previous literature noting one's military identity saliency as generally exerting more influence than other identities (Hart & Lancaster, 2019).

Purchase intentions. Two variables were concerned with purchasing behavior: (a) intention to buy sponsors' products and (b) repeat purchase

(participating in the NFHM race again). Charity motives were the strongest predictors of purchase intentions. Charity motives and military identity had similar impacts on buying from the sponsor of the event. This aligns with Filo et al.'s (2010) finding that charity motives and event attachment contributed to sponsor image which, in turn, influenced purchase intention of sponsors' products. Our finding that runner identity did not play a role in purchasing behavior was counter to results from Lough et al. (2014). They found that runner identity was a significant predictor of purchase intentions of sponsor products; however, the running event in their study was not associated with a cause so no comparisons based on charity motives or cause-related identity could be made. Only charity motives impacted future participation in the NFHM. This finding supports Bennett et al. (2007), who determined that a person's level of involvement with the cause was the most salient factor in one's decision to participate in a charity-affiliated mass sporting event and this motive induced individuals to be willing to pay higher fees to enter events. Additionally, Goodwin et al. (2017) found a strong relationship between cause motives and future interest in participating in other cause-related activities.

Typologies. One of the unique contributions of our study is the Runner/Military Identity Model or typology consisting of Integrators, Contributors, Competitors and

Moderates. Although operationalized differently in this study, runner identity and military identity is similar to Wood et al.'s (2010) identity with a cause (i.e., military) and identity with the sport (i.e., running). They found that those who have high identification with a cause and high identification with a sport – Integrators in our study – are more likely to be repeat participants. However, in the current study we found no differences between Integrators or any of the other groups and their intention to (a) buy products from the sponsors of the events, (b) participate in this race in the future, or (c) participate in other events that support the military. We did find that Integrators were significantly different from the other groups in terms of intentions to donate and intentions to volunteer with charities associated with NHFM. This was followed by Contributors, Competitors, and finally, the Moderates. This pattern is similar to the one found by Wood et al. (2010) when they examined the amount of funds raised by charity sport participants. Again, identity theory was supported. As people create roles (e.g., running enthusiast, military ally, or a hybrid identity) for themselves and value those roles, they are more likely to behave in ways that represent those roles (Stryker & Burke, 2000).

Implications

Theoretical implications.

The current findings extend our understanding of identity theory within the context of a cause-related event.

First, this investigation segments cause related sport participants by specific identity roles (runner and military). Segmentation through identity can further our understanding of the role identity plays in marketing non-profit sport events, as identity roles do not work in isolation. Second, findings suggest military identity played a greater role than runner identity regarding charitable intentions. This finding confirms Stryker and Burke's (2000) conceptualization of identity conflict, where some identity roles may be more salient than others in certain context. Although the context of this examination was a running event, it was focused on the military. The social identity facet of identity theory can play a stronger role in communities that share a certain identity. This finding enhances our understanding of identity in specific cause-related contexts. Finally, the methodological approach taken in this study advanced how motives and identity can be measures within the context of cause-related sport participation Three existing measures were adapted in this study: (a) the Charitable Motives in Sport Scale (CMISS), the Runner Identity Scale (RIS) and the Military Identity Scale (MIS). The 4-item CMISS was based off previous work (Bennet et al., 2007; Filo et al., 2010, 2011) and was found to be unidimensional. With respect to the RIS and MIS, each 6-item scales, our analyses suggest that self-identity and social identity should be combined as one measure of identity, whereas these two constructs were operationalized

and measured separately by Wood et al. (2010). Although the unidimensional finding that combined social identity and self-identity runs counter to the original conception of a two-dimensional model (Stryker, 1968, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000), Snelgrove and Wood (2010) found that self-identity and social identity variables combined into a single factor, which our findings corroborate. Our findings were further reinforced by the fact that both the RIS and the MIS followed the same factor pattern of a combined social identity/self-identity unidimensional construct. Examining the complementary nature of self and social identity furthers our understanding of the identity theory by examining the concurrent nature of various facets of identity within the context of participatory sport.

   Practical implications. One of the practical implications is that each of these new scales are very short and can easily be used in future studies for the purposes of replicability. From a military perspective, knowing that military identity has the strongest impact on participation in future military events, military event organizers should further explore targeting military amateur sporting events to veterans and their families, military support groups, and veterans service organizations. While we did not specifically focus on the location, the NFHM benefitted from having these organizations and military community population readily available. However, if an event organizer is not a military

town and wishes to "do something for the troops," it would be better to partner with a sister city that has a sizeable military population or be located near a military base/installation for the event to be successful – it also helped that the majority of the organizers were current or former military.

   It was surprising that runner identity was not correlated with purchase intentions and was related to only one charitable intention – participating in other events that support the military. However, individuals with both high runner identity and high military identity (Integrators) were the most likely to donate and volunteer with charities associated with the event. These results suggest that organizers of cause-related sporting events need to design and market their events to attract multiple types of participants. Event organizers may want to offer various challenges, such as a 5K run or walk along with a half marathon, to appeal to individuals motivated more by the charitable cause than by the sport. Promotions should resonate with the charitable motives and cause-related identity of individuals. As we continue to see growth in charity/cause-based traditional (e.g., 10k) and non-traditional (e.g., Tough Mudder) races, it becomes more important for race directors to understand their participants. Data from this study suggest charity motives and military identity play a significant role in charitable intentions. This can help inform race directors on niche groups to target, as well as gain partnerships for organization that

share a similar vision (e.g., destination management companies targeting military events). As more organizations are looking to create partnerships, such as veteran-owned breweries working with a running event, groups can be more efficiently targeted. The NFHM data serve as a model for other military and charity-based running events.

Limitations and Future Directions

The cross-sectional nature of our study has obvious generalizability limitations. This was somewhat offset by a good sample size. However, given no other previous studies for comparison due to the military nature of the participants, this study should be viewed as a case study or seminal study in military amateur sporting events. While the scales that were used were found to be valid and reliable, they are nonetheless new and require replication studies to further confirm the scales. Future studies should look further into subgroups for both runner identity (running clubs, running experience) and military identity (based on affiliation with the military). Other subgroup analyses could include demographic variables such as age, gender, and race. These were not looked at in the current study and given the paucity of literature on military running events, demographic differences would be a natural next step for future analyses. Exploration of these subgroups could get at microsegmentation efforts related to future intentions. Future research could examine other types of military-related sport events, both

participatory sport events (sport identity) and spectator sport events (fan identity). Lastly, our runner identity (RIS) and military identity (MIS) scales were robust and should be used in future studies using identity theory and sports to further confirm the scales. They can also be used independently (e.g., RIS can be used/tested separately if there is no military aspect to the event).

Conclusions

In summary, we found charity motives to have the foremost influence on both charitable and purchase intentions in cause-event participants. The only exception was military identity's dominant influence on participating in other events that support the military. This finding could be instructive for other cause-related events – that is, greater attention should be given to people's connection with the cause. We also found that runner identity played the least important role in predicting charitable or purchase intentions.

This study contributes to the existing amateur sport literature in three ways. First, our study reports on a military-oriented sport event with military affiliated participants – a rarity in the general literature on amateur sports. Second, we created the Charitable Motives in Sport Scale (CMISS), the Runner Identity Scale (RIS) and the Military Identity Scale (MIS). Third, we created a new military/runner identity typology, which we hope would be useful for future military-affiliated running events.

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