RESEARCH REVIEW

Conceptualizing brand purpose and considering its implications for consumer eudaimonic well-being

Patti Williams[1] | Jennifer Edson Escalas[2] | Andrew Morningstar[1]

[1]Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA

[2]Owen Graduate School of Management, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, USA

Correspondence
Patti Williams, Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania, 3730 Walnut Street, 700 JMHH, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA.
Email: pattiw@wharton.upenn.edu

Abstract

In response to high-profile calls, and the apparent demand from consumers, brands in a wide variety of categories have sought to define, articulate, communicate, and act according to their "brand purpose." But what is brand purpose? Human purpose is seen as a long-term commitment to act consistently with one's values, leading to productive engagement with the world that transcends the self. However, the use of the term purpose as applied to brands raises a number of questions. In what ways is brand purpose similar to, and different from, human purpose? How do consumers react to brand purpose? How might a brand's purpose impact consumers? In this review, we explore the concept of brand purpose and its potential impact on consumer behavior, drawing upon the literature on human purpose. Additionally, we propose that engagement and connections with authentically purposeful brands may contribute to consumers' own purposeful lives, ultimately helping consumers achieve their own eudaimonic well-being. We develop a framework highlighting the relationship between brand purpose and consumer eudaimonic well-being to guide future research in this domain.

KEYWORDS
Branding, happiness and wellbeing, transformative consumer research

In 2018, BlackRock Chairman and CEO, Larry Fink, announced in his letter to CEOs that companies must have a purpose beyond profit or risk being ousted from BlackRock's influential investment portfolio. Arguing that society is increasingly turning to the private sector to address societal challenges, he suggested that without "a sense of purpose," which he defined as a long-term commitment toward positive contributions to society, no company could achieve its full potential (Fink, 2018). In his 2019 letter to CEOs, Fink expanded upon this, suggesting that purpose is *the* animating force for achieving corporate profits, as purpose "guides culture, provides a framework for consistent decision-making, and ultimately, helps sustain long-term financial returns for the shareholders" (Fink, 2019). Indeed, some studies (e.g., Hemerling et al., 2018) have identified a correlation between purpose and long-term financial performance. In his 2022 letter, Fink reiterated his commitment to purpose, suggesting "Customers want to see and hear what you stand for as they increasingly look to do business with companies that share their values" (Fink, 2022). A variety of industry reports (e.g., Edelman, 2021a, 2021b) have found that consumers around the globe, particularly younger generations, expect corporations and top management to take a lead on social issues and indicate that their own purchases are driven by perceived alignment between their beliefs and those espoused by brands. In response to such high-profile calls to action, and the apparent demand from consumers, brands in a wide variety of categories have sought to define, articulate, communicate, and act according to their purpose.

wileyonlinelibrary.com/journal/jcpy **699**

A substantial prior literature has examined corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives, focusing on when and why firms might engage in self-regulated actions, beyond regulatory requirements, to contribute to social goals such as philanthropy, activism, volunteerism, or ethical business practices (e.g., Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). Results show that CSR initiatives can enhance a brand's reputation (Brown & Dacin, 1997) and performance (Stanwick & Stanwick, 1996), deepen customer-company identification and foster brand loyalty (Huang et al., 2017), and prompt a desire for consumers to support brand-led initiatives that are aligned with their values (Lichtenstein et al., 2004). However, Fink's call to action on purpose, and the related action taken by many brands, seems to raise the stakes for brands beyond the scope of the traditional CSR framework and practices. The emphasis on purpose places these efforts at the heart of a brand's meaning structure and long-term business strategy, rather than as a separate, perhaps adjacent domain or short-term promotional activity. And, while the CSR literature has examined the ways in which consumers feel a sense of connection with brands that undertake social actions aligned with consumer interests and goals, it has primarily focused on how such identification benefits brands, rather than the impact such connection might have on consumers. Notably, the language used in the calls for purpose is more explicitly aligned with the psychological literature on human purpose than with the language of marketing or corporate strategy. In this research review, we seek to distinguish purpose from CSR and to draw upon the literature on human purpose to ground our understanding of brand purpose and its potential impact on consumer behavior.

What is human purpose? The positive psychology literature suggests that human happiness is characterized by three distinct domains: the pleasant life, the good life, and the meaningful life (Seligman, 2002). The meaningful life is achieved when individuals find a deep sense of fulfillment by employing their unique strengths for a purpose greater than themselves (Seligman, 2002). Across papers, human purpose is conceived as a stable, long-term commitment to act in ways consistent with one's own personal values that leads to productive engagement with aspects of the world that may transcend the self and that are connected to perceived future positive outcomes (e.g., Baumeister & Vohs, 2005; Templeton Foundation, 2018). Thus, human purpose is considered a central life aim, which organizes and stimulates relevant goals, manages behaviors, allocates resources, and contributes to a sense that one's life is meaningful (Schippers & Ziegler, 2019).

This suggests that for brands to be purposeful, they must have long-term, central, values-driven commitments to guide their behavior and resource allocations so that the brand delivers benefits that transcend the organization and its profits. However, the use of purpose as applied to brands raises a number of questions. In what ways is brand purpose similar to, and how might it be different from, human purpose? How do purposeful brands act toward their consumers and the broader world? How do consumers react to brand purpose? How might a brand's purpose impact its consumers? Prior research has shown that employees who find their jobs to be congruent with their individual purpose find more positive meaning in their work are more productive and outperform their peers (Schippers & Ziegler, 2019). Engagement with, and connections with, authentically purposeful brands may similarly help consumers achieve their own eudaimonic well-being, contributing to consumers' own purposeful and meaningful lives.

Thus, our contribution to consumer psychology is threefold. We seek to: leverage the literature on human purpose to suggest ways to conceptualize and define brand purpose; integrate prior consumer psychology literature to suggest ways in which brand purpose may enhance the well-being that consumers feel when they engage with or consume purposeful brands; and propose questions for future research that can deepen our understanding of brand purpose and its impact on consumers.

HUMAN PURPOSE

The literature on human purpose rests on the foundation provided by Frankl (1963) who proposed that all people are motivated to discover a purpose in their lives and that having one is a critical mechanism to cope with existential threats. Prior to this, a search for meaning and purpose was often seen as evidence for psychological dysfunction, only occurring among individuals whose needs had been frustrated (see Steger, Kashdan, et al., 2008). Frankl (1963), in contrast, highlighted the benefits of purpose for psychological flourishing, particularly as a reactive resource that makes it possible for individuals to overcome life's hardships. More recently, the advent of the positive psychology movement (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) has sought to broaden the field of psychology from one focused on pathology and illness to one that includes an examination of psychological strengths and virtues. This push has given the topic of meaning in life renewed attention and scholarly legitimacy, with the presence of personal meaning in individuals' lives being seen not just as a facilitator of coping and resilience, but as an important indicator of eudaimonic well-being, which focuses on having a meaningful life, expressing virtue, and achieving self-truth (Norton, 1976; Waterman, 1990). Within this frame, purpose is conceptualized as a proactive, rather than primarily reactive, component of behavioral development, and identified as one significant component of a meaningful life, which is increasingly seen as a key path to authentic happiness and human flourishing.

Research has examined the components of a meaningful life, aligning around cognitive, evaluative, and

motivational aspects (e.g., Martela & Steger, 2016). The cognitive component of meaning is often referred to as comprehension or coherence, the ability to make sense of and understand one's life, and how one fits into the world. The evaluative component is referred to as a sense of value and significance—an understanding that one's life matters and is worthwhile. The motivational component is where purpose lies—with purpose seen as a long-term, higher-order goal or aspiration, intentionally chosen which directs present efforts toward desired futures (Steger et al., 2013). Baumeister (1991) similarly described purpose as one aspect of the four needs of meaning, along with values, efficacy, and self-worth, suggesting that purpose helps to connect present actions with future outcomes. Thus, despite some earlier conflation of the terms meaning and purpose, current conceptualizations view purpose as one component of a meaningful life (Bronk & Dubon, 2016). And while it was originally associated with spiritual and religious engagement, subsequent work has suggested purpose can be found in many non-spiritual domains (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009).

A variety of definitions for human purpose have been proposed. Ryff (1989) suggested that purpose in life means having goals and a sense of directedness. Others have suggested that while purpose is motivational, it is more stable and far-reaching than typical goals and is thus a special category of highly valued, central, long-term motivations that provide direction in life (George & Park, 2013). In this way, goals are considered to be more precise in their influence of proximal behaviors (Carver & Scheier, 1998), while purpose is thought to be a broader, supraordinate manager, aligned with intrinsic values, which drives higher-order aspiration and may stimulate many smaller, temporally relevant, consistent goals (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009). McKnight and Kashdan (2009) define purpose as a "central, self-organizing life aim that stimulates goals, manages behaviors" (p. 242), a predominant component of one's identity, providing a larger framework for sub-goals and actions, and motivating the allocation of personal resources toward its actualization. As such, purpose serves as a "north star," offering direction and guiding the allocation of finite personal resources over time (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009). A person may pursue multiple purposes, and doing so may even be beneficial, within the constraints of one's resources (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009).

Damon et al. (2003) expand the definition of purpose to "a stable and generalizable intention to accomplish something that is at once meaningful to the self and that leads to productive engagement with some aspect of the world beyond the self" (p. 121). They emphasize the view that purpose is a long-term aim toward which an individual can make progress, that the aim itself is self-concordant (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999), voluntary, and self-motivated, is associated with larger conceptions of personal meaning, and add notably, that it includes a critical component of self-transcendence. They proposed three dimensions necessary to make an aim purposeful: stable and future-oriented intention that specifies what the individual hopes to accomplish and guides an individual to find opportunities and select behavior accordingly; meaningful engagement in relevant activity to realize that intention; and, a desire to connect with and contribute to something beyond the self, which they view as critical in distinguishing purposeful goals from those that provide only personal satisfaction.

An individual's purpose can be characterized by scope, strength, and awareness (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009). Scope refers to the ubiquity of the purpose in the person's life. It can be broad, influencing a wide array of cognitions, emotions, and behaviors, or it might have a narrower domain. Separately, strength refers to "the tendency for the purpose to influence actions, thoughts, and emotions in the domains that are relevant to its scope" (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009, p. 244). Awareness is an indicator of the extent to which the individual can identify and articulate their purpose and is likely influenced by scope and strength. When an individual is highly aware of their purpose, they might bring it to mind more easily, in more situations, and pursue it with less effort.

Finding one's purpose

Individuals can find purpose in life via proactive, reactive, or social learning mechanisms (Kashdan & McKnight, 2009). The proactive path is characteristic of individuals who actively explore the world, engaged in deliberative self-exploration or interaction with their environments. Others find purpose by reacting to a significant life event or outside occurrence that catalyzes them to recognize and or reorganize their priorities and objectives. Others may learn from important role models about the value of purposeful living and even the types of purpose that they find most engaging and fulfilling. These distinctions point to the importance of an individual's realm of experience and context in the path to purpose—deliberate exposure to purposeful paths is critical to the discovery of one's individual purpose.

Research has suggested that purposeful adolescents often are initially inspired in relatively minor, ordinary ways and that their early efforts are influenced by inspiring stories and by the local opportunities and resources available to them (Bronk, 2011). The path to purpose among adolescents is one of multiple directions, lost and gained momentum, reevaluation of priorities at critical moments of life transition, the presence of important support systems including families and peers, and the perceived presence of structured opportunities to enact beyond-the-self intentions (Malin et al., 2014). However, while the process of *searching* for purpose is associated with life satisfaction among the young (adolescents and

emerging adults), such a search is associated with lowered life satisfaction among adults (Bronk et al., 2009). This is consistent with the idea that purpose and identity are linked and that the search for purpose among adults might be indicative of a questioning of one's identity or with a lack of personal direction. In his book on meaning and purpose, *Second Mountain*, Brooks (2019) argues that after achieving career objectives, middle-aged people often find the results unfulfilling and thus begin to seek out a more purposeful life. The sense that searching for meaning in adulthood indicates lowered psychological well-being may be particularly true among those with an independent self-construal (i.e., American adults). In contrast, among interdependent individuals, research has found a positive relationship between the search for purpose and the presence of meaning in life (Steger, Kawabata, et al., 2008).

Positive outcomes of purpose

Possessing a sense of purpose is associated with a variety of positive outcomes and has been considered a defining feature of positive mental health (Ryff & Singer, 1998). Having a purpose is associated with greater meaning in life, life satisfaction, self-esteem, happiness, hopefulness, less stress about competing goals, enhanced grit, academic self-regulation, better physical health, better social integration, and higher socioeconomic status (Bonebright et al., 2000; Bronk et al., 2009; Chamberlain & Zika, 1988; Pinquart, 2002; Ryff, 1989; Yeager et al., 2014).

Positive outcomes of human purpose vary across one's lifetime. For example, adolescents who report having identified a purpose feel more agency in their lives, engage in more goal-oriented activities, believe they can find ways around obstacles in their lives (Bronk et al., 2009; Burrow et al., 2010) and are less likely to be depressed or to have suicidal thoughts (e.g., Dukes & Lorch, 1989; Kinnier et al., 1994). Among older adults, having a purpose is associated with higher levels of social integration and more positive relationships and thus correlated with lower levels of loneliness (Neville et al., 2018; Pinquart, 2002). Purpose in life has also been linked to substantially reduced risk of Alzheimer's disease (Boyle et al., 2010), and to improved overall cognitive functioning across the adult lifespan, including better executive function and episodic memory (Lewis et al., 2017), and even to lower rates of mortality, offering longevity benefits across age cohorts, even after controlling for many other psychological and physical variables (Hill & Turiano, 2014).

In sum, human purpose can be defined as a long-term commitment to act consistently with one's values, leading to productive engagement with the world that transcends the self. It is motivational: a long-term, higher-order goal or aspiration that directs an individual's present efforts toward desired futures. Finding one's purpose is a complex process that varies over the life cycle, while having a purpose contributes to the belief that one's life is meaningful, along with other positive outcomes associated with well-being. Can this construct be effectively applied to brands? How is brand purpose different from and similar to human purpose? In the following section, we address these questions and propose a definition of brand purpose.

WHAT IS BRAND PURPOSE

Our review of human purpose has significant implications for how marketers and researchers should envision brand purpose. Next, we briefly review how the marketplace has sought to define brand purpose, followed by our more systematic and precise definition, based on our review of the human purpose literature. In doing so, we also seek to distinguish brand purpose and corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives.

Current marketplace definitions of brand purpose

A variety of definitions for brand purpose have been proposed among practitioners. The American Marketing Association (AMA) defines brand purpose as: "a statement that sets out how brand management intends to achieve social impact through brand-related actions. It generally includes specific societal causes that will be supported through its day-to-day operations, non-business special events and lobbying efforts (AMA, 2022)." More typically, brand purpose has been defined as related to "why" a brand exists (Sinek, 2009), the brand's "inspirational and motivational reason for being, the higher order it brings to the world" (Stengel, 2011, p. 3), or the impact it seeks to have in the world—"an aspirational reason for being that inspires action that benefits shareholders and stakeholders, as well as global societies" (Afdhel & Jones, 2021, p. 13). Others have defined purpose as the intersection of the brand's unique talents and the needs of the world (Reiman, 2012). Some of these definitions, such as the AMA's, seem minimally differentiated from CSR. Others are aligned with the idea that purpose is a higher-order motivational construct, but remain vague at best.

Among brands, purpose statements can vary along multiple dimensions. One is the scope of purpose. Some brands operationalize their purpose narrowly, within the confines of their corporate offerings. For example, Southwest (n.d.) says its purpose is to "connect people to what's important in their lives through friendly, reliable, and low-cost air travel." Allstate's (n.d.) purpose is "we provide affordable, simple, and connected protection that empowers customers to achieve their hopes

and dreams." Vrbo (n.d.) grounds itself in its purpose to "give people the space they need to drop the distractions of everyday life and simply be together." Other brands' purposes are broader, related to, but falling outside of, their products or positioning. For example, REI (n.d.) states that the brand believes a life outdoors is a life well-lived and that its purpose is "to awaken a lifelong love of the outdoors, for all." Crayola's (n.d.) purpose, "to help parents and educators raise creatively-alive kids," is also broad. Breadth of purpose may change over time, as illustrated by Walmart (2021): "It has always been our purpose to help people live better lives. Saving money has been core to that purpose since the beginning. But today, 'live better' means more. Customers…also want to know that the products they buy are good for their families, the people who made them and the planet."

Purpose statements might also differ in their focus. Compare REI and Patagonia, two outdoor equipment brands. REI's purpose, fostering love of the outdoors, is focused on helping people connect to nature. Patagonia (n.d.), however, which "is in business to save our home planet," wants to help people protect nature. BlackRock's (n.d.) purpose, "to help more and more people experience financial well-being," is related to their expertise in financial management and the companies in which they choose to invest. HSBC (n.d.), however, uses a broader range of initiatives to "open up new kinds of opportunity for our customers." This includes connecting clients whose strengths they believe are complementary, actively promoting financial collaborations that benefit communities, and emphasizing diversity initiatives. Finally, purpose statements often differ in their level of detail. Some purpose statements, like Walmart's, are based on several, concrete, well-defined areas of focus. Other purpose statements, like Crayola's, outline a broad objective ("help…raise creatively-alive kids") which gives the brand more latitude for operationalizing its purpose.

Despite these differences, there are two characteristics which seem to unite these statements of purpose. One is the clear connection to the ethos of the brand. Southwest seeks to connect people through their famously reliable and low-cost airfares. Patagonia, whose products help people explore nature, is trying to protect nature. These connections differentiate purpose from CSR, whose initiatives need not be related to the company at all, though a perceived fit between the brand and its cause initiatives can be beneficial (e.g., Strahilevitz & Meyers, 1998). The second is the focus on benefitting others. Walmart's stated purpose is to help customers live better lives by saving money, not to position itself as a low-cost leader as a profit-making strategy. Crayola's purpose is not to sell people crayons so that their children can be creative: It is to help people raise children who are creative. As can be seen in these examples, brand purpose goes beyond corporate mission or vision statements, which focus on corporate planning and strategy. Brand purpose has a meaningful outward focus that transcends profits and benefits society. We explore these commonalities in our definition of purpose below.

Our definition of brand purpose

As noted above, the literature on human purpose has proposed a variety of construct definitions. Ryff (1989) proposed that purpose in life means having goals and a sense of directedness. George and Park (2013) emphasized that those goals should be stable and far-reaching, special categories of motivations that are highly valued, central, long-term and which provide direction in life. McKnight and Kashdan (2009) suggested that purpose is a central, self-organizing aim that stimulates goals and manages behaviors, is a predominant component of the individual's identity, and which provides a larger framework for sub-goals and actions and motivates the allocation of personal resources over the long term for its actualization. In addition, however, others (i.e., Damon et al., 2003) expanded upon this to suggest that purpose also includes a critical component of self-transcendence—that is, a desire to connect with and contribute to something beyond the self.

Building upon the literature on human purpose outlined above, we propose the following definition of brand purpose: A brand's purpose is a long-term, central aim that is a predominant component of its identity, meaning structure and strategy, which leads to productive engagement with some aspect of the world that transcends the brand's profits. In proposing this definition, we emphasize several key elements. First, the brand's purpose is a long-term, rather than temporary, aim. Second, the brand's purpose should be central to its larger identity, meaning structure, and strategy, rather than a side, peripheral, or tactical commitment. As such, the brand's purpose should be key to its own internal understanding of its strategy, but, ideally, also readily identifiable by consumers as part of the brand's identity and meaning. Third, while some brands articulate a purpose that is closer to their differentiated position within their category or the functional value proposition they provide to consumers, here we emphasize that purpose seeks to engage the larger world in ways that transcend profits. Given these elements, again consistent with the literature on human purpose, we suggest that purpose acts across the brand's organization to stimulate goals, organize behaviors, provide a framework for actions, and motivate the allocation of resources toward its actualization.

In choosing to emphasize that brand purpose should seek to engage the larger world in ways that transcend profits, we align with the growing calls among practitioners (e.g., Larry Fink) who ask that brands take up a model of engagement that is broader than just profit or shareholder maximization and focus on benefits that accrue to a broad array of stakeholders. Those stakeholders include the collective well-being of society at large.

We also believe that this emphasis on self-transcendence is more likely to lead to consumer eudaimonic well-being, as discussed in more detail below.

The unrestricted nature of brand purpose

While not mentioned in the definition, one important characteristic of purpose is that it is unrestricted by company size, focus, or type. Any company may be motivated by a central aim other than profits, provided pursuing that aim does not drain the company's resources to the point of bankruptcy. For example, while smaller companies, on average, have smaller profit margins and incur more debt (Davidson et al., 1991), they may still generate enough profit to devote resources to brand purpose. These investments in purpose may even lead to greater profits through increased consumer loyalty (Huang et al., 2017). Many smaller, start-up brands (e.g., Tom's, Everlane, Allbirds) have found success by centering their strategy around a coherent purpose.

How does brand purpose differ from corporate social responsibility (CSR)?

A significant prior literature has sought to define CSR and to identify the benefits of a CSR strategy for brands. For example, an informal search of the *Journal of Consumer Psychology* reveals dozens of articles on CSR within the last 5 years alone (e.g., Campbell & Winterich, 2018; Chernev & Blair, 2021; Johnson et al., 2019; Newman & Brucks, 2018; Zemack-Rugar et al., 2016). CSR has been defined as the "obligations of the firm to society" (Lichtenstein et al., 2004, p. 16) or a brand's "status and activities with respect to its perceived societal obligations" (Brown & Dacin, 1997, p. 68) A variety of firm actions may fall under such initiatives, including various types of community support, cause marketing, diversity initiatives, employee support, environmental practices, global operations, and product-specific actions (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). It has been suggested that actions in these and related domains may provide consumers with insight regarding a brand's value system, soul, or character (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001), perhaps even more strongly than the firm's products or services do. While these definitions often point to engagement with the world in ways that seek to transcend profits, this literature has not suggested that CSR initiatives need be long-term, central aims that are a predominant component of a brand's identity and meaning structure, or strategy, as brand purpose would suggest.

Interestingly, while articulating and studying the psychological processes that lead consumers to build connections with brands as a result of their social initiatives, the CSR literature has largely focused on the firm-related benefits that arise from such connections, rather than upon their implications for consumer well-being. Prior work has shown that many positive benefits accrue to the sponsoring brand, including positive brand beliefs, more favorable brand attitudes, enhanced brand equity, and increased consumption, primarily as a result of positive spillover to consumer beliefs about the brand in general (e.g., Burke & Logsdon, 1996; Vanhamme & Grobben, 2009; Wigley, 2008). These benefits of CSR are more likely to accrue when the perceived fit between a brand and its CSR cause is high, that is, when key brand associations are perceived to be congruent with those associated with the social cause (Johar & Pham, 1999; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Strahilevitz & Meyers, 1998), as such alignment suggests more intrinsic, rather than profit-seeking, motives. In contrast, even socially beneficial, but low-fit CSR initiatives might damage brand equity, as these misfit alliances may provoke negative elaboration, inferences that the firm has ulterior motives, and ultimately negative attitudes toward the brand (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Donations of a brand's time, which is perceived as more directly expressive of an actor's goals, values, and attitudes, rather than money, which may be perceived as more impersonal, passive, and indirect, may be particularly beneficial, particularly among consumers with high moral identity (Reed et al., 2007). When CSR initiatives demonstrate a brand's concerns that align with consumers' own interests, values, attitudes, or identities, they can lead to enhanced consumer self-esteem (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004, 2003) and to consumer behaviors that support the brand, including positive word of mouth and resisting negative brand information (Kim et al., 2020; Lichtenstein et al., 2004; Xie et al., 2019).

In sum, the CSR literature has emphasized that perceptions of congruence between an individual's own identity and their perceptions of brand's values, based on their knowledge of the brand, including its CSR initiatives, are a key driver of brand performance in the marketplace. Here, however, while we take those brand performance metrics as desirable and important, we focus on the benefits to consumers' own well-being as they interact with brands that articulate and behave consistently with their own purpose.

BRAND PURPOSE AND CONSUMER EUDAIMONIC WELL-BEING

Brand purpose is a relatively new concept, which makes it an area ripe for novel consumer psychology research. In the remainder of our article, we propose a framework and suggest potential questions, to help guide future research on brand purpose. While we suggest future research into firm benefits, our framework emphasizes research on consumer well-being, specifically eudaimonic well-being, which is understudied in consumer

psychology (c.f., Hamby et al., 2022; Mogilner et al., 2018; Schmitt et al., 2015). We believe the inclusion of consumer well-being will engender meaningful research in consumer psychology that extends well beyond the focus of existing relevant research in marketing.

Consumer eudaimonic well-being

The pursuit of meaningfulness and a meaningful life has been a central question in philosophy for centuries (Vittersø, 2016). Characterized by the pursuit and expression of virtue, a meaningful, or eudaimonic, life centers on living in a manner consistent with one's true self, and prioritizing goals that provide purpose in life (Waterman, 1993). The concept of eudaimonia was first introduced by Aristotle, who defined the concept as an "activity expressing virtue" related to happiness (Aristotle 4th century B.C.E./2001). The term is derived from the words eu (good or well) and daimōn (essentially one's "spirit" or true self). Meaning in life is typically considered emblematic of eudaimonic well-being, which is not merely the absence of illness and negative affect, but also the presence of fulfillment, flourishing, and optimal functioning that comes with the Aristotelian pursuit of one's most virtuous self. Thus, Norton (1976) defines eudaimonia as "meaningful living conditioned upon self-truth" (p. xi), while Ryan and Deci (2001) define eudaimonia as living a life in full accord with one's potential.

Eudaimonic well-being as studied in psychology is a subjective state, with perspectives varying from a trait-like approach (Ryff, 2014) to a motivation to develop the best in oneself (Huta, 2015). Waterman (1990) considers eudaimonia to be "activity expressing virtue" (p. 39), consisting of self-discovery, development of one's best potential, having a sense of purpose and meaning in life, investment of effort in pursuit of excellence, intense involvement in activities, and enjoyment of personal expressive acts. Similarly, Diener et al. (2010) consider eudaimonic well-being to include positive relationships, feelings of competence, and meaning and purpose in life. The narrative identity outlook on eudaimonia considers psychosocial integration, ego development, and personal growth as eudaimonic components of the internal, dynamic life stories that consumers construct to make sense of their lives (Bauer et al., 2008). In consumer psychology, the most widely used concept overlapping with the idea of eudaimonia is the highest need in Maslow's (1968) hierarchy: self-actualization.

Ryan and Deci (2001) assert that the fulfillment of three basic psychological needs—psychological nutrients that are essential for individuals' adjustment, integrity, and growth (Ryan, 1995)—contributes to eudaimonic well-being: relatedness (the need to interact with, be connected to, and experience caring for others), competence (the need to control outcomes and experience mastery), and autonomy (the need to be causal agents in one's own life and act in harmony with one's integrated self). Ryff (2014) addresses neglected aspects of positive functioning by exploring purposeful engagement in life, realization of personal talents and capacities, and enlightened self-knowledge. This work identifies six essential traits of psychological well-being: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. Eudaimonic well-being is often contrasted with hedonic well-being, which is characterized as seeking pleasure, feeling good, and being satisfied (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Conversely, eudaimonic well-being includes such pursuits as making a valuable contribution to society and living in alignment with a set of moral virtues (Heintzelman, 2018).

Brand purpose conceptual framework

From these many defining features that contribute to eudaimonic well-being, we highlight a subset that we expect will have direct implications for how brand purpose can enhance consumer eudaimonic well-being. Specifically, we explore consumer purpose, meaning and significance, self-acceptance/achievement of true self, and positive relationships—four components of eudaimonic well-being—plus other-focused emotions that are likely to arise in response to brand purpose. While we focus on consumer eudaimonic well-being as the key downstream variable in our framework, it should be noted that favorable marketing outcomes will likely also emerge from brand purpose, such as more favorable brand attitudes, brand loyalty, and brand evangelism. Many of these favorable marketer outcomes may be mediated by the five concepts discussed in this review, but it is likely that there are other marketer benefits that are the direct result of brand purpose (or mediated by other, non-eudaimonic-related, mediating processes). In our review, we also highlight potential moderators that may affect the relationship between brand purpose and consumer well-being (e.g., consumer trust, brand authenticity, brand credibility, commitment to purpose, consumer-value congruence, and brand-purpose proximity). Next, we will discuss each of the five ways brand purpose might lead to eudaimonic consumer well-being, followed by a discussion of our proposed moderators (Figure 1).

KEY MEDIATORS OF BRAND PURPOSE ON CONSUMER WELL-BEING

As we define brand purpose to include productive engagement with some aspect of the world that transcends the brand's profits, clearly the most obvious way that
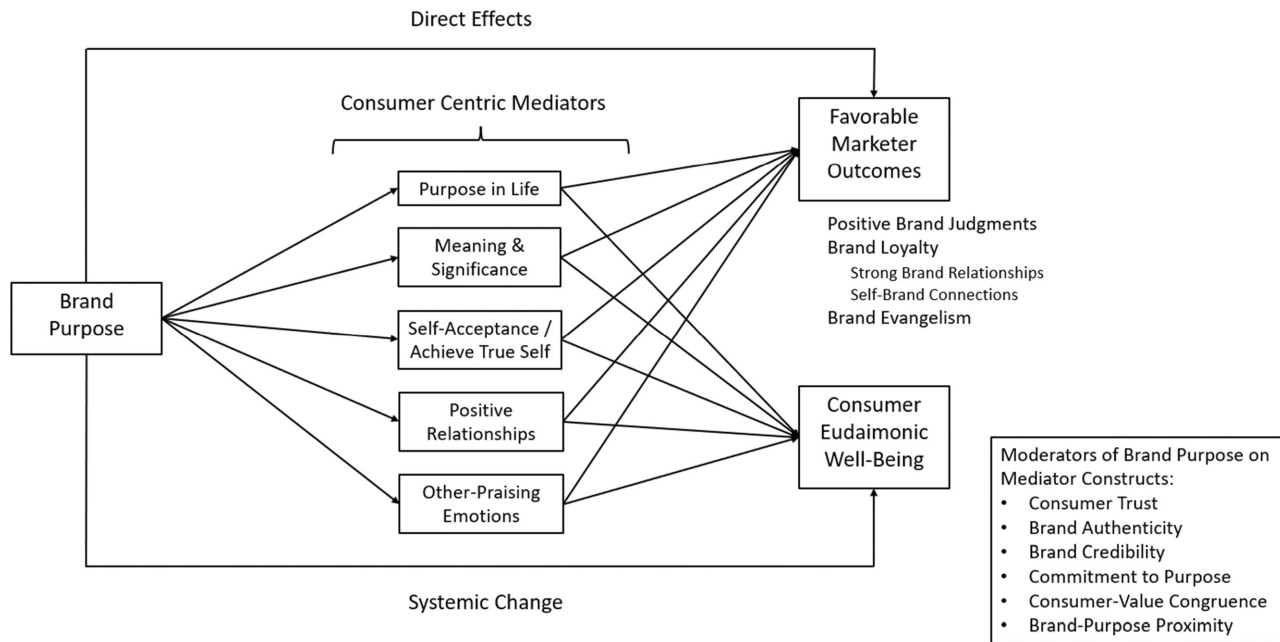
FIGURE 1 Brand purpose, consumer well-being framework.

brand purpose may affect consumer eudaimonic well-being—as well as collective well-being and society in general—is through the transformative social impact and systemic change resulting from a brand's purposeful actions. However, in keeping with the focus on consumer psychology research, here our emphasis will be on five psychological processes through which brand purpose may have a direct impact on its consumers' well-being: consumer purpose, meaning and significance, self-acceptance/achievement of true self, positive relationships, and other-praising emotions.

Consumer purpose

As discussed above, human purpose is defined as a central, self-organizing life aim that stimulates goals, manages behaviors to accomplish something that is at once meaningful to the self and that leads to productive engagement with some aspect of the world beyond the self. To experience eudaimonic well-being, consumers need to have goals in their lives that give them a sense of directedness (Ryff, 2014) and make life meaningful (Martela & Steger, 2016), that is, they need a purpose. There are a number of ways in which a brand's purpose can influence and interact with consumers' purpose, contributing to their eudaimonic well-being. Brand purpose can help consumers discover, identify, pursue, and expand their own purpose.

The process of discovering one's purpose, as described above, is varied and complex. Brand purpose may help consumers find their purpose via proactive, reactive, or social learning mechanisms (Kashdan & McKnight, 2009). By drawing attention to a pressing

societal issue, a brand's purpose may encourage consumers to contemplate the extent to which they care about the purpose promoted by the brand (proactive). Perhaps a brand's purpose resonates with consumers or is something they already deem important. This may occur throughout consumers' lives, but particularly during adolescence and in liminal identity epochs, such as divorce, death of a loved one, becoming empty nesters, or retirement (reactive). The information provided and actions taken by the brand may inspire consumers to elevate the purpose to be their own. Thus, brand purpose may also model the value of purposeful living, guiding consumers to find their purpose via social learning, where the brand is the role model.

Brands with a purpose can also help consumers pursue their individual purpose in life, especially when brands embrace a purpose that is consistent with the core values of the consumer (Nazir et al., 2021). Consumers with a salient purpose may choose brands that are guided by similar values and principles as a way to help achieve their personal purpose-related goals and lead a purposeful life. Brand purpose may enhance the scope, strength, and awareness of the shared purpose in the consumer's life. As the brand strives to accomplish social impact, iterative successes may also reinforce the importance of the shared purpose, both for society and for individual consumers. Additionally, consumption of a purposeful brand may allow for the expansion of the scope of one's own purpose. That is, if a brand's purpose is aligned with the consumer's, perhaps the consumer can expand the scope of his/her purposeful engagement into new domains. Thus, brands with a purpose may provide consumers with an outlet for the pursuit of their own purpose-related goals, as well as reinforce the importance of that purpose.

More broadly, consumers who have an express need to lead a purposeful life may be drawn to brands with a purpose, even if there is not an exact match between the brand's and consumer's purpose. Consumers who seek a purposeful life may value brands that have a purpose central to their meaning structure and identity. That is, as purpose itself becomes more important, consumers may place emphasis on a brand's need for purpose, regardless of the direct relatedness between the consumer's purpose and the brand's. Consumers seeking virtue and self-actualization may value brand purpose for its potential to transform society for good, even if the brand's cause is not the specific issue that drives their individual purpose. By consuming brands that have a purpose, consumers may thus gain the belief that they live more purposeful lives.

There are a number of questions for future research that arise from our discussion of the relationships between brand purpose and the human need for purpose in life that contribute to eudaimonic well-being. How can purposeful brands best communicate their values and core beliefs with consumers? How might brand purpose help consumers identify, strengthen, or expand their own purpose? Can brand purpose elevate the importance of purpose in consumers' lives? How important is it that a brand have a purpose that mirrors or relates to the consumer's own purpose, as opposed to the presence of any purpose being an appealing attribute for consumers who wish to lead a purposeful life? Or will mere consumption of a brand with a purpose provide consumers with a sense of purpose in life, or strengthen a consumer's purpose? How does the scope, strength, and accessibility of a brand's purpose influence consumer responses? Are certain kinds of brand purpose more inspirational and/or motivational than other types? (See Table 1 for a summary of these questions for future research.)

Meaning and significance

In order to experience well-being, individuals need to feel that their lives have value, are worthwhile and important. Meaningful lives also have coherence, that is, the idea that one's life makes sense (Martela & Steger, 2016). Building on the idea of a life-narrative, it involves the story we tell ourselves to make sense of the events in our lives, to achieve psychosocial integration, to maintain the sense that we do not live in chaos, but that there is meaning and importance in the things we do (Bauer et al., 2008). In contrast with purpose, which is about possessing valuable goals, meaning and significance are about believing that one's life has value (Martela & Steger, 2016). Thus, significance is about evaluation, while purpose is about motivation. Stated another way, a meaningful life depends in part on outcomes and achievements associated with making a difference, while purpose focuses more on the journey.

Consuming brands with a purpose can help people feel that their lives are meaningful and significant. Using a brand that seeks to achieve a larger purpose can help consumers feel that their lives are more worthwhile and important. Brand purpose may be uniquely able to do this, because purpose is ideally central to the brand's meaning structure, providing a lattice for consumer meaning construction. By consuming a purposeful brand, consumers may also feel they are contributing to aspects of the world beyond themselves, providing a sense of accomplishment about making a difference and living a worthwhile life. It may differentiate the consumer from others who simply consume materialistically for temporary hedonic pleasure or to achieve status and other self-focused benefits. By consuming brands with purpose, consumers may be able to break free from the constraints of our postmodern, consumption-driven society and behave virtuously by caring about others, their society, and the world. Brands with a purpose can help consumers transcend the self and engage meaningfully with the world around them. These benefits may also accrue to consumers who are loyal to, engage with, or identify with a particular brand, even if they do not actively "consume" the brand.

A number of questions for future research arise from our discussion of the relationships between brand purpose and the human need for meaning and significance, which contribute to eudaimonic well-being. For example, the Meaning Maintenance Model (Heine et al., 2006) posits that when people experience disruptions to their core beliefs, people reaffirm or bolster other meaning frameworks that have not been threatened, which may compensate for a loss of meaning in the other domain. Thus, meaning compensation is fluid: Reaffirmation efforts need not be directed at the specific domain of meaning that has been jeopardized. Given that threats or disruptions in consumers' meaning frameworks can trigger compensatory activities designed to reaffirm their beliefs that have been challenged (Greenberg et al., 1986; Heine et al., 2006; Swann & Brooks, 2012), perhaps such threats might enhance consumers' preference for and use of purposeful brands. Other directions for future research might explore the marketing actions brands with a purpose may take to make consumers feel their lives are meaningful and significant. For example, are there things that purposeful brands can do to enhance consumers' sense of living a worthwhile life? Does providing consumers with clear success metrics about how the brand has achieved social impact spill over to the consumer, providing them with a sense of meaningful accomplishment? (See Table 1 for a summary of these questions for future research.)

TABLE 1 Directions for future research

Aspect of framework	Research questions
Brand purpose	1. How should companies go about choosing a brand purpose? Which factors might be important: that is, customer-value alignment or brand-cause congruence? 2. What types of organizations is brand purpose best suited for? Must the organization have a brand mindset for this type of endeavor to work? 3. How can brand purpose be used successfully to change and guide corporate culture? Must marketing be a powerful player within the organization to enact this change? 4. Does it matter how a brand comes to identify its purpose (i.e., via paths that are more proactive, reactive, versus inspired by social role models, as have been identified in the human purpose literature)? 5. Does it matter when in its development a brand identifies and shares its purpose? If people believe that searching for human purpose is most appropriate during youth/identity formation, does that suggest that more mature brands are evaluated negatively if they are seen as searching for (or newly arriving at) purpose? How do consumers respond to well-known (mature) brands identifying and sharing a purpose? 6. Are there cross-cultural differences in how older brands who find purpose are perceived? 7. Are certain kinds of brand purpose more inspirational to consumers? 8. What kinds of brand purpose/purposeful actions are more motivating for consumers? 9. Can brand purpose demotivate consumers? 10. What level of familiarity with brand purpose is necessary to be inspiring to consumers (e.g., how much publicity/salience is needed)? 11. The focus of this review is on individual eudaimonic well-being. However, can brand purpose affect collective well-being?
Mediators	1. Which of these five mediators matter more in the context of brand purpose? 2. What might affect their relative impact? 3. Might they have an interactive impact?
Purpose in life	1. How can purposeful brands best communicate their values and core beliefs with consumers? 2. How might brand purpose help consumers identify, strengthen, or expand their own purpose? 3. Is it possible for a brand's purpose to help consumers find their own purpose in life (i.e., can a brand's purpose offer proactive, reactive, or social learning paths to human purpose)? 4. How important is it that a brand have a purpose that mirrors or relates to the consumer's own purpose, as opposed to the presence of any purpose being an appealing attribute for consumers who wish to lead a purposeful life? 5. Will mere consumption of a brand with a purpose provide consumers with a sense of purpose in life? 6. How does the scope, strength, and accessibility of a brand's purpose influence consumer responses? 7. Can brand purpose elevate the importance of purpose in consumer's lives? 8. Can brand purpose enhance the accessibility, strength or scope of a consumer's own purpose? 9. Are certain kinds of brand purpose more inspirational and/or motivational to consumers? 10. What level of familiarity with brand purpose is necessary to be inspiring to consumers (e.g., how much publicity/salience is needed)? 11. Can brand purpose demotivate consumers?
Meaning & significance	1. When might threats to consumers' meaning frameworks enhance their preference for and use of purposeful brands? 2. Can a brand's purpose help consumers feel their live are meaningful and significant? 3. Are tangible brand purpose outcomes necessary for consumers to feel that consuming a brand with purpose is meaningful?
Self-acceptance/ achieve true self	1. Will threats to consumers' sense of self lead to compensatory consumption of purposeful brands? 2. What can purposeful brands do to facilitate the formation of self-brand connections? 3. Will a clear statement of purpose build a link between the brand, its consumers, and the transcendent purpose? 4. Can brand purpose help consumers achieve their quest for achieving their true self?
Positive relationships	1. Are consumers more likely to form relationships with purposeful brands? 2. Do consumer-purposeful brand relationships meet consumer needs for meaningful relationships? (If not, could they be harmful?) 3. What can purposeful brands do to facilitate these consumer–brand relationships? 4. Are brand communities more likely to form around brands with a purpose? What is the nature of these communities? What can brands do to facilitate these communities? How are they different from communities around brands that do not have a purpose? 5. Do consumers satisfy their need to express concern for others by using brands with a purpose? 6. Are there additional ways in which brand purpose may positively affect collective well-being?

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Aspect of framework	Research questions
Other-praising emotions	*Moral Elevation*: 1. When do consumers experience moral elevation in response to a brand's articulation of purpose and/or related actions? Is there a path from awareness of brand purpose to moral elevation and enhanced self-brand connection and perhaps even to brand love? 2. Does engagement with a purposeful brand work through moral elevation to encourage consumers to engage in self-transcendent actions, and perhaps even aid in identification of a consumer's own sense of purpose (perhaps via social emulation)? Is there specificity to such self-transcendent emulation—that is, would consumers be more likely to pursue self-transcendence in domains related to the brand's purpose or would the effects be more domain general? 3. Are consumers who have a strong, broad, self-transcendent purpose be most likely to feel moral elevation in response to a brand's purpose and be more likely to notice such a brand purpose? *Gratitude*: 1. Do consumers feel gratitude toward purposeful brands? If so, under what circumstances? 2. Are consumers more likely to feel gratitude when a brand's prosocial actions are aligned with their own values and sense of purpose, or are any high effort purposeful actions likely to inspire gratitude? 3. When might consumers perceive brand purpose to be a persuasion tactic rather than stemming from a sense of intrinsic motivation or moral responsibility? 4. Do feelings of gratitude make consumers more likely to want to "give back" to the brand, to spend time with that brand, and perhaps to pay forward those acts of generosity to others? 5. Does experiencing gratitude in response to a brand's prosocial behaviors elicit feelings of moral elevation? And if so, do such feelings prompt emulation of the brand's moral excellence? *Admiration*: 1. Do consumers make positive upward comparisons in response to purposeful brands? Do those comparisons lead to feelings of admiration? Does such admiration translate into consumer desire to emulate the admired brand? And if so, in what ways—in alignment with the brand's purpose or is the effect more domain general versus specific? 2. Does admiration motivate consumers to want to work harder to achieve their own goals or to "do better?" 3. Does admiration of a purposeful brand's engagement with the world inspire consumers? 4. If a brand's purpose makes it praiseworthy, do consumers want to spread their praise of the brand (i.e., positive WOM)? *Inspiration*: 1. Are consumers inspired by purposeful brands? 2. Are certain types of purpose or specific paths to brand purpose more inspirational than others? 3. Are different articulations of purpose more or less inspirational (i.e., purpose in the abstract versus tangible acts and outcomes)? How might brand communication about purpose drive more or less inspiration? Are brand stories a particularly effective way to inspire a purposeful brand's consumers? 4. Does a brand's purpose inspire consumers to engage in specific, discrete future actions closely aligned with the brand's purpose? Do these actions feel purposeful to consumers and lead to consumer eudaimonic well-being?
Moderators	1. With so many moderators dealing with forms of trust, credibility, authenticity, congruence, and proximity, which of these concepts matter more in the context of brand purpose? 2. What might affect their relative impact? 3. Might they have an interactive impact?
Consumer trust	1. Does the scope, strength, or accessibility of a brand's purpose best influence the process by which trust is formed? 2. If a brand were to violate consumers' trust, even in an unrelated area such as poor product performance, how would it impact perceptions of that brand's purpose? Conversely, how might that brand's purpose affect how consumers perceive the violation? 3. When might people develop their own purpose using brands' purpose as examples? Does that require trust in the brand? 4. Does trust in brands influence positive relationships not just with the brand, but with any other entities associated with the brand (e.g., fans of the brand)? 5. Conversely, could relationships with entities related to the purposeful brand (employees, sponsored charities, competitors) affect perceptions of that brand and its purpose? 6. Which trusting beliefs (benevolence, integrity, competence) are affected most by the presence of brand purpose, and are any of these changes more enduring? 7. Are trusting beliefs differentially impactful on the relationship between brand purpose-based trust and consumer well-being? 8. What is the relationship between gratitude (the perception that one is the recipient of another's beneficence) and trust (a construct involving the beliefs that others are benevolent and integrous)? 9. If depersonalized trust occurs because there are strong reciprocity norms in in-groups, does this mean that consumers feel more indebted to purposeful brands they trust, and does that have negative implications for consumer well-being? 10. What aspects of brand purpose might impact depersonalized trust, instead of trust based on benevolence, integrity, and competence? 11. Under what circumstances might depersonalized trust have a stronger impact on well-being than trust based on benevolence, integrity, and competence?

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Aspect of framework	Research questions
Value authenticity	1. What is the extent to which consumer acceptance of brand purpose is related to perceptions of value authenticity? 2. Could merely providing an example of purpose—even if perceived to be inauthentic—inspire someone to create purposes of their own? 3. Could purposeful brands—even if perceived to be inauthentic—remind consumers of purposeful activities they have abandoned or could undertake? 4. Might inauthentic brands push people to live more purposefully, by increasing the necessity of acting as a counterbalance? 5. Are there mediators of consumer eudaimonic well-being that are more sensitive to inauthenticity than others? 6. How can companies successfully communicate the authenticity of their brand purpose?
Brand self-authenticity	1. Do purposeful brands appear to have stronger, more consistent identities? 2. Do people humanize or anthropomorphize purposeful brands more than less purposeful brands? 3. If brand self-authenticity makes companies appear more human, do consumers feel more social connectedness, or less isolation, when brands they use frequently are true to their sense of self?
Brand credibility	1. To what extent is consumer acceptance of brand purpose related to perceptions of brand credibility? 2. What are the most effective ways for brands to build a purpose that is credible? 3. What is the role of proper communication in building credibility? 4. What is the role of social impact outcomes and achievements? 5. Does credibility in areas unrelated to purpose make brands appear more credible in general, such that even if they are in unrelated areas, they bolster perceptions of the company's value authenticity?
Commitment to purpose	1. Are purposeful brands seen as more committed, compared to brands with less central CSR initiatives? 2. What are more and less effective ways to enact commitment and communicate it to consumers? 3. Are there additional ways in which commitment, brand credibility, brand self-authenticity, and value authenticity are interrelated?
Consumer-value congruence	1. How strongly must a brand's purpose match with a consumer's core values? Does this vary for different key processes to well-being? 2. Can brand purpose be used by consumers to signal their own virtue regardless of consumer-value congruence? 3. Does consuming a brand with low consumer-value congruence bolster self-esteem as much as or less than high congruence? 4. How do consumers decide whether brand purpose matches their own purpose? How close must the congruence be for a self-brand connection or brand relationship to form? 5. Are there individual differences that determine the extent of consumer-value congruence required?
Brand-purpose proximity	1. How do consumers make judgments about brand-purpose fit? 2. How much brand-purpose proximity is necessary for brand purpose to have desired consumer well-being and marketing KPI effects? 3. How is this different for brand purpose compared to other, more superficial CSR undertakings? 4. How close must the congruence be for a self-brand connection or brand relationship to form? 5. How close must the congruence be to evoke other-focuses emotions, such as admiration, inspiration, and gratitude?
Favorable marketer outcomes	1. How does brand purpose affect consumers' cognitions and feelings about the brand? 2. How does brand purpose affect consumers' attitudes, purchase intentions, and choice behavior toward the brand? 3. Does brand purpose lead to stronger brand loyalty, perhaps as a result of self-brand connections and/or strong brand relationships? 4. Does brand purpose lead to increased positive word of mouth and other brand evangelism behaviors? 5. Does brand purpose lead to greater sales and profits for the firm? Over what time horizon? 6. Do the five mediators proposed above also mediate the relationship between brand purpose and favorable marketer outcomes? 7. Do the many moderators propose above have an effect on the relationship between brand purpose and favorable marketer outcomes?

Self-acceptance/achieving one's true self

This concept reflects the "daimon" in eudaimonic well-being: the discovery and development of one's true self. Ryan and Deci (2001) have identified autonomy to be an important contributor to well-being, where autonomy is the desire to be causal agents of one's own life and act in harmony with one's integrated self. We also include the ideas of self-acceptance and personal growth from Ryff's set of eudaimonic well-being traits in this construct. Self-acceptance is possessing a positive attitude about oneself, accepting multiple aspects of the self, and feeling positive about one's past life (Ryff, 2014). Personal growth is seeing oneself as growing and expanding, with a sense of continued development (Ryff, 2014). It includes being open to new experiences, seeing one's own potential, seeing self-improvement over time, in ways that reflect more self-knowledge and effectiveness. Thus, progress toward and achievement of self-acceptance and personal growth are related to eudaimonic well-being.

At the most superficial level, consuming brands with a purpose may bolster consumers' self-acceptance.

Consumers can feel good about themselves because they choose brands they believe are doing good in the world. Consumption of brands with purpose may also help consumers achieve self-identity goals, constructing and reinforcing their self-concepts. Over time, a meaningful connection between the consumer and the purposeful brand may grow. Here, part of the value of the brand comes from its ability to symbolize important components of self-identity, such as what one finds meaningful (e.g., Belk, 1988; Csikszentmihalyi & Rochberg-Halton, 1981). When brands serve this symbolic function, they become part of the extended self and go from being thought of as "mine" to being thought of as "me" (Belk, 1988). Brands with purpose may become incorporated into consumers' self-concepts as they use the brand to construct and/or strengthen their self-identity around their own purpose, the meaning in their lives, or simply being virtuous people, as well as communicate these aspects of identity to other consumers, as a form of self-expression. In particular, consumers' moral identities, defined as the importance of morality to a person's identity, are relevant here (Reed et al., 2007). Consumers with strong moral identities may be particularly interested in purposeful brands and more likely to incorporate purposeful brands into their identities. The resulting self-brand connections may help consumers achieve their true self, as they symbolize consumers' individual purpose and meaning in life (Escalas, 2004; Escalas & Bettman, 2017), and may help to enhance the scope and strength of the consumer's own purpose.

Clearly, self-brand connections are not formed exclusively with brands that have a purpose. But purposeful brands may be a particularly rich source of meaning for self-identity construction and confirmation. Self-brand connections may develop as a consequence of a purposeful brand's ability to represent the important domains upon which a person bases self-worth. Crocker and Wolfe (2001) define a contingency of self-worth "as a domain or category of outcomes on which a person has staked his or her self-esteem" (p. 594). One's view of one's worth depends on perceived successes and failures in important domains, with higher self-worth when there are many perceived successes and few perceived failures. Thus, brands with a purpose can achieve social impact broadly, but can also bolster consumers' self-esteem.

Another way to think about brand purpose's effect on self-acceptance is to consider these self-worth contingencies as reflections of people's values. People build self-esteem and find their true selves by living in a manner that is consistent with and reflective of their values, such as caring for others or respecting the environment. A brand with a congruent purpose can serve as a symbol of an important value that is central to one's self-concept, thereby creating and bolstering self-worth. Thus, self-brand connections based on shared values with a brand whose purpose resonates with consumers' beliefs and values may help them achieve well-being.

Many questions for future research arise from this discussion of the relationships between brand purpose and the human need for self-discovery and acceptance. Consumer psychology research has shown that when self-identity is threatened, consumers engage in restorative behavior (e.g., Townsend & Sood, 2012; White et al., 2012). Consumers bolster an aspect of self-identity to mitigate the need for self-repair. Will threats to consumers' sense of self lead to compensatory consumption of purposeful brands, which enable consumers to bolster their purposeful identities and self-esteem? Future research might also explore the marketing actions brands with a purpose can take to enhance consumer well-being, as well as their own success. For example, given the positive effect self-brand connections can have on identity creation and communication and thus psychological well-being, are there things that purposeful brands can do to facilitate these connections? Clear statements of purpose by brands may allow consumers to build links between themselves, brands, and transcendent purpose. Additionally, providing consumers with clear success metrics about how the brand has achieved impact in the world at large may enhance self-brand connections and enable consumers to feel more self-acceptance and achievement of their true selves. (See Table 1 for a summary of these questions for future research.)

Positive relationships

Nearly, all the theories of psychological well-being include interpersonal relationships as an important component (e.g., Diener et al., 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff, 2014). Positive relationships are one of the elements of eudaimonic well-being in Ryff's (2014) model, which, as defined by Ryff (2014), consists of warm, satisfying, trusting relationships with others; concern about the welfare of others; being capable of strong empathy, affection, and intimacy; and understanding the give and take of human relationships (Ryff, 2014). Ryan and Deci (2001) have identified relatedness to be an important contributor to self-worth, where relatedness is defined as the will to interact with, be connected to, and experience caring for others.

Brands with a purpose can help consumers achieve positive relationships in a number of ways. It has been well-documented in consumer research that consumers form relationships with brands (Fournier, 1998). Further, research has shown that consumers benefit from such relationships with brands in many similar ways as interpersonal relationships, which may provide consumers with a wide variety of relationship benefits such as helping consumers resolve and achieve life themes, cultivate their self-concepts, manage their identities, and extend their network of relationships (Fournier, 1998). Consumers may be especially likely to form relationships with brands with a purpose, because of their ability

to help consumers find or pursue their own purpose and perceive their lives as meaningful, as described above. Additionally, brands with a purpose are especially likely to provide relationship benefits such as resolving life themes and managing self-identities because brand purpose is part of the meaning structure and identity of the brand. These consumer–brand relationships are likely to be stronger and higher in intensity than brand relationships built on less meaningful considerations, such as personal status or perceived brand quality.

However, as brand relationships are with an intangible object, rather than a real person, they may not be able to meet all of consumers' need for human intimacy. Thus, the notion of para-social relationships may feed into consumers' illusion that they are actively involved in a relationship with a brand: Para-social relationships are one-sided relationships that a consumer establishes, often with a media figure (Horton & Richard Wohl, 1956), leading to a false sense of intimacy. The appeal of para-social relationships is the hope of meeting affiliation needs (Escalas & Bettman, 2017). However, research on whether para-social relationships actually meet these needs is divided (Rubin et al., 1985). Thus, the evidence for brand relationships positively contributing to consumer eudaimonic well-being is mixed.

Another form of consumption-based relationship is brand communities. A brand community is a "specialized, non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of social relationships" (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001, p. 412). Purposeful brands are a likely center around which a brand community can grow because they provide consumers with purpose and meaning. Muniz and O'Guinn (2001) found that communal interaction provides wider social benefits to brand community members, and, in some cases, these communities actually serve to strengthen family and other interpersonal ties. Further, the sense of moral responsibility found in brand communities, that is, a sense of duty to the community as a whole, and to individual members of the community (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001), may give rise to eudaimonic well-being.

A number of questions for future research emerge from our discussion of the relationships between brand purpose and the human need for meaningful relationships that contribute to eudaimonic well-being. For one thing, do consumers form relationships with purposeful brands at a rate equal to or greater than brands without such aspirations? Do these consumer-purposeful brand relationships meet consumer needs for human intimacy? Could the long-run impact of these relationships be detrimental to the number of meaningful human relationships consumers form? What is the likelihood that brand communities form around brands with a purpose? Are there differences between these communities and those of other (less purposeful) brands? One might imagine that the community is primarily purpose-focused, and the brand may be but one member of the community,

though perhaps the brand may take on particular roles in building and growing the community. These communities may be connected in a deeper way than other brand communities, given their important sense of purpose. Do consumers satisfy their need to express concern for others by using brands with a purpose? And finally, our focus throughout this review has been primarily on individual well-being. Are there ways in which brand purpose, perhaps though relationships, or perhaps in other ways, can enhance collective well-being? (See Table 1 for a summary of these questions for future research.)

Other-praising emotions

While our first four mediators are grounded in the theoretical components of eudaimonic well-being, here we focus on a specific set of potential emotional responses to purposeful brands—other-praising, or self-transcendent, emotions. As positive psychology has sought to reframe understanding of human flourishing and potential, a related movement has sought to deepen understanding of positive emotions beyond happiness (Algoe & Haidt, 2009). One element of this approach has focused on positive emotional responses prompted by witnessing excellence in others. This set of other-praising emotions includes moral elevation, gratitude, and admiration (Shiota et al., 2014). To this set, we also add inspiration. Together, research has shown that these emotions cause individuals to transcend the self, drawing attention to things greater than personal concerns and limits. They help individuals notice positive qualities in others and motivate action in ways that create or strengthen relationships, particularly with virtuous or skillful actors (Algoe & Haidt, 2009), and thus serve to promote personal well-being. These characteristics may make these emotions particularly relevant to understanding how consumers might respond to, and achieve eudaimonic well-being from, purposeful brands. We consider whether and when consumers might feel these types of other-praising emotions in response to purposeful brands, what makes one or another specific emotion more or less likely, and how those discrete emotional responses might impact downstream consumer behavior. We also note that in response to genuinely purposeful brands, consumers might feel a blend or mixture of these, and perhaps other, emotions.

Moral elevation

Moral elevation is a feeling that occurs when an individual witnesses acts of virtue or moral goodness, including acts of charity, gratitude, fidelity, generosity, or other strong displays of virtue (Algoe & Haidt, 2009; Haidt, 2003; Keltner & Haidt, 2003). It is a distinctive feeling of warmth and expansion and is accompanied

by affection, and even love, for the other whose exemplary behavior is being observed and appreciated. When felt, it can lead to behavioral changes, sparking action tendencies to merge with, open up to, and to care for the needs and interests of others—that is, to encourage self-transcendence (Haidt, 2000, 2003). Research has shown that individuals who experience moral elevation are more likely to want to help others, to make charitable donations, are more likely to include prosocial, self-transcendent behaviors in their own life goals, to want to emulate role models, and to pursue eudaimonic motives (Algoe & Haidt, 2009; Huta & Ryan, 2010; Thompson & Siegel, 2013). Some CSR literature has suggested that reading about a company's socially responsible initiatives can provoke feelings of elevation (Romani & Grappi, 2014). We suggest that interacting with purposeful brands may produce even higher feelings of moral elevation toward the brand, because its purpose is a central and integral part of the brand's identity and meaning structure.

This leads us to a number of potential research questions regarding the degree to which brand purpose might induce feelings of moral elevation among consumers and the downstream consequences of such feelings, both for brands and for consumers themselves. When might consumers experience moral elevation in response to a brand's articulation of purpose or related actions? Is there a path from awareness of brand purpose to moral elevation and enhanced self-brand connection and perhaps even to brand love (Batra et al., 2012)? Does engagement with a purposeful brand work through moral elevation to encourage consumers to engage in self-transcendent actions, and perhaps even aid in the identification of a consumer's own sense of purpose (perhaps via social emulation)? Is there specificity to such self-transcendent emulation—that is, would consumers be more likely to pursue self-transcendence in domains related to the brand's purpose or would the effects be more domain general? Prior research (Aquino et al., 2011) has shown that individuals higher in moral identity centrality experience moral elevation more intensely and are more likely to recall acts of moral goodness. Would consumers who have a strong, broad, self-transcendent purpose be most likely to feel moral elevation in response to a brand's purpose and be more likely to notice such a brand purpose? (See Table 1 for a summary of these questions for future research.)

Gratitude

Gratitude is triggered by an appraisal that one is the beneficiary of another's intentionally and voluntarily provided benefit (McCullough et al., 2001). It has been shown to promote social relationships with responsive others, a desire to "give back" or return the favor to the benefactor (McCullough et al., 2001), to spend

time with the benefactor, and for the feeler of gratitude to "pay forward" the generosity, even to unrelated others (Frederickson, 2004). Gratitude may prompt people to strengthen ties and move beyond exchange relationships into more communal ones (Algoe & Haidt, 2009). Witnessing expressions of gratitude can also provoke feelings of moral elevation (Schnall et al., 2010).

Prior research has found that consumers reward brands that undertake high efforts (Morales, 2005), even when the benefits from the effort are more generalized rather than personally, or uniquely, experienced by the consumer. When consumers feel this effort is controllable by the brand and is undertaken due to a sense of moral responsibility, rather than to enhance persuasion, consumers feel grateful. Other work has suggested that individuals feel gratitude when they benefit from another social actor's prosocial behavior (McCullough et al., 2001) or a brand's CSR efforts (Romani et al., 2013).

Future research questions about gratitude include: Do consumers feel gratitude toward purposeful brands? If so, under what circumstances? Are they more likely to feel gratitude when a brand's prosocial actions are aligned with their own values and sense of purpose, or are any high effort purposeful actions likely to inspire gratitude? When might consumers perceive brand purpose to be a persuasion tactic rather than stemming from a sense of intrinsic motivation or moral responsibility? Do feelings of gratitude make consumers more likely to want to "give back" to the brand, to spend time with that brand, and perhaps to pay forward those acts of generosity to others? Does experiencing gratitude in response to a brand's prosocial behaviors elicit feelings of moral elevation? And if so, do such feelings prompt emulation of the brand's moral excellence? (See Table 1 for a summary of these questions for future research.)

Admiration

While moral elevation is thought to be a response to witnessed acts of moral excellence, admiration is considered to be a response to excellence that is non-moral. Admiration is a feeling of delighted approval of the accomplishment or character of another person (Algoe & Haidt, 2009). It may be particularly evoked when witnessing exceptional skill or talent. Extraordinary and praiseworthy actions attract positive attention and focus, leading to feelings of admiration (Smith, 2000). Admiration emerges from positive upward comparisons and functionally seems to exist to facilitate learning (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001; Smith, 2000). Individuals feeling admiration want to emulate the admired entity, want to work harder to reach their own goals, and report feeling motivated to "do better" (Algoe & Haidt, 2009). Admiration may lead to feelings of inspiration. Since brand purpose is a core component of a brand's identity and guides firm behavior, consumers may feel

admiration toward purposeful brands. The fact that brand purpose is relatively new, and thus out of the ordinary, may heighten feelings of admiration. In this way, brand purpose may motivate consumers to work harder toward their purpose-related goals, enhancing their eudaimonic well-being.

This raises a number of future research questions. Do consumers make positive upward comparisons in response to purposeful brands? Do those comparisons lead to feelings of admiration? Does such admiration translate into consumer desire to emulate the admired brand? And if so, in what ways—is this merely emulation in alignment with the brand's purpose or is the effect more domain general? Does admiration motivate consumers to want to work harder to achieve their own goals or to "do better?" Does admiration of a purposeful brand's engagement with the world inspire consumers? (See Table 1 for a summary of these questions for future research.)

Inspiration

Inspiration is a state characterized by transcendence, evocation, and motivation. Because inspiration can be evoked by a wide variety of highly valued elicitors, rather than by specific or discrete elicitors, it is typically not considered to be an emotion, though it is emotion-laden (Thrash & Elliott, 2003, 2004). It is derived from witnessing the outstanding accomplishments or abilities of others (Thrash & Elliott, 2003) and may be present in experiences of, or a downstream consequence of, elevation, gratitude, or admiration. It is conceived as combining two component processes (Thrash & Elliott, 2004): being inspired *by* one's appreciation of the intrinsic value of an elicitor; and being inspired *to*, which involves the motivation to transmit the qualities exemplified in that elicitor forward. Being inspired *by* requires transcendence, which here refers to gaining an awareness of better possibilities, and evocation. This indicates that responsibility for such transcendence is ascribed to something beyond the self—that is, that one is not directly responsible for becoming inspired, but is rather inspired *by* that something. Being inspired *to* involves an approach motivation that compels one to actualize one's new idea or vision and specifically to extend the valued qualities present in the elicitor. This kind of specificity suggests, for example, that consumers might be inspired *by* a brand's purposeful pursuit of inclusion *to* engage in similar inclusive behavior, rather than a generalized inspiration to do good. This proposed temporal link between the *by* and *to* processes suggests that inspiration highlights something attended to in the present, turning it into related future acts (Thrash, Maruskin, et al., 2010). As such it may be particularly relevant to the ways in which brands might be inspired by events or other actors to take up purpose, or by which consumers might be similarly inspired by brands.

The discussion of inspiration also raises several interesting areas for future research. Are consumers inspired by purposeful brands? Are certain types of purpose or specific paths (proactive, reactive, social learning) to brand purpose more inspirational than others? Are different articulations of purpose more or less inspirational (i.e., purpose in the abstract versus tangible acts and outcomes)? How might brand communication about purpose drive more or less inspiration? Are brand stories a particularly effective way to inspire a purposeful brand's consumers (Bublitz et al., 2016)? Previous research has demonstrated that being inspired *by* promotes a sense of gratitude toward the source of inspiration. Being inspired *to* is associated with a sense of direction and purpose (Thrash, Elliott, et al., 2010; Thrash, Maruskin, et al., 2010). Does a brand's purpose inspire consumers to engage in specific, discrete future actions closely aligned with the brand's purpose? Do these actions feel purposeful to consumers and lead to consumer eudaimonic well-being? (See Table 1 for a summary of these questions for future research.)

POTENTIAL MODERATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BRAND PURPOSE AND CONSUMER EUDAIMONIC WELL-BEING

As mentioned above, none of the positive intermediary outcomes that lead to consumer well-being will arise unless certain conditions exist. We thus propose a series of moderators that when absent may preclude the ability of brand purpose to help consumers identify their purpose, obtain meaning and significance, achieve their true self, contribute to establishing positive relationships, or experience other-praising emotions. We discuss each of these briefly with the goal of inspiring future research into the nature of these moderators with respect to the success of brand purpose in achieving favorable marketer outcomes and, more importantly, consumer eudaimonic well-being.

Consumer trust

Trust is the willingness to be vulnerable to someone or something because of the expectation that they will act in the trustor's best interest (Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight et al., 1998). In order for brand purpose to help consumers attain eudaimonic well-being (as well as to achieve favorable marketer outcomes), consumers must trust the brand. Trust is a foundation for good relationships (Morgan & Hunt, 1994), and many of the mediators of well-being mentioned above (e.g., positive relationships and self-acceptance) may require repeated interactions or close connections between brand and consumer. Future

research could explore how brand purpose impacts consumer trust, both in trust formation and in testing established trust. Does the scope, strength, or accessibility of a brand's purpose best influence the process by which trust is formed? If a brand were to violate consumers' trust, even in an unrelated area such as poor product performance, how would it impact perceptions of that brand's purpose? Conversely, how might that brand's purpose affect how consumers perceive the violation? Research should confirm and explore the relationship between trust and these mediators of well-being. When might people develop their own purpose using brands' purpose as examples (i.e., as a source of social learning)? How might brand trust influence that potential impact?

One of the key extensions of the definition of trust has been the study of "trusting beliefs," or the perceptions trustors must have of trustees to expect they will act in the trustor's best interests (McKnight et al., 2002). For trust to occur, trustors must believe that the trustee is benevolent (motivated by caring, or willing to act in the trustor's best interest); integrous (honest and willing to keep promises); and competent (capable of giving the trustor what they might need) (McKnight et al., 2002). Future research could explore the relationship between brand purpose and these trusting beliefs. For example, does brand purpose influence the formation of trust? And, if so, which belief(s) are affected most by the presence of brand purpose? Are any of these changes to trusting beliefs more enduring? Are these beliefs differentially impactful on the relationship between brand purpose-based trust and consumer well-being? What is the relationship between gratitude (the perception that one is the recipient of another's beneficence) and trust (a construct involving the beliefs that others are benevolent and integrous)? Can incidental gratitude hasten the establishment of brand trust? Can brand trust make people feel grateful in response to brand actions?

Alternatively, trust also can form based on shared identities, rather than on personality perceptions. Researchers have demonstrated repeatedly that people trust each other more when they are part of an in-group (Brewer & Silver, 2000), a phenomenon known as depersonalized trust. In-group members may trust each other either because common membership implies strong reciprocity norms (Tanis & Postmes, 2005) or because they see each other as extensions of their sense of self (Tajfel & Turner, 2003). As brand purpose signals the brand's values and beliefs, it may foster self-brand connections or perceptions of in-group membership, thus building depersonalized trust. The link between brand purpose and depersonalized trust offers a host of opportunities for future research. If depersonalized trust occurs because there are strong reciprocity norms in in-groups, does this mean that consumers feel more indebted to purposeful brands they trust, and does that have negative implications for consumer well-being? What aspects of brand purpose might impact depersonalized trust, instead of

trust based on benevolence, integrity, and competence? Under what circumstances might depersonalized trust have a stronger impact on well-being than trust based on trusting beliefs?

Consumer trust is clearly important for brand purpose to lead to favorable marketer outcomes and consumer well-being. However, there are many constructs that can impact trust, including brand authenticity, brand credibility, and commitment to purpose.

Brand authenticity

Researchers have conceptualized authenticity in myriad ways, which Newman and Smith (2016) distill into four categories: historical authenticity (an object's veridity to the time period in which it purportedly originates); categorical authenticity (an object's veridity to one's conceptualization of an overarching category to which it belongs); value authenticity (the extent to which someone is intrinsically motivated in pursuing a morally virtuous goal, and not an ulterior motive such as greed); and self-authenticity (how true an entity is to its sense of self). Of those four categories, we believe value authenticity and self-authenticity are most relevant to brand purpose and consumer eudaimonic well-being, as explained in the sections below.

Value authenticity

The concept of value authenticity—the extent to which the firm is perceived to be intrinsically motivated in pursuing a virtuous goal—encompasses most papers that have been written about authenticity in the context of corporate social responsibility. CSR researchers have been concerned with this because perceived value inauthenticity can negate any positive company-focused benefits of CSR campaigns, or even backfire (McShane & Cunningham, 2012). The negative consequences of value inauthenticity in CSR initiatives would likely extend to inauthenticity in brand purpose because both are ideally motivated by moral virtue. Consumers might denounce purposeful brands, just as they have brands with CSR initiatives, if they think purpose is based on self-interest (Bhattacharjee et al., 2017). They might even perceive purposeful firms more negatively than firms with no prosocial programs if those firms are behaving inauthentically (Newman & Cain, 2014). In fact, the consequences of value inauthenticity might be even more severe in purposeful brands. Purpose is supposed to transcend profits, while CSR is secondary to profit, and therefore, consumers may be more likely to accept that brands use CSR initiatives to benefit themselves. Inauthenticity, then, may violate expectations more in purposeful brands, causing consumer backlash.

Future research might examine the extent to which consumer acceptance of brand purpose is related to perceptions of the brand's value authenticity. This is particularly pressing for brands that consumers use to construct and communicate their identities. While value inauthenticity could negatively impact purposeful brands directly, it may also negatively impact the mediators of consumer well-being posited earlier. Are some mediators more sensitive to value inauthenticity than others? How does value authenticity impact the extent to which brand purpose inspires someone to create a purpose of their own, or whether brand purpose reminds consumers of purposeful activities they have abandoned or could undertake? Might value inauthenticity itself push people to live more purposefully, by increasing the necessity of acting as a counterbalance? Future research can investigate how brands can authentically pursue and successfully communicate the authenticity of their purpose.

Value authenticity may moderate purpose's effect on well-being directly, or indirectly by affecting trust. The concept of authenticity mirrors the trusting belief of integrity: Feeling someone consistently lives a purpose, without deception or ulterior motive, by definition means they are truthful, and implies they keep their promises. Value authenticity may also affect the trusting belief of benevolence because inauthenticity in consumer literature is treated as a sign that companies are self-interested. This relationship is not certain though: Someone may be deceptive to protect others (Levine & Schweitzer, 2015), and some purposes may appear more self-sacrificial than others. Future research could elucidate these relationships. Value authenticity might also affect eudaimonic well-being through emotions: Consumers may respond with negative emotions when they perceive that a brand's purpose lacks authenticity, including disappointment and other-condemning emotions like anger, contempt, disgust, and outrage. These negative reactions to inauthenticity may prevent the formation of positive emotions which foster well-being.

Brand self-authenticity

Self-authenticity in Newman and Smith (2016)'s typology occurs when people feel they act in accordance with their true sense of self. True self-authenticity occurs when people consistently act in character and do not engage in impression management (Vannini & Franzese, 2008). People perceive others to be self-authentic if they uniquely embody a set of traits and display them consistently over time (Moulard et al., 2016).

While the self-authenticity literature largely examines authenticity in individuals, brands have their own personalities, value associations, and identities (Aaker, 1997); therefore, brands can also be judged based on self-authenticity, which we refer to as brand self-authenticity. Purposeful firms, per our definition,

make their brand purpose a central, predominant component of their identity, engaging with it over the long term. Purpose may give or enhance a brand's own distinctive identity, to which it must also stay true, both of which constitute the criteria for self-authenticity (Moulard et al., 2016). Therefore, true purpose increases brands' self-authenticity, and doubts about a brand's self-authenticity may negatively influence perceptions of its purpose.

In contrast, brand self-authenticity might not be an issue for CSR initiatives, which may be of secondary importance to profit making for brands. As a secondary endeavor, CSR initiatives do not even need to be directly related to their company's identity and may thus have a weaker relationship with brand self-authenticity.

Brand self-authenticity is important for purpose to influence consumer well-being. Authenticity is associated with salient, fundamental meanings and social categorizations (Gergen, 1991), meaning that self-authentic brands are easier to understand and categorize. To that end, brand self-authenticity may have a positive effect on depersonalized trust, because people adopt shared identities as a function of how easily they can categorize themselves and others by their identities (Brewer, 2008). This sparks several questions for future research. For example, if brand purpose makes it easier for people to understand the brand's identity, consumers might more easily determine identity commonalities and relevance, with similarity being a determinant of relationship quality (Smith, 1998). Do purposeful brands appear to have stronger, more consistent identities? Similarly, do people humanize or anthropomorphize purposeful brands more than less purposeful brands? If brand self-authenticity makes companies appear more human, do consumers feel more social connectedness, or less isolation, when brands they use frequently are true to their sense of self? This last question may elucidate how brand self-authenticity relates to some of the mediators mentioned above, as social connectedness has a positive impact on self-esteem and self-acceptance (Ryan & Deci, 2001). It may also affect how well consumers find their own purpose: Morhart et al. (2015) posits that as part of being perceived as authentic, brands that reflect values consumers consider important may help construct who they are.

Brand credibility

Brand credibility describes the confidence a customer has that a brand will deliver what it promises (Erdem & Swait, 2004). Brand credibility has also been described as a signal of quality and product position (Erdem & Swait, 1998), with the credibility of the brand signal conceptualized as the believability of the product position information contained in a brand (Erdem & Swait, 2004). Osterhus (1997) suggested that brand

credibility overwhelmingly results in positive outcomes for prosocial positioning strategies, if communicated properly.

Credibility makes brands more trustworthy by making them seem more integrous, the trusting belief that brands will keep their promises. Credibility is also related to value authenticity—which is not simply lacking any deception or ulterior motives; it is also being intrinsically motivated by the purpose. If consumers do not believe a brand's promises, they may not believe the firm is intrinsically motivated by the work (Deci & Ryan, 2000). While under-researched (Silver et al., 2021), credibility is a highly relevant inference for value authenticity and trust; through these, brand credibility may impact brand purpose.

A number of directions for future research emerge around the notion of brand credibility. For example, to what extent is consumer acceptance of brand purpose related to perceptions of brand credibility? What are the most effective ways for brands to build a purpose that is credible to consumers and internal stakeholders? Is proper communication all that is needed? What about the role of social impact outcomes and achievements? Brands can be credible in other areas, such as credibility of product claims. Does credibility in those areas make brands appear more credible in general, such that even if they are credible in unrelated areas, they bolster perceptions of the company's value authenticity?

Commitment to purpose

Dwyer et al. (1987) defined commitment as "an implicit or explicit pledge of relational continuity between exchange partners" (p. 19). There are several factors which influence perceived commitment, including the investment of large amounts of resources, the durability of the relationship, and the consistency of resources devoted to the relationship (Dwyer et al., 1987).

Prior to this section, we discussed value authenticity, brand self-authenticity, and credibility as potential moderators of brand purpose's effects on well-being. Sincere commitment fundamentally impacts all three moderators. L'etang (1994) and Webb and Mohr (1998) both find more committed firms are seen as having better intentions, and as being less likely to exploit the cause. Commitment to a cause is also a signal that brands are internally motivated (Sheldon et al., 2003). Commitment, then, is positively related to value authenticity. Commitment is also a necessary component for self-authenticity: People perceive others to be self-authentic not only by uniquely embodying a specific set of traits, but by displaying them consistently over time (Moulard et al., 2016). Highly committed people more reliably devote energy into relationships; thus, any promises made by highly committed brands will be seen as more credible. Finally, while commitment and trust are generally considered separate constructs, they are both necessary for forming relationships (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Future research can explore what steps brands can take to demonstrate their commitment to their purpose. By having a purpose, are brands perceived as being more committed, compared to brands with CSR initiatives? Purpose can be characterized by scope, strength, and accessibility (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009). Future research might examine which of these affects perceived commitment most. Perceived strength of purpose might affect perceptions of commitment, but this might only be of secondary importance, since people must readily know the brand has this purpose (accessibility). Is tangible evidence or purposeful impact important to establish commitment for purposeful brands? The interrelationships between commitment, brand credibility, brand self-authenticity, and value authenticity should also be studied in greater detail.

Consumer-value congruence

When there is congruence between a brand's stated purpose and the core values of the consumer, then the consumer will be more likely to identify with the brand. Many of the mediating processes depend specifically on a match between the values encapsulated in the brand's purpose and those espoused by the consumer. Consumers may likely be drawn to brands that share, or are aligned with, their own purpose and important goals in life. Their consumption activities will be more likely to bring meaning to their lives, develop self-brand connections (to help construct their true self), and join a brand community (form positive relationships) if the brand purpose is congruent with their own core beliefs. While global self-esteem may be enhanced by using any brand that purports to do good, in order for consumers to make progress toward achievement of their value-based goals (reflecting their purpose and contributing to meaning and significance), there likely needs to be a match between the consumer's personal values and the brand's purpose. Furthermore, this congruence must be based on consumer perceptions; thus, the brand's actions and communications of purpose play a significant role in the subjective interpretation of consumer–brand value congruence.

Future research in this area could explore to what extent consumer-value congruence is needed for purposeful brands to contribute to consumer well-being. It is most likely needed in some form for more concrete and enduring well-being benefits. How do consumers decide whether brand purpose matches their own values? How close must the congruence be for a self-brand connection or brand relationship to form? Research could also explore whether there are individual differences in how closely a brand's purpose must match with a consumer's core values or a consumer's own purpose in order to be effective.

Brand-purpose proximity

Marketers have studied the concept brand-cause proximity, defined as the fit between the brand and a supported cause (Nan & Heo, 2007). Here, we extend this notion to the fit between the brand's identity and its purpose. This expansion is vital to the notion of brand purpose: As mentioned above, purpose is incorporated into the identity and meaning structure of the brand. It must, therefore, have a clear connection to the ethos of the brand. Variations in brand-purpose proximity may still exist in this context and thus may moderate the relationship between purpose and consumer eudaimonic well-being.

Research on brand-cause proximity reveals mixed results (Gürhan-Canli & Fries, 2010). For example, Ellen et al. (2000) found that offers judged as less congruent were evaluated marginally more positively than congruent offers. However, in general, brand-cause proximity has been shown to have a favorable effect on the relationship between a brand adopting a cause and favorable marketer outcomes. Brand-cause proximity leads consumers to perceive the company as more expert and transfer positive feelings about the cause to the company (e.g., Hoeffler & Keller, 2002). Similar to the research on the importance of congruence between a brand's symbolic meaning and its marketing communications activities (Escalas & Bettman, 2017; McCracken, 1990), brand-purpose proximity should have important implications for the success of brand purpose endeavors. For example, brand-purpose proximity has implications for the perceived integration of the brand's purpose with its identity and meaning structure by consumers. Brand-purpose proximity also contributes to consumers' trust in the brand because it renders the brand's purposeful actions as authentic, credible, and sincere. Greater proximity between brand and purpose might have a positive impact on brand self-authenticity, in that it provides more opportunities for brands to behave in accordance with its unique set of traits. However, low proximity might not negatively impact brand self-authenticity unless acting on the purpose directly contradicts the brand's symbolic meaning. Therefore, brand-cause proximity is related to, but separate from, brand self-authenticity.

A number of questions emerge around the idea of brand-purpose proximity and brand purpose. First, how do consumers make judgments about brand-purpose fit? Next, how strong must brand-purpose proximity be for brand purpose to have desired consumer well-being effects? How about desired marketing outcomes? How is this different for brand purpose compared to more traditional CSR undertakings? Based on our definition of brand purpose, there must be some minimum threshold of brand-purpose proximity in order to qualify as brand purpose at all, given the identity and meaning components of purpose. How close must the congruence be for a self-brand connection or brand relationship to form? Similarly, how close must the congruence be to evoke other-focused emotions, such as admiration, inspiration, and gratitude?

CONCLUSION

Recently, high-profile business leaders have called for brands to articulate and act with purpose. A variety of research reports have suggested that consumers, likewise, increasingly expect brands to be purposeful. In response, many brands have undertaken efforts to define, articulate, communicate, and act according to their brand purpose. These efforts, and the calls that motivate them, seem to expand beyond the scope of more traditional CSR frameworks and practices. The emphasis on purpose seems to place these efforts more directly at the center of a brand's meaning structure and long-term strategy, rather than as a separate, adjacent domain or short-term prosocial promotional activity. Notably, the language used in calling for and in articulating brand purpose is often more explicitly aligned with the psychological literature on human purpose than with the language of marketing or brand strategy. However, it remained unclear what brand purpose is or could be.

In this research review, we have sought to define the concept of brand purpose and explore its potential impact upon consumer well-being, by drawing upon the literature on human purpose. That work increasingly conceptualizes purpose as an important component of a meaningful life—a north star—that is a central, predominant component of one's identity, which offers motivational direction and guides the allocation of finite personal resources over time toward things that are at once meaningful to the self and self-transcendent. We review literature that characterizes human purpose according to its scope, strength, and accessibility, as well as by the paths that individuals might take to identify their purpose (proactive, reactive, or via social learning), and the various benefits that purpose offers for human flourishing.

Building upon this foundation, we propose a definition of brand purpose that goes beyond current popular definitions and beyond CSR (e.g., the "obligations of the firm to society," (Lichtenstein et al., 2004), or a brand's "status and activities with respect to perceived societal obligations," (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001)). We define a brand's purpose as "a long-term, central aim that is a predominant component of its identity, meaning structure, and strategy, which leads to productive engagement with some aspect of the world that transcends the brand's profits."

We suggest that engagement and connections with authentically purposeful brands may help consumers achieve eudaimonic well-being, contributing to consumers' own purposeful lives. While the large literature on corporate social responsibility (CSR) is relevant to our

work, that work has largely focused on how such initiatives can enhance consumers' connections with socially active brands in order to enhance the brands' own marketplace performance. Here, we focus on how consumer connection to purposeful brands can benefit the well-being of the consumer, over and above driving the firm's sales and profits, suggesting ways in which future research might examine such impact.

Conceptual framework and directions for future research

In order to guide future consumer psychology research on brand purpose, we have developed a conceptual framework that examines how brand purpose can enhance consumer eudaimonic well-being (Figure 1). In this model, brand purpose may help consumers identify and commit to their own purpose in life, enhance their sense of living meaningful and significant lives, develop self-acceptance and achievement of their true selves, form positive relationships, and experience other-praising emotions. Our framework also proposes a series of important moderators that may play an important role in whether or not brand purpose can favorably influence these key paths to consumer eudaimonic well-being: consumer trust, value authenticity, brand self-authenticity, brand credibility, commitment to purpose, consumer-value congruity, and brand-purpose proximity. The various ways in which these constructs affect the relationship between brand purpose and consumer eudaimonic well-being provide a rich source of ideas for future research, which we have discussed above and summarized in Table 1. Clearly this list is not exhaustive, but merely a start, in the hopes of encouraging consumer psychologists to begin work in this important domain.

Our key downstream area of focus in this research review has been consumer eudaimonic well-being, which we believe to be an important, but understudied, concept in consumer psychology. While we assert that meaningful research in consumer psychology should include a thorough examination of consumer eudaimonic well-being, there are also a number of more traditional marketing dependent variables related to brand purpose that could be explored in future research. These favorable marketer outcomes include consumer judgments (brand attitudes, purchase intentions, etc.), choice behavior, brand loyalty (including brand relationships and self-brand connections discussed above in the context of consumer eudaimonic well-being), and brand evangelism (positive WOM, etc.). All of these outcomes may contribute to company profitability and provide a rich network of more conventional marketing topics for research.

This conceptual framework has implicitly assumed that brand purpose would have the same effect on eudaimonic well-being regardless of the brand that adopts purpose. However, as established earlier, there are no restrictions on what types of companies may adopt purpose, and companies' target consumers may vary substantially in factors like age, gender, profession, and personality. Future research should study how these consumer characteristics influence their reactions to brand purpose, including which types of consumers benefit most from their favorite brands pursuing purposeful activities.

In conclusion, building on the literature on human purpose, we propose that a brand's purpose is a long-term, central aim that is a predominant component of its identity, meaning structure, and strategy, which leads to productive engagement with some aspect of the world that transcends the brand's profits. We hypothesize that brand purpose can have favorable effects not only for a company's strategy and profitability, but also—and more importantly—for the eudaimonic well-being of its consumers. We hope that our review will stimulate future consumer psychology research into brand purpose, a concept that we believe may have a transformative impact on business, consumers, and society.

ORCID
Andrew Morningstar https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1451-0680

REFERENCES
Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *34*, 347–356.

Afdhel, A., & Jones, B. (2021). *Good is the new cool: The principles of purpose*. Conspiracy of Love.

Algoe, S. B., & Haidt, J. (2009). Witnessing excellence in action: The 'other-praising' emotions of elevation, gratitude, and admiration. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, *4*, 105–107.

Allstate. (n.d.). Our shared purpose. https://www.allstatecorporation.com/about/our-shared-purpose.aspx

American Marketing Association. (2022). https://marketing-dictionary.org/b/brand-purpose/

Aquino, K., McFerran, B., & Laven, M. (2011). Moral identity and the experience of moral elevation in response to acts of uncommon goodness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *100*(4), 703–708.

Batra, R., Ahuvia, A., & Baggozzi, R. P. (2012). Brand love. *Journal of Marketing*, *76*(2), 1–16.

Bauer, J. J., McAdams, D. P., & Pals, J. L. (2008). Narrative identity and Eudaimonic well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *9*, 81–104.

Baumeister, R. F. (1991). *Meanings of life*. Guildford.

Baumeister, R. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2005). The pursuit of meaningfulness in Life. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 608–618). Oxford University Press.

Belk, R. W. (1988). Possessions and the extended Self. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *15*, 139–168.

Bhattacharjee, A., Dana, J., & Baron, J. (2017). Anti-profit beliefs: How people neglect the societal benefits of profit. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *113*, 671–696.

Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2004). Doing better at doing good: When, why, and how consumers respond to corporate social initiatives. *California Management Review*, *47*, 9–24.

Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2003). Consumer–company identification: A framework for understanding Consumers' relationships with companies. *Journal of Marketing*, *67*, 76–88.

BlackRock. (n.d.). Where we stand. https://www.blackrock.com/corporate/where-we-stand

Bonebright, C. A., Clay, D. L., & Ankenmann, R. D. (2000). The relationship of Workaholism with work-life conflict, life satisfaction, and purpose in life. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *47*, 469–477.

Boyle, P. A., Buchman, A. S., Barnes, L. L., & Bennett, D. A. (2010). Effect of a purpose in Life on risk of incident Alzheimer disease and mild cognitive impairment in community-dwelling older persons. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, *67*(3), 304–310.

Brewer, M. B. (2008). Depersonalized Trust and Ingroup Cooperation. In J. I. Krueger (Ed.), *Rationality and social responsibility: Essays in honor of Robyn Mason Dawes* (pp. 215–232). Psychology Press.

Brewer, M. B., & Silver, M. D. (2000). Group distinctiveness, social identification, and collective mobilization. In S. Stryker, T. J. Owens, & R. W. White (Eds.), *Self, identity, and social movements* (pp. 153–171). University of Minnesota Press.

Bronk, K. C. (2011). The role of purpose in Life in healthy identity formation: A grounded model. *New Directions for Youth Development*, *132*, 31–44.

Bronk, K. C., & Dubon, V. X. (2016). Approaches to fostering purpose among adolescents in educational settings. *The International Forum for Logotherapy*, *38*(2), 86–93.

Bronk, K. C., Hill, P. L., Lapsley, D. K., Talib, T. L., & Finch, H. (2009). Purpose, Hope, and Life satisfaction in three age groups. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, *4*(6), 500–510.

Brooks, D. (2019). *The Second Mountain: The quest for a moral Life*. Penguin Random House.

Brown, T. J., & Dacin, P. A. (1997). The company and the product: Corporate associations and consumer product responses. *Journal of Marketing*, *61*, 68–84.

Bublitz, M. G., Escalas, J. E., Peracchio, L. A., Furchheim, P., Grau, S. L., Hamby, A., Kay, M., Mulder, M., & Scott, A. (2016). Transformative storytelling: A framework for crafting stories for social change organizations. *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, *35*(2), 237–248.

Burke, L., & Logsdon, J. M. (1996). How corporate social responsibility pays off. *Long Range Planning*, *29*, 495–502.

Burrow, A. L., O'Dell, A. C., & Hill, P. L. (2010). Profiles of a developmental asset: Youth purpose as a context for Hope and well-being. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, *39*, 1265–1273.

Campbell, M. C., & Winterich, K. P. (2018). A framework for the consumer psychology of morality in the marketplace. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *28*(2), 167–179.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1998). *On the Self-regulation of behavior*. Cambridge University Press.

Chamberlain, K., & Zika, S. (1988). Measuring meaning in life: An examination of three scales. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *9*, 589–596.

Chernev, A., & Blair, S. (2021). When sustainability is not a liability: The halo effect of marketplace morality. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *31*(3), 551–569.

Crayola. (n.d.). Brand essence. https://www.crayola.com/about-us/company/brand-essence/

Crocker, J., & Wolfe, C. T. (2001). Contingencies of Self-worth. *Psychological Review*, *108*, 593–623.

Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Rochberg-Halton, E. (1981). *The meaning of things: Symbols in the development of the Self*. Cambridge University Press.

Damon, W., Menon, J., & Bronk, K. C. (2003). The development of purpose during adolescence. *Applied Developmental Science*, *7*(3), 119–128.

Davidson, I. I. I., Wallace, N., & Dutia, D. (1991). Debt, liquidity, and profitability problems in Small firms. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *16*, 53–64.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The 'what' and 'why' of goal pursuits: Human needs and the Self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*, 227–268.

Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Tov, W., Kim-Prieto, C., Choi, D.-w., Oishi, S., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2010). New well-being measures: Short scales to assess flourishing and positive and negative feelings. *Social Indicators Research*, *97*, 143–156.

Dukes, R. L., & Lorch, B. D. (1989). The effects of school, family, Self-concept and deviant behavior on adolescent suicide ideation. *Journal of Adolescence*, *12*, 239–251.

Dwyer, F. R., Schurr, P. H., & Sejo, O. (1987). Developing buyer-seller relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, *51*, 11–27.

Edelman. (2021a). *Edelman Trust Barometer*. Edelman.

Edelman. (2021b). Trust: The new brand equity, 2021 Edelman Trust Barometer Special Report.

Ellen, P. S., Mohr, L. A., & Webb, D. J. (2000). Charitable programs and the retailer: Do they mix? *Journal of Retailing*, *76*, 393–406.

Erdem, T., & Swait, J. (1998). Brand equity as a signaling phenomenon. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *7*, 131–157.

Erdem, T., & Swait, J. (2004). Brand credibility, brand consideration, and choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *31*, 191–198.

Escalas, J. E. (2004). Narrative processing: Building consumer connections to brands. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *14*, 168–180.

Escalas, J. E., & Bettman, J. R. (2017). Connecting with celebrities: How consumers appropriate celebrity meanings for a sense of belonging. *Journal of Advertising*, *46*(2), 297–308.

Fink, L. (2018). Larry Fink's 2018 letter to CEOs: A sense of purpose. https://www.blackrock.com/corporate/investor-relations/2018-larry-fink-ceo-letter

Fink, L. (2019). Larry Fink's 2019 letter to CEOs: Purpose & profit. https://www.blackrock.com/corporate/investor-relations/2019-larry-fink-ceo-letter

Fink, L. (2022). Larry Fink's 2020 letter to CEOs: The power of capitalism. https://www.blackrock.com/corporate/investor-relations/larry-fink-ceo-letter

Fournier, S. (1998). Consumers and their brands: Developing relationship theory in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *24*, 343–373.

Frankl, V. (1963). *Man's search for meaning: An introduction to Logotherapy*. Beacon.

Frederickson, B. L. (2004). Gratitude like other positive emotions, broadens and builds. In R. A. Emmons & M. E. McCullough (Eds.), *The psychology of gratitude* (pp. 145–166). Oxford University Press.

George, L. S., & Park, C. L. (2013). Are meaning and purpose distinct? An examination of correlates and predictors. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, *8*(5), 365–375.

Gergen, K. J. (1991). *The saturated Self: Dilemmas of identity in contemporary Life, in essays and reviews*. Basic Books.

Greenberg, J., Pyszczynski, T., & Solomon, S. (1986). The causes and consequences of a need for Self-esteem: A terror management theory. In R. F. Baumeister (Ed.), *Public self and private Self* (pp. 189–212). Springer.

Gürhan-Canli, Z., & Fries, A. (2010). Branding and corporate social responsibility (CSR). In B. Loken, R. Ahluwalia, & M. J. Houston (Eds.), *Brands and Brand Management: Contemporary Research Perspectives* (pp. 91–109). Psychology Press.

Haidt, J. (2000). The positive emotion of elevation. *Prevention & Treatment*, *3*, 1.

Haidt, J. (2003). The moral emotions. In R. J. Davidson, K. R. Scherer, & H. H. Goldsmith (Eds.), *Handbook of affective sciences* (pp. 852–870). Oxford University Press.

Hamby, A., Tezer, A., & Escalas, J. E. (2022). Significant objects: How Eudaimonic narratives enhance the value of featured products. *Journal of Advertising*, 1–17. https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/00913367.2022.2066035

Heine, S. J., Proulx, T., & Vohs, K. D. (2006). The meaning maintenance model: On the coherence of social motivations. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 10, 88–110.

Heintzelman, S. J. (2018). Eudaimonia in the contemporary science of subjective well-being: Psychological well-being, Self-determination, and meaning in Life. In E. Diener, S. Oishi, & L. Tay (Eds.), *Handbook of well-being*. DEF Publishers.

Hemerling, J., White, B., Swan, J., Kriesman, C. C., & Reed, J. B. (2018). *For corporate purpose to matter You've got to measure it*. Boston Consulting Group.

Henrich, J., & Gil-White, F. J. (2001). The evolution of prestige: Freely conferred deference for enhancing the benefits of cultural transmission. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, 22(3), 165–196.

Hill, P. L., & Turiano, N. A. (2014). Purpose in life as a predictor of mortality across adulthood. *Psychological Science*, 25(July), 1482–1486.

Hoeffler, S., & Keller, K. L. (2002). Building brand equity through corporate societal marketing. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 21, 78–89.

Horton, D., & Richard Wohl, R. (1956). Mass communication and Para-social interaction: Observations on intimacy at a distance. *Psychiatry*, 19, 215–229.

HSBC. (n.d.). Purpose, values, and strategy. https://www.hsbc.com/who-we-are/purpose-values-and-strategy

Huang, M.-H., Cheng, Z.-H., & Chen, I.-C. (2017). The importance of CSR in forming customer–company identification and long-term loyalty. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 31(1), 63–72.

Huta, V., & Ryan, R. M. (2010). Pursuing pleasure or virtue: The differential and overlapping well-being benefits of hedonic and Eudaimonic motives. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 11, 735–762.

Huta, V. (2015). The complementary roles of Eudaimonia and Hedonia and how they can be pursued in practice. In S. Joseph (Ed.), *Positive psychology in practice: Promoting human flourishing in work, health, education, and everyday life* (pp. 159–182). John Wiley & Sons.

Johar, G. V., & Pham, M. T. (1999). Relatedness, prominence, and constructive sponsor identification. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 36(3), 299–312.

Johnson, Z. S., Mao, H., Lefebvre, S., & Ganesh, J. (2019). Good guys can finish first: How brand reputation affects extension evaluations. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 29(4), 565–583.

Kashdan, T. B., & McKnight, P. E. (2009). Origins of a purpose in Life: Refining our understanding of a Life well lived. *Psychological Topics*, 18, 303–316.

Keltner, D., & Haidt, J. (2003). Approaching awe, a moral, spiritual, and aesthetic emotion. *Cognition and Emotion*, 17(January), 297–314.

Kim, M., Yin, X., & Lee, G. (2020). The effect of CSR on corporate image, customer citizenship behaviors, and Customers' long-term relationship orientation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 88, 1–8.

Kinnier, R. T., Metha, A. T., Okey, J. L., & Keim, J. (1994). Adolescent substance abuse and psychological Health. *Journal of Alcohol and Drug Education*, 40, 51–56.

L'etang, J. (1994). Public relations and corporate social responsibility: Some issues arising. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 13, 111–123.

Levine, E. E., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2015). Prosocial lies: When deception breeds trust. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 126, 88–106.

Lewis, N. A., Turiano, N. A., Payne, B. R., & Hill, P. L. (2017). Purpose in Life and cognitive functioning in adulthood. *Aging, Neuropsychology, and Cognition*, 24(6), 662–671.

Lichtenstein, D., Drumwright, M. E., & Braigh, B. M. (2004). The effect of corporate social responsibility on customer donations to corporate-supported nonprofits. *Journal of Marketing*, 68, 16–32.

Malin, H., Reilly, T. S., Quinn, B., & Moran, S. (2014). Adolescent purpose development: Exploring empathy, discovering roles, shifting priorities, and creating pathways. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 24(1), 186–199.

Martela, F., & Steger, M. F. (2016). The three meanings of meaning in Life: Distinguishing coherence, purpose and significance. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 11(5), 531–545.

Maslow, A. H. (1968). *Toward a psychology of being*. Reinhold Publishing.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & David Schoorman, F. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 709–734.

McCracken, G. (1990). *Culture and consumption: New approaches to the symbolic character of consumer goods and activities*. Indiana University Press.

McCullough, M. E., Kilpatrick, S. D., Emmons, R. A., & Larson, D. B. (2001). Is gratitude a moral affect? *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 249–266.

McKnight, D. H., Choudhury, V., & Kacmar, C. (2002). Developing and validating trust measures for E-commerce: An integrative typology. *Information Systems Research*, 13, 334–359.

McKnight, D. H., Cummings, L. L., & Chervany, N. L. (1998). Initial trust formation in new organizational relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 473–490.

McKnight, P. E., & Kashdan, T. B. (2009). Purpose in Life as a system that creates and sustains Health and well-being: An integrative, testable theory. *Review of General Psychology*, 13, 242–251.

McShane, L., & Cunningham, P. (2012). To thine own Self be true? Employees' judgments of the authenticity of their Organization's corporate social responsibility program. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 108, 81–100.

Mogilner, C., Hershfield, H. E., & Aaker, J. (2018). Rethinking time: Implications for well-being. *Consumer Psychology Review*, 1(1), 41–53.

Morales, A. C. (2005). Giving firms an "E" for effort: Consumer responses to high-effort firms. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31, 806–812.

Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 58, 20–38.

Morhart, F., Malär, L., Guèvremont, A., Girardin, F., & Grohmann, B. (2015). Brand authenticity: An integrative framework and measurement scale. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 25, 200–218.

Moulard, J. G., Garrity, C. P., & Rice, D. H. (2016). What makes a human brand authentic? Identifying the antecedents of celebrity authenticity. *Psychology & Marketing*, 32, 173–186.

Muniz, A. M., & O'Guinn, T. C. (2001). Brand Community. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27, 412–432.

Nan, X., & Heo, K. (2007). Consumer responses to corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives: Examining the role of brand-cause fit in cause-related marketing. *Journal of Advertising*, 36, 63–74.

Nazir, O., Islam, J. U., & Rahman, Z. (2021). Effect of CSR participation on employee sense of purpose and experienced meaningfulness: A Self-determination theory perspective. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 46, 123–133.

Neville, S., Adams, J., Montayre, J., Larmer, P., Garrett, N., Stephens, C., & Alpass, F. (2018). Loneliness in men 60 years and over: The association with purpose in Life. *American Journal of Men's Health*, 12(4), 730–739.

Newman, G. E., & Cain, D. M. (2014). Tainted altruism: When doing some good is evaluated as worse than doing no good at all. *Psychological Science*, 25, 648–655.

Newman, G. E., & Smith, R. K. (2016). Kinds of authenticity. *Philosophy Compass*, 11, 609–618.

Newman, K. P., & Brucks, M. (2018). The influence of corporate social responsibility efforts on the moral behavior of high self-brand overlap consumers. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *28*(2), 253–271.

Norton, D. L. (1976). *Personal destinies: A philosophy of ethical individualism*. Princeton University Press.

Osterhus, T. L. (1997). Pro-social consumer influence strategies: When and how do they work? *Journal of Marketing*, *61*, 16–29.

Patagonia. (n.d.). Core values. https://www.patagonia.com/core-values/

Pinquart, M. (2002). Creating and maintaining purpose in Life in old age: A meta-analysis. *Ageing International*, *27*(2), 90–114.

Reed, A., Aquino, K., & Levy, E. (2007). Moral identity and judgments of charitable behaviors. *Journal of Marketing*, *71*(1), 178–193.

REI. (n.d.). Who we are. https://www.rei.com/about-rei

Reiman, J. (2012). *The story of purpose: The path to creating a brighter brand, a greater company, and a lasting legacy*. Wiley.

Romani, S., & Grappi, S. (2014). How companies' good deeds encourage consumers to adopt pro-social behavior. *European Journal of Marketing*, *48*, 943–963.

Romani, S., Grappi, S., & Baggozzi, R. P. (2013). Explaining consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility: The role of gratitude and altruistic values. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *114*, 193–206.

Rubin, A. M., Perse, E. M., & Powell, R. A. (1985). Loneliness, Parasocial interaction, and local television viewing. *Human Communication Research*, *12*(2), 249–259.

Ryan, R. M. (1995). Psychological needs and the facilitation of integrative processes. *Journal of Personality*, *63*, 397–427.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and Eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*, 141–166.

Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *47*, 1069–1081.

Ryff, C. D. (2014). Psychological well-being revisited: Advances in the science and practice of Eudaimonia. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, *83*, 10–28.

Ryff, C. D., & Singer, B. (1998). The contours of positive human Health. *Psychological Inquiry*, *9*(1), 1–28.

Schippers, M., & Ziegler, N. (2019). Life crafting as a way to find purpose and meaning in Life. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *10*, 2778.

Schmitt, B., Josko Brakus, J., & Zarantonello, L. (2015). From experiential psychology to consumer experience. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *25*(1), 166–171.

Schnall, S., Roper, J., & Fessler, D. M. T. (2010). Elevation leads to altruistic behavior. *Psychological Science*, *21*, 315–320.

Seligman, M. E. P. (2002). *Authentic happiness: Using the new positive psychology to realize your potential for lasting fulfillment*. Free Press.

Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology an introduction. *American Psychologist*, *55*(1), 5–14.

Sen, S., & Bhattacharya, C. B. (2001). Does doing good always Lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *38*, 225–243.

Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal well-being: The Self-concordance model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *76*, 482–497.

Sheldon, K. M., Turban, D. B., Brown, K. G., Barrick, M. R., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Applying Self-determination theory to organizational research. In J. J. Martocchio & G. R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. *22*, pp. 357–393). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Shiota, M. N., Thrash, T. M., Danvers, A. F., & Dombrowski, J. T. (2014). Transcending the self: Awe, elevation, and inspiration. In L. D. Kirby, M. N. Shiota, & M. M. Tugade (Eds.), *Handbook of positive emotions*. Guildford Press.

Silver, I., Kelly, B. A., & Small, D. A. (2021). Selfless first movers and Self-interested followers: Order of entry signals purity of motive in pursuit of the greater good. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *31*, 501–517.

Simmons, C. J., & Becker-Olsen, K. L. (2006). Achieving marketing objectives through social sponsorships. *Journal of Marketing*, *70*(4), 154–169.

Sinek, S. (2009). *Start with why: How great leaders inspire everyone to take action*. Penguin Books.

Smith, J. B. (1998). Buyer–seller relationships: Similarity, relationship management, and quality. *Psychology & Marketing*, *15*(January), 3–21.

Smith, R. H. (2000). Assimiliative and contrastive emotional reactions to upward and downward social comparisons. In J. Suls & L. Wheeler (Eds.), *Handbook of social comparison: Theory and research* (pp. 173–200). Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.

Southwest. (n.d.). About Southwest. https://www.southwest.com/html/about-southwest/index.html

Stanwick, P. A., & Stanwick, S. D. (1996). The relationship between corporate social performance and organizational size, financial performance, and environmental performance: An empirical examination. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *17*(2), 195–207.

Steger, M. F., Kashdan, T. B., Sullivan, B. a., & Lorentz, D. (2008). Understanding the search for meaning in life: Personality, cognitive style, and the dynamic between seeking and experiencing meaning. *Journal of Personality*, *76*(2), 199–228.

Steger, M. F., Kawabata, Y., Shimai, S., & Otake, K. (2008). The meaningful life in Japan and the United States: Levels and correlates of meaning in life. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *42*(3), 660–678.

Steger, M. F., Sheline, K., Merriman, L., & Kashdan, T. B. (2013). Using the science of meaning to invigorate values-congruent, purpose-driven action. In T. B. Kashdan & J. Ciarrochi (Eds.), *Mindfulness, acceptance, and positive psychology: The seven foundations of well-being* (pp. 240–266). New Harbinger Publications.

Stengel, J. (2011). *Grow: How ideals power growth and profit at the World's greatest companies*. Crown Business.

Strahilevitz, M., & Meyers, J. G. (1998). Donations to charity as purchase incentives: How well they work may depend on what you are trying to sell. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *24*, 434–446.

Swann, W. B., & Brooks, M. (2012). Why threats trigger compensatory reactions: The need for coherence and quest for Self-verification. *Social Cognition*, *30*, 758–777.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (2003). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In M. A. Hogg (Ed.), *Social psychology* (Vol. *4*, pp. 276–293). SAGE Publications Ltd.

Tanis, M., & Postmes, T. (2005). A social identity approach to trust: Interpersonal perception, group membership and trusting behaviour. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *35*, 413–424.

Templeton Foundation. (2018). *The psychology of purpose*. John Templeton Foundation.

Thompson, A. L., & Siegel, J. T. (2013). A moral act, elevation, and prosocial behavior: Moderators of morality. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, *8*, 50–64.

Thrash, T. M., & Elliott, A. J. (2003). Inspiration as a psychological construct. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*, 871–889.

Thrash, T. M., & Elliott, A. J. (2004). Inspiration: Core characteristics, component processes, antedecents and function. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *87*, 957–973.

Thrash, T. M., Elliott, A. J., Maruskin, L. A., & Cassidy, S. E. (2010). Inspiration and promotion of well-being: Tests of causality and mediation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *98*, 469–487.

Thrash, T. M., Maruskin, L. A., Cassidy, S. E., Fryer, J. W., & Ryan, R. M. (2010). Mediating between the muse and the masses: Inspiration and the actualization of creative ideas. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *98*, 469–487.

Townsend, C., & Sood, S. (2012). Self-affirmation through the choice of highly aesthetic products. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*, 415–428.

Vanhamme, J., & Grobben, B. (2009). 'Too good to be true!': The effectiveness of CSR history in countering negative publicity. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *85*, 273–283.

Vannini, P., & Franzese, A. (2008). The authenticity of Self: Conceptualization, personal experience, and practice. *Sociology Compass*, *2*, 1621–1637.

Vittersø, J. (2016). *Handbook of Eudaimonic well-being*. Springer International Publishing.

Vrbo. (n.d.). Get to Know Vrbo. https://www.vrbo.com/en-ca/l/hello-vrbo/

Walmart. (2021). Walmart Launches 'Built for Better' to Help Customers Show with Purpose. https://corporate.walmart.com/newsroom/2021/09/20/walmart-launches-built-for-better-to-help-customers-shop-with-purpose

Waterman, A. S. (1990). The relevance of Aristotle's conception of eudaimonia for the psychological study of happiness. *Theoretical & Philosophical Psychology*, *10*(1), 39–44.

Waterman, A. S. (1993). Two conceptions of happiness: Contrasts of personal expressiveness (Eudaimonia) and hedonic enjoyment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *64*, 678–691.

Webb, D. J., & Mohr, L. A. (1998). A typology of consumer responses to cause-related marketing: From skeptics to socially concerned. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, *17*, 226–238.

White, K., Argo, J. J., & Sengupta, J. (2012). Dissociative versus associative responses to social identity threat: The role of consumer Self-construal. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*, 704–719.

Wigley, S. (2008). Gauging Consumers' responses to CSR activities: Does increased awareness make cents? *Public Relations Review*, *34*, 306–308.

Xie, C., Bagozzi, R. P., & Grønhaug, K. (2019). The impact of corporate social responsibility on consumer brand advocacy: The role of moral emotions, attitudes and individual differences. *Journal of Business Research*, *95*, 514–530.

Yeager, D. S., Henderson, M. D., Paunesku, D., Walton, G. M., D'Mello, S., Spitzer, B. J., & Duckworth, A. L. (2014). Boring but important: A Self-transcendent purpose for learning fosters academic Self-regulation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *107*(4), 559–580.

Zemack-Rugar, Y., Rabino, R., Cavanaugh, L. A., & Fitzsimons, G. J. (2016). When donating is liberating: The role of product and consumer characteristics in the appeal of cause-related products. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *26*(2), 213–230.