

Corporate Psychological Responsibility: CPR Is Needed

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Corporate Psychological Responsibility (CPR) is the responsibility of an organization to focus on psychological factors that impact employees to create a competitive advantage for all stakeholders (Sweet, 2020). This manuscript seeks to introduce a framework and model for CPR. A literature review of components that impact employees psychologically in motivational theory and in positive organizational behavior was conducted to identify elements that should be managed to become a psychologically responsible organization. Five pillars of CPR are introduced: health and safety, psychological capital, positive relationships, valued rewards, and fair organizational policies/practices. Organizations that take CPR seriously can create a competitive advantage.

Keywords: Corporate Psychological Responsibility (CPR), psychologically healthy workplaces, motivation, psychological capital, motivation theory

INTRODUCTION

With the extraordinary disruption of the COVID-19 pandemic, rising inflation, and diversity and inclusion movements, supporting mental health at work has become important and a socialized corporate responsibility. Organizations are not only being asked to create a physically safe place to work but also a psychologically safe one. “71% of employees believe their employer is more concerned about the mental health of employees now than in the past, and 81% of individuals said they will be looking for workplaces that support mental health when they seek future job opportunities” (APA, 2022). Mental health is beyond physical body chemistry, and “data reveals that mental health problems are associated with several workplace issues, such as compensation failing to keep up with inflation, electronic monitoring of employees, certain groups experiencing discrimination and feeling a lack of acceptance, and some employees even experience toxic or abusive workplaces” (APA, 2022). While many seek ways to overcome these issues (better mental health insurance, EDI policies, flexibility of work, etc.) there is no one term in the literature to discuss this new trend or concept to create these psychologically healthy environments. We propose that Corporate Psychological Responsibility (CPR) become a term to describe this phenomenon. *CPR is the responsibility of an organization to focus on psychological factors that impact employees to create a competitive advantage for all stakeholders (Sweet, 2020).*

In the last decade, we have slowly seen a movement, though recently accelerated, to place a responsibility on organizations to focus not only on physical safety but also on psychological well-being.

The World Health Organization (WHO), American Psychological Association (APA), National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), and The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) recognize the importance of a healthy work environment and have offered definitions and programs to enhance the focus in organizations. It is becoming more evident that employers must also do the same. Kihel and Harbel (2020) explored mental health and security with lean and sustainable enterprises.

The WHO defines health as “a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity” (WHO, 2022). Healthy workplaces are characterized by employees and managers collaborating through a continuous improvement process to protect and promote the health, safety, and well-being of employees and the sustainability of the workplace (Burton & WHO, 2010). The APA emphasizes the psychologically healthy workplace perspective and offers a comprehensive approach that includes five practices that emerge within a psychologically healthy workplace: employee involvement, work-life balance, employee growth and development, employee recognition, and health and safety (Grawitch & Ballard, 2016). Each year, the APA recognizes outstanding PHWPs (Psychologically Healthy Workplaces) according to their definition and framework. The NIOSH implemented the Total Worker Health Framework (NIOSH, 2020), and SHRM offers HR professionals a Workplace Mental Health Ally certificate (SHRM, 2021). These organizations are all emphasizing the need for organizations to focus beyond physical safety to psychological needs, and emphasize the positive impacts that it will have on the outcome of an organization. “Creating a psychologically healthy workplace is not just the right thing to do for employees: it’s also the smart thing to do for an organization’s financial well-being and productivity. A small investment in psychologically healthy work practices can pay big dividends in years to come” (Office of Environment, Health, Safety, and Security, 2022).

While the emphasis on the psychologically healthy workplace has become more prominent, the conversations have been present for decades in academic theories. Extensively published topics in positive organizational behavior and motivational theories can offer psychological factors that impact and resolve problems associated with workplace issues – compensation practices, monitoring employees, acceptance, and workplace environments, for example. Psychological components are at the core of these theories. As scholars, we have segmented topics into literature streams to include mental health. While this segmentation allows for a deeper understanding of each concept in the literature, it does a disservice to practitioners as it does not equate to the complex and integrated reality they function within. Practitioners are looking at their employees and environments with a more holistic view to determine how to manage their environments to engage and maximize each concept. If we were to place this myriad of concepts into one larger topic, a more comprehensive view of managing the psychological health of our workforce would emerge. “Corporate Psychological Responsibility” would offer terminology for exploring and integrating these topics and streams of literature.

CPR is a more comprehensive approach to managing human resources. CPR is significant as it allows a common term to describe the trend toward focusing more on psychologically healthy workplaces. Additionally, it offers a more comprehensive discussion on managing employees and bridges the gap between mental health and other psychological components being researched and managed in today’s workforce.

Positively impacting psychological components that impact employees obviously benefit the employee, but it also benefits the organization with more productive employees. “Efforts to create psychologically healthy workplaces are growing: more CEOs and organizations today are realizing the competitive advantages of a committed and energized workforce” (Burke, 2019). It is, therefore, the responsibility of an organization to not only focus on psychological factors to do what is right for the employee but to focus on and manage these factors for all stakeholders.

Like Corporate Social responsibility, corporate psychological responsibility can create a competitive advantage where employees are more motivated and productive, thereby distinguishing the organization from competitors. This can assist in recruitment and retention efforts, and corporate branding and reputation. CPR is the intersection between doing what is right for the employee and maximizing human resources for positive organizational outcomes. “A wealth of data demonstrates that in the long term,

companies that promote and protect workers' health are among the most successful and competitive, and also enjoy better employee retention rates" (Burton & WHO, 2010).

A literature review of components that impact employees psychologically in motivational theory and in positive organizational behavior was conducted to identify elements that should be managed to become a psychologically responsible organization. Both motivational and positive organizational behavior theories are fundamentally based in psychology, focusing on elements that impact employees psychologically and covering a broad array of factors from the person to the environment. When conducting a literature review, one would find an extensive list of personal and environmental factors that psychologically impact employees. The dynamic relationship between a person and the environment dictates behavior. Suppose we manage the factors in the environment that impact employees psychologically, and focus on personal psychological factors. In that case, we can offer an organization that is psychologically healthy, and ultimately positively influence employee behavior and improve the organization overall.

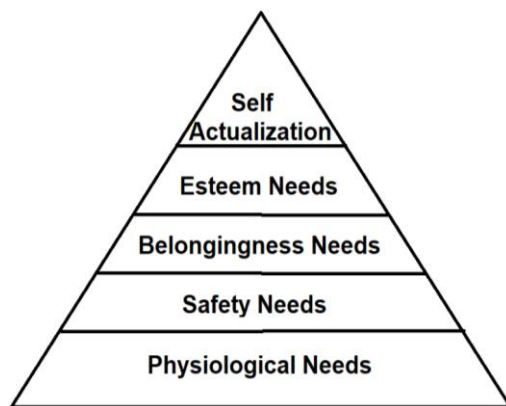
LITERATURE REVIEW

A literature review of components that impact employees psychologically in motivational theory and in positive organizational behavior was conducted to identify elements that should be managed to become a psychologically responsible organization. Thirteen theories were reviewed and factors that impact employees psychologically were coded to form the CPR framework.

Maslow Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow (1943), the grandfather of motivational theory, proposes a hierarchical system, also referred to as Maslow's pyramid, for determining human needs. See Figure 1 for Maslow's Pyramid of Needs for Motivation.

FIGURE 1
MASLOW'S PYRAMID OF NEEDS FOR MOTIVATION



Note. Adapted from Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50(4), 370-395.

The base level of the pyramid consists of basic physiological needs, such as food, water, and sleep (Maslow, 1943). The second level, safety needs, refers to security within an environment (Maslow, 1943). The third stage is the need for belongingness, which includes feeling part of a group and having meaningful connections to other people (Maslow, 1943). The fourth stage is the need for self-esteem, which can be achieved by growth opportunities that make the person feel valued and/or confident (Maslow, 1943). Finally, at the top of the pyramid is self-actualization, or the desire to feel fulfilled (Maslow, 1943). In achieving the other goals on the pyramid, people can feel they have reached their potential and thus pursue what they are meant to be. As needs are partially or fully satisfied, other needs become more prominent motivators (Maslow, 1943, p. 388).

Each level of the hierarchy is important for productivity and psychological health. For example, physiological needs are important for an individual to function on a basic level (Maslow, 1943). As we take this component for granted, we often think of physiological needs not being met only in foreign manufacturing environments where individuals work extensive hours without breaks for water and in a locked environment with unsafe hazardous materials.

However, we must also recognize that physiological needs are often not met in more sophisticated Western societies. When an employee works 50+ hours a week and is exhausted or misses a lunch meal in an effort to not miss a meeting or to be productive, basic physiological needs are not met. Without physiological needs or a safe environment, an individual will be less productive because their priorities will be elsewhere (Maslow, 1943). Employees also need to feel a sense of belongingness. Without strong connections to coworkers, superiors, and the company as a whole, an employee will not be as productive (Maslow, 1943). The need for self-esteem is important for workers because it helps develop abilities that they may need for their respective job (Maslow, 1943). Finally, the need for self-actualization is important in employment because it drives those workers to do their best not just for the company, but for themselves, which will show a higher rate of productivity (Maslow, 1943). Consciously incorporating these five components into a work culture will benefit both the employee and the organization. Each component impacts an employee's psychological health.

McGregor's X and Y Theory of Management

McGregor (1957) highlights two different perspectives of management. The first theory, known as Theory X, emphasizes what is described as the conventional view of management in the 1950s (McGregor, 1957). In particular, Theory X revolves around the idea that management is meant to be a controlling presence, demonstrating active intervention, as man is naturally averse to change, lacks ambition, and does not care for occurrences outside of himself (McGregor, 1957). To achieve this, management working under this theory pursues control (McGregor, 1957). Micromanagement is the result of a Theory X Manager.

The second theory that McGregor (1957) discussed is Theory Y, an alternative to the conventional way of management at that period in time. This theory is meant to evolve an employee's self-control and foster already-present motivational potential (McGregor, 1957). Pursuing this theory includes delegating employees to certain objectives, job enlargement, participation in management decisions, and performance appraisal (McGregor, 1957). Giving employees autonomy and responsibility while also offering feedback is the key component to Theory Y. Both theories focus on managerial frameworks, rather than the viewpoints of the employees. Theory Y helps develop employees' autonomy and self-sufficiency (McGregor, 1957), both which positively impact an employee psychologically.

Alderfer's E.R.G. Theory

E.R.G. Theory refers to the motivational model created by Alderfer (1969) and is an expansion of Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs theory. E.R.G., which stands for existence, relatedness, and growth, does not operate on a hierarchical model but rather a model in which the three needs coexist and feed into each other (Alderfer, 1969). Existence refers to bodily needs, such as food and water, and the need for material things, such as pay and positive working conditions (Alderfer, 1969). The relatedness need encompasses connections with other people, such as managers and coworkers, and relies on exchanges between these people, whether positive or negative (Alderfer, 1969). Finally, the growth need includes "all the needs which involve a person making creative or productive effects on himself and the environment" (Alderfer, 1969, p. 146). This is important to the individual because it requires the use and improvement of that person's skills or other facets thus giving them a sense of purpose (Alderfer, 1969). Existence, relatedness, and growth impact an employee's psychological health and enhance the motivation of the individual, which positively impacts the organization.

Psychological Capital (PsyCap)

Luthans et al. (2004) state that psychological capital (PsyCap) differs from human capital and social capital because it consists of four capacities that focus on “who you are” rather than “what you know” and “who you know” (p. 46). PsyCap is the aggregate of hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism. Confidence, also referred to as self-efficacy, is the belief that an individual has in their abilities (Luthans et al., 2004). The capacity for hope is defined as positive energy that can be channeled in through certain routes or pathways (Luthans et al., 2004). Optimism is how an individual interprets events. Those who interpret setbacks as temporary rather than permanent, and attribute successes to internal forces rather than external forces, are seen as having a positive outlook (Luthans et al., 2004). Finally, resilience refers to the ability of an individual to “bounce back” from adversity (Luthans et al., 2004). PsyCap promotes both profit and productivity by encouraging employees to operate at their full potential, thus making the work output more efficient (Luthans et al., 2004). Hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism are all psychological components and important to organizational success.

Equity Theory

Adams (1963) presents a theory of equity in which a person expects that what they contribute will be comparable to what they receive in return. If these expectations are unmet, the person will try to compensate for the discrepancy (Adams, 1963). For example, if an employee believes that they are being paid too little compared to their colleagues, they will reduce efforts in their work; if they believe that they are being overpaid, however, they will put in more effort (Adams, 1963). Resolving inequities in business settings is important to management because it will redirect the employee’s attention elsewhere and ensure that the work done is proportional to the cost of having the employee (Adams, 1963). Equity Theory is also the foundation of workplace equality, diversity, equity, and inclusion initiatives. When employees feel they are not being treated “fairly” or “equally” it impacts their psychological health.

Expectancy Theory

Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy Theory is based on valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. Valence refers to the value people place on specific rewards, which can be intrinsic and/or extrinsic (Vroom, 1964). Expectancy, similar to confidence, is the belief the employee has that they are capable of achieving the task (Vroom, 1964). Employees who feel confident in their ability are more motivated to fulfill their task. Finally, instrumentality is the trust between the employee and management (Vroom, 1964). Specifically, trust that management will actually reward the employee if they achieve the task. To help employees reach their full potential, management must make sure that the employee values the reward, support is provided to ensure the employee feels confident in completing the task, and trust must exist that the manager will provide the expected reward after task completion (Vroom, 1964). When all three are high – the reward is valued, the employee feels confident, and there is trust in the manager to give the reward – the employee will be highly motivated. If any one of the components of valence, instrumentality, or expectancy is missing, then the employee will not be motivated. Ensuring that the reward is valued, trust between manager and employee is strong, and the employee has the tools and confidence to complete their tasks creates a psychologically healthy environment. Additionally, the organization will be more productive as employees will be more motivated.

Self-Determination Theory

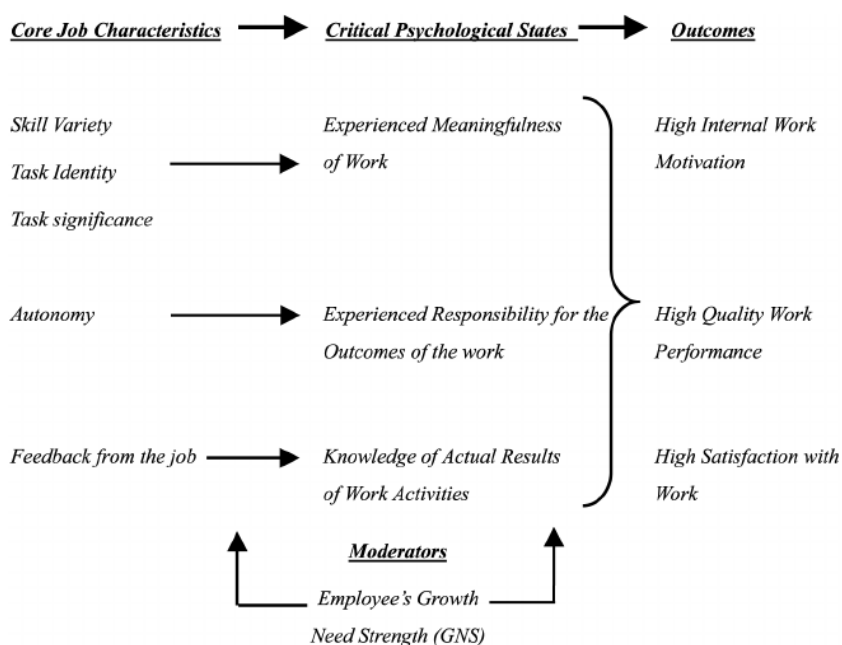
Self-determination theory (SDT) focuses on autonomy, competence, and relatedness as the major factors for human motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This emphasizes the consistency of intrinsic motivators and lack of reliance on reinforcements (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 233). These needs are defined as innate rather than learned and must be fostered to maximize productivity (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 262). Companies can use SDT to develop their employees by providing intellectually stimulating tasks that the employees feel they have control over. This will develop autonomy and competence. Additionally, a positive work environment that promotes interconnectedness among employees and management would positively impact relatedness. Autonomy, competence, and relatedness are factors important to psychological health.

Job Characteristic Model

The Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), as seen in Figure 2, focuses on five job dimensions. These dimensions create psychological states within the employee, leading to personal and work outcomes. The dimensions are separated into three categories: experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for the outcomes, and knowledge of the results (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Experienced meaningfulness consists of the skill variety of the task, the identity of the task and how it relates to the whole, and the significance of the task (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Experienced responsibility relies on autonomy, and knowledge of results depends on feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

When employees experience a variety of skills in their work, have task identity, feel the task is significant, have autonomy, and receive feedback, they experience meaningfulness in their work and ultimately have high work motivation, quality of work, satisfaction, and lower levels of absenteeism. These outcomes positively impact the psychological health of an employee and the organization.

FIGURE 2
THE JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL



Note. Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16(2), 250-279.

Acquired Needs Theory

Acquired Needs Theory (McClelland, 1965) states that humans have the need for power, the need for affiliation, and the need for achievement, and one will usually be a more dominant driver to an employee. Management can use these different psychological needs to facilitate employee productivity and growth by focusing on what the individual values and coordinate tasks to be relevant towards that primary need (McClelland, 1965). Understanding the dominant need of your employee – power, affiliation, or achievement – is integral in assigning tasks that will maintain a high level of motivation.

Self-Efficacy

Efficacy expectations, which are defined by Bandura (1977) as “the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes” can influence an individual’s behavior (p. 193). If an employee has a strong efficacy in completing a task, their behavior will be more productive.

Efficacy expectations are determined by performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1977). These expectancies also differ on the dimensions of magnitude, generality, and strength (Bandura, 1977). Organizations can provide experiences that will lead to success, offer opportunities for live modeling, provide verbal encouragement and instruction, and appeal to emotions to build efficacy. Efficacy, as discussed with Expectancy Theory, is important to the psychological health and motivation of the employee.

Two-Factor Theory of Motivation: Motivator-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg et al. (1959) focus on motivators (satisfiers) and hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) in the Two Factor Theory of Motivation. The motivators compel the individual to do their job effectively and result in high levels of satisfaction, which lead to better work from employees (Herzberg et al., 1959). Hygiene factors are the factors that surround the employee and create employee dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Motivators include the job, rewards, and growth, whereas hygiene factors include environment, company policies, and bonds with co-workers (Herzberg et al., 1959). See Table 1 for a visual display of Herzberg’s Motivator Hygiene Theory. By ensuring that there are proper motivators and positive hygiene factors, employees will be less dissatisfied. Thus, employees will be more satisfied, motivated, and productive.

**TABLE 1
MOTIVATOR AND HYGIENE FACTORS**

Motivators	Hygiene Factors
Meaningful Work	Pay
Challenging Work	Status
Recognition	Working Conditions
Feeling of Achievement	Fringe Benefits
Increased Responsibility	Policies and Admin Practices
Growth Opportunities	Interpersonal Relationships
The Job Itself	Job security

Note. Adapted from Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snydermann B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. New York: Wiley.

Justice Theory

Justice Theory, or organizational justice, is “a personal evaluation of the ethical and moral standing of managerial conduct” (Cropanzana et al., 2007, p. 35). The three components of organizational justice are distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, with each working together to create a productive environment (Cropanzana et al., 2007). Procedural justice refers to how outcomes are reached and can sometimes ease negativity towards the outcomes themselves (Cropanzana et al., 2007). Distributive justice refers to what gets allocated to employees or whether an employee gets their “fair share” (Cropanzana et al., 2007). Interpersonal justice is how someone treats another person (Cropanzana et al., 2007). Justice can help foster productivity by building trust and commitment, improving job performance, fostering employee organizational citizenship behaviors, and building customer satisfaction and loyalty (Cropanzana et al., 2007). To achieve high levels of justice in an organization, management should allow employees to show their merits during the recruiting process, emphasize communication and sincerity regarding pay and downsizing, and focus on proper procedure during conflict and performance appraisals (Cropanzana et al., 2007).

Psychological Empowerment

Psychological empowerment occurs when we feel a sense of meaning, competence, self-determination, and an impact at work (Chung, 2018). Employees want to feel that their work values and goals align with those of their organization, leader, and teams. Employees want to feel they have the ability to do their jobs

well and have control over their work and outcomes. Ultimately, employees desire to make a difference in the organization or community through their work efforts.

Values are integral with psychological empowerment, as the organization and job must appeal to the individual’s personal values (Schwartz, 2012). Psychological empowerment is ideally intrinsic in nature (Li et al., 2015). Aligning an employee’s values with their responsibilities and emphasizing how the outcomes of their work aligns with their values creates a more motivated employee, resulting in positive results for the organization.

Conclusion

Motivational theories and positive organizational behavior theories include factors that impact employees psychologically. These factors include items that can be managed in the environment and identify factors at an individual level. Thirteen theories were analyzed. See Table 2 for a comprehensive list of fifty-five concepts/terms identified; some are unique, while others overlap.

TABLE 2
LIST OF FACTORS THAT IMPACT EMPLOYEES PSYCHOLOGICALLY

Physiological Needs (Maslow, 1943)	Achievement (McClelland, 1965)
Safety (Maslow, 1943)	Performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977)
Belongingness (Maslow, 1943)	Vicarious experiences (Bandura, 1977)
Self-esteem (Maslow, 1943)	Verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1977)
Self-actualization (Maslow, 1943)	Emotional arousal (Bandura, 1977)
Autonomy (McGregor, 1957)	Pay (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Responsibility (McGregor, 1957)	Status (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Feedback (McGregor, 1957)	Security (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Existence (Alderfer, 1969)	Working conditions (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Relatedness (Alderfer, 1969)	Benefits (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Growth (Alderfer, 1969)	Policies and Admin Practices (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Hope (Luthans et al., 2004)	Interpersonal relationships (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Self-efficacy (Luthans et al., 2004)	Meaningful work (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Optimism (Luthans et al., 2004)	Challenging work (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Resilience (Luthans et al., 2004)	Recognition for achievement (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Fairness/Equity (Adams, 1963)	Feeling of achievement (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Expectancy (Vroom, 1964)	Increased responsibility (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Instrumentality (Vroom, 1964)	Opportunity for growth (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Valence (Vroom, 1964)	The job itself (Herzberg et al., 1959)
Autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000)	Distributive justice (Cropanzana et al., 2007)
Competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000)	Procedural justice (Cropanzana et al., 2007)
Relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000)	Interactional justice (Cropanzana et al., 2007)
Skill variety (Hackman & Oldman, 1976)	Meaning (Chung, 2018)
Task identity (Hackman & Oldman, 1976)	Competence (Chung, 2018)
Task significance (Hackman & Oldman, 1976)	Self-determination (Chung, 2018)
Autonomy (Hackman & Oldman, 1976)	Personal values (Schwartz, 1992)
Feedback (Hackman & Oldman, 1976)	
Power (McClelland, 1965)	
Affiliation (McClelland, 1965)	

Note: Factors were identified from the literature review.

DISCUSSION

Of the fifty-five concepts identified, five core themes emerged. These five themes include health and safety, psychological capitals, positive relationships, valued rewards, and fair organizational practices/policies. Each theme includes multiple factors, each theme co-exists, and a hierarchy of significance is noted. These themes create the five pillars of CPR. See Table 3 for a list of themes and factors associated with each, as identified from the literature review.

TABLE 3
FIVE PILLARS AND CONSTRUCTS IN CORPORATE PSYCHOLOGICAL RESPONSIBILITY (CPR)

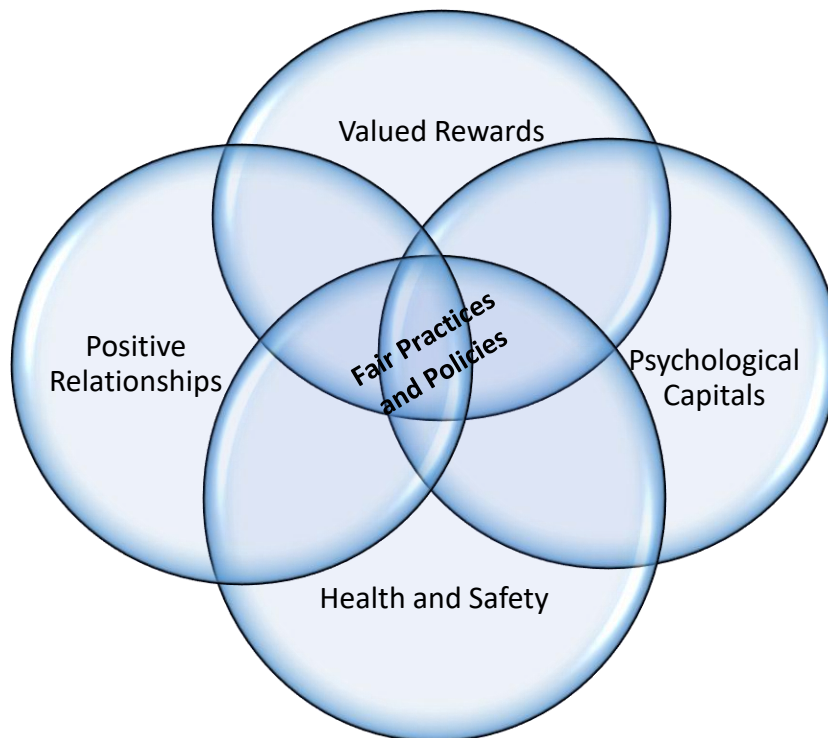
FIVE PILLARS	INFORMED BY IN THE LITERATURE
<p><i>HEALTH AND SAFETY</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physiological Needs • Health • Safety • Security 	Physiological needs (Maslow; 1943) Existence (Alderfer, 1969) Safety (Maslow, 1943) Security (Herzberg, 1959) Working conditions (Herzberg, 1959) Pay (Herzberg, 1959) Benefits (Herzberg, 1959)
<p><i>PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITALS</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hope • Confidence • Optimism • Resilience • Values 	Hope (Luthans et al, 2004) Self-efficacy (Chung, 2018; Luthans et al, 2004) Resilience (Luthans et al, 2004) Optimism (Luthans et al, 2004) Expectancy (Vroom, 1964) Competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000) Personal accomplishments (Bandura, 1977) Values (Schwartz, 1992)
<p><i>POSITIVE RELATIONSHIPS</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sense of Belongingness • Positive Influencers • Trust 	Belongingness (Maslow; 1943) Relatedness (Alderfer, 1969; Deci & Ryan, 2000) Affiliation (McClelland, 1965) Verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1977) Interpersonal relationships (Herzberg, 1959) Vicarious experiences (Bandura, 1977) Instrumentality (Vroom, 1964) Interactional justice (Cropanzana et al., 2007)
<p><i>VALUED REWARDS</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extrinsic • Intrinsic • The Job Itself 	Valence (Vroom, 1964) Feedback (Hackman & Oldman, 1976; McGregor, 1957) Status (Herzberg et al., 1959) Recognition for achievement (Herzberg et al., 1959) Benefits (Herzberg et al., 1959) Pay (Herzberg et al., 1959) The job itself (Herzberg et al., 1959) Skill variety (Hackman & Oldman, 1976) Task identity (Hackman & Oldman, 1976) Task significance (Hackman & Oldman, 1976) Meaningful work (Herzberg et al., 1959) Responsibility (McGregor, 1957) Meaning (Chung, 2018) Challenging work (Herzberg et al., 1959)

	Self-esteem (Maslow, 1943) Feeling of achievement (Herzberg et al., 1959; McClelland) Growth (Alderfer, 1969; Herzberg et al., 1959) Self-actualization (Maslow, 1943) Power (McClelland; 1965) Increased responsibility (Herzberg et al., 1959) Autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hackman & Oldman, 1976; McGregor, 1957) Self-determination (Chung, 2018)
<i>FAIR ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES & PRACTICES</i>	Policies and Admin Practices (Herzberg et al., 1959) Fairness (Adams, 1963) Distributive justice (Cropanzana et al., 2007) Procedural justice (Cropanzana et al., 2007)

Five Pillars of CPR

The five pillars of CPR are health and safety, positive relationships, psychological capitals, valued rewards, and fair organizational practices. See Figure 3 for a CPR Framework.

**FIGURE 3
CPR FRAMEWORK**



Health and Safety

Health and safety needs are significant as higher-level needs cannot be met when these lower-level needs are unmet (Maslow, 1943). Working conditions, pay, work/life balance, time for breaks, meals, sleep/rest, and benefits are important components. Physiological needs are included here, and include physical health and mental health beyond food, water, etc.

When done well, policies, practices, and programs support employees' physiological, safety, and security needs. Benefits and pay are vital here as they support health, safety, and security. When employees do not feel secure, safe, or healthy, this impacts their psychological health at work (Burke, 2019).

Positive Relationships

Employees need to feel a sense of belongingness, have positive influences surrounding them, trust their colleagues and managers, and feel a sense of relatedness. There must be positive social relationships at work. Diversity and inclusion are emphasized here.

Psychological Capitals

Psychological Capital (PsyCap) is “who you are”, and includes hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism (Luthans et al., 2004). These four constructs can be managed and developed. Psychological Capitals for the purpose of CPR also include one's values and personal meaning as this is also “who you are”. Employees will work hard for and be motivated by their values and what is meaningful to them (Schwartz, 2012). This could include values and meaning toward social activism, family, and religious views to name only a few. Values and meaning are very individualized; to manage an individual well, you must know them personally. While the four constructs of psychological capital can be managed and enhanced, meaning and values are relatively fixed.

Valued Rewards

Rewards are both intrinsic and extrinsic. Feedback, status, power, recognition for achievement, fringe benefits, increased responsibility, and pay are extrinsic rewards. Rewards, especially extrinsic rewards, can be subjective and will be valued differently depending on the employee. Intrinsic rewards include self-esteem, feelings of achievement, personal growth, and self-actualization. The job itself is also a reward. Job design, skill variety, task identity, task significance, challenging work, and impact at work are also important components of rewards. Rewards can positively impact psychologically when executed well and the reward is considered valuable by the employee.

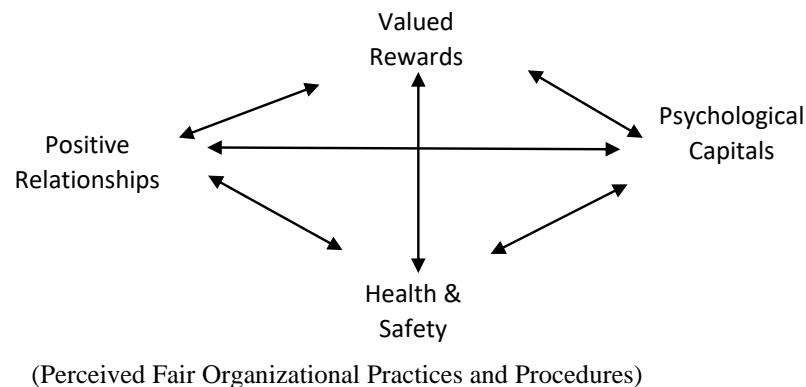
Fair Organizational Policies

Organizational policies that drive practices and programs impact employees significantly. They are more than a procedure manual. Policies must be seen as fair practices, and the culture of the organization must also support the goals of the policies created. The way decisions are made, how resources are allocated, and even how the decision is communicated is important to perceived fairness. Perceived fairness, especially when there is a negative perceived fairness, impacts an employee psychologically; so much that it will impact their behavior to achieve equality (Adams, 1963).

CPR Model

A psychologically responsible organization will offer programs that enhance health and safety, encourage psychological capitals, foster positive relationships, offer valuable rewards, and do this through fair practices and policies. See Figure 4 for the CPR Model.

FIGURE 4
CORPORATE PSYCHOLOGICAL RESPONSIBILITY (CPR) MODEL



CPR Pillars Coexist

All pillars of CPR co-exist with and impact each other. The physiological state of an employee, such as stress and exhaustion from working long hours, will impact the psychological capital of the employees, just as psychological capital can combat stress and turnover (Avey & Luthans, 2009). A tired employee will value a reward less because they will be more concerned with physiological needs (unless it is time off from work, for example). What one values will also impact how they perceive the value of a reward. Likewise, positive relationships can help to foster trust and thereby increase the levels of perceived fairness. Each of the pillars of CPR overlap and impact each other. Therefore, each must be considered and developed.

Hierarchy of CPR Pillars

It is important to note, per Maslow’s (1943) Hierarchy of Needs, that when an employee’s physiological needs are not being met, they will be less likely to focus on higher-order needs. Thus, the lowest pillar is health and safety, followed by positive relationships and psychological capitals, and ultimately rewards. Fair organizational policies and practices are listed below in the model as they must already be created for the infrastructure to exist (i.e., benefits, rewards, procedure manuals, recognition, etc.). Fair practices is an overarching layer as practices and policies dictate and influence practices that manage health and safety needs, relationships, psychological factors, and rewards.

CONCLUSION

CPR and APA Comparison

While a model of corporate psychological responsibility is being introduced, the psychologically healthy workplace has been a slow topic of discussion. The APA also emphasized the psychologically healthy workplace perspective and provided five practices that emerge within a psychologically healthy workplace: employee involvement, work-life balance, employee growth and development, employee recognition, and health and safety (Grawitch & Ballard, 2016). We equally recognize the health and safety categories, and employee recognition falls under rewards. Growth and development are included with rewards. Employee involvement and work-life balance were not categories in our CPR model, but rather a result of fair policies and meeting physiological needs.

Fair organizational practices, positive relationships, and psychological capitals were listed as categories in the CPR model but not listed as categories in the APA model. Other factors not discussed in the APA model or the CPR model may exist that impact psychological health and should be explored in future research.

Call for CPR

For corporate psychological responsibility to exist, an employee must have their physiological needs met and feel safe, their psychological capitals developed, feel they have positive relationships, valuable rewards, and perceive they work in a fair environment. CPR is the intersection between doing what is right for the employee and the company. Organizations that take CPR seriously can create a competitive advantage, while also branding themselves as a corporation that is psychologically responsible to stakeholders. A corporate psychologically responsible organization will understand that their organization can directly and positively influence the psychological factors that impact their employees.

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