**Introduction**

Media companies that adapt to changes in the competitive environment will succeed, whilst those that don’t, will fail. That is the conclusion many of the contributors to this handbook will make during the course of their arguments. Our discussion on Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) issues facing media companies now and in the medium-term future is no different. “Adapt or die” is the mantra that we have chosen to adopt in our view of the issues facing many media firms HRM departments. An organization’s deliberate strategy to adapt to their changing environment means that SHRM practice and policies need to support the organizations goals (Shameem & Khan, 2012); therefore, the authors propose examining the key trends in HR functional components of recruitment, performance and retention. These three elements support organizational objectives pertaining to human capital and are the foundation of HRM policies and procedures (Taylor & Woodhams, 2016).

This chapter first reviews recent advances made in human resource management research which builds upon Redmond’s (2006) discussion of human relations management in media management studies. Whilst “human relations” tends to focus on the soft skills of interpersonal relations (Taylor & Woodhams, 2016) our discussion focuses on “human resource management” which we believe enables better human relations management in the long run. This chapter then, addresses the need for organizations to remain adaptive to changes in the competitive environment by focusing on the key areas that are most likely to affect strategic human resource management initiatives for the media workforce. Finally, we consider how initiatives such as recruitment, retention and performance may play out in the future. By examining these aspects of SHRM, we can begin to identify the gaps in our understanding of how media organizations human resource practices should adapt and evolve over time (Picard & Lowe, 2016).

**A decade of advancement in HRM studies in media companies?**

Redmond’s (2006) review of the state of HR in media organizations led him to recommend several key points, such as the need for further qualitative studies, a more comprehensive understanding of the reality of the life of the media worker, how being a shift worker might cause personal problems and to investigate if companies are going to great lengths to provide support. The overarching theme was about the “quality of career experience” and relates to the individual experience within a media organization. Since his call, there have been a limited number of studies that have directly explored SHRM in media organizations (Becker, Vald & Martin, 2006; Adams-Bloom, 2009).

Achtenhagen and Mierzejewsk (2016) identified the top three media management journals as: The Journal of Media Economics (JME), International Journal on Media Management (JMM) and Journal of Media Business Studies (JOMBS). A search of these three reveals that most studies refer to HRM in passing in the context of making recommendations based off: their own discussions (Berke, 2011; Bartosova, 2011; Baetzgen & Tropp, 2015); their own experiences (Joseph, 2011); or interviews of HR managers, but in a context of collaboration between global conglomerates and local companies (Pathania-Jain, 2009). Other studies, such as Panico, Raithel & Michel (2014), built upon the conversation of constructs that impact hiring when they explored how media coverage effects employer
reputation. While this study explored impact for students getting ready to search for jobs, the authors concluded that integration of PR into HR would assist in managing employer branding (Panico, Raithel & Michel, 2014).

However, there are some studies that specifically focus on functions of HRM in media organizations. Becker, Vlad and Martin (2006) address how changes in the US newspaper labor market has impacted hiring trends. They discovered that large US daily newspapers tend to hire only experienced journalists (Becker, Vlad & Martin, 2006). This trend would suggest that media organizations will have to invest in training if they want to keep a more experienced journalist up-to-date with technological advancements. The main study from JMM that directly addressed SHRM practices was Adams-Bloom’s (2009) exploration into high performance work organizations (HPWO) initiatives. This study discovered evidence of HPWO practices (profit sharing, feedback and non-monetary rewards) were more prominent in news organizations then professional development, such as training, advance certification or conferences. Adams-Bloom (2009) concluded “measurement of HPWO success is dependent on demonstrating increases in productivity and profitability” (p. 142). This infers that more research is needed on the how performance can impact productivity. Dekoulou, Pühringer, Georgarakou & Tsourvakas (2010) elaborated on how an organizational learning culture could improve performance amongst journalists, especially those desiring to attend advanced training. The implications for SHRM were clearly linked to the need to evaluate human resource development practices and engagement; although, studies in the past decade have brought mainstream SHRM conversations into media management literature. Overall, it is evident that media management scholars have many opportunities to advance understanding of how HRM practices can be improved and tailored to the changing environment.

**Media companies and their employees need to remain adaptive**

A dynamic media environment is being driven, primarily, by technological influences and change. Media firms need to adapt to this turbulent environment and re-align their SHRM policies in accordance with the strategic management of their organization (Shameem & Khan, 2012). Commonly, HR tasks such as recruitment, retention and performance of employees are not industry specific, but competencies of management relating to creative talent management, digital technology that constantly evolve and continuous innovation do influence standard HR functions (Artero & Manifredi, 2016). A central tenet of our discussion is that media firms and their employees need to remain adaptive, particularly as firms that adapt fastest can achieve a competitive advantage over rivals (Oliver, 2016). Research by Reeves and Deimler (2011) and Reeves, Love and Nishant (2012) presented a powerful argument for media firm adaptation. They examined the volatility in the US Media Industry between 2005-2011 and concluded that during periods of turbulence in demand, competition and profit margins, firms that outperformed others did so due to their ability to interpret and adapt to signals of impending market volatility. Their research indicated that DirecTV, Time Warner Cable and The Walt Disney Co. had all outperformed their industry rivals (including Omnicom Group, The Washington Post, Viacom, Cablevision Systems and Thomson-Reuters) because of their proficiency to rapidly adapt their businesses to volatile operating conditions. Central to these adaptive media firm practices and processes is the role that human capital or employees played as a key strategic resource in delivering superior business performance (Wang, Jaw & Tsai, 2012).
Four SHRM themes emerge from a dynamic media environment

In our discussion of human resource recruitment, retention and performance initiatives, we should acknowledge that today's dynamic media environment has resulted in changes in the labor market that have created a challenging context for how SHRM departments manage their workforce.

Firstly, whilst the number of mega-media conglomerates are increasing globally, the workforce is being ‘downsized’ and employees are being moved from permanent contracts to a freelance working basis (Deuze, 2011). The “casualization of labor agreements, outsourcing, downsizing and freelancing,” and the emergence of zero-hours contracts impacts HRM’s ability to recruit, retain and manage the performance of the non-permanent and transient workforce as policies and regulations are not always applicable to this sort of workforce (Lowe, 2016 p.7). Not providing training and development for temporary employees can sometimes be viewed as a cost savings measure; although, studies have found that if organizations do provide training to non-permanent employees, the training does have a positive effect on their affective commitment to the organization (Chambel, Castanheira & Sobral, 2016).

A second change in the labor market is ‘innovation in technology’. Since the transition from analog systems to digital in the 1990’s, there is an increased focus on the frequency and manner in which media employees need to be trained if they are to keep up emerging new medias (Artero & Manfredi, 2016). The migration of training to online platforms introduces other challenges to SHRM, such as individual attitudes and aptitudes to embrace technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

Thirdly, the ‘social voice’ of internal and external stakeholders has become more prominent in the social media age impacting organizations ability to handle crisis (Johansen, Johansen, & Weckesser, 2016). Consequently, organizations are using employee engagement as a means of channelling this voice. Employee engagement studies have found internal stakeholders, such as employees, want their voices to be heard in a manner that positively affects their work-life balance and well-being (Ruck, Welch & Menara, 2017). Whilst external stakeholders, such as consumers, have broad societal expectations and are increasingly engaging in dialogue with organizations about expected social responsibilities (Golob & Podnar, 2011).

Finally, with the baby boomers changing how and when they exit the workforce, ‘succession planning’ is no longer a straightforward process. For example, non-profit organizations have been looking forward to the baby boomers retiring which would give retirees more time to volunteer, but it turns out that many are not retiring and are instead changing their workday through part-time or contract work (Loretto & Vickerstaff, 2015). Instead, with baby boomers remaining in organizations past the expected retirement age, media organizations may face having employees that have a wealth of technical experience, but may face technological adaption challenges and are ultimately more costly to retain.

These four trends disrupt SHRM functions by creating new challenges. The downsizing of organization combined by baby boomers not exiting the workforce as planned could cause obstacles in performance management. A focus on innovation and training has
causal implications for training and retention needs. Finally, a rise in social voice may impact how media organizations position themselves in recruiting employees.

Managing Strategic HRM functions into the future

Recruitment: the rise of data analytics

Employment could be seen as a simple economic transition in exchange for labor, but the bargaining power of both parties is not always equal. Potential employees are looking for employment, income, fairness, voice, job satisfaction, occupational identity, while the employer is often focused on profit maximization, shareholder value, quality and service and control (Budd & Bhave, 2008). Recruitment is often affected by changes in technology and labor market shortages (Hough & Oswald, 2000). Key issues with recruitment involve the level at which labor turned over and the ability to attract sufficient number of high-caliber candidates for tomorrow's needs, the latter being increasingly difficult to forecast given one must understand which technical and tactical aspects are needed prior to any time of disruptive innovation. Gade & Lowery (2011) assert that the public use and expectations of technological innovation by journalists have changed, inferring that there are large external pressures on media organizations to ensure their staff meet those desires. In Jung & Kim’s (2012) study of newspaper firm employees, they found employee burnout and exhaustion can lead to an increased turnover intention. This implies that HRM will not be able to stabilize recruitment patterns. Consequently, SHRM will have to strive to make recruitment more efficient for the organization without taking into consideration the base-line technological skills needed by tomorrow's workforce. SHRM can accomplish this through the incorporation of data analytics (Shehu & Saeed, 2016) and being more attractive to the potential employee via its social impacts (Biswas & Suar, 2016).

Hailing from the industrial/organizational (I/O) psychology field, data analytics has slowly been expanding into the realm of HRM with algorithm or people analytics propelling data-driven recruitment (Fink, 2010). The data mining approach allows for the freedom to develop decision models when selecting recruits. This approach enables organizational strategy to be embedded in the decision tree, thus improving HRM’s ability to react to organizational change in a more concise and measurable manner (Shehu & Saeed, 2016). The goal of people analytics is to embrace the power of algorithmic systems in an attempt to predict a better person-organization fit between high performing recruits and the company (Fleck, 2016). Even though Facebook and Google have long embraced this technology, the adoption rate in the business world is slowly increasing from 24% in 2015 to 32% in 2016 (Schwartz, Bohdal-Spiegelhoff, Gretczko, & Sloan, 2016). Especially in industries such as the media, which rely on creative talent, companies are moving beyond apprehension to engage with the technology-driven recruitment. Indeed, Schwartz et al. (2016) found that organizations in media and communications had lower adoption of people analytics, as opposed to life sciences and health care, financial and consumer businesses. This low adoption by media organizations means the hiring process is not as effective or efficient as other industries. Due to the non-static nature of hiring and the ever-changing and evolving rules around recruitment (Shehu & Saeed, 2016), data-driven recruitment is understood to increase the quality of hiring talented and qualified individuals while also improving the experience and diversity of the candidate. By actively seeking ways to use data to support
talent decisions, HRM executives can become a talent multiplier (Harris, Craig & Light, 2011).

Because the complexity of data-analytics is not a mainstream HRM competency, HR departments need to adapt. Harris et al. (2011) proposed a ladder of analytical HR applications that integrates six functions in order to provide a framework which could be used by media organizations. The first rung of the ladder focuses on building a solid employee database that goes beyond typical demographic information. Harris et al. (2011) emphasize how Google used its skills in big data to build an employee database that consolidated all the information, attitude, behaviors, and skills they acquired about the employee. This in turn allowed Google to identify performance trends and identify critical talent management—the second rung of the ladder. Harris et al (2011) use the example of sports teams, such A.C. Milan, having used this form of analytics when determining in what soccer talent they would invest. Likewise, media organizations, like HRM could use the analytics of creative performers and build their own algorithm that places values on creative content, audience engagement, reputation enhancement and ability to influence intended outcomes. The third rung focuses on HR investments and managing critical workforces accordingly, through initiatives such as investing in technological training and talent management. With media management and a focus on creative talent, it is easy to forget that those individuals in functional positions within the organization that support and enable talent also need investing. For example, an in-house engineering team that supports journalists could need training in maintaining and repairing new 360 virtual reality cameras or drones. Consequently, there needs to be a system in place that can address issues organic to the media organization and tailored to the needs of the individual. The fourth rung—customized employee-value propositions—is particularly important when it comes to employee life-cycle planning. SHRM research has predicted that with the largest percentage of the workforce departing (the baby boomers) succession planning and recruitment will affect all industries (Kiyonaga, 2004). This rung calculates how much value employees place on different benefits and aspects offered by the organization. Because turnover can have a significant impact on an organization on a cultural, moral and financial level (Jung & Kim, 2012), this application aims at using data to reduce attrition issues. Yet, predicting the future workforce is more than succession planning for the departure of baby boomers. The fifth rung—workforce planning—aims to predict the business and staffing levels needed. For example, in terms of discontinuous innovation and the evolution of how music has been distributed (8-track, cassette, CD, MP3), this transformation in the music production industry saw a complete change on a business level, where the factories and personnel required to produce CDs were not needed with the mainstream adoption of the MP3 format. Workforce planning for media organizations is particularly difficult given the ever-changing nature of disruptive technology. The final rung is the talent supply chain, which focuses on the skills the workforce will need. Just as data analytics is changing the skills needed by HRM personnel, innovation and technological skills are evolving in media organizations.

Therefore, Harris et al’s (2011) proposed framework could assist HRM to provide the initial structure to begin building their big data recruitment. Once populated with organizational data, media management researchers could explore how the different rungs acted as predictors for high performance, engagement and turnover intentions. As highlighted earlier, recruiting the right individual for the right job remains a challenge. By seeking a
person-organisation fit that optimises congruence between the organization’s values and needs and the individual (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005), SHRM can take advantage of their corporate social responsibility (CSR) programs as a recruitment tool.

**CSR and the socially aware recruit**

Even though data-driven recruitment can help identify talented individuals whose values and capabilities matched the needs of the organization, there is often a power play between the workforce supply and the employer’s demands and needs. Historically, media organizations have followed the trend amongst many private sector corporations of offering stock options and financial incentives as a means of recruitment (Redmond, 2006). This, however, has neglected the intrinsically-based needs, such as being able to actively contribute to one’s community—an element that millennials entering the workforce are collectively demanding (Feldmann, 2014). As mentioned earlier, there is a general trend toward societal expectations of organizations to operate in a socially responsible manner. This has led to a new “socially aware” recruit who is looking for a work environment that is more aligned with higher ethical standards and social responsibility (Ng, Lyons, & Schweitzer, 2012).

Media products themselves have strong social value in terms of shaping political, economic, social and technological issues (Mierzejewska, 2011). Accordingly, HRM has slowly begun to capitalize on the very core of media organization’s ability to contribute to society. For example, BSkyB (2002) began including their corporate social responsibility strategies in their annual shareholders report which was long before the 2010 ISO 26000 guidance on social responsibility. “The goal of the strategy is to enhance the reputation of the Group through: community activities; a commitment to managing environmental impacts, and; managing the business in a responsible manner” (BSkyB, 2002, p. 19).

The very nature of an organization providing social enterprise has played a part in SHRM communicating their organization’s CSR stance as part of employer branding. Employer branding considers the brand equity, loyalty and ability to attract talent (Biswas & Suar, 2016). Yet, it is the organization’s reputation that often serves as an antecedent to attracting potential recruits. By focusing on how the organization actions can benefit society through ethical behavior or economic development of the community, CSR programs have shown they have the ability to enhance the organization’s reputation (Panico, Raithel & Michel, 2014; Ruiz, García, & Revilla, 2016). Although CSR has not always been embedded in employer branding, Aggerholm, Andersen & Thomsen (2011) argue that CSR allows the corporate sustainable vision to be part of an integrated communication process between the organization and key stakeholders such as potential employees. Biswas & Suar (2016) found evidence that CSR and top leadership significantly influenced the individual's perception of the organizational prestige. From a gender viewpoint, being female has been found to significantly increase the positive relationship between CSR and job satisfaction (Tanwar & Prasad, 2016). Studies have also found that millennials tend to seek out work environments conducive to higher ethical standards and social responsibility (Ng & Gossett, 2013).

While media organizations have typically highlighted the economical aspect of CSR (Tsourvakas, 2016), organizations such as Time Warner (2017) now espouse how they have high recognition for employee volunteering and were the world’s most ethical companies in 2014 and Best Places to work for LGBT Equality in 2016. This helps enable the employer
branding in terms of highlighting its ethical practices (a key layer of Carroll’s 1991 CSR pyramid) and shows their awareness and action on social issues, such as diversity.

Following the assumption that CSR is an important part of future employer branding, CSR can be viewed from an organizational level and at an individual level. Faroq & Rupp (2016) stipulate that the macro CSR literature is dominated by external and internal focuses. At an organizational level, CSR’s six core characteristics center on social and economic alignment, practices and values, multiple stakeholder orientation, beyond philanthropy, voluntary and managing externalities. In recent Media Management literature, (Tsourvakas, 2016) CSR’s relation with media organizations has been conceptualized through Carroll’s model of CSR and Stakeholder Theory. Carroll’s (1991) pyramid of CSR focuses on the economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities in an ascending order of importance and each construct is identified as required, expected or desired. However, scholars have criticized the non-interlocking levels and proposed a modified version: the three-domain model of CSR (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). With the focus on economic, legal and ethical constructs, the Venn model accounts for areas that overlap, making it easier to delineate conditions that affect organizations in different scenarios. For example, a media organization such as Pearson Plc (2016) has a CSR policy to responsibly source paper for economical and ethical reasons; whereas, a public-owned broadcasting network in an emerging economy such as Nigeria, may have legally mandated public service announcements that have ethical impact. For SHRM, having implicit knowledge of their organizational culture and if it leans toward more of an economic, legal, ethical, or balanced orientation (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003) can be used to better portray the organization’s CSR efforts.

Another organizational-based CSR theory that is often used is stakeholder theory, which has two competing perspectives. The neo-liberal perspective is that businesses are responsible only to their shareholders or owners of the business, with the relationship principally economical because of maximizing profits (Scherer & Palazzo, 2010). The stake holding perspective stipulated the organization is responsible to all those with whom it has significant relationships which might affect their survival (Scherer & Palazzo, 2010). This later perspective would be more applicable to HRM because of the need and ability to be able to recruit talent.

However, scholars have recently begun to investigate the individual’s view on CSR (iCSR) which reflects the individual’s perception of values and principles and the behavior of the organization (Secchi, 2009; Secchi & Bui, 2016). Rodrigo & Arenas (2008) examined the attitudes of employees toward their organization’s CSR programs and developed a continuum for classification. By understanding if the employee was committed, indifferent or dissident, the authors could predict the acceptance of the organizational evolving CSR roles, individual identification with the organization, a sense of importance of work and social justice (Rodrigo & Arenas, 2008). Secchi & Bui (2016) argued that these perceptions could be relative or absolute. The former is one related to what one believes should be done, and can be closely related to the prospective employee who most likely would not have any experience working with the organization. Conversely, the absolute perception would be more relevant to current employees who have to deal with “ad hoc situations, problems, and issues” (Secchi & Bui, 2016 p. 4). Individuals’ attitudes toward CSR activities can potentially influence whether they will apply to an organization. Hence, HRM’s communication of CSR
activities needs to take into consideration and identify the personal values and attitudes of the ideal candidate. Studies have found that individuals who value CSR initiatives such as corporate volunteering tend to have stronger organizational loyalty than employees that do not value CSR, and decreased turnover (Jones, 2010). This has important financial implications for the organization if turnover is decreased.

So while it is observable that many HRM departments are emphasizing their organizations’ contributions to society as a means of recruitment, there are gaps in our knowledge whether the recruits have a high sense of individual corporate responsibility or if it is an economical reason, such as needing a job to pay the bills. One possible area to investigate is if current media employees place an importance of being socially responsible as an essential reason for their selection and continuation of employment. It is not known if being socially responsible is part of the professional identity of media employees. By understanding more about how intrinsically based motivations are related to CSR programs, HRM can determine to what extent they utilize CSR as part of the employer branding scheme.

Accordingly, incorporating studies about data-driven recruitment in a media organization context paves the forward to a more substantive understanding of key characteristics of media employees. By maximizing the communication of the organization’s commitment to impact positive social change and responsibility, HRM should be able to recruit a high caliber of employees who will have a good person-organization fit. Albeit an oversimplification of recruitment, these two aspects lead to the next HRM challenge—enabling conditions for high performance.

**Performance: (re)training will improve productivity in an increasingly digital world**

Whether mass or niche media, competition from participatory or peer media has increased the pressure on media employees to create content that is more engaging (Küng, 2017). However, this has not always resulted in increased labor productivity nor assisted in managing performance. Indeed, labor productivity is an issue that many Western governments and economic commentators have grappled with since the global financial crisis of 2007-11. Whilst employment levels have increased since the crisis, labor productivity has struggled to reach pre-crisis levels, primarily because of the sustained harshness of macro-economic conditions which have affected business capital expenditure, investment in research and development, and skills training.

Recent research by Oliver (2017) examined the productivity of human resources in the UK’s creative industries between 1997-2014. The premise of the study was to examine the strategic adaptation and renewal of human resources following more than two decades of technological change and disruption caused by digitalization and new media.

The creative industries contribution to the UK economy over this period has significantly increased, with gross value added (GVA) increasing from 3.96% (£31,205m) to 5.20% (£84,067m) of the total UK economy. The total number of employees in these industries has also increased from 931,000 in 1997 to 1,808,000 in 2014. However, the productivity of employees (calculated as GVA per employee £) indicates some of the challenges that companies face. Figure 1 below illustrates the inter-industry GVA per Employee (£) performance based on comparative figures for the year ending 1997 and 2014.
The UK publishing industry outperformed all other creative industries by increasing the GVA per employee from £20,554 to £45,244 (+120%). The worst performing industry was film, television, video and radio where GVA increased by 56%, from £5,985m to £10,807m and the number of employees increased 63%, from 161,800 to 264,000. The result was a modest increase in GVA per employee of 11% from £36,990 to £40,936.

Figure 1: Inter-Industry GVA per Employee Performance (1997 and 2014)

The findings for the UK Publishing Industry may appear counter-intuitive at first glance, since the size of the labor force has decreased from 308,500 in 1997 to 225,000 in 2014. However, the structural changes and adaption of human resources, driven by an increasingly digital publishing environment, has produced a far more productive workforce. However, as productivity can be impacted by macro issues such as technological innovation, HRMs need to keep abreast of advancements in training in order to facilitate productivity and enhance performance.

Although the media industry is often viewed as a pioneer in exploiting technology, the continual evolution of technological platforms requires increased training to meet technical skills required to execute ones job (Küng, 2017). Understanding “…how to analyze basic usage metrics, such as open rates, click-throughs and conversions” (Siculiano, 2011, p. 206) are imperative skills for those involved in any form of online communication. In order to master these skills and others related to technological innovation, there needs to be an investment in training the workforce.

From an HRM perspective, there must be a realistic balance between employees meeting deadlines and being able to engage in training. Nowadays there are more ways to adjust training around work constraints as the delivery of training has moved from the traditional face-to-face to online virtual environments (Koop & Burkle, 2010). E-Learning strategies have enabled HR departments to adapt to changes in the workplace, such as moves toward non-traditional workplaces (i.e. telecommuting), an emphasis on knowledge transfer, and accelerating the rate in which change is affecting organizations (Brandenburg & Ellinger, 2003). Learning and development research increasingly explores just-in-time training (JITT).
and bite-sized or micro learning (BSL) as a means to support self-directed learning (Kopp & Burkle, 2010; Gray, 2015).

In the 24-7 operating cycle, prevalent amongst media organizations where remote work is common, JITT allows the individual employee to receive requested training on the spot (Kopp & Burkle, 2010). JITT emphasizes an on-demand approach and because of its often online aspect, it can be done “anywhere, anytime, anyhow” (Brandenburg & Ellinger, 2003 p. 9). As multi-national media organizations such as Sky and Pearson’s Plc may span wide geographical areas, JITT provides a cost and time benefit for employees and the employer (Holton, Coco, Lowe, & Dutsch, 2006). However, a key challenge for HRM is that JITT requires them to predict or anticipate learning and development needs for tomorrow’s technology (Brandenburg & Ellinger, 2003). Given the rate of innovation and its ability to impact media organizations, it can be challenging to identify what training the workforce of today will need, for instance, to deal with the evolving artificial intelligence integration tomorrow.

Despite the advantage of being able to deliver training just in time, there remains the question as to how much training is actually necessary. With the busy nature of media organizations, HRM could be tempted to try to get all of the training done in one go. While this is a cost saving measure and limits disruption, it does not take into account the effectiveness of such a measure, nor does it take into account the human attention span (Gray, 2015). Bite-sized or micro learning (BSL) instead focuses on the amount of learning the individual can effectively absorb. Studies have found that the order of consumption or the individuals being able to treat bite-size learning as a buffet to pick and choose what and how much they needed was deemed more effective (Gray, 2015). For HRM in media organizations, using micro learning mimics the ways individuals access information and entertainment throughout their daily lives.

However, with both of these types of learning, it is often down to the individuals’ own sense of self-directed learning. Not everyone will feel comfortable with online training so one of the challenges with e-learning is the individuals’ level of computer self-efficacy or competency (Holton et al., 2006). Theories such as Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) explore the individual’s behavior intentions in terms of technology adoption (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003). UTAUT consists of four dimensions: performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence and facilitating conditions (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Performance expectancy measures how the users perceive the technology will assist them in performing their jobs. It looks at the degree to which the individual is extrinsically motivated and their outcome expectations. As this construct has roots in social cognitive theory, it suggests the outcomes are directly job-related (Venkatesh et al., 2003). The second dimension, effort expectancy, measures how easily the users perceive using the technology will be. Entrenched in innovation theory, it focuses on the difficulty of use (Venkatesh et al., 2003). This does make the assumption that the technology is predominately viewed as difficult. Together these first two constructs are often strongly linked to predicting the individuals’ intention to use technology (Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012). Social influence measures how the user reacts to the social pressure to adopt technology. This relies on the subjective norms or social factors relevant to the individual. With its origins in innovation diffusion theory, social influence focuses on image and status (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Finally, facilitating conditions measure the users’ perceptions of
what kind of support they anticipate their organization will provide in order to support the technology adoption. This looks at how the individual perceives compatibility between the internal and external constraints, and is grounded in innovation diffusion theory. Venkatesh et al. (2003) scale incorporated the voluntary use of technology by members of the entertainment and telecomm industries compared to the mandated use in banking and public sector. Studies where individuals voluntarily engaged in e-learning systems found a significant relationship between performance expectancy (Chung, Lee & Kuo, 2016), effort expectancy, social and facilitating (Oh & Yoon, 2014). Researchers have also found that individuals who are intrinsically motivated significantly impact the user’s intention to use e-learning systems (Yoo, Han & Huang, 2012). This implies that the e-learning does need to be voluntary nor perceived as an enjoyable act.

An important aspect of UTAUT, which has implications for SHRM, is that many findings imply gender, age, experience, and voluntary use significantly moderate the relationship between the constructs and behavioral intentions (Venkatesh, Thong & Xin, 2016). Several scholars found evidence that being male, a millennial and educated at a bachelor’s level or higher would significantly impact the various UTAUT constructs (Al-Shafi, 2009; Buhler & Bick, 2013; Mohammadyari & Singh, 2015; Venkatesh et al., 2012). This has implications for media organizations that strive to have diverse workforces. Furthermore, scholars such as Prensky (2001) postulate that the younger generations acceptance and adoption of technology contributes to an attitude of being a digital native. If JITT and BSL training programs are implemented, then there needs to be controls factored in that will assist non-male, non-millennial, non-degree holders to improve their computer self-efficacy.

The more general gaps in UTAUT literature include whether information systems usage are mandated in the organization (Hwang, Al-Arabiat & Shin, 2016). This provides an opportunity for media management researchers to investigate if just-in-time learning and bite-size learning have a probability of successful engagement if voluntary. Sky (2015 annual corporate report) recently developed a “Sky Development Portal System” in order to facilitate learning and development online. This system provides JITT and BSL learning opportunities, but does not account for the employees’ computer literacy. Additionally, it is unknown if the training is voluntary, if it is an aspect that could play a moderating role between the UTAUT dimensions and its outcome of use.

For media management academics wanting a better understanding of how SHRM can improve performance, it is recommended to first analyze if and how training programs have been adapted. With a lack of empirical evidence organic to media organizations, it is difficult to predict how this SHRM function would differ from other industries. Yet, because the media industry is often the first to be impacted by technology, it is an opportunity for leaders in the forefront of research.

**Retention: employees will demand to be intellectually and emotional engaged**

Finally, in order to retain high performing, talented employees, organizations must invest in career development programs and look at ways to facilitate a work-life balance and sense of well-being. For media organizations, this is particularly critical as social media has changed the 24-hour news cycle to a minute-by-minute update. Some HR scholars would
argue there are many ways to try to manage retention issues related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job embeddedness and job alternatives (Phillips & Edwards, 2009). However, instead of treating the symptoms that cause burnout and high turnover, the authors recommend a preventative solution focus. By understanding how HRM can foster engagement, media organizations can adapt to the needs of the workforce thus preventing high turnover.

Engagement is habitually used to infer improvement or involvement on the basis of the employee. While this puts the onus of effort on the individual, HRM tend to use the term as if to imply the employees are motivated and tuned in to the pulse of the organization. Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees & Gatenby (2010) define employee engagement as “being positively present during the performance of work by willingly contributing intellectual effort, experiencing positive emotions and meaningful connections to others” (p. 5). This does place the attitude of being engaged with the individual, but also calls on them to interact with their colleagues in a manner that has purpose. However, the organization’s responsibility in the concept of employee engagement is to be actively listening and open to criticism about what is working and what is not working within the organization.

Kahn (1990) proposed that engagement occurred at cognitive, social and behavioral levels. Following the ideas of interactionalist theory in the seminal works of Goffman (1971), Kahn (1990) states “personal engagement is the simultaneous employment and expression of a person’s ‘preferred self’ in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional) and active full role performances” (p. 700). However, Alfes et al. (2010) argued that Khan’s (1990) theory lacked the ability to incorporate the seemingly innate need of people to feel good about their work and their organization. Hence, Alfes et al. (2010) stipulates employee engagement occurs on intellectual, affective and social levels. Intellectual engagement focuses on the cognitive aspect where the individuals analyze their job and determine how they can do it better. Media organizations often rely on employees to be creative, but workloads and deadlines may inhibit the individual’s opportunity to actively participate in intellectual engagement. Affective engagement is related to the emotions one feels about doing one’s job (Alfes et al., 2010). For print and broadcast journalists, there may a more immediate feeling of being able to make a positive impact by doing a good job because of the common practice of online engagement with audience members. Social media sites, such as Twitter, allow more immediate interaction between journalists and audiences and can impact on the journalists’ professional identity (Ottovordemgentschenfelde, 2017).

Although likened to a positive attitude, the employees’ emotional engagement is not consistent over time and can even backfire. For example, an individual that may have a positive level of emotional engagement could easily change to a negative if he or she felt the organizational change negatively impacted them. Or, if employees were given a certain level of creative freedom and autonomy, but upon a restructuring, new levels of red tape and bureaucracy are introduced—they could perceive a lack of organizational support which could easily develop into negative attitudes toward the organization (Reinardy, 2014). Furthermore, Tan & Weaver (2007) found a positive correlation between media agenda and policy agenda. For the journalist who has strong beliefs about immigration, but works for a media organization whose agenda runs the opposite end of the gauntlet, the extreme differences could lead to increased turnover. Finally, Sablonnière, Tougas, Sablonnière &
Debrosse (2012) found that negative attitudes toward rapid organizational change resulted in increased psychological distress and burnout symptoms.

The last dimension, social engagement, focuses on the how frequently employees engage in “constructive dialogue with those around them about their work or how to improve working methods or skills” (Alfes et al., 2010, p. 6). Burke & Fiksenbaum (2009) found that Norwegian journalists who reported higher levels of passion had better work outcomes than those who reported high levels of work addiction. This has important implications on knowledge transfer within organizations if employees are passionate and able to communicate effectively with others. De Jong, Curşeu & Leenders (2014) have found contrary evidence that states negative attitudes and relationships only effect group cohesion and performance when the team has task interdependence. If the social engagement aspect can be moderated by the complexity and interdependence of the task at hand, then this implies a higher level of engagement is needed for more complex tasks. For media organizations that are silo-oriented as opposed to agile, this can inhibit social engagement and creation of “…a web of strong personal relationships across business units” (Lank, Randell-Khan, Rosenbaum, & Tate, 2008 p. 106).

A good employee engagement program allows employees to unlock their potential, increases commitment and desire to maximize individual performance, enables potential creativity and enhances their sense of well-being (MacLeod & Clarke, 2009). For the organization, a good level of employee engagement is supposed to reinforce commitment and encourage retention. HRM incorporate various tools in order to create a workplace where employees and organizational values and goals are in congruence (Kuhn, 2016). One such tool is measuring the employee voice through commonly ‘annual engagement surveys’ or employee listening tools such as ‘pulse surveys, anonymous social tools, and regular feedback check-ins by managers’ (Schwartz et al., 2016). This active form of listening increases the dialogue between HRM and employees. By engaging in actions such as listening to the employee voice, HRM can identify well-being issues that affect overall employee engagement.

Nevertheless, in a 24/7 operating environment of media organizations, employee well-being may be seen as put to the side and ignored. As employees slowly realize that their smartphone and tablet tethers them to being in constant reach, work-life balance may quickly fall by the wayside. Some researchers attribute this unbalance leads to burnout and work-family (life) conflict. Gourlay et al. (2012) found that individuals working shifts (opposed to Monday to Friday, 9 to 5) reported poor work-life balance. The implications for those in media organizations is very clear. Poor balance can impact the emotional (affective) engagement of the individual. However, this problem does not come with an easy solution for HRM. There is a delicate balance between being able to accommodate job-related well-being and avoiding increased burnout and work-family conflict. Consequently, some organizations allow employees to modify their work schedule, telecommute and take sabbaticals to refocus and return re-invigorated (Pagano & Pagano, 2009).

While extended leave programs may not be prominent in the media industry (the Associated Press does encourage staff to take sabbaticals), research on the benefits of sabbatical programs is primarily concentrated in medical and academia fields. Finally, some SHRM are incorporating apps and tools to help the employee become less stressed (Schwartz
The adoption of these tools of course relies on the individual’s willingness to engage in technology as discussed in the training section.

Conclusions

SHRM functional activities within media companies need to attract talented individuals, generate the commitment toward the success of the organization, improve the satisfaction of the employees and facilitate employee engagement. While there are some media industry-oriented studies that look at employee e-recruitment (Eckhardt, Laumer, Maier, & Weitzel, 2014), employee motivation and burnout (Jung & Kim, 2012), and how CSR communication influences employees raining and performance (Golob & Podnar, 2011), there remains much left to understand when exploring and managing HRM trends in media organizations. It is unknown if CSR as a recruitment tool will enhance the person-organization fit. There remain gaps in our understanding of how JITT or BSL training will be able to meet demands in increasing performance during an era of technological innovation. And, employee engagement research could provide beneficial guidance to practitioners who need to balance creative employees’ passion and desire for autonomy with organizational strategies to adapt to changing markets.

Meanwhile, there are a variety of views on the research design that media management researchers will need to employ in the future. For example, Picard & Lowe (2016) believe that researchers should adopt more longitudinal approaches to study phenomena in order to better understand how an issue develops over time. Achtenhagen (2016) on the other hand suggests that more quantitative studies should draw on sample sizes that will allow researchers to generalize their findings to entire populations or sections of populations. This in turn would help researchers understand the magnitude of certain phenomena, as well as cause-and-effect relationships. By designing studies in a manner that seeks to determine causality, Achtenhagen (2016) argues that scholars can build empirical studies that support more evidence that creative employees in media organizations differ from other industries. As much of the studies discussed above are based on theories grounded in organizational behavior and general management theories and Picard & Lowe (2016) argue that media management scholars need to ensure theories that cross over are relevant, it is clear that SHRM would benefit from a theory that incorporates strategic human relation management in an industry where the workforce is a balance of creative and functional employees.

In the interim, the authors argue that Harris et al.’s (2011) proposed framework could be used to incorporate big data and HRM analytics throughout the various HR processes. Several organizations such as Google and A.C. Milan are already incorporating various aspects of the ladder. This presents an opportunity for media management researchers to work with industry to see what antecedents and outcomes result with adoption of such frameworks.

From our discussion, it is evident that more studies concerning media companies that adapt their HRM recruitment, performance and retention policies and procedures in relation to the strategic changes in their competitive environment are needed. In the light of our discussion, opening the gambit of ‘adapt or die’ is still relevant but the authors believe it needs to be amended to include the word ‘invest’. Without investing in more technologically
advanced recruiting through data-driven analytics or investing in Human Resources through training and engagement programs, it will inhibit the organization’s ability to adapt. As such, the mantra for SHRM should be “invests and adapt, or die”.

References


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