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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Davide Consoli INGENIO (CSIC-UPV) Email Address: <u>davide.consoli@ingenio.upv.es</u>

Giovanni Marin Department of Economics, Society and Politics, University of Urbino Carlo Bo, Italy **Email Address:** <u>giovanni.marin@uniurb.it</u>

Francesco Rentocchini Department of Economics, Management and Quantitative Methods, University of Milan, Italy and Southampton Business School, University of Southampton, UK **Email Address:** <u>francesco.rentocchini@unimi.it</u>

Francesco Vona OFCE Sciences-Po and SKEMA Business School, Université Côte d'Azur Email Address: francesco.vona@sciencespo.fr

ABSTRACT

This study contributes to the literature on routinization and employment by capturing withinoccupation task changes over the period 1980-2010. The main contribution is the measurement of such changes combining two data sources on occupational task content for the United States: the Dictionary of Occupational Titles and the Occupational Information Network. We show that within-occupation task change: i) accounts for 1/3 of the decline in routine-task use; ii) accelerates in the 1990s, decelerates in the 2000s but with significant catching-up; iii) is associated with educational upgrading in several dimensions and iv) allows escaping the employment decline conditional on initial routine-task intensity.

KEY WORDS

Tasks, routinization, technological change, employment dynamics, race between technology and education

JEL

J23, J24, O33

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1 Introduction

The task approach has become the main framework of reference to analyse structural changes in labour markets (Autor, Levy and Murnane, 2003; Acemoglu and Autor, 2011; Goos, Manning and Salomons, 2014) as well as their implications for inequality (Autor, Katz and Kearney, 2008; Lemieux, 2008). Classifying occupations by their task content has proved particularly effective in explaining labour market dynamics, and in identifying the jobs that are more exposed to structural transformations, such as technological change and globalization. However, the empirical literature that stems from this now prominent approach focuses on changes at the 'extensive' margin, that is, reallocation of employment between occupations whose task content is held constant at some initial or average level. Critically, a framework that assumes that job tasks are static is likely to be inaccurate when it comes to capturing qualitative transformations of work activities and, thus, of the associated skills, especially over extended time periods. Furthermore, the task approach has the potential to better inform changes in training and educational policies against the backdrop of the so-called race between technology and education (Goldin and Katz, 2007; Acemoglu and Autor, 2011). Not only does a static measure of occupational task content systematically understate the extent to which job reallocation takes place (Autor, 2013), but it also fails to detect the task-skill gaps that should guide these policy changes (Vona and Consoli, 2015).

Although the seminal study by Autor, Levy and Murnane (2003; henceforth ALM) calls attention to variations at the 'intensive' margin (i.e., changes in job tasks within an occupation), this particular dimension has remained relatively under-explored due to data limitations. The present study fills this gap by creating a measure of routine-task orientation for 322 occupations based on two main data sources for the United States (US), namely, the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT) and its successor, the Occupational Information Network (O*NET). Such a measure allows us to build a consistent time series of within-occupation task changes over a thirty-year period, from 1980 to 2010. Using this measure, we shed light on unexplored aspects of the long-term structural changes in the US labour market spanning various phases of technology diffusion.

Within-occupation task change is by definition a long-term phenomenon that requires the mutual adaptation of demand and supply of skills. The paucity of suitable data sources offers a cue to the first contribution of the present paper. A thorough analysis of how job content evolves requires a data series that covers a long timespan. The two most frequently used resources are the DOT, which was updated until 1991 when O*NET, the second source, was officially released. Despite being designed for a similar purpose, however, the match between these two resources for the purpose of generating a long time series presents some challenges. A key issue is that the complexity of the

data has increased significantly with the inception of O*NET, so that using task items from these two sources, while maintaining consistency, requires a high degree of discretion on the part of researchers (Autor, 2013).

Section 2 details the procedure for the identification of matching items in DOT and O*NET that allows us to construct a time-varying measure of job tasks for 322 occupations. The guiding criterion to operationalise the matching between the two sources is the similarity between the task title and the task description. Based on this matching, we build an index of routine task intensity (RTI¹) that also accounts for within occupation task changes. We show that the proposed procedure is successful in matching the moments of the distributions of the underlying task measures for the two data sources and the different decades.

Section 3 presents descriptive evidence of changes in the task content of occupations, using standard data sources, i.e., the decennial Census and American Community Survey (ACS), to construct weighted averages of occupational task measures. First, we find that within-occupation task change accounts for 37% of the overall decline in routine task use between 1980-2010. The within-occupation component is especially important in the 1990s (67% of the decadal change), while its incidence declines in the 2000s. Second, beneath the decrease of aggregate RTI there is substantial change in the distribution of work tasks. In particular, we observe a catching-up in routine-task intensity during the last decade. Third, changes in the 1990s, de-routinization mostly occurred in abstract occupations and was stronger for non-manufacturing sectors. The 2000s marked a reversal of this trend, with the process of de-routinization being concentrated among blue collars and clerical occupations and stronger in manufacturing.

In Section 4, we explore the drivers and the consequences of within-occupation task changes. First and as an additional test of our new measure, we find that change in computer use at work in the 1990s goes in the expected direction: a positive association with within-occupation changes in analytical and interactive tasks, and a negative association with changes in routine tasks and with changes in routine-task intensity. Second, using detailed information on the classification of educational programmes in the US, we explore the extent to which the educational system responded to technology-driven shifts in work content. The main result is that changes in the task content of occupations predict a statistically significant portion of changes, not only in the share of graduates and post-graduates, but also in the number and type of educational programmes. Third, we assess the association between decennial employment growth and within-occupation task

¹ RTI is increasing when the intensity of repetitive cognitive and manual tasks grows relative to the intensity of cognitive analytical and interactive tasks, such as creativity, problem-solving, intuition and social perceptiveness.

changes, controlling for, *inter alia*, initial routine task intensity. We find that changes in RTI are associated with decennial employment growth over the entire timespan, the strongest effect being in 1990s. Our findings also confirm that the association between de-routinization and employment growth is mostly concentrated among clerical jobs. Finally, because task reconfigurations are bounded, the role of within-occupation task shifts may be underestimated for Abstract occupations. We use the matched DOT-O*NET task items to build a measure of task variety for non-routine tasks in the spirit of the Deming's (2018) complementarity between social and cognitive skills. We find that such a measure is positively associated with employment growth for Abstract occupations, which reveals an adjustment mechanism that mostly occurs through the increase in the number of complex tasks.

These results contribute various streams of research using the task approach to assess the relationship between technological change and labour market outcomes (ALM, 2003; Acemoglu and Autor, 2011). To begin with, our new database based on the combination of DOT and O*NET gives us the opportunity to analyse a time period that is both longer or more recent compared to previous studies on within-occupation task changes (ALM, 2003; Spitz-Oener, 2006; Ross, 2017a,b). The most comprehensive study by Spitz-Oener (2006) focuses on Germany, but only until 1999 and without focusing on long-term employment growth. Our study also adds to prior work by Lin (2011) on new occupations and technology diffusion in US cities, with the main difference being that Lin tracks new job titles in the census classification based on the DOT over the period 1980-2000, while we study how the task content of both existing and new occupations evolves between 1980 and 2010.

Furthermore, the present study differs from closely related works which adopt job ad data from online or digital sources (Atalay et al., 2017; Deming and Kahn, 2018). Although very promising in terms of accuracy in the construction of new task measures at both the firm- and the occupation-level, these studies are mainly characterised by a lack of adequate sample representativeness to build the task measures, especially for low-skilled workers, and by a short (Deming and Kahn, 2018) or not up-to-date (Atalay et al., 2017) time dimension.² In particular, our work complements Atalay et al. (2017) in that, while their measure better captures task change among abstract occupations, ours better captures task change among clerical and blue collar jobs. Also, their study focusses on explaining wage inequality, while ours focusses on long-term employment dynamics and skill upgrading associated with within-occupation task changes.

² For instance, the Burning Glass data used in Deming and Kahn (2018) cover a short period of time (2010-2015), while Atalay et al. (2017) analysis focuses only until 2000.

Finally, our work adds to the recent theoretical literature of task directed technical change. Acemoglu and Restrepo (2017) show that the displacement effect of routine labour-replacing technology is counterbalanced by the emergence of new, more complex, high-skilled work activities. The empirical analysis of the present paper offers a more nuanced view by showing that, while occupations that de-routinize the most exhibit positive employment dynamics, the bulk of within-occupation shifts occurred among middle-skill clerical and manual jobs. In this sense, our findings lend support to the evidence provided by Beaudry et al. (2016) about the reversal in the demand for high-skilled workers that triggered a shift down the occupational ladder towards jobs that were traditionally performed by lower-skilled workers.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 details the main sources and the procedures for the construction of our DOT-ONET database. This is followed in Section 3 by a series of detailed descriptions of evidence on the evolution of within-occupation task changes over the period 1980-2010. Section 4 follows up on that and presents regression analyses, organized in three steps: the association between computer use at work and task configuration; changes in education supply associated with shifts in occupational task content; and employment outcomes by occupation and by macro-sectors. Section 5 summarizes and concludes.

2 Within-occupation task measures

2.1 Data sources

We combine information from different data sources to develop a consistent picture in the change of skill/task inputs over a thirty-year time period. In particular, we rely on the 1977 and 1991 editions ('Fourth' and 'Revised Fourth', respectively) of the DOT and the 2002 (version 4.0) and 2012 (version 18.0) editions of O*NET. Information on employment and educational attainment is retrieved from Census-based microdata, following recent literature (e.g., Autor and Dorn, 2013). We also use Integrated Public Use Micro Samples (IPUMS, Ruggles et al., 2018): for years 1980, 1990 and 2000 we use the 5% sample of the decennial censuses, while for 2010 we combine three waves (2010, 2011, 2012) of the American Community Survey (ACS), which covers a representative sample of 1% of the US population.

Combining these data sources, we build a balanced panel of 322 occupations based on the harmonized *OCC1990* occupational classification from IPUMS. This raises the issue of how to construct the task measures for the panel of 322 occupations aggregating information from DOT

and O*NET, which are available at a much finer level of aggregation.³ ALM (2003) use weights of the April 1971 CPS Monthly File (National Academy of Sciences, 1981) and retrieve the employment shares of fine-grained job titles in the DOT for one single year (1971). This procedure, however, automatically eliminates the variation in within-task intensity associated with the emergence of new jobs with task configurations adapted to new technologies (Lin, 2011). Since new jobs are important drivers of employment growth (Acemoglu and Restrepo, 2017), we follow Lin (2011) and use uniform weights to aggregate the task content of detailed occupational titles from DOT and O*NET to the level of the 322 occupations of our analysis. In so doing, within-occupation task change also captures the emergence of new job titles and changes in the task content of the occupation.

2.2 Measure

The key variables for our analysis are measures of occupational skill requirements and task intensity. Previous studies have relied on one of the two sources available for the US, namely, the 1977 and 1991 editions of DOT (e.g., ALM, 2003) or O*NET (e.g., Acemoglu and Autor, 2011). One of the main contributions of the present paper is the elaboration of a novel matching procedure to merge DOT and O*NET and the extension of the time horizon of the analysis.

The main critical issue is that O*NET has a comparatively higher number of task-related variables (approximately 400) compared to DOT (44). Moreover, O*NET measures have different scales: the ordinal 'level' scale (0-7) and the ordinal 'importance' scale (1-5).⁴ This is also recognised by Autor (2013, p. 192): "When the DOT was replaced by the O*NET in 1998, *the complexity of the database increased by an order of magnitude*. Version 14.0 of the O*NET database, released in June of 2009, contained 400 separate rating scales, which is almost half as many scales as the number of occupations coded by O*NET [...] In practice, this means that *researchers who wish to use these databases as sources for task measures are essentially required to pick and choose among the plethora of scales available*, a problem that is much more severe for O*NET than for DOT." [emphasis is our own]. Consequently, the task selection originally proposed by ALM (2003) is not suited to our purpose and, due to the constraints highlighted above (high dimensionality and plurality of scales in O*NET), some degree of freedom in the choice of the ideal task measures following researcher discretion is critical.

³ The occupational classification used in the two versions of DOT features about 12,000 occupations, while the occupational classification used in the two versions of O*NET that we use include, respectively, 900 (O*NET 4.0) and 924 (O*NET 18.0) occupations according to the Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) at the 8-digit level.

⁴ These scales are the ones used in O*NET for the sections of our interest: abilities, skills, knowledge and work activities. Other sections such as 'work context' are evaluated according to other specific scales (context, 1-5).

To develop our matching procedure, we follow three general rules. The first two concern the suitability of items that are defined according to the degree of similarity in the *task title* and *task description*. Because O*NET was designed as the natural successor of DOT (Truthan and Karman, 2003), our main reference for the matching exercise is the summary of the DOT variables (occupations and work content) that have been converted to fit the relational model of O*NET as detailed in the first O*NET Data Dictionary (1998). Subsequent versions of this publication do not contain explicit references to DOT. Accordingly, we thoroughly examined variable descriptions in both sources to search for suitable matches. To illustrate, we consider that the DOT variable *Clerical Perception* ("the ability to perceive pertinent detail in verbal or tabular material. Ability to observe differences in copy, to proofread words and numbers, and to avoid perceptual errors in arithmetic computation") bears a very similar title and description to the O*NET item *Clerical* ("knowledge of administrative and clerical procedures and systems such as word processing, managing files and records, stenography and transcription, designing forms, and other office procedures and terminology").

Our third general rule has been to maintain *similar scales* for task scores in the two databases. Notably, we picked task measures which have ordinal (Likert-type) scales. The problem here is that, while all O*NET task scores are defined on an ordinal scale, DOT assigns task scores using either an ordinal scale or dichotomous value. An example is "Direction Control and Planning" (DCP), which can either be present (equal to 1) or absent (equal to 0) in the DOT. Our choice to select items with similar scales avoids loss of information due to the transformation of ordinal variables into dichotomous ones and avoids manipulations that could alter the pattern of task changes through time.

Following these general rules, we identify suitable DOT items that correspond to the four dimensions of occupational task requirements identified by ALM (2003) as those that are particularly affected by automation and Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs): non-routine cognitive tasks (analytical and interactive), routine cognitive tasks and routine manual activity. Our first search yielded 16 different items, four for each of the dimensions of occupational task requirements that can be meaningfully associated between DOT and O*NET.⁵ In a second iteration we further reduced the selection to four items (one per dimension) following the aforementioned three criteria. These four items have been subsequently used to build an occupational task intensity measure.

⁵ Details on the matching for the 16 different variables are provided in Appendix A1 and are relevant for the analysis we provide on task variety and multitasking (see Section 4 and Table A1).

Table 1 shows the DOT-O*NET matching items and reports the scale of each in the two data sources. When more than one candidate item was found in O*NET, we took the average value. To illustrate, we use the case of MATH and MANUAL. For two measures the scale is similar (MANUAL and CLERIC, with 1-5 level in DOT and 1-5 importance in O*NET), while it is different for MATH and LANGUAGE.⁶ The discrepancy is due to the different range between levels in DOT and levels in O*NET (DOT scale of 1-6 vs O*NET 0-7). However, as the distribution of O*NET "level" is bounded, in most cases, between 1-6, we truncate the extreme values to 1 (bottom) and 6 (top).⁷ Consequently, we end up with 4 DOT variables linked to their corresponding O*NET match on similar scales.

Task category (ALM, 2003)	DOT variable	DOT scale	O*NET variable	O*NET scale
Non-routine analytical	MATH: Mathematical development	1-6	Average of: - Mathematics (knowledge, 2.C.4.a, level) - Mathematics (skill, 2.A.1.e, level)	0-7 ↓ 1-6
Non-routine interactive	LANGUAGE: Language development	1-6	Speaking (skill, 2.A.1.d, level)	0-7 ↓ 1-6
Routine manual	MANUAL: Manual dexterity	1-5	Average of: - Manual dexterity (ability, 1.A.2.a.2, importance) - Arm-hand steadiness (ability, 1.A.2.a.1, importance)	1-5
Routine cognitive	CLERIC: Clerical perception	1-5	Clerical (knowledge, 2.C.1.b, importance)	1-5

Table 1 – Match DOT-O*NET

Notes: Correspondence between the main DOT task categories used in ALM (2003) with O*NET task categories.

Subsequently, building on existing literature (Autor and Dorn, 2013; Goos et al., 2014) we combine matching DOT-ONET items into a normalised occupation-specific (*o*) and time-varying (*t*) index of routine intensity:

⁶ The 'level' scale refers to the proficiency that is required in performing a task, while the 'importance' scale considers how important the task is for the occupation. Even though the two scales appear to be conceptually different, scores for the same task are always very strongly correlated. The correlation between 'level' (0-7) and 'importance' (1-5) for the selected tasks is very strong: 0.93 (0.95 rank correlation) for Clerical (2.C.1.b), 0.94 (0.94 rank correlation) for Manual Dexterity (1.A.2.a.2) and 0.95 (0.95 rank correlation) for Arm-hand Steadiness (1.A.2.a.1), our proxy for non-routine manual tasks.

⁷ For the three tasks for which we use the level scale in O*NET, the level is greater than 6 in just two cases: Typists (Clerical, level 6.23 for year 2010) and General office clerks (Clerical, level 6.03 for year 2010). This means that truncation at the top entails very little loss of information. Regarding truncation at the bottom, this happens in 281 cases over a total of 1,932 occupation * task * year cases (14.5 percent).

$$RTI_{o,t} = \log\left(\frac{CLERIC_{o,t} + MANUAL_{o,t}}{MATH_{o,t} + LANG_{o,t}}\right).$$
(1)

The index captures the relative routine task requirements and, thus, it measures the exposure to routine-replacing technical change of an occupation. Following the rationale of ALM (2003, p. 1287) we focus only on routine cognitive and routine manual tasks, and non-routine analytic and non-routine interactive tasks. In contrast to recent literature on the variation within the task content of occupations (Atalay et al, 2018; Ross, 2017a), we employ an index of routine intensity. We prefer this to the single measures used in prior studies because the index can smoothen the movement in the task measures due to the changes in scales and classification between DOT and O*NET, and thus it is more suitable for the analysis of long-term changes. Moreover, the index captures the relative importance of routine tasks with respect to non-routine tasks, which is the key variable to determine the exposure of an occupation to routine-replacing technical change. Therefore, the RTI index allows us to directly investigate the association between routinization and employment growth.

2.3 Validation of the DOT-O*NET matching

With the aim of confirming our matching choices and the reliability of the index of routine intensity defined above, we perform three checks to confirm that the switch from DOT to O*NET in the 1990-2000 decade does not lead to a systematic bias.

First, we search for marked differences between DOT and O*NET that may be attributable to our matching procedure. We did not find any systematic differences in average task scores between 1990 and 2000 (when O*NET was first introduced) compared to previous or subsequent periods (1980-1990 and 2000-2010). This is to say that, if systematic differences in the value of our task measures exist in blending DOT and O*NET, they are not necessarily due to our matching procedure. The quantile-to-quantile plots of Appendix A3 showing the distribution (by quantile) in the two considered years offers evidence in support.⁸ Even when some differences exist (e.g., Cleric and Manual in Figures A3 and A4), they cancel each other out when we aggregate information for the four task measures into our routinisation index (Figure A5).

Second, the result above is further corroborated by bootstrap-based tests on the first, second, third and fourth moments of DOT (1990) and O*NET (2000) distributions for our task measures (Table

⁸ The quantile-to-quantile plot reports the quantile of the variable in the left axis (RTI in t+10 in our case) in the distribution of quantiles of the variable in the right axis (RTI in t in our case). If all dots lay on the diagonal, that means that the rank distributions of the two variables are identical. This, however, does not necessarily mean that the RTI remains constant for all occupations.

A4). Notably, we only find a significant difference between the averages for clerical between 1990 and 2000 and not for math, language and manual and the RTI index. A more variegated pattern emerges for other moments of the distributions (standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis). However, when statistically significant differences are detected between 1990 and 2000, the same is found for the following decade (2000-2010) meaning that the change in the distributions of our task measures reflects a long-term pattern rather than a change that is artificially induced by our match.

Third, we compute the cross-sectional relationship between computer use at work and single items composing our task measures (Table A5).⁹ Overall, in line with expectations, computer use is significantly and positively correlated with abstract tasks (MATH and LANGUAGE) and routine cognitive tasks (CLERIC), while it is significantly and negatively correlated with (routine and non-routine) manual tasks (MANUAL and NRM) and with the RTI. Importantly, the magnitude of the estimated coefficients is similar across decades. Further analyses of the relationship between technology adoption and within-occupation task shifts in section 4.1 reinforce this result.

3 The evolution of within occupation task change over four decades

Before presenting the new facts that emerge thanks to the use of a time-varying index of task change, Table 2 shows the trends in the use of human routine input in the US economy between 1980 and 2010. In this table, the evolution of the routine task intensity captures both the within- and the between-component forces. In line with previous studies, the more general index of RTI used here shows that the overall level of routinization in 2010 is substantially smaller than that of 1980 (Column 1). The decline in RTI is very limited between 1980 and 1990 (only -2.2 percent), accelerates remarkably in the 1990s (-10.7 percent) and then, consistently with Beaudry et al (2016), slows down again in the 2000s.

The significant task change that occurred in the 1990s is consistent with the historical acceleration in the diffusion of ICTs in that decade (Autor, Katz and Krueger, 1998). Looking at heterogeneous patterns across occupations, Abstract ones are the first to de-routinize in the first two decades, followed by Blue Collar and Clerical jobs in the last decade.¹⁰ This sequence of task reconfigurations is not only consistent with models of technological revolutions in which new technologies are adopted first by high-skilled workers and then by the least skilled ones (e.g., Zeira,

⁹ Computer use at work from the CPS Computer Use Supplement (October) refers to 1989 (for tasks measured in 1990), to 1997 (for tasks measured in 2000) and to 2003 (for tasks measured in 2010).

¹⁰ For descriptive purposes, we aggregate the 322 occupations into four macro-groups that roughly illustrate the main task categories under analysis: Abstract occupations for Non-Routine Cognitive tasks; Clerks for Routine Cognitive; Blue Collar for Routine Manual; Service jobs for Non-Routine Manual. The aggregation of occupations into the four macro-groups is defined in Acemoglu and Autor (2011) while the correspondence between *OCC1990* occupations and macro-groups is based on Dorn (2009). See Table A2 in the Appendix A2.

1998; Caselli, 1999; Beaudry and Green, 2005), but it also suggests that such high-skilled workers have to learn new tasks which complement new technologies.

Changes to Abstract jobs in the third decade reveal the main limitation of our measure of routine task intensity compared to that used in related research by Atalay et al. (2018), namely that each component of the RTI index is bounded. Thereby, if an occupation had minimal level of routine intensity in 1980, a further decrease in the routine intensity cannot occur by construction. This is particularly relevant for Abstract jobs that are near the minimum of routine task intensity. To tackle this issue using our matched DOT-O*NET data, Section 4.4 explores a different measure of task change based on the idea of Deming (2017) that Abstract occupations become more complex by combining different types of non-routine tasks (e.g., social and cognitive).

			5		
	All Occupations	Abstract	Clerical	Blue Collar	Services
1980	0.181	-0.322	0.193	0.438	0.353
	(0.421)	(0.180)	(0.260)	(0.374)	(0.338)
1990	0.158	-0.305	0.181	0.457	0.402
	(0.438)	(0.188)	(0.276)	(0.425)	(0.320)
2000	0.051	-0.482	0.117	0.449	0.285
	(0.552)	(0.326)	(0.492)	(0.366)	(0.464)
2010	0.010	-0.333	-0.001	0.277	0.292
	(0.363)	(0.282)	(0.253)	(0.196)	(0.243)
Average	0.091	-0.367	0.117	0.408	0.325
	(0.456)	(0.273)	(0.351)	(0.361)	(0.349)

Table 2 – Trends in RTI by macro-occupational group

Notes: Average RTI. Weights used are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) and ACS (2010) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply

3.1 Decomposing the Long-term Changes in Routine Task Intensity

The trends shown in Table 2 pool together changes in the task content within each occupation as well as changes in the occupational composition. To gain a more precise understanding of the importance of within- vs between-occupation forces that have driven de-routinization, we decompose the overall change in RTI into three components:

$$\Delta RTI = \sum_{i,o} \left[\overline{\delta_i \phi_{i,o}} \Delta RTI_o + \overline{\delta_i} \Delta \phi_{i,o} \overline{RTI_o} + \Delta \delta_i \overline{\phi_{io} RTI_o} \right], \tag{2}$$

where *i* indexes industries and *o* occupations. $\overline{\delta_i \phi_{i,o}} \Delta RTI_o$ represents the within-occupation component holding fixed both the within-industry $\phi_{i,o}$ and between-industry δ_i compositional changes.¹¹ $\overline{\delta_i} \Delta \phi_{i,o} \overline{RTI_o}$ is the between-occupation component and $\Delta \delta_i \overline{\phi_{i,o} RTI_o}$ is the between-industry component.¹²

Table 3 summarizes changes in job task input by intensive (within) and extensive (between) margins. The main takeaway is that the within-occupation component explains 37 percent of the overall decline in RTI over 1980-2010, while the between-occupation accounts for 40 percent and the between-industry accounts for the remaining 23 percent. Note that the within component closely tracks the overall evolution of the RTI index as its effect is concentrated in the 1990s, explaining 2/3 of the overall change in this decade. This contrasts with the weakening in the contributions of both the within-industry, between-occupation and the between-industry components in the 1990s.

	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010
Within occupation	0.022	-0.072	-0.011	-0.062
Total between occupation	-0.032	-0.025	-0.011	-0.067
Total between industry	-0.018	-0.010	-0.009	-0.037
Total change	-0.028	-0.107	-0.031	-0.166

Table 3 – Decomposition of RTI

Notes: Decomposition of RTI based on equation 2. Weights used are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) and ACS (2010) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

Spitz-Oener (2006) also finds the predominance of the within-occupation component over the between component in her study on Germany over the period 1979-1999. A recent paper by Atalay et al. (2018) also investigates changes in the task content of occupations in the US using textual data extracted from job ads published in major national newspapers. Remarkably, both studies find an acceleration in the within-occupation component in 1990s compared to the 1980s. Our analysis extends those of the aforementioned studies by also including the 2000-2010 decade, where the

$$\Delta RTI = \sum_{i,o} \left[\overline{\delta_i \phi_{i,o}} \Delta RTI_o + \overline{\delta_i} \Delta \phi_{i,o} RTI_o^{1980} + \Delta \delta_i \overline{\phi_{i,o}} RTI_o^{1980} + \overline{\delta_i} \Delta \phi_{i,o} (\overline{RTI_o} - RTI_o^{1980}) + \Delta \delta_i \overline{\phi_{i,o}} (\overline{RTI_o} - RTI_o^{1980}) \right]$$

¹¹ A preliminary sketch about the relevance of within-occupation task changes can be grasped by looking at decade-todecade transition tables (Table B1 in Appendix B). When breaking the RTI index into quintiles, a large number of occupations lie outside the main diagonal of the transition matrix (18 percent for 1980-1990, 56 percent for 1990-2000, 48 percent for 2000-2010). This also implies that we have sufficient data variation to distinguish between the influence of the initial RTI and that of within-occupation task changes on employment dynamics.

¹² In principle, the two between components can be further decomposed to inspect the possible covariance between changes in industry and occupational structure and levels and changes in RTI. This full decomposition will read as:

where $\overline{\delta_i}\Delta\phi_{i,o}RTI_o^{1980}$ and $\Delta\delta_i\overline{\phi_{io}}RTI_o^{1980}$ are, respectively, the pure between-occupation and between-industry components (calculated with the initial RTI). On the other hand, $\overline{\delta_i}\Delta\phi_{i,o}(\overline{RTI_o} - RTI_o^{1980})$ and $\Delta\delta_i\overline{\phi_{io}}(\overline{RTI_o} - RTI_o^{1980})$ represent the covariance components of, respectively, the between-occupation and between-industry components. However, the two covariance terms $\overline{\delta_i}\Delta\phi_{i,o}(\overline{RTI_o} - RTI_o^{1980})$ and $\Delta\delta_i\overline{\phi_{io}}(\overline{RTI_o} - RTI_o^{1980})$ appear relatively small compared to the other terms, so we focus on the simpler decomposition. Details on the results of the full decomposition are available in Tables B2, B3 and B4 of the Appendix B.

significant deceleration of the within component closely matches that of de-routinization, which Beaudry et al. (2016) refer to as the "Great Reversal".

3.2 Catching-up and Heterogeneity

The scatter diagram in Figure 1 illustrates the extent to which the routine task input of each occupation changes (vertical axis) relative to each occupation's initial RTI. Consistent with the first fact, we observe significant differences across decades. The flat or even slightly increasing trends of the first two decades (top panels) contrast with a clear catching-up pattern of the 2000s (bottom, left-hand panel). Therein, the decrease in routine task intensity is larger among jobs that had a higher RTI at the beginning of the period. On the whole, the pattern of the 2000s clearly dominates the overall change (bottom, right-hand side panel). Compared to the 1990s, where the distribution of routine task intensity to new technologies becomes slightly more dispersed, the 2000s are characterized by substantial redistribution of non-routine intensive tasks to low- and medium-skilled occupations.

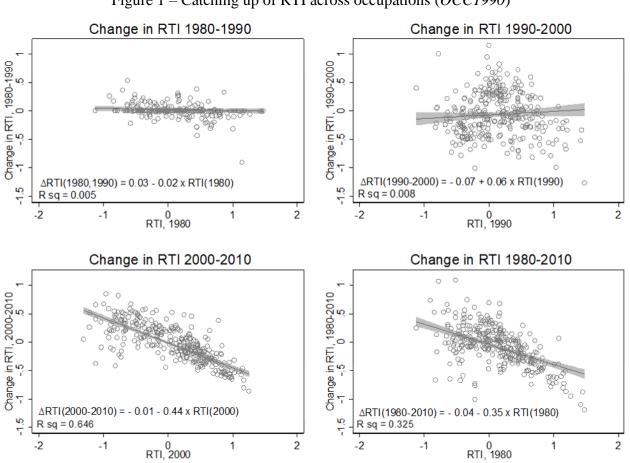


Figure 1 – Catching up of RTI across occupations (OCC1990)

Notes: Weights used in regressions are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) and ACS (2010) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

Table 4 replicates the decomposition of routinization index by macro occupational groups (Abstract, Clerical, Blue-collar and Service occupations) and the two macro-sectors (non-manufacturing and manufacturing). Consistent with this, the de-routinization pattern highlighted in Table 2 is driven by a task reorientation that primarily occurred in Clerical and Blue-collar occupations. For Clerical occupations, the decline in the RTI is constant over time, while for Blue-collar occupations, it is more pronounced in the last decade.

A recurrent pattern in our data is that, during the first wave of ICTs in the 1990s, the strongest change was the decline of RTI among Abstract occupations. In the 2000s, high-skill Abstract occupations become more routine intensive over time, again in line with the Great Reversal hypothesis (Beaudry et al., 2016). Re-routinization of Abstract occupations may reveal the greater capacity of machines in performing tasks such as translating complex documents, writing reports and legal briefs, as well as diagnosing diseases (Brynjolfsson and McAfee, 2014), or simply a limitation of our measures for these occupations, which will be addressed in Section 4.4.

	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	
	Abstract				
Within occupation	0.026	-0.175	0.140	-0.009	
Total between occupation	-0.002	-0.004	-0.004	-0.010	
Total between industry	-0.002	0.003	0.009	0.010	
Total change	0.022	-0.176	0.145	-0.009	
		Cler	rical		
Within occupation	0.012	-0.050	-0.075	-0.113	
Total between occupation	-0.031	-0.031	-0.006	-0.068	
Total between industry	-0.007	-0.001	-0.001	-0.009	
Total change	-0.026	-0.082	-0.082	-0.190	
		Blue	collar		
Within occupation	0.010	0.026	-0.170	-0.134	
Total between occupation	0.005	-0.011	0.013	0.006	
Total between industry	-0.002	-0.009	-0.001	-0.011	
Total change	0.013	0.006	-0.158	-0.139	
		Ser	vice		
Within occupation	0.068	-0.081	0.018	0.004	
Total between occupation	-0.009	-0.023	0.009	-0.023	
Total between industry	-0.005	-0.014	-0.001	-0.020	
Total change	0.054	-0.118	0.026	-0.038	

Table 4 – Decomposition of RTI by decade and occupational group

Notes: Decomposition of RTI based on equation 2. Macro-occupational groups defined in Table A3. Weights used are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) and ACS (2010) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply

When considering different industries (Table 5), we observe that the decline in the RTI is larger in manufacturing than in non-manufacturing industries. Moreover, for manufacturing industries the within-occupation change contributes to more than half (51 percent) of the total decline in RTI, while it only accounts for 38 percent of the decline in RTI in non-manufacturing sectors. Importantly, the within-occupation component is relatively more important in non-manufacturing sectors (the 1990s) than in manufacturing sectors (the 2000s). This is consistent with the fact that the first wave of ICTs replaced clerical tasks in service sectors, while the second wave in the 2000s pertained to the automation of manual tasks in manufacturing (Brynjolfsson and McAfee, 2014). Together with the differential decadal patterns across occupations, we interpret this finding as supporting our measure of within-task occupational changes and its ability to closely mimic well-established facts on the diffusion of ICTs and automation.¹³

	ceomposition of RT	by decide and	maasay	
	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010
		Manufacturi	ng industries	
Within occupation	0.004	-0.054	-0.088	-0.138
Total between occupation	-0.048	-0.032	-0.031	-0.111
Total between industry	-0.012	0.003	-0.012	-0.021
Total change	-0.054	-0.083	-0.131	-0.270
		Non-manufacti	uring industries	
Within occupation	0.027	-0.076	0.003	-0.046
Total between occupation	-0.027	-0.023	-0.007	-0.057
Total between industry	-0.009	-0.008	-0.003	-0.012
Total change	-0.009	-0.107	-0.007	-0.123

Table 5 – Decomposition of RTI by decade and industry

Notes: Decomposition of RTI based on equation 2. Weights used are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) and ACS (2010) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

3.3 A First Glance at Employment Dynamics

A key objective of the present study is to assess the relationship between qualitative change in the task content of occupations and changes in labour demand. To this end, we unpack aggregate trends of full-time US employees over the period 1980-2010 by partitioning the labour force into quintiles of initial RTI. In Figure 2, the employment share of all groups is set to 1 in 1980 so that subsequent points in the diagram depict the mean employment of each group of occupations over time. The first diagram of Figure 2 (top, left-hand side) shows changes in employment by quintiles of initial values of RTI. Here, a divide emerges between occupations that made less intensive use of routine tasks in the 1980, which experienced substantial increase in labour demand, and those with a stronger

¹³ Notice that considering only the between-occupations component will underestimate the shift away from routine tasks. Moreover, the between-occupations component varies less across decades.

routine bias. This is the familiar polarization pattern seen in prior empirical literature (ALM, 2003; Spitz-Oener, 2006; Deming and Kahn, 2018), showing that high initial routine intensity carries a penalty in terms of employment prospects.

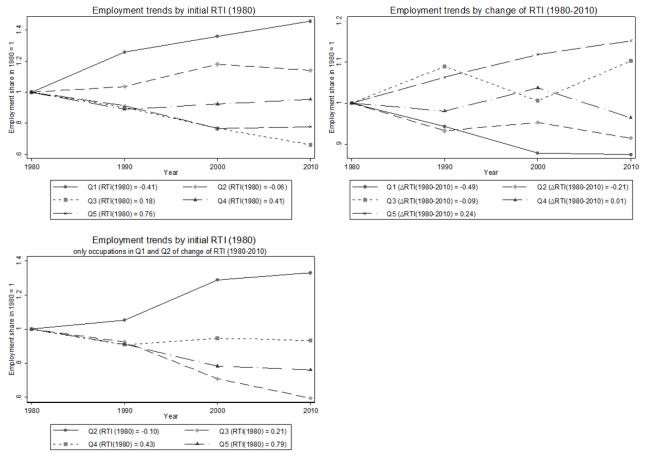


Figure 2 – Trend in employment share by initial quintile of RTI or Δ RTI

Notes: Trends in the annual hours of labour supply multiplied by sampling weights by groups of occupations defined as quintiles of the weighted distribution of RTI (1980, top-left and bottom-left panels) and of RTI change (1980-2010, top-right and bottom-left panels).

The second diagram of Figure 2 (top, right-hand side) shows changes in employment by quintiles of within-occupational changes in RTI. Here we observe that occupations that de-routinize the most (Q1 and Q2) have worse employment performance throughout the period. But this of course does not account for the initial level of RTI. In Figure 3, we unpack the trends of the sub-group of occupations that de-routinize the most, i.e., the first and second quantile in terms of change in routine task intensity, controlling for the initial level of RTI. Interestingly, we find that occupations that de-routinize the most are highly polarized in terms of long-term employment patterns. Among those that are highly routine intensive (Q5 and Q4) we observe a large employment decline, while among those with a relatively low initial routine intensity (Q2¹⁴) we observe a large employment increase. That is, among the occupations that substantially de-routinize, only those that are initially

¹⁴ Because our measure of RTI is bounded, occupations in the first quantile of routine task intensity cannot be among in the first two quintiles of de-routinization.

less routine escape the employment decline.

Taken together, these stylized facts indicate that accounting for within-occupation changes in task content yields a complex picture of structural changes in US labour markets. These issues will be explored in a more rigorous way in the next section with the aid of multivariate regressions to shed light on the conditional correlation between de-routinization and employment growth.

4 Drivers and implications of within-occupation task changes

Tasks are the interface of the race between technology and education (Goldin and Katz, 2007; Acemoglu and Autor, 2011). On the one hand, new technologies may entail a radical reallocation in the share and type of tasks performed by humans, and this can occur along both the intensive (within-occupation) and the extensive (between-occupation) margin. On the other hand, where the intensive margin is relevant, educational programmes need to adapt to keep pace with changes in the demand for specific tasks within affected occupations (Vona and Consoli, 2015). As clerical jobs, such as clerks and assistants, have experienced substantial task reconfiguration towards organizational skills and non-routine tasks ($\Delta RTI = -0.19$ over the three decades), a concurrent change in educational opportunities is necessary to equip workers with skills that are less exposed to the risks of technology. We expect that the diffusion of technology, such as ICTs, is the primary driver of within-occupation task shifts, and that those shifts are correlated with changes in the educational requirements. By testing these two predictions, the first two parts of this section closely follow related papers on within-occupation task reconfigurations (ALM, 2003; Spitz-Oener, 2006).

The third and main part of this section explores the correlation between within-occupation task shifts and outcomes of the race between technology and education, namely employment growth.¹⁵ Notice that task changes can be interpreted as a proxy of the degree of adaptation to structural transformations. Theory on routine-replacing technological change, such as the Ricardian model of Acemoglu and Autor (2011) and especially the recent extension with endogenous technical change

¹⁵ We focus on employment growth rather than wage growth for three reasons. First, while changes in the employment structure, such as employment polarization, have been particularly pronounced both in the US and in Europe (Goos et al., 2009; 2014), the polarization of the wage structure predicted by the task model appears less general than that of employment (Naticchioni et al., 2014). This can be explained by cross-country differences either in institutions (e.g., Blau and Kahn, 1996) or in skill levels (e.g., Leuven et al., 2004). Therefore, we are more confident regarding the generality of our analysis for employment than for wages. Second, we can directly contribute to the literature on the reversal in the demand of abstract tasks in the 2000s (Beaudry et al., 2016), using a more general task measure. Our analysis revisits the Great Reversal using a time-varying measure of exposure to routinization. Third, a fully-fledged analysis of wages would require a transition to individual-level data, possibly in panel, to address the issue of selection of workers into occupations. The recent study of Ross (2017b) shows that reorientation towards non-routine tasks is beneficial for wages controlling for individual fixed effects. By focusing on inequality, Atalay et al. (2017) show that within-occupation changes in task content of occupations since the 1960s account for the largest component of the increase in earnings inequality. Our analysis complements these findings by measuring the association between task changes and employment growth.

of Acemoglu and Restrepo (2017), clearly advocates that successful adaptation should entail a reorientation away from routine tasks. Accordingly, occupations that de-routinize faster are expected to experience faster growth in wages and employment shares.

4.1 Technological change and within-occupation task changes

We examine the association between within-occupation task shifts and a proxy of technological change in the workplace: the change in the share of workers using computers. Although we are aware of the limitations of this measure, it is the only occupation-level measure for which data are available and that has been used in previous studies (e.g., Autor, Katz and Krueger, 1998). As information on computer use at work by occupations from CPS (Current Population Survey) is only available for few selected samples, we focus our analysis on the 1990-2000 decade.¹⁶ This is critical for our study given the data compatibility issues raised by the combination of DOT and O*NET. Similarly, within-occupation task changes occurred mostly in this decade, which further reinforces our focus on this decade.¹⁷ We use a long-difference estimator to retrieve the associations between the change in the task content of occupation and the change in computer use, controlling for the initial levels of task input and computer use:

$$\Delta Task_o^{1990-2000} = \alpha + \beta Task_o^{1990} + \gamma Computer use_o^{1989} + \delta \Delta Computer use_o^{1989-1997} + \varepsilon_o \quad (3)$$

Also, this analysis represents a further robustness check of choice of task items for the match between DOT and O*NET. For this reason, and in contrast to subsequent analyses where we focus on the aggregate routine-task intensity index, we present the correlations for the four task items that enter the RTI index, the non-routine manual task measure and the RTI index itself.

Table 6 reports the results of this analysis. In line with the existing literature (ALM, 2003; Spitz-Oener, 2006), we find a positive contribution of the change in computer use to the within-occupation change in analytical (math) and interactive (language) tasks, a negative contribution to the change in routine (manual and clerical) and no clear effect on non-routine manual tasks (NRM, see Table A1 for details on the NRM measure). By combining these results, we find a negative association between the change in computer use and the change in routine-task intensity. Note that the increase in the share of workers using computers at work was 14.3% during this decade. This implies an average change in RTI that is 1.6 times the actual change (-0.094 vs. -0.058). Although

¹⁶ More specifically, information on computer use at work is available for CPS Computer Use Supplement (October) for years 1989, 1993, 1997, 2001 and 2003.

¹⁷ We measure computer use as the share of workers that use a computer at work in an occupation. We use 1997 as a proxy for computer use in 2000 as we expect computer use to affect tasks with a lag. However, results are qualitatively unaffected if we use computer use in 2003 to proxy the 2000 values.

this may appear surprisingly large, it is in line with the estimates by ALM (2003; for the period 1984-1997 computerization more than fully accounts for the observed changes in single task measure) and Spitz-Oener (2006; effects ranging between 47% (non-routine interactive) and 90% (routine cognitive) that combined together in a RTI index will deliver an association of a similar size).

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(6)	(5)
Growth 1990-2000	Math	Language	Cleric	Manual	NRM	RTI
Task intensity in 1990	-0.436***	-0.389***	0.022	-0.238**	-0.646***	-0.050
	(0.070)	(0.063)	(0.149)	(0.102)	(0.136)	(0.128)
Computer use in 1989	0.162**	0.096	-0.013	-0.263***	-0.108	-0.068
	(0.081)	(0.086)	(0.122)	(0.061)	(0.068)	(0.255)
Growth in computer use (1989- 1997)	0.146*	0.384***	-0.335	-0.429***	-0.101	-0.654**
,	(0.078)	(0.128)	(0.219)	(0.117)	(0.103)	(0.292)
R squared	0.327	0.209	0.0327	0.290	0.320	0.0392

Table 6 – Technological change and within-occupation task changes

Notes: N=322 occupations. OLS regression. Weights used are the product of CPS Computer Use Supplement (October) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01. Computer use measured as the share of workers in the occupation that use computers on the job (source: CPS Computer Use Supplement October 1989, 1997). As a proxy for non-routine manual task intensity we use the DOT item EYEHAND (Eye-hand-foot coordination), that is measured over a range 1-5. This task is matched to the O*NET task 'Response orientation' (1.A.2.b.3, importance). See Table A1.

Overall, our data-set built from the combination of DOT and O*NET confirms the strong association between computer use and task reconfiguration within an occupation. In light of this, we can safely attribute the bulk of this reconfiguration to routine-replacing technological change.

4.2 Within-occupation task changes and educational requirements

How did education respond to the technology-driven task shifts reported above? Decreasing routine task intensity parallels increasing task complexity and thus is expected to be positively correlated with skill upgrading. Slow or no adaptation of education and training can only exacerbate skill gaps (Vona and Consoli, 2015) and the associated negative labour market outcomes (Guvenen et al, 2019). To this end, again following ALM (2003) and Spitz-Oener (2006), we predict changes in educational requirements associated with within-occupation task reconfigurations. In practice, we first estimate the following equation, weighted by the hours worked:

$$Educ_{o,t} = \alpha + \beta_t RTI_{o,t} + \delta_t + \varepsilon_{o,t}$$
(4)

and then compute the average predicted increase in education due to changes in the RTI index as: $\Delta \widehat{Educ}_t = \sum_o h_{o,t} \times (\widehat{\beta}_t \Delta RTI_{o,t})$, where $Educ_{o,t}$ and $h_{o,t}$ are, respectively, a measure of educational level and of the hours worked by occupation o at time t.

A novelty of the present study is that, besides standard measures of skill upgrading such as the share of graduates working a specific occupation, we use data on the Classification of Instructional Program (CIP). These provide, for the entire timespan under analysis, an accurate description of the number and the types of instructional programmes that are required to perform the set of tasks of a given occupation. A key advantage of CIP data is that they are organized by SOC code and thus can be easily matched with our original data (see the Appendix C for details). We use CIP data to construct three variables: total number of instructional programmes (a proxy of educational complexity), shares of business-oriented programmes and technical-oriented programmes. We manually classify programmes into business- and technical-orientated to capture adjustments in education, and thus to match changes in the demand of the two main components of non-routine tasks: interactive and analytical.

	Average value in 1980	Increase predicted by changes in the task content	Actual increase	R squared in the education regression	F-test of joint significance of RTI and its interaction with time dummies
Share of workers with a high school degree	0.354	-0.019	-0.033	0.452	46.05***
Share of workers with a college degree	0.313	0.030	0.085	0.534	123.60***
Share of workers with a post-graduate degree	0.108	0.013	0.023	0.266	40.76***
Number of instructional programmes	2.582	3.397	4.048	0.359	9.01***
Share of 'business' instructional programmes	0.284	0.019	0.018	0.136	22.86***
Share of 'technical' instructional programmes	0.091	0.003	0.013	0.016	1.95

Table 7 – Quantification of education

Notes: Average values. Weights used are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) and ACS (2010) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Educational attainment (high-school, college, post-graduate) is retrieved from individual worker data from IPUMS (decennial Census for 1980, 1990 and 2000; ACS for 2010). The number and the composition of educational programmes is retrieved from the Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP; see Appendix C). Regression results are reported in Table C2 in Appendix C.

Table 7 confronts the predicted changes in education by within-occupation task changes with the actual ones, while the full set of results is given in Table C2 of the Appendix C. As regards the

standard measures of education, task reconfigurations predict a statistically significant (as shown by F-tests in column 5) portion of the skill upgrading of the US workplace over the three decades of our analysis. By considering all observed trends of occupational (de-)routinization, our model captures 58% of the decline in the share of high-school graduates, one-third of the increase in the share of college graduates and a remarkable 56% of the increase in the share of post-graduates.

With regards to the change in the number and type of educational programmes, the association between RTI and skill upgrading is statistically significant for the total number of instructional programmes (in log) and the share of business-related programmes, but not for the share of technical programmes. This resonates with the finding of Deming (2017) that the bulk of the shift towards non-routine tasks has been towards non-routine interactive tasks, such as social and managerial ones, performed by graduate students in business-related disciplines. Remarkably, within-occupation task changes predict the entire increase in the share of business instructional programmes and 84% of the general increase in educational complexity as measured by the total number of programmes required to perform a certain job. This suggests that adjustments in the educational supply are important, not only along the extensive margin, i.e., increasing the share of college graduates, but also along the intensive margin by increasing the variety and the type of educational programmes required to perform a job (Vona and Consoli, 2015).

4.3 Implications of within-occupation task changes for long-term employment growth

We retrieve the conditional association between decennial employment growth and task reconfiguration by estimating the following equation:

$$\Delta ln(L_{oi,t}) = \alpha + \beta_1 RTI_{o,t-1} + \beta_2 \Delta RTI_{o,t} + \gamma NRM_{o,t-1} + \varphi OFF_o + \delta_t + \delta_i + \varepsilon_{o,t}$$
(5)

where the decennial (or the thirty year) change in the log of employment of occupation o in industry $(L_{oi,t})$ is regressed on three lagged measures of occupational task orientation at the beginning of the period: i) $RTI_{o,t-1}$, the initial value of routine intensity; ii) OFF_o , a time-invariant index of offshorability as defined in Acemoglu and Autor (2011), iii) $NRM_{o,t-1}$, non-routine manual intensity, as well as industry and year dummies. Controlling for offshorability and NRM is the most obvious and direct way to isolate the incidence of routinization from that of other intervening factors at the occupation-level. Our variable of interest is the long-term change in routine task intensity within an occupation, $\Delta RTI_{o,t}$.

Similar to Goos et al. (2014), estimates are performed at the occupation-by-industry level to control, in a flexible way, for industry-level drivers such as globalization, which may influence employment

dynamics. As a variant of the long-term 30-year model, we also estimate equation 5 where all decades are stacked together.¹⁸ Finally, all estimates are weighted for the hours worked at the beginning of the period and the standard errors are clustered at the occupation-level

An obvious caveat is that the coefficients of our main variable of interest, ΔRTI , cannot be interpreted as a causal effect, although the sources of estimation bias are likely to offset each other. On the one hand, self-selection of more skilled workers into occupations that de-routinize faster makes these occupations more productive and less likely to experience a decline, bringing an upward bias in the estimated coefficient of ΔRTI . On the other hand, the fact that the changes in RTI are bounded from above underestimates the effective task reorientation for top occupations. Since abstract occupations are becoming more complex and are also the main 'winners' in terms of earnings and employment growth (Deming, 2017), this leads to an underestimation of the true effect of task shifts on employment.

Results are shown in Table 8. For comparison with previous studies (e.g., Goos et al., 2014), panel A presents estimates of equation 5 without our main variable of interest, ΔRTI . Clearly, routine-task intensity is associated with employment growth for all the decades, but, consistent with the hypothesised Great Reversal (Beaudry et al., 2016), the size of this association fades over time.

In panel B, we include the change in routine task intensity as the explanatory variable. The most important finding is that within-occupation changes in routine task intensity have a statistically significant association with employment dynamics over the entire 30-year span of our analysis (columns 4-5). However, the effect is concentrated in the decade 1990-2000 (column 3).¹⁹ In this crucial transition for US labour markets, as also pointed out by Atalay et al. (2018), occupations that experienced a relatively larger decrease in routine task intensity grew faster than occupations with a similar level of initial routine task intensity. Importantly, the inclusion of our proxy of within-occupation task change reduces the size of the coefficient of initial routine task intensity, which becomes statistically insignificant in the last decade.

¹⁸ In the stacked model, we slightly amend the specification of equation 5 by interacting industry dummies and offshorability, which is time-invariant, with time dummies.

¹⁹ Tables D1, D2 and D3 in Appendix D show that the results are robust using the time-invariant weights from the April 1971 CPS Monthly File, including non-routine manual tasks in the RTI index and using a more parsimonious specification without the task measures for offshorability and for the importance of non-routine manual tasks.

	Panel A - Only initial RTI						
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked		
Initial RTI	-0.223***	-0.139**	-0.077**	-0.474***	-0.129***		
	(0.054)	(0.059)	(0.039)	(0.117)	(0.029)		
Offshorability	0.727**	-0.411	0.069	0.736	0.732**		
	(0.363)	(0.401)	(0.199)	(0.693)	(0.313)		
Initial man task	0.274	0.081	0.058	0.571	0.141		
	(0.183)	(0.267)	(0.099)	(0.395)	(0.125)		
R sq	0.317	0.179	0.380	0.365	0.262		
Ν	29847	28897	28083	26531	86827		
	Panel	B - Initial and cl	hange of RTI				
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked		
Initial RTI	-0.216***	-0.119**	-0.055	-0.627***	-0.158***		
	(0.058)	(0.058)	(0.054)	(0.126)	(0.039)		
ΔRTI	0.239	-0.237**	0.047	-0.426**	-0.138**		
	(0.241)	(0.103)	(0.085)	(0.207)	(0.067)		
Offshorability	0.763**	-0.565	0.095	0.405	0.679**		
	(0.364)	(0.411)	(0.206)	(0.736)	(0.313)		
Initial man task	0.272	0.071	0.056	0.617	0.136		
	(0.182)	(0.260)	(0.100)	(0.378)	(0.125)		
R sq	0.319	0.187	0.381	0.370	0.264		
Ν	29847	28897	28083	26531	86827		

Table 8 – Baseline estimates

Notes: OLS model. All models include industry dummies. Weights used are the start of period product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Robust standard errors clustered at occupation level in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01. In the stacked differences specification offshorability (unreported) and industry dummies are interacted with period dummies.

The magnitude of the association between our variables of interest and employment growth is quantified in Table 9. Since both ΔRTI and RTI have no clear scale, we quantify the change in employment implied by inter-quartile changes in our variables of interest. The goal is to compare the extent to which previous estimates, which consider only the role of initial routine-task intensity, fail to account for the overall association between routine-replacing technological change and employment. As expected given the boundedness of ΔRTI for Abstract jobs, differences in the initial level of RTI explain a larger portion of employment growth than changes in routine-task intensity. To illustrate, over the thirty years under analysis (e.g., row 4), occupations in the bottom quartile of routine task intensity grow on average 41% more than occupations in the top quartile. In turn, the long-term inter-quartile difference in the change of routine task intensity accounts for a lower bound with a 10.8% difference (row 5) to an upper bound with a 15.8% difference (row 4) in

employment growth. However, the magnitude of the association between task reorientation and employment growth is larger than that of the initial *RTI* in the 1990s.

Table 9 – Quantification of employment changes							
	IQR initial RTI	IQR ∆RTI	Predicted employment change (percentage) by 1 IQR decrease of initial RTI	Predicted employment change (percentage) by 1 IQR decrease of ΔRTI			
1980-1990	0.651	0.046	0.141	-0.011			
1990-2000	0.730	0.428	0.087	0.101			
2000-2010	0.939	0.420	0.052	-0.020			
Long difference 1980-2010	0.797	0.354	0.408	0.158			
Stacked 1980-2010	0.651	0.252	0.428	0.108			

Table 9 – Quantification of employment changes

Notes: The quantification is based on baseline results from Panel B of Table 8. Not significant effects (p-value<0.1) are indicated in italics.

To summarize, explicitly accounting for within-occupation task changes does not radically alter the main findings of the existing literature on routine-replacing technological change but adds to it by uncovering important nuances that have thus far been neglected. The association between employment and changes in the task content of occupations during the first wave of the ICT revolution in the 1990s calls for adaptation in the educational supply to fill the skill-task gap opened by the new technological regime. The subsequent decline in the importance of within-occupation task changes may be either an indication of successful catching-up of education with technology, or simply of a slowdown of technological change in the spirit of previous studies (e.g., Beaudry et al., 2016). Our study is inconclusive in discriminating among these competing explanations, but points to a new, empirically testable, direction for future research.

4.4 Heterogeneous effects by occupational groups and macro-sectors

This final section replicates the estimation of equation 5 splitting the sample by macro occupational groups. At the cost of significantly decreasing the source of variation used to identify the association between employment growth and routinization, we seek to discern which occupations have benefited the most from changes in task content. The results in Table 10 broadly support the findings of the descriptive section, namely that within-occupation task changes are particularly important in explaining employment patterns of Clerical and Blue-collar occupations. Notice that, as expected, reducing the source of data variation used for our estimation entails that the coefficients of both ΔRTI and RTI are imprecisely estimated.

		Abstract			
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked
Initial RTI	-0.020 (0.183)	0.203 (0.245)	-0.106** (0.043)	-0.461 (0.415)	-0.009 (0.075)
ΔRTI	0.372 (0.525)	0.163 (0.213)	0.045 (0.053)	0.082 (0.285)	0.137 (0.102)
R sq	0.414	0.277	0.418	0.451	0.351
N	8164	8183	8406	7589	24753
		Clerical			
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked
Initial RTI	-0.439* (0.218)	-0.091 (0.169)	0.112 (0.102)	-1.186*** (0.320)	-0.200** (0.088)
ΔRTI	-0.786 (0.689)	-0.258 (0.224)	0.400*** (0.130)	-0.751** (0.342)	-0.119 (0.116)
R sq	0.346	0.434	0.419	0.461	0.414
N	6522	6234	6022	6042	18778
		Blue-colla	r		
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked
Initial RTI	-0.196* (0.096)	-0.151 (0.114)	0.162 (0.105)	0.200 (0.323)	-0.064 (0.068)
ΔRTI	0.470*** (0.136)	-0.206 (0.122)	-0.003 (0.143)	0.151 (0.419)	-0.165* (0.089)
R sq	0.314	0.264	0.383	0.366	0.298
N	12301	11656	10696	10295	34653
		Service			
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked
Initial RTI	-0.188 (0.239)	-0.198 (0.159)	0.157*** (0.035)	-0.463* (0.256)	-0.067 (0.082)
ΔRTI	-0.460 (0.721)	-0.116 (0.089)	0.184*** (0.055)	-0.302 (0.246)	-0.130 (0.104)
R sq	0.548	0.354	0.579	0.595	0.483
N	2732	2680	2714	2480	8126

Table 10 – Estimates by macro-occupational group

Notes: OLS model. Robust standard errors clustered at occupation level are in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01. All models include industry dummies. Weights used are the start of period product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Results for offshorability and manual task intensity are not reported. In the stacked differences specification offshorability and industry dummies are interacted with period dummies.

Table 11 shows the estimates of equation 5 splitting our sample by the two macro-sectors: manufacturing and non-manufacturing. In both cases, employment grows relatively faster in

occupations that become relatively less-routine intensive. However, the two macro-sectors diverge in the last decade. While the association between occupational de-routinization and employment growth remains positive, large and statistically significant for manufacturing, it is no longer significant for the rest of the economy. Remarkably, the association between employment growth and the initial level of routine-task intensity follows the same pattern. These findings resonate with current trends in the literature that link recent advances in technology and the rapid diffusion of robots that will primarily substitute the motorial and physical tasks that are intensively used in manufacturing (Graetz and Micheals, 2018; Acemoglu and Restrepo 2018).

Panel A - Manufacturing							
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked		
Initial RTI	-0.306***	-0.169**	-0.209**	-0.840***	-0.221***		
	(0.059)	(0.075)	(0.084)	(0.207)	(0.048)		
ΔRTI	0.722***	-0.273**	-0.260**	-0.687*	-0.226**		
	(0.169)	(0.134)	(0.126)	(0.369)	(0.091)		
R sq	0.405	0.219	0.344	0.280	0.300		
N	11700	10881	10237	9928	32818		
	Pan	el B - Non-man	ufacturing				
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked		
Initial RTI	-0.177**	-0.093	-0.027	-0.537***	-0.134**		
	(0.085)	(0.071)	(0.052)	(0.156)	(0.052)		
ΔRTI	0.110	-0.231*	0.107	-0.387*	-0.113		
	(0.292)	(0.123)	(0.084)	(0.222)	(0.077)		
R sq	0.242	0.167	0.288	0.292	0.214		
N	18147	18016	17846	16603	54009		

Table 11- Results by macro-sector

Notes: OLS model. Robust standard errors clustered at occupation level in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01. All models include industry dummies. Weights used are the start of period product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Results for offshorability and manual task intensity are not reported. In the stacked differences specification offshorability and industry dummies are interacted with period dummies.

Finally, because task reconfigurations have an upper bound, the role of within-occupation task shifts is underestimated for occupations, i.e., Abstract jobs, with high initial levels of task complexity. To deal with this issue, we re-estimate equation 5 by including a measure of task variety that is described in Appendix A1. Results are summarized in Table 12 where, for the sake of brevity, we focus on the comparison between Abstract occupations and all other occupations. The main finding is that increasing task variety is positively associated with employment growth within the group of abstract jobs, but not all for the other occupations. This is suggestive of a different

margin of task reorientation for already complex occupations. Rather than merely requiring a more intensive use of non-routine tasks, such occupations adapt by increasing task variety (Acemoglu and Restrepo, 2017), multi-tasking (Goerlich and Snower, 2013) and cognitive-social task complementarities (Deming, 2017). Obviously, the insights given by the present study on the different margins of task reorientation require further validation in the context of a homogeneous dataset, such as O*NET when a sufficient timespan will be available.

	Pane	el A - Abstract o	ccupations		
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked
Initial RTI	0.041	0.234	-0.138**	-0.297	-0.055
	(0.180)	(0.225)	(0.056)	(0.435)	(0.084)
ΔRTI	0.285	0.202	0.109	0.010	0.186
	(0.424)	(0.268)	(0.072)	(0.275)	(0.131)
Δ Variety Routine	-0.041	0.001	-0.049*	0.051	-0.026
	(0.063)	(0.037)	(0.026)	(0.044)	(0.023)
Δ Variety Non-Routine	0.102*	0.075*	0.012	-0.008	0.035**
	(0.049)	(0.042)	(0.012)	(0.062)	(0.016)
R sq	0.425	0.288	0.425	0.454	0.356
Ν	8164	8183	8406	7589	24753
	Р	anel B - All occ	upations		
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked
Initial RTI	-0.167***	-0.138**	-0.051	-0.641***	-0.163***
	(0.047)	(0.058)	(0.053)	(0.136)	(0.040)
ΔRTI	0.476***	-0.230**	0.065	-0.539**	-0.128*
	(0.156)	(0.101)	(0.082)	(0.230)	(0.069)
Δ Variety Routine	-0.038	0.007	-0.019	-0.020	-0.010
	(0.055)	(0.021)	(0.012)	(0.037)	(0.012)
Δ Variety Non-Routine	0.071	0.013	-0.005	-0.066*	0.012
	(0.048)	(0.023)	(0.007)	(0.039)	(0.009)
R sq	0.329	0.187	0.383	0.376	0.265
Ν	29847	28897	28083	26531	86827

Table 12– Estimates that account for the variety in tasks

Notes: OLS model. Robust standard errors clustered at occupation level in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01. All models include industry dummies. Weights used are the start of period product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Results for offshorability and manual task intensity are not reported. In the stacked differences specification offshorability and industry dummies are interacted with period dummies.

5 Concluding remarks

This paper has presented an analysis of occupational task content over the period 1980-2010 in the US. We fill a gap in the empirical literature on structural changes in labour markets by adding an important nuance to the extended literature that mostly focusses on the reallocation of employment between occupations at the extensive margin.

Looking at changes in job tasks within occupations, at the intensive margin, affords the opportunity to account for the disruptive effects of new technology beyond a short-term horizon, and to capture the qualitative transformation of work activities and, thus, of the necessary skills. Moreover, an analysis of how the job content changes over time opens up new avenues towards informing the design of education and training. To this end, we implemented a procedure to match the main sources of occupation-specific data, DOT and O*NET. This allowed us to create a consistent index of within-occupation routine task intensity over a thirty-year period, and to reassess the long-term structural changes in the US labour market during the momentous era of widespread adoption of automation.

Descriptive evidence shows that within-occupation task change accounts for more than one third of the overall decline in RTI between 1980 and 2010. Beneath this aggregate pattern, however, stand important nuances. First, the within-component task change accelerates in the 1990s and decelerates in the 2000s. Second, the acceleration in the 1990s is accompanied by a divergence in the routine-intensity of jobs, with abstract occupations becoming less routine intensive. By contrast, the deceleration of the 2000s is accompanied by a substantial de-routinization of Clerical and Blue-collar occupations with respect to Abstract occupations. The regression analysis yields three main findings. First, as expected, change in computer use exhibits a positive association with changes in routine tasks. Second, within-occupation task changes predict a statistically significant proportion of the educational expansion, both in terms of graduate and post-graduate education and in the number and type of educational programmes supplied. Third, changes in RTI have a significant influence on employment growth over the entire timespan. Conditional on the initial routine task intensity, a task reorientation towards non-routine tasks allows one to escape employment decline, especially in 1990-2000 and among Clerical occupations.

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Appendix A – Validation of task measures

A1 DOT-O*NET match of tasks to build the measure of task variety

Task category (ALM, 2003)	DOT description	DOT scale	O*NET description	O*NET scale
Non-routine analytical	REASON: Reasoning development	1-6	Critical thinking (skill, 2.A.2.a, level)	0-7 ↓ 1-6
	NUMERIC: Numerical aptitude	1-5	Processing information (work activity, 4.A.2.a.2, importance)	1-5
	SJC: Making judgments and decisions	0/1	Information ordering (ability, 1.A.1.b.6, importance, =1 if >=3, zero otherwise)	1-5
Non-routine interactive	DCP: Direction, control, planning	0/1	Judgment and decision making (skill, 2.B.4.e, importance, =1 if >=3, zero otherwise)	1-5
	DEPL: Dealing with people	0/1	Establishing and Maintaining Interpersonal Relationships (work activity, 4.A.4.a.4, importance, =1 if >=3, zero otherwise)	1-5
	VARCH: Variety and change	0/1	Organizing, Planning, and Prioritizing Work (work activity, 4.A.2.b.6, importance, =1 if >=3, zero otherwise)	1-5
Routine manual	FINGER: Finger dexterity	1-5	Finger dexterity (ability, 1.A.2.a.3, importance)	1-5
	STRENGTH: Strength	1-4	Average of Static strength (ability, 1.A.3.a.1, importance), Dynamic strength (ability, 1.A.3.a.3, importance) and Trunk strength (ability, 1.A.3.a.4, importance)	1-5
	FORM: Form Perception	1-5	Flexibility of closure (ability, 1.A.1.e.2, importance)	1-5
Routine cognitive	STS: Set limits, tolerances or standards	0/1	Operation and control (skill, 2.B.3.h, importance, =1 if >=3, zero otherwise)	1-5
	COLOR: Color discrimination	1-5	Visual color discrimination (ability, 1.A.4.a.3, importance)	1-5
	REPCON: Repetitive or continuous processes	0/1	Control precision (ability, 1.A.2.b.1, importance, =1 if >=3, zero otherwise)	1-5

Table A1 – DOT-O*NET match of tasks to build the measure of task variety

Notes: Correspondence between all DOT task categories used in ALM (2003) with O*NET task categories.

To validate our measure, we introduce a measure of task variety that exploits the matching across 16 different task items between DOT and O*NET (see Data section in the main text). Our starting point is the recognition of the growing importance of task complexity (Acemoglu and Restrepo,

2017) and of multi-tasking (Goerlich and Snower, 2013; Weinberger, 2014; Borner et al., 2018) in response to technological change. Notably, Deming (2017) shows that when team production is important and a variety of jobs exist in the workplace, workers are able to exploit a comparative advantage via specialisation and the trading of tasks. In such a framework, workers with high cognitive skills possess higher productivity while workers with high social skills specialise and are able to trade tasks more efficiently thus improving their gains as well and leading to a degree of complementarity between the two. The authors further provide evidence on the wage gains from combining social and cognitive skills using data from the national longitudinal survey of youth.

To capture the relevance of changes in occupational task variety and multi-tasking we consider discrete changes in the importance of occupational tasks. As a first step, we build 16 dichotomous variables, one for each task (Table 1 and Table A1): the variable is coded 1 if the task intensity is larger than the central value of the theoretical distribution (i.e., larger than 3.5 for 1-6 scales, larger than 3 for 1-5 scales, larger than 0.5 for 0-1 scales). We then build two measures of task variety, one for routine tasks (routine manual and routine cognitive tasks) and one for non-routine tasks (non-routine interactive).

Descriptive evidence of the trends by macro-occupation in task variety measures is reported in Table A2. While the variety of routine tasks is on average low (below 1.5) and stable over time, the variety of non-routine tasks is much larger (3.89 on average) and increases substantially over time (+52%, on average, between 1980 and 2010). As expected, the variety in non-routine tasks is particularly important for Abstract occupations, while the variety of routine tasks is the largest in Service occupations. Non-routine task variety increases in all occupations, including Abstract occupations (for which the average value in 1980 was already very large, 5.87 compared to a theoretical maximum of 8). This evidence suggests that our measure of task variety is helpful in accounting for increases in the complexity of occupations that cannot be accounted for in the top occupations by our bounded measure of RTI.

			8)			
	All occupations	Abstract	Clerical	Manual	Services	
	Task variety - Routine tasks					
1980	1.48	1.24	1.55	0.90	1.95	
1990	1.45	1.31	1.33	0.97	1.95	
2000	1.47	0.73	1.09	1.03	2.88	
2010	1.39	0.89	0.67	0.70	2.96	
Average	1.45	1.04	1.16	0.90	2.43	
		Task var	iety - Non-rout	ine tasks		
1980	3.28	5.87	3.06	1.92	1.22	
1990	3.60	6.45	3.09	1.93	1.63	
2000	3.71	6.57	3.68	1.83	1.38	
2010	4.98	7.17	4.85	3.27	3.43	
Average	3.89	6.51	3.67	2.24	1.92	

Table A2 – Average task variety measures (weighted by hours worked multiplied by sample weights)

Notes: Average task variety measures of occupations by macro occupational groups defined in Table A3. Weights used are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) and ACS (2010) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply

A2 Definition of macro-occupational groups

Table A3 – Definition of macro occupational groups (based on Dorn, 1999, and Acemoglu and Autor, 2011)

OCC1990	Occupation name		
	Abstract occupations		
4	Chief executives, public administrators, and legislators		
7	Financial managers		
8	Human resources and labor relations managers		
13	Managers and specialists in marketing, advert., PR		
	Managers in education and related fields		
	Managers of medicine and health occupations		
	Managers of properties and real estate		
	Managers and administrators, n.e.c.		
	Accountants and auditors		
24	Insurance underwriters		
	Other financial specialists		
	Management analysts		
	Personnel, HR, training, and labor rel. specialists		
	Purchasing agents and buyers of farm products		
	Buyers, wholesale and retail trade		
	Purchasing managers, agents, and buyers, n.e.c.		
	Business and promotion agents		
	Inspectors and compliance officers, outside		
	Management support occupations		
	Architects		
	Aerospace engineers		
	Metallurgical and materials engineers		
	Petroleum, mining, and geological engineers		
	Chemical engineers		
	Civil engineers		
	Electrical engineers		
56	Industrial engineers		

- 57 Mechanical engineers
- 59 Engineers and other professionals, n.e.c.
- 64 Computer systems analysts and computer scientists
- 65 Operations and systems researchers and analysts
- 66 Actuaries
- 68 Mathematicians and statisticians
- 69 Physicists and astronomists
- 73 Chemists
- 74 Atmospheric and space scientists
- 75 Geologists
- 76 Physical scientists, n.e.c.
- 77 Agricultural and food scientists
- 78 Biological scientists
- 79 Foresters and conservation scientists
- 83 Medical scientists
- 84 Physicians
- 85 Dentists
- 86 Veterinarians
- 87 Optometrists
- 88 Podiatrists
- 89 Other health and therapy occupations
- 95 Registered nurses
- 96 Pharmacists
- 97 Dieticians and nutritionists
- 98 Respiratory therapists
- 99 Occupational therapists
- 103 Physical therapists
- 104 Speech therapists
- 105 Therapists, n.e.c.
- 106 Physicians' assistants
- 154 Subject instructors, college
- 155 Kindergarten and earlier school teachers
- 156 Primary school teachers
- 157 Secondary school teachers
- 158 Special education teachers
- 159 Teachers, n.e.c.
- 164 Librarians
- 165 Archivists and curators
- 166 Economists, market and survey researchers
- 167 Psychologists
- 169 Social scientists and sociologists, n.e.c.
- 173 Urban and regional planners
- 178 Lawyers and judges
- 183 Writers and authors
- 184 Technical writers
- 185 Designers
- 186 Musicians and composers
- 187 Actors, directors, and producers
- 188 Painters, sculptors, craft-artists, and print-makers
- 189 Photographers
- 193 Dancers
- 194 Art/entertainment performers and related occs
- 195 Editors and reporters
- 198 Announcers
- 199 Athletes, sports instructors, and officials
- 203 Clinical laboratory technologies and technicians
- 204 Dental hygienists
- 205 Health record technologists and technicians
- 206 Radiologic technologists and technicians
- 207 Licensed practical nurses
- 208 Health technologists and technicians, n.e.c.
- 214 Engineering technicians

- 217 Drafters
- 218 Surveryors, cartographers, mapping scientists/techs
- 223 Biological technicians
- 224 Chemical technicians
- 225 Other science technicians
- 226 Airplane pilots and navigators
- 227 Air traffic controllers
- 228 Broadcast equipment operators
- 229 Computer software developers
- 234 Legal assistants and paralegals
- 473 Farmers (owners and tenants)
- 475 Farm managers
- 677 Optical goods workers

678 Dental laboratory and medical applicance technicians

- Blue-collar occupations 35 Construction inspectors
- 233 Programmers of numerically controlled machine tools
- 408 Laundry and dry cleaning workers
- 503 Supervisors of mechanics and repairers
- 505 Automobile mechanics and repairers
- 507 Bus, truck, and stationary engine mechanics
- 508 Aircraft mechanics
- 509 Small engine repairers
- 514 Auto body repairers
- 516 Heavy equipement and farm equipment mechanics
- 518 Industrial machinery repairers
- 519 Machinery maintenance occupations
- 523 Repairers of industrial electrical equipment
- 525 Repairers of data processing equipment
- 526 Repairers of household appliances and power tools
- 527 Telecom and line installers and repairers
- 533 Repairers of electrical equipment, n.e.c.
- 534 Heating, air conditioning, and refrigeration mechanics
- 535 Precision makers, repairers, and smiths
- 536 Locksmiths and safe repairers
- 539 Repairers of mechanical controls and valves
- 543 Elevator installers and repairers
- 544 Millwrights
- 549 Mechanics and repairers, n.e.c.
- 558 Supervisors of construction work
- 563 Masons, tilers, and carpet installers
- 567 Carpenters
- 573 Drywall installers
- 575 Electricians
- 577 Electric power installers and repairers
- 579 Painters, construction and maintenance
- 583 Paperhangers
- 584 Plasterers
- 585 Plumbers, pipe fitters, and steamfitters
- 588 Concrete and cement workers
- 589 Glaziers
- 593 Insulation workers
- 594 Paving, surfacing, and tamping equipment operators
- 595 Roofers and slaters
- 597 Structural metal workers
- 598 Drillers of earth
- 599 Misc. construction and related occupations
- 614 Drillers of oil wells
- 615 Explosives workers
- 616 Miners
- 617 Other mining occupations
- 628 Production supervisors or foremen

- 634 Tool and die makers and die setters
- 637 Machinists
- 643 Boilermakers
- 644 Precision grinders and fitters
- 645 Patternmakers and model makers
- 649 Engravers
- 657 Cabinetmakers and bench carpeters
- 658 Furniture/wood finishers, other prec. wood workers
- 666 Dressmakers, seamstresses, and tailors
- 668 Upholsterers
- 669 Shoemakers, other prec. apparel and fabric workers
- 675 Hand molders and shapers, except jewelers
- 679 Bookbinders
- 686 Butchers and meat cutters
- 687 Bakers
- 688 Batch food makers
- 694 Water and sewage treatment plant operators
- 695 Power plant operators
- 696 Plant and system operators, stationary engineers
- 699 Other plant and system operators
- 703 Lathe, milling, and turning machine operatives
- 706 Punching and stamping press operatives
- 707 Rollers, roll hands, and finishers of metal
- 708 Drilling and boring machine operators
- 709 Grinding, abrading, buffing, and polishing workers
- 713 Forge and hammer operators
- 719 Molders and casting machine operators
- 723 Metal platers
- 724 Heat treating equipment operators
- 727 Sawing machine operators and sawyers
- 729 Nail, tacking, shaping and joining mach ops (wood)
- 733 Other woodworking machine operators
- 734 Printing machine operators, n.e.c.
- 736 Typesetters and compositors
- 738 W inding and twisting textile and apparel operatives
- 739 Knitters, loopers, and toppers textile operatives
- 743 Textile cutting and dyeing machine operators
- 744 Textile sewing machine operators
- 745 Shoemaking machine operators
- 747 Clothing pressing machine operators
- 749 Miscellanious textile machine operators
- 753 Cementing and gluing machne operators
- 754 Packers, fillers, and wrappers
- 755 Extruding and forming machine operators
- 756 Mixing and blending machine operators
- 757 Separating, filtering, and clarifying machine operators
- 763 Food roasting and baking machine operators
- 764 Washing, cleaning, and pickling machine operators
- 765 Paper folding machine operators
- 766 Furnance, kiln, and oven operators, apart from food
- 774 Photographic process workers
- 779 Machine operators, n.e.c.
- 783 Welders, solderers, and metal cutters
- 785 Assemblers of electrical equipment
- 799 Production checkers, graders, and sorters in
- 803 Supervisors of motor vehicle transportation
- 804 Truck, delivery, and tractor drivers
- 808 Bus drivers
- 809 Taxi cab drivers and chauffeurs
- 813 Parking lot attendants
- 823 Railroad conductors and yardmasters

- 769 Slicing, cutting, crushing and grinding machine

- 824 Locomotive operators: engineers and firemen
- 825 Railroad brake, coupler, and switch operators
- 829 Ship crews and marine engineers
- 844 Operating engineers of construction equipment
- 848 Crane, derrick, winch, hoist, longshore operators
- 853 Excavating and loading machine operators
- 859 Stevedores and misc. material moving occupations
- 865 Helpers, constructions
- 866 Helpers, surveyors
- 869 Construction laborers
- 873 Production helpers
- 875 Garbage and recyclable material collectors
- 878 Machine feeders and offbearers
- 885 Garage and service station related occupations
- 887 Vehicle washers and equipment cleaners
- 888 Packers and packagers by hand
- 889 Laborers, freight, stock, and material handlers, n.e.c.
 - Clerical occupations
- 243 Sales supervisors and proprietors
- 253 Insurance sales occupations
- 254 Real estate sales occupations
- 255 Financial service sales occupations
- 256 Advertising and related sales jobs
- 258 Sales engineers
- 275 Retail salespersons and sales clerks
- 276 Cashiers
- 277 Door-to-door sales, street sales, and news vendors
- 283 Sales demonstrators, promoters, and models
- 303 Office supervisors
- 308 Computer and peripheral equipment operators
- 313 Secretaries and stenographers
- 315 Typists
- 316 Interviewers, enumerators, and surveyors
- 317 Hotel clerks
- 318 Transportation ticket and reservation agents
- 319 Receptionists and other information clerks
- 326 Correspondence and order clerks
- 328 Human resources clerks, excl payroll and timekeeping
- 329 Library assistants
- 335 File clerks
- 336 Records clerks
- 337 Bookkeepers and accounting and auditing clerks
- 338 Payroll and timekeeping clerks
- 344 Billing clerks and related financial records processing
- 346 Mail and paper handlers
- 347 Office machine operators, n.e.c.
- 348 Telephone operators
- 349 Other telecom operators
- 354 Postal clerks, exluding mail carriers
- 355 Mail carriers for postal service
- 356 Mail clerks, outside of post office
- 357 Messengers
- 359 Dispatchers
- 364 Shipping and receiving clerks
- 365 Stock and inventory clerks
- 366 Meter readers
- 368 Weighers, measurers, and checkers
- 373 Material recording, sched., prod., plan., expediting cl.
- 375 Insurance adjusters, examiners, and investigators
- 376 Customer service reps, invest., adjusters, excl. insur.
- 377 Eligibility clerks for government prog., social welfare
- 378 Bill and account collectors

- 379 General office clerks
- 383 Bank tellers
- 384 Proofreaders
- 385 Data entry keyers
- 386 Statistical clerks
- 389 Administrative support jobs, n.e.c.

Service occupations

- 19 Funeral directors
- 163 Vocational and educational counselors
- 174 Social workers
- 176 Clergy and religious workers
- 177 Welfare service workers
- 405 Housekeepers, maids, butlers, and cleaners
- 415 Supervisors of guards
- 417 Fire fighting, fire prevention, and fire inspection occs
- 418 Police and detectives, public service
- 423 Sheriffs, bailiffs, correctional institution officers
- 425 Crossing guards
- 426 Guards and police, except public service
- 427 Protective service, n.e.c.
- 434 Bartenders
- 435 Waiters and waitresses
- 436 Cooks
- 439 Food preparation workers
- 444 Miscellanious food preparation and service workers
- 445 Dental Assistants
- 447 Health and nursing aides
- 448 Supervisors of cleaning and building service
- 450 Superv. of landscaping, lawn service, groundskeeping
- 451 Gardeners and groundskeepers
- 453 Janitors
- 455 Pest control occupations
- 457 Barbers
- 458 Hairdressers and cosmetologists
- 459 Recreation facility attendants
- 461 Guides
- 462 Ushers
- 464 Baggage porters, bellhops and concierges
- 466 Recreation and fitness workers
- 467 Motion picture projectionists
- 468 Child care workers
- 469 Personal service occupations, n.e.c
- 470 Supervisors of personal service jobs, n.e.c
- 471 Public transportation attendants and inspectors
- 472 Animal caretakers, except farm

Farm occupations 479 Farm workers, incl. nursery farming

- 488 Graders and sorters of agricultural products
- 489 Inspectors of agricultural products
- 496 Timber, logging, and forestry workers
- 498 Fishers, marine life cultivators, hunters, and kindred

A3 Quantile-to-quantile plots for selected tasks

The first validation of our matching procedure compares the distribution of task-related variables across different decades. We evaluate quantile-to-quantile plots which report the quantile of the variable in the left axis (in t+10 in our case) within the distribution of quantiles of the variable in the

right axis (in t). When all dots lie on the diagonal, the rank distribution of the two variables is identical. A constant rank distribution does not necessarily mean a constant task across years. Results for all decades are reported in Figures A1, A2, A3, A4 and A5.

We do not observe any systematic differences in average tasks between years 1990 and 2000 (when O*NET was first introduced), nor in previous or subsequent periods (1980-1990 and 2000-2010). This is to say that, if systematic differences in the value of our task measures exist when matching DOT and O*NET, they are not necessarily due to our matching procedure. Even when some differences are apparent (e.g., Cleric and Manual in Figures A3 and A4), these differences cancel each other out when we aggregate information for the four task measures into our routinisation index (Figure A5).

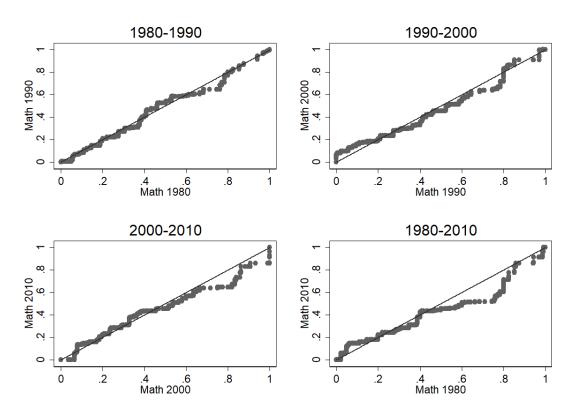


Figure A1 – Quantile-to-quantile plot for MATH

Notes: Quantiles weighted with the start of period product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

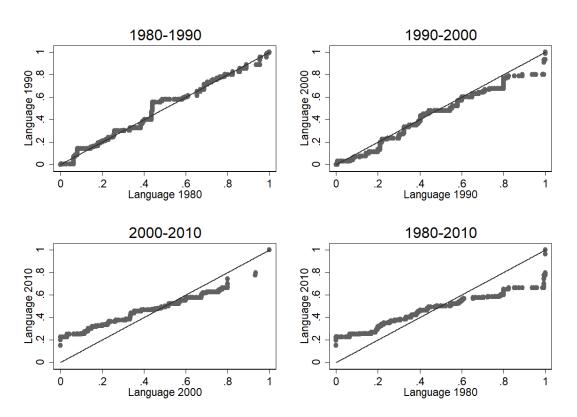
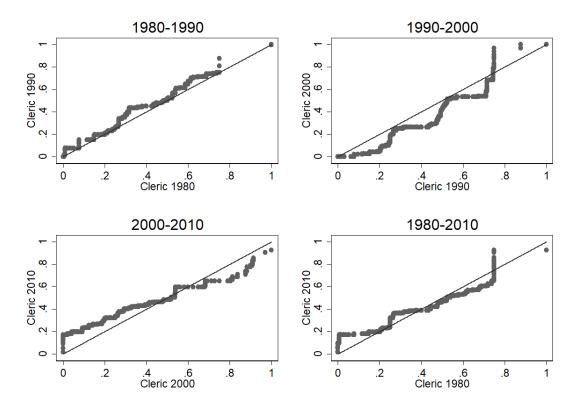


Figure A2 – Quantile-to-quantile plot for LANGUAGE

Notes: Quantiles weighted with the start of period product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

Figure A3 – Quantile-to-quantile plot for CLERIC



Notes: Quantiles weighted with the start of period product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

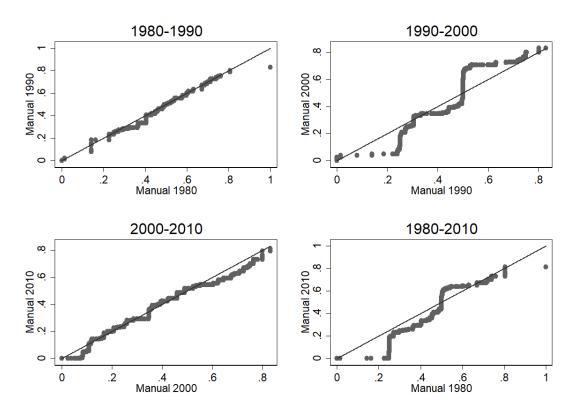
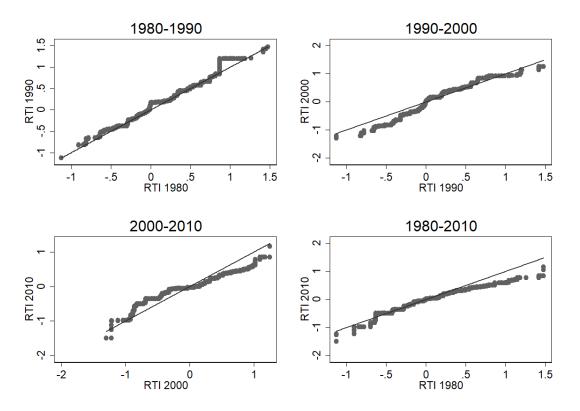


Figure A4 – Quantile-to-quantile plot for MANUAL

Notes: Quantiles weighted with the start of period product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

Figure A5 – Quantile-to-quantile plot for RTI



Notes: Quantiles weighted with the start of period product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

A4 Test of the difference in moments of tasks between decades

To validate our matching between task measures in DOT and O*NET we test for differences in the moments (from first to fourth) of the empirical distribution of tasks across occupations over different decades. We employ bootstrap tests (500 repetitions) for all moments. Results are reported in Table A4.

199	0-1980 (I	DOT91 - DO	T77)		
	Math	Language	Cleric	Manual	RTI
Difference in average	0.014	0.025	0.036	0.036	-0.022
Ū.	(0.035)	(0.040)	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.075)
Difference in standard deviation	0.008	0.008	-0.001	-0.001	0.017
	(0.017)	(0.019)	(0.020)	(0.020)	(0.046)
Difference in skewness	-0.157	-0.147	-0.172	-0.172	0.172
	(0.285)	(0.305)	(0.227)	(0.227)	(0.287)
Difference in kurtosis	-0.253	-0.170	0.0316	0.0316	0.0312
	(0.548)	(0.430)	(0.318)	(0.318)	(0.556)
2000-	1990 (O*	NET2000-D	OT91)		
	Math	Language	Cleric	Manual	RTI
Difference in average	-0.010	-0.021	-0.070**	-0.024	-0.107
	(0.031)	(0.037)	(0.033)	(0.026)	(0.0838)
Difference in standard deviation	-0.029*	-0.012	0.045**	0.070***	0.114**
	(0.016)	(0.017)	(0.023)	(0.011)	(0.0448)
Difference in skewness	0.418	-0.203	0.637***	-0.089	-0.521*
	(0.305)	(0.287)	(0.212)	(0.256)	(0.272)
Difference in kurtosis	0.854	-0.149	0.713*	- 0.744***	-0.883**
	(0.653)	(0.310)	(0.396)	(0.271)	(0.389)
2010-20	00 (O*NI	ET2010-O*N	IET2000)		
	Math	Language	Cleric	Manual	RTI
Difference in average	-0.008	0.049*	0.045	-0.021	-0.041
	(0.026)	(0.028)	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.076)
Difference in standard deviation	-0.019	-0.096***	-0.079***	-0.010	- 0.189***
	(0.016)	(0.013)	(0.027)	(0.013)	(0.035)
Difference in skewness	-0.257	0.143	0.067	-0.264	-0.132
	(0.349)	(0.305)	(0.254)	(0.245)	(0.279)
Difference in kurtosis	0.312	1.091	0.688	0.012	0.908*
	(0.896)	(0.690)	(0.567)	(0.234)	(0.540)

Table A4 – Bootstrap tests for the moments of DOT and O*NET distributions

Notes: 500 repetitions on random bootstrap samples. Standard deviation of the test is reported in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01. Notes: Weights are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

First, we do not find any significant differences in the moments of the distributions of all tasks between 1980 and 1990 (i.e., within DOT). Second, we do observe some significant differences in the moments of the distributions between 1990 and 2000 for routine tasks (Cleric and Manual) and for the RTI, while no difference is found for non-routine tasks (Math and Language). These differences are, however, generally small in magnitude. Finally, significant differences (again relatively small) are also found between 2000 and 2010, i.e., within the O*NET era, suggesting that the 1990-2000 change may not be due primarily to the systematic differences between DOT and O*NET, which would have suggested that our match was not effective.

A5 Validation of task measures based on occupational computer use at work

Finally, as an additional robustness check we consider the relationship between on-the-job computer use of occupations (from different CPS Computer Use Supplement of October) and task measures (component-by-component and RTI). Results are reported in Table A5. All relationships are found to be strongly statistically significant and to have the expected sign: positively correlated with abstract tasks (MATH and LANGUAGE) and routine cognitive tasks (CLERIC), negative correlated with manual tasks (routine and non-routine manual tasks) and negatively correlated with the RTI. These strong correlations are consistent across different decades, suggesting that computer use is correlated with occupational task intensity with the expected sign both within DOT and within O*NET.

	(1) Math	(2)	(3) Claria	(4) Marual	(5) DTI	(6)
	Math	Language	Cleric	Manual	RTI	NRM
	Le	evels in 1990	(DOI)			
Computer use in 1989	0.611***	0.765***	0.665***	-0.276***	-1.176***	-0.295***
	(0.082)	(0.064)	(0.056)	(0.058)	(0.188)	(0.056)
R squared	0.403	0.503	0.552	0.216	0.369	0.234
	Lev	els in 2000 (0)*NET)			
Computer use in 1997	0.460***	0.581***	0.430***	-0.470***	-1.209***	-0.198***
	(0.051)	(0.055)	(0.084)	(0.050)	(0.175)	(0.048)
R squared	0.508	0.535	0.258	0.455	0.412	0.185
	Lev	els in 2010 (0)*NET)			
Computer use in 2003	0.377***	0.396***	0.425***	-0.525***	-0.910***	-0.321***
	(0.047)	(0.026)	(0.045)	(0.035)	(0.105)	(0.052)
R squared	0.415	0.707	0.532	0.621	0.532	0.354

Table A5 – Validation of task measures: levels of tasks

Notes: N=322 occupations. OLS regression. weighted with employment weights. Robust standard errors are in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01. Computer use measured as the share of workers in the occupation that use computers on the job (source: CPS Computer Use Supplement October 1989, 1997, 2003).

Appendix B – Additional descriptive analysis

Table B1 reports the three transition matrices (decade-by-decade) for our set of 322 occupations, split by decade. Overall, we observe a relatively large number of shifts of occupations across different quintiles of RTI. Shifts affect 18% of occupations in the first decade (1980-1990), 56% of occupations in the second decade (1990-2000) and 48% of the occupations in the third decade (2000-2010). Interestingly, a relatively small share of occupations shifts by two or more quintiles: none in 1980-1990, 42 (13% of occupations) in 1990-2000, 21 (6% of occupations) in 2000-2010. Finally, we observe just 4 shifts of three quintiles (3 in 1990-2000 and 1 in 2000-2010) and no shift of four quintiles.

		Quintile of RTI 1990						
		1 2 3 4 5						
	1	58	7	0	0	0	65	
	2	11	50	3	0	0	64	
Quintile of RTI	3	0	3	53	8	0	64	
1980	4	0	0	8	47	9	64	
	5	0	0	0	9	56	65	
	Total	69	60	64	64	65	322	

Table B1 – Transition matrix of RTI

				Quinti	le of RTI	2000	
		1	2	3	4	5	Total
	1	51	16	2	0	0	69
	2	13	28	15	2	2	60
Quintile of RTI	3	1	10	14	27	12	64
1990	4	0	9	20	16	19	64
	5	0	1	13	19	32	65
	Total	65	64	64	64	65	322

				Quinti	le of RTI	2010		
		1	2	3	4	5	Total	
	1	50	13	2	0	0	65	
	2	15	31	15	2	1	64	
Quintile of RTI	3	0	17	23	15	9	64	
2000	4	0	3	20	24	17	64	
	5	0	0	4	23	38	65	
	Total 65 64 64 64 65 322							
Notes: Nu	mber of oc	cupations	by (unwe	eighted) q	uintile of	RTI in <i>t</i> a	and <i>t-10</i> .	

We present here the full decomposition of the within and between components, using the following formula:

$$\Delta RTI = \sum_{i,o} \left[\overline{\delta_i \phi_{i,o}} \Delta RTI_o + \overline{\delta_i} \Delta \phi_{i,o} RTI_o^{1980} + \Delta \delta_i \overline{\phi_{i,o}} RTI_o^{1980} + \overline{\delta_i} \Delta \phi_{i,o} (\overline{RTI_o} - RTI_o^{1980}) + \Delta \delta_i \overline{\phi_{i,o}} (\overline{RTI_o} - RTI_o^{1980}) \right]$$
(B.1)

where $\overline{\delta_{l}}\Delta\phi_{i,o}RTI_{o}^{1980}$ and $\Delta\delta_{l}\overline{\phi_{lo}}RTI_{o}^{1980}$ are, respectively, the 'pure' between occupation and between industry components (calculated with the initial RTI). On the other hand, $\overline{\delta_{l}}\Delta\phi_{i,o}(\overline{RTI_{o}} - RTI_{o}^{1980})$ and $\Delta\delta_{l}\overline{\phi_{lo}}(\overline{RTI_{o}} - RTI_{o}^{1980})$ represent the covariance components of, respectively, the between-occupation and between-industry components. As is evident from Table B2, the two covariance terms $\overline{\delta_{l}}\Delta\phi_{i,o}(\overline{RTI_{o}} - RTI_{o}^{1980})$ and $\Delta\delta_{l}\overline{\phi_{lo}}(\overline{RTI_{o}} - RTI_{o}^{1980})$ appear relatively small compared to the other terms, so we focus on the simpler decomposition. Tables B3 and B4 replicate the full decomposition by macro-occupational and industry groups, respectively.

0.001 - 0.018	0.001 - 0.010	0.004 - 0.009	0.006 - 0.037
0.001	0.001	0.004	0.006
0.001	0.001	0.001	0.000
-0.020	-0.011	-0.013	-0.044
-0.032	-0.025	-0.011	-0.067
0.001	-0.003	-0.008	-0.010
-0.032	-0.022	-0.002	-0.057
0.022	-0.072	-0.011	-0.062
1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010
	0.022 -0.032 0.001 -0.032 -0.020	0.022 -0.072 -0.032 -0.022 0.001 -0.003 -0.032 -0.025 -0.020 -0.011	0.022 -0.072 -0.011 -0.032 -0.022 -0.002 0.001 -0.003 -0.008 -0.032 -0.025 -0.011 -0.020 -0.011 -0.013

Table B2- Full decomposition of RTI

Notes: Decomposition of RTI based on equations 2 (bold) and B.1 (italics). Weights are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010
		Abs	tract	
Within occupation	0.026	-0.175	0.140	-0.009
Between occupation (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.002	-0.017	0.002	-0.017
Covariance between occupation	-0.001	0.013	-0.006	0.007
Total between occupation	-0.002	-0.004	-0.003	-0.010
Between industry (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.003	0.002	0.006	0.004
Covariance between industry	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.006
Total between industry	-0.002	0.003	0.009	0.010
Total change	0.022	-0.176	0.145	-0.009
		Cler	rical	
Within occupation	0.012	-0.050	-0.0750	-0.113
Between occupation (with RTI ₀ ¹⁹⁸⁰)	-0.028	-0.021	-0.002	-0.051
Covariance between occupation	-0.003	-0.010	-0.005	-0.017
Total between occupation	-0.031	-0.031	-0.007	-0.068
Between industry (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.008	-0.003	0.002	-0.008
Covariance between industry	0.001	0.002	-0.003	0.000
Total between industry	-0.007	-0.001	-0.001	-0.008
Total change	-0.026	-0.082	-0.082	-0.190
		Blue	collar	
Within occupation	0.010	0.026	-0.170	-0.134
Between occupation (with RTI_o^{1980})	0.002	-0.003	0.026	0.025
Covariance between occupation	0.003	-0.008	-0.013	-0.018
Total between occupation	0.004	-0.011	0.013	0.006
Between industry (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.003	-0.008	-0.004	-0.015
Covariance between industry	0.001	-0.001	0.002	0.003
Total between industry	-0.002	-0.009	-0.001	-0.011
Total change	0.013	0.006	-0.158	-0.139
		Ser	vice	
Within occupation	0.068	-0.081	0.018	0.004
Between occupation (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.010	-0.021	0.015	-0.016
Covariance between occupation	0.001	-0.002	-0.006	-0.007
Total between occupation	-0.009	-0.023	0.009	-0.023
Between industry (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.006	-0.010	-0.004	-0.021
Covariance between industry	0.002	-0.004	0.003	0.001
Total between industry	-0.005	-0.014	-0.001	-0.020
Total change	0.054	-0.118	0.026	-0.038

Table B3– Full decomposition of RTI by decade and occupation

Total change0.054-0.1180.026-0.038Notes: Decomposition of RTI based on equations 2 (bold) and B.1 (italics). Macro-occupational groups
defined in Table A3. Weights are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual
hours of labour supply.-0.038

	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010
		Manufacturi	ng industries	
Within occupation	0.004	-0.054	-0.088	-0.138
Between occupation (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.026	-0.022	0.002	-0.046
Covariance between occupation	-0.021	-0.010	-0.033	-0.064
Total between occupation	-0.048	-0.032	-0.031	-0.110
Between industry (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.009	-0.008	-0.006	-0.023
Covariance between industry	-0.003	0.011	-0.006	0.002
Total between industry	-0.012	0.002	-0.012	-0.021
Total change	-0.055	-0.083	-0.131	-0.270
		Non-manufactu	uring industries	
Within occupation	0.027	-0.076	0.003	-0.046
Between occupation (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.051	-0.022	-0.028	-0.102
Covariance between occupation	0.024	-0.001	0.021	0.045
Total between occupation	-0.027	-0.023	-0.007	-0.057
Between industry (with RTI_o^{1980})	-0.013	0.003	-0.010	-0.019
Covariance between industry	0.004	-0.011	0.007	0.000
Total between industry	-0.009	-0.008	-0.003	-0.020
Total change	-0.008	-0.107	-0.007	-0.123

Table B4 – Full decomposition of RTI by decade and industry

Notes: Decomposition of RTI based on equations 2 (bold) and B.1 (italics). Macro-occupational groups defined in Table A3. Weights are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply.

Appendix C – RTI and education

To measure average educational attainment of occupations we use data from the decennial census (1980, 1990, 2000) and ACS (2010) to identify three groups: 'High School' is the share (weighted by hours worked times sample weights) of workers that completed Grade 12 or GED-equivalent (General Educational Development); 'College' is the weighted share of workers that completed a college degree; 'Post-Graduate' is the weighted share of workers with educational attainment beyond the completion of the college degree.

To analyse instructional programmes, we rely on a standard taxonomy provided by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES): the Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP; Morgan et al., 1990) which lists educational programmes, provides subject matter names as well as short descriptions (apart from the 1985 edition for which only a general title is available) at different levels of aggregation. Most CIP titles refer to academic and occupational instructional programmes at the postsecondary level. We employ CIP at the most detailed level of disaggregation (6-digits) for the different editions available: 1985 (463 unique programmes), 1990 (1458 unique programmes), 2000 (1432 unique programmes) and 2010 (1720 unique programmes). Following the guidelines provided by the NCES²⁵, we group the different instructional programmes in business- and technical-related programmes. The classification was also manually checked by the authors and several programmes were reallocated to the correct group (business or technical). We then merge different CIP editions using the crosswalks provided by the NCES, obtaining a correspondence between the different CIP editions under CIP2010 6-digit codes. Finally, the NCES and BLS provide a crosswalk mapping of the 1516 CIP2010 6-digit codes into 623 SOC2010 6-digit occupation codes, where the instructional programmes serve as preparation for each occupation.²⁶ Table C1 reports the total number of instructional programmes and the number of business- and technical-related programmes aggregated at the 2-digit SOC2010 code for the overall period (1985-2010).

²⁵ For a description of how NCES distinguishes between academic/general programmes and vocational training programmes, see: <u>https://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/cipcode/Files/Introduction_CIP2010.pdf</u>. Business-related instructional programmes are programs which help to develop skills for managerial roles within public and private organisations. Technical-related programmes mainly refer to STEM disciplines.

²⁶ The crosswalk is unable to match 204 unique CIP2010 codes.

SOC2010 2-digit	SOC2010 2-digit title	Number of programmes	Number of business programmes	Number of technical programmes
11	Management Occupations	1346	446	160
13	Business and Financial Operations Occupations	281	221	33
15	Computer and Mathematical Occupations	358	4	343
17	Architecture and Engineering Occupations	379	3	132
19	Life, Physical, and Social Science Occupations	1030	105	67
21	Community and Social Service Occupations	206	26	2
23	Legal Occupations	62	62	0
25	Education, Training, and Library Occupations	3069	372	252
27	Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media Occupations	792	243	89
29	Healthcare Practitioners and Technical Occupations	841	11	11
31	Healthcare Support Occupations	70	8	8
33	Protective Service Occupations	129	17	6
35	Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations	75	25	0
37	Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance Occupations	31	16	0
39	Personal Care and Service Occupations	105	15	2
41	Sales and Related Occupations	148	117	3
43	Office and Administrative Support Occupations	142	75	59
45	Farming, Fishing, and Forestry Occupations	83	12	0
47	Construction and Extraction Occupations	153	2	0
49	Installation, Maintenance, and Repair Occupations	201	7	24
51	Production Occupations	257	23	31
53	Transportation and Material Moving Occupations	70	0	0
55	Military Specific Occupations	54	13	23

 $Table \ C1-Description \ of \ instructional \ programmes$

The CIP number is aggregated within each IND1990 occupation as the simple average (uniform weights) of CIP for each occupational title.

To estimate the change in education-related features predicted by changes in the task content of occupations, we follow Spitz-Oener (2006). Estimated predicted changes, reported in Table 7, are based on the econometric estimates (equation 5) reported in Table C2. Overall, we observe that routine-intensive occupations are more common among high-school graduates (column 1), with a relationship that appears to be growing with time. The share of college and post-graduate degree recipients within an occupation is negatively related to its average routine intensity, even though this link appears to be shrinking over time. Finally, routine-intensive occupations have a lower number of instructional programmes, and even more so in more recent decades.

Considering the R squared of the regressions, we observe a good explanatory power of RTI for educational attainment (around 50% for high-school and college, lower for post-graduate) and the number of instructional programmes (23.6%), while the predicting power is poor for the share of 'business' instructional programmes and, even more so, for the share of technical instructional programmes.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	High school	College	Post- graduate	Number of instructional programmes	Share of 'business' instructional programmes	Share of 'technical' instructional programmes
RTI	0.185***	-0.468***	-0.228***	-4.513**	-0.365***	-0.065
	(0.027)	(0.042)	(0.036)	(2.234)	(0.070)	(0.050)
RTI x D1990	0.057***	0.025	0.042***	-3.375***	0.008	-0.003
	(0.013)	(0.020)	(0.010)	(1.005)	(0.039)	(0.014)
RTI x D2000	0.031	0.124***	0.083***	-3.380**	0.101*	0.024
	(0.025)	(0.035)	(0.019)	(1.525)	(0.055)	(0.031)
RTI x D2010	0.169***	-0.098**	-0.030	-12.203**	-0.049	-0.026
	(0.031)	(0.043)	(0.024)	(5.900)	(0.069)	(0.031)
D1990	-0.046***	-0.020***	-0.019***	2.214***	0.018	-0.004
	(0.007)	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.519)	(0.021)	(0.007)
D2000	0.040***	-0.041***	-0.028***	2.832***	-0.024	0.012
	(0.011)	(0.013)	(0.007)	(0.742)	(0.023)	(0.011)
D2010	0.015	-0.009	-0.021***	4.159***	-0.034	0.011
	(0.011)	(0.012)	(0.006)	(1.250)	(0.026)	(0.012)
Constant	0.340***	0.350***	0.126***	3.074***	0.332***	0.092***
	(0.014)	(0.022)	(0.018)	(0.904)	(0.048)	(0.025)
Joint significance of RTI (F test)	46.053***	123.616***	40.763***	4.081**	27.010***	1.714
R squared	0.452	0.534	0.266	0.236	0.152	0.0150
Ν	1267	1267	1267	1210	1278	1278

Table C2 – Results for education

Notes: OLS model. Weights are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Robust standard errors clustered at occupation level are in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01.

Appendix D – Robustness checks

We here report three robustness checks for our estimate of the link between RTI and occupational employment (equation 5). In Table D1 we calculated average task importance and level within occupation by using employment weights for detailed occupations from the CPS 1971 Monthly File. In this way, we do not account for the emergence of 'new jobs' (i.e., new occupational titles not available in 1971). Results appear to be in line with our baseline results (Table 8) in terms of sign, magnitude and statistical significance.

	P	anel A - Only in	itial RTI		
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked
Initial RTI	-0.232***	-0.138**	-0.079**	-0.493***	-0.130***
	(0.051)	(0.061)	(0.039)	(0.117)	(0.028)
Offshorability	0.423	-0.402	-0.120	0.176	0.450
	(0.395)	(0.391)	(0.203)	(0.697)	(0.335)
Initial man task	0.201	0.082	0.050	0.438	0.111
	(0.191)	(0.266)	(0.098)	(0.401)	(0.118)
R sq	0.312	0.179	0.380	0.364	0.260
Ν	29847	28897	28083	26531	86827
	Panel	B - Initial and cl	hange of RTI		
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked
Initial RTI	-0.226***	-0.113*	-0.075	-0.689***	-0.165***
	(0.056)	(0.060)	(0.053)	(0.119)	(0.038)
ΔRTI	0.225	-0.253***	0.009	-0.509**	-0.148***
	(0.266)	(0.088)	(0.082)	(0.205)	(0.056)
Offshorability	0.463	-0.472	-0.114	-0.151	0.393
	(0.413)	(0.380)	(0.217)	(0.739)	(0.337)
Initial man task	0.200	0.087	0.0501	0.498	0.105
	(0.190)	(0.258)	(0.099)	(0.382)	(0.119)
R sq	0.314	0.188	0.380	0.370	0.264
Ν	29847	28897	28083	26531	86827

Table D1 – Robustness check: average occupational tasks weighted using CPS 1971 Monthly File occupational weights

Notes: OLS model. All models include industry dummies. Weights are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Robust standard errors clustered at occupation level are in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01. In the stacked differences specification offshorability (unreported) and industry dummies are interacted with period dummies. Occupational titles within each *OCC1990* occupation are based on occupational employment estimates from the CPS 1971 Monthly File.

As a second robustness check, we repeat our analysis by using a modified version of the RTI index which also accounts for the importance of non-routine manual tasks. This index, labelled as RTI^{NRM}, is computed as follows:

$$RTI_{o,t}^{NRM} = \log\left(\frac{CLERIC_{o,t} + MANUAL_{o,t}}{\frac{1}{2}MATH_{o,t} + \frac{1}{2}LANG_{o,t} + EYEHAND_{o,t}}\right)$$
(D.1)

Results are reported in Table D2. In general, while the results appear to be in line with our baseline results (Table 8) in terms of sign and statistical significance, we observe that employment change appears to be more strongly correlated with the initial level of RTI compared to our baseline results. This difference, however, is generally small.

Panel A - Only initial RTI^{NRM} (1)(2)(4) (5) (3) 1980-2010 Dep: $\Delta log(Empl)$ 1980-1990 1990-2000 2000-2010 1980-2010 stacked Initial RTI^{NRM} -0.298*** -0.179** -0.106** -0.665*** -0.168*** (0.080)(0.088)(0.043)(0.040)(0.149)Offshorability 0.670** -0.391 0.062 0.713** 0.613 (0.280)(0.350)(0.188)(0.525)(0.280)R sq 0.319 0.179 0.382 0.370 0.262 29847 28897 28083 26531 Ν 86827 Panel B - Initial and change of RTI^{NRM} (1)(2)(3)(4) (5) 1980-2010 Dep: $\Delta log(Empl)$ 1980-1990 1990-2000 2000-2010 1980-2010 stacked Initial RTI^{NRM} -0.275*** -0.150* -0.083* -0.796*** -0.210*** (0.097)(0.083)(0.049)(0.155)(0.052) ΔRTI^{NRM} -0.307** -0.172** 0.291 0.048 -0.322* (0.129)(0.069)(0.083)(0.348)(0.189)Offshorability 0.714** 0.678** -0.5440.065 0.524 (0.283)(0.360)(0.184)(0.550)(0.278)R sq 0.321 0.188 0.382 0.372 0.265 Ν 29847 28897 28083 26531 86827

Table D2 – Robustness check: RTI computed including non-routine manual task intensity (RTI^{NRM})

Notes: OLS model. All models include industry dummies. Weights are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Robust standard errors clustered at occupation level are in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01. In the stacked differences specification offshorability (unreported) and industry dummies are interacted with period dummies. RTI^{NRM} is defined as in equation D.1.

Finally, we also repeat our analysis for a less demanding specification in which we exclude from the specification all occupation-specific control variables except RTI (i.e., Offshorability and Initial manual task intensity). Results are shown in Table D3. Again, baseline results (Table 8) are generally confirmed, with the only exception being a not significant link between initial RTI and employment change in Panel B for the decade 1990-2000.

Panel A - Only initial RTI									
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked				
Initial RTI	-0.236***	-0.116**	-0.075**	-0.473***	-0.120***				
	(0.049)	(0.054)	(0.030)	(0.110)	(0.025)				
R sq	0.310	0.177	0.380	0.363	0.258				
Ν	30015	29088	28083	26693	87186				
	Panel	B - Initial and cl	hange of RTI						
Dep: ∆log(Empl)	1980-1990	1990-2000	2000-2010	1980-2010	1980-2010 stacked				
Initial RTI	-0.232***	-0.088	-0.058	-0.598***	-0.143***				
	(0.052)	(0.060)	(0.042)	(0.121)	(0.036)				
ΔRTI	0.191	-0.213**	0.040	-0.402**	-0.124*				
	(0.248)	(0.106)	(0.082)	(0.194)	(0.069)				
R sq	0.311	0.183	0.380	0.366	0.261				
Ν	30015	28897	28083	26531	86995				

Table D3 – Robustness check: results without additional occupation-level control variables

Notes: OLS model. All models include industry dummies. Weights are the product of Census (1980; 1990; 2000) sampling weights and annual hours of labour supply. Robust standard errors clustered at occupation level are in parenthesis. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01.





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