

1 Article

2 The Human Sustainability of ICT and Management 3 Changes: Evidence for the French Public and Private 4 Sectors

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11 **Abstract:** We investigate the human sustainability of ICT and management changes using a
12 French linked employer-employee survey on organizational changes and computerization (COI).
13 We approach the human sustainability of changes through the evolutions of work intensity, skill
14 utilization and the subjective relationship to work. We compare in the private sector and the State
15 civil service the impacts of ICT and management changes on the evolution of these three
16 dimensions of work experience. We find that when ICT and management changes are intense,
17 they are positively associated in the public sector with work intensification and new knowledge.
18 In the private sector ICT and management changes increase the use of skills, but at a rate
19 decreasing with their intensity and without favoring the accumulation of new knowledge.
20 However, their impacts on the subjective relationship to work are much stronger, with public
21 sector employees expressing discouragement as well as the feeling of an increased effort-reward
22 imbalance when private sector employees become more committed. We tested that the self-
23 selection of employees, the specific sources and paths of changes and the implementation of
24 performance pay did not explain this divergence. We identify two partial explanations: one is
25 related with employee turnover in the private sector, the other one with the role of trade unions.
26 These results suggest that the human sustainability of ICT and management changes depends on
27 their intensity and on how their implementation takes into account the institutional context of the
28 organization.

29 **Keywords:** organizational changes; ICT; management tools; work experience; employee outcomes;
30 comparison of public and private sectors; linked employer-employee survey

31

32 1. Introduction

33 The large definition of a sustainable development adopted the Brundtland report where both
34 the needs of the present and of the future have to be met allows applications in all fields of human
35 activity [1], including work. The concept of sustainable work system crafted from 2002 in an
36 international research program takes into account both workers' well-being and the quality of
37 goods and services produced [2]. Since then, many studies and researches in social sciences
38 explored sustainable work from different angles and developed tools to measure its various
39 dimensions. Volkoff and Gaudard [3] argue that sustainable work depends on physical constraints,
40 which can become harmful for physical health in the long run, but also on work organization, that
41 may favor or alter well-being, mental health and skills' development according to how work
42 intensity, autonomy and workers' cooperation are combined in the workplace.

43 Questions surrounding the work experience of French employees have entered the public
44 debate following what the media has described as a spate of work-related suicides in large French
45 companies between 2006 and 2009. A set of converging empirical results further established the

46 difficulty of performing work in France. International surveys of the values of individuals revealed
47 that the French gave work a particularly high importance while simultaneously demonstrating
48 reluctance about the place that it took in their lives, revealing a contradiction that generates unease
49 between the growing demands of work on one side and the need to protect their personal lives on
50 the other. Between 1995 and 2015, French workers have faced a slow but persistent degradation of
51 their working conditions, creating a vulnerability to work-related risks above the European median
52 [4]. As possible sources of this apparent deterioration of the quality of working life, several authors
53 have emphasized the effects of recorded changes in productive organizations since the 1980s.
54 However, the debate on the consequences of organizational changes is not fully resolved there is a
55 clear division between authors who stress the intensive rather than sustainable nature of new work
56 systems when others who highlight the mutual gains and the enrichment of work brought about by
57 these changes [5].

58 Furthermore, it is interesting to consider this issue in both private and public organizations.
59 Indeed, some authors argue that the management style of the French State civil service has moved
60 towards the practices and values of the private sector [6]. Changes in government would thus be
61 partly implemented using management tools that by private companies have also adopted. It is
62 therefore relevant to consider how these tools, which are becoming common, impact working
63 conditions in both institutional sectors. Some empirical studies have shown that organizational
64 changes did not have the same effects in the two sectors. For instance [7] found that the methods
65 developed in the private sector did not have the same impact in the public sector in terms of
66 workers' autonomy.

67 In this paper, we question the human sustainability of organizational changes driven by the
68 implementation of new ICT and management tools. We study the relationship between indicators
69 of change in private sector organizations and in the State civil service and indicators of evolution in
70 the work experience of employees. To our knowledge, it is only in Norway [8] and Britain [9, 10]
71 attempts to analyze the dynamic dimension of the relationship between workplace practices and
72 employee outcomes have been made using representative datasets. In addition, we consider
73 multiple dimensions of both organizational changes and work experience. We summarize
74 organizational changes with two continuous indicators that describe the evolution in the use of
75 Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) and of management tools [11]. We do not
76 focus on a unique dimension of work experience as reported by the surveyed employees, but
77 consider work intensification, job enrichment and the subjective relationship to work.

78 We use the linked employer-employee survey on organizational change and computerization
79 (COI), which includes a survey of private sector organizations as well as a survey of the State civil
80 service. It allows us to measure the organizational changes that occurred between 2003 and
81 2006/2007 from retrospective questions asked to employers in the public and private sectors. The
82 analysis of their implications for the workforce comes from an identical questionnaire for
83 employees of both sectors. Thus, the matching of employer level data with data from their
84 employees allows drawing relationships between the introduction of organizational changes and
85 their subsequent effects on the workplace.

86 Our main finding is the identification of a divergence between the public and the private sector in
87 how organizational changes driven by the adoption of new ICT and management tools interact
88 with the subjective relationship to work. We further explore this result by considering and testing
89 possible explanation related to institutional differences between the two sectors.

90 The organization of this paper is as follows: Section 2 presents our modelling and the data we
91 use. Section 3 gives our results on the relationships between organizational changes and the
92 evolution of work experience. Section 4 tests various hypotheses about the reasons of the observed
93 divergence between the private and the public sectors. Section 5 concludes.

94 **Modelling and data**

95 *2.1. Basic econometric model*

96 We assume that tools used by organizations reflect models of organized action and employers
 97 reveal their intention of changes through the adoption or dropping of tools. As a result, the
 98 diffusion dynamics of new equipment and tools reflect the intensity of organizational changes [12].
 99 We distinguish two types of tools as they apply to different functions in the organization: those that
 100 relate to the management of information systems and those that concern the management of
 101 productive activity. ICTs are part of the first family. The rapid decline in the relative prices of
 102 computer equipment and the growing scope applications due to technological progress as well as
 103 network effects has fueled their diffusion. Management tools like *just in time production* or *quality*
 104 *certifications* are part of the second family. They relate with the diffusion of management concepts
 105 like *high performance work organizations* in the private sector and *new public management* in the public
 106 sector. The distinction between these two broad types of tools allows to cover a large set of
 107 organizational changes and to consider the consequences of their joint adoption for employees'
 108 work experience. Indeed, the literature on productive complementarity argues that it is their joint
 109 use that yields the highest performance impact in private as well as public sector organizations [13;
 110 14; 15; 16; 17].

111 Furthermore, previous studies have shown that employees' work experience is more sensitive
 112 to the cumulative adoption of tools or practices than to the implementation of any specific one [18].
 113 This is in line with the results in Godard [19] showing that as the number of high performance
 114 practices increases, their positive effect on workers' well-being decreases and eventually becomes
 115 negative, especially for self-esteem and satisfaction. Thus, if the joint adoption of tools is beneficial
 116 for economic performance, it could be to the detriment of employees' quality of working life. This
 117 questions the human sustainability of economic performance. As discussed earlier, we consider
 118 three dimensions of work experience likely to be influence by organizational changes and
 119 contributing to the quality of working life: work intensity, skills utilization and the subjective
 120 relationship to work. The generic model we estimate is the following:

$$121 \quad 122 \quad 123 \quad 124 \quad 125 \quad 126 \quad 127 \quad 128 \quad 129 \quad 130 \quad 131 \quad 132 \quad 133 \quad 134 \quad 135 \quad 136 \quad 137 \quad 138 \quad 139 \quad 140 \quad 141 \quad 142 \quad 143 \quad 144 \quad 145 \quad 146 \quad 147$$

$$Z_{ij} = \alpha X_i + \beta Y_j + \theta \Delta ICT_j + \mu \Delta ICT_j^2 + \gamma \Delta MAN_j + \delta \Delta MAN_j^2 + \tau \Delta ICT_j * \Delta MAN_j + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

124 Z_{ij} identifies the change in work experience indicators for the worker i in the productive
 125 organization j . This change is captured by binary or ordinal variables. ΔICT_j and ΔMAN_j are
 126 respectively the indicators of changes in ICTs and in use of management tools for the employer j .
 127 The X and Y vectors represent control variables defining respectively the characteristics of the
 128 worker i and of his employer j . Finally, ε_i is a random error term specific to the worker i . The
 129 quadratic form of the specification we choose allows for nonlinear effects of organizational changes.
 130 Beyond some intensity thresholds, a mitigation or aggravation of the influence of changes on work
 131 experience indicators could occur. The last variable is an interaction term between the two types of
 132 changes capturing the impact on work experience indicators of simultaneous changes in ICTs and
 133 management tools.

134 Specification (1) is a first differences model chosen to eliminate all constant fixed effects in the
 135 2003-2006 period of observation, like those created by the subjective perception of employee work
 136 experience. Thus, the unobservable heterogeneity that we cannot control here would play through
 137 omitted variables influencing simultaneously organizational changes and the evolution of the
 138 perception of working life.

139 Considering that we are only looking for an evaluation of the partial effects of explanatory
 140 variables, we estimate the generic specification (1) at the sample mean using a linear model. In fact,
 141 as stated by Wooldridge [20], using linear estimation of a binary or ordinal variable is correct as far
 142 as the estimated coefficients are not used for the purpose of predictions. This choice has
 143 consequences on the interpretation of marginal effects as can be seen from the influence of changes
 144 in ICT tools:

$$145 \quad 146 \quad 147 \quad \frac{\partial Z}{\partial \Delta ICT} = \theta + 2\mu \Delta ICT + \tau \Delta MAN \quad (2)$$

148 This effect varies with the intensity of changes both in management and in ICT tools. The
149 estimated coefficient $\hat{\theta}$ measures the marginal effect of changes in ICT tools when both types of
150 changes are at the sample mean. As the quadratic form in specification (1) allows for both non-
151 constant returns and complementarity effects in the influence of changes, a complete picture of the
152 relationship requires estimation at various points of the distributions of changes. We have run these
153 estimations and we will consider them in interpreting the results at the sample mean, but we will
154 not present them.

155 Furthermore, we have considered the possibility of a voluntary ex ante selection of workers in
156 the sectors. We perform the Heckman two stages method. The first stage consists in estimating the
157 choice of sector by the worker with a probit model. The second stage takes into account this
158 possible voluntary selection augmenting specifications (1) with the inverse Mills ratio (or λ). This
159 ratio, which corrects the omitted variable bias, is calculated from the estimated results of the first
160 stage regression. We use two sets of instrumental variables to identify our model. The first contains
161 indicators describing the occupation held by the father of the worker when he was eighteen, and
162 the second identifies whether his mother was of French nationality. Indeed, the assumption of
163 social reproduction predicts an influence of parental choice on the career paths for the children. In
164 addition, the preference for employment in the public sector can be part of a public sector
165 motivation, which foundations may rely on parental education. Finally, foreign origin is usually an
166 obstacle for entry into the French civil service. We will present further specifications in section 4,
167 with their associated theoretical hypothesis.

168 2.2. Data, measurement frame and descriptive statistics

169 2.2.1. A linked employer-employee survey

170 We rely on the linked employer-employee survey on organizational change and
171 computerization (COI 2006), which includes a survey of private sector organizations (COI-TIC) as
172 well as a survey of the State civil service (COI-FP). Random samples of organizations with 10
173 employees and more have been selected in both sectors. Each surveys has a specific questionnaire
174 with a common architecture, a large part of which covers a similar set of information on changes in
175 the organization of productive units. Most of the questions relate to the year of the survey, 2006 in
176 the private sector and 2007 in the public sector, and the retrospective situation in 2003, which allows
177 us to measure the organizational changes that occurred between 2003 and 2006/2007.

178 The questions capturing work experience come from a unique questionnaire addressed to
179 employees whatever the institutional characteristic of their organization. Employees have been
180 randomly selected in responding organizations (in a random sub-sample of them for the private
181 sector) and their number is related, not strictly proportional, to their workforce. Once sampled,
182 employees have been interviewed about 12 months later, with the consequence that they have at
183 least one year of seniority. The population studied here is thus that of stable employees in
184 companies and administrations.

185 In order to study a comparable population from the two sectors, we took out from the sample
186 of private sector employees occupations not represented in the public sector like salespersons,
187 drivers or laborers. Reciprocally, we excluded from the scope of the investigation in the State civil
188 teachers, magistrates and agents of the Ministry of Defense service because their work activity had
189 no equivalent in the private sector. We merge the employer and employee sections of the survey in
190 the final sample. This leads to restricting the private sector to units of 20 or more employees as
191 employees have not been sampled below this size threshold. The resulting working sample, which
192 is representative of the covered population, contains 11731 employees working in 5643 enterprises
193 and 946 public agents working in 298 organizations.

194 2.2.2. The intensity of organizational change

195 The analysis of organizational changes in the private and public sectors requires addressing
196 three methodological issues. First, because no tool or equipment can alone summarize the

197 heterogeneity of observed management strategies, we have to find a way to capture the diversity in
198 the uses of modernizing tools by productive organizations. We thus choose to synthesize the use of
199 ICTs and management tools with composite indexes that take into account this diversity. We use
200 Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA), which aims at producing a simplified low-dimensional
201 representation of information in the large frequency table where each item response, identifying
202 whether the company uses each of the listed tools, is coded as a dummy variable. The MCA
203 generates quantitative scores, called dimensions, which are linear combinations of the dummy-
204 coded variables that maximize the average correlation among them. We use the survey sampling
205 weights in the analysis. We interpret the vector of coefficients in the linear combination as a metric
206 determined by the set of situations taken into account in the analysis and corresponding to a given
207 type of tools in an institutional sector at a given date. We limit ourselves to the first dimension of
208 the MCA, which reflects the intensity in use of the selected tools. On this first dimension,
209 organizations using several tools jointly are opposed with organizations that are non-users or that
210 are only using a small number of them. More advanced tools that are at the beginning of their
211 diffusion curve in the population of organizations score higher in the composite index. Thus, a
212 composite index with a higher value indicates that the organization uses a larger set of more
213 advanced ICT or management tools.

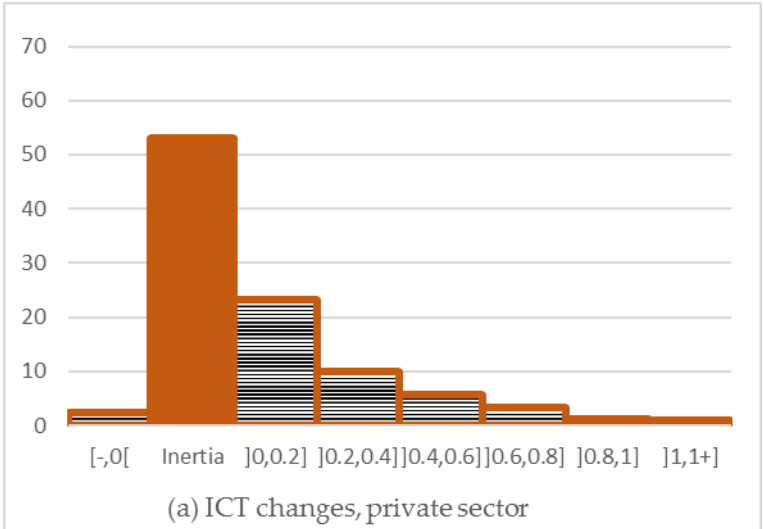
214 Second, we have to measure the change over time of our composite indicator. The COI survey
215 collects information at the date of the survey (2006 for the private sector and 2007 for the State Civil
216 Service) and for 2003 through a retrospective question. We could perform the MCA for both dates;
217 with the disadvantage of obtaining a representation of the data determined in different situations in
218 time. The indicator of the intensity in use of a given set of tools would then be specific to a
219 particular date. We therefore create an additional hypothesis for a temporal comparison. As the
220 date of the survey is an implicit reference in the retrospective questions throughout the
221 questionnaire, we apply to the tools used by the productive organizations in 2003, the metric
222 conditioned by the situations at this date. In computational terms, this calculation amounts to
223 applying the vector of coefficients defining the position of the productive organizations on the first
224 dimension of the MCA conducted in 2006 to the vector of the tools used in 2003. We obtain a
225 synthetic indicator of the tools observed in 2003, expressed in the metric or the base of 2006. We
226 then simply compute the change indicator as the first difference between the intensity in use of
227 modernization tools observed in 2006/2007 and in 2003 (expressed in base 2006).

228 Third changes measured in the private and the public sectors have to be comparable. This
229 requires the identification of a set of tools used in both institutional sectors and the determination of
230 a common metric underlying the composite index. We conducted a thorough comparison of
231 questions concerning ICTs and management tools in the two employer questionnaires and selected
232 questions about similar or comparable tools. Fifteen ICT tools and thirteen management tools came
233 out from this analysis as common to both sectors. As with temporal comparisons, we choose to
234 express changes in the public sector using the private sector 2006 baseline metric. Indeed, the
235 questionnaire designed to apply specifically to State administrations was built to align with the
236 measurement of changes developed in the private sector. Furthermore, like in many European
237 nations, the reform of the French civil service relies on the import of management tools used in the
238 private sector [21]. Table A1 in the Appendix gives the list of ICTs and management tools, the
239 percentage of organizations using them in 2003 and 2006/2007 in the private and the public sector
240 and the private sector 2006 baseline metric.

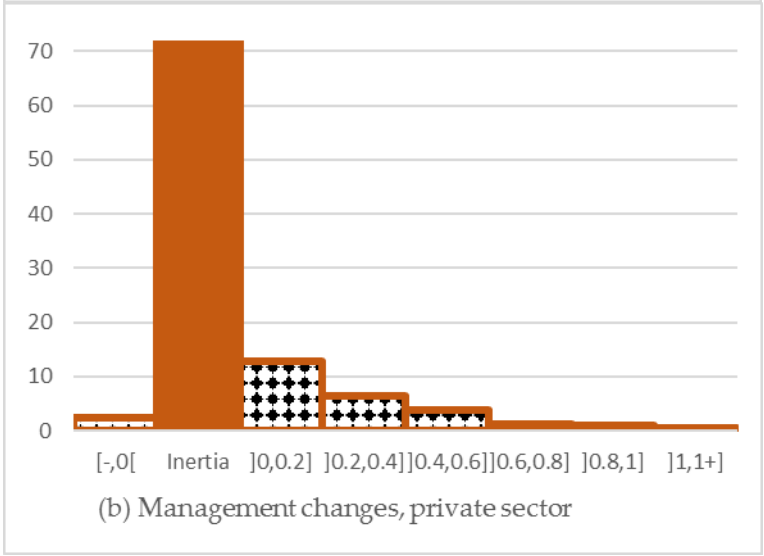
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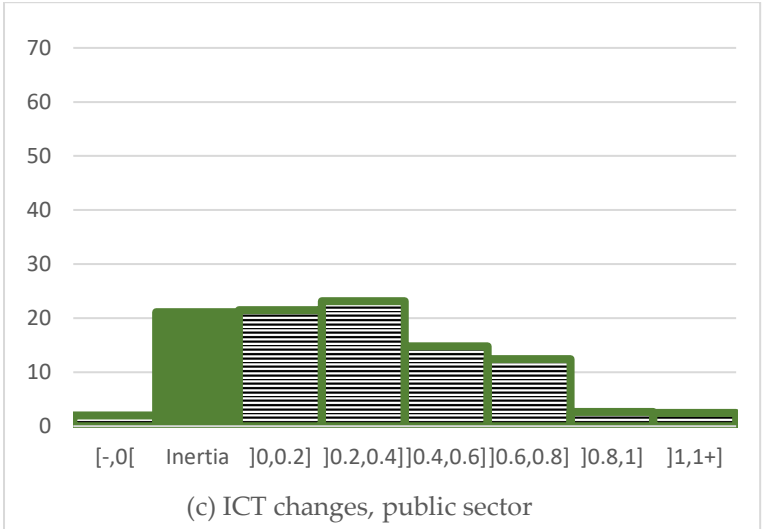
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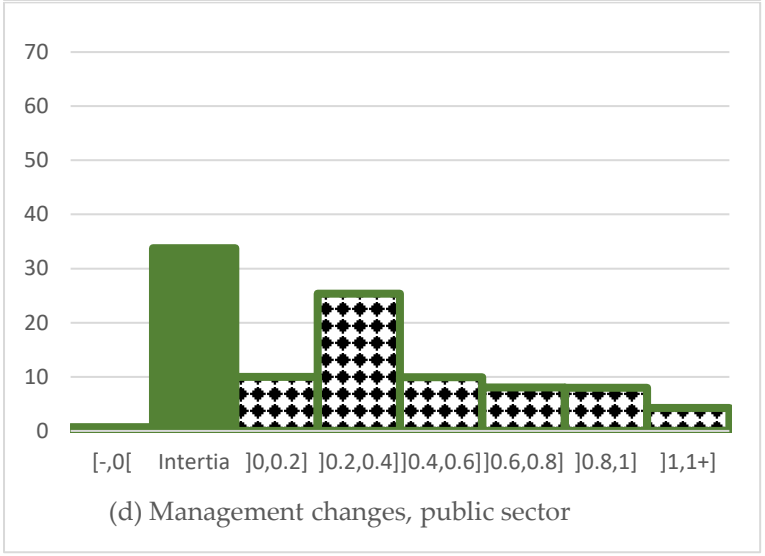
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Graph 1. Distribution of ICT and management changes in the populations of private and public organizations

Data source: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE

Coverage: Productive units of 20 or more employees in the private sector and of 10 or more employees in the public sector. Weighted data.

249 One striking feature in graph 1, which is contrary to common belief, is the higher inertia of
250 private sector companies compared with public administrations. In the private sector, respectively
251 53% of enterprises have not implemented any ICT changes (a) and 72% no management changes (b)
252 when these figures amount to respectively 21% (c) and 34% (d) in the State civil service. As a result,
253 there is substantial average difference between public and private employers. The average change
254 was twice as large in the State civil service for ICT changes and more than four times greater for
255 management changes. Furthermore, in the private sector, the share of companies having
256 implemented changes decrease with their intensity when situations are more contrasted in the public
257 sector. The mode of the distribution of the two indexes in the private sector is inertia. In the public
258 sector, intermediate intensities of change (0.2+, 0.4) constitute the modal group for ICT changes and
259 the second modal group for management changes which distribution is bimodal. It is also interesting
260 to note that private and public sector organizations seldom indicate that they drop tools. The change
261 dynamic is that of an accumulation of new tools rather than a process of substitution between them.
262 Finally, the ICTs dynamics is stronger than the management tools dynamics, especially in the private
263 sector where only a small share of companies has implemented management changes.

264 To seize how ICT relates with management change, we have crossed two dummy variables
265 indicating whether the organization had implemented a change other than marginal (changes strictly
266 lower to 0.2). We are thus able to identify four groups of organizations: stable ones, with substantial
267 ICT changes only, with substantial management changes only, with both substantial ICT and
268 management changes. The top part of table 1 shows the exposure of employees to these four types of
269 organizational contexts in the private and public sectors. It confirms the findings of Graph 1 and
270 gives further information. About 60% of employees in the private sector work in companies that
271 have remained stable as they have not implemented any substantial ICT or management changes.
272 The most frequent type of change in this sector is ICT changes only, which affects 21% of employees.
273 In contrast, only 23% of public sector employees belong to stable organization and 37% of them are
274 exposed to substantial ICT and management changes. Overall, the working environment of
275 employees in the State civil service seems more unsettled than that of private sector employees.

276 2.2.3. The dependent and control variables

277 We consider three dimensions of work experience: work intensity, skill utilization and the
278 subjective relationship to work. We distinguish two indicators of work intensification. The first
279 measures whether the constraints weighing on work pace decreased, increased, or remained stable
280 over the last three years. The questionnaire identifies five types of constraints according to their
281 source: internal demand, external demand, deadlines or production standards to meet, automatic
282 movement of a product or part or machine pace, and the work of one or more colleagues. The second
283 indicator measures whether activity peaks became more frequent or less frequent over the past three
284 years or whether their frequency remained unchanged. The measurement of work intensity through
285 constraints weighing on the work pace is a classical approach in working conditions survey, which
286 implicitly assumes that the technical and organizational environment regulates workers' activity.
287 The inclusion of the reference to an external demand requiring an immediate response augmented
288 this classic measure to adapt it to service activities. The second indicator, on the frequency of activity
289 peaks, complements the first one by further assessing work intensity in the service sector where it is
290 more difficult to control the pace of work, as most of the time the work activity cannot be separated
291 from the delivery of the service.

292 We approach skill development with complementary indicators. The first one measures the
293 evolution of skill use over the past three years. This indicator tells us whether the employee needs to
294 activate his knowledge while working more or less intensively than before. To some extent, this
295 indicator measures the enrichment of the employee's work. The second indicator defines whether the
296 employee feels that he has the opportunity of learning new things at work. The fact of increasing
297 skill utilization or knowledge is likely to make work richer but also more complex.

298 Finally, we measure the evolution the subjective relationship to work by a direct answer to the
299 question: Do you get involved more, less, or as much as you did three years ago or when you arrived

300 at the company (if recently hired)? The COI survey supplements this measure by an assessment of
 301 the recognition of employees' work by the employer. This question, asked at the very end of the
 302 questionnaire, determines whether employees believe that their work is recognized at fair value
 303 upon consideration of what they bring to their company and the corresponding benefits they get. It
 304 measures the employees' perception of the fairness of the treatment that they receive at the
 305 workplace.

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Table 1. Employees' exposure to organizational change and evolution of quality of working life across sectors

% Employees	Private sector	Public sector
Exposure to organizational change		
ICT and management changes	8.2	36.8
ICT changes only	20.9	18.1
Management changes only	11.2	21.9
Inertia or marginal changes (<0.20)	59.7	23.2
Evolution of quality of working life		
<i>Work intensification</i>		
Increased constraints on work pace	39.8	41.3
Decreased constraints on work pace	5.2	3.7
Stable constraints on work pace	40.9	34.5
No constraints on work pace	14.1	20.5
More activity peaks	38.5	42.2
Similar activity peaks	41.4	41.2
Fewer activity peaks	12.2	8.9
No activity peaks	7.9	7.7
<i>Skill development</i>		
Increased use of skills	41.8	40.1
Similar use of skills	46.6	46.4
Reduced use of skills	11.6	13.6
Learning new things at work	73.8	81.6
<i>Evolution of the subjective relationship to work</i>		
More involved	33.0	30.6
Similarly involved	52.5	56.8
Less involved	14.6	12.6
Work recognised at fair value	44.9	38.8
Number of observations	11,731	946

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Data source: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE

Coverage: Stable employees (one year of service) from productive units of 20 or more

employees in the private sector and 10 or more employees in the public sector. Weighted data.

312 We report descriptive statistics across sectors for these indicators in Table 1. Public sector
 313 employees report slightly more frequent work intensification (41.3% vs 39.8% for increased
 314 constraints on work pace and 42.2% vs 38.5% for more activity peaks) as well as more frequent
 315 opportunities of learning new things at work (81.6% vs 73.8%), but without higher increase in skill
 316 use (40.1% vs 41.8%). In addition, employees of the State civil service more often report that they are
 317 less involved (30.6% vs 33%) and that they do not feel recognized at their fair value (61.2% vs 55.1%).

318 Control variables in our regressions benefit from the linkage between the employer and
 319 employee survey, which makes high quality and detailed information on both levels available. From
 320 the employer's side a first set of dummies indicate the main sector where the company operates and
 321 in the State civil service the relevant ministry; a second set of dummies indicate the size of the
 322 interviewed employer unit. From the employees' side, the control variables taken into account are as
 323 follows: sex, seniority, age, education, marital status, spouse's employment status (employed or non-

324 employed), weekly working hours, part-time work, employment status, and pay, net of all social
 325 security contributions. Regressions also include the inverse Mills ratio to control for the ex-ante self-
 326 selection of employees in the private and public sector.

327 3. Organizational changes and the evolution of working life quality

328 3.1 Work intensification in the public sector for intense ICT related organizational changes

329 Tables 2 displays the estimated results for the indicators of work intensification: the evolution of
 330 constraints weighing on the work pace and the evolution of activity peaks. The table shows the
 331 coefficients associated with the quadratic form for ICT and management changes. It does not show
 332 the control variables coefficients except for the inverse Mills ratio (Lambda). As an illustration, the
 333 coefficient reported in the first row and the first column identifies the marginal effect of the indicator
 334 of ICT changes (Ch. ICT) on the evolution of constraints on the work pace in the private sector,
 335 measured at the sample mean. It is positive and very weakly significant (10.6% significance level).

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Table 2. Effects of organizational changes on work intensification

Evolution of...	...constraints on work pace		...activity peaks	
	Private sector	Public sector	Private sector	Public sector
Ch. ICT	0.086 (0.106)	-0.056 (0.521)	0.072 (0.216)	-0.101 (0.270)
Ch. ICT²	-0.122 (0.290)	0.262* (0.063)	-0.196* (0.075)	0.250* (0.054)
Ch. Management	0.015 (0.830)	-0.001 (0.994)	-0.002 (0.978)	0.122 (0.157)
Ch. Management²	-0.062 (0.644)	0.157 (0.248)	-0.023 (0.849)	0.113 (0.367)
Interaction ch.	-0.192 (0.274)	0.074 (0.764)	0.131 (0.397)	0.041 (0.858)
Lambda	-0.172 (0.115)	-0.431 (0.123)	-0.017 (0.918)	-0.090 (0.451)
Observations	10,079	756	10,806	873

338 Data sources: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE

339 Coverage: Stable employees (one year of service) from productive units of 20 or more employees in the private
 340 sector and 10 or more employees in the public sector.

341 Note: Controls included for employer and employee level characteristics and for employee self-selection,
 342 weighted regressions, significance level in parentheses: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

343 The evolution of constraints weighing on the work pace seems to be relatively unaffected by
 344 organizational changes in the private sector as none of the coefficients reported in the first column of
 345 table 2 is significant at conventional statistical thresholds. The estimations at various points of the
 346 distribution of changes (which we do not report here) confirm this result: it only shows a weakly
 347 positive marginal effect of ICT changes on the evolution of work pace constraints for median values
 348 of the two indicators of change. The second indicator of work intensification, the evolution of activity
 349 peaks, shows similar results at sample mean (third column of table 2) although at the second-order,
 350 ICT changes have a weakly significant negative impact. However, the estimations at various points
 351 of the distribution of changes do not suggest a decrease in the incidence of activity peaks in response
 352 to organizational changes in the private sector.

353 Results are more conclusive in the public sector for intense ICT related organizational changes.
 354 The second column of table 2 shows that at the second-order the coefficient associated with ICT
 355 changes is positive and weakly significant, suggesting a U-shaped relationship. The estimations at
 356 various points of the distribution of changes confirm this relationship. In administrations with high
 357 intensities of both types of changes, State officials feel reinforced obligations to adjust to an imposed
 358 work pace. In the fourth column of table 2, the results for activity peaks show a similar profile as
 359 those for work pace constraints, with a positive but weakly significant coefficient associated with ICT
 360 changes at the second order. However, the estimations at various points of the distribution of
 361 changes show at best a positive marginal effect of management changes on increased activity peaks,
 362 which increases in value and significance with the intensity of organizational changes.

363 Finally, the coefficient associated with lambda is negative but non-significant. Therefore, the
 364 inclusion of the inverse Mills ratio in the regressions has not altered the result.

365 3.2 Contrasted change related skill development in the private and public sectors

366 In contrast to the results discussed so far, the evolution of skill development reported in table 3
 367 shows a clear difference between the private and the public sectors. Public officials in the State civil
 368 service do not seem to perceive organizational changes as inducing changes in the use of their skills
 369 (column 2) and the estimations at various points of the distribution of ICT and management changes
 370 confirm this result. In contrast, private sector employees perceive an increased use of their skills with
 371 ICT and management changes, but at a rate that decreases with the intensity of changes (column 1).
 372 Indeed, first order terms are positive and significant, second order terms are negative and the
 373 interaction effect is negative. However, the positive impact on skill use is stronger for management
 374 changes than for ICT changes: the first order effect is of higher magnitude and the second order
 375 effect is non-significant. The estimations at various points of the distribution of changes shows that
 376 the increased use of skills vanishes when ICT changes reach their higher decile, but remains positive
 377 and significant, albeit with a lower magnitude, for management changes.

378
 379

Table 3. Effects of organizational changes on skill development

	Evolution of skill use		Learning new things at works	
	Private sector	Public sector	Private sector	Public sector
Ch. ICT	0.098** (0.047)	0.066 (0.505)	0.0323 (0.303)	0.076* (0.072)
Ch. ICT²	-0.241** (0.020)	-0.169 (0.398)	-0.111** (0.037)	-0.076 (0.239)
Ch. Management	0.194** (0.026)	-0.104 (0.235)	0.037 (0.345)	-0.064 (0.151)
Ch. Management²	-0.201 (0.171)	0.183 (0.175)	-0.037 (0.561)	0.089 (0.204)
Interaction ch.	0.300* (0.058)	0.198 (0.437)	0.034 (0.674)	0.159 (0.158)
Lambda	0.225 (0.290)	0.075 (0.531)	-0.011 (0.885)	-0.122** (0.020)
Observations	11,731	946	11,731	946

380 Data sources: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE

381 Coverage: Stable employees (one year of service) from productive units of 20 or more employees in the private
 382 sector and 10 or more employees in the public sector.

383 Note: Controls included for employer and employee level characteristics and for employee self-selection,
 384 weighted regressions, significance level in parentheses: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

385 It is striking to see that employees in the private sector do not seem to accumulate new
 386 knowledge with ICT and management changes (column 3). The negative impact of ICT changes at
 387 the second order on learning new things at work does not lead to any significant result in the
 388 estimations at different points in the distribution of changes. Thus in the private sector, changes
 389 contribute to skills development, but with some limitations. They increase the use of skills, but at a
 390 decreasing rate and without favoring the accumulation of new knowledge and this limitation seems
 391 to be stronger for ICT changes than for management changes.

392 If skill use appears unaffected by ICT and management changes in the public sector, employees
 393 seem to accumulate new knowledge with some combinations of changes. The last column of table 3
 394 shows a positive but weakly significant coefficient associated with ICT changes and the estimations
 395 at various points of the distribution of changes show positive impacts on learning new things at
 396 work for high magnitudes of changes in the two families of tools.

397 The coefficient associated with lambda is negative and significant in the public sector. Hence,
 398 there is a negative correlation between unobserved heterogeneity favoring self-selection in the public
 399 sector and learning new things at work. However, the results on skills development are robust to the
 400 inclusion of inverse Mills ratio in the regressions.

401 3.3 Diverging impacts of changes on the evolution the subjective relationship to work in the two sectors

402 The largest difference between the private and public sectors appears in the field of work
 403 commitment. Actually, ICT and organizational changes seem to be more strongly affecting the
 404 subjective relationship to work than they are affecting the more objective dimensions of work
 405 intensity and skill utilization.

406

407 **Table 4.** Effects of organizational changes on the evolution the subjective relationship to work

	Evolution of involvement		Work recognised at fair value	
	Private sector	Public sector	Private sector	Public sector
Ch. ICT	-0.060 (0.204)	-0.001 (0.989)	-0.107* (0.062)	-0.064 (0.306)
Ch. ICT²	-0.030 (0.723)	-0.308** (0.012)	-0.0072 (0.921)	0.024 (0.819)
Ch. Management	0.176*** (0.004)	-0.151** (0.021)	0.122*** (0.007)	-0.139** (0.032)
Ch. Management²	-0.237* (0.093)	0.034 (0.798)	-0.248*** (0.002)	0.355*** (0.003)
Interaction ch.	0.444*** (0.003)	-0.485*** (0.006)	0.201* (0.078)	-0.300* (0.076)
Lambda	-0.296** (0.027)	0.353*** (0.001)	0.183 (0.156)	0.022 (0.777)
Observations	11,731	946	11,731	946

408 Data sources: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE

409 Coverage: Stable employees (one year of service) from productive units of 20 or more employees in the private
 410 sector and 10 or more employees in the public sector.

411 Note: Controls included for employer and employee level characteristics and for employee self-selection,
 412 weighted regressions, significance level in parentheses: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

413 The results reported in the first column of table 4 show that organizational changes in the
 414 private sector go most of the time with a higher involvement of employees. However, it is
 415 nonetheless necessary to distinguish between ICT and management changes. The effects of the

416 former on the evolution of involvement at the workplace are generally limited: the first and second
417 order coefficients associated with ICT changes are negative but non-significant and the interaction
418 term with management changes is strong and positive. As a result, the marginal effects of ICT
419 changes are most of the time non-significant except at the top of their distribution and for low levels
420 of management changes, where they become significantly negative. The effects of management
421 changes are very positive as long as their magnitude is not too large: the first order coefficient is
422 positive, the second order one is negative and the interaction term is positive. Therefore, the
423 marginal effects of management changes are positive through the distribution of both indicators of
424 changes, but they are weaker and less significant for higher deciles. Management changes in the
425 private sector help maintain employee involvement.

426 In the public sector, by contrast, ICT and management changes are associated with declining
427 employee involvement. The first and second order coefficients for ICT changes are negative but the
428 latter only is significant; the first order coefficient of management changes is negative and significant
429 and the second order one is weakly positive and non-significant; the interaction term is strongly
430 negative. The resulting marginal effects of ICT and management tools are negative along the
431 distribution of both indicators of change, stronger and more significant for higher deciles. In the
432 public sector, the accumulation of changes in the work environment seems to be at odds with the
433 usual exercise of duties.

434 The analysis of how employees feel about the fair recognition of their work (columns 3 and 4)
435 confirms this diversity of effects across sectors: coefficients have the same signs as those reported for
436 the evolution of involvement, but they have different magnitude and significance level. In the private
437 sector, the negative effect of ICT changes at the first order is stronger and the positive interaction
438 term is smaller. Consequently, we find a negative marginal effect of ICT changes on the feeling of fair
439 work recognition, in particular when they are in the higher deciles. These negative effects become
440 lower with the intensity of management changes. Coefficient associated with management changes
441 remain close to those observed for the evolution of involvement. Hence, the marginal effects of
442 management changes are much the same; they are positive and significant through the distribution
443 of both indicators of change, except in the highest decile of their distribution where they become
444 non-significant.

445 In the public sector, effects at the second order differ from those observed for the evolution of
446 involvement. The second order coefficient of ICT changes is non-significant when the second order
447 coefficient of management change is positive and significant. Compared with the evolution of
448 involvement, the negative impact of the higher deciles of ICT and management changes are lower.
449 The marginal effects of ICT changes remain negative, but they are lower for higher deciles of ICT
450 changes. The marginal effects of management changes are negative only for the higher deciles of ICT
451 changes and significant for the lower decile of management changes. It weakens when their
452 magnitude is high and even becomes positive and significant when significant management changes
453 are associated with marginal ICT change.

454 The coefficient associated with lambda is significant in the regressions concerning the evolution
455 of involvement. It is negative in the private sector and positive in the public sector. Hence, the
456 unobserved heterogeneity that explains self-selection into each sector has opposite effects on the
457 evolution of involvement in the two sectors. It favors involvement in the public sector and hinders it
458 in the private sector. However, regression results are robust to the control for employee self-
459 selection. The diverging impact of changes on the subjective relationship to work in the private and
460 the public sector is not explained by the fact that employees are differing in the unobserved
461 characteristics that have motivated the choice to work in one sector or in the other.

462 4. How can we explain the divergence between the two sectors?

463 Although organizational changes have some common orientation in the private and public
464 sectors, allowing for a common measure, we find a divergence between the two sectors in their
465 impact on the subjective relationship to work. Public sector employees facing ICT and management
466 changes express discouragement as well as the feeling of an increased effort-reward imbalance. In

467 the private sector, changes interact positively with involvement and fair work recognition, within
468 certain limits in terms of change intensity. In this section, we discuss these results and test four
469 hypotheses to explain this divergence.

470 4.1. Does the divergence come from the turnover of unhappy employees in private sector firms?

471 Our first hypothesis relies on the fact that dissatisfaction with ICT and management changes
472 could drive employees to react differently in the two sectors. When employees are unhappy with
473 organizational changes they may opt for a withdrawal behavior. First, they may choose to resign.
474 Indeed, high levels of job dissatisfaction are good predictors of quits [22]. Second, as quits are costly,
475 employees may prefer some form of internal disengagement, a behavior that Baudelot *and al.* [23]
476 have observed in France when work pressure becomes too hard. However, private firms can still
477 induce disengaged employees to quit or even chose to dismiss them. In the French public sector, on
478 the contrary, voluntary and involuntary job exits are rarer due to strict employment protection.

479 In the COI survey, employees were randomly sampled in the population of responding firms or
480 administrations. However, at the time of the interview, some 12 months later, around 10% of selected
481 private employees had left their company while only 4% of the public agents were missing.
482 Therefore, we hypothesize that we could explain the increased involvement of employees in
483 changing private companies by the exits of unhappy workers.

484 To test this ex post selection hypothesis, we take advantage of the sample of the employees who
485 left the company for which they had been sampled at the time of their interview. As these employees
486 have left, we cannot observe the counterfactual subjective relationship to work, which is their work
487 commitment if they had continued to work with that company. Therefore, we chose an extreme
488 hypothesis: we assume that they would have declared a decrease in their work involvement and a
489 feeling that their work was not recognized at fair value. Besides, we observe leavers during the year
490 2006 only. As we measure changes that have taken place during a three years span, we assume that
491 the rate of voluntary exit has been the same in 2004 and 2005. Therefore, in our robustness check, we
492 give each leaver a weight of three, bringing our sample of 1140 leavers to a size 3420 individuals.

493 We report in the first two columns of Table 5 below the results of the regression sample of
494 private sector employees extended with exits. They should be compared with those reported in
495 columns 1 and 3 of the above table 4. Making the hypothesis employees who left were dissatisfied
496 does not change the influence of ICT changes on the evolution of involvement, nor on the feeling of
497 fair recognition. However, management changes do not contribute the same to the evolution the
498 subjective relationship to work in this extended sample. The coefficient measuring the first order
499 effect of management changes is close to nil and non-significant when was positive and highly
500 significant in table 4. The second order coefficient is still negative, but its magnitude is reduced and it
501 is no more significant for the evolution of involvement. The interaction effect is still positive, but it is
502 smaller for the evolution of involvement.

503 Overall, the fact that management changes interact positively with involvement and fair work
504 recognition, when their intensity is not too high could be due to the resignation of unhappy
505 employees. Hence the ex post selection hypothesis could contribute to explaining the favorable
506 impact of management changes in the private sector. Nevertheless, even with this extreme
507 assumption, the effects of management changes on the subjective relationship to work in the private
508 sector are not as negative as observed in the State civil service. In addition, the complementarity of
509 ICT and management changes remains positive on involvement and feelings of fairness in opposition
510 with the evidence in public administrations.

511 4.2. Can the specific sources and paths of changes in public and private sector explain the divergence?

512 Organizations in private and public sectors being structurally different according to property
513 rights (public state vs private shareholders) and control (political forces vs market competition), it is
514 reasonable to hypothesize that the cycle of changes will be sector specific. Hence, Meier and O'Toole
515 [24] propose a theoretical model of the influence of institutional differences on the process of
516 organizational changes. As market forces evolve at a faster rhythm than political mandates, the

517 private sector would be ahead in the cycle of changes with more organizational learning. However,
518 the work processes and management tools of the private sector inspire the methods of the New
519 Public Management applied in many public sector's reforms in western economies [25].

520 The sources of changes also differ between the two sectors. The private sector firms would
521 change in response to market pressure towards efficiency. Therefore, competition would induce
522 them to select the most effective management and technical tools. On the contrary, the public sector
523 would change under a political agenda. Then, when decided under political pressure, the
524 management and ICT changes in the public sector may be more rapid and based on different
525 selection principles.

526

527 **Table 5.** Analysis of public/private divergence on the evolution the subjective relationship to work

	Private sector with exits		Exposed private sector		Sheltered private sector	
	Evolution of involvement	Fair work recognition	Evolution of involvement	Fair work recognition	Evolution of involvement	Fair work recognition
Ch. ICT	-0.018 (0.736)	-0.090* (0.069)	-0.044 (0.401)	-0.040 (0.360)	0.089 (0.392)	-0.144 (0.177)
Ch. ICT ²	-0.006 (0.952)	-0.005 (0.935)	0.007 (0.942)	-0.068 (0.331)	-0.354 (0.104)	0.208 (0.343)
Ch. Mangt.	-0.051 (0.410)	0.036 (0.423)	0.096** (0.046)	0.075** (0.039)	0.410*** (0.004)	0.165* (0.082)
Ch. Mangt. ²	-0.127 (0.348)	-0.198*** (0.005)	-0.125 (0.255)	-0.143** (0.035)	-0.584* (0.099)	-0.512** (0.015)
Interaction ch.	0.321** (0.037)	0.196* (0.063)	0.357*** (0.008)	0.070 (0.485)	0.232 (0.556)	0.309 (0.298)
Lambda	-1.418*** (0.000)	-0.899*** (0.000)	0.276 (0.238)	-0.144 (0.239)	0.334 (0.215)	-0.268 (0.205)
Observations	15,151	15,151	9,752	9,752	1,979	1,979

528 Data sources: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE?

529 Coverage: Stable employees (one year of service) from productive units of 20 or more employees in the private
530 sector and 10 or more employees in the public sector.

531 Note: Controls included for employer and employee level characteristics and for employee self-selection,

532 weighted regressions, significance level in parentheses: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

533 The descriptive statistics of the diffusion of ICT and management tools in private and public
534 productive units reported in table A1 in the appendix gives us some first evidence to confront these
535 hypotheses on the specific paths of changes in the two sectors. First, we observe that the increase in
536 the use of all ICT tools is higher in the public sector than in the private sector, with the exception of
537 electronic data exchange systems. Nevertheless, we cannot here speak of a ICT catch-up as the public
538 sector was already better equipped than the private sector in 2003 with respect to the majority of the
539 fifteen selected tools, particularly the networking tools (website, intranet, Local Architecture
540 Network, extranet). The diffusion of management tools follows a different logic and timing. In the
541 private sector, tools for managing external relationships, already well established in 2003, continued
542 their growth. In the public sector, their rapid diffusion demonstrates the willingness to work
543 differently with suppliers and with the citizens. Other management tools seem more suited to the
544 logic of the private (methods of problem solving, customer relationship management) or the public
545 sector (environmental or ethical certification) and their implementation in the other sector does not
546 occur easily. Overall, in 2003, public sector productive units were ahead in terms of adoption for 12
547 ICT tools out of 15. For management tools, the private firms displayed a higher rate of adoption for 9

548 out of the 13 tools. Hence, there is no clear evidence in these descriptive statistics that the private
549 firms were clearly ahead in the cycle of changes.

550 To assess whether the observed divergence between the public and private sectors come from
551 the distance to market competition, we separate the private firms into two categories, the exposed
552 and the sheltered ones. The sheltered firms are those acting in national markets where they have not
553 been affected by the emergence of new competitors. The other group of firms is the exposed group.
554 We run our regressions on the evolution the subjective relationship to work for these two sub-
555 samples of private firms and report the results in columns 3 to 6 of table 5 above. In both the exposed
556 and sheltered private sectors, the impacts of management changes on the evolution of involvement
557 and fair work recognition remain significantly positive, at a decreasing rate with the intensity of
558 changes. The major difference is the fact that the complementarity of ICT and management changes
559 has no supplementary positive effect on the subjective relationship to work. However, these new
560 estimates clearly show that the effects of changes in the group of companies sheltered from intense
561 competition are not similar to those observed in the public sector.

562 *4.3. Does the divergence come from different impacts of the implementation of performance pay?*

563 The private sector may complement management and ICT changes with human resource
564 management practices that favor the involvement of employees in the change process, in particular
565 performance pay. In fact, performance pay is one of the most cited practices among the ones forming
566 the management concept of *high performance work organisation*. This incentive system is likely to
567 induce insider employees to increase their level of productive effort and to attract the most
568 motivated outsiders to engage themselves in the productive organization.

569 Why do public organizations seldom use performance pay, when it has proved its efficiency in
570 the private sector? The limited scope of the implementation of performance pay in the public sector
571 has three main reasons [26]. First, many public agencies have multiple and complex objectives and
572 public employees perform multi task jobs. In such jobs, performance pay may induce high effort in
573 compensated task and crowd it out from uncompensated ones. Second, the performance of the civil
574 servant frequently depends on the effort and quality of the public service users who somehow
575 coproduce with him. A well-known example of this situation is the relationship between teachers
576 and pupils. If teachers are paid according to the performance of their pupils, they may over invest
577 helping those who have the best results. Finally, civil servants may have selected themselves in the
578 public sector because of their public service motivation to participate to the goals of public
579 institutions [27]. Hence, this intrinsic motivation may substitute for performance pay [28]. Moreover,
580 this intrinsic motivation may be crowded out by the implementation of performance pay as this
581 incentive system can create doubt about the fact that the public employer is completely confident
582 about their commitment [29]. The use of a similar performance pay system in both sectors may then
583 lead to opposite effects on the subjective relationship to work.

584 The “employee” section of the COI survey has a set of questions on performance pay. It shows
585 that 11% of the private workforce has benefitted from the introduction of performance pay between
586 2003 and 2006 while only 5.5% of public agents were concerned by such an implementation. To test
587 our hypothesis about the role of performance pay on the subjective relationship to work, we
588 augment equation (1) with a dummy variable measuring the introduction of performance between
589 2003 and 2006 and two interaction terms between this dummy and the measure of each type of
590 changes. The positive or negative effects of these interaction terms signals whether performance pay
591 eased or amplified the relationship between organizational changes and the evolution of work
592 commitment.

593 We display the full results in table A2 of the appendix. As expected, the introduction of
594 performance pay has a positive effect on the evolution of involvement in the private sector but not in
595 the public sector. However, it has almost no moderating influence on the impact of changes on the
596 subjective relationship to work. No interaction terms with performance pay are significant in the
597 regressions on the evolution of involvement. Two interaction terms with ICT changes are significant

598 as far as fair work recognition is concerned: the interaction with the second order term is negative in
599 the private sector and the interaction the first order term is positive in the public sector.

600 In table 6 below, we summarize the marginal effects of ICT and management changes on the
601 evolution of involvement and the feeling of fair recognition for the average employee according to
602 her eligibility to performance pay in the last three years. We also report the result on the total sample
603 of employees for sake of comparison. When there is no performance pay, the impact of management
604 changes on both the evolution of involvement and the feeling of fair work recognition remains
605 opposite in the two sectors, positive in the private sector and negative in the State civil service.

606

607 **Table 6.** Effects of ICT and management changes according to the introduction of performance pay

		Private Sector		Public Sector	
		Evolution of involvement	Fair work recognition	Evolution of involvement	Fair work recognition
No performance pay	Ch. ICT	-0.079 (0.136)	-0.113* (0.064)	0.031 (0.705)	-0.105 (0.152)
	Ch. Mangt	0.153** (0.050)	0.147*** (0.007)	-0.143** (0.035)	-0.127* (0.091)
Total sample	Ch. ICT	-0.061 (0.201)	-0.107* (0.064)	-0.004 (0.954)	-0.069 (0.274)
	Ch. Mangt	0.174*** (0.005)	0.122*** (0.006)	-0.153** (0.020)	-0.139** (0.032)
Performance pay	Ch. ICT	0.001 (0.991)	-0.036 (0.738)	-0.292 (0.261)	0.453** (0.025)
	Ch. Mangt	0.379** (0.011)	-0.069 (0.600)	-0.055 (0.828)	-0.395** (0.027)

608 Data sources: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE

609 Coverage: Stable employees (one year of service) from productive units of 20 or more employees in the private
610 sector and 10 or more employees in the public sector.

611 Note: Average effects from regressions in table A2, significance level: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

612 In the group of workers who benefit from performance pay, results on the subjective
613 relationship to work do not seem to converge either. Interestingly, in the private firms, the
614 implementation of performance pay seems to deteriorate somehow the positive effect of
615 management changes on the feeling of fair work recognition observed in the whole sample. In the
616 State civil service, when workers are eligible to a compensation premium, ICT changes impacts
617 positively the feeling of fair recognition of the average public agent, as if this premium was
618 compensating for an effort to assimilate the new knowledge associated with this technological
619 innovations.

620 *4.4. Does the moderating role of the presence of union representatives explain the divergence?*

621 The way organizational changes are discussed and assessed when implemented at the
622 workplace could also influence their impact on the subjective relationship to work. We will consider
623 here the potential role played by union delegates. First, unions can have a regulating influence both
624 on the nature of changes and on the way they are implemented. Without institutional representation
625 of the workforce, it is more difficult to carry out a common claim from the workforce requests. In
626 case of a significant power of consultation, employees can expect to suggest some adjustments in
627 changes to make them more advantageous. Activation of formal exchanges between employers and

628 employees representatives may limit the negative consequences for employees through their
629 influence on the content of changes, by negotiating compensation possibilities in terms of wages,
630 training, job security, by fostering a climate of trust that allows the expression of employees and by
631 ensuring a supporting role social. Indeed, some evidence that the detrimental effects of changes on
632 workers' job anxiety vanish when union representatives are involved in their process of introduction
633 have been found from a large British employer-employee dataset [10].

634 Second, the unions may have a revealing influence on the consequences of the changes. The
635 presence of employee representatives contributes to the development of a cognitive context that
636 encourages the expression of criticism [30]. Information exchanges between union delegates and the
637 workforce reflect the difficulties and defects associated with organizational changes and negative
638 perception is likely to be increased. If the changes involve increased efforts, higher skills
639 obsolescence or more job insecurity, then the balance at the root of the feeling of equity and security
640 felt by the members of the organization may be broken. Furthermore, if management does not
641 properly involve the unions in the process of negotiating the implementation of changes or refuse to
642 study their demands, employees may interpret the process of changes as unfair. Unions at the
643 workplace may then act either as a *regulator* when their participation to the process of the changes
644 mitigates their adverse effects for employees or as a *pointer* when they reinforce the perception of
645 their negative consequences.

646 The capacities of unions to interfere within the process of organizational changes depend on
647 their local strength [31] and on institutional features. Differences in the legal requirements to
648 negotiate within private and public organizations explain the uneven capacity of employee voice to
649 accompany the progress of innovative projects. Thereby, the right to negotiate in the private sector
650 for unions and the topics of bargaining alike differ from those in the state civil service.

651 In fact, union representatives are entitled to the right of negotiation in the private sector while
652 they only have the right of consultation in the French public sector. Hence, we could say that their
653 *regulating* power in administrations is restricted. However, this legal restriction is in fact not as clear
654 because the law authorizes quasi-negotiations about working conditions [32]. The bilateral
655 overviews, informal consultations, working groups and preparatory meetings usually organized
656 before meetings of the *Joint Technical Committee* (Comité technique paritaire) are part of these quasi-
657 negotiations [33]. Those committees involving employer and employee representatives are required
658 to transmit a consultative advice about the general organization of public services, tools and methods
659 of work, major evolution of professional activities, and especially the use of new technologies.
660 Furthermore, in the private sector since 1982, the Auroux laws create a set of obligations to negotiate
661 but a large fraction of firms do not fulfill this legal requirement. Therefore, it is difficult to decide
662 whether union representatives have more power to *regulate* in the private sector or in the public
663 sector.

664 However, some reasons plead for a more *regulating* influence of union representatives in the
665 private sector. Because of their obligation to negotiate in the private sector, union representatives
666 would have more influence on changes. Organizational changes are also more likely to be *regulated*
667 through compensation, as it is possible to negotiate wages within firms while pay raises are
668 negotiated at a national centralized level in the State civil service. Likewise, union delegates may
669 negotiate employment protection against the active participation in the implementation of
670 management and ICT changes. The most important changes in the organization of the State civil
671 service were decided by the legislative route and mainly impossible to negotiate at the local levels
672 (for instance the LOLF- organic law of the finance law of 1 August 2001- and the e-administration).
673 Conversely, the detailed information transmitted by well-informed public sector unions may explain
674 why the changes, and especially management ones, have negative impacts on the evolution of work
675 involvement and the feeling of work recognition.

676 In fact, unions are more established in the state civil service. Statistical figures from the COI
677 survey show that 38% of public agents have a union affiliation against only 15% of private
678 employees. Moreover, 73% of these private employees declare the presence of a union representative
679 in the firm against 90% of the employees of the state civil service.

680 To explore the moderating effect of trade union presence on the relationship between changes,
 681 evolution of involvement and feeling of fair work recognition, we add to specification (1) a dummy
 682 variable that reflects the specific effect of union presence in private companies or administrations,
 683 and interact this dummy variable with indicators of ICT and management changes. The significance
 684 of the interaction terms reflects the moderating influence of trade union presence on the relationship
 685 between changes and the evolution of the subjective relationship to work. Table 7 reports for the
 686 average employee in the public and private sectors the marginal effects of changes, according to
 687 trade union presence.

688

689 **Table 7.** Effects of ICT and management changes according to trade union presence

		Private Sector		Public Sector	
		Evolution of Fair work involvement	Evolution of Fair work recognition	Evolution of Fair work involvement	Evolution of Fair work recognition
No trade union presence	Ch. ICT	0.125 (0.141)	0.001 (0.988)	-0.129 (0.501)	-0.002 (0.991)
	Ch. Mangt	0.152 (0.153)	0.035 (0.647)	-0.060 (0.752)	0.015 (0.387)
Total sample	Ch. ICT	-0.061 (0.201)	-0.107* (0.064)	-0.004 (0.954)	-0.069 (0.274)
	Ch. Mangt	0.174*** (0.005)	0.122*** (0.006)	-0.153** (0.020)	-0.139** (0.032)
Trade union presence	Ch. ICT	-0.120** (0.038)	-0.131** (0.042)	0.043 (0.629)	-0.079 (0.237)
	Ch. Mangt	0.179** (0.023)	0.139*** (0.008)	-0.160** (0.039)	-0.175** (0.017)

690 Data sources: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE

691 Coverage: Stable employees (one year of service) from productive units of 20 or more employees in the private
 692 sector and 10 or more employees in the public sector.

693 Note: Average effects from regressions in table A3, significance level: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

694 In the private sector, the positive effects of management changes on the subjective relationship
 695 to work seem to be explained by the *regulating* effect of trade union presence. In firms without
 696 unions, there is no more significant influence of management changes on the evolution of
 697 involvement and the feeling of fair recognition. In the public sector, we can observe the opposite
 698 effect: in public administrations trade unions, have a revealing influence, informing civil servants on
 699 the adverse impacts of management changes. In the absence of trade unions, the effects of
 700 management changes on the evolution of involvement and the feeling of fair work recognition would
 701 be the same in both sectors. The different moderating roles of trade unions facing management
 702 changes contribute to explaining the observed divergence in the evolution of the subjective
 703 relationship to work.

704 For ICT changes, the presence of trade unions accentuates the deterioration of involvement and
 705 of the feeling of fair work recognition in the private sector but has no specific influence in the public
 706 sector. Hence, in the private sector, union delegate would have a higher capacity to regulate
 707 management changes than ICT changes.

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711 5. Conclusion

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713 Using the linked employer employee survey on organizational change and computerization
714 (COI), we analyzed the effects of organizational changes in the private sector and the State civil
715 service, examining indicators of work intensification, skill development, and subjective relationship
716 to work. We summarize organizational changes with two continuous indicators describing on one
717 hand the evolution in the use of ICT tools, on the other one the evolution in the use of management
718 tools. We use a model that takes into account the self-selection of employees in each sector and a
719 quadratic form for ICT and management changes, allowing for threshold effects beyond some
720 intensity level as well as for a complementarity between the two types of changes.

721 We first show that organizational changes were more intense in the State civil service than in the
722 private sector, which confirms how important are the changes in the work environment of civil
723 service officials in the context of the modernization of the State. However, these reforms have not
724 translated into a systematic intensification of work. It is therefore necessary to achieve very high
725 levels of change to record an increase in pace constraints or more frequent activity peaks. Thus, only
726 employees for whom their administration has introduced radical changes, i.e., the cumulative
727 adoption of new ICT or management tools have to cope with work intensification.

728 In the private sector, the changes were on average less intense and not significantly associated
729 with variations in the intensity of work. They appear to be related to an enrichment of work that
730 does not lead to the accumulation of new skills. Indeed, employees report that their skills are used
731 more than before but do not report more opportunities of learning new things at work.

732 It is in the more subjective areas of employee involvement and fair work recognition that the
733 differences between the private sector and State civil service are the highest. Employees of the State
734 express discouragement when faced with changes. An average intensity of change in management
735 tools and a high intensity of ICT changes lead to a decline in employee involvement. In addition, a
736 combination of changes in both domains has an additional negative effect on the evolution of
737 involvement. This result is even more noticeable that in the private sector, on the contrary,
738 organizational changes create an increase in employee involvement as long as their magnitude is not
739 too high.

740 Change in both sectors also influence employees' assessment of the fairness of treatment at
741 work. Private sector employees reported a feeling of fair work recognition that decreased with an
742 increasing use of ICT tools. Similarly, the balance between the investment in work and the benefits
743 obtained appears to deteriorate if the changes in management are high. However, the combined
744 presence of changes in both domains weakens this effect in the private sector, in contrast to the
745 public sector, in which this effect reinforces the perception of an effort-reward imbalance.

746 We tested four possible explanations on the causes of this sector-based divergence in the area of
747 the subjective relationship to work. We ruled out two of them: the role of the specific sources and
748 paths of changes in the public and private sector and the divergence in the consequences of
749 performance pay. Two other ones partially explain the seemingly more virtuous nature of
750 management changes in the private sector and thus contribute to the explanation of the divergence.
751 First, we took into account the fact that dissatisfied workers could leave their company while public
752 agents were more stable because of strong employment protection. Second, we checked the
753 differing moderating role of trade unions and we found that if unions regulate management changes
754 in the private sector, they tend to raise the critic about them in the public sector. Furthermore, in the
755 private sector, union delegates seem to have a higher capacity to regulate management changes than
756 ICT changes, which have overall consequences that are more ambiguous.

757 These results suggest that the human sustainability of ICT and management changes depends
758 on their intensity and on how their implementation takes into account the institutional context of the
759 organization.

760

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Appendix:

846 **Table A1.** Diffusion of ICTs and management tools in productive units

	Private sector		Public sector		Private sector baseline metric
	2003	2006	2003	2007	
% of productive units					
ICTs					
Website	61.2	73.3	68.0	88.6	0.065
Local Area Network	61.3	66.7	91.3	96.7	0.071
Software or firmware for HRM	63.4	65.3	90.2	95.3	0.064
Intranet	47.9	57.8	84.1	97.5	0.084
Software or firmware for R&D	47.4	49.8	41.1	45.5	0.041
Tools for data analysis	39.5	47.1	37.8	51.5	0.065
Electronic data interchange system (EDI)	36.2	45.8	38.3	47.5	0.060
Database(s) on for HRM	34.5	38.5	74.9	89.3	0.082
Extranet	25.0	30.2	51.8	66.6	0.081
ERP	26.6	29.6	40.3	51.1	0.059
Databases for R&D	26.1	28.8	30.7	37.9	0.075
Tools for interfacing databases	21.1	28.6	24.2	47.9	0.067
Tools for automated data archiving or research	21.4	27.4	18.4	32.7	0.087
Tools for collaborative work (groupware)	15.1	21.0	28.1	59.8	0.099
Tools for process modelling (workflow)	8.8	12.7	12.0	26.3	0.111

Management tools					
Contractual commitment to provide a product or a service or customer service within a limited time	66.1	68.5	18.0	42.4	0.087
Long-term relationships with suppliers	51.7	54.7	58.6	72.8	0.076
Requirement for suppliers to meet tight deadline	51.5	53.5	61.0	69.9	0.090
Quality certification	36.3	41.4	5.5	21.5	0.092
Satisfaction surveys of customers	32.9	38.7	27.0	47.5	0.079
Teams or autonomous work groups	30.7	33.8	30.2	40.8	0.089
Tools for tracing goods or service	28.3	32.9	9.5	31.5	0.075
Tools for labelling goods and services	28.3	30.8	7.5	25.4	0.093
Call or contact centres	25.5	28.0	24.6	30.4	0.080
Just in time production	22.9	24.3	17.7	20.8	0.071
Methods of problem solving (FMECA)	17.3	20.9	6.1	7.2	0.114
Customer relationship management (CRM)	9.7	14.3	2.0	7,1	0.072
Environmental or ethical certification	9.7	12.9	19.5	64.6	0.107

847 Data source: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFF-DARES-CEE

848 Coverage: Productive units of 20 or more employees in the private sector and of 10 or more employees in the
849 public sector. Weighted data.

850 Note: MCA coefficients come from the MCA applied in 2006 to the private sector. It is the reference metric for

851 2003 in the private sector and for 2003 and 2007 in the State civil service.

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Table A2: The moderating effect of performance pay

	Private sector		Public sector	
	Evolution of Involvement	Fair work recognition	Evolution of Involvement	Fair work recognition
Ch. ICT	-0.064 (0.174)	-0.104* (0.062)	-0.007 (0.918)	-0.070 (0.289)
Ch. ICT ²	-0.018 (0.833)	0.005 (0.942)	-0.309** (0.019)	0.042 (0.720)
Ch. Mangt	0.173*** (0.005)	0.121*** (0.006)	-0.144** (0.027)	-0.140** (0.036)
Ch. Mangt ²	-0.265* (0.063)	-0.250*** (0.001)	0.027 (0.846)	0.331*** (0.005)
Interaction Ch.	0.439*** (0.004)	0.178 (0.113)	-0.502** (0.005)	-0.269 (0.122)
Performance pay	0.087*** (0.009)	0.003 (0.900)	0.129 (0.458)	-0.133 (0.211)
Ch. ICT* Performance pay	0.075 (0.599)	0.074 (0.525)	-0.343 (0.196)	0.545*** (0.008)
Ch. ICT ² * Performance pay	-0.191 (0.413)	-0.316* (0.093)	-0.040 (0.932)	-0.583 (0.209)
Ch. Mangt* Performance pay	0.236 (0.151)	-0.218 (0.136)	0.050 (0.844)	-0.260 (0.156)
Ch. Mangt ² * Performance pay	0.308 (0.270)	0.322 (0.166)	0.020 (0.953)	0.436 (0.136)
Interaction Ch. * Performance pay	-0.439 (0.255)	-0.130 (0.682)	-0.870 (0.215)	0.379 (0.594)
Lambda	0.262 (0.167)	-0.191* (0.061)	-0.757*** (0.004)	-0.158 (0.386)
Observations	11,731	11,731	946	946

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Data sources: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE

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Coverage: Stable employees (one year of service) from productive units of 20 or more employees in the private sector and 10 or more employees in the public sector.

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Note: Controls included for employer and employee level characteristics and for employee self-selection, weighted

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regressions, significance level in parentheses: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

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Table A3: The moderating effect of trade unions

	Private sector		Public sector	
	Evolution of Involvement	Fair work recognition	Evolution of Involvement	Fair work recognition
Ch. ICT	-0.047 (0.306)	-0.092* (0.064)	0.0098 (0.896)	-0.072 (0.239)
Ch. ICT ²	-0.051 (0.549)	-0.008 (0.908)	-0.340*** (0.006)	0.061 (0.528)
Ch. Mangt	0.168*** (0.003)	0.106*** (0.006)	-0.157** (0.020)	-0.141** (0.024)
Ch. Mangt ²	-0.218 (0.100)	-0.226*** (0.001)	0.022 (0.866)	0.340*** (0.003)
Interaction Ch.	0.421*** (0.003)	0.161 (0.116)	-0.440** (0.013)	-0.278* (0.087)
Trade union presence	-0.021 (0.400)	-0.046* (0.055)	0.023 (0.827)	-0.030 (0.751)
Ch. ICT* Trade union presence	-0.238** (0.018)	-0.129 (0.137)	0.164 (0.420)	-0.096 (0.586)
Ch. ICT ² * Trade union presence	0.416** (0.038)	0.092 (0.519)	-0.354 (0.556)	-0.948** (0.028)
Ch. Mangt* Trade union presence	0.024 (0.853)	0.107 (0.253)	-0.091 (0.674)	-0.291* (0.0921)
Ch. Mangt ² * Trade union presence	-0.239 (0.386)	0.082 (0.610)	0.049 (0.913)	0.349 (0.273)
Interaction Ch. * Trade union presence	0.477 (0.158)	0.336 (0.156)	0.445 (0.539)	1.480*** (0.001)
Lambda	0.271 (0.155)	-0.184* (0.072)	-1.318*** (0.001)	0.049 (0.863)
Observations	11,731	11,731	946	946
R ²	0.032	0.074	0.082	0.083

861 Data sources: COI 2006/INSEE-DARES-CEE, COIFP 2006/DGAFP-DARES-CEE

862 Coverage: Stable employees (one year of service) from productive units of 20 or more employees in the private sector
863 and 10 or more employees in the public sector.

864 Note: Controls included for employer and employee level characteristics and for employee self-selection, weighted

865 regressions, significance level in parentheses: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

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