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Talent in transit: occupation and industry mobility in Australia

Staff working paper

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Summary

More than three-quarters of job changes involve a change of occupation or industry. This paper uses a data source with more robust information on occupation changes to look at the movement of workers between occupations and industries, including occupation changes inside a firm.

While we find that large changes of occupation or industry are common (as is the case overseas), we find little evidence that such changes are bad for the economy. Occupation and industry mobility look productive on the whole: workers are changing occupation or industry when their circumstances change, for example recent graduates now looking for a permanent job, or workers moving from full-time work to part-time (or vice-versa). Others are looking for a better fit, for example, young workers and highly educated workers moving up the job ladder. Broadly, workers move from less productive industries to more productive, giving productive industries more choice of workers. If anything, it's possible that occupation and industry mobility in Australia may not be high *enough*: many workers change occupations while remaining with the same firm, which could suggest difficulties in convincing a new employer to try someone with a different background.

Introduction

The long-term decline in the rate of job switching in Australia is of significant concern. In 2023, 9.5% of employed Australians changed jobs, down from 17.4% in 1972 (ABS 2024, fig. 3a). While there are some potential benefits to workers staying in jobs for longer, such as building up their firm-specific knowledge, research on business dynamism finds that there are more benefits to job mobility. Firms and workers both search for more productive matches, and it has been shown that workers move from less productive to more productive firms, on average, to the benefit of workers (Andrews and Hansell 2021). Industries with higher job mobility have more investment and higher productivity (Hambur and Andrews 2023).

Interestingly, there has been little focus on occupation and industry mobility in the business dynamism literature. Yet, similarly to job mobility, occupation and industry mobility could have negative or positive effects on aggregate productivity. On the one hand, occupation and industry mobility could be bad for productivity, as workers who move lose some of their occupation- or industry-specific human capital. On the other hand, there are also potential gains. Workers create knowledge spillovers when they move from one occupation or industry to another, diffusing experiences, skills and knowledge across the economy. Just as workers from other firms bring 'knowledge spillovers,' as highlighted in studies of Silicon Valley (Saxenian 1996) and in firm-level studies in different countries (Braunerhjelm et al. 2020), there can also be knowledge spillovers when a worker brings knowledge from another occupation. Finally, workers may be attracted toward high-productivity industries by their higher wages. As a result, high productivity industries could be able to hire more talented workers. The literature has identified productivity gains from assortative matching between workers and firms (Borovičková and Shimer 2024; Eeckhout and Kircher 2018).

This paper is a first look at how occupational mobility in Australia impacts productivity. The paper draws on the Participation, Job Search and Mobility module of the Longitudinal Labour Force Survey to produce a more reliable measure of occupational mobility, from 2015 to 2023. But certain limitations of the dataset (and the available time period) mean that only preliminary conclusions can be drawn.

At first glance, there seems to be a concerningly high rate of occupational mobility. The analysis reveals that occupation changes are almost as frequent as job changes, when we also measure workers who change occupation while remaining with the same firm. And these are often 'large' – meaning different at the broadest level of statistical classification for the origin and destination – changes in occupation or industry. We show that the changes are not driven by promotions to manager, moving out of casual employment after completing studies, or moving between jobs with little human capital. The finding of frequent large occupation changes would seem to suggest that there is too much occupational mobility, as large changes can mean that specific knowledge is being left behind; yet many studies have found high rates of occupation mobility overseas.

At the same time, we provide some evidence to suggest that these occupation changes are productive. Workers are often searching for occupations that suit them better. Workers who have more to learn about the right fit – young workers and recent migrants – are particularly likely to change occupations. Highly educated workers are likely to change occupations, but those in high-skill occupations are unlikely to change occupations; the two results together suggest that workers are moving up the jobs ladder to find jobs that suit their skills. Relatedly, our analysis shows that, on the whole, workers are relocating from less productive industries to more productive ones.

If occupational mobility could be beneficial to aggregate productivity, it is worth asking if there is in fact too little occupational mobility! In terms of that question, it seems significant that so much occupational mobility occurs inside firms. While the decline in job mobility has been cause for concern, changing jobs is only one mode of ideas and labour diffusion. Intrafirm occupation changes as a method of diffusion appears to be alive and well. But the fact that so much occupational mobility occurs inside the firm does raise the question of whether there are barriers to finding work in a new firm. While there is evidence of significant barriers to occupational transitions overseas (Cubas and Silos 2020), more work is needed to determine if it's particularly difficult in Australia.

1. Literature

The literature on occupation and industry mobility in Australia is rather thin. For the decade from 2002 to 2012, D'Arcy et al. (2012) used HILDA data to show that around half of workers who changed jobs also changed industry, which in turn made them more likely to change occupation. They showed that the net flow of workers into an industry from other industries was shaped by the wages and conditions in the industry, and by employment growth in the industry. Jobs and Skills Australia (2024) confirmed that occupations and industries experience different rates of labour mobility – both as the origin or destination for transitioning workers.

Hambur (2023) presented data from linked tax records of firms and workers, showing that measured occupational mobility among job switchers was declining over time in Australia.

Hunter and Gray (2017) examined occupational mobility between the 2006 and 2011 Censuses and found that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders were far more likely to move out of employment from the highest-skill occupations than other Australians; this trend deserves further study. More generally Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders were more likely to exit employment, but for those who remain employed, the mobility patterns of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders and other Australians are similar.

Overseas, the literature is much richer, sparked by influential papers by Kambourov and Manovskii (2008, 2009). They identified several important trends in US occupational mobility from 1968 to 1997, using longitudinal data on male workers. They showed that occupational mobility was high and increasing,

despite the fall in job switching over this period. They found that occupational mobility declined in age and education, so mobility would be even higher if it were not for the gradual ageing of the population and increases in average education. They also found that ‘large’ (meaning different at the broadest level of statistical classification for the origin and destination) changes in occupation were more likely than ‘small’ changes, perhaps surprisingly. Their finding of large changes contrasts somewhat with other papers that find that most voluntary occupation changes are to occupations that use a very similar set of skills (Gathmann and Schonberg 2010; Matias Cortes and Gallipoli 2018; Robinson 2018). It is possible that Kambourov and Manovskii’s (2008) findings are driven by the aggregate occupation classifications used by statistical agencies and do not reflect actual differences in skills involved.¹

Kambourov and Manovskii (2009) find that workers who change occupations are giving up a substantial wage premium associated with occupational tenure (although the wage loss is less if they move to an occupation with similar skills). It could be that there is a selection effect at work: the workers who stay are those most likely to be successful, while the workers who leave are searching for an occupation where they can be more successful. Indeed Groes et al. (2015) find that most mobility is from workers who are earning much less than the average or much more than the average. Workers who are earning less than the average are likely to move ‘downward’, to occupations with lower skill requirements and lower average wages, and workers earning more are likely to move ‘upward’.

Several papers have emphasised that changing occupations is risky, and involves significant transition costs (Matias Cortes and Gallipoli 2018). Carrillo-Tudela and Visschers (2023) have estimated the cost of such search and explained why many workers do not search for other occupations in a recession. Cubas and Silos (2020) emphasise that changing occupations involves risky experimentation, and they demonstrate that progressive taxation would increase mobility by reducing the risk. Interestingly, however, none of these papers consider the possibility that workers might explore other occupations within their existing firm; such a move would presumably reduce the uncertainty and the risk.

A significant body of work has explored occupational mobility inside the firm. But this literature has tended to reframe occupation changes in purely vertical terms – promotions and demotions. Forsythe (2019) finds considerable upward and downward mobility inside firms; and interestingly, occupational mobility inside a firm has tended to remain steady even as occupational mobility involving a change of firm has declined; the two types of mobility are of comparable magnitude by about 2010. Groes et al. (2015) examine upward and downward mobility, both inside and outside of the firm. Only Kerr et al. (2020) have a slightly richer framework, categorising jobs as routine manual, non-routine manual, or cognitive. They show that workers upskill inside firms as well as outside the firm: moving from routine manual work to more complex cognitive occupations is slightly more likely among those who change firms. Relatedly, Pastorino (2024) estimates the role of up-skilling compared to learning about workers’ abilities in driving upward intrafirm mobility from lower-ranking roles. Horizontal occupational transitions inside firms (a change of occupation that is neither a promotion nor a demotion) have largely remained unstudied.

¹ For example, nursing and teaching are professions that differ at the broadest classification level, even though some of the skills involved are similar. Further on in this paper, we detail significant movement between education and health.

2. Data

This paper provides new insights on occupation and industry switching by exploring the Participation, Job Search and Mobility (PJSM) module of the Longitudinal Labour Force Survey (LLFS).² It is a useful dataset for examining occupational mobility, because of the large sample size (approximately 42,000 persons per year) and the methodology for measuring occupation and industry changes, which is more reliable than in other datasets.

Respondents provide information about (1) their current occupation and industry, and (2) their occupation and industry 12 months earlier.³ Respondents to the PJSM describe their current and previous occupation in the same survey sitting, and responses to both questions are interpreted and coded by the same interpreter. This methodology eliminates both the risk that a respondent describes the same occupation in a different way, and secondly, the risk different surveyors interpret the same response differently. The PJSM also does not provide respondents with a default response to their occupation, which minimises the risk respondents fail to declare switches between periods. This risk was identified in the context of Australian tax data by Hathorne and Breunig (2022).

In contrast, other analyses of occupational mobility have relied on changes in self-reported occupation or industry from one survey period to the next (or one tax form to the next). This can lead to erroneous results as the listed occupation/industry may change (or fail to change) for reasons other than actual switches taking place. For example, we initially undertook analysis of the core LLFS to examine occupational changes that took place during the 8 months that respondents are part of the sample, before concluding that many of the recorded occupation changes were simply recording errors.

One drawback of the PJSM is that it is currently available in DataLab for a much shorter time-period than the core LLFS (which includes data from 1982 to 2023). We were only able to access 9 years of data, covering approximately 380,000 people from February 2015 to February 2023. However, focusing on this time-period also avoids issues caused by updates to the classification system for occupations and industry over the decades.

Another drawback is that we have only two observations, 12 months apart, for each worker. As a result, we cannot analyse the role that unemployment might play in occupation transitions. We exclude all observations that involve a spell of unemployment or a spell outside of the labour force, either at the time of the survey, or 12 months previously.

Finally, we cannot distinguish workers who have left a job from workers who have lost a job. Those who lose a job form about a quarter of job exits (ABS 2025b), and they are more likely to have a spell of unemployment. Therefore, by considering only those who hold a job at the time of the survey and 12 months' prior, we detect mainly voluntary job changes. And there is limited information with which to identify push and pull factors that may be driving workers from an occupation or attracting them to a new occupation. Detailed analysis of the factors affecting workers' willingness to move and employers'

² All numbers quoted in this paper without a reference have been sourced from the PJSM microdata using either the TableBuilder or DataLab products.

³ By contrast, the core LLFS does not include questions about one's previous job. The LLFS uses the Census of Population and Housing as its sample frame, from which the survey draws a sample. The sample taken can be thought of as comprising eight sub-samples (rotation groups), with each sub-sample remaining in the survey for eight months, and one group 'rotating out' each month and being replaced by a new group 'rotating in'. The replacement sample is generally selected from the same geographic areas as the outgoing one, as part of a representative sampling approach.

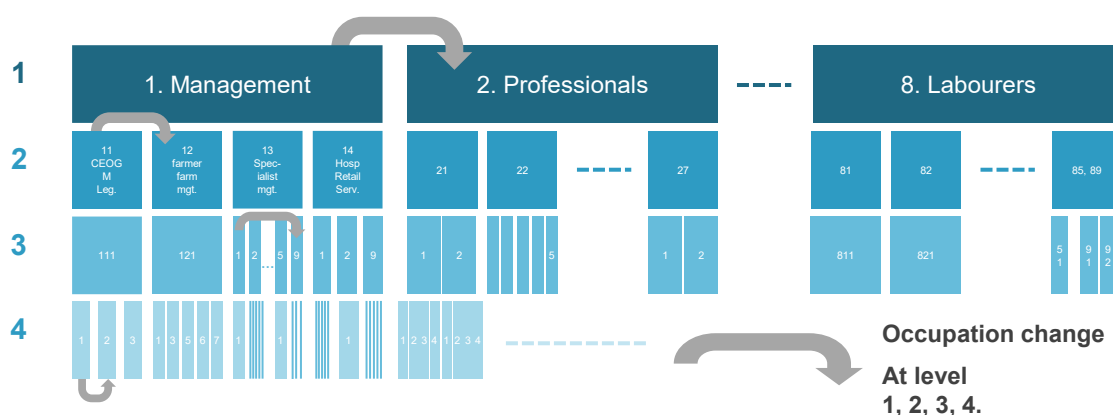
willingness to hire in different fields (as in Otto et al. (2009); Piopiunik et al. (2020) and Stewart et al. (2016) respectively) would be useful future work.

Measuring mobility between occupations and industries

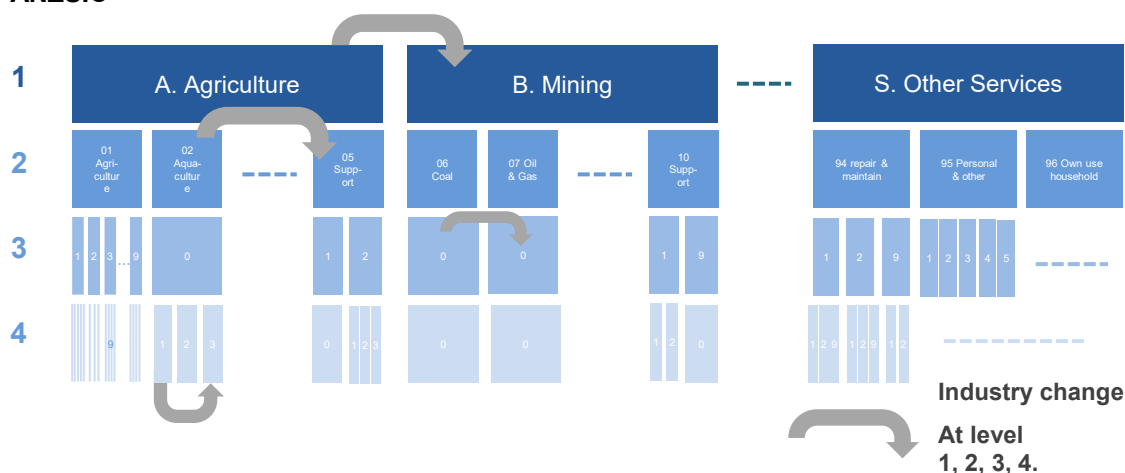
We use the definitions of occupations and industries as they appear in the Australian and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (ANZSCO) and Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC) classifications systems (figure 1). We analyse transitions between occupations and industries at different levels, to assess whether people move between broad categories – ‘major groups’ and ‘divisions’ of occupation or industry (at the 1-digit level of ANZSCO or ANZSIC) – or whether the movements are between similar occupations and industries (that is, roles which share the same 1-digit classification, but differ at the two-digit, three-digit, or four-digit level).

Figure 1 – Movements in occupation or industry can occur at different levels

ANZSCO



ANZSIC



Both classification systems are hierarchical in nature, so a change in a one-digit occupation automatically requires a change to each level of classification below. For example, if a worker transitions from being a sportsperson to a member of parliament, their occupation changes from Sportsperson (4524) to Legislator (1113), thus changing all four layers of the ANZSCO classification (from 4 to 1 at the one-digit, from 45 to 11 at the two-digit classification and so on). We treat industry changes the same way.

3. Is occupational mobility unproductively high?

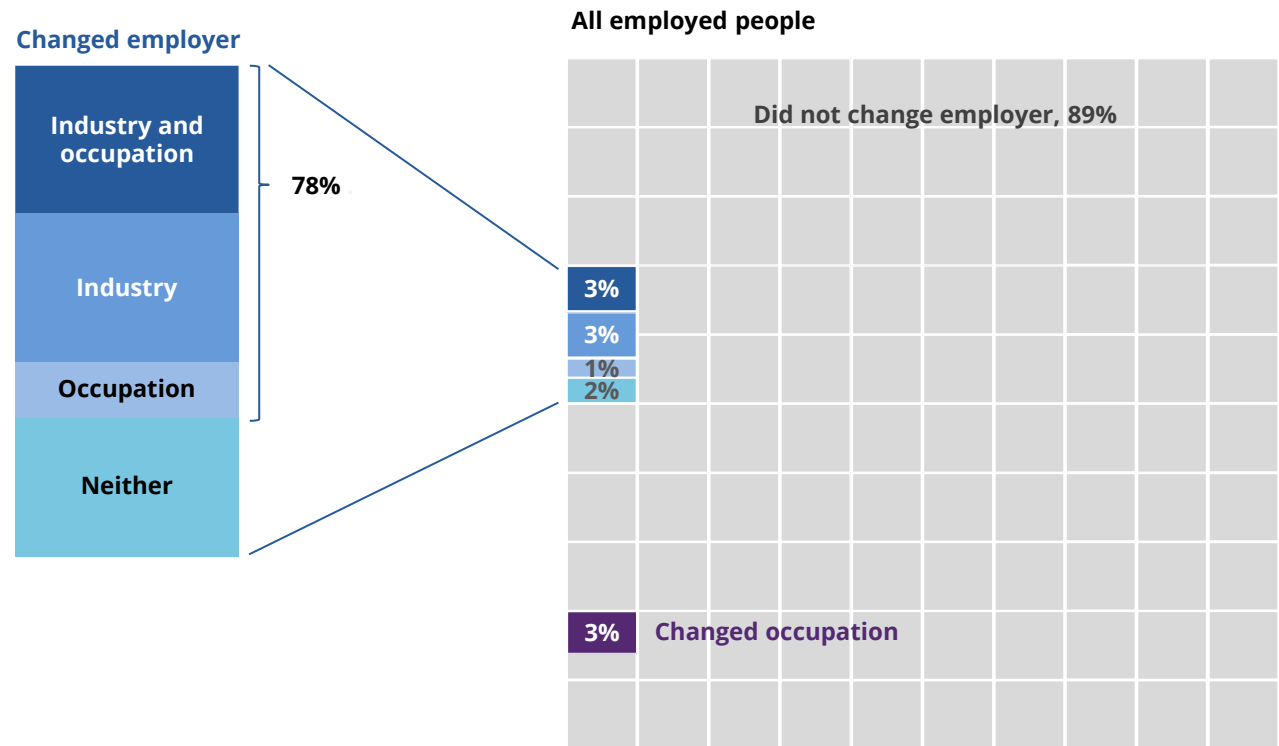
3.1 Occupation and industry changes are frequent

Figure 2 shows the average number of workers who change job, industry and occupation from 2015 to 2023. The PJSM indicates that occupational mobility is higher than some of the prior literature suggests. We find that of those who changed employer in the past 12 months, 47% changed occupation, and 78% changed occupation or industry. A significant number also change occupation while remaining with their employer (discussed further in section 6).

This is in line with earlier results on mobility by D’Arcy et al. (2012), who used HILDA data to show that, in the decade to 2012, around half of workers who changed jobs also changed occupation. In addition, when a worker changed employers and moved to a new industry, they were also more likely to change occupation (D’Arcy et al. 2012).

But it contrasts strongly with the findings of Hambur (2023), who uses tax data to identify occupation changes among those who switch jobs. In 2015 and 2016, he finds that only about a fifth of job changes are changes in occupation (Hambur 2023, fig. 8). Hambur also identifies more job changes than are reported in the PJSM. We find that about 8.4% of workers report that they held a different job a year earlier, whereas he identifies between 14% and 17% of workers as changing jobs each year between 2005 and 2016. On the one hand, tax data may pick up more job changes than the PJSM, because any job that has been held during a year will show up in tax data. On the other hand, it is challenging to distinguish job changes from multiple job holding using only tax data. However, the much lower share of occupation switches remains unexplained. It could be because tax data is prone to inaccuracies in measurement of occupation changes, including under-reporting, as discussed in section 2 (Hathorne and Breunig 2022).

Figure 2 – Many occupation changes are intrafirm



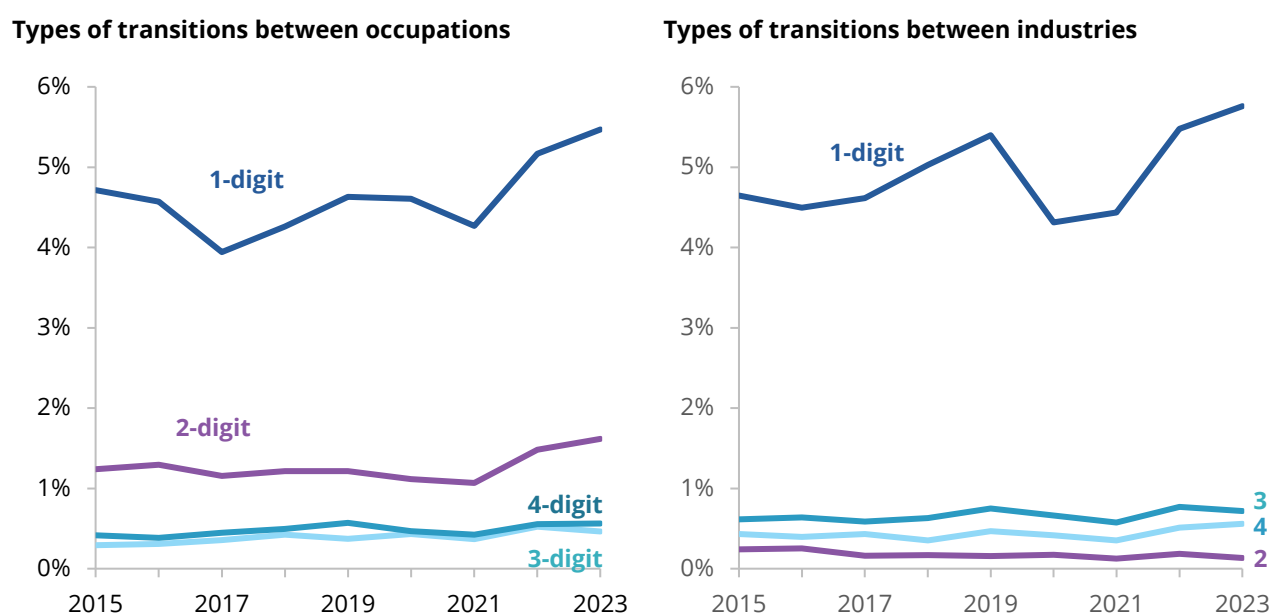
3.2 Occupation and industry changes are large

It seems likely that most people who change occupations would switch to occupations similar to their present one, to minimise the loss of human capital and any retraining costs. And when looking at the most *common* (modal) choice of granular (four-digit) occupation, the destination is similar. For instance, if Registered Nurses (2544) change occupation, their most popular destination is Nurse Manager (2543), only different at the fourth, and more detailed, digit of the classification.

Yet, in contrast to that intuition, most occupation changes are large changes. People who change occupations are much more likely to do so at the one-digit level and the same holds for movements between industries (figure 3). In each year from 2015 to 2023, about 70% of occupation transitions and 80% of industry transitions occurred at the one-digit level. It seems difficult at first glance to reconcile these two facts: that a very similar 4-digit occupation is the most common destination, and that 1-digit changes are much more likely. It implies that those who make a 1-digit change in occupation go to a very wide range of different occupations. A similar intuition holds for industry changes.

Figure 3 – Workers often move to very different industries and occupations

Percentage of employed people who changed occupation (left panel) or industry (right panel) (2015–23), excluding those transitioning in or out of employment



Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015–2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed May 2024.

This suggests that, on the surface at least, labour mobility in Australia is associated with a relatively drastic career change, not adjacent professional moves. To understand this result we need to test what is driving this observation. Descriptive analysis allows us to rule out some hypotheses as the cause of big switches outnumbering small ones.

One hypothesis is that these findings are capturing promotions into management. Some one-digit changes in occupation will reflect a move to or from the ‘Manager’ level (at the one-digit – or broadest – classification of ANZSCO) which likely involves a similar ‘line of work’, albeit a significantly different job description. One might expect moves to manager to be an important explanatory factor in why big

switches appear so common, but empirically this is not the case. Manager is the most popular destination only for workers leaving the ‘Professionals’ and ‘Sales Workers’ groups, but only 38% of Professionals and 25% of Sales Workers leaving their respective groups for another role become Managers. For the ‘Labourers’ group, which has the second highest rate of any group for workers leaving for a new one-digit occupation, Manager is only the fifth most popular destination (9.4% of moves). In all, 77% of the moves to a new occupation group from non-Manager positions are to other non-Manager roles.

Another hypothesis which could explain the ‘large’ industry moves is that a big movement across industries could reflect a person applying the same skills but in a very different context. For example, a bookkeeper moving from in-house bookkeeping at a mining firm to a similar role for a construction firm; likewise IT workers move across industries quite frequently. There is however a strong correlation between big occupation changes and big industry changes: 47% of one-digit occupation changes are accompanied by a one-digit change in industry, and 43% of one-digit industry changes are accompanied by a 1-digit change in occupation (table 1). A substantial number of changes in 2 dimensions rules out the idea that the driver of these results is somehow driven by similar jobs in different industries.

Table 1 – When workers move, they make big shifts

Percentage of employed people who changed occupation and/or industry (2015–23), excluding those transitioning in or out of employment

	Change in industry classification				
	1-digit	2-digit	3-digit	4-digit	No change
Change 1-digit occupation	22%	1%	2%	1%	22%
Change 2-digit occupation	5%	0%	1%	0%	7%
Change 3-digit occupation	1%	0%	0%	0%	2%
Change 4-digit occupation	1%	0%	0%	0%	4%
No change in occupation	22%	1%	4%	3%	-

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed May 2024.

We also ask whether the workers making large changes are fundamentally different to the workers making smaller changes in their occupation or industry. Using a logistic regression of workers who switch occupations (section 4), we compare the factors that predict whether a worker is likely to make a large occupation change (appendix A.3) with occupation changes more generally (appendix A.2). We undertake the same comparison for changes of industry (appendix A.4 for industry changes, appendix A.5 for industry changes at the 2, 3, or 4-digit level). Interestingly, we do not find any notable differences in explanatory factors, suggesting that the population making small changes and the population making large changes are quite similar.

4. Many features of occupational and industry mobility look productive

In this section, we dive into the characteristics of occupational mobility in more detail: the characteristics of the occupations and industries that are more or less mobile, and the characteristics of workers who are more or less mobile. Interestingly, the deeper dive seems to suggest that occupational mobility is actually a productive process that is helping to boost aggregate productivity.

We undertake several logistic regressions for this purpose. The main regression is:

$$\log\left(\frac{P(\text{Occupation change}_{i,t})}{1 - P(\text{Occupation change}_{i,t})}\right) = \alpha + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 \text{Old Occupation}_i + \beta_3 \text{Old Industry}_i + \beta_4 \text{Region}_i + \beta_5 \text{Year}_t + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

The log-odds of changing occupation is regressed on a number of demographic variables, such as age, highest qualification and years since arrival in Australia. We also include time dummies, geographic dummies, dummies for the broad industry and occupation that the worker started from, and a dummy for whether the worker is in casual employment. The full results are in appendix A, table A.2. In separate regressions (tables A.4 and A.1), we estimate the log-odds of changing industry, and of changing jobs, for completeness.

We discuss the logistic regression results in more detail in subsections 4.1, 4.2 and 4.4. But many of the explanatory variables have the expected coefficients – for example, young people and migrants are more likely to change occupation.

Geographic location was a statistically significant influence, with labour mobility in each state and territory being less than that of the ACT. However, mobility was not necessarily higher or lower in more populous jurisdictions. For example, people in South Australia and New South Wales were least likely to change employer, occupation, and industry respectively. This suggests that the jurisdiction-specific factors, other than the size of the labour market, are likely to be influential. Surprisingly, there was no statistically significant difference between urban and regional locations (after including state and territory dummies), despite the lower diversity of regional job markets.

The logistic regressions also include a year dummy. The regression results (tables A.1, A.2 and A.4) confirm that the Year_t variable was only positive and significant for 2022 and 2023. The uptick in those years is likely due to the extreme labour market tightness following the COVID-19 pandemic. Low unemployment led employers to be more flexible in their requirements and led workers to look for other options after remaining in place during the pandemic – a minor version of the ‘Great Resignation’ that took place elsewhere. It suggests that people chose to explore other options when the labour market allowed it.

As we discuss below, the picture that emerges from the logistic regressions and from descriptive statistics points to several broad explanations for occupation and industry changes:

1. Many occupation/industry changes are in response to changes in circumstances: changing from full-time to part-time or vice-versa, migrating, or finishing a degree all lead to much higher mobility.
2. But changes in circumstances do not explain all of the evidence. The remainder of the evidence suggests that a substantial number of workers are searching for a better fit in terms of firm, industry, and occupation. Some of these changes involve movements up the ‘jobs ladder’ (Lampe et al. 2022).

3. Workers appear to make these decisions rationally, in the sense that more attractive industries attract more workers, and workers are less likely to leave occupations with highly specialised skills or when the outside options are unattractive.

Although more detailed research is needed, these explanations seem to suggest that occupational mobility is, on the whole, a productive process that improves the matching of workers to occupations and industries.

4.1 Some occupation changes are responses to changes in circumstances

Completing a degree is often associated with an occupation/industry change

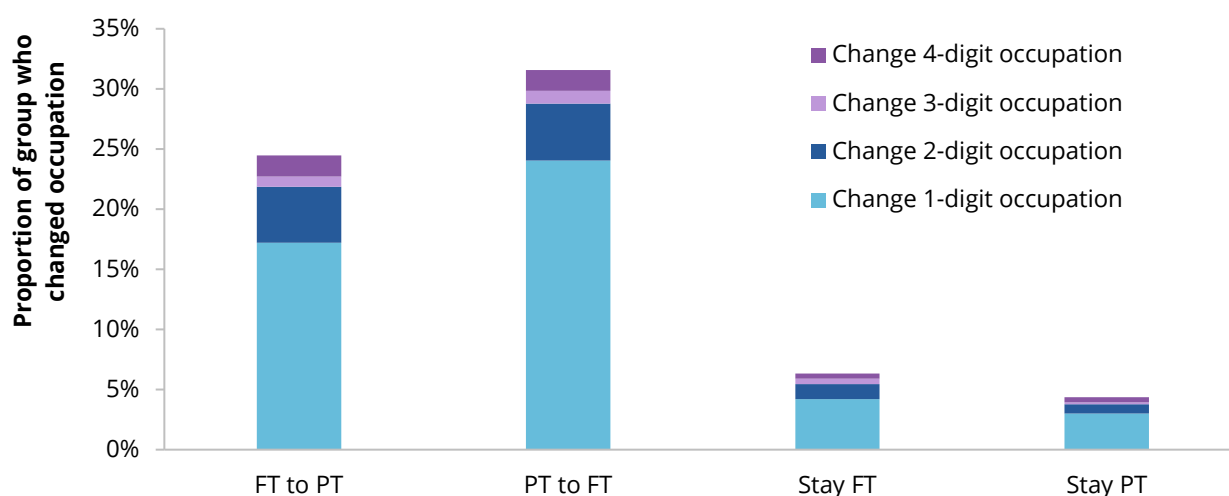
Cross-tabulations show that qualifications are more strongly associated with mobility for those who completed their studies more recently. Those who completed their highest qualification within the past year were more likely to change occupation (12%) or industry (14%), compared to those who had completed studies more than one year ago (7% and 6% respectively) or those with no education (7% and 5% respectively). This accords with the use of formal qualifications as a means of changing occupation or industry, and for that use to be strongest while the qualification is most up to date.

Movements from part-time to full-time and vice versa lead to occupation change

Descriptive statistics show that people who changed their working hours were more likely to also change occupation or industry (table 2). Of those moving from full-time to part-time hours, 24% changed occupation. Of those changing from part-time to full-time hours, 32% changed occupation. This compares to less than 10% of people who changed occupations while maintaining similar working hours (figure 4). This association is unsurprising, but it is unclear whether the decision to change hours precedes the decision to change occupation or vice-versa.

Figure 4 – Workers who change working hours are more likely to change occupation

Proportion of workforce changing occupation



Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed May 2024.

Table 2 – Change in occupation by full-time, part-time status**Percentage of working hours group by occupational change in the past 12 months**

	Full-time to part-time	Remain full-time	Part-time to full-time	Remain part-time
No change in occupation	76%	94%	68%	96%
Changed occupation	24%	6%	32%	4%

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed May 2024.

That said, the prevalence of large occupational changes cannot be explained simply by workers changing their hours. Those changing from full-time to part-time (or vice versa) were only slightly more likely to make a big change in occupation than those who remained full-time or part-time (table 3). One-digit (large) changes were still more likely for all groups.

Table 3 – Change in occupation and hours, by different ANZSCO levels and full-time, part-time status**Percentage of working hours group by occupational change in the past 12 months**

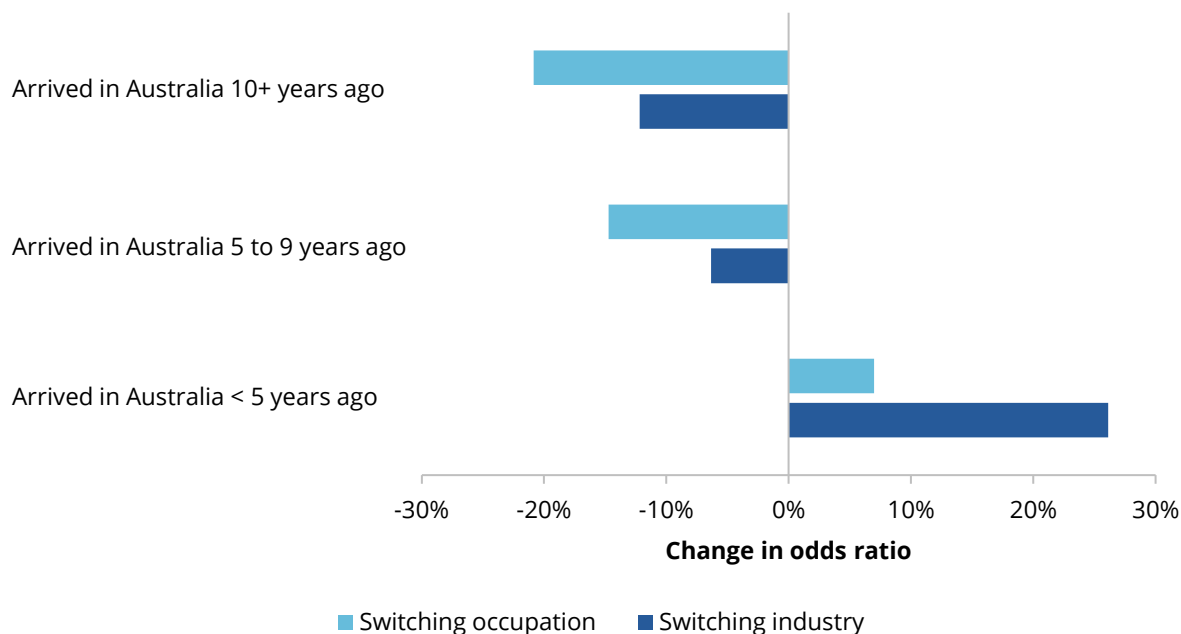
	Full-time to part-time	Remain full-time	Part-time to full-time	Remain part-time
Change 1-digit occupation	70%	66%	76%	66%
Change 2-digit occupation	19%	20%	15%	18%
Change 3-digit occupation	3%	7%	3%	4%
Change 4-digit occupation	7%	7%	5%	10%
Changed occupation	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed May 2024.

Immigrants are more mobile

People were more likely to change jobs, occupations, and industries within the first 5 years of their arrival in Australia. The likelihood of changing industries was over 30% greater for the most recent migrants than for non-migrants (figure 5, based on table A.4). By contrast, those who had arrived in Australia 10 or more years ago were marginally less likely to change jobs, occupations or industries. (The likelihood of changing occupations for recent migrants was not significantly different from those born in Australia; but it is significantly higher than for migrants arrived 10 or more years ago.)

This would suggest that mobility is often a search for a good occupation and industry fit. Immigrants may be more likely to accept an initial job that is a poor fit in order to begin earning, and then search for a better fit. Some immigrants may initially be restricted to certain regions and occupations because of their visa class (Home Affairs 2025), and once the conditions have expired, can cast a wider search for a better fit.

Figure 5 – Migrant status and labour mobility**Migrant status and odds of changing occupation or industry, relative to born in Australia**

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed May 2024.

4.2 Some occupational mobility is likely about searching for better fit

While some of the data reflects occupation and industry changes that are due to changes in circumstances, this does not seem likely to explain all occupational mobility. Some mobility seems likely due to workers learning about their fit with an industry, occupation and firm.

Young people are more mobile

Our analysis finds that younger cohorts are consistently more mobile between occupations and industries (figure 6). Young people have less experience with different firms and occupations, and could be searching for a better fit. Young people may also be moving up the jobs ladder, beginning with less desirable work and seeking out better opportunities.

Our logistic regressions (A.1, A.2, and A.4) also found that casual workers – identified as not having paid leave entitlements – were more likely to change employer, occupation and industry respectively. The quantum of this effect is relatively large compared to most other variables in each of the regressions. Young people currently studying form a large share of casual workers.

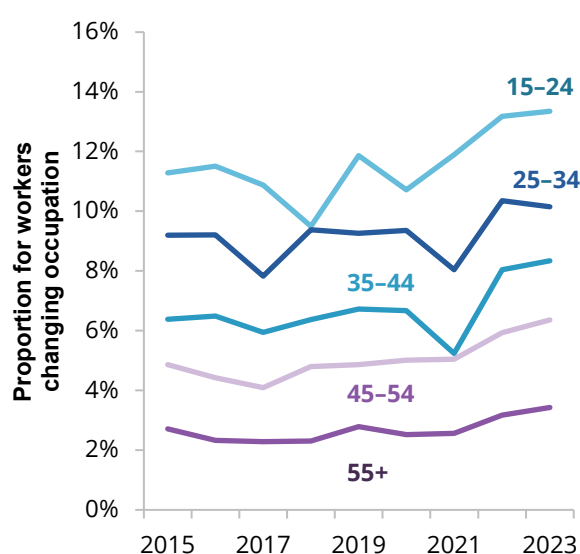
Could occupational mobility be mostly explained by young people getting their first ‘real job’?

Young people might work in a low-paying sector during their studies and then try to find a job in their chosen field after finishing their studies. To test this, we ran our industry and occupation switching models excluding people younger than 25 years old that had completed a qualification in the last two years and were employed in occupations likely to be transitory (such as hospitality staff) (tables A.8 and A.9 respectively). The results are very similar. We find that the only significant change is that people aged 20–29

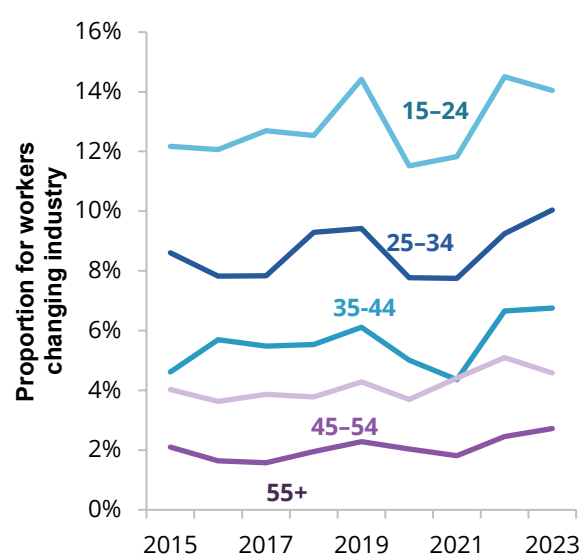
are now less likely to switch than those aged 15–19, compared with more likely to switch in our original models. We also ran the logistic regressions for industry and occupation excluding all individuals in occupations likely to be transitory, as individuals who have been retrenched or looking for a career change could be in a temporary job (tables A.6 and A.7 respectively). We find similar results to when we only excluded young, recent graduates in those occupations.

Figure 6 – Age and labour mobility

Mobility between occupations by age group



Mobility between industries by age group



Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed May 2024.

Workers are moving up the jobs ladder

One might expect that large changes in occupation would be mainly undertaken by workers with relatively less human capital: they could be moving between jobs that require little specific human capital.

Yet, after accounting for demographics and other factors, we find that higher levels of education tend to be associated with more mobility between occupations and industries. This is a surprising result that contrasts with the findings of Kambourov and Manovskii (2008) for the United States.

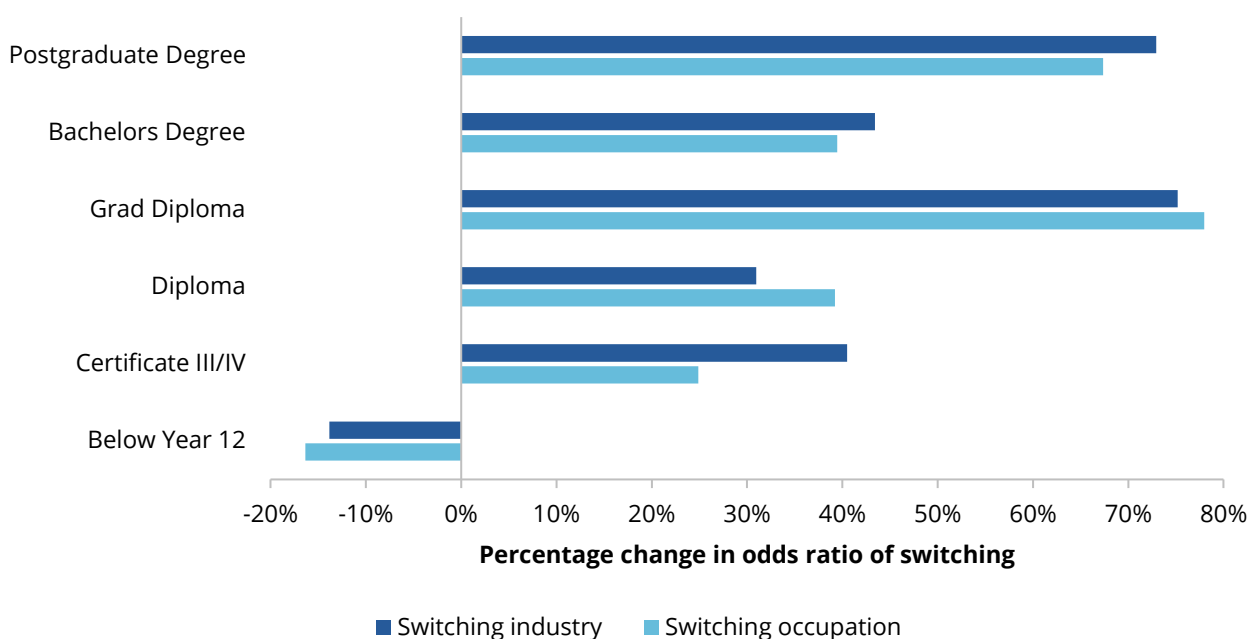
The logistic regressions (A.2 and A.4) show that higher education is strongly associated with a higher likelihood of changing occupation and industry. As outlined in figure 7, those with university degrees and post-graduate degrees are 35% to 80% more likely than those with only a year 12 education to change occupation. It is true that the results in all the regressions are not perfectly monotonic: those with a Certificate III/IV are more likely to change industry than those with an Advanced Diploma. This could reflect that we have not sufficiently controlled for differences by field of study.

We also ran the logistic regressions excluding the occupation and industry dummies, in case the occupation and industry dummies were capturing some of the role of education (A.10 and A.11). If workers with more education are more likely to be in skilled occupations, and if those occupations have lower mobility, then it could still be the case that more educated workers are less mobile. But the regressions without industry and occupation dummies confirm that more highly educated workers are more likely to change occupation and industry.

That said, we have not controlled for selection into education in our logistic regression. So, it is possible that this result is driven by the characteristics of the people who pursue more education, rather than the treatment effect of obtaining more education. However, the results still stand as a contrast to results from the United States.

Figure 7 – Mobility by qualification

Mobility between occupation and industry, relative to those who finished year 12



Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2026.

Higher mobility for the more educated is a surprising result. The result may be driven by workers moving up the ‘jobs ladder’ and searching until they find a job that fully uses their skills. If graduates initially struggle to find a job that matches their qualifications, we would expect to see them change occupation (perhaps even more than once) over the next decade. In section 4.3, we will see that workers are less likely to leave higher-skilled occupations than lower-skilled; perhaps higher educated workers exhibit less mobility once they have moved further up the ladder.

There is evidence that some highly educated Australian workers are under-utilised for extensive periods of time (Mavromaras and McGuinness 2012). And the Productivity Commission’s research on young people in the job market after the global financial crisis demonstrated that young people are climbing the jobs ladder more slowly than earlier generations, and undertaking more transitions in the process (Lampe et al. 2022).

4.3 Ease of movement in/out of an occupation explains some of the mobility patterns

We dive into the detail of occupation and industry changes: they seem to follow a relatively commonsense pattern.

Data shows that workers in some industries are less likely to move to other industries. The industries with the least mobility are: Agriculture, Fishing and Forestry; Health Care and Social Assistance; Education and Training; and Financial and Insurance Services. The tendency to remain in these industries could be due to the degree of specific human capital involved. Several other factors are likely to be important in explaining the patterns in mobility – for instance, barriers to geographic mobility may be relevant to agriculture.

Many observed transitions between industries were from Accommodation and Food Services; Administrative and Support Services; Retail Trade; Arts and Recreation Services. D'Arcy et al. (2012) showed that these industries tend to attract many workers from outside of the labour force; presumably many of these workers are young workers seeking their first job. And not all of these new workers remain in the industry. Many people seek temporary employment in these industries as opposed to a career, given many jobs in these industries would not require significant investments in specific human capital (although, some higher-skilled roles would). This may help to explain workers' willingness to move from these industries.

There are also examples of two-way patterns of movement between industries. Education and Training is the most popular landing destination for workers from Healthcare and Social Assistance, and vice-versa, in most years of the sample. Such patterns are suggestive of some form of commonality between the industries, although further research would be needed to determine whether this is due to transferrable forms of human capital, common job characteristics, or to other factors.

People in higher-skilled occupations (those which tend to require higher levels of formal education) appear more likely to stay in their occupations. For instance, Managers, Professionals and Technicians and Trade Workers were the least likely to move to other occupations, whereas Sales Workers and Labourers were the most likely to change occupations. It appears that people working in occupations requiring smaller investments into specific human capital more often change occupations.

The ease with which people can move to other industries or occupations also has implications for how likely they are to move out of employment. Differences in re-employability can be stark between industries. In 2015, 74% of people who separated from employment in the Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services industry were re-employed, compared to only 22% of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing workers. Labourers have the highest rates of flows out of employment: between 9–11% each year, the highest of any occupation in every observed year. Relatedly, labourers were the most mobile occupation in every year observed, with only 83–86% of labourers remaining labourers in the following year.

To better understand the mobility trends for more specific occupations within broad occupation groups, we investigated mobility at the 4-digit level of ANZSCO and ANZSIC. Of all workers in a given occupation 12 months ago, we noted how many different occupations they had transitioned into. In some cases, an occupation led to more than 150 different new occupations in the following year, while in other cases, fewer than 25.

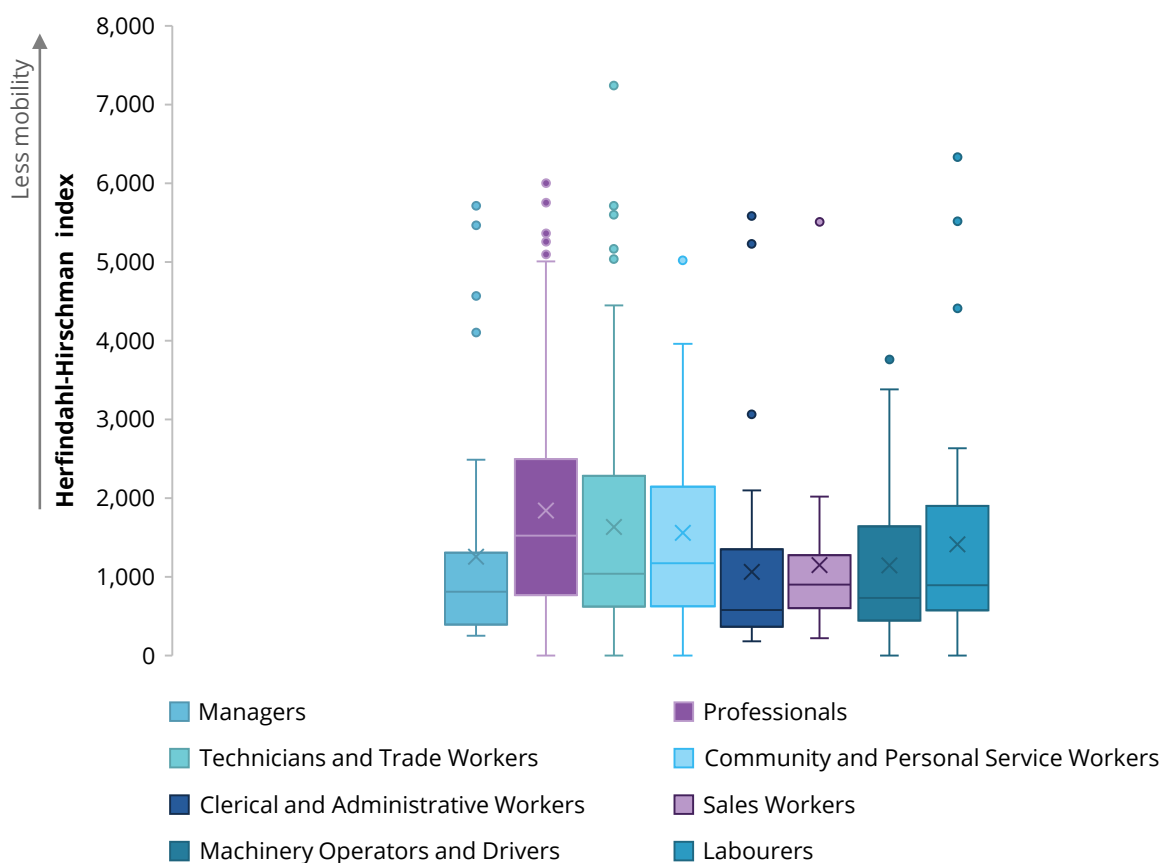
- Occupations that led to the most diverse career pathways included: Sales Assistants (General); General Clerks; Contract, Program and Project Administrators; Bar Attendants and Baristas; Office Managers; Storepersons; or Waiters.

- Occupations with relatively few observed pathways to other occupations included different types of Technicians and Trade Workers, as well as Labourers. Even more specialised occupations such as Anaesthetists, Psychiatrists, Electronics Engineers, Surgeons and Barristers have 2 or fewer destinations for occupational change.

In practice, some career movements are likely to be much more common than others. As such, we calculated how concentrated workers' movements were among the observed career movements for that group (for each 4-digit occupation or industry) rated on a scale from 0 to 10,000. The lower the score, the more even the distribution of workers departing that occupation is across the labour market; a higher score suggests that movements are concentrated into relatively few destinations. The score is calculated for each individual 4-digit occupation, and the below box-plot shows the distribution of the scores for each of the 1-digit occupation groups. It shows that most occupations in the categories of Managers, Clerical and Administrative Workers, or Sales Workers, have relatively broad set of career paths compared to Professionals, Technicians and Trade Workers (figure 8).

Figure 8 – Mobility patterns by occupation

Distribution of Herfindahl-Hirschman index scores by occupation group



Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed May 2024.

Within each 1-digit group, there is a range of isolated and connected occupations. For example, within the Machinery Operator and Driver group, the most connected occupation is 'Truck Driver', with a score of 292, whilst the most isolated is Clay, Concrete, Glass and Stone Processing Machine Operators, with

a score of 3,761. Equally within the Professionals group, whilst the majority of occupations are more isolated, Management and Organisation Analysts score 336 and rank among the most connected individual occupations, whilst the Nutrition Professional (score of 6,001) is one of the most isolated roles in the labour market.

These results can potentially be explained by the distinction between generic and specific human capital: workers who build up considerable occupation-specific human capital by working in technical roles are more likely to flow into well-trodden, concentrated paths to a new occupation. On the other hand, workers in roles which build generic human capital roam more freely through the labour market. It can generally be seen that higher skill level occupations are concentrated (indicating more specific human capital) with the notable exception of management which is fairly well connected to the rest of the labour market.

Individual occupations also display similar patterns: 38% of departures from Advertising and Marketing Professionals land as Advertising, Public Relations and Sales Managers – a recognition of the specific human capital accumulated in the former. On the other hand, generalist skills developed in roles including Receptionists, Office Managers and Waiters have dispersed flows, with no singular destination accommodating more than 15% of departures.

4.4 Mobility occurs from lower-earning industries to more productive industries

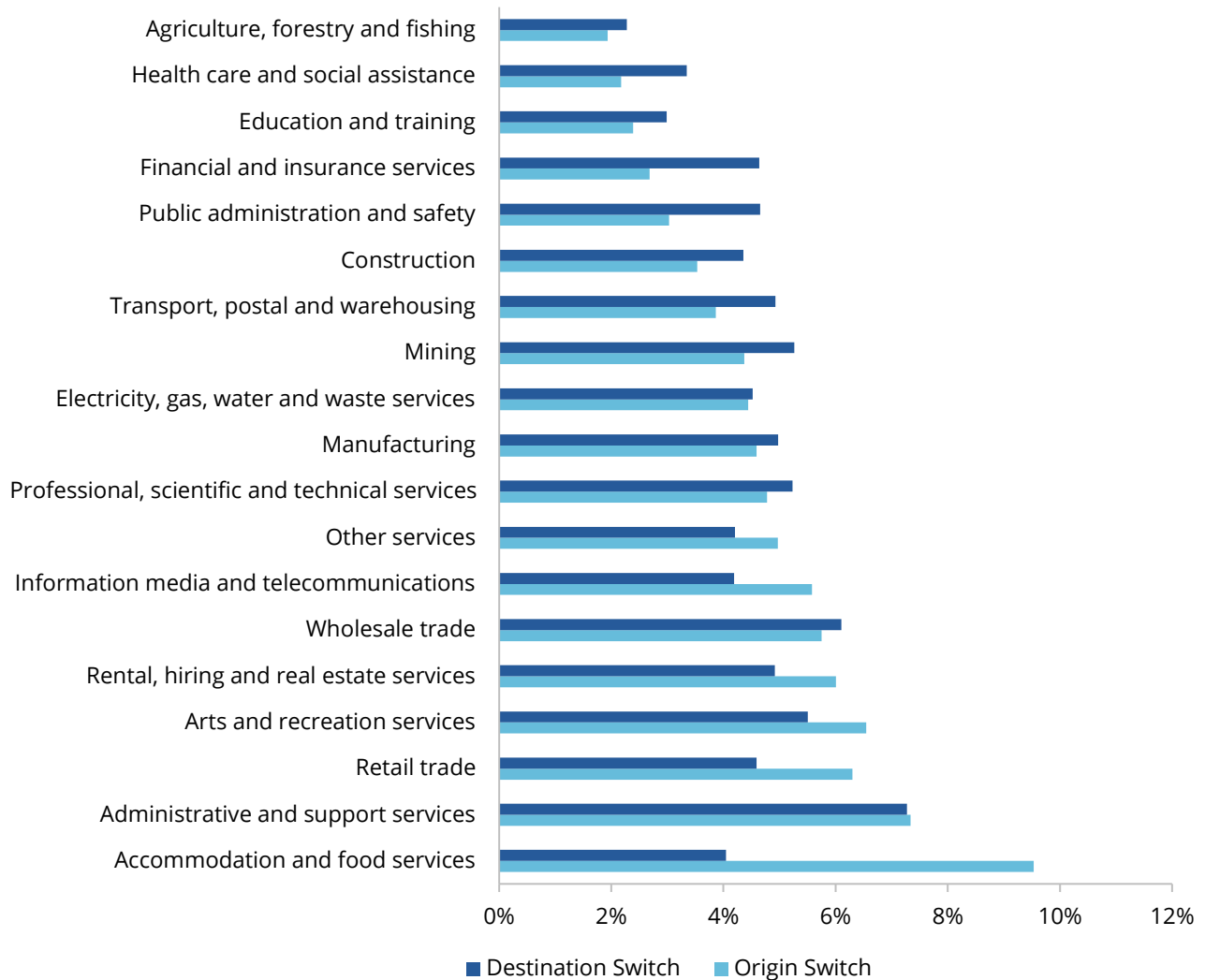
We are able to estimate how the probability of leaving an industry and the probability of arriving in an industry compare across the labour market. Figure 9 reports on the share of workers in an industry who leave that industry in a year, as well as the share of workers in an industry who arrive from another industry.

It's striking that workers are less likely to move to, and more likely to leave, industries with relatively lower average wages. These low-wage sectors include Accommodation and Food Services, Arts and Recreational Services, and Retail Trade. The regression coefficients on 'Previous industry' in regression A.4 confirm that workers are more likely to exit these industries. Conversely, there are significantly higher transitions towards sectors that have high wages and good conditions, such as Mining, Professional, Scientific and Technical Services, Financial and Insurance Services, and Public Administration and Safety. These higher-wage industries are likely more productive, as higher productivity tends to translate to higher wages (Criscuolo et al. 2020). The possible exception is the industry entitled 'Public Administration and Safety', as the wages of public servants are not typically linked to measured productivity.

If workers are searching for a better 'fit', in terms of occupation, industry or firm, to suit their present circumstances, then it is rational for them to focus the search on more attractive industries and more attractive occupations. In essence, workers are moving up the 'jobs ladder'.

The movement of workers from less productive to more productive industries is likely to be productivity enhancing. More productive industries attract more experienced and likely higher-skilled workers. The economics literature has identified potential gains from assortative matching between firms and workers: there are large aggregate gains when the most productive firms attract the most productive workers (Borovičková and Shimer 2024; Eeckhout and Kircher 2018). By implication, if firms in the most productive industries are more attractive to workers, there are potential benefits.

Figure 9 – Rates of transition between industries differ by industry
Origin and destination switch rates by industry



For example, (excluding workers who were not employed in the reference year or the year before) 9.53% of workers who were in the Accommodation and Food Services industry in the previous year have moved to another industry by the following year. And of the workers who are in Accommodation and Food Services in a given year, 4.05% of them were working in another industry in the previous year.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023, ABS TableBuilder, accessed May 2024.

5. Is it possible that there is too little occupational mobility?

While more research is needed on the question of whether occupation and industry mobility is productive, this paper has provided suggestive evidence that it may be playing a productive role, along with the more traditional job mobility. And occupational mobility will play an important role for any workers whose occupation is shrinking, for example because of artificial intelligence. As such, the declines in occupational mobility identified in other research (Hambur 2023) are cause for concern, much as declines in job mobility and any barriers to occupation and industry mobility are a concern.

Changing industry or occupation is a risky process, for a worker and for an employer. Given that the occupation or the industry setting is changing significantly, there is more risk that the worker will dislike the work or setting or show little aptitude for the work. If the occupation change also involves a change of firm, there is the additional risk that the worker and the firm will not be a good match. Then there may be one-time costs involved in making a big change. The cost (in terms of risk and transactions cost) of occupation changes has been measured overseas (Carrillo-Tudela and Visschers 2023; Cubas and Silos 2020) but not for Australia.

Given the risks and the potential productivity benefits, it is worth asking whether it is easier or harder to change occupation in Australia than in similar economies overseas.

It is at least conceivable that barriers are higher in Australia, with employers less open to hiring workers from other occupations or industries. The regulatory burden is high in Australia compared to other OECD countries (PC 2025), so it can be costly to train a worker on their regulatory requirements or to obtain the appropriate credentials for the worker. A well-developed vocational education system and a growing number of applied degrees in universities, combined with a weak labour market after the GFC, might have encouraged many employers to require very specific skills and experience. And industries may have weak incentives to risk hiring workers from other backgrounds, even if they have the required skills. From a political economy sense, if a labour shortage could lead to more ability to import workers, industries may have an incentive to experience a shortage. It is striking, for example, that almost no employers who report facing labour shortages respond by raising wages, although this is the quickest way to resolve a shortage (JSA 2024, fig. 29).

If changing occupation is harder in Australia, there could be negative consequences for productivity and growth. We present a few results that suggest that occupation changes may be more difficult in Australia; but we leave a full estimation of the cost of occupation changes for future work.

5.1 High intrafirm mobility may suggest frictions

Surprisingly, many occupation changes occur inside one's current firm. As indicated in figure 2, while 4% of workers changed occupation and changed employer (3% changing occupation and industry, and 1% changing occupation only), almost as many changed occupation inside their existing firm. Across 2015–2023, between 36%–42% of annual occupational changes at the 1-digit level did not involve a change of employer.

This pattern of high intrafirm mobility has been noted overseas by Forsythe (2019). But Forsythe attributes all of the occupation changes inside the firm to promotions or demotions – essentially a vertical movement rather than a horizontal movement. Her approach is a bit perplexing as, anecdotally, demotions are relatively uncommon. Fortunately, the PJSM includes an additional variable that can shed light on this question: respondents are asked whether they were promoted since the last survey. We find that about 39% of respondents indicate that their occupation change is not a promotion. Moreover, about 65% of 1-digit occupation changes are not into managerial occupations. Thus, the

share of 1-digit occupation changes that are horizontal changes in occupation inside a firm is anywhere between 14% (39% of the lower-end estimate of 36% intrafirm changes) and 27% (65% of the higher-end 42% intrafirm changes). Moreover, the regression in appendix A.12 confirms that the drivers of mobility look similar for intrafirm occupation changes as for occupation changes in general, and the regression in appendix A.13 confirms the same for occupation changes at the 2, 3 or 4-digit level. Thus, it seems possible that a non-trivial share of real career changes occur inside the firm.

It is encouraging that this form of mobility remains relatively robust, even as occupational mobility between firms has declined (Hambur 2023). In the United States, Forsythe (2019) has documented a steady decline in occupational mobility between firms from 1995 to 2015, along with a much more steady rate of occupational mobility inside the firm. By the time of the Global Financial Crisis the two rates were nearly equal. If internal occupation changes are also productive (perhaps because of learning spillovers), then it is beneficial that this valve for occupation changes has remained open.⁴

What level of occupational mobility should we expect to see inside the firm?

It does seem surprising that up to a third of large occupation changes occur internally. On the one hand, an occupational change inside one's firm might be less costly. There are good reasons for remaining with a firm that has proven to be a reasonable fit; and this explains why 89% of workers remain with their current employers from one year to the next. In moving to a new firm, there is the risk that the fit may prove to be worse. There are a number of other benefits to not changing employers, including retaining one's Long Service Leave and avoiding a period of probation. Moreover, these occupation changes may not be entirely driven by workers; in a small firm, an occupation change could mean that a worker is responding to the changing needs of the firm. On the other hand, a worker who is exploring other occupations could find her options severely restricted if she considers only occupations that are currently needed inside her existing firm. It seems unlikely that the new occupation that is the best fit exists inside their current firm. Small businesses (defined as employing fewer than 19 persons) employ 42% of all workers (PC estimates based on ABS 2025a, tbl. 5); the occupation options within such firms would be particularly restrictive.

6. Conclusion

Occupational mobility has been difficult to measure from existing sources, such as self-reports in tax data and self-reports in multiple waves of a survey. The potential for mismeasurement of occupational change is high. The PJSM presents a useful and more reliable source of data on occupational changes, in that it asks respondents about their current and previous occupations.

We find that a significant share of job changes involve a change of occupation or industry. Those changing occupation often make a large change, and the same pattern holds true for industry changes. Those whose circumstances are changing are most likely to change occupation or industry: those moving from part-time to full-time work or vice-versa, those finishing studies, the young and recent migrants. More broadly, the pattern of occupation and industry change suggests that workers are searching for a better 'fit' to their skills, tastes, and circumstances.

⁴ It is also conceivable that we observe high occupational mobility within the firm because workers are looking for a change but finding it hard to change firms, even within their occupation or industry; Hambur (2023) notes that some industries are increasingly concentrated, leaving workers with fewer options.

The search for a better fit follows some sensible patterns. Workers are more likely to move to occupations that use their current human capital, and less likely to move once they land a skilled occupation. Workers tend to move from lower wage to higher wage industries and occupations.

If the process of search for a good occupation and industry fit is sensible and productive, then it is worth asking whether there is enough occupation and industry mobility. On the surface, the level of mobility seems extraordinarily high: almost half of all job changes are occupation changes, and more than half are industry changes. Many of these are drastic career shifts, not adjacent professional moves. Yet it is striking that almost half of all occupation changes take place inside the firm (even if we exclude promotions to manager). The fact that workers remain in their firm while making large changes to their occupation could indicate that there are barriers to finding a role with a new firm in a new occupation. Further work is needed to ascertain whether such barriers are larger in Australia than in other countries.

Appendix A

Methodology: Regression analysis using PJSM data

The first part of our analysis involves cross-tabulation and graphical representation of the data. In some cases this involves computing simple indices – for instance, in demonstrating how career pathways are used in practice, we calculate the concentration of movements among different pathways from a given origin, based on the Herfindahl–Hirschman index (HHI).

Logistic regressions help to further explore what influences transitions between employers, occupations, and industries – the latter two forms of mobility being our primary focus. The full specifications and results of these regressions are included below. Our analysis includes separate logit models on the probability of:

- changing employer as opposed to remaining with the same employer (model 1)
- changing occupation as opposed to remaining in the same occupation (model 2)
- changing industry as opposed to remaining in the same industry (model 3).

Logit models were also run on the probability of:

- changing occupation at the 2-digit, 3-digit, or 4-digit ANZSCO code (model 4)
- changing industry at the 2-digit, 3-digit, or 4-digit ANZSIC code (model 5).

Each regression tests the influence of a common range of factors such as:

- highest qualification (accounting for years since qualification)
- personal characteristics: age, location
- time: year (to account for changes over time)
- job characteristics: current and previous occupation and industry, casual status.

Table A.1 – Model 1: changing employer

Intercept	-3.658150682***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	-0.053215455
2018	0.028663678
2019	0.076927464**
2020	0.037365042
2021	-0.029670637
2022	0.283061467***
2023	0.266906954***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	0.276965094***
age30_39	-0.135797442***
age40_49	-0.401171624***
age50_59	-0.729956569***
age60_64	-1.175306299***
age65+	-2.016367875***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.352901704***
5 to 9 years	-0.002933995
10 + years	-0.115389074***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.508555059***
Grad Diploma	0.486734240***
Below Year 12	-0.068033353**
Bachelors Degree	0.331343277***
Diploma	0.277430937***
Certificate III/IV	0.369737756***
No educational attainment	0.087503112
Level not determined	0.156984973***
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.401697164***
NT	-0.259845283***
QLD	-0.308244011***
SA	-0.436677797***

TAS	-0.277395499***
VIC	-0.302459714***
WA	-0.272608672***
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	-0.007586826
<i>Previous occupation (base group Manager)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	0.077829274**
Community and Personal Service Workers	0.008109309
Labourers	-0.076805074*
Machinery Operators and Drivers	0.153366154***
Professionals	0.046587801
Sales Workers	-0.102859040**
Technicians and Trades Workers	0.000398915
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	1.003095379***
Administrative and Support Services	0.988146642***
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0.532855665***
Arts and Recreational Services	0.491011354***
Construction	0.801154976***
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.492602993***
Financial and Insurance Services	0.485705432***
Health Care and Social Assistance	0.287018674***
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.633997220***
Manufacturing	0.602859441***
Mining	0.801074689***
Other Services	0.656270824***

Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	0.687083941***
Public Administration and Safety	0.114427411**
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	0.953959694***
Retail Trade	0.616916571***
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	0.673266048***
Wholesale Trade	0.681719569***

<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	0.916081324***
Without leave entitlements	1.577122444***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 189,241.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Table A.2 – Model 2: changing occupation

Intercept	-3.667006648***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	-0.100755707**
2018	0.001445159
2019	0.063574981*
2020	0.030530245
2021	-0.033722758
2022	0.243106760***
2023	0.287123315***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	0.274565153***
age30_39	-0.086904910*
age40_49	-0.321107936***
age50_59	-0.598636223***
age60_64	-0.990661760***
age65+	-1.651991135***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.067471014
5 to 9 years	-0.159208437***
10 + years	-0.233940104***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.515057226***
Grad Diploma	0.576391511***
Below Year 12	-0.178425441***
Bachelors Degree	0.332611860***
Diploma	0.330812182***
Certificate III/IV	0.222310526***
No educational attainment	0.197970598
Level not determined	0.032118758
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.387299396***
NT	-0.136339219**
QLD	-0.304845479***
SA	-0.311799267***

TAS	-0.203439167***
VIC	-0.265696622***
WA	-0.211312941***
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.050737612**
<i>Previous occupation (base group Manager)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	0.217931430***
Community and Personal Service Workers	-0.267993882***
Labourers	0.062880762
Machinery Operators and Drivers	-0.123817935**
Professionals	-0.532156592***
Sales Workers	0.073652396*
Technicians and Trades Workers	-0.618106696***
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	0.502684934***
Administrative and Support Services	0.463065587***
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0.048175076
Arts and Recreational Services	0.257082224***
Construction	0.027258639
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.296921232***
Financial and Insurance Services	0.262870048***
Health Care and Social Assistance	-0.197268212***
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.500954526***
Manufacturing	0.263618456***
Mining	0.361893021***
Other Services	0.054520086

Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	0.154087085***
Public Administration and Safety	0.107670610**
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	0.182885897**
Retail Trade	0.143209825***
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	0.141890019**
Wholesale Trade	0.240172023***

Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)

With leave entitlements	1.436079694***
Without leave entitlements	1.543679521***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 190,800.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Table A.3 – Model 3 – changing occupation at 2-, 3- or 4-digit level

Intercept	-4.868970939***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	0.001052690
2018	0.113318842*
2019	0.110226994*
2020	0.053701345
2021	-0.019400196
2022	0.292141937***
2023	0.345485084***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	0.287322108***
age30_39	0.012956276
age40_49	-0.172484065*
age50_59	-0.404779903***
age60_64	-0.731218036***
age65+	-1.418811678***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.128277303
5 to 9 years	-0.058107592
10 + years	-0.142238114***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.326384809***
Grad Diploma	0.355550880***
Below Year 12	-0.011380448
Bachelors Degree	0.090728079
Diploma	0.242113150***
Certificate III/IV	0.229497195***
No educational attainment	0.907395249**
Level not determined	0.099941155
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.433678444***
NT	-0.264266138***
QLD	-0.279378930***

SA	-0.308287243***
TAS	-0.149292030*
VIC	-0.327406731***
WA	-0.378581477***
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.027723729
<i>Previous occupation (base group Manager)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	0.346228360***
Community and Personal Service Workers	-0.681306008***
Labourers	-0.248373577***
Machinery Operators and Drivers	-0.351021354***
Professionals	-0.107658715*
Sales Workers	-0.275887077***
Technicians and Trades Workers	-0.881751627***
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	-0.045267801
Administrative and Support Services	0.343481748***
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	-0.024970974
Arts and Recreational Services	-0.000668797
Construction	-0.046896374
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	-0.047627978
Financial and Insurance Services	0.076073678
Health Care and Social Assistance	-0.254406177***
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.213599827*
Manufacturing	-0.064490794
Mining	0.285746285**

Other Services	-0.090608693
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	0.018634247
Public Administration and Safety	-0.145244537*
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	-0.257122263*
Retail Trade	-0.242535356***
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	-0.212336648**

Wholesale Trade	0.033012050
<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	1.610302909***
Without leave entitlements	1.802921351***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 190,800.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Table A.4 – Model 4 – changing industry

Intercept	-3.903024989***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	0.000276479
2018	0.078878465**
2019	0.178285634***
2020	-0.016545600
2021	-0.023199200
2022	0.270480501***
2023	0.303298771***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	0.143684050***
age30_39	-0.328094883***
age40_49	-0.538536636***
age50_59	-0.886474817***
age60_64	-1.326673717***
age65+	-2.184483458***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.231973127***
5 to 9 years	-0.065484578
10 + years	-0.129973577***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.547679054***
Grad Diploma	0.560615121***
Below Year 12	-0.148874368***
Bachelors Degree	0.360515259***
Diploma	0.269618351***
Certificate III/IV	0.340017457***
No educational attainment	0.079116487
Level not determined	0.123403740*
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.379678614***
NT	-0.139679216**
QLD	-0.303473938***
SA	-0.393633948***

TAS	-0.213074352***
VIC	-0.309888992***
WA	-0.227797878***
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.034450181
<i>Previous occupation (base group Manager)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	0.214538738***
Community and Personal Service Workers	-0.047654051
Labourers	-0.010723177
Machinery Operators and Drivers	0.148678490***
Professionals	-0.039425765
Sales Workers	-0.132891210***
Technicians and Trades Workers	-0.180844024***
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	0.993242370***
Administrative and Support Services	1.131027038***
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0.606469504***
Arts and Recreational Services	0.805124893***
Construction	0.792858131***
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.788722661***
Financial and Insurance Services	0.579208313***
Health Care and Social Assistance	0.201010020***
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.890639603***
Manufacturing	0.917310741***
Mining	0.910910986***
Other Services	0.718432705***

Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	0.631106586***
Public Administration and Safety	0.182612009***
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	0.961457038***
Retail Trade	0.880893892***
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	0.726127197***
Wholesale Trade	0.986986846***

<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	0.843922027***
Without leave entitlements	1.519349314***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 190,800.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Table A.5 – Model 5 – changing industry at 2-, 3- or 4-digit level

Intercept	-5.815334193***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	-0.097568009
2018	-0.062015026
2019	0.065330484
2020	-0.033015421
2021	-0.160076163*
2022	0.134126046*
2023	0.130468502
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	0.372014354***
age30_39	0.107644943
age40_49	-0.093264629
age50_59	-0.506683629***
age60_64	-0.988079209***
age65+	-2.041805941***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.327089735***
5 to 9 years	0.081427832
10 + years	-0.003708295
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.583804146***
Grad Diploma	0.485825214***
Below Year 12	-0.124510093
Bachelors Degree	0.331316402***
Diploma	0.208800670**
Certificate III/IV	0.298333482***
No educational attainment	0.492979057
Level not determined	0.294821042**
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.387627733***
NT	-0.159961043
QLD	-0.343312049***

SA	-0.271430573**
TAS	-0.176687103
VIC	-0.259052338**
WA	-0.272598989**
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.130535764***
<i>Previous occupation (base group Manager)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	-0.045121698
Community and Personal Service Workers	-0.046017232
Labourers	0.080259877
Machinery Operators and Drivers	0.233783153**
Professionals	0.091510068
Sales Workers	0.103248015
Technicians and Trades Workers	-0.013170622
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	0.814942860***
Administrative and Support Services	-0.645795967**
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0.205206119
Arts and Recreational Services	-1.131590329***
Construction	1.410606833***
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.163916123
Financial and Insurance Services	0.971085207***
Health Care and Social Assistance	0.934517254***
Information Media and Telecommunications	-0.020087903
Manufacturing	0.895084567***
Mining	1.169797866***

Other Services	-0.865437768***
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	0.305512308**
Public Administration and Safety	0.387277543***
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	-0.830123834**
Retail Trade	0.721416766***
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	0.691173279***
Wholesale Trade	0.110825198
<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	0.776801520***
Without leave entitlements	1.382406968***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10%
significance. N = 190,800.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of
Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and
Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed
February 2025.

Analysis excluding people in non-career jobs

We have defined non-career jobs as including: retail managers; university lecturers and tutors; private tutors and teachers; florists; gardeners; nurserypersons; bar attendants and baristas; café workers; gallery, museum and tour guides; fitness instructors; sports coaches, instructors and officials; sportspersons; general clerks, call or contact centre workers; receptionists; bank workers; betting clerks; couriers and postal deliverers; mail sorters; library assistants; sales assistants (general); retail supervisors; service station attendants; checkout operators and office cashiers; telemarketers; ticket salespeople; delivery drivers; storepersons; housekeepers; packers; fast food cooks; kitchenhands; and shelf-fillers.

Table A.6 – Model 6 – changing industry

Intercept	-4.097162501***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	0.031794953
2018	0.063664041
2019	0.165490934***
2020	-0.023093214
2021	-0.080295617
2022	0.231827587***
2023	0.262332025***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	-0.391442346***
age30_39	-0.645374003***
age40_49	-1.104730059***
age50_59	-1.882812092***
age60_64	-2.685015852***
age65+	-12.622207395
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.158452978***
5 to 9 years	-0.061928761
10 + years	-0.144059920***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.612189635***
Grad Diploma	0.579401981***
Below Year 12	-0.099831846**
Bachelors Degree	0.388533174***
Diploma	0.271365431***
Certificate III/IV	0.351977934***

No educational attainment	0.094022220
Level not determined	0.160651331**
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.416441429***
NT	-0.160927681**
QLD	-0.340967163***
SA	-0.424098564***
TAS	-0.256186900***
VIC	-0.348111516***
WA	-0.260800161***
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	-0.007913451
<i>Previous occupation (base group Manager)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	0.120620318**
Community and Personal Service Workers	-0.122380376**
Labourers	0.050637327
Machinery Operators and Drivers	0.116764485*
Professionals	0.018481286
Sales Workers	0.144120887**
Technicians and Trades Workers	-0.137186553***
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	1.100879757***
Administrative and Support Services	1.051777549***

Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0.603300602***
Arts and Recreational Services	0.896025473***
Construction	0.868699424***
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.898865004***
Financial and Insurance Services	0.685899703***
Health Care and Social Assistance	0.235758206***
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.905133374***
Manufacturing	0.916883356***
Mining	0.968807024***
Other Services	0.678305624***
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	0.651859741***

Public Administration and Safety	0.275329654***
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	0.759314454***
Retail Trade	1.190788757***
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	0.767779929***
Wholesale Trade	1.027522096***
<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	0.919628217***
Without leave entitlements	1.720707916***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 157,579.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Table A.7 – Model 7 – changing occupation

Intercept	-3.731342099***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	-0.107968525**
2018	-0.004493314
2019	0.059860301
2020	0.000013596
2021	-0.089554964*
2022	0.243515555***
2023	0.248827968***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	-0.318211007***
age30_39	-0.539226275***
age40_49	-0.908721045***
age50_59	-1.525637897***
age60_64	-2.416338667***
age65+	-12.253719365
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.014745726
5 to 9 years	-0.105505256**
10 + years	-0.234499539***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.583266988***
Grad Diploma	0.619998401***
Below Year 12	-0.180058110***
Bachelors Degree	0.387478772***
Diploma	0.412627593***
Certificate III/IV	0.259380463***
No educational attainment	0.422831187
Level not determined	0.035984765
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.421850706***
NT	-0.158261927**
QLD	-0.343723042***

SA	-0.363524611***
TAS	-0.274634693***
VIC	-0.302712543***
WA	-0.278901254***
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.045140617
<i>Previous occupation (base group Manager)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	0.110401743***
Community and Personal Service Workers	-0.481308388***
Labourers	-0.007301254
Machinery Operators and Drivers	-0.287889933***
Professionals	-0.527102749***
Sales Workers	0.349023341***
Technicians and Trades Workers	-0.621536742***
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	0.266879071***
Administrative and Support Services	0.401600596***
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0.081009001
Arts and Recreational Services	0.211816301**
Construction	0.098320548
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.421672295***
Financial and Insurance Services	0.274392404***
Health Care and Social Assistance	-0.138831962***
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.532020788***
Manufacturing	0.254443948***
Mining	0.501674289***

Other Services	0.022116881
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	0.199683824***
Public Administration and Safety	0.223597327***
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	-0.126439388
Retail Trade	0.165992436**
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	0.170606224**

Wholesale Trade	0.225234469***
<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	1.528423409***
Without leave entitlements	1.739268807***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 157,579.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Analysis excluding young people (less than 25) that finished their most recent qualification in the last two years that are in a non-career job

Table A.8 – Model 8 – changing industry

Intercept	-3.877120108***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	0.011672860
2018	0.086150838**
2019	0.175488400***
2020	-0.014528268
2021	-0.025669059
2022	0.276091234***
2023	0.311221828***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	-0.435787616***
age30_39	-0.677698751***
age40_49	-1.144587272***
age50_59	-1.922106425***
age60_64	-2.982635187***
age65+	-3.508714226***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.218824890***
5 to 9 years	-0.106611678**
10 + years	-0.136901847***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.515036263***
Grad Diploma	0.528577935***
Below Year 12	-0.091916747**
Bachelors Degree	0.336881212***
Diploma	0.261177314***
Certificate III/IV	0.335066999***
No educational attainment	0.057175323
Level not determined	0.125703266*
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.384293003***

NT	-0.151724717**
QLD	-0.306308262***
SA	-0.403333693***
TAS	-0.233863646***
VIC	-0.308689180***
WA	-0.237213962***
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.030791041
<i>Previous occupation (base group Manager)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	0.201185941***
Community and Personal Service Workers	-0.072437808
Labourers	-0.016245267
Machinery Operators and Drivers	0.111770473**
Professionals	-0.033737165
Sales Workers	-0.088239340*
Technicians and Trades Workers	-0.190036645***
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	1.011761404***
Administrative and Support Services	1.107538199***
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0.588176043***
Arts and Recreational Services	0.801971976***
Construction	0.781740748***
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.791511041***
Financial and Insurance Services	0.569729645***

Health Care and Social Assistance	0.198944865***	Transport, Postal and Warehousing	0.703472448***
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.885829165***	Wholesale Trade	0.970976600***
Manufacturing	0.899754854***	<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
Mining	0.906056585***	With leave entitlements	0.850279707***
Other Services	0.701029100***	Without leave entitlements	1.593075581***
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	0.630011476***		
Public Administration and Safety	0.182056841***		
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	0.929673702***		
Retail Trade	0.885804629***		

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 187,641.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Table A.9 – Model 9 – changing occupation

Intercept	-3.506417804***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	-0.098561243**
2018	0.007548532
2019	0.064519947*
2020	0.024565999
2021	-0.035211657
2022	0.246890559***
2023	0.288546605***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	-0.364251602***
age30_39	-0.575567130***
age40_49	-0.955650722***
age50_59	-1.630340745***
age60_64	-2.231118834***
age65+	-3.239916841***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.074112836
5 to 9 years	-0.169578204***
10 + years	-0.234872898***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.495384949***
Grad Diploma	0.556721245***
Below Year 12	-0.157039257***
Bachelors Degree	0.317113531***
Diploma	0.333733359***
Certificate III/IV	0.220003906***
No educational attainment	0.194870020
Level not determined	0.014623485
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.380149445***
NT	-0.140441477**
QLD	-0.298748705***

SA	-0.304539176***
TAS	-0.205737981***
VIC	-0.253455456***
WA	-0.210734555***
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.050301741**
<i>Previous occupation (base group Manager)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	0.207419486***
Community and Personal Service Workers	-0.301207213***
Labourers	0.044786203
Machinery Operators and Drivers	-0.149007817***
Professionals	-0.529903873***
Sales Workers	0.101599449**
Technicians and Trades Workers	-0.630921445***
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	0.478870925***
Administrative and Support Services	0.447288916***
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	0.043461424
Arts and Recreational Services	0.237546172***
Construction	0.025599411
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.297292858***
Financial and Insurance Services	0.250593767***
Health Care and Social Assistance	-0.196427297***
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.502866106***
Manufacturing	0.252006638***
Mining	0.364841889***

Other Services	0.053274874
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	0.154240757***
Public Administration and Safety	0.113350988**
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	0.158757252*
Retail Trade	0.137551530***
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	0.126062962**
Wholesale Trade	0.231563964***

<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	1.446880708***
Without leave entitlements	1.597550057***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 187,641.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Analysis excluding dummies for previous industry, occupation

Table A.10 – Model 10 – changing occupation

Intercept	-3.487557544***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	-0.105449671***
2018	-0.009007936
2019	0.050563687
2020	0.022955657
2021	-0.048652904
2022	0.221349992***
2023	0.264331515***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	0.179454560***
age30_39	-0.172179786***
age40_49	-0.387314207***
age50_59	-0.670109433***
age60_64	-1.080492666***
age65+	-1.735171046***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.150469308***
5 to 9 years	-0.113449353***
10 + years	-0.211254551***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.201667347***
Grad Diploma	0.235782542***
Below Year 12	-0.166316648***

Bachelors Degree	0.069773459**
Diploma	0.202025023***
Certificate III/IV	0.041414716
No educational attainment	0.149825864
Level not determined	-0.124227081*
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.369202251***
NT	-0.150179771**
QLD	-0.295665454***
SA	-0.319915019***
TAS	-0.208327719***
VIC	-0.252128276***
WA	-0.215627613***
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.0218027281
<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	1.445569610***
Without leave entitlements	1.637598293***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 190,800.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Table A.11 – Model 11 – changing industry

Intercept	-3.137329279***
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	-0.004229716
2018	0.076941535*
2019	0.172718013***
2020	-0.023727867
2021	-0.033303754
2022	0.255206674***
2023	0.289438413***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	0.134566408***
age30_39	-0.344592122***
age40_49	-0.574941696***
age50_59	-0.949460339***
age60_64	-1.403224473***
age65+	-2.244961958***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	0.340876987***
5 to 9 years	0.018463265
10 + years	-0.087153604***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.272112254***
Grad Diploma	0.232550285***
Below Year 12	-0.104764241***

Bachelors Degree	0.147536909***
Diploma	0.148025521***
Certificate III/IV	0.272022849***
No educational attainment	0.049115325
Level not determined	0.030735130
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.273030958***
NT	-0.106834235*
QLD	-0.208043265***
SA	-0.317671785***
TAS	-0.137909030**
VIC	-0.202585687***
WA	-0.131443507**
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.003091612
<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	0.748961482***
Without leave entitlements	1.475710679***

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 190,800.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed February 2025.

Analysis of intrafirm occupation switching

We ran regressions A.12 and A.13 including only those people who are working at the same firm in both periods. The regressions also exclude those who were managers in the second period. (Thus the dummy coefficient for those whose previous occupation is 'Manager' is not informative, as we have retained only those who were working as Managers and then subsequently moved to a different occupation.)

Table A.12 – Model 12 – Intrafirm occupation change

Intercept	-19.035501000
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	-0.110862325
2018	0.091585674
2019	0.007250554
2020	0.010004335
2021	0.030153362
2022	0.236906471***
2023	0.287502224***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	0.092378983
age30_39	-0.121183528
age40_49	-0.348552450***
age50_59	-0.662968391***
age60_64	-0.900019979***
age65+	-1.332008251***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	-0.336717421***
5 to 9 years	-0.153888097*
10 + years	-0.230507787***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.472637029***
Grad Diploma	0.497438749***
Below Year 12	-0.153811404**
Bachelors Degree	0.328780142***
Diploma	0.323691656***
Certificate III/IV	0.253107641***
No educational attainment	0.594739462

Level not determined	0.018421567
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.236223141***
NT	-0.130924108
QLD	-0.218699361**
SA	-0.095260966
TAS	-0.048059245
VIC	-0.145197698*
WA	-0.068274326
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.061510811
<i>Previous occupation (base group Professional)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	0.867284500***
Community and Personal Service Workers	-0.050514410
Labourers	0.558073783***
Machinery Operators and Drivers	0.346879742***
Managers	23.380220099
Sales Workers	0.279648032***
Technicians and Trades Workers	-0.220307495***
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	-0.019450701
Administrative and Support Services	-0.273019170**
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	-0.319580986*
Arts and Recreational Services	0.040152655

Construction	-0.643471046***
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.074936085
Financial and Insurance Services	0.030135802
Health Care and Social Assistance	-0.344854959***
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.182350618
Manufacturing	-0.243214792**
Mining	0.189972985
Other Services	-0.443665448***
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	-0.289435343***
Public Administration and Safety	0.053623241

Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	-0.272729366*
Retail Trade	-0.179045206*
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	-0.287367130***
Wholesale Trade	-0.225419543*
<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	15.634524426
Without leave entitlements	14.967245473

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10% significance. N = 149,325.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed January 2026.

Analysis of intrafirm occupation change at the 2, 3 or 4-digit level

Table A.13 – Model 13 – Did the worker change occupation by 2, 3 or 4 digits?

Intercept	-20.728540654
<i>Year (base group 2016)</i>	
2017	-0.194764048*
2018	0.071122445
2019	-0.066796638
2020	0.022448185
2021	-0.044701201
2022	0.218047656**
2023	0.269577624***
<i>Age (base group 15 - 19)</i>	
age20_29	0.038305309
age30_39	-0.185808497
age40_49	-0.423700636***
age50_59	-0.864081206***
age60_64	-1.071979087***
age65+	-1.447623126***
<i>Years in Australia (base group born in Australia)</i>	
< 5 years	-0.492430518***
5 to 9 years	-0.205143406*
10 + years	-0.182953691***
<i>Highest qualification completed (base group Year 12)</i>	
Postgraduate Degree	0.537322564***
Grad Diploma	0.594647521***
Below Year 12	-0.163738832*
Bachelors Degree	0.480677295***
Diploma	0.281696172***
Certificate III/IV	0.235393073***
No educational attainment	0.644605819
Level not determined	0.044966958
<i>Jurisdiction (base group ACT)</i>	
NSW	-0.156299736
NT	-0.027619080

QLD	-0.197417205
SA	0.025756447
TAS	-0.051266285
VIC	-0.039713650
WA	0.118572081
<i>Locality (base group metropolitan area)</i>	
Regional	0.077798694
<i>Previous occupation (base group Professional)</i>	
Clerical and Administrative Workers	1.289816352***
Community and Personal Service Workers	0.787768645***
Labourers	1.494343881***
Machinery Operators and Drivers	1.251418686***
Managers	25.541796279
Sales Workers	0.713895682***
Technicians and Trades Workers	0.655117363***
<i>Previous industry (base group Education and Training)</i>	
Accommodation and Food Services	0.179102453
Administrative and Support Services	-0.206092476
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	-0.463638563*
Arts and Recreational Services	0.163817415
Construction	-0.666399576***
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	0.429965753**
Financial and Insurance Services	0.355245811***
Health Care and Social Assistance	-0.147673065
Information Media and Telecommunications	0.717834186***

Manufacturing	-0.071649761
Mining	0.206368722
Other Services	-0.475462308**
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	-0.009598300
Public Administration and Safety	0.354250981***
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	0.201555572
Retail Trade	0.160528884
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	-0.071264157
Wholesale Trade	-0.017213510
<i>Paid leave entitlements (base group not an employee)</i>	
With leave entitlements	15.956448306
Without leave entitlements	15.279270821

*** 1% significance ** 5% significance * 10%
significance. N = 149,325.

Source: PC estimates based on Australian Bureau of
Statistics Microdata: *Participation, Job Search, and
Mobility, Australia 2015-2023*, ABS DataLab, accessed
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