On-the-Job Search in Europe and the U.S.*

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Very Preliminary - Please do not circulate

Abstract

This paper provides the first comprehensive empirical analysis of on-the-job search (OJS) across the U.S. and Europe, leveraging new panel survey data. We document that OJS is widespread in Europe and that the return to search is substantially higher for employed searchers than for the non-employed, confirming prior evidence for the U.S. Exploiting cross-country variation, we show that job-finding rates for the employed and non-employed are systematically related, highlighting the role of labor market fluidity. Our individual-level analysis points to tenure, job loss expectations, job satisfaction, and skill match as key drivers of OJS, in line with job ladder motives and precautionary job search. Additionally, we find that OJS is highly persistent, also among new hires. These findings provide new empirical moments that models of job search and job mobility should aim to replicate, particularly regarding search persistence and job quality.

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1 Introduction

This paper provides the first comprehensive empirical analysis of on-the-job search (OJS) across the United States and Europe, leveraging new survey data from panel surveys. While OJS plays a key role in theoretical models of job mobility (e.g., Burdett and Mortensen (1998); Krusell et al. (2010)), direct empirical evidence remains scarce, particularly across different labor markets.

We make four main contributions. First, we show that OJS is widespread in Europe, confirming findings from Fallick and Fleischman (2004) and Faberman et al. (2022) for the U.S. We further document that employed searchers are significantly more likely to transition to a new job than non-searchers, and this "return to search" is substantially larger for the employed than for the non-employed.

Second, we exploit within-Europe variation to show that job-finding rates for the employed are systematically related to those of the non-employed. Countries with more dynamic labor markets - characterized by high job-finding rates for the non-employed - also exhibit higher job-finding rates among the employed. In addition, countries with higher OJS rates also feature higher job-finding rates for employed workers, reinforcing the link between OJS and overall labor market fluidity.

Third, we identify key individual and job-related predictors of OJS. While standard search models predict that OJS declines with tenure and increases with job loss risk (Fujita (2012)), we find that job satisfaction and skill match are equally strong predictors, suggesting that job quality is a crucial driver of search intensity. Linking the aggregate cross-country correlations with individual-level determinants, we confirm that tenure and job loss risk are also key drivers of OJS.

Fourth, we show that OJS is highly persistent, particularly for job stayers - but even more so for individuals who have just started a new job, whether from employment or non-employment. This suggests that job transitions alone do not necessarily satisfy workers' search objectives, a finding with implications for job ladder and precautionary search models.

Our work builds on and extends key contributions in the literature. Faberman et al. (2022) provide the most detailed evidence to date on OJS in the U.S., documenting that employed job seekers transition at significantly higher rates than unemployed job seekers. We extend this analysis to Europe, showing that these patterns hold across a diverse set of labor markets and that cross-country variation in OJS closely mirrors differences in overall job mobility.

Besides job ladder motives, Fujita (2012) explores the relationship between job loss risk

and search behavior, emphasizing the role of precautionary search. We provide direct evidence that higher job loss expectations strongly predict OJS, confirming this mechanism.

We begin by documenting broad patterns in job search and job finding rates, contrasting the U.S. and Europe. While the relationship between search behavior and job finding has been well established for the U.S. (Faberman et al. (2022)), the novelty of our analysis lies in extending these insights to European labor markets. By providing comparable estimates across countries, we establish new empirical facts on OJS and job-finding dynamics outside the U.S.

In the second part of our analysis, we assess the extent to which systematic cross-country differences in job mobility patterns extend to OJS and employer-to-employer (E2E) transitions. Previous work has documented strong cross-country variation in job loss and job finding rates (Hobijn and Şahin (2009); Elsby and Michaels (2013) and Jung and Kuhn (2019)). We show that these patterns hold not only for the non-employed but also for employed workers seeking better job opportunities. This provides new evidence on how labor market fluidity affects both voluntary and involuntary job transitions.

By systematically comparing OJS across countries and datasets, our findings contribute to the literature on labor market dynamics and job mobility. They highlight the need to incorporate job quality, search persistence, and cross-country variation into models of job mobility and provide new empirical evidence on how OJS interacts with broader labor market conditions.

2 Related literature

TBA

3 Data Sources and Benchmarking

We rely on four different surveys for our analysis of on-the-job search (OJS). For the US, we use the Survey of Consumer Expectations (SCE) and the Current Population Survey (CPS). For Europe, we use the Consumer Expectations Survey (CES) and the European Union Labour Force Survey (EULFS). The SCE and CES are online surveys conducted by the Federal Reserve Bank of New York and the European Central Bank, respectively, and we collectively refer to these as the Expectations Surveys (EXPS). The CPS and EULFS are traditional labor force surveys (LFS) administered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the US and national statistical agencies across the European Union.

The EXPS form the core of our analysis due to their richer set of information on job search behavior, transitions, and expectations. The LFS serve as benchmarking tools to validate key labor market variables, ensuring that the novel findings we document are not artifacts of the EXPS data alone.

After a brief overview of these datasets, we discuss the key variables of interest and our measurement approach. Before diving into these details, we note an important sample restriction: we focus on core working-age individuals (ages 25-54). This restriction ensures that we analyze individuals with strong labor market attachment and accounts for cross-country differences in education systems, labor market entry, and early retirement schemes.

3.1 Data Sources

3.1.1 The Survey of Consumer Expectations (SCE)

The SCE is a monthly, nationally representative online panel survey conducted by the Federal Reserve Bank of New York since 2013, see Armantier et al. (2017) for details. Respondents participate for up to 12 months. The survey's core focus is on consumer expectations across multiple domains, including labor market conditions.

The SCE has been extensively used in academic research, including at least 34 articles published in top-five economics journals since its inception. Our dataset includes a broad set of labor market measures, making it well-suited for studying on-the-job search dynamics.[1]

For our study, we rely on the Labor Market Survey (LMS), conducted three times a year (March, July, and November). This specialized module collects detailed information on job search behavior, transitions, and expectations. The top panel of Table 1 reports the average number of observations for each round of the LMS and as well as the total. We also draw on additional data from the monthly survey and the annual job search module (October each year), which has been widely used in prior research (e.g., Faberman et al. (2022)).

3.1.2 The Consumer Expectations Survey (CES)

The CES is modeled after the SCE covering a similar range of topics. We provide a brief overview here and refer to ECB (2021) and Georgarakos and Kenny (2022) for more details. While the CES is a newer data set, it has already been used in several academic publications in economics (e.g., Christelis et al. (2025), Coibion et al. (2024), Coibion et al. (2023)).

[1]We based this count on searching for the term "'Survey of Consumer Expectations" on the web pages of the American Economic Review, Econometrica, Journal of Political Economy, and Review of Economic Studies as well as portals providing access to these journals such as JSTOR in October 2024.

Table 1: Panel Dimension

Country	Sample Sizes in the EXPS Mean	p25	p50	p75	Observations per Quarter	Total
Q1 2014 - Q1 2023						
United States	2.0	1	2	3	1,112	14,460
Q1 2021 - Q1 2025						
Belgium	3.7	1	2	7	603	10,255
Germany	4.4	1	4	7	1,544	26,244
Spain	4.7	2	5	8	2,009	34,160
France	4.5	1	4	7	1,757	29,865
Italy	5.1	2	6	8	2,036	34,604
Netherlands	3.8	1	2	7	551	9,367
Q2 2022 - Q1 2025						
Austria	3.0	1	2	5	565	7,342
Greece	2.6	1	1	3	700	9,100
Finland	3.0	1	2	5	573	7,442
Ireland	2.3	1	1	3	623	8,093
Portugal	3.1	1	2	5	754	9,802

The CES, conducted online at a monthly frequency, covers a range of topics similar to the SCE. It also includes a quarterly labor market survey (LMS; January, April, July, and October) and annual topical modules. Among these, the annual labor market module (May each year) is particularly relevant for our study. The CES started in January 2020, initially covering six euro area countries (Belgium, Germany, France, Spain, Italy, and the Netherlands). Since April 2022, it has expanded to include Austria, Greece, Finland, Ireland, and Portugal. We start our sample in January 2021, the first quarterly module with consistent job search data.

Respondents for the CES are reweighed to be representative across three dimensions (ages 18+, gender and country) and are re-interviewed as long as they are willing to continue to participate in the survey. The CES sample features around 8,500 observations per quarter. The bottom panels of Table 1 reports sample sizes by country and details on panel retention rates.

3.1.3 The Current Population Survey (CPS)

The CPS is a long-standing monthly household survey administered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). It is the official source of US unemployment statistics and collects employment data on all household members aged 15 and above. The rotating panel

structure enables tracking individual labor market transitions over time.

While the CPS does not ask about on-the-job search explicitly in its core survey, we utilize data from the 1997 and 1999 Contingent Worker Supplements (CWS), which contain information on job search among the employed.

3.1.4 The European Union Labour Force Survey (EULFS)

The EULFS is a harmonized collection of national labor market surveys conducted in all European Union member states. The survey has been available in its current form since 1983.

Prior 2019, it was possible to construct short within-year panel datasets for 6 out of 11 CES countries (France, Italy, Austria, Ireland, Greece and Portugal) (see Mack et al. (2016) for an explanation of the methodology and Donovan et al. (2023) for a recent description.). In addition, we can construct a panel for 15 non-CES countries allowing us to track within-year job transitions.[2] For other countries, we rely on cross-sectional EULFS data and official labor market transition rates published by Eurostat, which is able to link individuals across quarter also after 2019. Our analysis ensures that key statistics align with Eurostat's aggregate figures. In particular, in Appendix Figure A1, we show that for the countries and years where it is feasible we are able to closely replicate the transition rates published by Eurostat. This was also confirmed by Donovan et al. (2023) who found only a level difference likely due to them using a different age group than the Eurostat series.

3.2 Measuring Our Key Variables of Interest

Demographics The LFS collect information on demographic background variables, such as age, gender, education, presence and number of children, and partnership status in each interview round. The EXPS collect this information as part of a respondent's first interview and are therefore time-invariant.

Employment Status In the LFS, employment status is determined using a structured set of questions that classify respondents into three standard categories: employed, unemployed, or not in the labor force. This classification follows internationally recognized statistical

[2]The 15 non-CES countries are Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Croatia, Hungary, Iceland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Malta, Poland, Romania, Sweden, Slovakia and Slovenia. For France, there are no panel weights for repeatedly observed workers. Hence, we use unweighted averages. For the Netherlands a panel dimension is only available for 2005 and for Latvia, the panel ends in 2016. For Luxembourg the panel starts in 2017.

definitions, distinguishing the unemployed based on active job search and availability for work.[3]

In the EXPS, employment status is self-reported based on predefined response categories and do not follow the same sequencing and set of questions as the LFS. The monthly SCE asks "What is your current employment situation?" and the CES asks "What best describes your current employment situation?".[4] Table 2 lists the answer options in both surveys using the SCE phrasing, and report in the table note the exact phrasing in the CES when there is a difference. Except for options (3)-(5) both EXPS cover the same list: the SCE features option (3), while the CES options (4) and (5) instead.

We classify anyone choosing (1) or (2) as employed, and everyone else as non-employed. In the SCE, respondents can select multiple options, and we therefore generally assign the first choice on the list, e.g., anyone stating working full-time will be assigned that status independent of any other option they select. However, anyone selecting either of the first two choices ("Working") and stating being "Temporarily laid off" (6) or "On sick or other leave" (7), we assign (6) or (7), respectively.

While we provide more details below, we note here that we do not further distinguish between the unemployed and those not in the labor force, as neither the tri-annual SCE nor the quarterly CES labor market module contains all the necessary information to do so.

Job Search All four surveys include job search questions, though their phrasing and reference periods vary. The LFS and SCE ask respondents (with slight differences in wording): "Have you done anything in the LAST 4 WEEKS to look for work?'. The CES, in contrast, asks a similar question but with a different reference period and explicitly includes the term "active": "Are you currently actively looking for a job?" In the CES, respondents who select the "unemployed" options (4) or (5) listed in Table 2 are not explicitly asked an additional job search question, as the response categories already have already explicit

[3] In the Integrated European Social Statistics (IESS) a job searcher is qualified as an active searcher if they use at least one of the following methods of job search: (1) studying job advertisements; (2) placing or answering job advertisements; (3) placing or updating CVs online; (4) contacting employers directly; (5) asking friends, relatives or acquaintances; (6) contacting a public employment service; (7) contacting a private employment agency; (8) taking a test, interview or examination as part of a recruitment process; and (9) making preparations to set up a business. Non-active search categories are awaiting (a) the results from an job application or (b) of a competition for recruitment to the public sector, (c) waiting for call from an employment agency and (d) other methods, which also do not qualify as active search. Clearly, the lines are at least conceptually blurry. For example, activities (a), (2) or (3) may refer to exactly the same job application, yet the timing matters. If both activities happened during the reference period the question is referring to, which in the European Union Labour Force Survey is the last four weeks, a searcher would be classified as an active searcher. However, if the application was submitted more than four weeks ago, a respondent may only choose (a) but not (2) and (3), and thus not classified as an active searcher. Moreover, in the US category (1) is not considered as an active job search.

[4] Before April 2022, the employment status in the CES was asked only in the quarterly module.

Table 2: Self-Reported Employment Status in the EXPS

Self-reported Status		SCE	CES
Employed			
(1)	Working full-time (for someone or self-employed)		✓
(2)	Working part-time (for someone or self-employed)		✓
Non-employed			
(3)	Not working, but would like to work	✓	—
(4)	Unemployed and actively looking for a job	—	✓
(5)	Unemployed, interested in having a job but not actively looking for a job	—	✓
(6)	Temporarily laid-off		✓
(7)	On sick or other leave		✓
(8)	Permanently disabled or unable to work		✓
(9)	Retiree or early retiree		✓
(10)	Student, at school or in training		✓
(11)	Homemaker		✓
(12)	Other		✓

Notes: In the CES, the exact phrasing of answer options (6)-(11) is the following: (6) "Temporarily laid off, (7) "On extended leave (disability, sick, maternity or other leave)", (8) "Unable to work because of disability or other medical reasons", (9) "In retirement or early retirement", (10) "Studying, at school, or in training", and (11) "Looking after children or other persons, doing housework". In the CES, answers (4)-(7) are presented in a different order, namely: (6), (7), (4), (5).

reference to whether a respondent is looking actively or not. We classify any individual who reports looking for a job as a job searcher and everyone else as a non-searcher.

In the LFS, the job search question serves as a key determinant in distinguishing between the unemployed and those not in the labor force. However, for our purposes, its relevance extends beyond the non-employed, as it is also asked of the employed. There are exceptions to this general approach across surveys. The CES did not ask this question to those self-classifying as "permanently disabled or unable to work" or "retiree or early retiree" before July 2024, with the prevalence of these groups varying across countries (e.g., 2% in Italy, Greece, and Portugal, but 8-9% in Belgium, the Netherlands, and Finland). Similarly, in the SCE, most respondents who classify themselves as "retirees" have missing values for this question. The CPS microdata available to researchers do not include job search information for the non-employed, and the employed are typically not asked about job search activity, except in the February 1997 and 1999 CWS. The SCE also does not ask job search questions to the self-employed. Respondents with a missing job search are excluded from most regressions, but only for those periods with the missing observation.

A further distinction exists in the SCE, where the job search question for the employed

is phrased slightly differently by adding the term "new": "Have you done anything in the LAST 4 WEEKS to look for new work?" Next to “No” there are two answer options: “Yes, looking to possibly leave my current job for a new job” and “Yes, looking for an additional job without leaving my current job”. Since the other datasets do not allow for this distinction, we classify any respondent selecting either "Yes" option in the SCE as a job searcher.

Active Job Search The LFS, as well as the SCE’s tri-annual LMS and annual job search module, collect detailed information on job search methods used by both the employed and non-employed. These surveys allow us to distinguish between active and passive job searchers based on reported job search methods (see footnote 3).

In contrast, the quarterly CES LMS does not explicitly elicit job search methods but instead asks whether respondents are "actively" looking for a job. Because the CES does not define what qualifies as "active" search according to statistical agency definitions, we refrain from classifying CES searchers as active or passive. However, the annual labor market module of the CES does elicit job search methods in a manner similar to the LFS and SCE. We use this module to investigate the prevalence of active job search in the CES.

Additionally, the quarterly CES LMS provides a proxy for one component of active search - job applications. Specifically, it asks: "How many job applications have you submitted in the last 3 months?" with five possible response categories: 0, 1, 2-5, 6-10, and more than 10 applications. While the CES reference period differs from that in the LFS and SCE (three months instead of the last four weeks), we use this information to classify whether a searcher has submitted a job application.

To maintain comparability across surveys, we identify job application activity in other datasets using available job search methods: in the LFS, we rely on the method "applied to employers directly," while in the SCE, we use responses indicating "applied to a job posting online" or "applied to a job opening found through other means, including help-wanted ads." In the EULFS, this classification is only feasible before 2020, and in the CPS, it is available only for the employed in the 1997/1999 CWS.

Job Tenure In the CPS, employed respondents in their 2nd to 4th and 6th to 8th interview waves are asked whether they are still working for the same employer as in the previous month. This allows for the construction of tenure data ranging from 0 to 3 months, enabling the identification of quarterly job transitions.[5]

[5]We exclude individuals who are employed in two consecutive months but lack information on the same employer question. Additionally, we do not incorporate the adjustments proposed by Fujita et al. (2024), acknowledging that our measure of job tenure constitutes a lower bound on true tenure.

The EULFS and the SCE tri-annual LMS directly ask respondents for the month and year in which they started working for their current employer. This permits precise tenure measurement in months, with a reported tenure of 0 months indicating that the job started in the current month.

The quarterly CES follows a different approach by asking respondents: "How long have you been working for your current employer?" Responses fall into seven tenure brackets:

1. Less than a month
2. More than a month but less than 3 months
3. More than 3 months but less than a year
4. More than a year but less than 3 years
5. More than 3 years but less than 5 years
6. More than 5 years but less than 10 years
7. More than 10 years

E2E Transitions We use job tenure to define job-to-job (E2E) transitions, following Donovan et al. (2023). Specifically, we classify an individual as a job switcher if they are employed in month t (e.g., January) and still employed in month $t+3$ (e.g., April), but report a tenure of less than three months in month $t+3$.[6]

Since the SCE labor market survey is conducted every four months, we compute four-month transition rates rather than three-month (quarterly) rates in the SCE. In principle, we could also construct quarterly transition rates using the monthly SCE, but we opt against this to maintain consistency between the frequency of job search and job finding data.

Earnings The EULFS provides information on respondents' monthly earnings from their main job, reported in deciles. Since 2021, these deciles reflect gross income, whereas prior to 2021, they were based on net income.

In the 4th and 8th interview month, the CPS collects information on usual weekly earnings, which were historically top-coded at a fixed value. However, since April 2024, the top-coding methodology has changed: for the top 3 percent of earners, the weighted average of their earnings is now reported.[7]

[6]This differs from the Eurostat definition of E2E transitions, which classifies individuals with a tenure of less than or equal to three months as job switchers. Appendix Figure A1d demonstrates that adopting Eurostat's definition allows us to closely replicate reported E2E rates prior to 2020. However, because labor force surveys record the month a job started, a tenure of three months includes individuals who began their job exactly three months ago.

[7]The top-code was set at $1,923 in 1997, increased to $2,884.61 from 1998 through March 2024, and applied

In the CES, earnings are measured in two different ways. Until Q2 2023, personal net earnings (after tax and compulsory deductions) over the past 12 months were reported in bins: EUR <5k, 5-10k, 10-15k, 15-20k, 20-25k, 25-30k, 30-40k, 40-50k, 50-60k, 60-75k, >75k. However, this measure is unsuitable for our analysis of job transitions, as it does not clearly indicate whether earnings correspond to pre- or post-transition wages, nor does it allow for the computation of hourly wages.

Since Q3 2023, the CES instead reports personal net earnings for the last month as continuous values, along with information on usual weekly hours. This improvement enables the calculation of hourly wages, though we have not yet incorporated this measure into our analysis.

3.2.1 Questions Unique to the Expectations Surveys

Job Perceptions Both the SCE and CES collect information on how employed individuals perceive their current job using the following questions:

1. Pay satisfaction: "How satisfied would you say you are with the salary and compensation package in your current job?". Respondents select from five answer choices, ranging from "Very dissatisfied" to "Very satisfied".
2. Job skill match: "On a scale from 1 to 7, how well do you think this job fits your experience and skills?", where 1 corresponds to "Very poor fit", 7 to "Very good fit".

In our analysis, we use both measures as linear scales, with pay satisfaction coded from 1 to 5 and job skill match from 1 to 7. The CES collected this information in each quarterly module through Q2 2023, after which it was moved to the annual labor market module.

Job Loss Expectations The CES elicits job loss expectations using the question: "What do you think is the percentage chance that you will lose your current job during the next 3 months?". Respondents provide a probability between 0 and 100.

The SCE, in contrast, asks respondents: "What do you think is the percent chance that four months from now you will be ..." with the following answer options:[8]

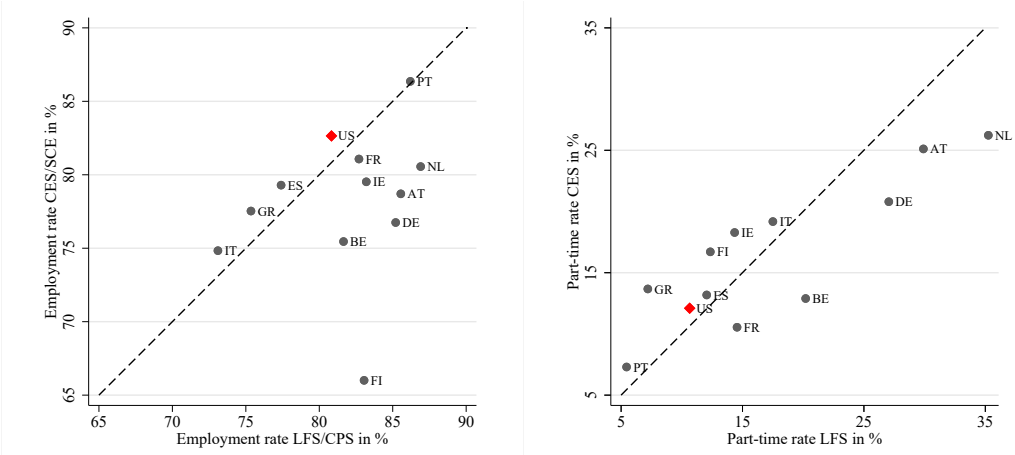
1. Employed

selectively between April 2023 and March 2024, where individuals in their 8th interview remained subject to the old top-code while those in their 4th interview were already under the new rule. Earnings in the CPS are only elicited in a respondent's 4th and 8th interview waves.

[8]Employed respondents are not presented with answer option (1), while non-employed respondents are not presented with answer options (2) and (3)

Figure 1: Basic Labor Market Statistics

(a) Employment-Population Ratio (b) Part-time Share



Sources: Eurostat, CES, SCE, CPS (2022-23). Notes: Part-time workers are workers who classify themselves as working part-time.

2. Employed and working for the same employer
3. Employed and working for a different employer
4. Self-employed
5. Unemployed and looking for work
6. Unemployed and NOT looking for work

Respondents assign probabilities (summing to 100) across these categories. We calculate the four-month job loss probability as the sum of responses to options (5) "Unemployed and looking for work" and (6) "Unemployed and NOT looking for work". However, we acknowledge that some individuals who assign probabilities to (3) "Employed and working for a different employer", or (4) "Self-employed" may also anticipate job loss but expect to find a new job within the four-month period.

3.3 Benchmarking the Expectations Surveys

As this is the first study to use the CES to document aggregate labor market outcomes, we benchmark key labor market statistics in the CES against the EULFS. For comparison, we also include similar benchmarks between the SCE and the CPS for the US, wherever feasible.

Figure 1a compares employment-population ratios across these datasets, while Figure 1b presents part-time employment shares among the employed. The two upper panels of Table 3 summarize these comparisons. On average, employment-population ratios are lower in the CES compared to the EULFS, with Finland being a notable outlier, exhibiting a 16 percentage point lower employment rate in the CES. In contrast, part-time employment

Table 3: Benchmarking the Expectation Surveys

	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max
Employment-Population Ratio				
LFS	81.8	4.4	73.1	86.9
EXPS	78.2	5.0	66.0	86.4
Part-time Share				
LFS	17.2	9.2	5.5	35.3
EXPS	16.3	5.8	7.3	26.2
Job Loss Rate				
LFS	4.4	1.2	2.6	6.8
EXPS	4.7	1.3	2.7	7.0
Job Finding Rate				
LFS	15.5	4.4	8.2	23.2
EXPS	16.3	4.2	9.4	25.5
Job-to-Job Rate				
LFS	2.4	1.7	0.6	7.5
EXPS	2.9	1.0	2.0	5.0

Sources: Eurostat, CPS, CES, SCE (2022-23). Notes: Part-time workers are workers who classify themselves as working part-time. Job loss rates are for workers aged 15(18)-74. EULFS E2E rates are adjusted rates (see text) and rounded to zero digits.

shares are more closely aligned between the two survey types.

Figure 2 and the three lower panels of Table 3 compare labor market transition rates across the CES and EULFS, focusing on:

(a) Job loss rates (EN)

(b) Job finding rates (NE) for the non-employed

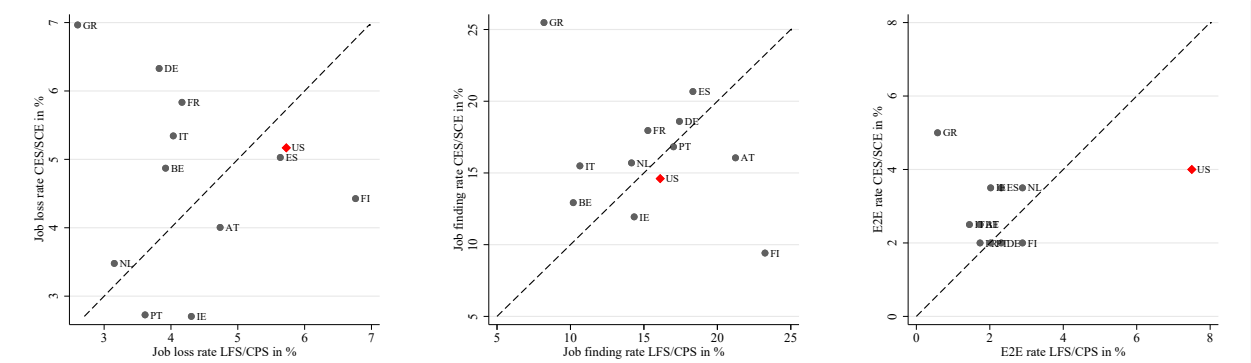
(c) Job-to-job (E2E) transition rates for the employed[9]

Before discussing these comparisons in detail, we note two important methodological adjustments: first, for the job loss rate we extend the age range to 15/18-74 because Eurostat's published aggregate statistics do not allow us to compute the job loss rate for the 25-54 age group. Second, the Eurostat-reported E2E rates are adjusted downward by a factor of 0.578, which represents the average ratio between Eurostat's reported rates and our own definition (see Section 3.2). Furthermore, since Eurostat only reports rounded E2E

[9]For the E2E rate, we follow Fujita et al. (2024) and include in the all individuals observed in both periods t and $t+1$, regardless of employment status in $t+1$. Since we compute a quarterly E2E rate, we do not apply the monthly adjustments proposed by Fujita et al. (2024).

Figure 2: Transition Rates

(a) Job Loss Rate (EN) (b) Job Finding Rate (NE) (c) Job to Job Rate (E2E)



Sources: Eurostat, CES, CPS, SCE (2022-23). Notes: EN rate for age 15/18-74. EULFS E2E rates are rounded to next digit and adjusted rates (see text).

rates, we apply the same rounding rule to the CES data.

Figures 2a and 2b compares quarterly transition rates between employment and non-employment (in both directions) across the expectations surveys (EXPS) and labor force surveys (LFS). The job loss and job finding rates are broadly aligned across the two survey types, with some exceptions. Greece exhibits higher job loss and job finding rates in the CES compared to the LFS, while Finland, in contrast, has lower job loss and job finding rates in the CES relative to the LFS. Germany and France stand out with relatively high job loss rates in the CES.

Figure 2c compares job-to-job (E2E) transition rates between the CES and adjusted LFS rates. Greece again stands out, exhibiting a much higher E2E rate in the CES. More generally, E2E rates in the CES tend to be somewhat higher than in the LFS. However, a notable exception is the US, where the job finding rate in the SCE is significantly lower than in the CPS. This is particularly striking given that the SCE transition rate covers 4 months, compared to 3 months in the CPS.

Summing up, overall, cross-country differences in key labor market statistics in the EXPS broadly replicate those in the LFS, with the notable exceptions of Finland and Greece, where discrepancies are more pronounced.

4 Job Search and Job Finding Rates

We structure our analysis of job search and job finding rates conditional on search status around the following equation:

$$P(E^n_{t+1} = 1|E_t = x) = \sum_{s \in \mathbb{S}} P(S_t = s|E_t = x) * P(E^n_{t+1} = 1|S_t = s, E_t = x), \quad (1)$$

where

- $E^n_{t+1} = 1$: Indicates that an individual found a new job in year-quarter $t+1$
- E_t: Represents employment status in year-quarter t, where $x \in \mathbb{X}$={Non-Employed, Employed}
- S_t: Denotes job search status in year-quarter t, where $s \in \mathbb{S}$={retirees/unable to work, no search, search}

We begin our analysis by documenting broad patterns in job search and job finding rates, contrasting the US and Europe. While the relationship between search behavior and job finding in the US has already been well established by Faberman et al. (2022), the novelty of our results lies in extending this analysis to European labor markets. By providing comparable estimates across countries, we establish new empirical facts on job search behavior and job-finding dynamics outside the US.

In the second part of our analysis, we investigate whether the well-documented systematic cross-country differences in job loss and job finding rates - as shown in Hobijn and Şahin (2009), Elsby and Michaels (2013) and Jung and Kuhn (2019) - also extend to employer-to-employer (E2E) transitions and the role of on-the-job search (OJS). This allows us to assess the extent to which job mobility patterns differ across countries, not only for the unemployed but also for employed workers seeking better job opportunities. By doing so, we contribute to the broader literature on labor market dynamics and job mobility.

4.1 Europe vs. the US

In the following analysis, we contrast patterns of on-the-job search (OJS) and employer-to-employer (E2E) transition rates between the US and Europe, both over time (pre- and post-COVID) and across datasets (EXPS and LFS). For the EULFS, we rely exclusively on our own calculations using microdata. As a result, for the post-COVID we do not report transition rates for the EULFS and are also limited in constructing other job search-related statistics, given that detailed data are unavailable.

To provide a broader perspective on job mobility, we also report job search and job finding statistics for the non-employed, complementing our findings for the employed. Our key results are summarized in Table 4, though it is important to note that sample definitions differ across rows. In particular, our measurement of search status is based on the last observed survey participation of an individual, but we do not observe their subsequent transition probability. Additionally, some countries—such as Germany in the pre-pandemic period—do not feature a panel dimension, preventing us from including them in statistics related to transition rates.

Our analysis reveals three key findings. First, a sizable share of workers engage in OJS, but estimates vary across data sources. In the expectations surveys (EXPS), approximately one in four employed workers report searching for a job in the US, whereas the figure is one in six in Europe. In contrast, OJS is much less prevalent in the labor force surveys (LFS). A direct comparison in the most comparable sample - CES Core vs. EULFS Core (post-COVID) - shows that the share of employed individuals engaging in OJS is almost twice as large in the CES (16.4% vs. 8.6%). Higher search rates in the CES are not unique to the employed: the search rate among the non-employed is about one-third higher in the CES compared to the EULFS (41.3% vs. 30.5%). For the US, we do not have a directly comparable measure, but evidence from the 1997/99 CPS CWS suggests a similar pattern: the 6.2% OJS rate in the CPS is only slightly higher than the 5% OJS rate in the EULFS core countries during the same period.

Second, we examine job finding rates, focusing on the "return to search"—the ratio of job finding rates between searchers and non-searchers, conditional on employment status. Consistent with Faberman et al. (2022), we find that the return to job search is significantly higher for employed searchers than for the non-employed. Employed searchers are 4.0 to 7.6 times more likely to transition to a new job than employed non-searchers, whereas the corresponding ratio for the non-employed ranges from 1.6 to 3.6. Comparing the expectations surveys, returns to search tend to be lower in Europe, particularly for the non-employed, a pattern primarily driven by the higher job finding rates for searchers in the US.

Finally, we analyze job finding rates by employment status (bottom panel of Table 4). Comparing the expectations surveys, the E2E rate is lower in Europe due to both fewer searchers and lower E2E rates among searchers. For the non-employed, lower job finding rates in Europe are primarily explained by lower job finding rates for searchers. In the US, the E2E rate in the SCE is only about half of the E2E rate in the CPS, while the opposite pattern emerges in Europe, where E2E rates in the CES exceed those in the EULFS.

Table 4: Key Facts Across Datasets before and After Covid: US vs. Europe

	United States					*Europe*						
	SCE		CPS			CES Core	CES All	EULFS Core			EULFS All	
Variable	2014-19	2021-22	1997-99	2014-19	2021-23	2021-25	2022-25	1997-99	2014-19	2021-23	2014-19	2021-23
Share of Searchers												
Employed	24.2	23.8	6.2	-	-	16.4	17.6	5.0	5.8	8.6	4.9	5.9
Non-Employed	37.0	41.0	*	*	*	41.3	44.4	33.9	33.4	30.5	31.0	28.7
Job Finding Rates by Search Status												
Return to Search Employed	5.0	5.9	4.0	-	-	5.3	5.1	-	7.6	*	7.6	*
E2E Rate of Searchers	11.1	12.0	22.8	-	-	9.2	9.3	-	7.3	*	9.1	*
E2E Rate of Non-Searchers	2.5	2.2	5.7	-	-	1.8	2.0	-	0.9	*	1.3	*
Return to Search Non-Employed	3.0	3.6	*	*	*	1.7	1.8	-	1.6	*	2.4	*
NE Rate Searchers	39.6	29.9	*	*	*	22.1	23.3	-	14.1	*	20.3	*
NE Rate Non-Searchers	14.5	13.7	*	*	*	15.2	15.4	-	8.8	*	9.2	*
Job Finding Rates by Emp. Status												
E2E Rate	4.7	4.2	7.3	7.2	7.2	2.9	3.2	-	1.2	*	1.7	*
NE Rate	21.1	19.4	17.7	14.9	16.2	14.9	15.6	-	10.5	*	12.5	*

Notes: * cannot be constructed with EULFS and CPS microdata available to researchers.

Table 5: The Role of Search Methods for the Employed: US vs. Europe

	United States					*Europe*						
	SCE		CPS			CES Core	CES All	EULFS Core			EULFS All	
Variable	2014-19	2021-22	1997-99	2014-19	2021-23	2021-25	2022-25	1997-99	2014-19	2021-23	2014-19	2021-23
Share of Employed Searchers												
All Searchers	24.2	23.8	6.2	-	-	16.4	17.6	5.0	5.8	8.6	4.9	5.9
Searchers who sent application	13.4	12.4	3.0	-	-	13.0	13.9	0.6	2.8	*	2.1	*
Active Searchers	19.7	18.6	4.7	-	-	-	-	1.9	5.3	*	4.4	*
Job Finding (E2E) Rate by Search Status												
All Searchers	11.1	12.0	22.8	-	-	9.2	9.3	-	7.3	*	9.1	*
Searchers who sent application	14.4	15.9	21.7	-	-	11.4	11.5	-	8.6	*	10.3	*
Searchers w/o application sent	6.6	8.0	23.7	-	-	2.6	3.0	-	5.8	*	7.6	*
Active Searchers	11.9	14.6	25.4	-	-	-	-	-	7.3	*	9.0	*
Non-Active Searchers	6.5	3.1	16.0	-	-	-	-	-	4.7	*	7.6	*
Non-Searchers	2.5	2.2	5.7	-	-	1.8	2.0	-	0.9	*	1.3	*

Notes: * cannot be constructed with EULFS and CPS microdata available to researchers.

4.1.1 Alternative Definitions of Job Search

Our definition of job search is broad and does not adhere strictly to statistical agency definitions of active search, as previously discussed. To refine our understanding of search behavior, we now contrast narrower definitions of job search.

The Employed The upper panel of Table 5 first repeats the overall share of searchers among the employed from Table 4. The second row conditions job search on having applied to at least one job, which substantially reduces search rates across datasets. In the US (SCE), the share of employed searchers declines by almost 50%, and in the EULFS, it drops by more than 50%. In contrast, the reduction is much smaller in the CES, which could be due to two factors. First, the CES explicitly asks about "active search", and although respondents almost certainly are not aware of the statistical definition, the wording might discourage those who are not actively engaged in OJS from reporting job search (compared to the SCE). Second, the CES asks about job applications over the past three months, whereas the SCE, CPS, and EULFS use a four-week reference period.

Further restricting the definition of search to active searchers (as traditionally defined in the SCE, CPS, and EULFS) results in a substantial increase in the share of active searchers relative having applied to at least one job. In Appendix Table A1, we show that in the annual module of the CES, which elicits search methods similarly to the SCE and EULFS, the observed patterns align closely with those datasets.[10]

The bottom panel of Table 5 examines job finding rates across different search classifications. The first and last rows replicate the job finding rates of all searchers and non-searchers from Table 4. Two key insights emerge. First, searchers who applied to at least one job exhibit much higher job finding rates than those who did not, with the exception of the CPS. Second, in the SCE, CPS, and EULFS, active searchers have lower job finding rates than those who applied to a job, but a similar relationship holds for non-active searchers compared to those who did not apply.

The Non-Employed We apply the same logic to the non-employed in Table 6, also incorporating the unemployed category, which - beyond active search - imposes the additional criterion of availability to start work immediately. This allows us to assess whether the patterns observed among the employed also apply to the non-employed.

The upper panel of Table 6 first replicates the share of all searchers among the non-

[10]Interestingly, when searchers are asked directly whether they have submitted an application (as in the quarterly CES module), they are more likely to respond "yes" than when they select specific search methods from a list (as in the annual CES module).

Table 6: The Role of Search Methods for the Non-Employed: US vs. Europe

	United States					*Europe*						
	SCE		CPS			CES Core	CES All	EULFS Core			EULFS All	
Variable	2014-19	2021-22	1997-99	2014-19	2021-23	2021-25	2022-25	1997-99	2014-19	2021-23	2014-19	2021-23
Share of Non-Employed Searchers												
All Searchers	37.0	41.0	*	*	*	41.3	44.4	33.9	33.4	30.5	31.0	28.7
Searchers who sent application	28.5	29.2	*	*	*	34.1	36.7	8.2	20.1	*	18.7	*
Active Searchers	34.5	39.4	*	*	*	-	-	30.0	32.4	29.9	30.5	28.3
Unemployed	†	†	16.6	7.5	6.5	-	-	29.4	32.1	27.8	29.9	27.1
Job Finding Rate by Search Status												
All Searchers	39.6	29.9	*	*	*	22.1	23.3	-	14.1	*	20.3	*
Searchers who sent application	44.8	35.8	*	*	*	24.9	25.1	-	15.7	*	22.1	*
Searchers w/o application sent	28.2	16.6	*	*	*	10.1	14.8	-	11.7	*	17.3	*
Active Searchers	41.4	30.2	*	*	*	-	-	-	14.2	*	20.4	*
Non-Active Searchers	20.6	14.6	*	*	*	-	-	-	12.1	*	18.9	*
Unemployed	†	†	49.4	38.1	41.0	-	-	-	17.8	*	22.4	*
Non-Searchers	14.5	13.7	*	*	*	15.2	15.4	-	8.8	*	9.1	*

Notes: * cannot be constructed with EULFS and CPS microdata available to researchers. † the SCE Labor Market Module does not have information on whether a non-employed searcher would be available to start a job if offered.

employed from Table 4. Restricting the definition of search to those who applied to at least one job lowers search rates in all surveys, though the reduction is less pronounced than for the employed. Moreover, adding the active search criterion substantially narrows the gap in the SCE and EULFS, meaning that most non-employed searchers in these datasets are indeed actively searching - a pattern that differs from the employed. Finally, in the EULFS, applying the availability criterion reduces search rates only modestly, suggesting that most non-employed active searchers are also available to work. In Table A1, we show that the same pattern emerges in the annual module of the SCE, which also includes an availability question.

Turning to job finding rates, we observe similar patterns as for the employed: individuals who applied to at least one job have substantially higher job finding rates than those who did not. The same holds for active vs. non-active searchers, although the difference is smaller. Finally, in the EULFS, we find that the unemployed have a significantly higher job finding rate than active searchers, suggesting that the availability criterion meaningfully impacts job-finding outcomes.

Two key facts emerge. First, job search is highly prevalent, with a substantial share of searchers being employed. Second, searchers are significantly more likely to transition to a job than non-searchers, with the effect being much stronger for the employed. While these patterns have already been established for the US, our findings demonstrate for the first time that they also hold in Europe.

4.2 Cross-Country Correlations

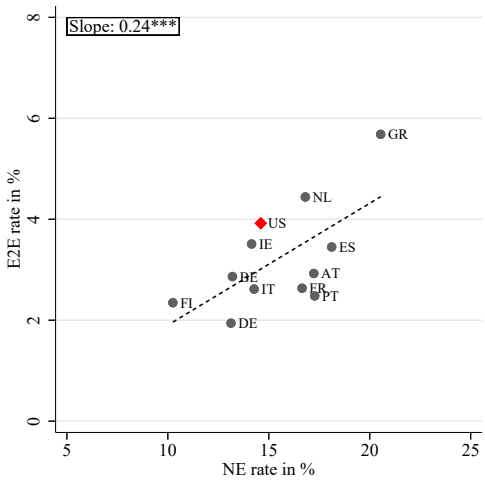
The previous analysis focused on comparing job search and job finding rates between the US and Europe, highlighting differences and similarities in OJS prevalence and job mobility. We now extend this analysis by exploiting variation within Europe, examining how job finding rates correlate across countries with different labor market structures. While much of the existing literature has focused on job flows between unemployment and employment, less is known about how job finding rates for the employed (E2E) and non-employed co-move at the cross-country level.

It has been well documented that job flows from unemployment to employment and vice versa are highly correlated (Hobijn and Şahin, 2009; Elsby and Michaels, 2013; Jung and Kuhn, 2019). The top row of Figure 3 shows that job finding rates for the employed (E2E) and the non-employed are also strongly positively correlated, a pattern that also holds when considering only the pre-COVID period in the LFS (Appendix Figure A2): countries with more dynamic labor markets, characterized by higher job finding rates among the non-employed, also feature higher E2E transition rates, suggesting that common factors drive both. To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to document this relationship, although

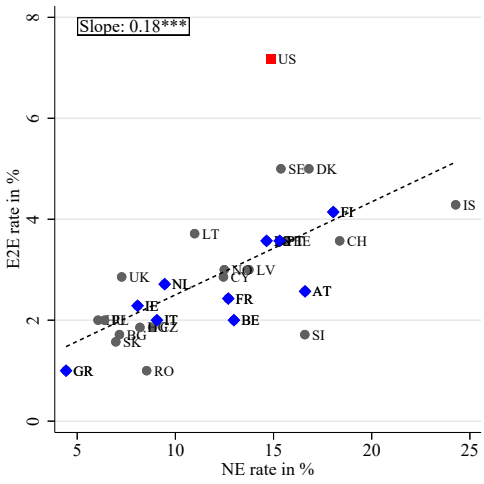
Figure 3: On-the-Job Search and Job Finding Rates

Job Finding Rates (E2E vs. NE)

(a) EXPS (2022 onwards)

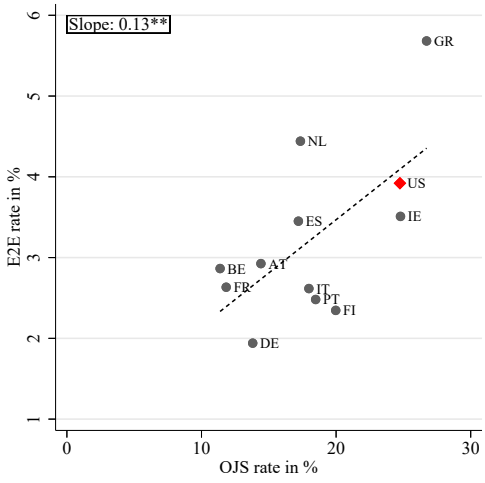


(b) LFS (2014-2019)

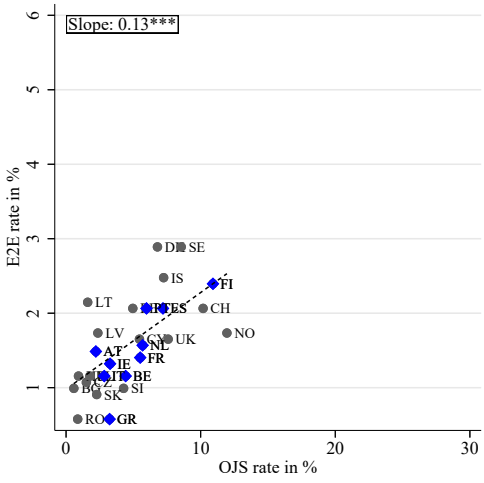


Job Finding (E2E) vs. On-the-Job Search (OJS)

(c) EXPS (2022 onwards)

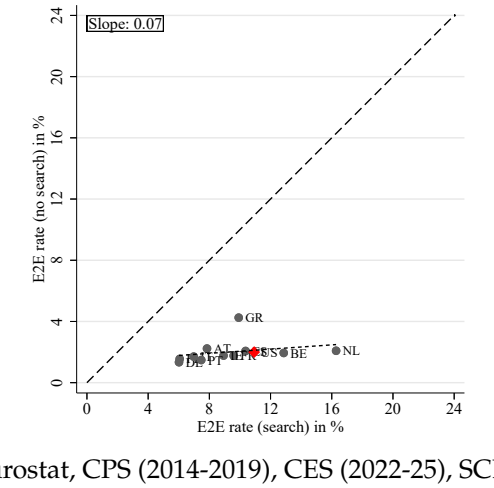


(d) LFS (2014-2019)

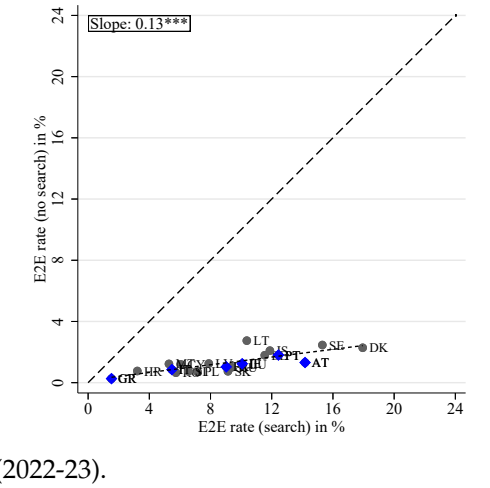


Job Finding (E2E) by On-the-Job Search (OJS) Status

(e) EXPS (2022 onwards)



(f) LFS (2014-2019)



Sources: Eurostat, CPS (2014-2019), CES (2022-25), SCE (2022-23).

Table 7: Coefficient of Variation of E2E Rates by Search Status

E2E Rate of	EXP (2022 onwards)	LFS (2014-2019)
Searchers	3.05	2.25
Non-Searchers	2.72	1.98
Ratio	1.12	1.14

it could have been inferred using data from Donovan et al. (2023).

From a theoretical perspective, this correlation could reflect higher matching efficiencies in these labor markets, enabling both employed and non-employed individuals to find jobs more easily. Alternatively, it could stem from differences in job acceptance behavior: in countries where the non-employed are more willing to accept a wider range of jobs - including potentially weaker matches - they may be more likely to engage in rapid job-to-job mobility, contributing to higher E2E rates.

The middle row of Figure 3 reveals a significant positive cross-country correlation between OJS and E2E rates, consistent across datasets despite level differences. This correlation may arise because easier job transitions encourage more workers to engage in OJS, and/or because increased OJS leads to higher E2E transitions. While our data do not allow us to disentangle these mechanisms, they establish an important stylized fact that can inform models of on-the-job search.

In the bottom row of Figure 3, we observe a positive relationship between E2E rates of searchers and non-searchers across countries. While this relationship is not statistically significant in the EXPS, it remains consistent with patterns observed in the LFS. Notably, the variation in E2E rates among job searchers is substantially larger than that of non-searchers in both surveys, even after accounting for level differences, as detailed in Table 7.

Appendix Figure A3 extends this analysis to the non-employed, showing positive but smaller (and non-significant) correlations compared to the employed. An exception is the correlation between job finding rates of searchers and non-searchers among the non-employed in labor force surveys, which is higher than that of the employed (0.32 vs. 0.12). These findings suggest that while job search plays a crucial role in employment transitions, its impact varies across employment status.

Overall, our analysis underscores the interconnectedness of job search behavior and employment transitions across different labor markets.

5 Individual Determinants of OJS and Job Transitions

In the previous section, we documented that countries with higher OJS rates also exhibit higher E2E rates. In this section, we examine whether, at the individual level, OJS is associated with a higher likelihood of job transitions. Before doing so, we take a step back to identify key predictors of OJS, exploring which factors are systematically correlated with the likelihood of searching while employed.

Our analysis focuses on the EXPS data and the post-COVID period, as the EXPS offer broader coverage of individual-level variables predicted by OJS theories. In the appendix, we demonstrate that these findings also hold in the EULFS for Italy and France, the two largest EU economies with panel data, for the pre-COVID period. We emphasize that our analysis is descriptive, and while we do not claim causal interpretations, the observed correlations still provide valuable insights into the underlying structural relationships.

For now, we restrict our sample to the six largest euro area countries - Germany, France, Italy, Spain, the Netherlands, and Belgium - along with the United States from 2021 onward.[11] In future iterations of this draft, we will extend our analysis to include the remaining five CES countries, for which data are available starting in Q2 2022.

5.1 On-the-Job Search

Table 8 presents estimates from regressions of the probability of engaging in OJS on demographic and job-related characteristics, conducted separately for each country. All specifications include date fixed effects, and we also estimate a pooled regression for the six largest euro area countries, adding country fixed effects to control for cross-country differences.

We first examine the role of demographics in explaining OJS. Across most countries, OJS decreases with age, with the exception of Belgium, Germany and France, where the relationship is not significant. To facilitate comparability with binary regressors, we normalize age by subtracting the mean and dividing by 10. As an example, in the US, being 10 years older is associated with a 2 percentage point lower probability of engaging in OJS, whereas in Europe (pooled regression), the decline is only 1 percentage point. This finding aligns with Faberman et al. (2022) for the US and Kaas et al. (2024) for Germany, and is consistent with standard search theory: older workers are more likely to have found a good match, and the returns to job search decline as the expected duration of a match shortens approaching retirement.

[11] For the US, we also include data from 2018 and 2019 to increase sample size, as key macroeconomic aggregates during those years were broadly in line with the post-2021 period.

Table 8: Job search probability for the Employed

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Characteristics								
Age/10	0.01**	-0.01	-0.01***	0.01*	-0.01***	-0.02***	-0.02**	-0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Female	0.00	-0.02**	0.02***	0.00	-0.03***	-0.05***	-0.03***	-0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tertiary	0.01	0.02***	0.01	-0.00	-0.00	0.03***	0.02***	0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Partner in HH	0.00	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.00	-0.02**	-0.01	-0.05***	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (0-5)	0.02	0.02*	-0.02***	0.03***	-0.03***	0.03*	-0.02	0.01
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (6-17)	0.00	0.03***	-0.01**	-0.00	-0.01**	0.03**	0.00	0.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Part-time	0.04***	0.05***	0.13***	0.07***	0.12***	0.02	0.13***	0.08***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Tenure								
<1Y	0.03	-0.01	0.00	0.04***	0.01	0.06***	-0.04**	0.02***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)
3-5Y	-0.03*	-0.04***	-0.07***	-0.02*	-0.01	-0.03*	-0.02	-0.03***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)
5-10Y	-0.06***	-0.08***	-0.07***	-0.04***	-0.03***	-0.08***	-0.06***	-0.06***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
>10Y	-0.10***	-0.09***	-0.13***	-0.07***	-0.07***	-0.10***	-0.12***	-0.09***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Job loss exp.	0.38***	0.49***	0.42***	0.42***	0.47***	0.47***	0.23***	0.46***
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.01)
Constant	0.12***	0.17***	0.24***	0.12***	0.23***	0.14***	0.34***	0.14***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	7187	17686	24972	20716	24456	6805	11776	101822
R2	0.09	0.09	0.15	0.08	0.11	0.12	0.04	0.10

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job search of employed workers. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Gender differences in OJS are less uniform. In four out of our 7 countries, women are less likely to engage in OJS, while in Spain it is the opposite. Tertiary education is associated with higher OJS rates, while having a partner in the household tends to reduce OJS probability. However, we find no consistent pattern regarding the presence of children, suggesting that family responsibilities alone do not systematically drive differences in search behavior.

The strongest and most consistent patterns emerge for job-related characteristics. Part-time workers are substantially more likely to engage in OJS than full-time workers. This effect is large and highly significant across countries, except in the Netherlands, where part-time employment has the highest prevalence among our countries.

Job tenure is negatively associated with OJS, consistent with predictions from on-the-job search models. However, we acknowledge that tenure is likely endogenous, as unobserved individual and job characteristics may influence both tenure and job search, much like tenure in wage regressions (Altonji and Shakotko, 1987). While we control for some observable job characteristics, mitigating part of this endogeneity, our panel length is insufficient to implement Altonji's (1987) instrumental variable approach. Notably, when we exclude tenure from the regression, the coefficients on age increase significantly, reflecting the strong correlation between age and tenure, and the negative age effect becomes significant in Belgium, Germany and France (Appendix Table A2).

Similarly, job loss expectations strongly predict OJS, in line with search theory and prior empirical work (Fujita, 2012). Higher perceived job loss risk increases search intensity, consistent with precautionary job search motives. This relationship is well-established in the literature: for example, job loss expectations have been shown to strongly predict actual job loss, as demonstrated by Kuchler and Zafar (2019) for the SCE and Dias da Silva et al. (2023) for the CES. In our data, a 10 percentage point increase in job loss expectations is associated with a 4.6 percentage point increase in OJS probability in the pooled European sample. Across individual European countries, the estimated effect ranges from 0.38 to 0.49, with the smallest effect observed in the US (0.23). Figure A4 provides additional distributional moments of job loss expectations, conditional on search status.

In summary, demographic characteristics play a minor role in driving OJS, whereas job-related factors - particularly part-time status, low tenure, and high job loss expectations - are strong predictors of search activity. These findings reinforce theoretical predictions and highlight the importance of job security and employment conditions in shaping on-the-job search behavior.

Table 9: Job finding probability for the Employed

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Search status								
Job Search	0.02	-0.01**	0.01	0.01	-0.00	-0.01	0.05***	0.00
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Applications Sent	0.07**	0.06***	0.03**	0.05***	0.04***	0.15***	0.07***	0.05***
	(0.03)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Characteristics								
Age/10	0.01**	-0.00**	0.00	-0.00	-0.01***	-0.01**	-0.01*	-0.00**
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Female	-0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01*	0.00
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tertiary	-0.01**	0.00	-0.00	-0.00	0.00	0.01	-0.01	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Partner in HH	-0.00	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.02**	-0.00	-0.00*
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (0-5)	-0.00	0.00	0.01*	0.02**	-0.01	-0.03***	0.00	0.00*
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (6-17)	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Part-time	-0.00	-0.01**	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Tenure								
<1Y	0.13***	0.07***	0.07***	0.08***	0.06***	0.04***	0.04**	0.07***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
3-5Y	-0.01	-0.01**	-0.03***	-0.01**	-0.01*	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
5-10Y	-0.02**	-0.01***	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.02**	-0.03***	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
>10Y	-0.03***	-0.01**	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.03***	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Job loss exp.	0.05**	0.07***	0.08***	0.05**	0.06***	0.06*	-0.03	0.07***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Constant	0.04***	0.01*	0.03***	0.02***	0.03***	0.00	0.03*	0.03***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	4903	12248	18333	14511	18488	4708	5876	73191
R2	0.12	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.05	0.07

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job finding of employed workers. "No Job Search" are the numeraire for the job search status variable. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

5.2 Job Finding (E2E) Rates

Table 9 presents regression results for the probability of finding a job in the next quarter, conditional on demographics and job characteristics in the current quarter. In addition to these controls, we include a job search dummy for all searchers and an additional indicator for individuals who have actively applied for at least one job.

We find that job search alone does not significantly predict job finding probabilities with the exception of the US. However, in line with Table 5, job searchers who have submitted at least one application transition to new jobs at significantly higher rates than both non-searchers and searchers who have not applied for a job.

We find no consistent demographic patterns in job finding probabilities. Part-time workers are not systematically more likely to transition to a new job than full-time workers. Job tenure, however, is a strong predictor: workers with shorter tenure are significantly more likely to find a new job, confirming standard on-the-job search models.

Job loss expectations also emerge as a key driver of E2E transitions: individuals who perceive a higher probability of job loss are more likely to switch employers, a relationship that holds across most European countries but not in the US.

In Appendix Figure A5, we supplement our findings using monthly surveys to investigate whether E2E transitions involve non-employment spells. We find that only 3% (Netherlands and US) to 15% (France) of job-to-job transitions involve a period of non-employment, suggesting that most transitions are voluntary rather than forced by job loss. However, we cannot fully rule out short non-employment spells between surveys or cases where workers have secured a new job before their previous employment ends.

5.3 Comparing Results with LFS Data from France and Italy

To assess the robustness of our findings, we replicate the analysis using pre-2020 Labor Force Survey (LFS) panel data for France and Italy. The results, presented in Appendix Table A3 and Table A4, closely mirror those obtained from the EXPS. In both countries, on-the-job search (OJS) is positively associated with part-time employment, while demographic characteristics do not exhibit economically meaningful effects on job search behavior. Similarly, job tenure remains a strong negative predictor of OJS, consistent with on-the-job search models, which suggest that workers with longer tenure are more likely to be in well-matched jobs and thus less inclined to search. We note that in terms of magnitudes the effect is somewhat smaller in the LFS.

Turning to job finding probabilities, the LFS data confirm that job searchers are more

likely to transition to new jobs, reinforcing the patterns observed in the EXPS. Additionally, job finding rates decline with tenure, suggesting that workers in short-tenure jobs experience higher turnover, either due to weaker initial matches or greater mobility incentives. While the LFS results support our main findings, a key limitation of these data is that they do not include measures of job loss expectations, which we have identified as a major driver of both OJS and job transitions. This constraint prevents us from fully exploring the role of precautionary job search behavior in these markets.

Overall, these results align with previous findings in the literature. Fallick and Fleischman (2004) for the US and Fujita (2012) for the UK show that job searchers are not only more likely to switch jobs but also more likely to experience job loss in the near future. Our findings further confirm this relationship: as illustrated in Appendix Figure A6, workers with higher perceived job loss risks are more likely to engage in job search, consistent with Fujita (2012). Furthermore, our results support Fallick and Fleischman (2004), demonstrating that individuals with higher job loss expectations experience higher transition rates both to new jobs and to non-employment.

Importantly, these previous studies have not been able to directly compare job loss expectations between searchers and non-searchers. Our analysis fills this gap by showing that job searchers systematically report higher job loss fears than non-searchers. This pattern, visualized in Appendix Figure A6, provides an important empirical validation of the connection between perceived job security and job search intensity. While this relationship is intuitive, demonstrating it empirically strengthens our understanding of how job insecurity drives job search behavior and job mobility.

5.4 The Role of Job Quality

Through Q2 2023, the CES collected quarterly data on perceived job satisfaction and job skill match, allowing us to examine how job quality influences job search behavior and job transitions.[12] Tables 10a and 10b present regression results incorporating these job quality measures for the shorter sample period in which they are available. Both variables are demeaned on country level. For clarity, we only display the regression coefficients for job satisfaction and skill match in the main text, while full tables with demographic and job-related controls are provided in Appendix Tables A5 and A6. Importantly, adding these controls and shortening the sample period does not meaningfully alter the estimated coefficients for other included variables, confirming the robustness of our previous findings.

Table 10a shows that higher job satisfaction (on a discrete scale from 1 to 5) and a better skill match (on a discrete scale from 1 to 7) significantly reduce job search activity. A one step increase in pay satisfaction lowers the probability of engaging in OJS by two to six

[12] See Appendix Figure A7 and Figure A8 for the distribution of these variables by search status.

Table 10: The Effect Job Quality Variables

(a) Job Search Probability of the Employed

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Perceptions								
Pay satisfaction	-0.02***	-0.05***	-0.05***	-0.02***	-0.06***	-0.05***	-0.14***	-0.04***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Job fit	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.02***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	0.11***	0.19***	0.23***	0.12***	0.22***	0.11***	0.28***	0.13***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	4124	9806	13533	11379	13075	4030	11772	55947
R2	0.11	0.15	0.22	0.11	0.17	0.14	0.19	0.16

(b) Job Finding Probability of the Employed

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Perceptions								
Pay satisfaction	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.01***	0.00	-0.02***	-0.00**
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Job fit	-0.01*	-0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	0.04***	0.01*	0.02*	0.02**	0.02***	0.00	0.03*	0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	3188	7654	11031	9003	11105	3131	5874	45112
R2	0.10	0.05	0.08	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.06

OLS regressions on dummy of job search and job finding of employed workers, respectively. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Tables A5 and A6 show the full the results.

percentage points in Europe and by 14 percentage points in the US, relative to the constant. Similarly, a one step increase in skill match reduces OJS probability by 2-3 percentage points.

These results align with prior findings from Adams-Prassl et al. (2023) and Faberman et al. (2022), who also document a negative relationship between job satisfaction and OJS. However, when we examine job finding rates, we find hardly any meaningful impact of job satisfaction or skill match on actual job transitions (see Table 10b). This suggests that, unlike on-the-job search activity and job loss expectations, pay satisfaction and job fit do not directly influence job finding rates. Instead, their effect appears to operate entirely through their impact on job search propensity.

5.5 Connecting Individual Drivers to Aggregate OJS and E2E Patterns

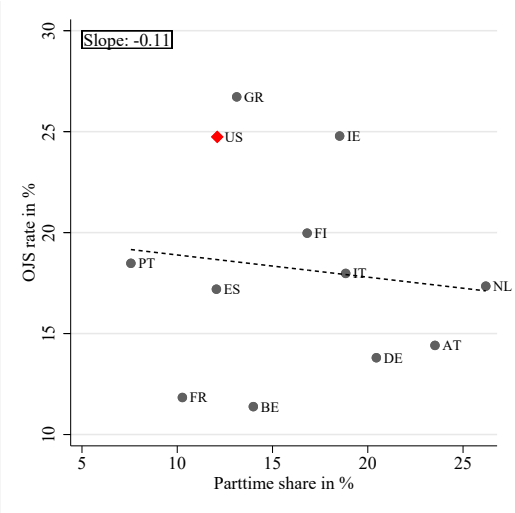
In the previous sections, we established three key facts: (i) substantial cross-country variation exists in on-the-job search (OJS) and employer-to-employer (E2E) transition rates, (ii) OJS and E2E rates are highly correlated across countries, and (iii) at the individual level, job-related factors - such as tenure, part-time status, and job loss expectations - are strong predictors of both OJS and E2E transitions. In this section, we examine whether cross-country variation in these individual-level factors is systematically related to differences in OJS rates at the aggregate level.

Neither cross-country variation in the share working part-time (Figure 4a), in job satisfaction (Figure 4d) nor in skill match (Figure 4e) display a significant correlation with OJS rates across countries. Hence, while on the individual level these are very important correlates for the probability to engage in OJS, they are not across countries. In contrast, Figure 4b shows that countries with a lower share of workers in high-tenure jobs ($>$ 3 years of tenure) exhibit higher OJS rates, consistent with the individual-level finding that tenure is negatively associated with job search. Similarly, average job loss expectations display a strong positive correlation with OJS at the country level, reinforcing our earlier result that individuals with higher perceived job loss risks are more likely to search for new jobs. Appendix Figure A9 shows the correlation for the same variables with the E2E rate instead of the OJS rate. Given the high correlations between the latter two variables, it is not surprising that the patterns discussed here for the OJS rate also apply to the E2E rate.

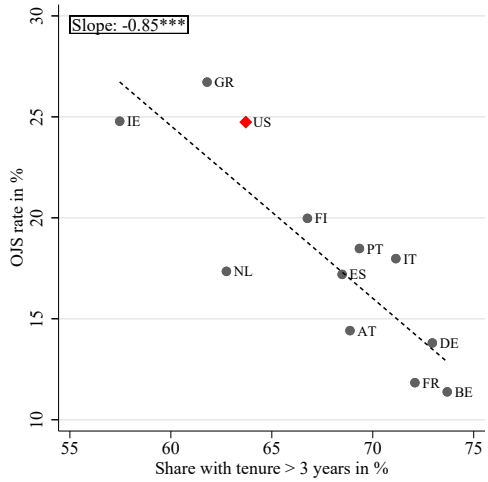
These results provide an important bridge between micro and macro evidence, suggesting that aggregate labor market mobility is strongly shaped by the distribution of key individual characteristics, particularly job tenure and job insecurity. However, further analysis is required to disentangle whether these correlations reflect causal relationships or are driven by broader labor market institutions and structural factors.

Figure 4: Cross-Country Correlations of the OJS Rate and "Aggregated" Individual Drivers

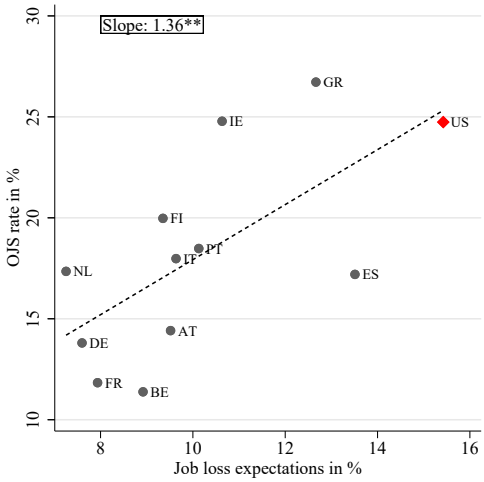
(a) Parttime rate



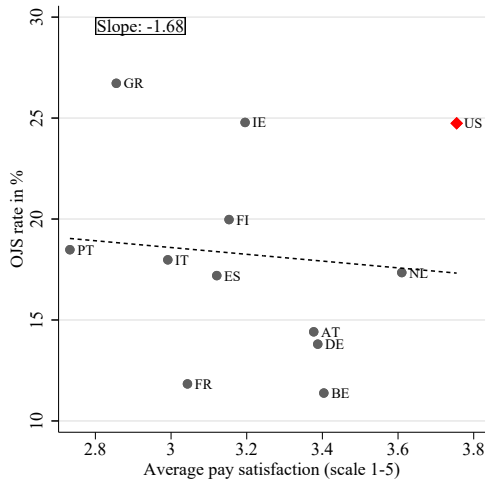
(b) Share with Tenure $>$ 3 years



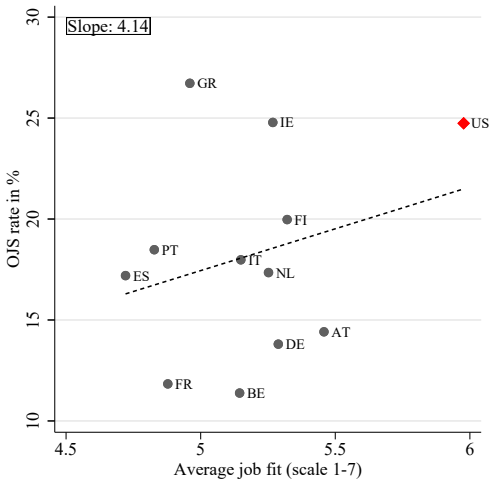
(c) Job loss expectations



(d) Pay satisfaction



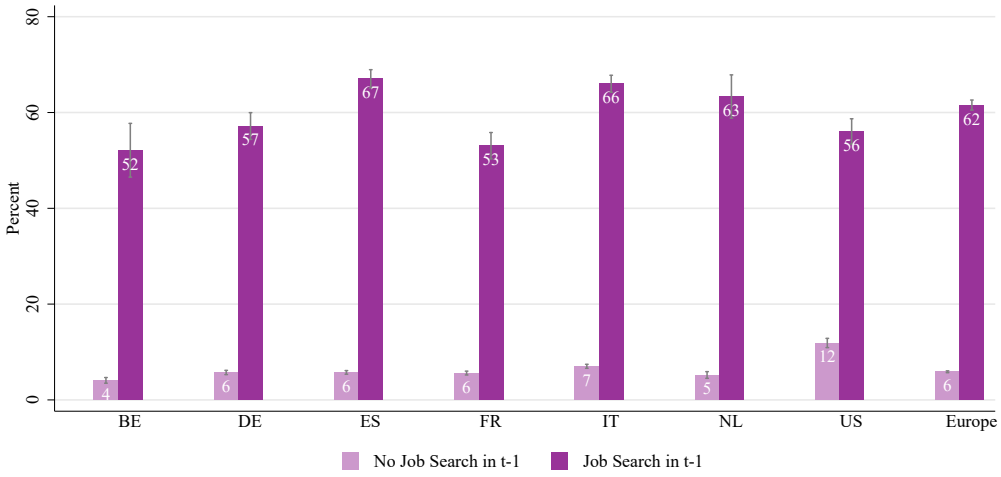
(e) Job skill match



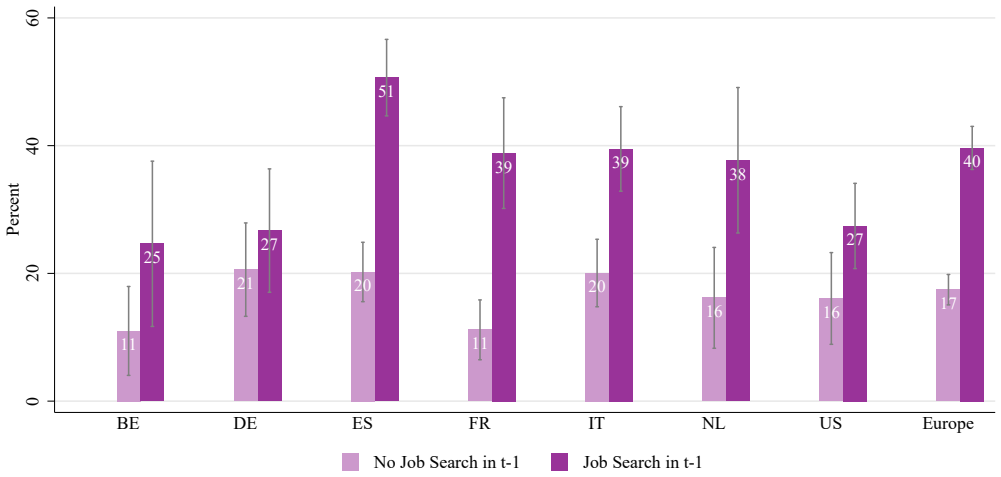
Sources: CES (2022-2025), SCE (2022-2023).

Figure 5: Job search rates in t by search status in $t-1$

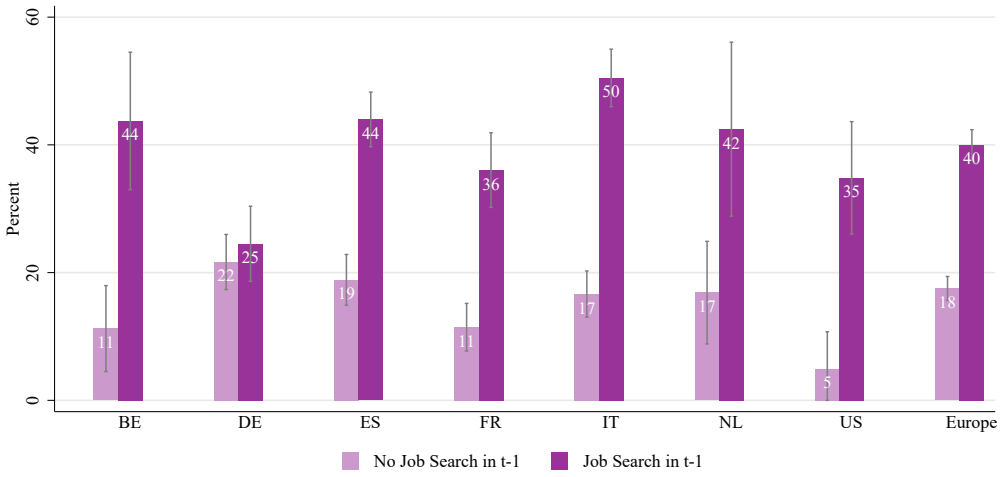
(a) Stayers: Employed in $t-1$, Same job in t



(b) Switchers: Employed in $t-1$, New job in t



(c) Starters: Non-employed in $t-1$, Employed in t



Notes: Share of searchers by past and current employment and search status. The capped spikes mark 95% confidence bands.

6 The Dynamics of Job Search

In the previous sections, we established that on-the-job search (OJS) is a strong predictor of job-to-job (E2E) transitions. In this section, we examine whether OJS itself exhibits persistence over time - that is, whether past job search behavior influences future search activity, even after employment transitions.

We begin by analyzing the probability of engaging in OJS at time t, conditional on job search status in the previous period ($t-1$). Figure Figure 5 presents these probabilities, distinguishing between three groups:

1. Job Stayers: Individuals who are employed in both periods and remain with the same employer.
2. Job Switchers: Individuals who are employed in both periods but change employers.
3. Job Starters: Individuals who were non-employed in period $t-1$ but gained employment in period t.

Persistence of OJS Among Job Stayers Figure 5a focuses on job stayers, revealing a strong persistence in job search behavior. The probability of starting to search is relatively low, ranging from 4% to 7% in Europe and 12% in the US. In contrast, the probability of continuing to search is substantially higher - above 50% in all countries, reaching 67% in Spain. These findings suggest that once workers begin searching, their search activity is more likely to persist than to stop again. Table 11a confirms that this result holds even after controlling for demographic and job-related variables, as in Table 8.

Job Search Behavior After Employer Transitions Figure 5b examines job switchers, analyzing OJS persistence in new jobs. Specifically, we measure the probability of searching in the new job (at t), conditional on whether the worker was already searching in their previous job ($t-1$).

A particularly striking result is that 25% to 51% of workers who were searching in the previous quarter and successfully found a new job, continue to search immediately upon entering their new role. This suggests that for a substantial share of job switchers, the initial job change does not fully satisfy their search objectives. Moreover, even among workers who did not previously search, 11% to 21% begin searching immediately upon entering their new job.

Regression results in Table 11b confirm that this persistence in OJS for the euro area is statistically significant in Spain, France, and Italy, countries with dual labor markets characterized by widespread temporary contracts. However, we caution that

Table 11: The Persistence of OJS

(a) Job Stayers

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Search status								
Job Search in t-1	0.44***	0.48***	0.56***	0.44***	0.54***	0.52***	0.42***	0.51***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Constant	0.08***	0.07***	0.09***	0.05***	0.08***	0.10***	0.15***	0.05***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	4614	11623	17066	13885	17377	4418	5656	68983
R2	0.24	0.28	0.40	0.24	0.37	0.36	0.22	0.33

(b) Job Switchers

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Search status								
Job Search in t-1	0.07	-0.02	0.29***	0.22***	0.17***	0.12	0.12**	0.19***
	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.08)	(0.06)	(0.02)
Constant	0.13	0.10	0.15	0.04	-0.06	0.04	0.06	-0.03
	(0.19)	(0.13)	(0.11)	(0.13)	(0.09)	(0.16)	(0.12)	(0.06)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	127	204	560	301	436	160	279	1788
R2	0.16	0.14	0.27	0.19	0.11	0.21	0.13	0.16

(c) Job Starters

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Search status								
Job Search in t-1	0.29***	0.03	0.21***	0.19***	0.28***	0.24***	0.28***	0.18***
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.09)	(0.07)	(0.02)
Constant	0.13	-0.04	0.04	0.15	0.19***	-0.01	0.06	0.11**
	(0.14)	(0.09)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.06)	(0.16)	(0.28)	(0.05)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	173	546	894	532	884	141	173	3170
R2	0.25	0.10	0.18	0.20	0.18	0.04	0.16	0.15

OLS regressions on dummy of job search and job finding of employed workers, respectively. Full tables are provided in Appendix Table A7, Table A8 and Table A9. "No Job Search" are the numeraire for the job search status variable. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

sample sizes for each country are relatively small. While we cannot directly control for temporary contract status, it seems intuitive that workers in more precarious employment arrangements are more likely to restart their job search immediately after switching employers.

Job Search Continuation Among Job Starters Figure 5c analyzes job starters, individuals who transition from non-employment to employment. The patterns observed for job switchers also hold in this group: first, a significant fraction of previously searching non-employed workers continue searching after gaining employment; second, even among those who were not actively searching in the previous period, some begin searching shortly after starting their new job. Regression estimates in Table 11c confirm that past job search activity is a strong predictor of continued search in many countries, even after controlling for demographics and job characteristics.

6.1 Job Search Intentions

The CES uniquely includes a forward-looking measure of job search intentions. Specifically, any respondent who is not actively looking for a job - including those classified as "Unemployed, interested in having a job but not actively looking" - is asked:

"What do you think is the percentage chance that within the next 3 months, you will start looking for a job?"

Respondents can provide any probability between 0 and 100 or choose "Don't know". This measure allows us to assess whether expressed search intentions translate into actual job search behavior. Figure A10 shows the distribution of search intentions for job stayers and for all employed, respectively.

To analyze whether job search intentions impact future OJS, we focus on job stayers, as they represent the most natural sample for examining whether stated intentions predict subsequent on-the-job search (OJS). To formally test this, we augment the regression in Table 12a by including lagged job search intentions as an additional explanatory variable.

We find that lagged job search intentions predict future OJS. The effect is fairly large in all countries but Belgium. In a pooled regression across all European countries, a 10 percentage point increase in job search intention is associated with a 2.1 percentage point increase in the likelihood of engaging in OJS in the next period. This finding suggests that stated intentions are not merely "cheap talk" but instead reflect meaningful underlying motivations to engage in future job search activity.

Table 12: The Role of Job Search Intentions

(a) Job Search Probability for Job Stayers

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	Europe
Search status							
Job Search in t-1	0.45***	0.48***	0.57***	0.45***	0.55***	0.52***	0.52***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Intentions in t-1	0.08**	0.22***	0.18***	0.17***	0.29***	0.22***	0.21***
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Constant	0.08***	0.07***	0.09***	0.05***	0.08***	0.09***	0.05***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	4608	11525	17037	13749	17351	4416	68686
R2	0.24	0.29	0.41	0.25	0.38	0.36	0.34

(b) Job Finding Probability

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	Europe
Search status							
Job Search	0.07***	0.03***	0.05***	0.05***	0.03***	0.10***	0.04***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Intentions	-0.03	0.01	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.03	0.00
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Constant	0.04***	0.01**	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.00	0.03***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	4902	12228	18322	14494	18478	4707	73131
R2	0.11	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.07	0.07

OLS regressions on dummy of job search and job finding of employed workers, respectively. Full tables are provided in Appendix Tables A10 and A11. "No Job Search" are the numeraire for the job search status variable. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Given that job search intentions predict subsequent OJS, a natural next question is whether these intentions also correlate with actual job transitions. To address this, we estimate Table 12b, where we analyze whether job search intentions at time t predict job finding at time $t+1$.

In this regression, we control for current job search activity, current job search intentions, and other standard covariates, focusing on all currently employed individuals, regardless of their employment status in period $t-1$.

Again, with the exception of Belgium and France, we find a positive and significant correlation between job search intentions and subsequent job finding rates. This suggests that job search intentions contain valuable information not only about future job search behavior but also about actual job mobility outcomes.

Overall, our findings indicate that job search intentions in the CES have predictive power for both future OJS and job finding rates. Individuals who express higher job search intentions are more likely to engage in OJS and are also more likely to transition to new jobs. This underscores the value of forward-looking expectations data in understanding job search behavior, further bridging the gap between survey-based labor market expectations and actual labor market outcomes.

7 Wages Growth

TBA

8 Conclusion

This paper provides the first comprehensive empirical analysis of on-the-job search (OJS) across the U.S. and Europe, using new survey data from the CES and SCE. Our findings establish several important facts about job search behavior, job mobility, and labor market dynamics that help bridge empirical evidence and theoretical models of OJS.

First, we document that OJS is widespread in Europe, confirming prior evidence for the U.S. (Faberman et al. (2022)) and showing that employed job seekers transition at significantly higher rates than their non-employed counterparts. The return to job search is systematically larger for the employed, reinforcing the role of OJS in driving job-to-job transitions and upward mobility in the job ladder.

Second, we show that countries with high job-finding rates for the non-employed also

exhibit high job-finding rates for the employed. The strong cross-country correlations between OJS, E2E transitions, and job mobility indicate that labor market fluidity shapes both voluntary and involuntary transitions. These empirical patterns suggest that models should account for heterogeneous job search behaviors across different labor markets and how institutional differences affect OJS intensity and returns.

Third, our individual-level analysis highlights key predictors of OJS. While tenure and job loss expectations play a central role, job satisfaction and skill match emerge as equally strong determinants of search intensity. These findings suggest that models of OJS and wage progression should explicitly incorporate job quality as a key state variable influencing search behavior.

Finally, we show that OJS is highly persistent, particularly among job stayers and even more so among workers who have just started a new job. This persistence implies that job transitions alone do not fully satisfy workers' search objectives, underscoring the relevance of precautionary search and job ladder mechanisms.

Taken together, our results provide new empirical moments that models of job search and job mobility should aim to replicate. In particular, our findings highlight the need to account for: the higher return to search for the employed relative to the non-employed, the persistence of search across job transitions, the role of job quality in shaping search intensity, and the strong correlation between non-employment and E2E job-finding rates across countries. By systematically comparing OJS across countries and datasets, we contribute to the literature on job search, labor market efficiency, and wage progression. Our findings emphasize the need for models to incorporate job quality, search persistence, and cross-country variation to better capture observed job search behaviors and job mobility patterns.

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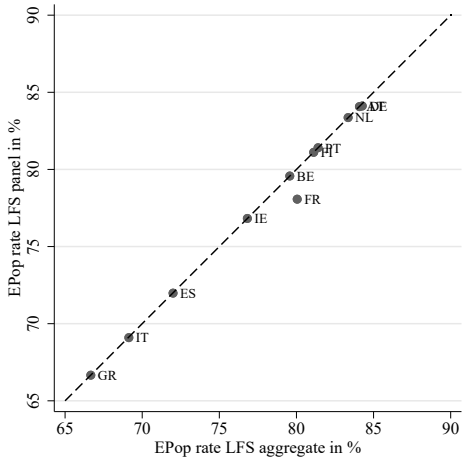
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Appendix

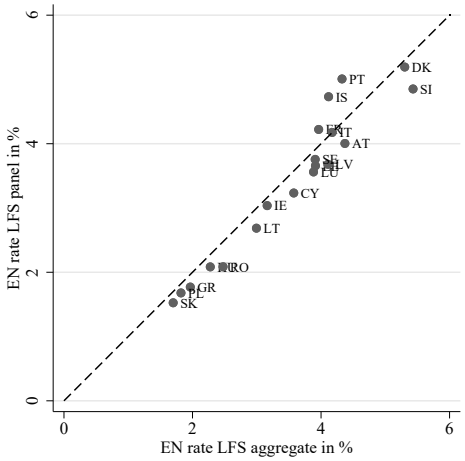
A.1 Figures

Figure A1: Comparison of labor market flows between EULFS and Eurostat aggregate data

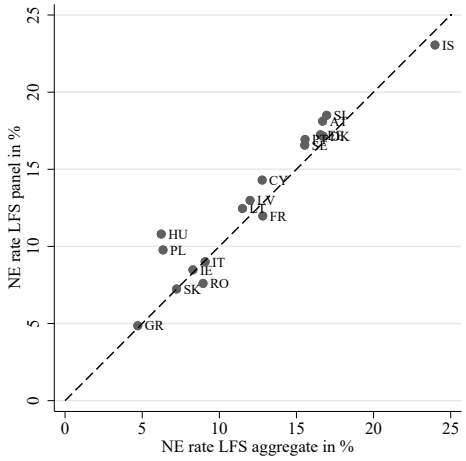
(a) Employment Population Ratio



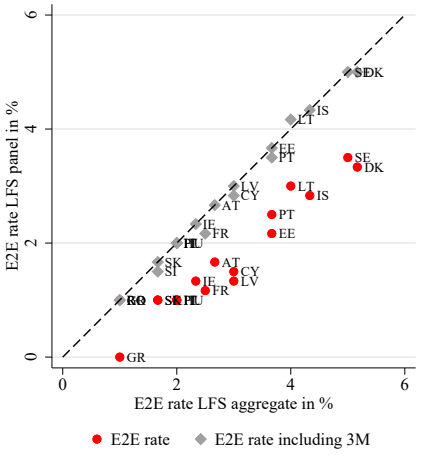
(b) EN rate



(c) NE rate

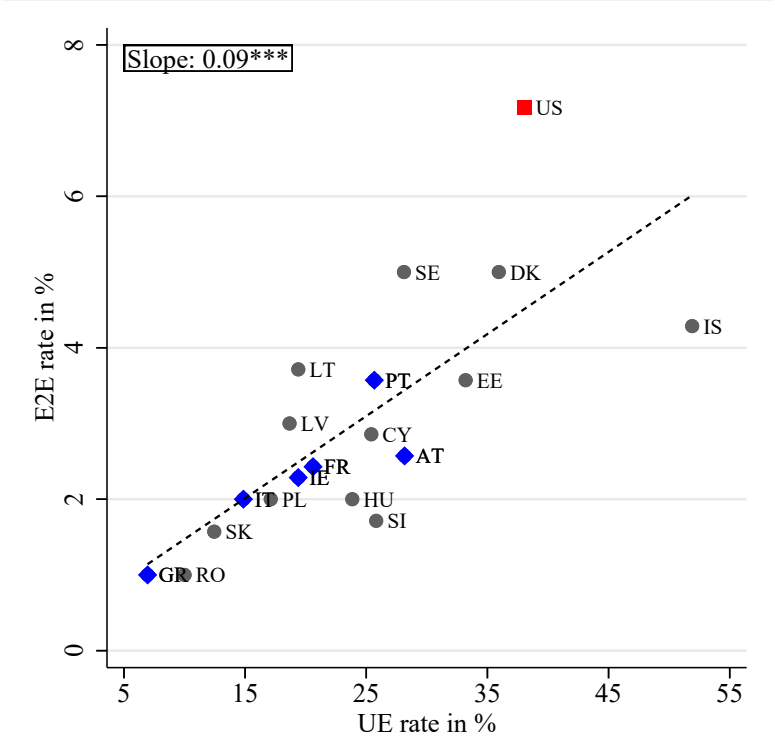


(d) E2E rate



Notes: In Figure A1b we use the age range 18-74 rather than 25-54, because Eurostat does not release the necessary information for the more restricted age range. In Figure A1d we construct two different rates for the E2E rate based on the micto data. The gray diamonds use the three months as a cut-off for an E2E transitions, while the red circles use two months as a cut-off. In each case, E2E rates rounded to zero digits for each year and country as in the Eurostat release. The three months cut-off leads to an almost perfect match with the rates released by Eurostat. Conceptually, however the two months cut-off is more plausible: the LFS record the month a job started, hence a tenure of three months includes individuals who began their job exactly three months ago.

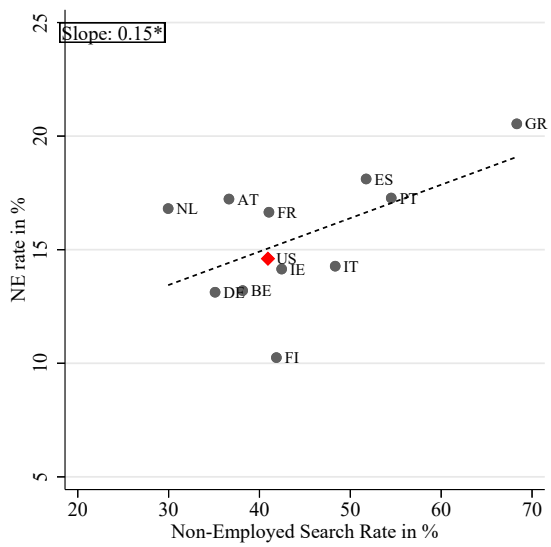
Figure A2: Job Finding Rates of Unemployed



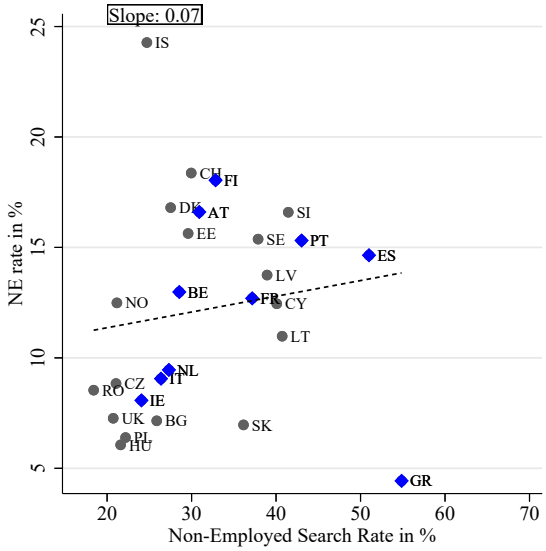
Sources: Eurostat (2014-2019). Note: "UE rates" are job finding rates of unemployed workers.

Figure A3: Job Search and Job Finding Rates of Non-Employed

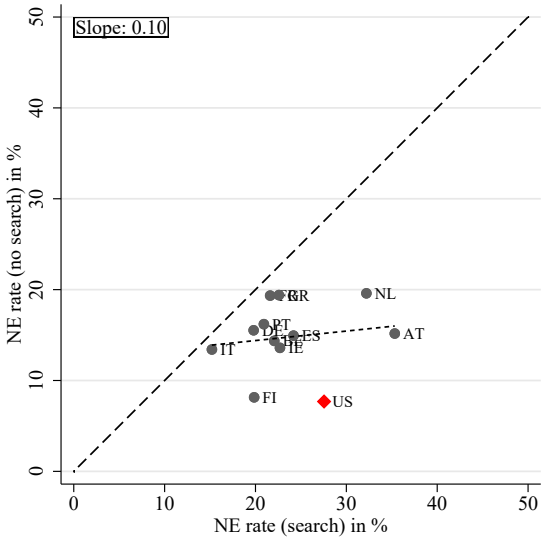
(a) CES/SCE (after 2021)



(b) LFS (till 2019)



(c) CES/SCE (after 2021)



(d) LFS (till 2019)

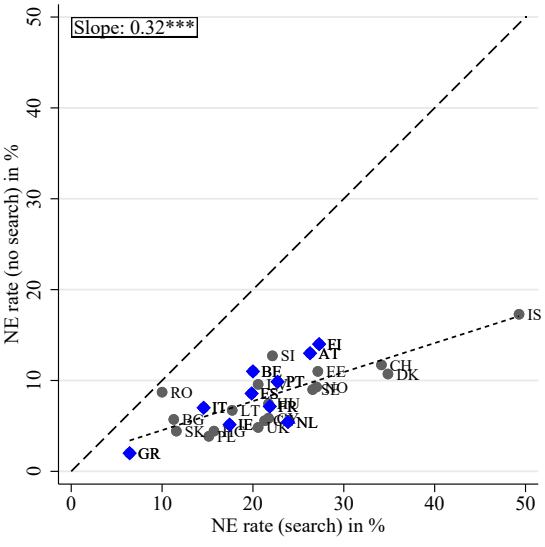
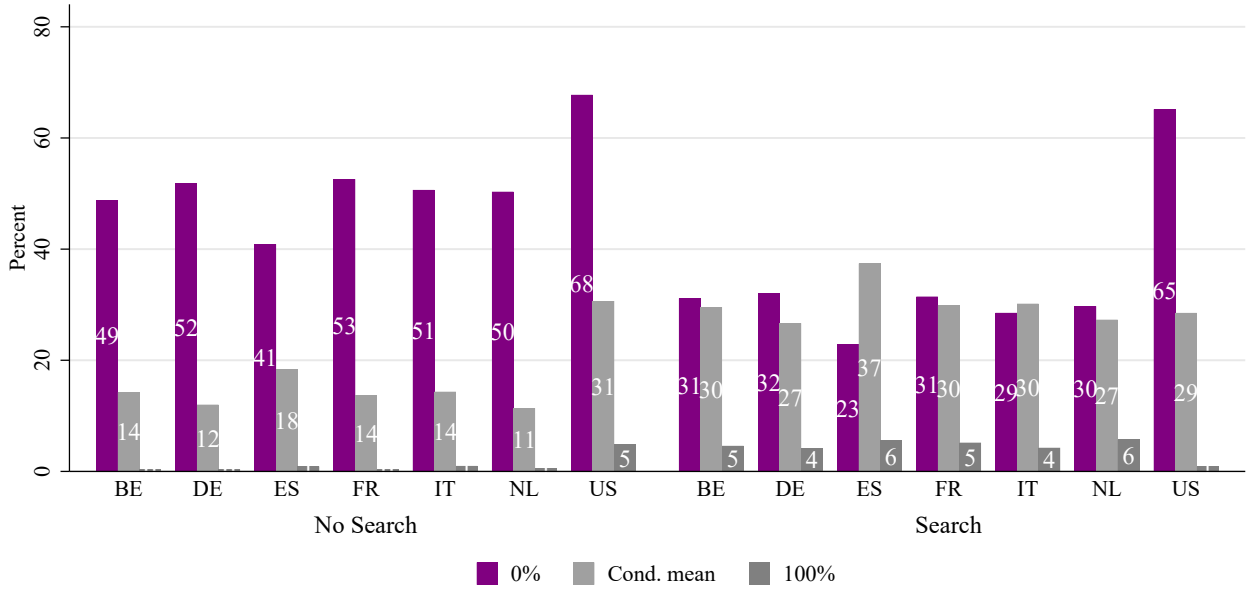
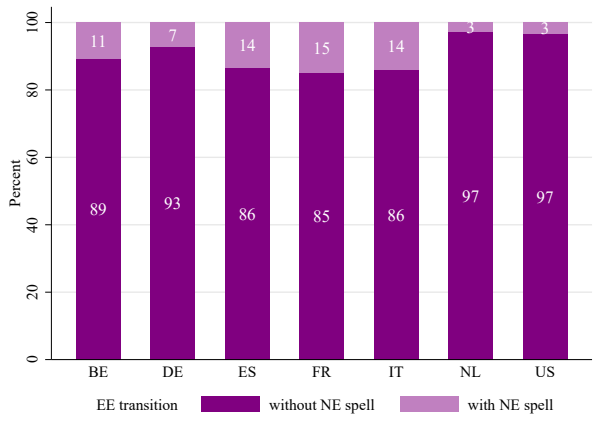


Figure A4: Distribution of Job Loss Expectations



Notes: Share of workers replying that they have 0% and 100% of job loss expectations, respectively, by country and search status. Conditional means are conditional on having non-zero job search intentions.

Figure A5: Share of E2E Transitions with/without NE Spell



Notes: Share of workers with quarterly job-to-job transitions who had at least one non-employment spell between the two employment spells. Monthly data on the employment status of workers in the CES is only available since April 2022. The capped spikes mark 95% confidence bands.

Figure A6: Job Loss Expectations

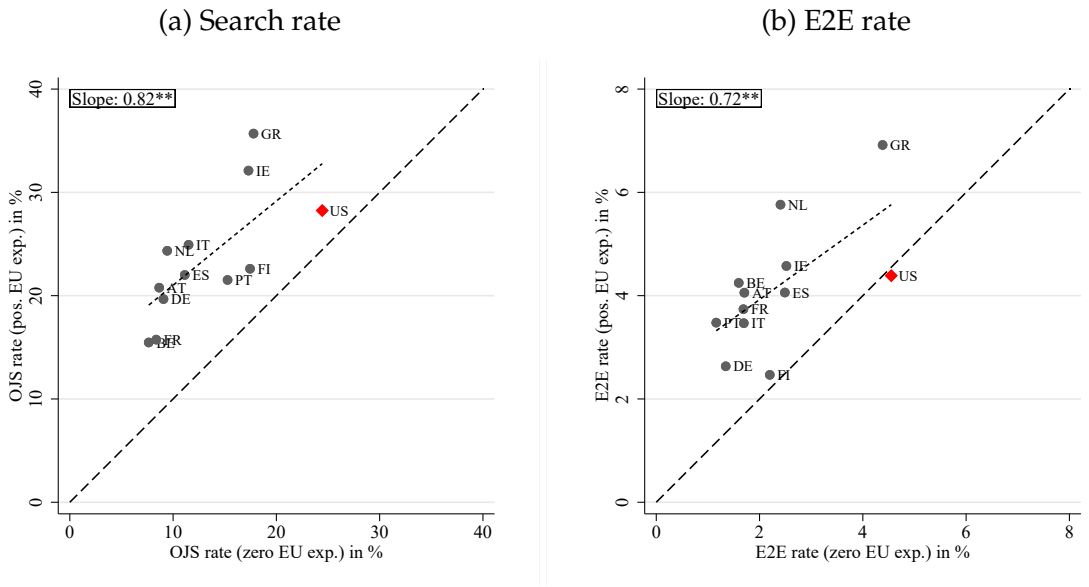
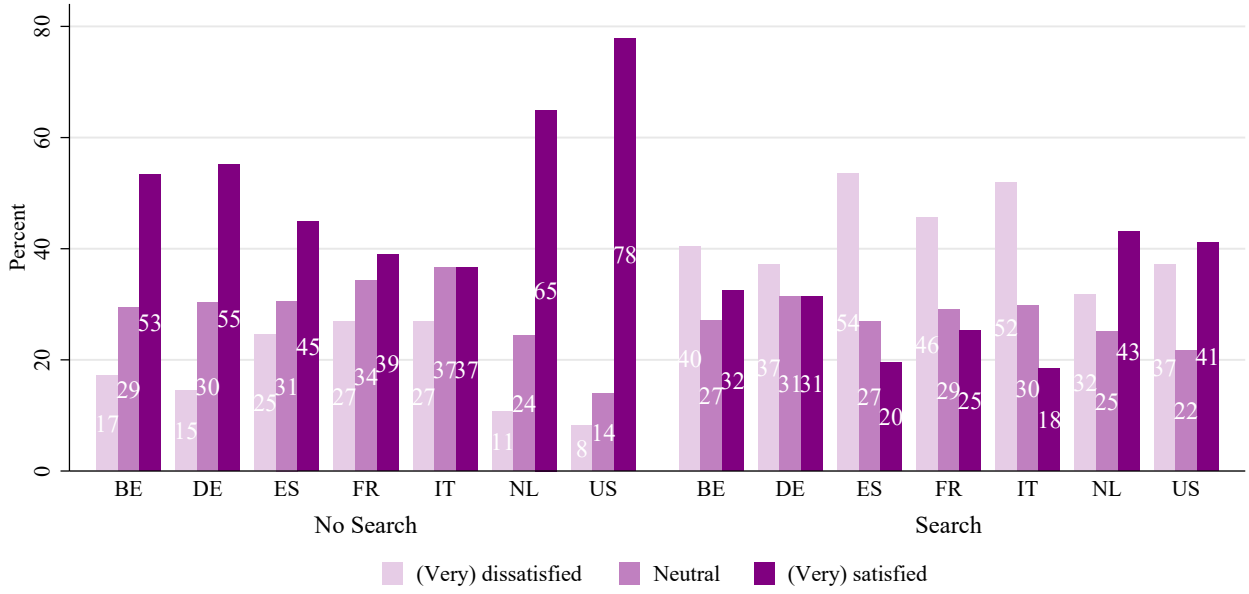
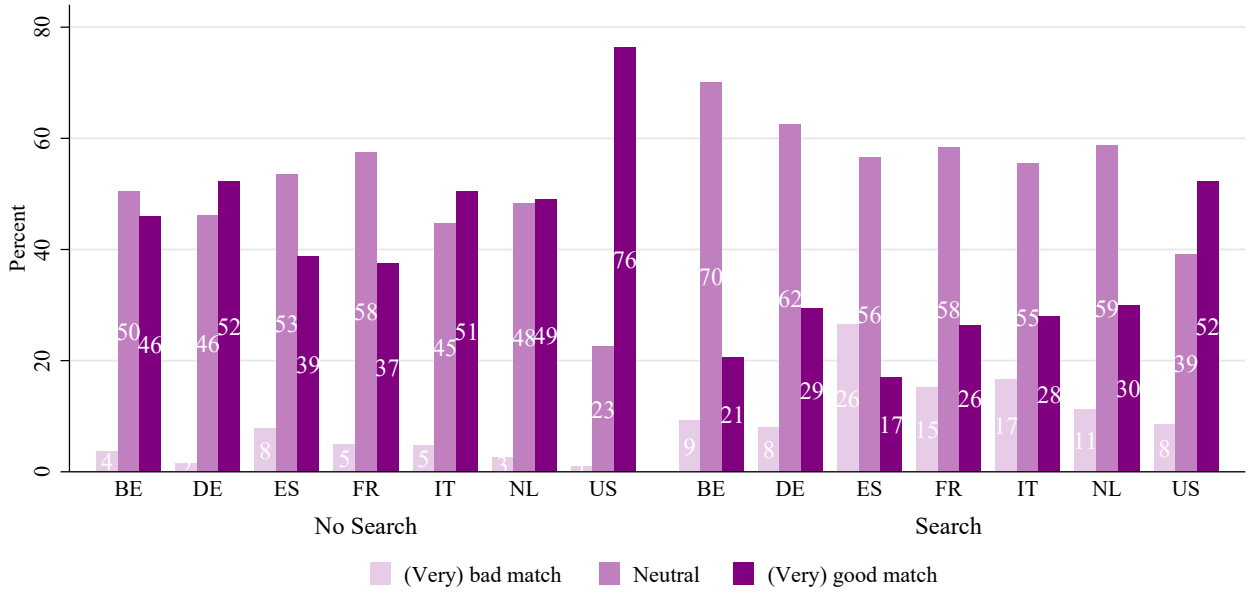


Figure A7: Distribution of Pay Satisfaction



Notes: (Very) dissatisfied are workers reporting one of the two lowest satisfaction levels and (very) satisfied are workers reporting one of the two highest satisfaction levels.

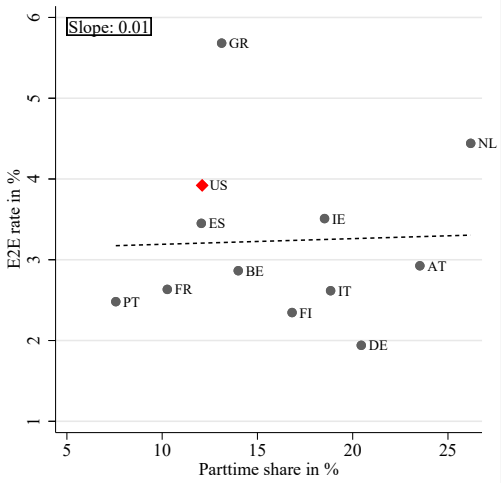
Figure A8: Distribution of Job Skill Match



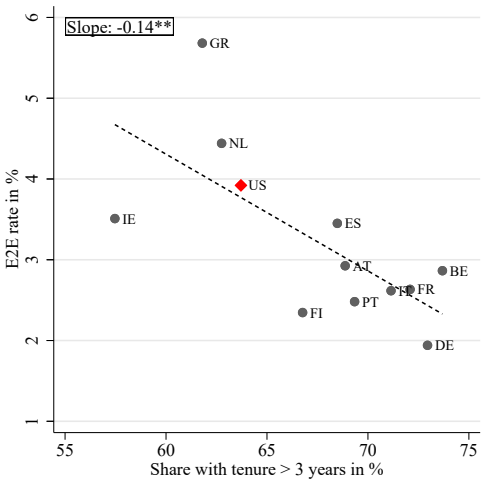
Notes: (Very) bad match are workers reporting one of the two lowest skill match levels and (very) good match are workers reporting one of the two highest skill match levels.

Figure A9: Cross-Country Correlations of the E2E Rate and "Aggregated" Individual Drivers

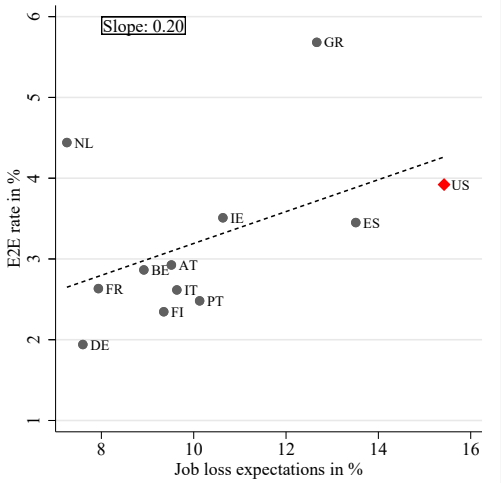
(a) Parttime rate



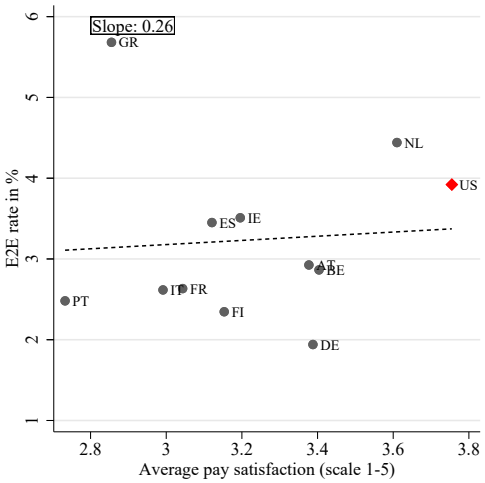
(b) Share with Tenure > 3 years



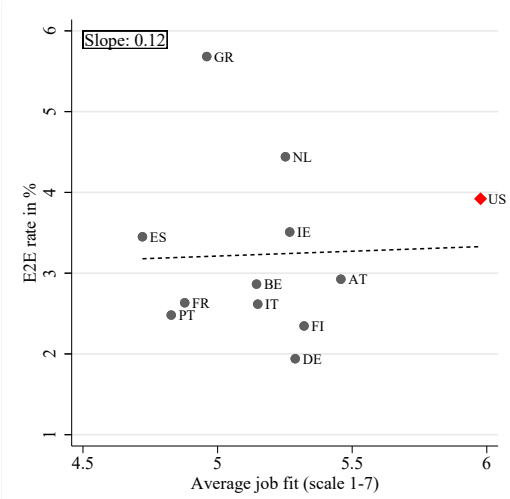
(c) Job loss expectations



(d) Pay satisfaction



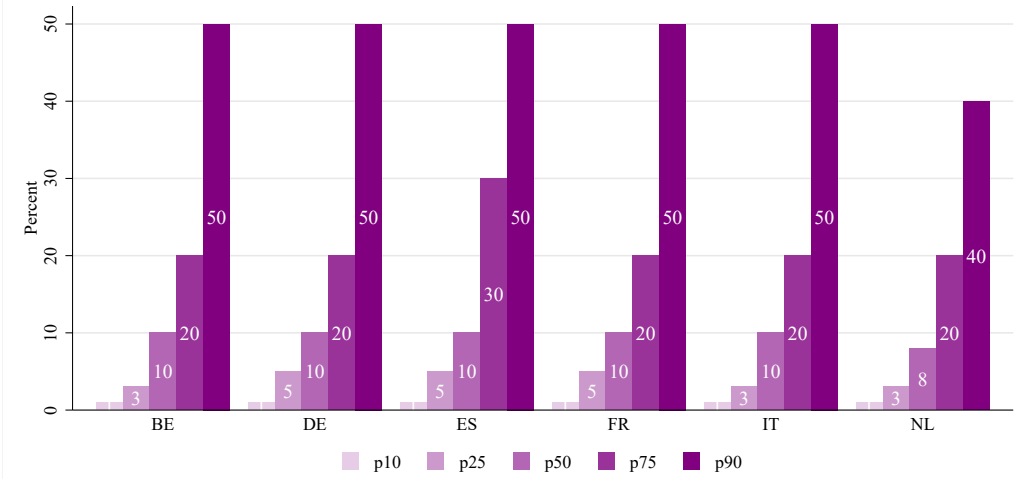
(e) Job skill match



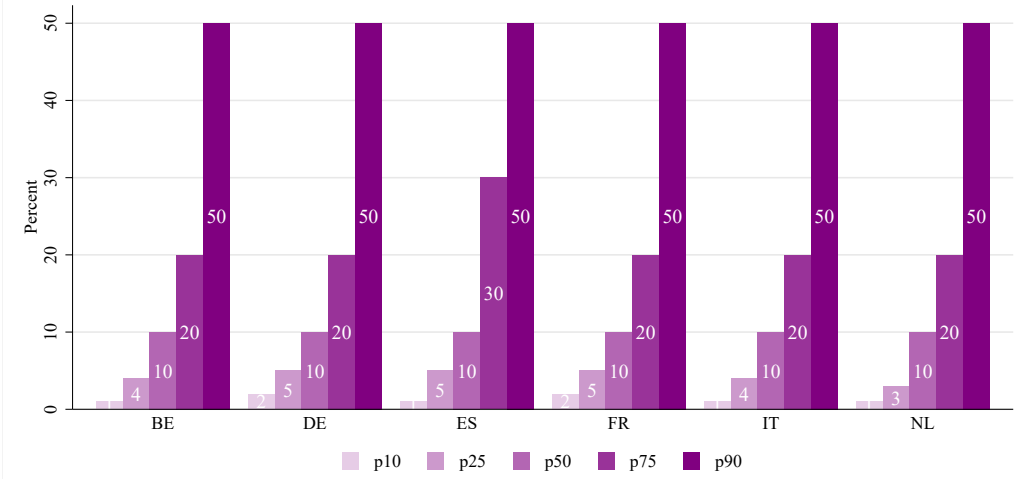
Sources: CES (2022-2025), SCE (2022-2023).

Figure A10: Histogram of search intentions

(a) Employed - Stayers only



(b) Employed



Notes: Percentiles of search intention distribution by country and employment status conditional on having non-zero job search intentions.

A.2 Tables

Table A1: Job Search in the Annual Modules of the EXPS: US vs. Europe

	United States		*Europe*			
	SCE		CES Core	CES All	EULFS Core	
Variable	2013-19	2021	2023-24	2023-24	2013-19	2021-23
Share of Employed Searchers						
All Searchers	22.7	21.3	17.7	18.5	5.8	8.6
Searchers who sent application	17.1	14.6	10.5	11.1	2.8	-
Active Searchers	20.1	18.2	17.0	16.7	5.3	-
Share of Non-Employed Searchers						
All Searchers	28.3	41.3	36.4	37.5	33.4	30.5
Searchers who sent application	25.5	36.7	17.3	18.7	20.1	-
Active Searchers	27.6	37.6	31.3	32.6	32.4	29.9
Unemployed	26.0	33.5	-	-	32.1	27.8

Notes: For the CES, "Searchers who sent applications" are searchers who reply "Responded to or placed a job advertisement (either online or in print)", "Direct application to an employer" or "Responded to a public recruitment campaign" as means of job search. "Active Searchers" are all searchers who use any mean but "Another method".

Table A2: Job search probability for the Employed - No tenure

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Characteristics								
Age/10	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.03***	-0.01***	-0.03***	-0.04***	-0.03***	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Female	-0.00	-0.02***	0.02***	0.01	-0.03***	-0.06***	-0.04***	-0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tertiary	0.01	0.03***	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.02**	0.03***	0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Partner in HH	0.00	-0.03***	-0.03***	-0.00	-0.02***	-0.01	-0.05***	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (0-5)	0.01	0.01	-0.02**	0.03***	-0.03***	0.01	-0.02*	0.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (6-17)	-0.00	0.02***	-0.02***	-0.00	-0.02***	0.03***	-0.00	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Part-time	0.05***	0.06***	0.16***	0.08***	0.13***	0.02**	0.14***	0.09***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Job loss exp.	0.42***	0.56***	0.47***	0.48***	0.49***	0.55***	0.24***	0.51***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.01)
Constant	0.07***	0.11***	0.17***	0.09***	0.19***	0.11***	0.29***	0.09***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	7740	19828	27142	23792	26498	7403	11803	112403
R2	0.07	0.08	0.13	0.08	0.10	0.09	0.03	0.10

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job search of employed workers. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

Table A3: Job search probability for the Employed (LFS data)

	FR	IT
Characteristics		
Age/10	-0.00***	-0.00***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Female	-0.00***	-0.01***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Tertiary	0.01***	0.01***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Partner	-0.01***	-0.01***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Child (0-4)	-0.00***	-0.00***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Child (5-14)	-0.00	-0.00***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Part-time	0.05***	0.05***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Tenure		
<1Y	0.04***	0.03***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
3-5Y	-0.01***	-0.01***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
5-10Y	-0.02***	-0.02***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
>10Y	-0.03***	-0.03***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	0.06***	0.05***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Date FE		
N	856749	880497
R2	0.03	0.03

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job search of employed workers using LFS panel data (2013-2019). All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

Table A4: Job finding probability for the Employed (LFS data)

	FR	IT
Search status		
Job Search	0.05***	0.03***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Applications Sent	0.04***	0.01
	(0.00)	(0.01)
Characteristics		
Age/10	-0.00***	-0.00***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Female	-0.00***	-0.00**
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Tertiary	-0.00***	0.00**
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Partner	0.00***	-0.00
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Child (0-4)	-0.00***	-0.00
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Child (5-14)	-0.00***	-0.00
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Part-time	-0.00***	0.00**
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Tenure		
<1Y	0.04***	0.02***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
3-5Y	-0.00***	-0.01***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
5-10Y	-0.01***	-0.01***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
>10Y	-0.01***	-0.01***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	0.01***	0.02***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Date FE		
N	475558	297140
R2	0.04	0.02

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job finding of employed workers using LFS panel data (2013-2019). "No Job Search" are the numeraire for the job search status variable. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Table A5: Job search probability for the Employed - including job quality controls

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Characteristics								
Age/10	0.01**	-0.00	-0.03***	0.01**	-0.02***	-0.01	-0.01**	-0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Female	0.00	-0.02***	0.01*	0.01	-0.05***	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tertiary	0.01	0.03***	0.01	-0.00	-0.01*	0.03***	0.03***	0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Partner in HH	0.02*	-0.03***	-0.00	0.01*	0.00	0.02	-0.02**	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (0-5)	0.02	0.05***	-0.02	0.04***	-0.02*	0.03*	-0.00	0.02***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Child (6-17)	0.01	0.03***	-0.00	-0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01**
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Part-time	0.01	0.04***	0.11***	0.07***	0.10***	0.02	0.09***	0.07***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Tenure								
<1Y	0.03	-0.03	0.02	0.06***	0.04**	0.04	-0.01	0.03***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)
3-5Y	-0.02	-0.06***	-0.10***	-0.03**	-0.01	-0.04*	-0.01	-0.05***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)
5-10Y	-0.06***	-0.11***	-0.07***	-0.06***	-0.05***	-0.05**	-0.05***	-0.07***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
>10Y	-0.10***	-0.11***	-0.12***	-0.07***	-0.07***	-0.07***	-0.10***	-0.09***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Job loss exp.	0.29***	0.41***	0.36***	0.38***	0.41***	0.45***	0.01	0.40***
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Pay satisfaction	-0.02***	-0.05***	-0.05***	-0.02***	-0.06***	-0.05***	-0.14***	-0.04***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Job fit	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.02***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	0.11***	0.19***	0.23***	0.12***	0.22***	0.11***	0.28***	0.13***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	4124	9806	13533	11379	13075	4030	11772	55947
R2	0.11	0.15	0.22	0.11	0.17	0.14	0.19	0.16

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job search of employed workers. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

Table A6: Job finding probability for the Employed - including job quality controls

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Search status								
Job Search	0.04	-0.02***	0.01	0.04	0.00	-0.00	0.03**	0.00
	(0.03)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
Applications Sent	0.06	0.06***	0.03*	0.01	0.03	0.12***	0.06***	0.04***
	(0.05)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Characteristics								
Age/10	0.01*	-0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01***	-0.01*	-0.01*	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Female	0.00	-0.00	0.01**	0.00	-0.00	0.01	0.01*	0.00
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tertiary	-0.01*	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.00
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Partner in HH	0.00	-0.00	-0.01	-0.00	0.00	0.01	-0.00	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (0-5)	0.01	0.00	0.01*	0.00	-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (6-17)	-0.01	-0.00	-0.01***	-0.00	-0.01*	-0.01**	-0.00	-0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Part-time	-0.01	-0.00	-0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.02	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Tenure								
<1Y	0.12***	0.06***	0.08***	0.06***	0.07***	0.03*	0.04***	0.07***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)
3-5Y	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02***	-0.01*	0.00	-0.02	-0.02	-0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
5-10Y	-0.02*	-0.01	-0.02***	-0.01	-0.01**	-0.02*	-0.03***	-0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
>10Y	-0.03***	-0.01	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.01*	-0.02**	-0.03***	-0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Job loss exp.	0.01	0.06***	0.07***	0.03	0.04***	0.11***	-0.05	0.05***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Pay satisfaction	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.01***	0.00	-0.02***	-0.00**
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Job fit	-0.01*	-0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	0.04***	0.01*	0.02*	0.02**	0.02***	0.00	0.03*	0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	3188	7654	11031	9003	11105	3131	5874	45112
R2	0.10	0.05	0.08	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.06

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job finding of employed workers. "No intention" are the numeraire for the job search status variable. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Table A7: Job search probability - Employed in $t-1$ and t

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Search status								
Job Search in t-1	0.44***	0.48***	0.56***	0.44***	0.54***	0.52***	0.42***	0.51***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Characteristics								
Age/10	0.01	0.00	-0.01**	0.00	-0.01***	-0.00	-0.02**	-0.00**
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Female	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.01*	-0.02***	-0.01	-0.02*	-0.00*
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tertiary	0.01	0.01**	0.02***	0.00	0.00	0.02**	0.02*	0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Partner in HH	-0.01	-0.01**	-0.02**	0.01	-0.00	0.01	-0.01	-0.01**
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (0-5)	0.01	0.00	-0.02**	0.01	-0.02**	-0.00	-0.03*	-0.01
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Child (6-17)	0.01	0.01**	-0.01***	-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.02	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Part-time	0.02	0.02***	0.05***	0.03***	0.04***	0.02	0.06**	0.03***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.00)
Tenure								
<1Y	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02*	0.01	0.00	0.03	-0.01	-0.00
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)
3-5Y	-0.04**	-0.01	-0.03***	-0.02*	-0.00	-0.03	-0.04*	-0.02***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)
5-10Y	-0.05***	-0.04***	-0.03***	-0.03***	-0.01	-0.04**	-0.04**	-0.03***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
>10Y	-0.07***	-0.05***	-0.05***	-0.05***	-0.02***	-0.04***	-0.10***	-0.04***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Perceptions								
Job loss exp.	0.20***	0.31***	0.22***	0.28***	0.29***	0.35***	0.10	0.28***
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.04)	(0.07)	(0.01)
Constant	0.08***	0.07***	0.09***	0.05***	0.08***	0.10***	0.15***	0.05***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	4614	11623	17066	13885	17377	4418	5656	68983
R2	0.24	0.28	0.40	0.24	0.37	0.36	0.22	0.33

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job search of employed workers who were employed in the same job in t. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

Table A8: Job search probability of switchers - Employed in $t-1$, New job in $t1$

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Search status								
Job Search in t-1	0.07	-0.02	0.29***	0.22***	0.17***	0.12	0.12**	0.19***
	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.08)	(0.06)	(0.02)
Characteristics								
Age/10	0.09**	-0.10**	0.02	0.02	0.01	-0.09*	-0.03	-0.01
	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Female	0.06	-0.01	0.03	0.02	0.02	-0.03	-0.04	0.00
	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.02)
Tertiary	0.04	-0.10	-0.09**	-0.05	-0.07	-0.11	-0.04	-0.08***
	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.10)	(0.06)	(0.03)
Partner in HH	0.09	0.02	-0.02	0.02	0.01	-0.10	0.02	0.01
	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.03)
Child (0-5)	0.12	-0.13	0.12*	-0.02	-0.06	-0.04	-0.01	-0.01
	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.13)	(0.07)	(0.04)
Child (6-17)	-0.13*	0.15*	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.22**	0.13	0.06**
	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.03)
Part-time	0.12	0.20**	0.26***	0.05	0.12**	0.10	0.25**	0.15***
	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.03)
Perceptions								
Job loss exp.	0.57***	0.45***	0.37***	0.44***	0.24**	0.43**	0.81***	0.35***
	(0.18)	(0.17)	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.10)	(0.19)	(0.21)	(0.05)
Constant	0.13	0.10	0.15	0.04	-0.06	0.04	0.06	-0.03
	(0.19)	(0.13)	(0.11)	(0.13)	(0.09)	(0.16)	(0.12)	(0.06)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	127	204	560	301	436	160	279	1788
R2	0.16	0.14	0.27	0.19	0.11	0.21	0.13	0.16

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job search of employed workers who were employed in different job in t. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

Table A9: Job search probability of starters - Non-Employed in $t-1$, Employed in $t1$

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	US	Europe
Search status								
Job Search in t-1	0.29***	0.03	0.21***	0.19***	0.28***	0.24***	0.28***	0.18***
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.09)	(0.07)	(0.02)
Characteristics								
Age/10	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	-0.05	0.02	0.00
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Female	-0.19***	0.03	0.03	-0.02	-0.01	-0.02	0.00	0.00
	(0.06)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.10)	(0.08)	(0.02)
Tertiary	0.05	0.09**	0.02	-0.05	0.00	0.06	-0.07	0.02
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.02)
Partner in HH	0.05	0.00	-0.03	-0.00	-0.03	-0.06	-0.06	-0.02
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.10)	(0.09)	(0.02)
Child (0-5)	0.12	0.08	0.00	0.07	-0.06	0.08	-0.05	0.04
	(0.10)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.12)	(0.08)	(0.03)
Child (6-17)	-0.11	0.08*	0.04	0.04	-0.01	0.05	-0.02	0.04*
	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.09)	(0.08)	(0.02)
Part-time	-0.08	0.06	0.20***	0.16***	0.18***	0.00	0.14	0.13***
	(0.08)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.09)	(0.09)	(0.02)
Perceptions								
Job loss exp.	0.45***	0.53***	0.30***	0.50***	0.26***	0.31	0.11	0.38***
	(0.15)	(0.12)	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.06)	(0.20)	(0.27)	(0.04)
Constant	0.13	-0.04	0.04	0.15	0.19***	-0.01	0.06	0.11**
	(0.14)	(0.09)	(0.07)	(0.09)	(0.06)	(0.16)	(0.28)	(0.05)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	173	546	894	532	884	141	173	3170
R2	0.25	0.10	0.18	0.20	0.18	0.04	0.16	0.15

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job search of employed workers who were non-employed in t. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01

Table A10: Job Search Probability for Job Stayers - incl. Search Intentions

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	Europe
Search status							
Job Search in t-1	0.45***	0.48***	0.57***	0.45***	0.55***	0.52***	0.52***
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Intentions in t-1	0.08**	0.22***	0.18***	0.17***	0.29***	0.22***	0.21***
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Characteristics							
Age/10	0.01*	0.00	-0.01**	0.00	-0.01***	-0.00	-0.00*
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Female	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.01*	-0.02***	-0.01	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tertiary	0.01	0.01**	0.01**	-0.00	0.00	0.02*	0.01***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Partner in HH	-0.01	-0.01**	-0.01**	0.01	-0.00	0.01	-0.01*
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (0-5)	0.01	0.01	-0.01*	0.01	-0.02**	-0.00	-0.00
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Child (6-17)	0.01	0.02**	-0.01**	-0.01	-0.00	0.00	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Part-time	0.02	0.02**	0.05***	0.03***	0.04***	0.02	0.03***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tenure							
<1Y	-0.01	-0.01	-0.03*	0.01	-0.01	0.02	-0.00
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)
3-5Y	-0.04**	-0.00	-0.03***	-0.02*	0.00	-0.02	-0.01***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)
5-10Y	-0.04**	-0.03***	-0.03***	-0.03***	-0.01	-0.03**	-0.03***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
>10Y	-0.07***	-0.04***	-0.04***	-0.04***	-0.01	-0.03***	-0.04***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Perceptions							
Job loss exp.	0.17***	0.25***	0.16***	0.23***	0.23***	0.31***	0.22***
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.05)	(0.01)
Constant	0.08***	0.07***	0.09***	0.05***	0.08***	0.09***	0.05***
	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	4608	11525	17037	13749	17351	4416	68686
R2	0.24	0.29	0.41	0.25	0.38	0.36	0.34

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job search of employed workers who did not change their jobs. "No Job Search" are the numeraire for the job search status variable. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Table A11: Job Finding Probability with Search Intentions

	BE	DE	ES	FR	IT	NL	Europe
Search status							
Job Search	0.07***	0.03***	0.05***	0.05***	0.03***	0.10***	0.04***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.02)	(0.00)
Intentions	-0.03	0.01	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.03	0.00
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Characteristics							
Age/10	0.01**	-0.00**	0.00	0.00	-0.01***	-0.01**	-0.00**
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Female	-0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tertiary	-0.01**	0.00	-0.00	-0.00	0.00	0.01	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Partner in HH	-0.00	-0.01*	-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.02**	-0.00*
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (0-5)	-0.00	0.00	0.01*	0.02**	-0.01	-0.03***	0.00*
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Child (6-17)	-0.00	0.00	-0.01*	-0.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.00
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Part-time	-0.00	-0.01*	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.00
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Tenure							
<1Y	0.13***	0.07***	0.07***	0.08***	0.06***	0.05***	0.07***
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.01)
3-5Y	-0.01	-0.01**	-0.03***	-0.01**	-0.01*	-0.02*	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
5-10Y	-0.02**	-0.01***	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.02**	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)
>10Y	-0.03***	-0.01***	-0.03***	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.02***	-0.02***
	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Perceptions							
Job loss exp.	0.07**	0.07***	0.08***	0.05*	0.07***	0.05	0.07***
	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Constant	0.04***	0.01**	0.03***	0.03***	0.03***	0.00	0.03***
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.00)
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Date FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	4902	12228	18322	14494	18478	4707	73131
R2	0.11	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.07	0.07

Note: OLS regressions on dummy of job finding of employed workers. "No Job Search" are the numeraire for the job search status variable. All regression are weighted by population weights. Robust standard errors in parenthesis. Stars denote significance levels of two-sided t-tests. * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01