Recent trends in job vacancies and hirings in Europe

This supplement to the Quarterly Review provides in-depth analysis of recent trends in job vacancies and hirings in Europe. It was prepared by Emmanuel Joseph (Employment Analysis Unit in DG EMPL).

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Introduction

The aim of this supplement is to update key indicators of the European Vacancy and Recruitment Report (EVRR) 2014[1]. As the EVRR has been discontinued, this supplement provides an annual update of key indicators contained in the report.

General trends in recruitment activity are monitored at EU level on the basis of job vacancy rates and hiring rates. At EU level, both indicators saw a modest improvement in the first half of 2014 but are still approximately 20–30 % lower than before the financial and economic crisis.

Job vacancy rates vary markedly between Member States, though they remain generally well below the pre-crisis levels. Even greater differences between countries emerge when the rate is broken down by economic sector.

Large differences between Member States can also be observed when comparing hiring with the number of unemployed people, which gives an indication of the competition for jobs in EU Member States.[2] As with job vacancy rates, hiring rates are on average relatively low across the EU.

In the EU overall, more people have been hired on a part-time basis in recent years at the expense of full-time recruitment. In the second quarter of 2014, the number of new full-time workers was still low, though showing a slight increase as compared with the previous year. Part-time hiring has remained stable over the year to the second quarter of 2014.

There were fewer new permanent and temporary contracts in the EU in the second quarter of 2014 than in the second quarter of 2008 (-20 % and -15 % respectively). In recent years, temporary contracts have been pro-cyclical and explain most of the variability in the EU number of employees.

At EU level, recruitment has remained stable among the highly educated[3] while has fallen dramatically for those with a low level of education. In the second quarter of 2014, there were more recruits among the former than the latter.

Job vacancies and hiring – two complementary indicators

Job vacancy statistics provide a snapshot of the job market at a given point in time, but do not reflect fluctuations in the market (new vacancies posted, vacancies filled and vacancies cancelled) i.e. they reflect stocks rather than flows. A higher job vacancy rate usually indicates an increase in business activity and employment. However, changes in the structure of employment, such as for example an increase in temporary jobs, can also trigger an increase in vacancies without an associated increase in employment.

Job hirings refer to the number of employees who were employed in a 'reference week' and had started working for their employer at most three months earlier. By definition, job hirings do not cover the self-employed, as a job vacancy is defined as a vacant post for an employee. Higher job hirings is an indication of an increase in labour market dynamics and could provide a proxy for higher employment in the current low employment – high unemployment context.

In certain circumstances, it is possible to envisage a high level of hirings coexisting with a low level of vacancies. For example, if a labour market is characterised by a very high share of short-term temporary contracts, many of the vacancies created will not necessarily be registered in the vacancy survey.

Note that depending on the Member State, quarterly job vacancy statistics do not necessarily cover the whole economy.[4] They are also based on a survey of businesses rather than on

[1] http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=955.
[2] See Box on Job opportunities of the unemployed
[3] Low level of education: primary and lower secondary (ISCED 1-2);medium level: formal upper secondary education (ISCED 3); high level: upper secondary short courses, post-secondary non-tertiary and tertiary (ISECD 4-6).

household information. By contrast, the hiring statistics collected as part of the Labour Force Survey are harmonised across the Member States, which makes them more representative/ comparable than job vacancy statistics. Therefore, the two measures, while not directly comparable, provide complementary sources of information on labour demand.

In addition, when trying to establish the relationship between job vacancy stocks, hiring rates and the employment of salaried workers in recent quarterly periods, it appears that vacancy stocks follow the same patterns as hiring rates and can predict variations in the number of employees.

Job hirings

According to Eurostat, '**Job hirings**' are employees who were employed in a 'reference week' and had started working for their employer at most three months earlier. Job hirings do not cover the self-employed as a job vacancy is defined as a vacant post for an employee. For a person who started multiple jobs within the same quarter, only the last recruitment is counted.

Every quarter, the Labour Force Survey measures the number of people who were recruited in the previous three months based on the individual's response in the household survey. The way in which the question is structured means that these are new jobs in the sense that they exclude, for example, contract renewals and workers undertaking new tasks for the same employer.

Eurostat indicates new jobs by reference to the 'time since the job started'.

The number of job hirings has the following strengths:

- EU Labour Force Survey data are for all 28 EU Member States, provided by Eurostat.
- It covers 'hidden vacancies' that are filled informally without any public notification of the vacancy.

Job vacancy

A job vacancy is defined (Eurostat) as a paid post that is newly created, unoccupied, or about to become vacant:

1. for which the employer is taking active steps and is prepared to take further steps to find a suitable candidate from outside the enterprise concerned; and
2. which the employer intends to fill either immediately or within a specified period of time.

A vacant post that is only open to internal candidates is not treated as a 'job vacancy'.

Job vacancy rate

The Job Vacancy Rate (JVR) expresses the total number of vacancies posted as a proportion of employment (employees) plus vacant posts:

$$\text{Job Vacancy Rate} = \left(\frac{\text{Number of job vacancies}}{\text{Number of occupied posts} + \text{Number of job vacancies}} \right) \times 100$$

[4] For example, in some Member States, data are only collected for companies with over 10 employees, or are not available at all for certain economic sectors. Reference periods may also differ between Member States.

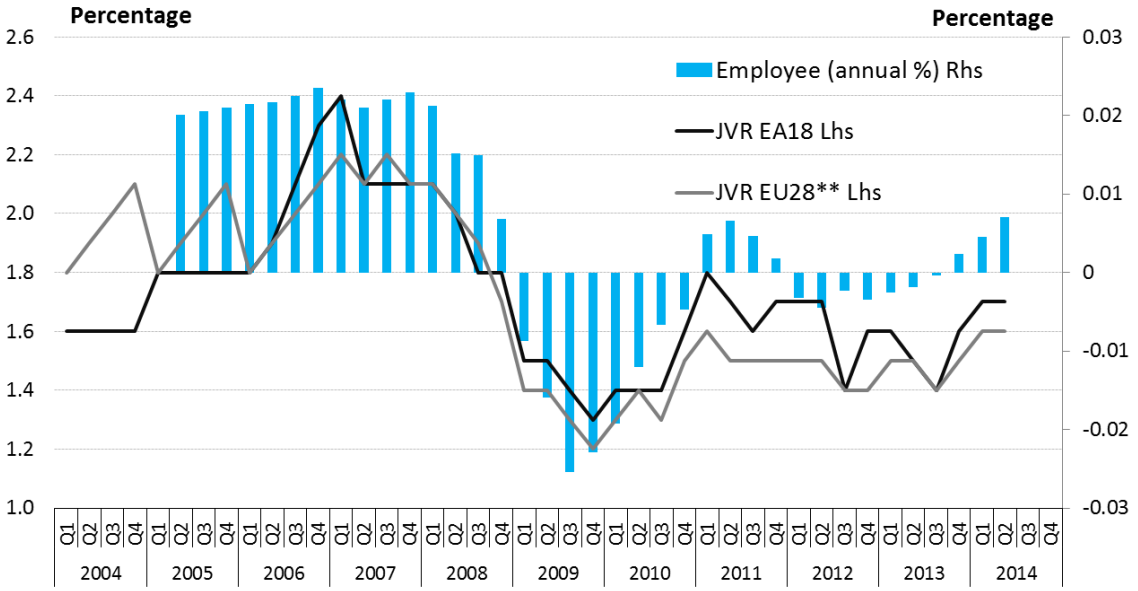
Job hiring rate

The job hiring rate is an indicator of the relative intensity of recruitment activity. Job hiring rate is a percentage of all employees who were hired in the previous three months. Much of hiring activity might be due to labour turnover with employers filling existing posts as workers leave for a variety of reasons

At EU level, the job vacancy rate improved slightly in the first half of 2014 but remained lower than pre-financial crisis levels.

The job vacancy rate in the EU and in the 18 countries of the euro area (EA) peaked in 2007 (2.2 % on average in both areas) then fell steadily in the following year, reaching its lowest level at the end of 2009 at 1.2 % in the EU and 1.3 % in the EA. Since then, the job vacancy rate has increased slightly, reaching 1.5 % in both areas in 2013 (annual average, Chart 1). Recent trends show that the job vacancy rate at EU28 level has been below average for the last decade.

Chart 1: Job vacancy rate (%) in the EU-28 and euro area, 2004–14 Q2 ([5]) and annual change in the number of employees (%) in the EU-28



Source: Eurostat * 2006 Q1 to 2008 Q4: JVR for total of NACE Rev. 1.1. From 2009 Q1: JVR for sections B to S of NACE Rev. 2 — Industry, construction and services. There is a break in the time series: Up to 2009 Q3 German data included vacancies for subsidised jobs, from 2009 Q4 German data excludes vacancies for subsidised jobs. **EU-28 from 2010 onwards, before that the EU-27 — differences between the rates of both areas are well below 0.1 percentage points. 2004 to 2005: annual data (online data codes: jvs_a_nace1 and jvs_a_nace2). Employee [lfsq_egaps]

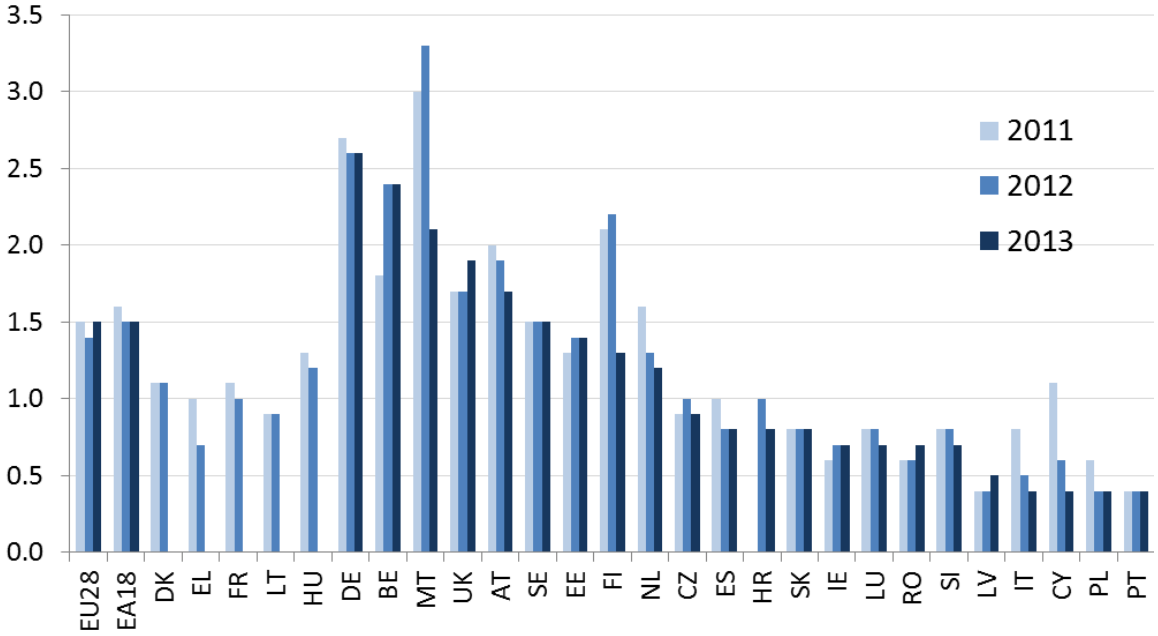
Quarterly data up to the end of first half of 2014 shows that the job vacancy rate increased moderately in both the EU and the EA: +0.2 percentage points (pp) in the EU and +0.1 pp in the EA if the second quarter of 2014 if compared with the same quarter of 2013 (Chart 1). As described above, in recent years, and still in the first half of 2014, the job vacancy rate for the EU stagnated.

[5] (1) 2003–08: NACE Rev. 1.1 Sections A to O. Since 2009: NACE Rev. 2 Sections B to S.

The job vacancy rate is high in a few Member States but low in the vast majority

Job vacancy rates vary widely across Member States. Despite being relatively low at EU level in 2013, the job vacancy rate was relatively high in two Member States: Germany (2.6%) and Belgium (2.4%). It was above the EU average in Malta (2.1%), United Kingdom (1.9%), Austria (1.7%) and Sweden (1.5%). The remaining 22 Member States have quite low rates. Indeed, there are wide differences in this indicator across the EU, with the job vacancy rate in Germany (2.6%) more than six times higher than that of Italy, Cyprus, Poland or Portugal (0.4% for all four). This shows that the availability of vacancies in the EU is concentrated in just a few Member States (Chart 2).

Chart 2: Job vacancy rates in the EU-28, the euro area and the individual Member States in 2011, 2012 and 2013 (NACE Rev. 2 sections B to S)



Source: Eurostat [jvs_a_nace2]

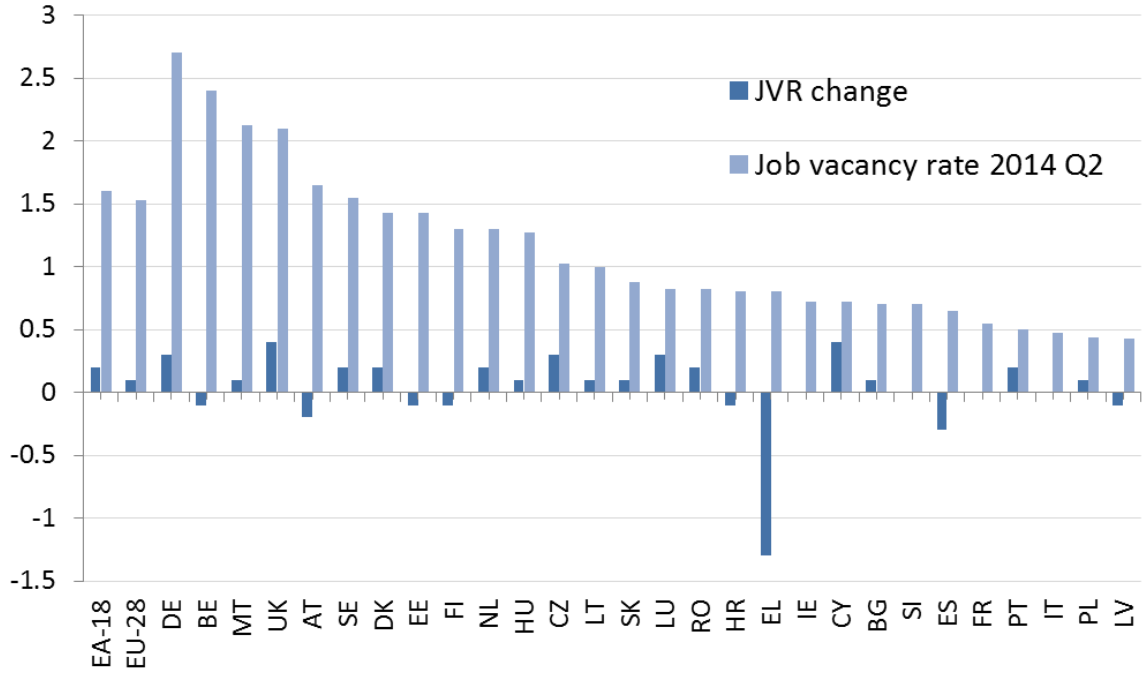
The job vacancy rate increased moderately in most Member States in the year to the second quarter of 2014.

The EVRR 2014 highlighted a general decline in job vacancies across most EU Member States based on the job vacancy rate between 2008 and 2012.[6] Since then, the job vacancy rate at EU28 level increased moderately. In the year to the second quarter of 2014, the job vacancy rate increased in 16 Member States, remained stable in four and decreased in eight. The job vacancy rate increased significantly in Cyprus, United Kingdom (+0.4 pp for both countries) and Luxembourg, the Czech Republic and Germany (+0.3 pp for all three countries).

Therefore, the largest increases occurred in countries with a job vacancy rate that was already higher than the EU average, such as Germany (2.7%) and the United Kingdom (2.1%) and in countries with a relatively low job vacancy rate, such as Cyprus (0.7%) and Luxemburg (0.8%). Decreases in the year to second quarter 2014 were rather modest (lower than -0.2 pp) across the EU, with the exception of Spain (-0.3 pp to 0.7%) and Greece (-1.3 pp to 0.8%). See Chart 3.

[6] European Vacancy and Recruitment Report 2014, page 26; 15 countries were covered for this result: BG, CY, CZ, EE, DE, LT, LU, LV, NL, PT, RO, SE, SI, SK and UK.

Chart 3: Job vacancy rates (%) in the EU Member States[7] in the second quarter of 2014[8] and trends in the year preceding the second quarter of 2014



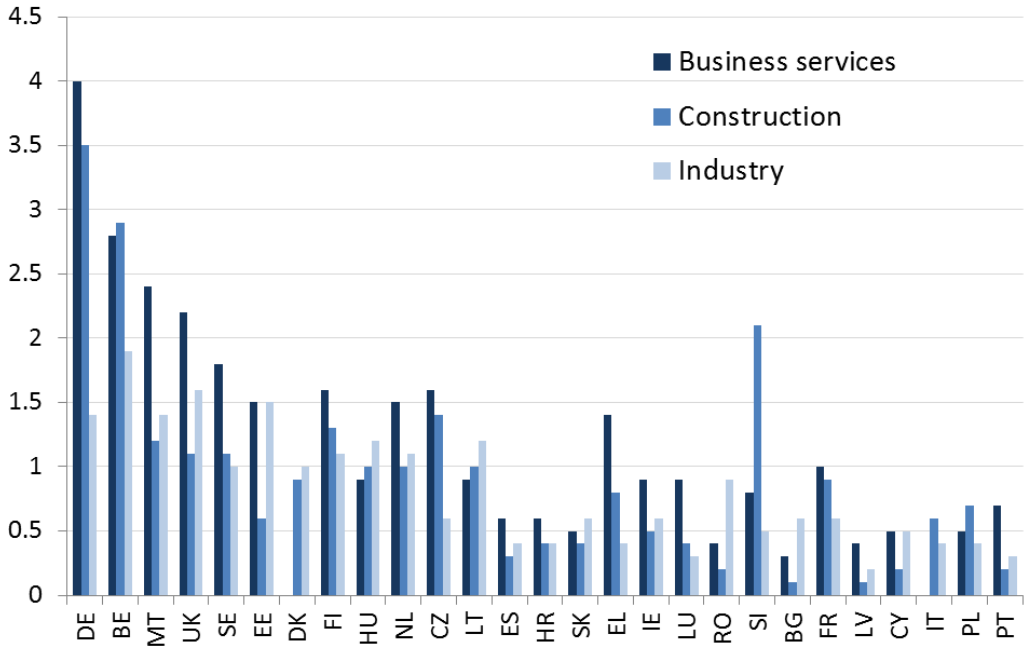
Source: Eurostat: DK: Only sections B to N covered; FR, IT: Section O not included; FR, IT, MT, HR: Only business units with 10 or more employees covered, PL and EL: 2014 Q1 data.

Even wider differences between Member States at sector level

There are important variations in the job vacancy rate across sectors (industry, construction and services) at EU level. The job vacancy rate for business services is higher in the majority of Member States than the rate for the industrial and construction sectors. Differences in sector-based job vacancies rates are high when looking across Member States. In 2013, the vacancy rate in the business services sector ranged from 0.3 % in Bulgaria to 4.0 % in Germany. There are greater differences between Member States in the business services and construction sectors than in the industrial sector.

[7] Industry, construction and services (NACE Rev. 2 sections B to S*).
[8] Average of the four quarters to 2014 Q2 (inclusive).

Chart 4: Job vacancy rates (%) in the Member states in 2013 in industry, construction and business services:

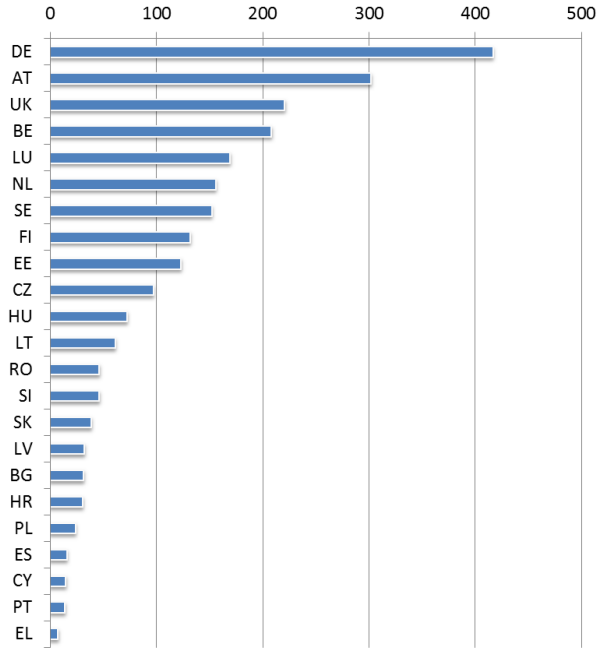


For industry: DK, EL, FR: 2012 data; DE: 2011 data; data N/A for AT; IT, MT: 10 employees or more; for construction: DK, EL, FR: 2012 data; IT, MT: 10 employees or more; data N/A for AT; for business services: EL, FR, HR: 2012 data; IT, MT: 10 employees or more; data N/A for AT, DK, IT

Few vacancies compared with the number of unemployed people in some Member States

When the number of job vacancies is compared with the number of unemployed people, there are significant differences between Member States. Based on the Member States for which data are available, for every 1 000 unemployed people in 2013 there were more than 400 vacancies in Germany but only 7 in Greece. This low ratio, in addition to the mismatch between job vacancies and jobseekers, indicates difficult labour market prospects for unemployed people in some Member States where it appears that there are simply no jobs to apply for.

Chart 5: Number of job vacancies per 1 000 unemployed in 2013

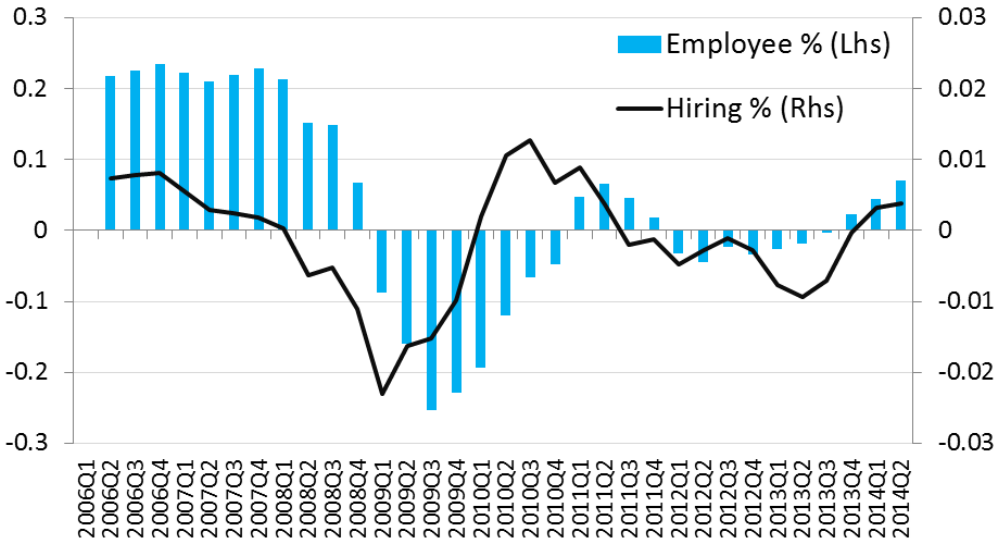


Source: Eurostat, data N/A for DK, IE, FR, IT and MT

Hiring levels increased moderately in the first half 2014, but remain lower than pre-crisis levels

The EU-28 hiring activity fell dramatically in 2008 and 2009, before experiencing a modest recovery in 2010 and 2011. In 2012 and 2013, hiring levels mostly stagnated when they did not even decline. Recruitment data for the first half of 2014 has shown some signs of improvement (+3.8 % in the second quarter of 2014, annual change) but we are far below pre-crisis levels. When compared with 2007, hiring are 25 % lower.

Chart 6: Annual change in hiring and employment in the EU



Source: Eurostat [lfsq_egdn2].
Note: Absolute value: 2007Q1: 9.451.9 Moi, 2014Q2: 8.441.3 Moi. EU aggregate without FR

Job opportunities in the EU in the second quarter of 2014: a more difficult labour market

In order to compare hiring rates in different Member States, we calculate the ratio of unemployed people to 'hirings' to give an indication of the relative competition for jobs. The higher the ratio, the more difficult it is to find a job, as more people are unemployed but fewer are hired. One advantage of this indicator is that it enables the comparison of different labour markets.

Job opportunities of the unemployed

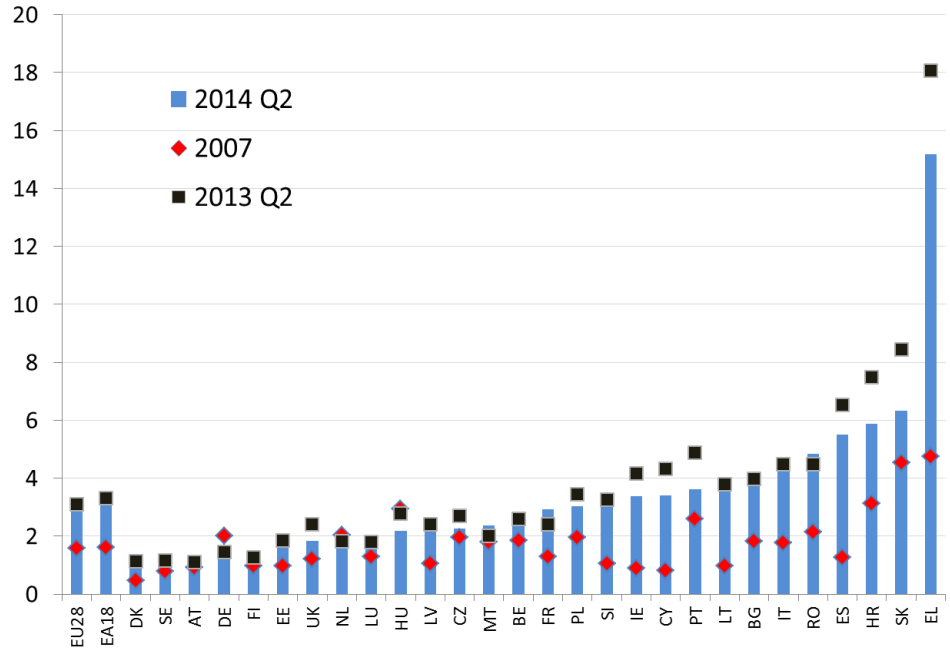
The ratio of unemployed people to job hirings indicates the relative ease of getting a new job, or the relative competition for jobs among unemployed jobseekers – the higher the ratio, the more difficult is to find a job, since there are more unemployed people but fewer people are hired. This is a useful though crude measure since it cannot account for mismatches in the labour market due to geographical or occupational (skills) factors. An increase in the ratio can be due to increasing unemployment, decreasing job hirings or both.

Even if there are high numbers of unemployed people (in which case the ratio is high and indicates tight competition for available jobs), it does not necessarily imply that it is easy for employers to recruit workers. Recruitment may still be difficult if the unemployed do not have the required skills. However, if unemployment was high and hirings were low, then this can be considered an indicator of fewer job opportunities. The ratio is in fact just one possible indicator of labour market tightness, but this one has the advantage that comparable information is available for all Member States.

A ratio of less than 1.0 would appear to indicate a shortage of labour supply (i.e. fewer people looking for work than there are vacancies available). However, this is unlikely to be the case for a number of reasons. Firstly, the Labour Force Survey unemployment data will not identify all those seeking work – some may remain hidden or undeclared. Secondly, not all jobseekers are unemployed, and in reality most vacancies are filled by those already in work and who change job without a period of unemployment

In the second quarter of 2014, only eight EU countries had a ratio of unemployed to hiring lower than 2.0, while in 2007 most EU countries (twenty Member States) had a much lower value. Thirteen countries had a ratio showing more than three unemployed for each job hiring, while in 2007 only three Member States were showing such a value (chart 7). Similarly, in the second quarter of 2014, only three countries displayed a proportion lower than in 2007, namely Hungary, Germany and the Netherlands. For the EU this ratio was 2.9 in 2014 q2, moderately decreasing when compared to a year before (-0.2 pp).

Chart 7: Ratio of unemployed to hiring, 2007, Q2 2013; Q2 2014



Source: Eurostat [lfsq_egdn2].

An almost generalised decrease in job opportunities during recent years across EU Member States

As measured by the ratio of unemployed to hiring, job opportunities have declined with this indicator increasing in 90 % of the Member States since 2007. In other words, following a period of sustained growth, where the vast majority of EU countries were showing good job opportunities, the EU observes now the inverse situation where the vast majority of EU countries face scarce job opportunities.

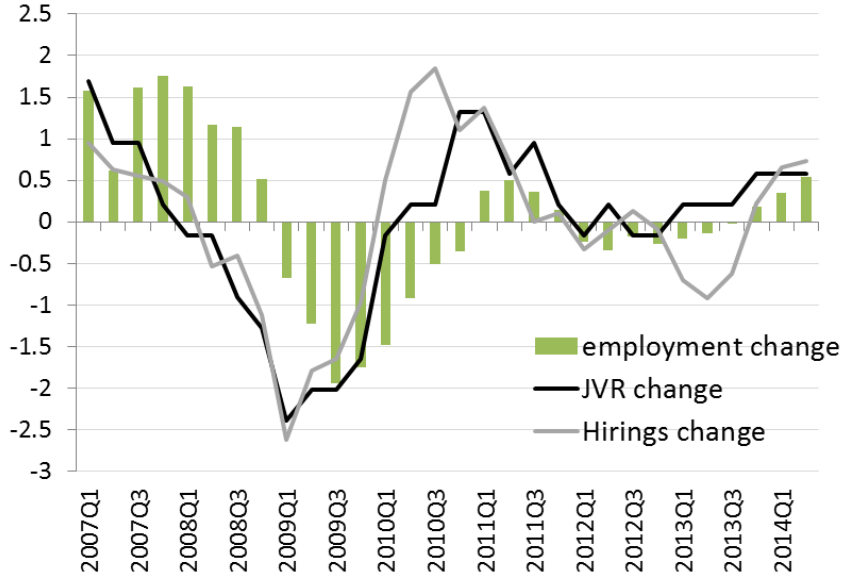
Over the year to the second quarter of 2014, a mild improvement was visible in some countries for which the labour market was offering little recruitment, in particular in Greece, Slovakia, Croatia and Spain. Nevertheless, this improvement remains relatively marginal when compared with the level reached by the job opportunity ratio before the crisis in these countries.

Hiring levels and job vacancies explain employment variations in the EU-28

When assessing the relationship between the variation in the job vacancy rate and the annual change in the number of salaried workers in the EU (Chart 8), the change of job vacancy rate appears to be a leading indicator to employment. Indeed, the following chart shows that a period of salaried employment growth occurred after a rise in the job vacancy rate. A period in which the job vacancy rate fell was also followed by a large drop in the number of salaried workers in 2009. This suggests that, in the current context, a growing number of vacancies are probably necessary for a sustained employment growth.

The variation in hiring levels also appears to provide advance notice to employment developments, recording a turning point before the annual change in the number of salaried people. When there was an upturn in employment in the fourth quarter of 2009 and a downturn in the third quarter of 2011, hiring and vacancies reflected the same differential change a few quarters earlier (Chart 8). Trends in 2013 and 2014 were more stable in respect of these three indicators and grew moderately between the fourth quarter of 2013 and the second quarter of 2014.

Chart 8: Employment, hiring and job vacancies in the EU-28, (Q1 2007-Q2 2014 year-on-year % change, standardised data



Source: DG EMPL calculation

On this basis, a regression model can be estimated for the period under review (from the first quarter of 2007 to the second quarter of 2014), comparing the yearly employment variation (ΔEmpl) at EU level[9] with the annual change in the job vacancy rate (ΔJVR), and the annual hiring change (ΔHiring). The model, integrating the lagged value of the two explanatory variables (ΔEmpl and ΔHiring), provides a relatively accurate prediction of employment changes. More precisely, this model shows the (statistically) significant effect of a positive variation of the job vacancy rate during the two previous quarters, the variation of hiring in the two lagged quarters and the variation of employment in the previous quarter. The contribution of the job vacancy rate explains most variations with this estimate, showing that it usually changes one or two quarters before a change in the levels of employment of salaried workers evolves in the same direction (Chart 9).

Regression model for: Employment variation[10]

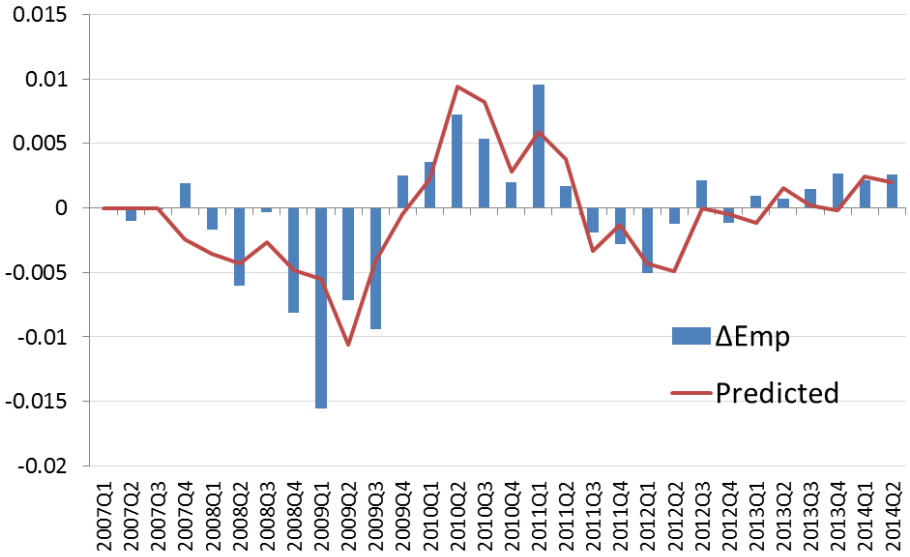
$\Delta Empl_t = -0.000 + 0.171\ \Delta Empl_{t-1} + 0.017\ \Delta JVR_{t-1} + 0.009\ \Delta JVR_{t-2} + 0.020\ \Delta Hiring_{t-2}$

Variable	Estimate	Standard Error	t-Value
Constant	-0.000	0.001	-0.31
Δemp_{t-1}	0.171	0.176	0.97
ΔJVR_{t-1}	0.017	0.005	3.51
ΔJVR_{t-2}	0.009	0.006	1.45
$\Delta Hiring_{t-2}$	0.020	0.015	1.32

Total R-Square 0.6879; Root MSE 0.00360; Durbin-Watson 2.0648; Total R-Square 0.6879; Observations 27 Maximum likelihood estimates.

[9] Quarterly data between 2007Q1 and 2014Q2.
[10] Only significant coefficients are shown in the table. The complete set of results is available upon request.

Chart 9: Employment variation and estimated employment variation Q1 2007-Q2 2014

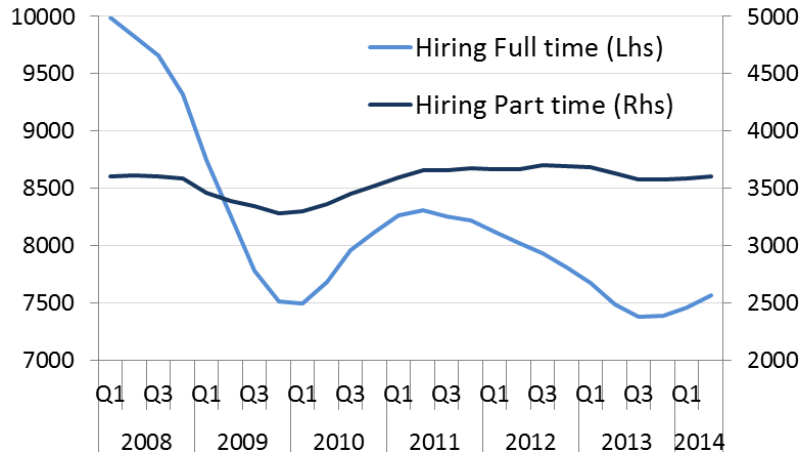


Source: DG EMPL calculation

Part-time hiring is more frequently used at the expense of full-time hiring

The number of new full-time recruits in the EU fell dramatically from 2007 to mid-2013, but then rose slightly up to the second quarter of 2014 (by 1.1 % year-on-year). The level of full-time hiring is markedly lower than in the years before the recession (-20 % as compared with 2008). Recruitment to part-time work fluctuated less and saw a moderate but sustained growth in recent years. It stabilised in the second quarter of 2014 (as compared with the previous year (-0.5 %)), but it still exceeds 2008 levels (+2.1 %). With less full-time and more part-time hiring, the latter has increased markedly as a proportion of total recruitment: in 2008 one new job in four was part-time; in the second quarter of 2014, this applied to one in three (Chart 10).

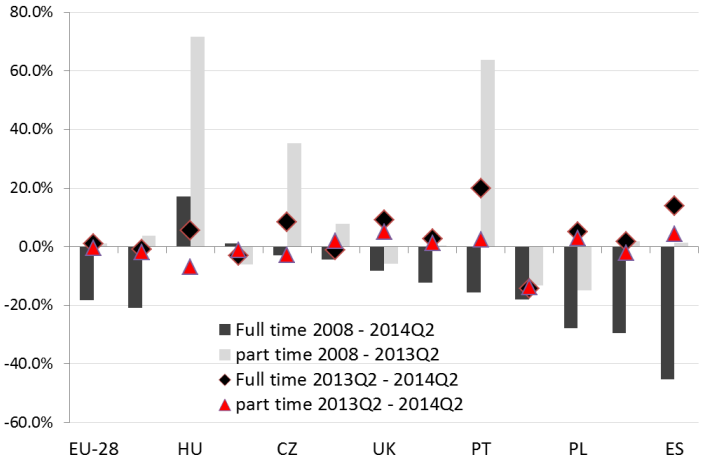
Chart 10: Full-time and part-time recruitment in the EU (Q1 2008 – Q2 2014) – new recruits per quarter (thousands)



Source: DG EMPL calculation

As recruitment levels vary widely from quarter to quarter, Chart 11 presents data only for Member States with second quarter of 2014 levels over 2 % of the EU aggregate value. As highlighted in the chart, most Member States (twenty two) saw full-time recruitment falling since 2008. For Member States for which data are presented, only Germany (+1 %) and Hungary (+17 %) saw more full-time jobs created in the second quarter of 2014 than in 2008. The number of new part-time jobs increased at EU level between 2008 and second quarter of 2014, with large variation between Member States. Over the same period, part-time employment increased in seventeen Member States. In the second quarter of 2014, both part-time and full-time employment is on the rise in the large majority of Member States.

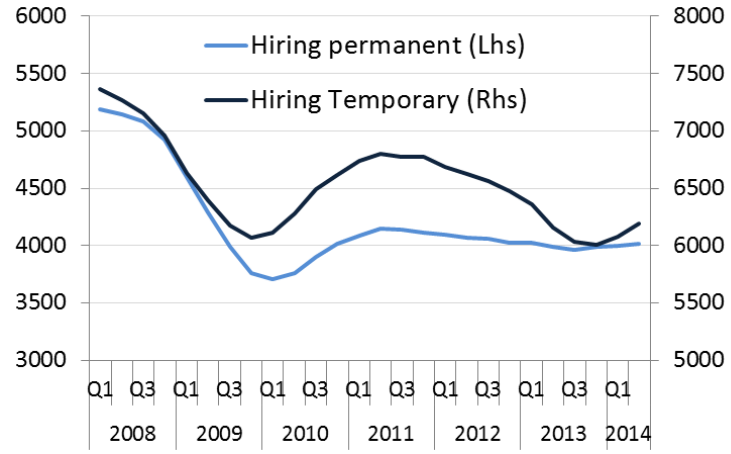
Chart 11: Full-time and part-time recruitment in the EU, the euro area and selected Member States – change between Q2 2008 and Q2 2014 and year-on-year change in Q2 2014 (%)



Source: DG EMPL calculation

There were fewer new permanent and temporary contracts in the EU in second quarter of 2014 than in 2008 (-20 % and -15 % respectively). In recent years, temporary contracts have been pro-cyclical and explained most of the variability in EU employment figures. Recent developments show stability for permanent hiring and a slight rebound for temporary jobs (Chart 12). Permanent recruitment fell in twenty four Member States between 2008 and second quarter of 2014, while fewer temporary contracts were offered in thirteen.

Chart 12: Permanent and temporary contracts in the EU (Q1 2008 – Q2 2014) – new recruits per quarter (thousands)



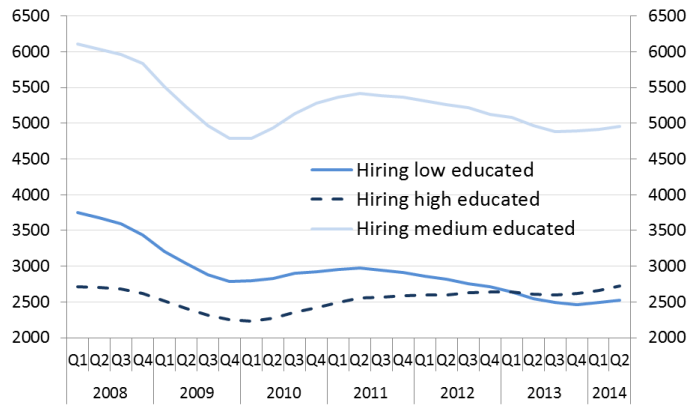
Source: DG EMPL calculation

At EU level, recruitment has remained stable among the highly educated[11] and fallen dramatically for those with a low level of education. In the second quarter of 2014, there were more recruits among the former than the latter, potentially further reinforcing the employment gap between highly educated and those with a low level of education.

Recruitment of those with a medium level of education has developed cyclically in recent years, with totals bottoming-out towards the end of 2009 to recover up to 2011. Since mid-2011, however, the level has dropped again and was 18 % lower in second quarter of 2014 than in 2008. Recruitment among this group has consistently accounted for around 50 % of total recruitment in recent years.

The proportion of new jobs for those with a low level of education level fell in the six years to second quarter of 2014 (by 5 pp) to 24.8 % of the total, while those for the highly educated increased to the same extent (5 pp) to 26.7 %. People with low and medium levels of education have borne the brunt of the recent drop in total recruitment (31.3 % and 17.9 % fewer new jobs respectively in second quarter of 2014 as compared with 2008), while recruitment among the highly educated has been steady (+0.8 % over the same period) These trends were confirmed in the year to second quarter of 2014 , with recruitment of those with low, medium and high levels of education varying by -0.9 %, -0.3 % and +4.5 % respectively (Chart 13).

Chart 13: Hiring by education level in the EU (Q1 2008 – Q2 2014) – new recruits per quarter (thousands)



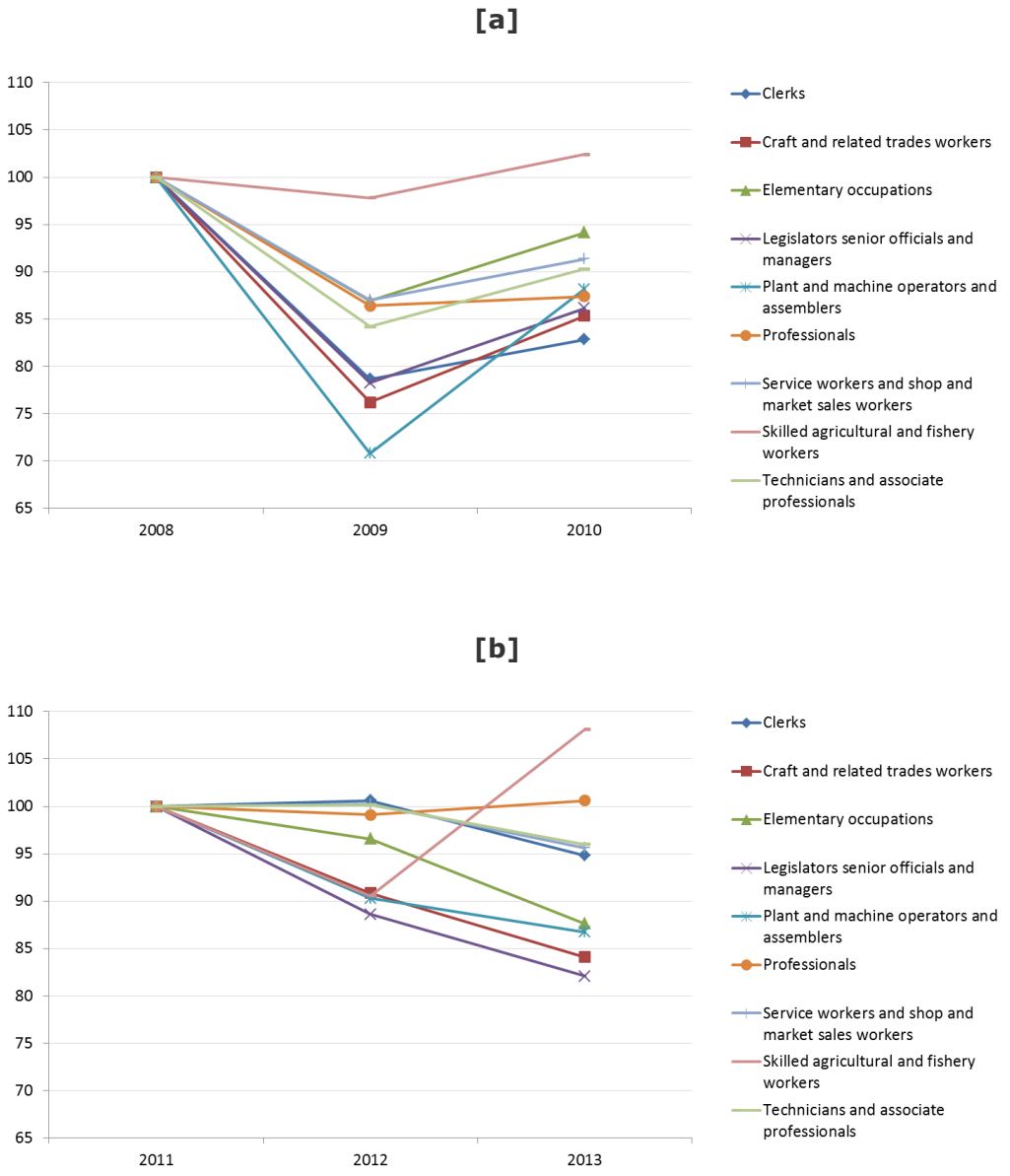
Source: DG EMPL calculation

Hirings by occupation: increased for several high –skilled jobs and particularly for professionals

As identified in the EVRR 2014[12], in 2009 fewer people were hired in all major occupational groups, but this was less the case for "skilled agricultural and fishery workers", "services and sales workers", "elementary occupations" and "professionals" (Chart 14). Hirings partially recovered in 2010 in all major occupational groups. In 2013, hirings have decreased in all major occupational group, except for "professionals" and "Skilled agricultural and fishery workers".

[11] Low level of education: primary and lower secondary (ISCED 1-2); medium level: formal upper secondary education (ISCED 3); high level: upper secondary short courses, post-secondary non-tertiary and tertiary (ISECD 4-6).
[12] http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=955 (page 49).

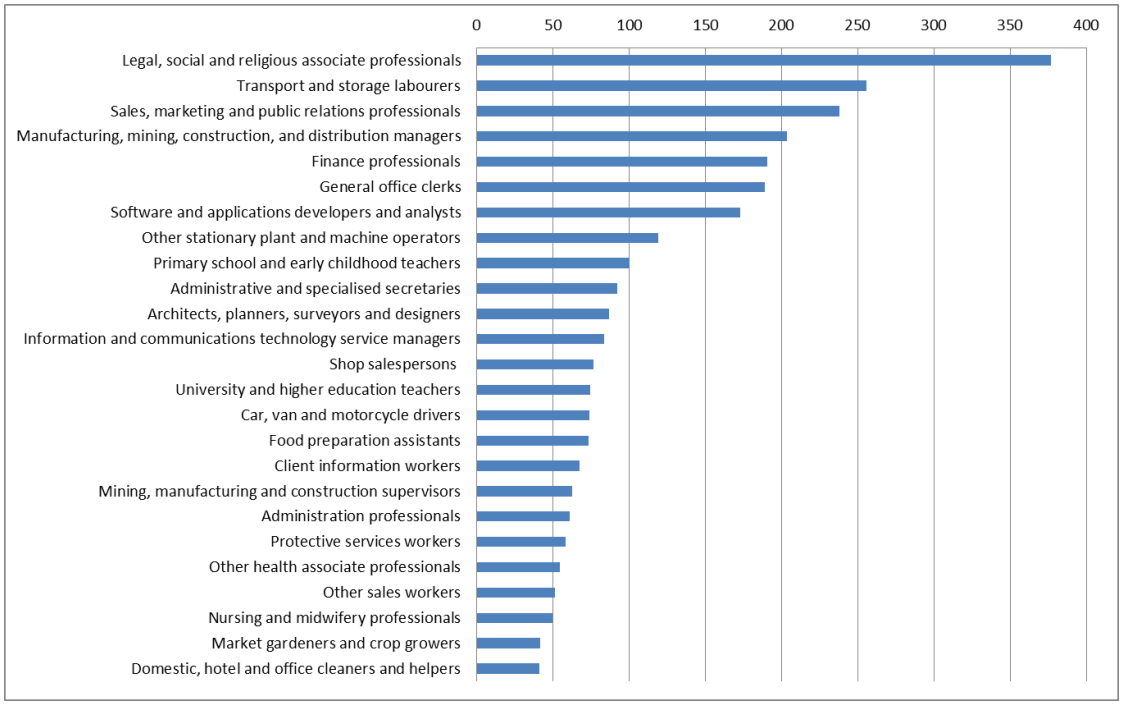
Chart 14: Development in job hiring by major occupational groups (ISCO 1-digit) in the EU, Index [a] 2008-2010 and [b] 2011-2103, [a] 2008=100, [b] 2011=100.



Source: Eurostat
Note: Starting with reference year 2011, a new version of ISCO (ISCO-08) has been implemented. There is no one-to-one correspondence between the two versions of ISCO: ISCO-88 and ISCO-08, resulting in a break in series between 2010 and 2011.

In 2013, the number of employee increased for several high–skilled jobs, and particularly for professionals (Table 1). More substantial staff growth was recorded for "Information and communications technology service managers" (+39 %), "Legal, social and religious associate professionals" (+20 %), "Sales, marketing and public relations professionals" (+14 %), "Manufacturing, mining, construction, and distribution managers" (+14 %). See Chart 15.

Chart 15: The 25 occupations with the largest employee increase (absolute change, 2013 compared to 2012), change (x1000 employees)



Source: DG EMPL calculation

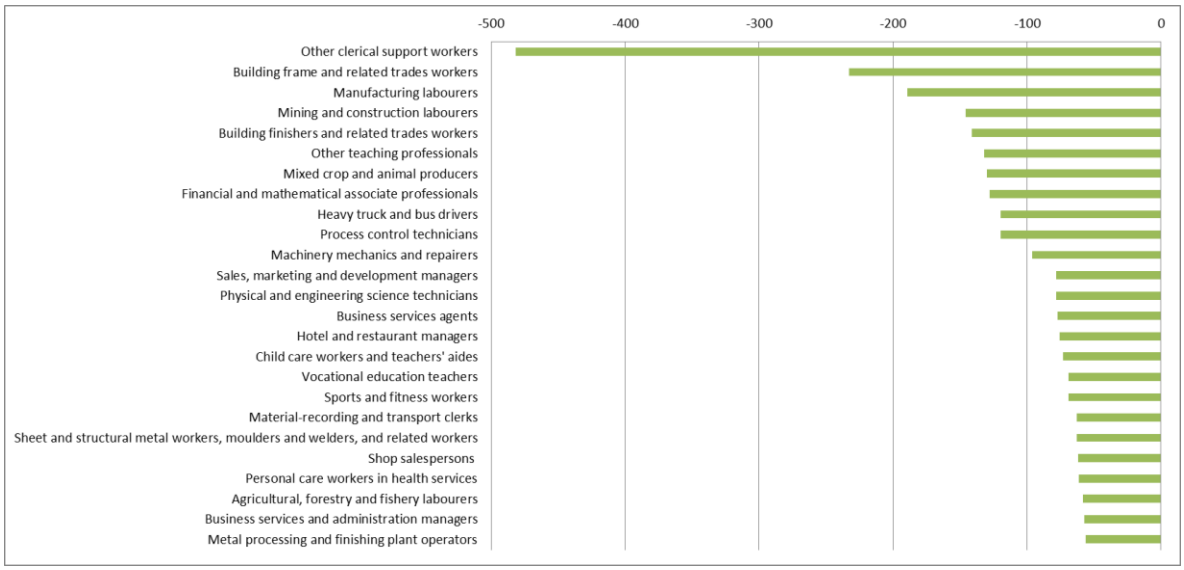
Table1: The 25 occupations with the largest employee increase

Note: The ranking of the occupations is according to changes in the number of employees between 2012 and 2013 (Chart 15)

Ranking 2013	Occupations	Percentage change in the number of employees 2012-2013	Number of employees in 2013 (x1000)	Absolute change employees 2012-2013 (x1000)
1	Legal, social and religious associate professionals	20%	2.241	377
2	Transport and storage labourers	10%	2.772	256
3	Sales, marketing and public relations professionals	14%	1.998	238
4	Manufacturing, mining, construction, and distribution managers	14%	1.706	204
5	Finance professionals	12%	1.840	191
6	General office clerks	8%	2.456	189
7	Software and applications developers and analysts	8%	2.455	173
8	Other stationary plant and machine operators	13%	1.065	119
9	Primary school and early childhood teachers	3%	3.411	100
10	Administrative and specialised secretaries	2%	4.274	92
11	Shop salespersons	1%	9.951	87
12	Architects, planners, surveyors and designers	10%	897	84
13	Information and communications technology service managers	39%	272	77
14	University and higher education teachers	7%	1.108	75
15	Food preparation assistants	5%	1.570	74
16	Car, van and motorcycle drivers	4%	1.771	74
17	Client information workers	2%	3.021	67
18	Administration professionals	2%	2.680	62
19	Mining, manufacturing and construction supervisors	4%	1.793	61
20	Protective services workers	2%	3.424	58
21	Other health associate professionals	3%	1.763	55
22	Nursing and midwifery professionals	3%	2.003	51
23	Other sales workers	5%	1.110	50
24	Market gardeners and crop growers	4%	1.004	42
25	Domestic, hotel and office cleaners and helpers	1%	7.207	41

In 2013 compared to 2012, the number of employees declined significantly for "Other clerical support workers" (-15 %), "Process control technicians" (-14 %), "Mining and construction labourers" (-10 %), "Vocational education teachers" (-9 %), "Manufacturing labourers" (-9 %), "Metal processing and finishing plant operators" (-9 %). See Table 2 and Chart 16.

Chart 16: The 25 occupations with largest employee decline (absolute change, 2013 compared to 2012), change (x1000 employees)



Source: DG EMPL calculation

Table2: The 25 occupations with the largest employee decrease

Note: Note: The ranking of the occupations is according to changes in the number of employees between 2012 and 2013 (Chart 16)

Ranking 2013	Occupations	Percentage change in the number of employees 2012-2013	Number of employees in 2013 (x1000)	Absolute change employees 2012-2013 (x1000)
1	Other clerical support workers	-15%	2.783	-482
2	Building frame and related trades workers	-5%	4.337	-233
3	Manufacturing labourers	-9%	1.814	-190
4	Mining and construction labourers	-10%	1.280	-146
5	Building finishers and related trades workers	-5%	2.682	-141
6	Other teaching professionals	-7%	1.815	-132
7	Mixed crop and animal producers	-4%	3.468	-130
8	Financial and mathematical associate professionals	-4%	3.017	-128
9	Heavy truck and bus drivers	-3%	4.093	-120
10	Process control technicians	-14%	733	-120
11	Machinery mechanics and repairers	-3%	3.426	-96
12	Sales, marketing and development managers	-6%	1.154	-78
13	Physical and engineering science technicians	-2%	4.341	-78
14	Business services agents	-5%	1.470	-77
15	Hotel and restaurant managers	-6%	1.146	-76
16	Child care workers and teachers' aides	-3%	2.539	-73
17	Vocational education teachers	-9%	725	-69
18	Sports and fitness workers	-8%	768	-69
19	Material-recording and transport clerks	-1%	4.285	-63
20	Sheet and structural metal workers, moulders and welders, and related workers	-3%	2.101	-63
21	Shop salespersons	0%	12.465	-62
22	Personal care workers in health services	-1%	4.787	-62
23	Agricultural, forestry and fishery labourers	-3%	1.691	-58
24	Business services and administration managers	-3%	2.048	-57
25	Metal processing and finishing plant operators	-9%	582	-56