




Attractiveness and Skills
in the Domestic
& Home Care Sector



*Report produced by EFFE LAB & Nicolas Defaye in September 2023.
Many thanks to EFFE's members and all the experts who contributed
to this report.*

*Reproduction in whole or in part is permitted, provided that full credit
is given to the European Federation for Family Employment & Home
Care and that any such reproduction, whether in whole or in part,
is not sold unless incorporated in other works.*

© European Federation for Family Employment & Home Care, 2023

Contents

ABOUT US	4
ABBREVIATIONS	5
INTRODUCTION	6
PHS: A SHORTAGE ECONOMIC SECTOR	7
The PHS sector: presentation and definition	7
Demand from households is rising	8
Labour shortage linked to the unattractiveness of the sector	13
PROFESSIONALISING THE PHS SECTOR	16
Professionalisation: double take on a word with many meanings	16
Are skills the cornerstone of professionalization schemes?	19
Skills validation, an instrument to enhance the attractiveness of the sector	21
THE REFERENCE TO SKILLS, A TOOL TO EMPOWER MIGRANT WORKERS IN PHS	22
PHS, a sector made up of a large share of migrant workers	22
The main factors limiting migrants' access to professionalization	24
Recognising some skills and developing others	28
CONCLUSION	31
RECOMMENDATIONS	32
REFERENCES	33

About us

The EFFE Observatory, known as EFFE LAB, is a tool dedicated to ensuring the recognition of the personal and household services sector (PHS) and the direct employment model. Based on a neutral and scientific approach, EFFE LAB seeks to: highlight the social issues related to domestic work; give households and individuals the choice as to the care model that best meets their needs; create decent domestic jobs to meet these needs.

Drawing on the knowledge and expertise of EFFE members, as well as academic partners and civil society, EFFE LAB aims to propose avenues for reflection and good practices to the European institutions and Member States, to help them structure the domestic work sector in Europe. Its essential role is to stimulate a reflection on domestic work and employment policies, with the aim of helping Member States to address the challenges posed by the ageing of their populations and the growing demand for care services.

EFFE LAB gathers and produces data needed to foster innovative ideas around the key topics of a changing sector: fighting undeclared work; developing skills; finding solutions to the labour shortage; improving working conditions and the attractiveness of the sector; as well as promoting social dialogue.



In this perspective, EFFE LAB acts alongside EFFE, which continues to formulate policy solutions for European and national decision-makers on these issues, while supporting the European legislative processes. EFFE LAB strives to give credibility to a sector that is sometimes poorly defined and often ignored by policy makers, so that domestic work may enjoy authentic social and societal recognition.

More information can be found at :
<https://www.effe-homecare.eu/effe-lab/>

Abbreviations

BLMAs: Bilateral Labour Migration Agreements

EQF: European Qualifications Framework

CESE: Economic, Social and Environmental Council - France

ISCO: International Standard Classification of Occupations

NQF: National Qualifications Framework

COICOP: Classification of Individual Consumption by Purpose

ECEC: Early Childhood Education and Care

NACE: statistical nomenclature of economic activities in the European Community

ILO: International Labor Organization

PHS: Personal and Household Services

RPL: Recognition of Prior Learning

Introduction

The Covid-19 pandemic has highlighted the weaknesses of European health systems. It also underlined the importance of workers, qualified as essential, in facing the many challenges posed by the multidimensional crisis it caused. Among them, personal and household services (PHS) workers have emerged as key pillars in providing continued homecare support to the most vulnerable. They have been active throughout the European Union, despite the health risks involved, to fight against the isolation of vulnerable people, such as the elderly and disabled. They have helped family caregivers avoid exhaustion, and limited the burden on healthcare facilities, while contributing to reduce the backlog in long-term care services.

More commonly known as domestic workers, the term includes any person engaged in domestic work in an employment relationship and on a professional basis, for a household or households, mainly providing services to the household (C189 — Domestic Workers Convention 2011 No.189). These workers cover a wide range of activities that contribute to the well-being of families and individuals at home. Some consist in personal help (childhood care and education, long-term care for people with invalidities, dependency, disabilities, etc.), and others in daily chores (cleaning, ironing, gardening, maintenance, school work, etc.) (Personal and Household Services, 2021). Generally carried out by household members, these activities are outsourced to skilled workers for money.

PHS workers take on a role to meet the needs of European households, both in terms of care and managing daily schedules. The health care crisis has given visibility to the essential nature of service professions. However, these workers are clearly still struggling to be recognised: often excluded from labour regulations, they do not enjoy the same social rights as their counterparts who are covered by general framework agreements (ILO, 2016a, p.9). Whether partial or total, this exclusion is one of the main causes of informal work in the sector, which is highly affected by undeclared work, especially in some EU Member States. It also impacts workers' wages and social protection levels, which are often considered insufficient in terms of working conditions, and consequently reduce the attractiveness of PHS professions (ELA, 2021a, p.21). This is a paradoxical situation in view of the growing workforce numbers needed in the decades to come.

Demographic and social changes are leading to a constant increase in the demand for PHS. On the one hand, the ageing of the population is causing an increase in the dependency rate of the elderly and the need for long-term care, even though the latter prefer to age as actively as possible at home.

On the other hand, the rise in the number of single-parent families and the greater participation of women in the labour market are encouraging the outsourcing of family and domestic responsibilities — largely still covered by women — to third party professionals. The 2023 European Commission report on the evolution of employment and the social situation in Europe has identified these factors as the cause of a future labour shortage in the PHS sector.

This points to the need to strengthen the attractiveness of PHS professions by encouraging national measures that will turn informal jobs into formal employment. To guarantee standardised social security and wages, there needs to be a greater recognition of the sector and its various forms of employment. Above all, the sector's structure must promote the creation of declared and qualified jobs. Indeed, there are many examples that show how professionalisation can promote the empowerment of PHS workers, whose skills are still not valued enough on the labour market. This is particularly true of migrants, who do not benefit from the same employment and training opportunities as European workers, despite greatly contributing to PHS.

Without a political will to strengthen the legal framework and better finance the sector, its immense potential for job creation cannot be fully exploited in the EU. This political will implements the European Pillar of Social Rights and is fully in line with the current priorities of the European executive bodies, who are focusing on the sectors that are most under pressure.

By naming 2023 the European Year of Skills, the European Commission has highlighted the paramount importance of skills in the professionalisation process, responding to the demand for a workforce that must be qualified. The second report by EFFE LAB — EFFE's Observatory — aims to deepen the topic by critically analysing the existing scientific literature and putting into perspective the various theoretical approaches to professionalisation. In addition, the report offers a thorough and contextualized understanding by presenting several sectoral case-studies. The report is based on several months of in-depth research of the existing literature, as well as interviews with social scientists and representatives of civil society, ensuring a rigorous and holistic analysis of the issues at stake.

PHS: a shortage economic sector

THE PHS SECTOR: PRESENTATION AND DEFINITION

In accordance with the European Union definition (*Personal and Household Services*, 2012), the personal and household services sector covers a wide range of activities that contribute to the well-being of families and individuals at home. Some consist in personal care and are known as care-related services (63%), others are everyday tasks and are commonly

referred to as support services (37%). However, the boundary between these two categories of services is often a fine line and is difficult to locate. Support services can be provided to both dependent and non-dependent persons who want time to care for a child or an elderly person who is losing their independence or is disabled.

TABLE 1: MAIN SERVICES PROVIDED TO PERSONS AND HOUSEHOLDS

Care-related services	Support services
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• helping mothers• helping the elderly• helping people with disabilities• help with long-term care	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• cleaning• ironing• cooking• gardening• private lessons• small repairs

Source: Lebrun, 2020

In addition to its social significance, the PHS sector plays an important role in the European economy. It brings together more than 10 million workers, of which 6.6 million are declared, and accounts for about 3.4% of the total employment figures in the 27 EU Member States. By way of comparison, the construction and hospitality sectors account for 6.8% and 4.7% respectively of all European employment. These workers are not a uniform group. They fall under different work arrangements and employment models, and do not carry out the same activities.

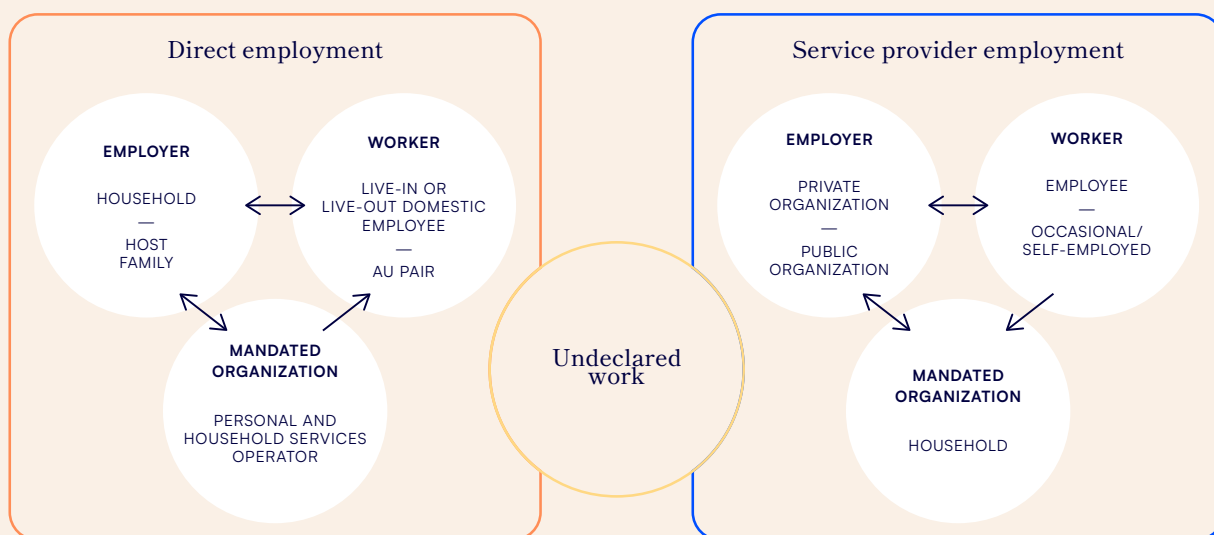
Of the workers declared, approximately 40%, i.e. 2.6 million, are employed via a direct employment model and sign a contract directly with one or more domestic employers. They can be housed at their employer's home, or have their own accommodation. This model is particularly prevalent in southern EU Member States, including Cyprus (82.8%), Spain (67.7%), Greece (40%), Malta (44.3%) and Portugal (60%). But it is mainly developed and structured in France (66.4%) and Italy (70.5%), where it is governed by collective agreements. France offers an alternative to direct employment, through agents. This system allows domestic employers with one or more employees to receive counselling about legal security, administrative work, and the quality of the services provided. The agent carefully assesses the needs of the domestic employer from a social and financial point of view, and helps them in the pre-selection phase and recruitment of employees. This allows the private employer to secure their occupational situation and provides all the necessary administrative support (Fédération Mandataire, 2024). The remaining 60%, i.e. some 3.9 million declared workers, are employed via the service provider model, mostly by private companies, but also by public bodies and cooperatives. Recently, collaborative economy platforms have also become

employers, depending on the worker's status. Workers can also be self-employed. This is the approach that is preferred by public bodies in Austria. In this case, workers enjoy limited social protection (EFFE Lab, 2023a).

However, a significant share of employment in the sector remains undeclared. In 2016, the European Commission estimated that the PHS sector was the third most affected by concealed work, after hotels and restaurants. In 2019, 34% of undeclared work in the EU was in the PHS sector, according to a recent Eurobarometer survey (2020). Although difficult to quantify, the number of workers affected is probably much higher than the official 3.4 million. In 2018 the European Commission also indicated that 70 to 80% of jobs in the sector were not declared. In some cases, employment is also under-reported, which reinforces the precariousness of workers and reduces the government's tax revenues.

While there is no typical PHS worker profile, there are some sectoral characteristics that should be highlighted. In fact, women account for more than 90% of workers. A significant proportion, i.e. 39%, are aged 50 or older, and are expected to retire in the next decade (EFFE LAB, 2023b). Migrant workers are an integral part of the PHS sector. The ILO (cited by the European alliance C189, 2021) estimated that in 2013, 54.6% of PHS workers in Northern, Southern and Western Europe were non-EU migrant workers. Considering the growing need for labour, this figure could increase in the coming years.

FIGURE 1: THE PHS SECTOR



Source : Lebrun, 2020

European statistics offer only a partial overview of the sector and its various types of employment. They are mainly based on the NACE classification (Rev. 2) which does not consider PHS jobs as belonging to a single economic sector. The latter classifies and divides PHS activities into various categories: category 97 on household activities and employers of domestic workers, associated with the direct employment model, and 88, on “social activities without accommodation”, related to the service provider model.

NACE 97 mainly includes support services such as cleaning, gardening, cooking, and childcare at the home of the employer household. It allows salaried domestic workers to indicate the employer’s activity through inventories and surveys, even for private employers. NACE 97 and subcategory 97.00.10 share the same purpose and only include individuals who employ domestic workers and are not in work themselves. In other words, if an employer has a job as well as employing a domestic worker, they will not be counted in this category, unlike an employer who is retired and does not have an occupation. NACE 97 provides only a partial picture of the sector, since it focuses on employer households, not workers, and excludes care-related services within its scope. It is integrated into Section T, i.e. among household activities carried out as employers and aims to reflect the direct employment model.

NACE 88 regards the provider employment model and mainly includes care-related service activities for the elderly and/or persons with disabilities. This broader category is based

on two subcategories, which can in turn be divided as follows: 88.1 on “Social activities without accommodation for the elderly and for people with motor disabilities” and 88.9 on “Other social activities without accommodation” including childcare. In fact, only subcategories 88.1 on “Family home care activities, except home health care” and 88.919 on “Other social activities without accommodation for young children” concern the PHS sector. Other activities under category 88, such as social services, counselling, social protection, advice, and assistance to refugees should therefore be excluded to get a better overview of care-related services in the provider employment model. The support services provided under this employment model are divided into various NACE sub-categories and are lost among activities that are too broadly defined. This is particularly the case for subcategory 81.210, which defines cleaning activities in houses and apartments, but also in offices and factories (ORSEU, 2013).

To address these inaccuracies and the diversity of data collected by EU Member States, civil society organisations have been campaigning for years for a revision of the NACE nomenclature that would provide more realistic statistics on the PHS sector and its diverse employment patterns. Studies highlight the importance of cross-referencing data from various classification systems to obtain a more accurate estimate of the sector. Lebrun (2020) suggests comparing the NACE and ISCO databases on domestic work supply with the COICOP databases, which reflect the demand, and adds that the various Eurobarometer’s on undeclared work provide additional information.

DEMAND FROM HOUSEHOLDS IS RISING

The gradual ageing of the population, combined with changes in family structure, marked by an increased participation

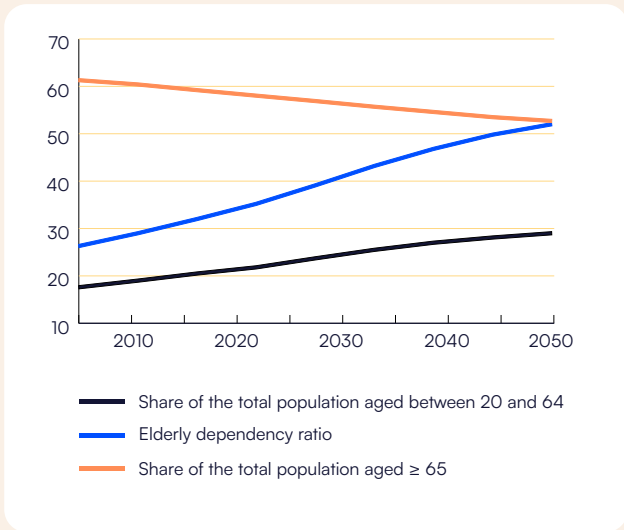
of women in the labour market, is leading to an increase in the need for household services.

AN AGEING POPULATION

According to Eurostat (2020), the share of people aged 65 or over is expected to reach 29.4% of the European population in 2050, up from 20.3% in 2019. Similar growth is expected

for the share of people aged 85 or over in the total population, rising from 2.8% in 2019 to 6.1% in 2050, when 26.8 million in the EU will be very elderly (*Ibid.*, p. 17).

FIGURE 2 — POPULATION STRUCTURE INDICATORS, EU-27, 2010-2050 IN %

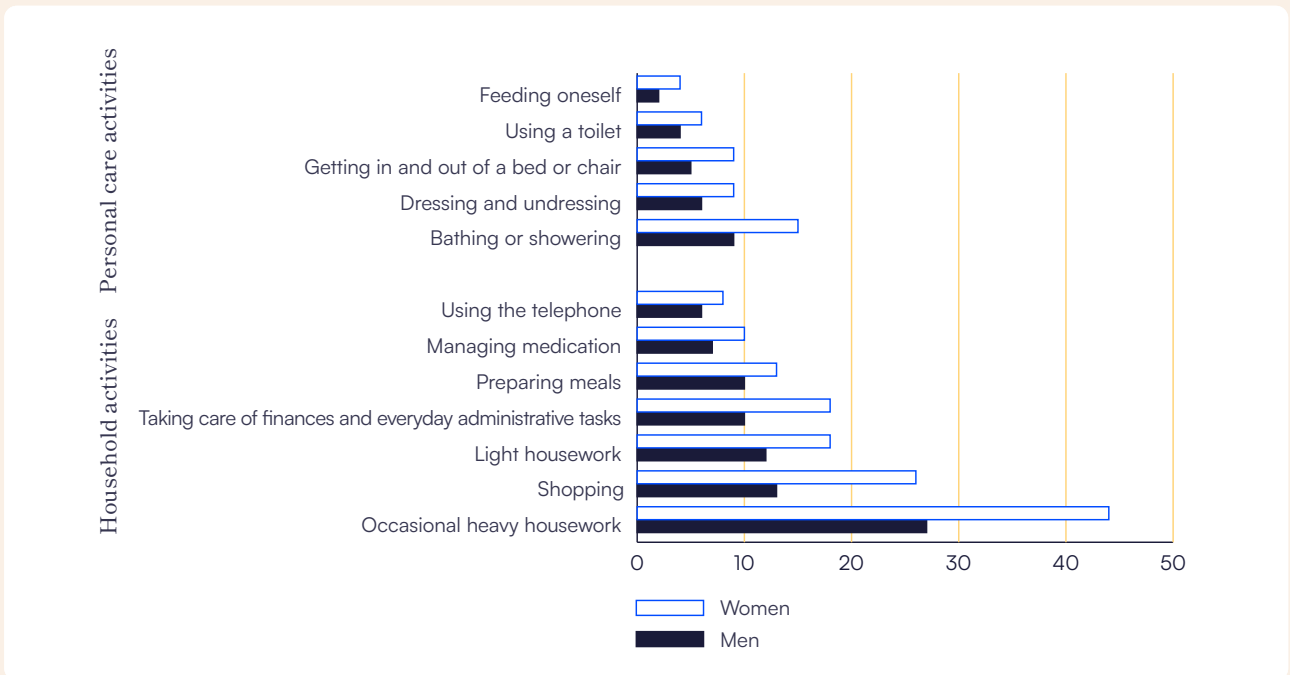


One of the direct consequences of population ageing is the increase in the old-age dependency ratio, which is used to express the share of people aged 65 or over compared to 15- to 64-year-olds, and has been growing steadily for some years (WHO cited by Eurostat, 2020, p. 22). As shown in the figure 2, it has increased from 26.3% in 2010, to 32% in 2020, and is expected to rise to 52% in 2050. That year there will be fewer than two people aged between 20 and 64 in the EU for every person over 65.

Dependency can be caused by chronic diseases and health problems, which affect many of our elderly. For example, in the EU-27 in 2018, 72.5% of people aged 85 or over reported suffering from an illness or health problem contracted more than six months before (*Ibid*, p. 70). This is particularly true in some Member States, such as Cyprus and Estonia, with 97.2% and 89.7% respectively of elderly people affected that year.

Source : Eurostat based on proj_19ndbi, proj_19np and proj_23np

FIGURE 3 - SELF-REPORTED SEVERE DIFFICULTIES IN DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL CARE AMONG PEOPLE AGED ≥75, BY SEX, EU-27, 2019 IN %



Source : Eurostat (2020, p. 72) (online data codes: hlth_ehis_ha1e and hlth_ehis_pcle)

Dependency is often synonymous with physical and/or cognitive difficulties that manifest themselves as issues with mobility, vision, hearing, communication, and memory. For example, in 2014, 25% of men and 15.3% of women in the EU-27 aged 65 and over had severe difficulties walking (Eurostat, 2020, p. 67). Naturally, these challenges limit the ability of older adults to meet their primary needs for food, healthcare, and organising daily activities at home. The figure 3 shows that more than 10% of elderly people in the EU reported severe difficulties preparing meals, doing housework and toileting (*ibid.*, p. 72). Women seem more affected than men by this phenomenon, but this is mainly due to their longer life expectancy. They are more likely to live alone at home in their old age.

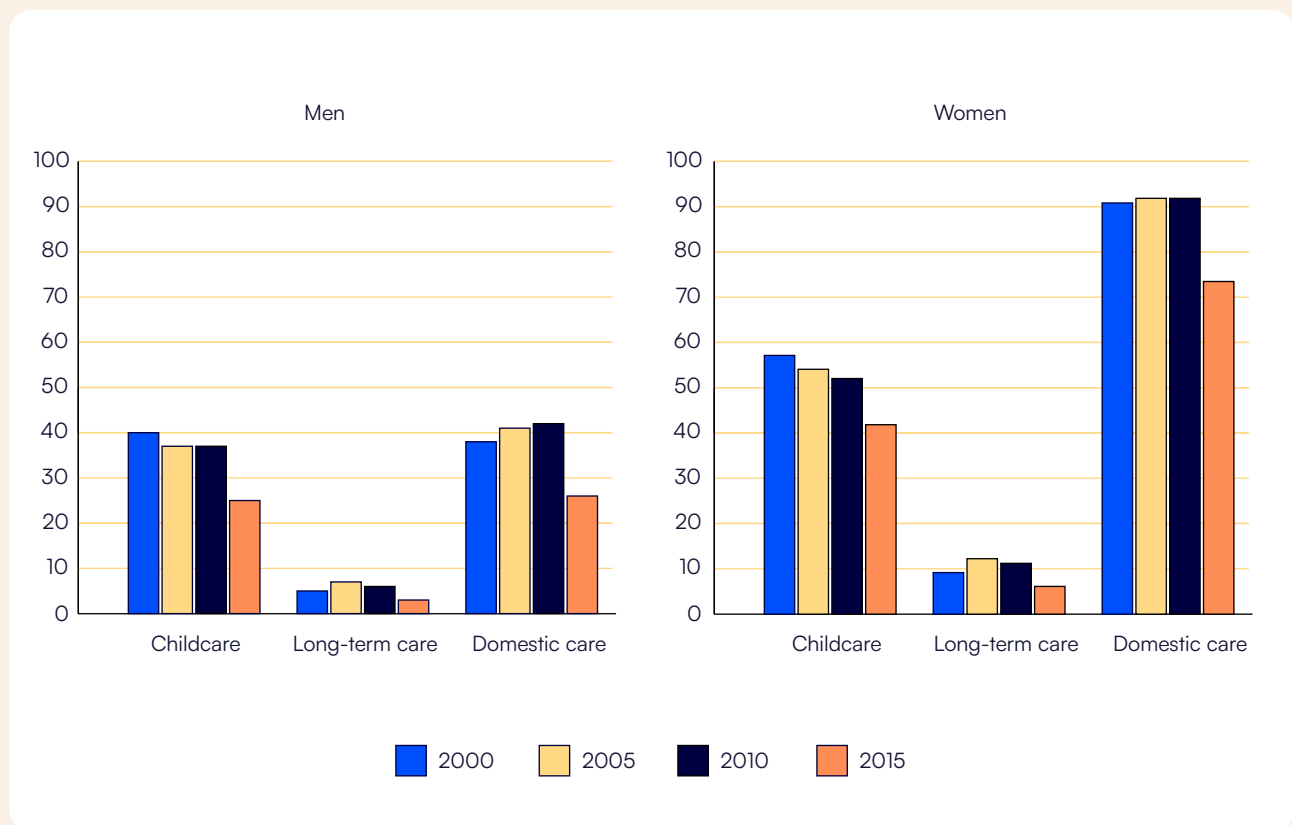
In 2020, as much as 47.3% of people aged 75 and over, who were experiencing severe difficulties carrying out domestic activities and personal care, reported not receiving enough domestic help, according to Eurostat (2022). More generally, 39.4% of people aged 75 and over living at home need long-term care in the EU (Green Paper on Ageing, 2021). And while they mostly prefer to stay at home, the demand for long-term home care will likely continue to grow in the coming decades. It will also correspond to the gradual fall in the birth rate in the EU-27, which is contributing to the decline in the number of informal carers, on whom our health and long-term care systems are still too reliant (*ibid.*).

A BROADER PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN THE LABOUR MARKET

At the same time, more women are joining the labour market, despite an employment rate in the EU that is still significantly lower than that of men. In 2021, 67.7% of women were employed, compared to 78.5% of their male counterparts. This significant gap is partly explained by the amount of unpaid

family and domestic tasks, which are still too often carried out by women in an informal and unpaid manner. In 2022, while 42% of women and 38% of men in the EU reported caring for a young, elderly, or disabled relative, on average women spent more time on these activities (EIGE, 2023).

FIGURE 4 — PROPORTION OF EMPLOYED MEN AND WOMEN ENGAGED IN DAILY CARE ACTIVITIES (% , 15+, EU-28, 2000-2015)



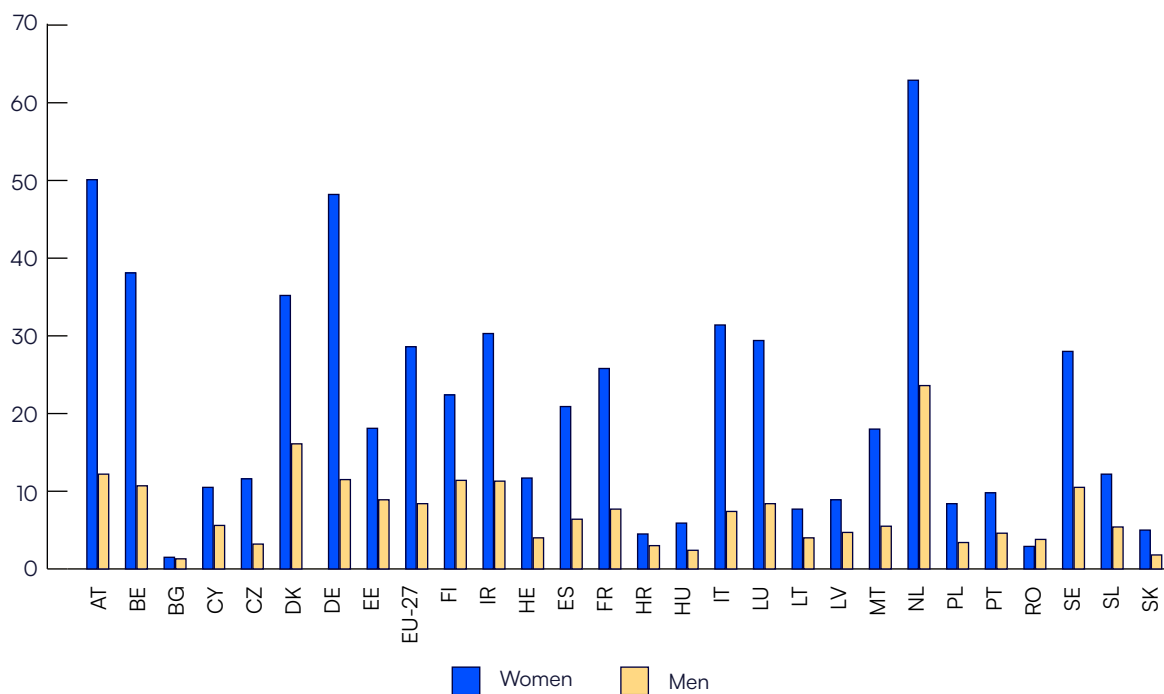
Source: EIGE (2021, p.44), calculations based on EWCS data 2000–2015

Around 30% of them expressed difficulties maintaining a paid job because of excessive family responsibilities (*ibid*). This is particularly true in southern Member States such as Cyprus, Greece, Malta, and Portugal, which traditionally place women at the centre of their family models, but also in eastern Member States such as Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, and Romania. In 2020, 7.7 million women were excluded from the labour market due to family responsibilities, compared to only 450,000 men in the EU (Eurostat, 2020).

When they do not leave the labour market permanently or temporarily, women are more likely to adjust their working hours to take on family and domestic responsibilities. In 2021, the part-time employment rate of women was 20.7 percentage points higher than that of men (European Commission, 2023a). The figure 5 shows that women work more regularly part-time than men in all EU Member States.



FIGURE 5 — WOMEN AND MEN WORKING PART-TIME AS PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL EMPLOYMENT PER MEMBER STATE (% , 15-64 YEARS, EU-27, 2023)



Source : Eurostat, 2019, (Ifsa_eggpa) cited by EIGE (2021, p.20)

Among women aged 20-64 with a part-time job in 2018, 29% quoted family responsibilities as the main reason for reducing their working hours compared to only 6% of men (EIGE — Gender inequalities in care, 2023). Unsurprisingly, childcare activities found a central place here. Although most EU Member States are moving closer to the revised 2030 Barcelona target concerning the implementation of early childhood education and care (ECEC) arrangements for more than 96% of children aged three to five or six years — the compulsory school age — there is still a lot to be done for the youngest. The revised 45% target of children aged zero to three covered by the ECEC is not required of all Member States. Countries that are lagging such as Bulgaria, Czechia, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Slovakia have a new target of 20.3% by 2030. An intermediate group composed of Germany, Austria, Cyprus, Croatia, Estonia, Greece, Italy, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, and Malta, will have to reach 38.6%. Only Germany, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Slovenia, and Sweden guarantee a place in a ECEC service for every child from the earliest age, i.e. six and 18 months (Eurydice, 2019, p.6). In Belgium, Spain, France, Hungary, Luxembourg, Poland, and Czechia, they are usually guaranteed a place in a state-subsidized service around the age of three (*Ibid*). For the rest of the Member States, this varies between the ages of four, five and six and precedes the age of compulsory schooling.

Moreover, only Denmark, Estonia, Czechia, and Slovenia guarantee opening hours of ECEC facilities during the weekly working hours of parents who are in full-time employment (*Ibid*). All these factors further add to the burden of pre-school child care on mothers.

Despite the contraction generated by the Covid-19 pandemic, reducing the gap between the employment rate of women and men is a stated objective of the European Commission, which aims to achieve an overall employment rate of at least 78% for 20–64-year-olds by 2030 (The European Pillar of Social Rights Action Plan, 2020). Like the European Strategy

for Gender Equality, it implements initiatives to ensure equal opportunities for all in the labour market, regardless of gender. This is the case of the European Disability Rights Strategy 2021-2030 and the European Care Strategy, which aim to promote affordable, accessible, and quality care services in the European Union. They aim to foster work-life balance by strengthening long-term care policies and early childhood education and care (ECEC).

The implementation of PHS is fully in line with the aims of the European Commission, who wishes to approach care with a strategic and integrated approach, which responds to the desire to improve the transition from care homes to home care and community-based services. The implementation of PHS contributes to reduce the financial impact of long-term care on national health systems in Member States, optimizing cost-effectiveness, and limiting the burden on health facilities. This in turn reduces the consequences of budget cuts on social care, a trend that reflects a gradual withdrawal of welfare in the EU. Strengthening PHS notably delays placing dependent elderly people in specialised institutions, while promoting active ageing and limiting isolation. As for informal carers, PHS also promote better time management and greater participation in the labour market by outsourcing family and domestic responsibilities to a third party that is qualified, declared and paid. This provides a solution that is adapted to the needs of its recipients and their families in terms of choosing the type of support they want.

These are valid alternatives for States as well as for care recipients and caregivers. But the workforce needed for PHS' full integration into future national care policies is still missing, despite a growing demand. In 2012, the European Commission estimated the potential for job creation in the PHS sector at around 5 million. In France alone, it is estimated that 800,000 jobs will be available by 2030 (L'Observatoire de l'emploi à domicile, 2021), as a direct consequence of the increase in demand and the retirement of current employees.



LABOUR SHORTAGE LINKED TO THE UNATTRACTIVENESS OF THE SECTOR

In its report on the evolution of employment and the social situation in Europe, the European Commission places the PHS sector among the ones that will suffer a labour shortage

in the coming years. In practice, this will result in an overall demand for skilled workers that will exceed the number of potential candidates (European Commission, 2023, p. 41).

FIGURE 6 — FUTURE LABOUR SHORTAGES ARE LARGER IN HIGHLY SKILLED NON-MANUAL AND BASIC OCCUPATIONS

Upcoming labour shortages by 2035, ranging from 1 (low or no shortage) to 4 (high shortage)

	ISCO	Occupation	Expansion	Replacement	Imbalance	Future shortage indicator
High-skilled non-manual occupations	11	Chief executives, senior officials and legislators	2	4	2	2.7
	13	Production and specialized services managers	3	3	2	2.7
	21	Science and engineering professionals	4	2	1	2.3
	22	Health professionals	3	4	1	2.7
	25	ICT professionals	4	1	1	2.0
	26	Legal, social and cultural professionals	3	3	2	2.7
	33	Business and administration associate professionals	3	3	2	2.7
	34	Legal, social, cultural and associate professionals	4	3	2	3.0
Skilled non-manual occupations	42	Customer services clerks	3	3	2	2.7
	51	Personal services workers	3	2	3	2.7
	52	Sales workers	2	2	3	2.3
	53	Personal care workers	3	3	2	2.7
Skilled manual occupations	71	Building and related trades workers (excluding electricians)	2	2	3	2.3
	72	Metal, machinery and related trades workers	2	2	3	2.3
	74	Electrical and electronic trades workers	2	2	2	2.0
	82	Assemblers	3	2	3	2.7
	83	Drivers and mobile plant operators	2	3	3	2.7
Elementary occupations	91	Cleaners and helpers	2	4	4	3.3
	93	Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport	3	2	4	3.0
	94	Food preparation assistants	3	2	4	3.0
	95	Street and related sales and services workers	2	2	4	2.7
	96	Refuse workers and other elementary workers	3	2	4	3.0

Source : European Commission (2023c, p. 49)

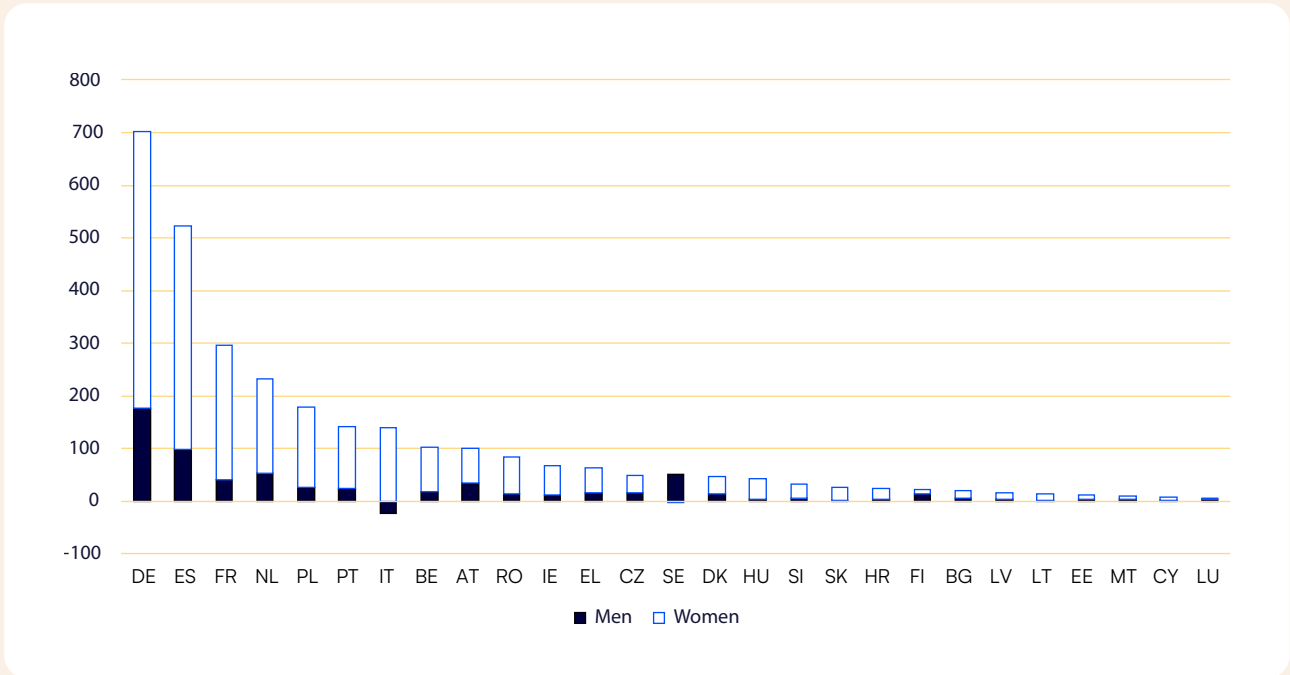
The figure 6 provides only an overview of future labour needs in the PHS sector. Based on the ISCO classification, which focuses on job categories and not employment patterns, it does not distinguish between the constituent groups of the sector, namely group 5311 “Child Care Workers”, group 5322 “Home-based Personal Care Workers” and group 9111 “Domestic Cleaners and Helpers”. Nevertheless, it includes them in major subgroups 53 “Personal care workers” and 91 “Cleaners and helpers” and assigns them respectively a labour shortage indicator of 2.7 and 3.3, considering the rate of expansion, replacement, and imbalance by subgroup on a scale of 4 (the highest). It therefore confirms the finding established by the European Labour Authority (2021b, p. 8) which showed the ISCO 5322 category among those suffering a severe shortage of employees, i.e. over 3% of the current workforce.



Among the factors that are deemed responsible for this foretold crisis, the high rate of female PHS workers plays a decisive role. In fact, 80% of jobs in this sector are held by women, reducing the number of potential candidates to fill vacancies. This observation highlights the importance of gender stereotypes still very often associated with both formal and informal care. Deeply rooted in our European societies, these stereotypes attach feminine qualities, such as altruism and being gentle, to care professions. This results from a scientific approach to care which has been criticised for its essentialist

footprint (Combis, 2020), and still greatly contributes to lower salaries in jobs associated with family and domestic responsibilities. The graph below confirms this observation, and shows a strong growth in female employment in the social care and health sector in the EU-27 between 2013 and 2022. During this period, approximately 700,000 workers of which 520,000 women joined the sector in Germany. The largest share of female employment out of the total number of workers in the sector can be found in the three Baltic countries, Croatia, and Slovakia.

FIGURE 7 — EMPLOYMENT GROWTH IN THE SOCIAL CARE AND HEALTH SECTOR, EU27, 2Q 2013 TO 2Q 2022 IN THOUSANDS



Source : Eurofound (2023, p. 18), figure based on Eurostat data

In addition to the high rate of female workers, coupled with increasing demand, other factors are at the root of the upcoming labour shortage in the PHS sector. Among them, the way in which society perceives the PHS sector limits its attractiveness, i.e. its ability to attract skilled labour.

In its opinion on shortage occupations (2022), the French Economic, Social and Environmental Council — CESE, has identified wages, skills and working conditions as the main sources of attractiveness in occupations. It states that salaries generally express the recognition of the skills needed to carry out an activity in each context. A job loses attractiveness when it is not paid enough, or when the wage is considered insufficient compared to the constraints associated with the work.

The wages of PHS occupations are often considered too low given the constraints involved. Despite the lack of accurate sectoral statistics, data collected in Europe show that wages for residential and non-residential long-term care jobs in the NACE 87 and 88 categories are 21% lower than those in the health sector (Eurofound, 2021). Yet, workers in this industry face many physical, emotional and time constraints, particularly for care-related services (Moré, 2014). Helping fragile and dependent people includes, in fact, regularly and repeatedly carrying weights over

the course of the day, and for every person in care. This type of care is carried out at home, in environments that are sometimes unsuitable for medical equipment, and can quickly become challenging and cause musculoskeletal disorders (MSD). All of this is compounded by a significant mental and emotional burden that arises from the intimacy developed with dependent people and their families. This close bond is based on emotional skills such as listening, empathy, adaptation and patience and can turn into a source of stress that heightens the risks of psychosocial disorders (EESC, 2020, p. 21). Finally, the lack of recognition of these professions puts employees in a statutory precariousness that can translate into frustration and loss of professional meaning, also fuelled by the lack of career development prospects.

In addition, the diversity of tasks, ranging from care to support services, can be stress-inducing. Some tasks, despite being time-consuming, are carried out within the allotted working hours, sometimes to the detriment of quality. This can lead employees to develop a sense of guilt. Unusual working hours are another obstacle to the sector's attractiveness. Meeting the needs of various and distant households requires excessively long, and unpaid, commuting times, and consequently, managing working hours calls for considerable flexibility

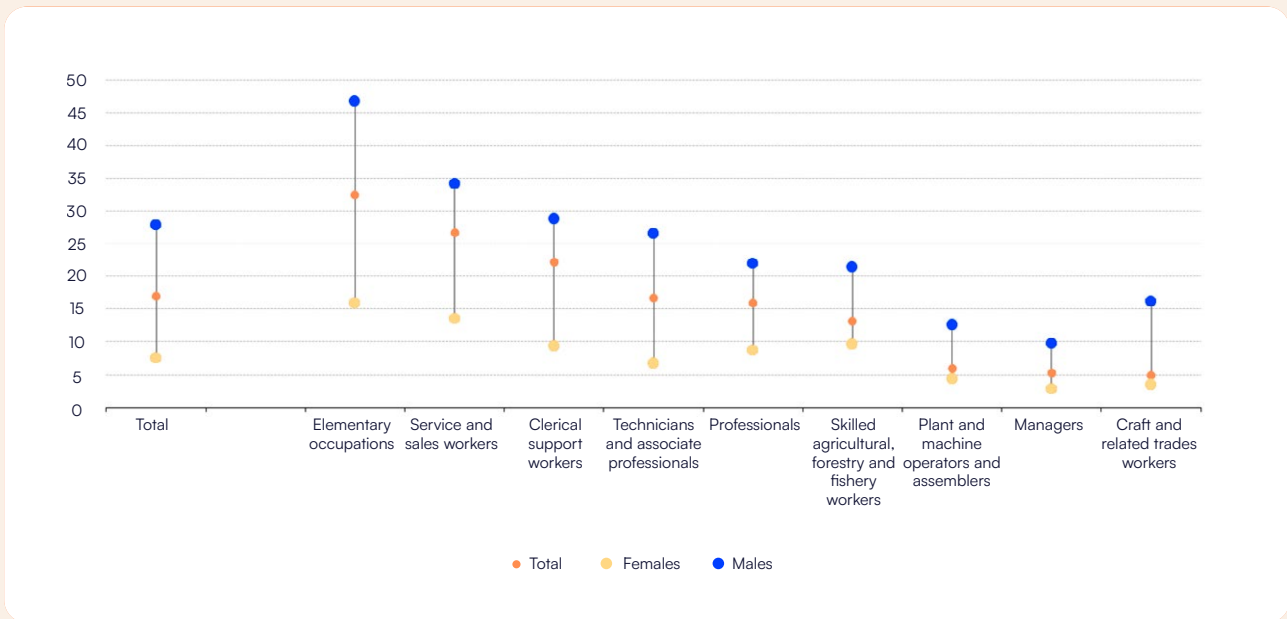
and can become restrictive. These professions are also typically covered by short, part-time contracts with many employers, which reinforces the burden on workers without an adequate status. These various factors are in some cases magnified by workers feeling a sense of professional isolation when faced with complex situations, which is made worse by not knowing their rights and obligations. This is exacerbated by the fact that trade unions often lack knowledge about the specifics of the sector and the daily lives of domestic workers.

Homes therefore becomes an unusual yet regular place of work, alongside people in need of support and with a variable level of dependency. Workers enter vulnerable people’s homes and their privacy to carry out tasks that contribute to their independence and autonomy.

This model of care is empowering for its recipients, as it seeks to increase vulnerable people’s ability to act and take decisions (Lenzi, 2023).

FIGURE 8 — PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT BY GENDER AND MAIN OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY

(as a % of total active workers aged 20 to 64 in each category in 2022)



Source : Eurostat (2023)

The figure 8 reminds us that PHS workers, especially women, are most often handed part-time contracts. Although it does not allow us to focus precisely on the ISCO categories mentioned above, it shows that 46.8% of the workers in the larger group 5 “Service and Sales Workers” worked part-time in 2022. The same applies to workers in the Elementary Occupations Group 9, of which 34.2% were part-time employees that same year.

The labour shortage highlights the importance of improving the attractiveness of PHS occupations to meet the need for skilled workers in the coming years. This must be accompanied by a greater recognition of the sector, and specific instructions to ensure that employees and care recipients alike receive the right standards of quality and social protection. To this end, national and European measures that aim to develop professional skills in this sector could provide a solution to the set of challenges mentioned earlier. Without a political will to strengthen the legal framework and better funding, the huge potential for job creation mentioned earlier will not be fully exploited in the EU.

Professionalising the PHS sector

PROFESSIONALISATION: DOUBLE TAKE ON A WORD WITH MANY MEANINGS

Regularly used by policymakers to designate the process by which an activity gradually becomes of a professional nature, the term professionalisation has several meanings, which vary according to when, where and how it is used. Although there is no single European definition of the term and its connotations, the existing scientific literature nevertheless allows for three meanings: “establishing an independent social group; supporting flexible working time; and creating a profession through training” (Wittorski, 2008).

The meaning of the term professionalization therefore differs according to the people who use it and responds to several issues. Its diverse meanings reflect different identities and often place it at the heart of the debate and social regulations.

In the context of PHS, the sector’s main challenge is the lack of social and institutional recognition of professions that are often scarcely visible. These occupations are carried out in private households, out of sight, and are mostly of a private and personal nature. Since these activities were previously performed in an unpaid and un-professionalised way mostly by women who lived in the household, many still believe these jobs require no or few qualifications. They remain tainted by gender stereotypes, to the point that some people question their professional nature (EU-OSHA, 2009). This contributes to isolate workers and hinders the formalisation of the sector.

PHS professions are still often excluded from labour regulations. Whether partial or total, this exclusion is one of the main causes of informality in the sector. According to the ILO (2022, p. 66), in 2020 only 11% of PHS workers were covered by general labour laws in Northern, Southern and Western Europe. The remaining 89% were only partly covered by general and specific laws or related regulations. In most cases, the legislation in force does not consider the various employment models and their specificities. For example, direct employment is recognised, legally regulated, and paid only in very few Member States, which makes legalising the employment relationship with employees difficult for employer households. Employer households are usually poorly identified, whereas workers — whether declared or not — usually only benefit from low social protection and do not always enjoy the same rights as other workers. Added to this are the many administrative hurdles and opaque reporting systems, two elements that, combined with the high employer and social security contributions,

discourage employers and sometimes even workers from reporting their activities. This is particularly true in Portugal, where the lack of social and tax incentives nurtures undeclared employment, as highlighted by workers’ union STAD (2023). However, in some EU Member States, introducing reporting and incentive schemes has significantly reduced the use of undeclared work. In France, the implementation of the universal service employment voucher CESU alongside solvency schemes for household employers, has allowed a drastic reduction in undeclared work in the sector. Between 1995 and 2005, the implementation of social and tax measures, such as tax rebates, led to a 76% increase in the number of households who reported employing a domestic worker (L’Observatoire de l’emploi à domicile, 2023). Two thirds of this increase corresponded to declaring previously undeclared employees. As such, the rate of undeclared work in home services decreased from 50% in 1996 to 20% in 2017 in France (*Ibid*). Belgium has enjoyed similar success by setting up the “service vouchers — titres services” system to ensure that domestic work is declared. Nevertheless, the road ahead remains very long, because despite the developments that have followed the adoption of ILO Convention 189 on Decent Work for Domestic Workers of 2011, only nine Member States have ratified it to date. And while the Covid-19 pandemic has highlighted the important social role played by workers in the sector, they remain insufficiently recognised or respected, despite the growing needs for skilled labour in the industry.



Apart from the lack of recognition of the sector and its various employment models, the fact that the professions that comprise it are largely invisible influences the way PHS work is structured, and limits workers' ability to come together to obtain social rights when carrying out their duties. Despite the difference between care and support services, there is no universal classification or definition of occupations and employment models in the PHS sector. They vary according to Member States, which sometimes use different job titles to designate the same activity, which explains why national data are very diverse and difficult to compare. This is directly reflected in European statistics, which are very approximate both in terms of the number of workers and assessing the sector's economic weight. This phenomenon naturally limits funding by public authorities and causes it to lag in terms of development. It also limits the development of an individual and collective identity for workers who struggle to identify their peers and consequently to join forces and find common ground.

As such, the role of social partners, in particular trade unions, is essential to safeguard the individual and collective interests of PHS workers, regardless of their employment status. They are the workers' voice, and inform them about their rights and potential remedies in the event of a dispute. They also help with administrative tasks that are essential for employees, such as national health insurance contributions and retirement funds. Finally, they contribute to the social dialogue between the State, employers, and employees. When they represent workers sufficiently, they can negotiate and sign collective agreements that frame the employment relationship, determine its scope, and grant social rights to employees. Although social partners include PHS in most EU Member States, only a handful recognise the existence of a direct employment model. This is notably the case in France and Italy, the only two Member States in which a collective agreement makes it possible for households to legally employ workers directly.

EUROPEAN PROJECT PHSDIALOGUE

The European social partners (EFFAT, EFE, EFSI, UNI-Europa) launched the PHSDialogue project in July 2023, which aims to promote collective bargaining in the PHS sector as well as setting up representative organisations. It is aimed at mapping the key players in the sector and establishing sectoral observatories at national level. Eventually, it will include dedicated workshops to promote the organization of trade unions and employers' organizations.

<https://www.effe-homecare.eu/en/new-capacity-building-project-kicked-off-for-personal-and-household-services-stakeholders/>





Finally, in view of the surge in demand for PHS, another crucial factor will be to increase the number and quality of jobs in the labour supply chain. Because of the low rates of qualified workers in the sector, training household employees is therefore particularly important. Their professionalisation, intended as acquiring professional skills, requires professional training. This must include a greater correlation between the training offer and professional practice, both in terms of content and learning. For example, training pathways typically differentiate care-related services from support services regardless of their frequent overlap. The way in which the offer is divided based on business

categories does not systematically correspond to employees' tasks, and must be revised. At the same time, training courses are not always accessible to the targeted group. When taught in person, teaching can become exclusive because of its cost, pace, or geographical location. For this reason, blended learning, a so-called mixed alternative that includes face-to-face and distance learning, is an interesting learning path since it provides solutions to these three variables. When these aspects are considered, training organisations gain legitimacy and improve their stance on a competitive market by ensuring the professionalising nature of their offer.

THE EUROPEAN PROJECT PRODOME

Conducted between 2016 and 2019, the European PRODOME project aimed to develop the professionalization of domestic workers in the EU. Bringing together partners representing domestic employers, workers, and VET organizations, it drew up an inventory of the profile of domestic workers in Europe and established a benchmark of skills and training, which has been experimented in Spain and Italy through blended learning. At the same time, the partners published a training kit, available in four languages, and defined a roadmap to set up a European certification system.

<https://www.prodome.eu/>

ARE SKILLS THE CORNERSTONE OF PROFESSIONALIZATION SCHEMES?

The greater participation of women in the labour market reduces their ability to take on family and domestic responsibilities. Therefore, the question arises of outsourcing them to a qualified and paid third party within the framework of a professional relationship. In addition, taking care of your child, elderly parent, and house, in your own private space, has nothing to do with taking care of a person who is not your parent, in a home that is not your own: it is precisely this difference that turns these activities into a job that requires professional skills.

Like professionalisation, the concept of skill can be defined in many ways, based on the one hand on its cognitive aspect, and on the other on its social aspect, which reveals the difficulties relating to its recognition and evaluation. Far from being opposed, these two approaches seem complementary and justify the inclusion of this term into professional practices.

Hoskins and Deakin Crick cited by TRANSVAL-EU (2021), refer to skills as “a complex combination of knowledge, know-how, understanding, values, attitudes, and desires that lead to effective human action embodied in the world in a particular area. A person’s achievements at work, in personal relationships and in civil society are not based simply on the accumulation of knowledge stored as data, but on the combination of that knowledge with know-how, values, attitudes, desires and motivation, and their application in a particular human context at a given point in a trajectory, and over time. Skills involve a sense of organization, action, and value.

Ardouin (2005) defines skill as “the formalization of a complex activity, of a structured set of knowledge (know-how, interpersonal skills, social and cultural knowledge, experience), applied with scope and method in a given context”. In accordance with this definition,



a skill is the social and professional quality attributed to a person following their assessment by a third party, based on appropriate criteria in a specific situation. It validates knowledge and know-how and cannot be considered an intrinsic quality of an individual. It is part of the broader process of the social and institutional recognition of an activity. This process actively contributes to forging their identities (for others and for themselves) (Dubar, 2022) and allows them to acquire a certain professionalism. Therefore, by recognizing the skill of an individual in doing something, we recognize their capacity to be, which legitimizes their belonging to a community. This helps to climb the social hierarchy. A skill is therefore one of the pillars of professional socialization and is part of the narrative that builds a social group’s identity (Jorro & Wittorski, 2013).

Regularly considered as low-skilled, domestic work requires specific vocational skills to be carried out without risk in a decent, declared, and paid manner. Among them are hard and technical skills, and other soft and transversal skills.

On the one hand, technical skills designate the knowledge and know-how that are specific to each profession. They include the knowledge about a given work environment (such as the place and target population) and the activity’s organisers (features of the target population, products used and tasks carried out). They also include the gestures, positions, methods, and procedures that are required to carry out a task in accordance with safety standards, such as carrying elderly, dependent or disabled persons. In domestic work, these include organizing, anticipating, and carrying out a series of activities, while adapting to the habits of the person who is being cared for, and encouraging them to participate in looking after their surroundings according to their abilities. This is the case for the skills required to: prepare menus and meals; ensure the well-being and hygiene of the assisted; monitor a person’s health. Their role in reporting and detecting issues is paramount here (Valléry & Leduc, 2010).

On the other hand, relational and transversal skills require interpersonal skills. These are more abstract and difficult to measure, and include cognitive, organizational, social, and emotional aspects (TRANSVAL-EU, 2021, p. 11-12). They usually correspond to being independent, good listening and communication skills, flexibility, being well organized, being polite and respectful, which are often confused with social intelligence and practice. For example, adapting the topics of conversation to the assisted person’s interests, to create a rapport with them, foster trust, ensure their emotional well-being, detect, and prevent risks that may arise for the assisted person, and help them nurture social relations with people around them. Care work therefore provides a place for emotions and feelings, and seeks to meet the needs and adapt to the real-life scenarios of vulnerable people. Each situation has specific traits, and workers must constantly adapt, and personalize their support (Lenzi, 2020) by being able to take initiatives for the well-being of the person who is being helped. Emotions are an integral part of the job, given that each situation is unique and that forging a privileged relationship between the employee and the assisted person requires situational and social skills, and that the work needs to be carried out at the right time and in an appropriate manner. This creates an interdependence between the employee and the beneficiary, whether an employer or not. Despite their importance, these skills are undervalued in home care.

Training curricula often emphasize technical skills and do not sufficiently value soft and transversal skills, even though they are particularly sought after by the recipients, whether employers or not. The Skills Panorama developed by CEDEFOP (2023) and based on the ISCO 08 classification, highlights the importance of soft and transversal skills for groups 91 and 53. In particular, it highlights language as one of the cross-cutting skills most in demand by employers for these two groups. The example of Polish domestic employers perfectly illustrates this trend. They often avoid recruiting Ukrainian workers to care for their children due to their accent, which they fear could hinder their children's language learning (ILO, 2016c).

Providing a list of skills in the form of required references and certificates (namely, the documents required to legitimately obtain a certificate), in line with the needs of the market, helps training organizations refocus their offer. They serve as a basis for creating training repositories (documents that include all the targeted skills, educational content, and marking systems). They are also important to apply for or renew grants to sustain and develop the training offer. More broadly, they constitute a repository of knowledge, know-how and soft skills and are a reference for both workers and their employers. They establish a common language and help understand and reflect on the activities that are carried out. Finally, they are essential for the professional development of workers and their career prospects.



SKILLS VALIDATION, AN INSTRUMENT TO ENHANCE THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF THE SECTOR

The recognition and certification of professional skills is a national prerogative. In accordance with the Treaties, the European Union can only support, coordinate and supplement the action of the Member States in the field of vocational education and training. This is what it has sought to do through its European Qualifications Framework (EQF), created in 2008 and revised in 2017, which aims to strengthen the transparency, comparability, and transferability of certifications. Composed of eight reference levels based on knowledge, skills, responsibility and autonomy, this tool helps to transpose the various national frameworks.

As such, it defines certification as “the formal outcome of an evaluation and validation process obtained when a competent authority establishes that a person has completed their learning path according to set standards.”

Alongside the ESCO classification, the Europass portal and the European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET), encourages cross-border mobility and the professional development of learners and workers, promotes lifelong learning, and fosters professional development throughout Europe. But in fact, certification and training programmes remain very varied and uneven in the Member States, particularly for PHS professions.

A comparative study conducted within the framework of the European PRODROME project (2018, p. 5-6) focused on existing training and certifications for domestic workers in Spain, France, and Italy (Lombardy region). The study notes that they are far from standardised, since they depend on national requirements, both in terms of the level of certification and the hours of training provided. Also, they are far from being applicable to professions in the field.

TABLEAU 2 — NQF, EQF LEVELS AND TOTAL NUMBER OF TRAINING AND ASSESSMENT HOURS FOR DOMESTIC WORKERS IN SPAIN, FRANCE, AND ITALY (LOMBARDY REGION)

Name	NQF Level	EQF Level	Total number of training and evaluation hours
Employé familial in FR	3	3	542 hours
Empleo doméstico in ES	1	3	200 hours
Assistente familiare in IT	-	-	160 hours

Source : PRODROME, but data modified with recent developments (2018)

Like the observation made by the partners of the European project PRODROME, the expected levels in terms of diplomas/professional titles for PHS professions differ from one Member State to another. Consequently, the minimum volume of related training may vary significantly for the same profession. Similarly, jobs do not depend on the same standards, which also implies different training content. A greater standardisation of national sectoral policies and business benchmarks would indeed have a positive impact on the attractiveness of the sector and help fight undeclared work. This would burnish the image of PHS professions by affirming their professional nature and would facilitate workers' mobility, by ensuring that professional certificates are obtained according to criteria that are commonly accepted and recognized in all Member States. Finally, it would improve the employability of workers and promote the identification of career paths.

As such, the validation of skills is an effective tool to consolidate the attractiveness of the sector through the acquisition of a level qualification for learners. Aimed mainly at low-skilled workers, it is essential to encourage the recognition of prior learning (RPL), in accordance with ILO Recommendation 204 on the transition from the informal to the formal economy. RPL allows people who do not hold diplomas or certificates obtained through formal learning paths, to have recognized what they have learned from non-formal and informal learning. In other words, it is a tool for the formalization and recognition of knowledge, which can be used to enter employment and develop professionally. Some Member States have already integrated the RPL into the PHS sector and have gone further by developing innovative devices such as micro-credentials. These refer to the validation of the results of a small learning unit (volume or duration) assessed in accordance with transparent standards that guarantee their quality and portability. They allow for the progressive validation of skills with a flexible and inclusive approach.

The reference to skills, a tool to empower migrant workers in PHS

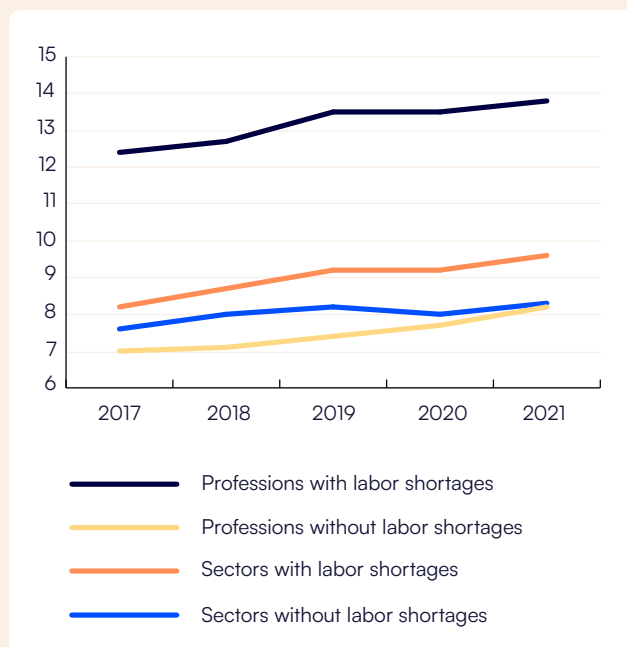
PHS, A SECTOR MADE UP OF A LARGE SHARE OF MIGRANT WORKERS

In its report on Employment and Social Developments in Europe (ESDE), the European Commission (2023) found that migrants, defined as people born outside but residing in the EU, are often employed in shortage sectors. For example, a migrant is more likely to work in an occupation facing a labour shortage (8.7 percentage points) than local workers. This is especially true for occupations requiring a low level of qualification. In fact, nine out of 10 people born outside the EU who work in a shortage sector are in low-skilled jobs. However, the Commission stresses

that the participation of migrants and more particularly migrant women in the labour market is low. It found that they are 3.1 times more likely to experience difficulties finding permanent or full-time employment, particularly in sectors where labour shortages are persistent. This can be explained by the many barriers that hinder their access to the formal market, such as language (24%), the recognition of skills acquired in the country of origin (16%), discrimination, and the mismatch between their profile and job offers (15%).

FIGURE 9 — HIGHER SHARE OF MIGRANT WORKERS IN JOBS AND SHORTAGE SECTORS

Share of migrant workers in shortage and regular jobs and sectors.



Source : EU-LFS 2017-2021 cited by the European Commission (2023c, p.75)

*Migrant and local workers are divided according to their country of birth. The analysis is limited to the population aged 20 to 64 years. Excludes data from Bulgaria, Hungary, Malta, Poland, and Slovenia, as the EU-LFS does not provide the country of birth of people born outside Europe.

As per the adjacent chart (figure 9), in 2021 the share of migrant workers was 13.8% in shortage occupations compared to 8.2% in sectors not facing a persistent labour shortage. The majority held low-skilled jobs. In addition, about 34% of migrant workers held part-time jobs in shortage sectors in 2021, compared to 18.2% of local workers.

Finally, this report shows that migrant workers are more affected by atypical working arrangements (schedule, type, contract, etc.). While there are many reasons for these figures, the notion of intersectionality seems particularly suited to explain the situation (Marchetti *et al.*, 2021, p. 7). Migrant workers are therefore regularly discriminated against and segregated due to gender, religious or ethnic affiliation and/or nationality.

The PHS sector is no exception to this trend. As a reminder, the ILO estimated in 2013 that 54.6% of domestic workers in Northern, Southern and Western Europe were migrant EU and non-EU workers, of which a majority are women (European Alliance C189, 2021). For its part, the European Union estimated that in 2017 some 30% of migrants were born in the EU and 15% of non-EU migrants were domestic workers (Cammarota, A. 2018). The importance of migrants in the PHS sector cannot be reduced to the share of non-EU

workers alone. In another report on intra-European mobility, the Commission (2023b) recalled the contribution of mobile workers to the sector, a term used to describe intra-EU and cross-border migration. According to the EC, in 2021 some 10% of intra-EU migrants (EU and EFTA) were employed in occupations included in category 91 of the ISCO classification “cleaners and helpers”. Some host Member States, such as Italy and Spain, are particularly affected by this trend, but also Germany, with an increase over the 2016-2021 period.

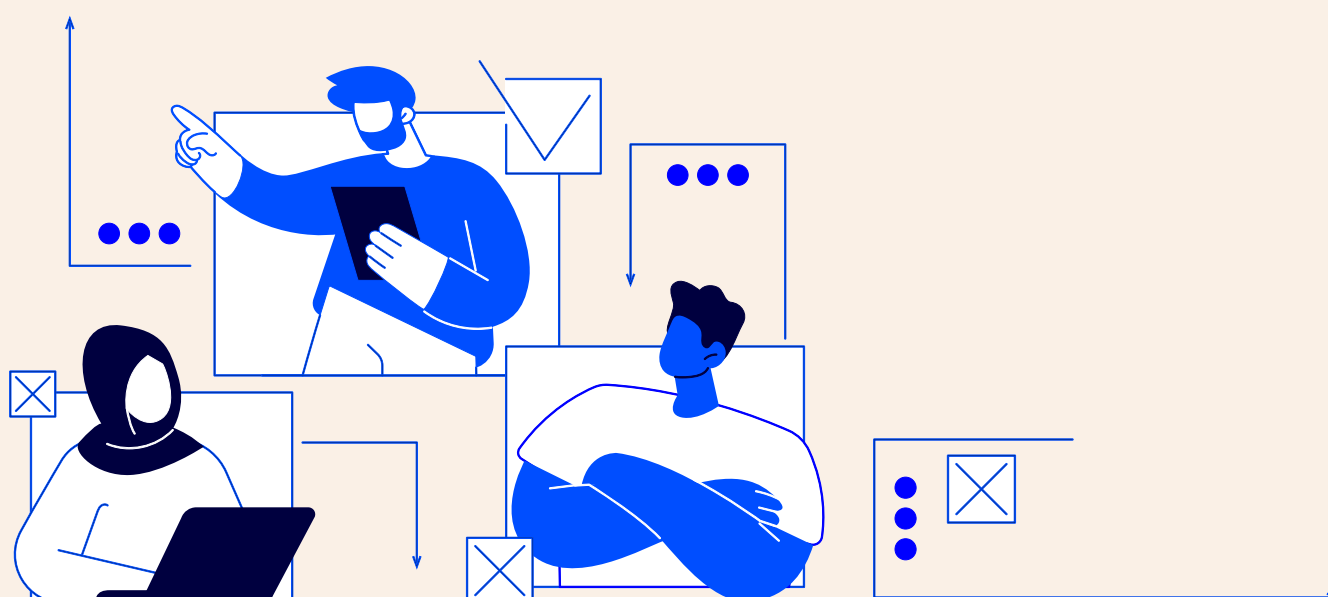
TABLEAU 3 — MAIN HOST AND ORIGIN MEMBER STATES IN THE EU

Main host Member States	Main Member States of origin
Germany, Spain, Italy hosting 57% of mobile workers	Italy (10%), Romania (27%), Poland (12%)

Source : European Commission (2023c)

Although these are European citizens who enjoy freedom of movement, these employed or self-employed workers face forms of discrimination based on gender, age, and Member State of origin. Their employment rate varies due to the difficult recognition of skills acquired in another European State. However, it remains higher than that of non-EU migrants (by 10.5% in 2019) according to the OECD (2022). This mobility, characterized by flows from East to West, causes a “care drain” in the Member States of origin (Palenga-Möllenbeck, 2013): women leave dependent children and adults behind, and migrate to richer countries to care for others. This phenomenon arises from the gradual increase in “global care chains” and is the result of outsourcing domestic and care tasks as a new form of international distribution of social labour.

Often lonely and undeclared, EU and non-EU migrant workers fully meet the definition of vulnerable workers mentioned above. They are particularly exposed to human rights violations in the course of their work. They were severely impacted by the Covid-19 pandemic. According to an ILO report (2021), the jobs of many migrant domestic workers were subsequently reduced in volume, suspended, or terminated without financial compensation, removing these workers’ main source of income. Job losses ranging between 5 and 20% were observed in most Member States (ILO, 2022, p. 244). The economic consequences were exacerbated by their exclusion from the unemployment schemes implemented by various Member States. In addition, they rarely benefited from social protection programmes that ensured access to basic health care. Left without resources, they were hit hard by lockdown measures and border closures that were an obstacle to their mobility. The crisis therefore exacerbated the precariousness of these workers, although many of them continued to work. This has often been to the detriment of their working conditions, increasing the risks of contagion due to the lack of personal protective equipment (PPE), and exploitation, especially for workers housed by their employers.



When in an irregular situation, migrant domestic workers suffered particularly from abuse and made little use of redress mechanisms for fear of being deported. However, the number of workers affected is very difficult to assess (FRA, 2022, p. 19). Some Member States such as France, Belgium, Spain, and Italy have nevertheless managed to limit the impact of the crisis on migrant domestic workers, by including them within the scope of their emergency measures (ILO, 2022, p. 248).

However, according to the literary corpus of the European Union, these workers should not have to encounter difficulties asserting their rights before the courts. The EU Charter of Fundamental Rights (Article 15, 2000) and the European Pillar of Social Rights (2017, Principles 3 and 4) stipulate that all workers in the EU must have access to decent working conditions, regardless of their nationality or immigration status. These principles echo the European Convention on Human Rights (1950, Article 4) which prohibits slavery and forced labour. In line with

these two texts, the Pact on Migration and Asylum presented in September 2020 proposes a set of legal, operational, and strategic initiatives in favour of fairer and more sustainable migration policies in the European Union. These include the Talent and Skills Package launched in November 2023, which has the dual objective of strengthening the legislative framework to legally access the EU, and to better link skills to labour market needs.

Despite the growing need for skilled labour, these various findings show that the employment potential of EU and non-EU migrant workers in the PHS sector is far from being sufficiently exploited. As such, the combination of professionalisation and skills could play a key role in the sector's renewed attractiveness, and let currently employed and future migrant workers benefit from growing long-term employment needs. For this, however, it must broaden its scope and be part of a work-based integration policy, by guaranteeing migrant workers in PHS the same rights as workers in other sectors.

THE MAIN FACTORS LIMITING MIGRANTS' ACCESS TO PROFESSIONALIZATION

The previous chapter highlighted the several meanings of the term 'professionalization' and showed the issues it raises for the actors involved in the PHS sector. Its practical application is therefore essential in many ways to ensure decent working and living conditions for all workers in the sector. But it is still

necessary to implement measures that are adapted to the needs of the target population. Migrant workers do not always have the necessary tools to understand the sector and its specificities, due to personal circumstances that hinder their freedom in the host country.

STATUS

The status of migrants is the first major obstacle to their social and professional integration. Although international and European labour law standards prohibit a difference in treatment based on status, migrants are regular victims. When they are in an irregular situation, without a residence permit, they are often limited to informal work, synonymous with greater precariousness. Without the help of civil society, often these people cannot begin the administrative procedures to obtain a temporary or permanent residence permit that is essential to their social and professional integration.

Currently, only a few EU Member States offer work permits for shortage sectors such as PHS. Others prefer to put in place mechanisms that will attract a highly skilled workforce. When granted, these permits are often temporary and linked to a specific job and consequently to a single employer. The loss of employment or change in employer therefore generally results in the annulment of the work permit. This creates a situation of dependence on the employer, promotes abuse and leads to the exploitation of workers. To illustrate this phenomenon, PICUM (2021, p. 13) highlights the changes made to visas for overseas domestic workers in the United Kingdom. The NGO reported that from 1998 to 2012, migrant domestic workers travelling to the UK could apply for an annual visa extension if they worked full-time, for any employer. However, between 2012 and 2016, the right to change employer was removed and the duration of the visa was reduced to a non-renewable maximum period of six months. During this period the number of cases of human rights violations increased significantly (*Ibid*). While the right to change employer during the six-month period was subsequently reintroduced, it is in fact difficult for domestic workers to find another job.



Like this example, the agreement reached on 18 December 2023 for the revision of the Single Permit Directive does not consider the specifics of these occupations and the varied and atypical working conditions in the PHS sector, despite the stated aim to combat labour shortages in the EU. It includes the right to change employer subject to notification or a request to the competent authorities, and is therefore not adapted to the direct employment model, which includes various employers. It nevertheless stipulates that any individual holding a single permit who is a victim of exploitative working conditions will have their holder's rights extended for an additional period of three months.

However, these permits are often too short and restrictive. They do not encourage the career development of migrant domestic workers or their mobility in the labour market. And despite the efforts made, the implementation of ad hoc regularization programmes still illustrates a utilitarian vision of migration, which rarely considers the social and professional precariousness of the workers concerned. At the heart of the pandemic, Italy implemented a policy of temporary regularisation to cope with the labour shortage in agricultural and PHS professions. This emergency measure only had a positive effect in the short term. Spain, for its part, chose to extend the duration of its residence permits for migrant workers to limit the social and economic impact of the pandemic. These short-term initiatives are not a sustainable solution to the future labour shortage in the sector, and the revision of the Single Permit Directive provides only a partial response to the sector's challenges.

Bilateral, regional, and multilateral agreements between third countries of origin and destination countries are an alternative solution to achieve this triple objective in the PHS sector. Supported by ILO Convention 189 (2011, Article 15), these partnerships aim to protect migrant workers from recruitment, placement, and employment abuses, and to guarantee them social protection. These partnerships are often possible thanks to the diplomatic relations between states who share a past and/or a language. France counts several of these agreements with French-speaking African countries, whose aim is to manage migratory flows in a coherent manner, and promote decent work. The partnerships allow workers to obtain residence permits and promote their access to training in the country of origin or the host country, thus promoting their integration. Eventually, this can lead to family reunification depending on the rules established by the authorities. For its part, Spain has set up similar partnerships with Morocco and Ecuador (ILO, 2017, pp. 20-21), which are accompanied by social security agreements. Germany, which already counts on Indonesia and Mexico to recruit PHS workers, has identified 12 additional potential partners to develop bilateral agreements on labour migration (ABMMO) (Angeordnet

et al., 2023, p. 41). However, this provides only a partial response to labour needs as it limits the migration potential to a list of countries. Also, it encourages the stigmatization of certain foreign nationals who are systematically associated with PHS professions. This is particularly true for Filipino workers.

Finally, the rise of private and unregulated recruitment agencies underscores the importance of the migrant industry, which lowers migrant workers to the level of mere merchandise. These agencies are regularly guilty of fraudulent practices in the areas of human and labour rights, pay, confiscating documents and charging fees (ILO, 2016b, p. 1). In other words, they take advantage of workers' ignorance to enrich themselves. To date, ILO Convention No.181 (1997) concerning Private Recruitment Agencies has only been ratified by 13 EU Member States. According to a study conducted by the European Agency for Fundamental Rights, contact with agencies is often made through informal networks, who take advantage of the absence of social partners to attract workers (2019). To prevent the development of these fraudulent practices, the Convention encourages EU Member States to better supervise them by implementing control mechanisms (licences, certificates) and sanctions in the event of non-compliance with the standards in force. It proposes to focus on sectors known for abuse such as PHS (*Ibid.*, p. 14)..

Faced with these findings, the development of sustainable, inclusive, and accessible work permits seems to be the most appropriate and equitable solution to meet workforce needs in the PHS sector. However, these must be established in agreement with the countries of origin and destination, so as not to increase pressure on these professions and accentuate the care drain. Well supervised, the situation could turn into a win-win: for the States that receive the workers because it would meet their need for labour; for the workers, because they would benefit from better working conditions; and for the country of origin because they would receive support to frame and recognise skills, and gain a skilled worker upon their return.



LANGUAGE LEVEL

As mentioned earlier, language is another significant barrier. According to a report published by the German Institute IZA (Dorn & Zweimüller, 2021, p. 22), lack of proficiency in the language spoken in the host country not only limits migrants' ability to find employment, but can also reduce their productivity and social inclusion. Their network is usually made up of other migrants, which limits their ability to obtain information about the job market and training offers (Chiswick & Miller, 2014, p. 6). In addition, when they decide to learn the language of the host country, migrants often must cover the direct costs for training and materials, as well as incurring missed opportunities due to a loss of earnings (*Ibid*). Not all of them can afford it. However, not mastering a language is particularly problematic when trying to understand and recognise the working arrangements proposed by employers. It often leads workers to accept informal work and can be the cause of an unbalanced employment relationship in which minimum wages and social rights (e.g. sick leave and rest periods) are not respected. With no less than 24 official languages spoken in the EU, the European labour market is also not the easiest to address.

Some initiatives take full account of these barriers, which hinder migrant workers' access to PHS occupations. In France, the social partners in the domestic employment sector (direct employment model) launched a job experiment in 2022

to meet the need for skilled labour and promote migrant worker employment. The LAB Migration project (2023) is aimed at adults who have the right to work and at least an elementary level of French (A1) and offers a pathway to economic inclusion that is based on three pillars: French language, professional skills, and citizenship. It targets four professions (childcare, care work, domestic work, mother's helpers), and is based on mandatory certification training with modules that are adapted to trainees' profiles, and provides support in finding employment with private employers.

The European project MiCare aims to: promote the social and professional integration of migrant groups working in elderly people's autonomy and dependency sectors; improve the quality of services. The project partners focused on the current systems in Austria, Spain, Finland, France, and Italy. Improving language and cultural skills prior to vocational training is one of the support activities conducted in these Member States. This is the case in the Austrian project Prequal that provided language courses to migrant women to facilitate their access to vocational training in the health and care sector. The project also addressed the challenges of the sector from an intercultural perspective by including training modules on discrimination and racism in the labour market. The project confirms that a minimum level of language knowledge is often one of the prerequisites for entering vocational training.





HOUSING

Housing is the third barrier that significantly limits the integration of migrants. It plays a decisive role in their access to employment and training opportunities, influences their social interactions and the evolution of their residence status. Yet, because of their status, nationality, and inability to submit documents in the language of the host Member State, migrants experience many social and financial difficulties when claiming their rights to decent housing. This happens despite Directive 2000/43/EC, on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin (2000, Article 3) and Principle 19 of the European Pillar of Social Rights (2017). Without information, migrants rarely benefit from public schemes and naturally look to the private market, which is plagued by discrimination. Many live in unsanitary housing, located on the fringes of their workplace and distant from public transport routes, with rent fees exceeding their revenues. In addition, these homes are frequently overcrowded. Based on these findings, Member States are seeking to develop housing that is intended for migrants. To do this, they rely on the cooperation between public authorities at national, regional, and local level, and private bodies such as associations and NGOs.

Several European initiatives have shown the importance of such holistic approaches. This is particularly the case in the Labour-INT 2 project, which has allowed the inclusion of migrants in Campania (Italy) in the agricultural sector, which

shares many well-known traits with the PHS sector. Led by organised civil society, the project helped workers register in accommodation centres and enter training and employment schemes that effectively fight undeclared work and consequent abuses, in a region that is marked by the exploitation of these vulnerable people.

The professionalization of the PHS sector, in all its aspects, can therefore only be considered a sustainable solution to the need for skilled labour if it is made accessible to all. For this, it must be included in work-based integration policies that consider the link between the three issues mentioned above. The latter are still too often addressed separately while in practice they are closely linked: on the one hand, access to housing depends on income from declared work (conditioned by language proficiency) and the legal status of a migrant; on the other hand, employment and training opportunities cannot be envisaged without nearby housing. Mobility often constitutes an additional obstacle to the professional integration of migrant workers whose driving licences obtained in third countries are not automatically recognised by host Member States. This generates additional costs to obtain a new driver's license or to use public transport, which are sometimes difficult to bear. To this end, social partners play a crucial role in ensuring the implementation of support schemes for migrant workers from their country of origin until they obtain employment in the host country.

RECOGNISING SOME SKILLS AND DEVELOPING OTHERS

The demand for labour in the PHS sector can be a source of discrimination if not properly framed. In addition, having skills recognised can be particularly difficult for migrant workers even though it is crucial in granting them access to the formal labour market. Without a certificate obtained in their country of origin, the skills acquired by migrant workers are not

recognized by the host country. And when they are certified, only a mutual recognition agreement guarantees their recognition by the host country. Migrant workers therefore face a dual challenge: the recognition of their original skills on the one hand, and on the other, learning new skills required by the host country to carry out a job that is declared and paid.

INITIAL SKILLS AND THE RISK OF OVERQUALIFICATION

The recognition by the host country of qualifications obtained by a migrant worker in their country of origin concerns formal education as well as non-formal and informal learning.

According to the ILO (2020b, p. 60), the mutual recognition of qualifications depends on the VET system in place in the country of origin and its compatibility with that of the host country. It is carried out through bilateral or multilateral agreements such as the Lisbon Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in Europe, which is based on the ENIC-NARIC network centres. Established in 55 countries, they issue certificates of recognition that cover academic and professional fields. The latter can be requested by employers to assess the profile of candidates before offering an employment contract. This can be complemented by public employment services (PES) to promote the professional integration of people who have applied for recognition in the host country. In Germany, the portal *Anerkennung in Deutschland*, funded by the Ministry for Training and Research, is aimed at migrant and refugee workers who want their diplomas and certificates recognised. It is available in eight strategic languages, spoken by the majority groups of the country's migrants and refugees.

Moreover, the BLMAs mentioned above — bilateral labour migration agreements — can effectively meet the needs of shortage sectors by focusing on Skills mobility partnerships (European Migration Network, 2022). Inspired by Talent Partnerships and Global Skills Partnerships, they rely on the cooperation

between public authorities and civil society to develop training and the recognition of skills in host and home countries. They consider the diplomas, certificates and skills acquired by the participants and distribute the training costs proportionally among all the actors involved. This is the case for the European programme *Towards a Holistic Approach to Labour Migration Governance and Labour Mobility in North Africa* — THAMM, which has supported and trained over 100 Egyptian, Moroccan and Tunisian trainees in the hotel and catering professions in Germany between 2019 and 2023 (*Ibid*). Italy has concluded a similar agreement with the Republic of the Philippines to support potential Filipino migrant workers prior to their departure via language and cultural induction courses. These agreements limit the influence of mafia networks and human trafficking.

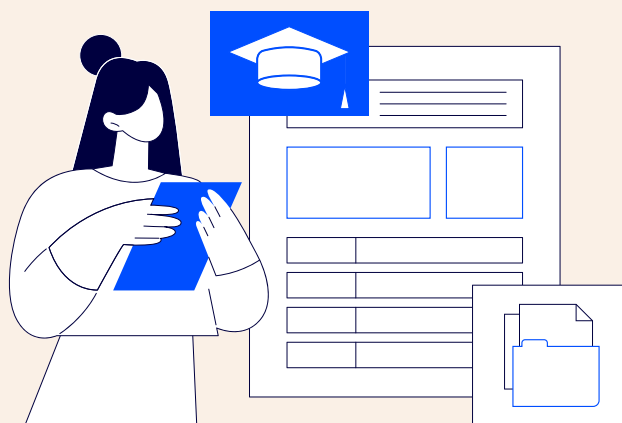
When the diplomas and certificates obtained in the country of origin are not recognised, migrant workers are subject to greater precariousness and a high risk of exploitation. Tragic events such as the war in Ukraine can lead to a sudden departure from the country of origin and a partial or total loss of income, forcing some people to urgently look for work, without taking the time to assert their rights or have their diplomas recognised. In the PHS sector itself, it is not uncommon for migrants to hold a job for which they are overqualified to support themselves and their families. In the long term, overqualification can turn into a disqualification, i.e. a loss of skills previously acquired and recognised, limiting workers' ability to find a job they are trained for and that is declared.

RECOGNITION OF PRIOR LEARNING

The processes for recognizing and validating the results of non-formal and informal learning are based on several principles, namely: validity, reliability, confidentiality, transparency, and suitability for use (CEDEFOP 2009 cited by ILO, 2020b, p. 48). This is generally offered by public employment services (PES), assessment centres, training bodies or directly by industries that operate at sectoral level. The process is based on tests and scenarios that assess the level of skill according to predefined and nationally recognized scales. Some bodies address these tests directly to migrant workers, others choose not to differentiate migrants from national workers. However, due to the lack of communication on existing schemes, especially in the language of the target population, migrant workers only benefit from limited access to RPL schemes.

However, RPL allows migrants to have their skills assessed and certified, obtain credits for qualified training, and a partial or total exemption from a study programme, according to the ILO (*Ibid*, p. 24). In some cases, it grants them an exemption from the normally required prerequisites, without even having to attend a formal education or training programme (*Ibid*). It offers many advantages to migrant workers. It therefore

improves their employability while reducing the cost and duration of training periods. Above all, it promotes their entry into the formal labour market and offers them opportunities for lifelong learning. It varies according to the existing VET system in the home country and its compatibility with that of the host country.



SKILLS STANDARDS GUARANTEE MIGRANT WORKER MOBILITY

Developing occupational skills standards seems particularly appropriate to face the many challenges arising from integrating migrant workers to meet future labour needs in the PHS sector. According to social and professional integration bodies, these standards help set up certification pathways and training modules that are adapted to the needs of learners and their future employers. They make it possible to define educational tools and methods, as well as the assessment methods needed to acquire coveted skills. They consider the diversity of the professions in the PHS sector and their specific traits. Some are made up of mandatory and optional modules, depending on the beneficiaries targeted by future

employers. In addition, they can be tailored to the target population, both in terms of content and learning methods. As mentioned earlier, the needs of migrant workers often go beyond learning professional skills. They include acquiring linguistic and intercultural knowledge, even if in some Member States such as France, professional language skills are adapted to the PHS sector. At the same time, these standards, which aim at the social and professional inclusion of vulnerable people, can consider their difficulties in accessing traditional training schemes. The development of blended learning and micro-credentials illustrates the intent of bodies in charge of integration.

THE EUROPEAN PROJECT MYCRED4HOME

The European project MyCred4Home (2021-2024), aimed at migrants and job seekers, seeks to integrate micro-credentials into a block path approach that will make it easier for them to progress towards higher and broader certification levels. It should make it possible to set up a repository of key micro-credentials in the PHS sector, based on a comparative study of existing measures in the EU.

<https://www.mycred4home.eu/>

For migrant workers in the sector, these standards facilitate the identification of skills that are needed to carry out a profession. They therefore include the knowledge, know-how and skills required by employers in the sector in a targeted Member State and allow workers to position themselves in relation to their formal, non-formal and informal achievements. In other words, standards are synonymous with transparency. They ensure that the nature and content

of a profession are adequate. Above all, their use in the form of training and evaluation standards justifies the learning process that leads to obtaining a sectoral or national certificate. Finally, their translation into the official language of potential workers promotes access to VET systems and helps them launch their careers. This applies both to migrants who are already in the host country and to those who would like to migrate for professional reasons.

THE EUROPEAN MICARE PROJECT

As part of the European MiCare project (2020-2023), aimed at supporting the social and professional integration of the migrant population in the care sector and strengthening the quality of services, the partners have defined standard key skills for care professions. This includes a part that is common to all partner countries, and standards that are adapted to national legislation. It resulted in the creation of training standards to develop specific professional skills and accessible educational resources for cultural and linguistic purposes.

<https://www.micareproject.eu/>

THE ROLE OF CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS IN THE PROFESSIONALISATION OF MIGRANT WORKERS

This report has highlighted the invisible nature of PHS workers and has showed its consequences in terms of recognising, structuring, and formalizing the sector. It has also recalled the importance of civil society in upholding their rights, regardless of migrants' legal status. However, despite the increase in the number of trade unions in the PHS sector, migrant workers still struggle to be represented.

According to Stauton (2019), migrant workers in PHS are difficult to reach because they do not operate in workplaces and forms of employment that are traditionally represented by trade unions. Added to this are language and cultural barriers, but also the fact of belonging to a community, and precariousness, which can create a climate of mistrust towards organisations in the host country. The latter is primarily caused by the fear of losing their job, often synonymous with expulsion for undeclared workers. Finally, trade unions do not always address the specific concerns of migrant workers. A study conducted in the Netherlands has revealed that undocumented workers were more concerned by their legal status than by campaigns aimed at strengthening the rights of all PHS workers and the recognition of the sector (van Hooren cited by Stauton, 2019). The latter also used their membership cards as a substitute for identity documents.

Overall, trade unions provide information and legal advice to migrant workers, whether affiliated or not. Through collective agreements, interprofessional and sectoral agreements, they can also have an influence on the training opportunities of workers and their financing. They sometimes accompany workers in the event of a dispute with employers and can support them in their fight for regularization. This is particularly the case of the Domestic workers league of the confederation of Christian trade unions (CSC) in Belgium. On 16 June 2022 — the International Day of Domestic Workers — one of the delegations made up of undocumented women demonstrated in Brussels



(PICUM, 2022). The aim of the demonstration was to protest exploitation, demand decent working conditions and obtain legal status.

Welcomed by various organisations around the world, this initiative highlights the importance of social partners in bringing together, organising, and structuring vulnerable groups of workers. On 18 September 2023, they met again in front of the Brussels parliament to demand the right to decent wage, housing, and citizenship.

These two examples showcase the importance of civil society organizations in the professionalization of PHS migrant workers to help them organize and develop a narrative around their identity, in a quest for visibility. In some cases, members of the same community come together to defend their interests and demand rights. Ukrainian workers gathered in Poland after realising that despite their legal status, few of them were declared.

Conclusion

The Covid-19 pandemic has highlighted pre-existing tensions in the personal and household services (PHS) sector. It also underlined the social, economic, and demographic changes that could lead to a future labour shortage, jeopardizing the resilience of our health and care systems. Increasing workforce quantity and quality therefore seems essential to ensure the system's sustainability. As such, professionalization appears to be a crucial lever to meet this twofold challenge. This also highlights the importance of civil society organizations in defending migrants' rights, regardless of status, which inevitably requires a better match between training and market needs, by establishing appropriate standards and certification systems.

Despite the efforts made by civil society to promote the professionalization of the sector, EU Member States are slow to take up the issue. In many cases, the potential employment opportunities generated by the growing demand for PHS are insufficiently framed, resulting in an increase in undeclared work and an accrued risk of exploitation for workers in vulnerable situations.

It must be emphasized that promoting the professionalization of the PHS sector cannot be separated from adequate labour market regulation. The lack of a robust regulatory framework fosters the development of informal work and exposes workers to precarious conditions. The situation not only threatens the quality of the services offered but also compromises the well-being of workers themselves. Member States must act to ensure decent and safe working conditions in the PHS sector, while ensuring the sustainability of services that are essential to society.

Several crucial measures need to be implemented to ensure the professionalisation of the PHS sector and guarantee decent working conditions for all, including domestic workers. Firstly, all care workers, including domestic workers, must have the right to access lifelong learning, education, and training, by recognizing both their formal and informal skills. Particular attention should be paid to vulnerable people such as migrant workers and the unemployed.

In addition, training courses should be adapted, by diversifying learning and certification methods to meet the specific needs of domestic workers. This can include blended learning, micro-credentials, and the recognition of prior learning (RPL).

Creating business profiles that consider the changes in the labour market and ensure decent working conditions is crucial to enhance the sector's attractiveness. Status, housing, and language are paramount for migrant workers, and recognizing and promoting the skills they learned at home or in the country of origin will promote their social integration and mobility.

It is also essential to share good practices, hence the need to create a European platform that lists past projects whose purpose was to recognise domestic workers' skills. Similarly, social dialogue must be encouraged by better financing local initiatives to promote the recognition and structuring of the sector, with a view to potentially drawing up sectoral collective agreements.

Recommendations

- Guarantee all care workers, including domestic care workers, the right to **access education, training and lifelong learning; recognizing formal and informal skills**, with a focus on vulnerable audiences such as migrant workers and the unemployed.
- Promote the implementation of **adapted training**, considering the specific needs of domestic workers, by offering a variety of learning and certification methods (blended learning, micro-credentials, RPL, etc.).
- Contribute to **strengthen the attractiveness of the sector** by establishing job profiles that consider labour market developments and guarantee **domestic workers a decent job**. For migrant workers, focus on a three-pronged approach: status, housing, and language; but also identify, recognize and promote skills developed at home as well as those acquired in the country of origin to promote social integration and mobility.
- Support the **exchange of good practices** by setting up a European platform listing the various European projects carried out to date to recognise domestic workers' skills.
- Similarly, **social dialogue must be encouraged** by better financing local initiatives to promote the recognition and structuring of the sector, with a view to potentially setting up sectoral collective agreements.
- **Develop decent work opportunities for migrants:** adapt work permits to let workers change job easily with a free-of-charge procedure in case of disputes; permission to work for several employers.
- Develop policies that promote **decent work** in the sector, social inclusion and quality services for European households and people in need of care. It is crucial that domestic work does not depend on precarious migrant workers.

References

- European Alliance C189. (2021). Double efforts to ensure decent work for domestic workers in the EU. Presentation of the 10th anniversary of ILO Convention No.189. Accessed on 30 August 2023, at https://www.effe-homecare.eu/wp-content/uploads/2021/07/C189_ALLIANCE_REPORT_FINAL_FR.pdf
- Angenendt, S., Knapp, N., Kipp, D. (2023). Germany is looking for Foreign Labour. In SWP Research Paper — Stiftung Wissenschaft und Politik. Accessed 15 September 2023 at https://www.swp-berlin.org/publications/products/research_papers/2023RP03_LookingforForeignLabour.pdf
- Ardouin, T. 2005. Pour une épistémologie de la compétence. In Astolfi, J. (Ed.), Savoirs en action et acteurs de la formation. University Press of Rouen and Le Havre. doi:10.4000/books.purh.1856
- Cammarota, A. (2018). Domestic Work and EU OSH Policy. Presentation held at EC-ILO joint conference on domestic workers and Occupational Safety and Health. Accessed on 17 September 2023, at <https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?langId=en&catId=88&eventsId=1360&furtherEvents=yes>
- European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training — CEDEFOP. (2014). Terminology of European education and training policy. Accessed on 29 August 2023, at <https://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/publications/4117>
- European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training — CEDEFOP. (2023). Skills intelligence — Browse by Occupation. Accessed 27 September 2023, at <https://www.cedefop.europa.eu/fr/tools/skills-intelligence/occupations?occupation=9.91#1>
- Economic, Social and Environmental Council — CESE. (2020). Le travail à domicile auprès des personnes vulnérables : des métiers du lien. Opinion of the Labour and Employment Committee. P.21. Accessed 4 September 2023, at https://www.lecese.fr/sites/default/files/pdf/Avis/2020/2020_28_travail_domicile.pdf
- Economic, Social and Environmental Council — CESE. (2022). Métiers en tension. Opinion of the Labour and Employment Committee. P.15. Accessed on 4 September 2023, at https://www.lecese.fr/sites/default/files/pdf/Avis/2022/2022-01_metiers_tension.pdf
- Chiswick, B.R. & Miller, P.W. (2014). International Migration and the Economics of Language. In Discussion paper series of IZA — Institute of Labor Economics. Accessed 17 September at <https://docs.iza.org/dp7880.pdf>
- Combis, H. (2020). Le «care»: d'une théorie sexiste à un concept politique et féministe. France Culture. Accessed on 4 October 2023 at <https://www.radiofrance.fr/franceculture/le-care-d-une-theorie-sexiste-a-un-concept-politique-et-feministe-6237536>
- Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000, Implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin. Official Journal L 180, 19/07/2000 P. 0022 — 0026. Accessed on 13 September 2023, at <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/FR/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A32000L0043>
- Dorn, D. & Zweimüller, J. (2021). Migration and Labor Market Integration in Europe. In Discussion paper series of IZA — Institute of Labor Economics. Accessed 17 September at <https://docs.iza.org/dp14538.pdf>
- Dubar, C. (2022). La socialisation : Construction des identités sociales et professionnelles. Armand Colin.
- EFFE LAB. (2023a). Cartographie des SAP en Europe. Accessed 28 September 2023 at <https://www.effe-homecare.eu/effe-lab/cartographie-interactive/>
- EFFE LAB. (2023b). Infographic distributed on EFFE's 10th anniversary on 14 November 2023 in Brussels.
- Eurofound. (2021). Wages in long-term care and other social services are 21% below average. Accessed 15 September 2023 at <https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/en/resources/article/2021/wages-long-term-care-and-other-social-services-21-below-average>
- Eurofound. (2023). Measures to tackle labour shortages: Lessons for future policy. Accessed on 26 September 2023 at <https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/en/publications/2023/measures-tackle-labour-shortages-lessons-future-policy>
- European Agency for Health and Safety at Work — OSHA. (2009). The occupational safety and health of cleaning workers. Accessed 2 September 2023, at https://osha.europa.eu/sites/default/files/2022-03/en_TE8010197EN-N.pdf

- European Institute for Gender Equality — EIGE. (2021). Gender inequalities in care and consequences for the labour market. Accessed 14 September 2023 at https://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/20204948_mh0220888enn_pdf.pdf
- European Institute for Gender Equality — EIGE. (2023). Unpaid Care: Around one third of women and men struggle to strike a work-life balance in the EU. Accessed 25 September 2023 at https://eige.europa.eu/newsroom/news/unpaid-care-around-one-third-women-and-men-struggle-strike-work-life-balance-eu?language_content_entity=en
- European Federation for Services to Individuals - EFSI. (2018). PHS Industry Monitor. P. 28-29. Accessed 30 August 2023, at http://www.efsi-europe.eu/fileadmin/MEDIA/publications/2018/PHS_Industry_monitor_April_2018.pdf
- European Commission. (2013). Developing personal and household services in the EU — A focus on housework activities. Accessed 26 October 2023, at https://migrant-integration.ec.europa.eu/library-document/developing-personal-and-household-services-eu-focus-housework-activities_en
- European Commission. (2017). The European Pillar of Social Rights in 20 principles. Accessed on 22 August 2023, at <https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1606&langId=en>
- European Commission. (2018). EC-ILO joint conference on domestic workers and Occupational Safety and Health. P.48. Accessed 30 August 2023, at <https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?langId=en&catId=151&eventId=1360&furtherEvents=yes>
- European Commission. (2021). Personal and Household Services. Accessed on 22 August 2023, at <https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1427&langId=en>
- European Commission. (2022). Legal Pathways to the European Union. Accessed 12 September 2023, at https://commission.europa.eu/strategy-and-policy/priorities-2019-2024/promoting-our-european-way-life/new-pact-migration-and-asylum/legal-pathways-european-union_en
- European Commission. (2023a). 2023 Report on Gender Equality in the EU. Accessed on 12 September 2023, at https://commission.europa.eu/system/files/2023-04/annual_report_GE_2023_web_EN.pdf
- European Commission. (2023b). Annual report on intra-EU labour mobility 2022 published. Accessed on 12 September 2023, at <https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?langId=en&catId=89&newsId=10545&furtherNews=yes>
- European Commission. (2023c). Employment and Social Developments in Europe. Accessed on 4 September 2023, at <https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?langId=en&catId=89&furtherNews=yes&newsId=10619>
- European Education and Culture Executive Agency — Eurydice. (2019). Key figures on early childhood education and care in Europe. Accessed 29 September 2023 at <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/fd227cc1-ddac-11e9-9c4e-01aa75ed71a1/language-fr/format-PDF>
- European Higher Education Area. (1999). Ministerial Declaration Bologna. Accessed on 22 August 2023, at <https://www.ehea.info/page-ministerial-conference-bologna-1999>
- European Labour Authority. (2021a). Tackling undeclared work in the personal and household services sector. Accessed 28 September 2023 at https://www.ela.europa.eu/sites/default/files/2022-03/Study-report-on-personal-and-household-sector.2021_EN.pdf
- European Labour Authority. (2021b). Report on labour shortages and surpluses. Accessed 7 September 2023, at <https://www.ela.europa.eu/sites/default/files/2021-12/2021%20Labour%20shortages%20%20surpluses%20report.pdf>
- European Migration Network. (2022). Skills mobility partnerships: exploring innovative approaches to labour migration. EMN-OECD Inform. Accessed 12 September 2023, at <https://www.oecd.org/migration/mig/2022-March-Joint-EMN-OECD-Inform-Skills-Mobility-Partnerships.pdf>
- European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights — FRA. (2019). Protecting migrant workers from exploitation in the EU: workers' perspectives. Accessed 20 September 2023, at https://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/fra_uploads/fra-2019-severe-labour-exploitation-workers-perspectives_en.pdf
- European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights — FRA. (2022). Migrants en situation irrégulière employés dans le secteur du travail domestique : les défis en matière de droits fondamentaux pour l'Union européenne et ses États membres. Accessed 17 September 2023 at https://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/migrants_en_situation_irreguliere_employes_dans_le_secteur_du_travail_domestique_fr.pdf

- Eurostat. (2020). Ageing Europe - Looking at the lives of older people in the EU. P. 8 Accessed 5 September 2023, at <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/11478057/KS-02-20-655-EN-N.pdf/9b09606c-d4e8-4c33-63d2-3b20d5c19c91?t=1604055531000>
- Eurostat. (2022). Need for help with personal care or household activities by sex, age and level of difficulty experienced in those activities. Accessed 5 September 2023, at https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/HLTH_EHIS_TADLH__custom_4942048/default/table?lang=en&page=time
- Eurostat.(2023).Part-timeandfull-timeemployment—statistics.Accessed12September2023athttps://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Part-time_and_full-time_employment_-_statistics#Part-time_employment_by_occupation
- Fédération Mandataire. (2024). Les missions. Accessed 4 January 2024 at <https://www.federation-mandataires.fr/index.php/qui-sommes-nous.html>
- FEPEM. (2023). Le Lab Migration pour l'emploi à domicile. Accessed on 17 September 2023 at <https://www.fepem.fr/dossier-thematique/le-lab-migration-pour-lemploi-a-domicile/>
- Jorro, A. & Wittorski, R. (2013). De la professionnalisation à la reconnaissance professionnelle. Les Sciences de l'éducation - Pour l'Ère nouvelle, 46, 11-22. <https://doi.org/10.3917/lsdle.464.0011>
- Lebrun, JF. (2020). La complexité des estimations du nombre d'emplois générés par le travail domestique en Europe. Report prepared at the request of the International Labour Office, December 2020, unpublished.
- Lenzi, C. (2023). Speech at the Consensus Conference organized by FEPEM on 28 and 29 June 2023 in Le Havre.
- Légifrance. (2023). Projet de loi pour contrôler l'immigration, améliorer l'intégration (IOMV2236472L). French Republic. Accessed on 14 September 2023 at https://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/dossierlegislatif/JORFDOLE000047079143/?detailType=EXPOSE_MOTIFS&detailId=
- L'Observatoire de l'emploi à domicile. (2023). Le crédit d'impôt pour l'emploi d'un salarié à domicile : quel coût et quels bénéfices ?. Baromètre de l'emploi à domicile n°43 de septembre 2023. Accessed 1 October 2023 at https://www.fepem.fr/wp-content/uploads/2023/09/P230700666_Barometre-n%C2%B043_septembre-2023_vf.pdf
- L'Observatoire des emplois de la famille. (2021). Les besoins en emplois et en compétences dans le secteur de l'emploi à domicile à l'horizon 2030. Le Baromètre des emplois de la famille, n°36, juin 2021. Accessed 30 August 2023 at <https://www.fepem.fr/wp-content/uploads/Barometre36.pdf>
- Lutz, H. & Palenga-Möllnbeck, E. (2010). Care Work Migration in Germany: Semi-Compliance and Complicity. Social Policy and Society, 9(3), 419-430. doi:10.1017/S1474746410000138
- Marchetti, S., Cherubini, D., & Geymonat, G. G. (2021). Global Domestic Workers: Intersectional Inequalities and Struggles for Rights (1st ed.). Bristol University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv209xn9k>
- Moré, P. (2014). Les employé(e)s domestiques dans le travail de care : corps et investissement de soi entre éthique et contrainte. Travailler, 32, 33-53. <https://doi.org/10.3917/trav.032.0033>
- MYCRED4HOME. (2021). Micro-credential standards. Accessed on 27 September 2023, at <https://www.mycred4home.eu/micro-credential-standards/>
- OECD. (2022). The Contribution of Migration to Regional Development, OECD Regional Development Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, <https://doi.org/10.1787/57046df4-en>
- International Labor Organization (1997). C181 - Private Employment Agencies Convention. Accessed 18 September 2023, at https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:312326
- International Labor Organization. (2011). C189 — Domestic Workers Convention (No.189). Accessed on 22 August 2023, at https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/fr/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::p12100_ILO_CODE:C189
- International Labor Organization (2016a). Social protection for domestic workers: key policy trends and statistics. Accessed 4 September 2023 at https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---soc_sec/documents/publication/wcms_458933.pdf

- International Labor Organization (2016b). Regulating International Labour Recruitment in the Domestic Work Sector: A review of key issues, challenges and opportunities. Accessed 25 September 2023, at https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---migrant/documents/briefingnote/wcms_467723.pdf
- International Labor Organization (2016c). Skills development and recognition for domestic workers across borders. Accessed 23 September 2023, at https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---migrant/documents/briefingnote/wcms_533536.pdf
- International Labor Organization. (2017). Migrant access to social protection under Bilateral Labour Agreements: A review of 120 countries and nine bilateral arrangements. Accessed on 10 October 2023 at <https://www.social-protection.org/gimi/gess/Media.action;jsessionid=120xQIA3XVZ3O2ndXjLOKf2YIVvpb8pTfbBZXNcKX-ObxCSvOs5r!1393577045?id=15976>
- International Labor Organization (2020a). Global Guidelines on the Prevention of Forced Labor through Lifelong Learning and Skills Development. Accessed 29 August 2023, at https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---ifp_skills/documents/publication/wcms_768775.pdf
- International Labor Organization (2020b). Facilitating the recognition of skills of migrant workers. Accessed 22 September 2023, at https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---migrant/documents/publication/wcms_749143.pdf
- International Labor Organization (2020c). Guidelines for skills modules on bi-lateral labor migration. Accessed 26 September 2023, at https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---migrant/documents/publication/wcms_764408.pdf
- International Labor Organization. (2021). Locked down and in limbo: the global impact of Covid-19 on migrant worker rights and recruitment. Accessed 9 September 2023, at https://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/news/WCMS_829456/lang--fr/index.htm.
- International Labor Organization. (2022). Making Decent Work a Reality for Domestic Workers. Accessed 5 September 2023, at https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_protect/---protrav/---travail/documents/publication/wcms_865483.pdf
- Palenga-Möllenbeck, E. (2013). “New maids — new butlers? Polish domestic workers in Germany and commodification of social reproductive work”, *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion*, Vol. 32 No. 6, pp. 557-574. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EDI-10-2012-0086>
- PICUM. (2021). Designing labour migration policies to promote decent work. Accessed 28 September 2023, at <https://picum.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/08/Designing-labour-migration-policies-to-promote-decent-work-EN.pdf>
- PICUM. (2022). Undocumented domestic workers go on first-ever strike in Brussels, Belgium. Accessed 28 September 2023 at <https://picum.org/blog/undocumented-domestic-workers-go-on-first-ever-strike-in-brussels-belgium/>
- PRODOME (2018). Deliverable 2 — European Curriculum for Domestic Housekeepers. Accessed 13 September 2023 at https://www.prodome.eu/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/PRODOME-D2_UK_14082019.pdf
- MiCare Project. (2021). Production Intellectuelle 2 — Cadre de compétences du projet MiCare et Référentiel de formation européen. Accessed on 17 September 2023 at <https://www.micareproject.eu/wp-content/uploads/2021/06/IOI-MiCare-Benchmarking-report-FR.pdf>
- Stauton, B. (2019). “A Worker is a Worker”: trade union organizing migrants. Special report 3/33, ETUI. Accessed on 29 September 2023 at https://www.etui.org/sites/default/files/Hesamag_20_EN_12-15.pdf
- TRANSVAL-EU. (2021). Validation of transversal skills across Europe — European State of the Art Report. Accessed 17 September 2023 at https://www.transvalproject.eu/wp-content/uploads/2022/03/D2.1_State-of-the-Art-Report_EN_public.pdf
- Valléry, G. & Leduc, S. (2010). Une analyse des emplois de services à destination des personnes âgées : compétences sociales et identité professionnelle des aides à domicile. *Gérontologie et société*, 33(135), 213-237. <https://doi.org/10.3917/ges.135.0213>
- Witorski, R. (2008). La professionnalisation. *Savoirs*, 17, 9-36. <https://doi.org/10.3917/savo.017.0009>