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ChambaHub

The Labor Integration of Venezuelan Migrant Women in Colombia

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Abstract

This paper examines the structural gender inequalities experienced by Venezuelan migrant women in Colombia, focusing on two intersecting dimensions: care work and labor market integration. Drawing on a human rights-based, intersectional and intercultural framework, the study reveals how care responsibilities disproportionately fall on migrant women, reproducing systemic exclusion and reinforcing their marginal position in hosting countries. The feminization of care, both domestic and remunerated, remains largely invisible and undervalued, despite its essential contribution to the Colombian economy and social fabric.

Empirical data shows that Venezuelan migrant women, despite having higher educational levels than their male counterparts, are overwhelmingly concentrated in informal and precarious employment sectors, particularly those associated with domestic and caregiving tasks. These conditions are exacerbated by limited access to childcare services, social protection, and recognition of their professional qualifications. The compounding effects of irregular migration status, xenophobia, gender-based discrimination, and the lack of public policies tailored to their specific needs deepen their socio-economic vulnerability.

To address these issues, this study proposes the implementation of the **ChambaHub**, a digital platform (available for mobile and desktop use) that connects Venezuelan migrant women with formal employment opportunities. The platform integrates artificial intelligence to match job offers with applicant profiles, includes modules for skills recognition and certification equivalency, and offers training programs in high-demand sectors.

By articulating technological, institutional and community-based solutions, this proposal aims to contribute to the social and economic integration of migrant women, while advancing the recognition of care work as a fundamental labor and social right. The Chamba HUB thus represents an innovative, scalable and rights-centered approach to migration and gender policy that can be applied to analogous situations all around the world.

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General objective

To analyze the gender inequalities faced by Venezuelan migrant women in relation to care work and labor market integration in Colombia, identifying their structural characteristics and the need for an intersectional and human rights–based approach to formulate a proposal that can be applied to analogous situations.

Specific objectives

- Examine the unequal distribution of care time and the social organization of care in Colombia, which disproportionately falls on Venezuelan migrant women.
- Analyze the structural invisibility and undervaluation of care work performed by Venezuelan migrant women—even when remunerated—and their exclusion from recognition as a social and labor right, fostering informality, low wages, social vulnerability, and the double care role both at home and in the workplace.
- Reflect on the need to incorporate an intersectional, intercultural, and human rights–based approach in the analysis of migration and the design of public policies that promote gender equity and the inclusion of migrant women, particularly in Colombia, and more broadly applicable to migrant women across the region.

Methodology

For this study, we adopted a descriptive and analytical qualitative methodology grounded in a human rights–based, intersectional, and intercultural approach. The research was structured around the review and analysis of secondary sources, including reports from international organizations, academic studies, national legislation, and official statistical data, with the aim of characterizing the structural inequalities that Venezuelan migrant women face in Colombia.

To examine these inequalities in depth, the analysis was organized along three transversal axes: first, the relationship between care tasks and gender inequalities; second, the labor integration of Venezuelan migrant women in contexts of informality and precariousness; and third, the imperative to incorporate intersectional and intercultural perspectives into the design of public policies. This integrative framework enabled us to reveal the multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination and exclusion that limit access to rights and a dignified life.

Drawing on the mapping and critical analysis of these barriers, we designed a solution proposal that could be applied in similar cases: the CHAMBA HUB platform. This initiative integrates technological, institutional, and community-based components to promote the socioeconomic integration of Venezuelan migrant women, recognize care work as a social and labor right, and contribute to the development of more inclusive and transformative public policies.

Finally, artificial intelligence was employed to assist in the translation of the document and to structure the work around the three axes, and the study follows the project proposal format commonly required by funding agencies.

Introduction

The migratory flow between Colombia and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela has its origins in the 1970s, when Venezuela implemented policies to attract professionals and skilled labor amid a period of significant economic growth. However, beginning in 2016 this dynamic reversed, with a marked increase in Venezuelan migration to Colombia (Sánchez Hidalgo, 2024). Driven by the weakening of democratic institutions, an institutional, economic, and humanitarian crisis, high levels of violence, poverty, lack of access to basic survival rights, and rollbacks in economic, social, cultural, and environmental rights (Aliaga Sáez, 2021), Venezuela experienced a forced and massive exodus (Vargas, 2018) that challenged all host states.

In this context, Colombia ranks third globally for the number of refugees and individuals in need of international protection. According to UNHCR statistics as of September 2024, more than 2.8 million Venezuelans resided in Colombia.^[1] Of these, 52 percent are women (FIP, 2023), who were compelled to migrate to improve their economic situation, secure access to social rights, and escape dangerous environments (ILO, 2024).

Regarding educational attainment, the majority of migrants completed upper secondary education, with fewer having finished lower secondary. Only 11.88 percent reached university level, and 5.25 percent held technical or professional training. Among the total migrant population, both male and female, 77.23 percent form part of the Economically Active Population. Within this group, less than 30 percent have formal employment relationships, while a mere 2.29 percent of self-employed workers are formally recognized (IOM, 2024).

Nearly 90 percent of the migrant population has children and lacks care networks. Consequently, 91 percent of refugee and migrant women assume unpaid care or domestic duties and often seek employment alternatives that allow them to balance paid and unpaid work (ILO, 2024). As demonstrated in the following table, the deprivation conditions of Venezuelan migrant women who head households in Colombia exceed those of their Colombian counterparts.

IPM DEPRIVATIONS	HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY COLOMBIANS	HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY VENEZUELAN MIGRANTS	GAP BETWEEN HOUSEHOLDS
VARIABLE	VALUE	VALUE	VALUE
Illiteracy	7,7%	3,4%	-4,3%
Low Educational Achievement	40,9%	32,1%	-8,8%
School Absence	12,1%	3,2%	-8,9%
School Lag	24,3%	36,5%	12,2%
Barriers to Early Childhood Care Services	17,4%	21,1%	3,7%

IPM DEPRIVATIONS	HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY COLOMBIANS	HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY VENEZUELAN MIGRANTS	GAP BETWEEN HOUSEHOLDS
VARIABLE	VALUE	VALUE	VALUE
Child Labor	5,1%	5,2%	0,1%
No Health Insurance	8,4%	63,5%	55,1%
Barriers to Accessing Health	3,1%	7,9%	4,8%
Long-Term Unemployment	13,3%	2,7%	-10,6%
Informal Work	77,7%	79,1%	1,4%
No Access to Drinking Water	9,8%	7,9%	-1,9%
No Access to Sewerage	9,7%	8,4%	-1,3%
Inadequate Floors	5,9%	5,4%	-0,5%
Inadequate Walls	3,2%	4,3%	1,1%
Critical Overcrowding	7,4%	23,9%	16,5%

We maintain that the caregiving tasks performed by Venezuelan migrant women in Colombia must be problematized and made visible, as they pose significant challenges for host states and receiving societies. Accordingly, this study examines three transversal axes: (1) care work and gender inequalities; (2) labor integration of migrant women; and (3) an intersectional, intercultural, and human rights-based analysis of the links between care and migration studies. After mapping and identifying the daily barriers these women face, we will propose a solution that will serve as a springboard for future projects and research.

Care Work and Gender Inequalities

Axis 1





Axis 1: Care Work and Gender Inequalities

A. Sexual Division of Labor and Care Tasks

The sexual division of labor refers to the assignment of activities to men and women based on sex: women undertake domestic and reproductive roles, while men occupy the public sphere, deemed productive. Cultural beliefs about what is “appropriate” for men versus women underpin this labor inequality. Historically—and persisting today—numerous professions, tasks, and behaviors carry these stereotypes. Consequently, women participate unequally in the labor market and face disadvantageous conditions compared to men, thereby reinforcing the foundations of the sexual division of labor (Lamas, 2022).

This discriminatory participation is partly explained by the societal assignment of domestic responsibilities to women—work that is generally devalued by society. In effect, a fundamental dimension of labor necessary to meet human needs, namely care work, becomes invisible.

According to the definitions proposed in the ILO’s 2019 report “Care Work and Care Workers for a Future with Decent Work,” care work can be categorized into two types: direct, personal and relational activities such as feeding a baby or caring for a sick spouse; and indirect activities like cooking and cleaning.

Unpaid care work consists of caregiving performed without economic remuneration. Paid care work, by contrast, is carried out by care workers—nurses, medical personnel, and personal care aides—who receive wages or benefits. Domestic workers, who provide both direct and indirect care within households, also form part of the care workforce.

Care tasks have traditionally fallen to women within private family settings, in contrast to the traditional role of men in public, productive work. This caregiving model casts women as the exclusive bearers of responsibility for attending to others. The naturalization and assignment of this role emerge from the sex-gender system, reinforcing stereotypes about who cares and the meanings attached to care—stereotypes that must be challenged both in daily life and in professionalized care contexts (Martínez Espínola; Delmonte Allasia, 2022).

In conclusion, care work worldwide is predominantly performed by unpaid caregivers—and by women and girls from socially disadvantaged groups. A significant share of paid care workers are likewise women, often migrants, who operate in the informal economy under precarious conditions and for very low wages.

According to the FIP (2023) report on 'Labor Inclusion of Migrant Women in Colombia' Venezuelan women face particular obstacles to entering the labor market. Among the main factors, pre-existing gender inequalities stand out as a primary issue, affecting women in specific ways. These structural barriers to accessing the labor market result in unequal conditions compared to men, such as wage gaps, higher female unemployment rates, underrepresentation in decision-making positions, a disproportionate burden of unpaid care work—often twice as much time as men—and high rates of gender-based violence. Venezuelan migrant women endure additional inequality and discrimination due to their status as migrants and refugees.^[2]



Although Venezuelan migrant women possess higher educational attainment than their male counterparts, their labor market participation—both in terms of hours worked (intensive participation) and overall engagement (extensive participation)—is lower. Frequently overqualified for the positions they hold, they are pushed toward jobs beneath their academic credentials and with lower pay because they cannot find vacancies aligned with their profiles (ILO, 2019).

Considering Mabel Burin’s analysis, this characteristic (not exclusive to women in migratory contexts) can be understood through the concept of the “glass ceiling.” This term describes the invisible barrier imposed by organizational cultures on women’s career advancement. The glass ceiling is an unbroken, upper boundary in professional trajectories that impedes promotion to senior positions. It is called “glass” because no laws, social devices, or formal codes explicitly establish this limit; rather, it becomes evident when examining the structural framework of women’s careers (Burin, 2003).

Second, care burdens. Most Venezuelan women lack support networks from family or acquaintances and cannot afford or access care services. Moreover, many are “transnational” caregivers—despite residing in Colombia, they continue to bear responsibility for family members in their country of origin. In migration contexts, these care obligations can become overwhelming. Globally, women perform 76.2 percent of unpaid care tasks, dedicating 3.2 times more hours to these responsibilities than men (ILO, 2024).

B. Invisibilization of Care Work

In Colombia, care work constitutes a fundamental part of the economy and social life, yet it remains largely invisible. Unpaid care is estimated to account for approximately 20 percent of GDP (UN Women & DANE, 2022), while in Latin America nearly 93 percent of paid domestic workers are women (UN Women, ILO & CEPAL, 2020). The way care work has been socially valued, as a natural and unpaid responsibility assigned to women, has allowed the economic system to benefit from it without bearing its cost. Care work is typically excluded from official statistics and denied public and state recognition.

Migrant women typically enter the labor market through care-related jobs such as domestic work, nannyng, or eldercare. This creates local and transnational care chains, where family and community networks facilitate one woman’s migration by replacing her with another in her original caregiving role. Such redistribution does not reduce the overall care burden; rather, it relocates and amplifies its invisibility and precariousness.

This context creates a double burden of care. On one hand, migrant women carry out paid care work in precarious conditions. On the other, they also take on unpaid care responsibilities within their own households.

Layered onto this is structural discrimination, many work without contracts or labor rights, in exploitative informal settings. Precarious conditions expose care workers to various forms of abuse. Informal employment creates a favourable environment for different types of violence, including economic violence, harassment, labour exploitation and, in extreme cases, can even facilitate crimes such as human trafficking. Some migrant women are deceived by false promises and end up in severe situations of forced labour, without access to complaint mechanisms or protection.



These structural forms of violence remain invisible in public discourse and policy agendas, which often instrumentalise migrant experiences without granting them a voice or recognising them as rights holders.

Colombia's legal framework has historically excluded domestic work from the full spectrum of labor rights. Low wages, informality, and the absence of social benefits persist. For Venezuelan migrant women, this reality is exacerbated by irregular migration status, further restricting access to formal employment and legal protections. Laws rooted in a familist model assign care responsibilities to women without guaranteeing dignified conditions for those who perform it.

The lack of migration and labor policies that integrate gender and care perspectives reinforces the exclusion of migrant women. Although care-economy guidelines exist, their implementation has been slow and disjointed. In practice, barriers persist in accessing essential services such as childcare, financial support or community networks, which reinforces the burden of unpaid care work within households. The absence of a national system that guarantees the right to care and be cared for reflects a view of this work as a private responsibility, without economic recognition or public value. Institutional responses remain fragmented and temporary, failing to address the structural roots of the problem or to enable progress towards universal and transformative policies.

Labor Integration of Venezuelan Migrant Women in Colombia

Axis 2



Axis 2: Labor Integration of Venezuelan Migrant Women in Colombia

The labor integration of Venezuelan migrant women in Colombia exhibits a structural pattern of informal, feminized, and precarious employment that reproduces social, economic, and gender inequalities. In 2023, 52 percent of all migrants in Colombia were from Venezuela (ILO, 2024), yet the labor force participation of Venezuelan migrant women remains significantly lower than that of their male counterparts, despite their higher educational attainment (DANE, GEIH 2020). This paradox highlights the multiple barriers women face when seeking stable, secure jobs that match their qualifications.

Most Venezuelan migrant women enter informal sectors such as domestic work, street vending, or food sales—areas characterized by precarious conditions, low wages, and lack of social protection (IOM, 2024; ILO, 2024). This feminization of the informal economy stems both from an unequal labor structure and a strong gender segmentation that assigns women to care and service roles, often without recognition or fair compensation. In 2021, 94 percent of employed Venezuelan women in Colombia performed unpaid domestic or care work in their own homes (CUSO International, 2021). Moreover, 73 percent of the migrant workforce is self-employed, but only 2.29 percent work under formal conditions (IOM, 2024). According to a 2023 joint report by IOM and UN Women, the majority of Venezuelan migrant women across South America hold informal jobs—primarily in domestic and caregiving roles, as well as in bars and other vulnerable activities.

TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT BY GENDER

TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
DEPENDENT			
FORMAL	33,54 %	20,12 %	28,37 %
NON FORMAL	66,46 %	79,88 %	71,63 %
INDEPENDENT			
FORMAL	2,35 %	2,24 %	2,29 %
NON FORMAL	97,65 %	97,76 %	97,71 %

Source: Compiled by the authors from GEIH 2022 (DANE 2022), IOM, and Mayor's Office of Bogotá (2023)

Unpaid care remains one of the most obscured barriers. Venezuelan migrant women in Colombia devote an average of 27 hours per week to unpaid care tasks—more than double the time migrant men spend (CUSO International, 2022) and well above the 19.7 hours Colombian women dedicate on average (DANE, 2021). This fact is even more relevant if we consider that a large number of Venezuelan migrant women are also heads of household.

In this sense, they are the sole economic providers and are responsible for the welfare of their children or family members, even in transnational dimensions (ILO, 2024). This overload of care duties limits their availability for formal employment with fixed schedules, forcing them into self-employment forms that, despite their flexibility, are governed by informality and economic instability (IOM, 2024). As previously stated, the absence of support networks, public care services, and work-life balance policies deepens their exclusion from the formal labor market (ILO, 2024).

Institutional and social barriers such as xenophobia, gender and nationality discrimination, and complex administrative processes further compound this scenario. Many women report explicit rejection for being Venezuelan, as well as obstacles to accessing jobs because they hold only the Temporary Protection Permit (PPT) as valid documentation (ILO, 2024; IOM, 2024). At the same time, difficulties in validating professional degrees undermine their ability to secure employment aligned with their qualifications, resulting in a loss of human capital for both themselves and the host country (IOM, 2024).^[3]

Limited access to financial services presents another exclusionary factor. Although many of these women were banked in Venezuela and possess basic financial literacy, in Colombia they face significant hurdles in opening accounts, obtaining credit, or establishing a financial history—impeding both entrepreneurial initiatives and economic independence (ILO, 2024).

Despite these challenges, Venezuelan migrants make a notable fiscal contribution to Colombia. In 2023, their estimated fiscal contribution exceeded USD 529 million, and a more efficient socioeconomic integration could increase this figure by USD 318 million (IOM, 2024). These figures underscore the need for inclusive public policies that not only drive economic development but also guarantee gender equity and labor rights for migrant women.

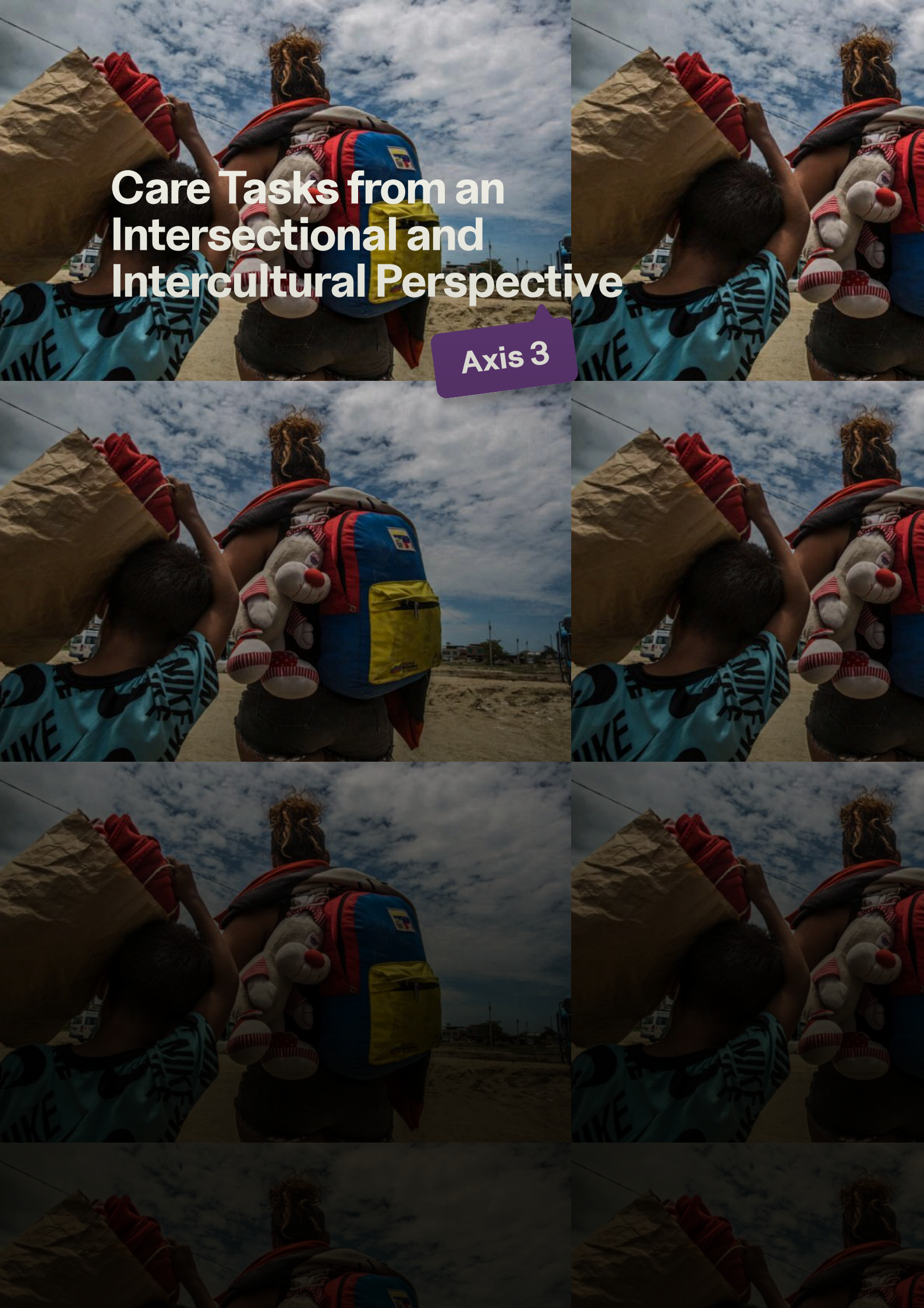
Recommended measures include expanding accessible care services, implementing gender-sensitive flexible-scheduling policies, streamlining professional-degree recognition processes, raising private-sector awareness about migrant-women inclusion, and facilitating tailored financial tools (ILO, 2024; IOM, 2024). It is equally important to promote clear communication channels about Temporary Protection Permit rights and to strengthen migrant-women-led enterprises (IOM, 2024).

The precarization of Venezuelan migrant women's labor integration is neither temporary nor exceptional but rather reflects a structural pattern rooted in gender, institutional, and economic inequalities. Transforming this reality requires an intersectoral commitment that recognizes the social and economic value of the work they perform—both inside and outside the home—and guarantees their access to a dignified, independent life.

States could recognise the potential of migrant women to integrate into labour sectors where structural gaps persist that are not filled by the national population, thus contributing to meeting specific labour market needs. However, both regional governments and Colombia, in particular, continue to struggle with ensuring equal access to the formal labor market and recognizing unpaid care work.

Care Tasks from an Intersectional and Intercultural Perspective

Axis 3



Axis 3: Care Tasks from an Intersectional and Intercultural Perspective

The term “intersectionality” first appeared in Kimberlé Crenshaw’s 1991 article “Mapping the Margins: Intersectionality, Identity Politics, and Violence against Women of Color” to demonstrate the way in which racial and gender discrimination reinforce one another and their consequences for women’s human rights (Martínez Espínola & Delmonte Allasia, 2022).

Analyzing the realities of migrant women through an intersectional lens demands moving beyond gender alone to consider factors such as class and race/ethnicity, which play crucial roles in shaping power dynamics, inequalities, violence, exclusion, and discrimination. An intersectional analysis reveals two key insights: first, the multiplicity of sexist experiences encountered by different women; and second, that certain social positions—such as masculinity, heteronormativity, or whiteness—embody the norm and therefore do not suffer marginalization or discrimination.

Put differently, intersectionality categorizes and hierarchizes women according to race/ethnicity, class, sexuality, education level, and—for migrant women—their legal status. These intersecting dimensions often give rise to specific and intensified forms of exclusion that prevent women from fully realizing their lives.^[4] Moreover, it challenges the uniform responses of public policies, advocating for more just and context-sensitive interventions.

In migration contexts, women face discrimination not only for their gender but also because they are migrants, racialized, poor, or indigenous. These multiple inequalities do not simply add up; they interact to reinforce barriers and create heightened vulnerability.^[5]

The intercultural approach, which complements intersectionality, begins with the recognition that societies are culturally diverse and that this diversity should be valued rather than merely tolerated. It calls for moving beyond hierarchical views of culture toward horizontal dialogue among different knowledges and ways of life. In migration policy, adopting an intercultural perspective means designing public measures that acknowledge the cultural, linguistic, spiritual, and organizational dimensions of migrant communities, thereby enabling the full exercise of rights within their own social and cultural contexts.

The absence of these intersectional and intercultural approaches in policy has tangible consequences. Violence against migrant women—from labor exploitation to sexual or institutional abuse—often goes unrecognized or unaddressed by targeted interventions, hindering their access to protection and justice. Likewise, they encounter barriers when seeking basic rights such as sexual and reproductive health care, education for their children, decent work, or legal recourse, largely because policies fail to acknowledge their unique trajectories and needs.

Structural racism and xenophobia further compound these challenges, pervading institutions and everyday interactions. Racialized or indigenous women are particularly susceptible to systemic discrimination that restricts opportunities and deepens exclusion. In the absence of active intercultural policies, there can be no genuine recognition or coexistence strategies to promote equity. Moreover, exclusion operates even in policy design: migrant women are rarely consulted in meaningful ways, and official data seldom disaggregates by gender, ethnicity, gender identity, or migration



status—an information gap that prevents monitoring specific inequalities and undermines effective policy responses.

Consequently, recognizing intersectionality as a guiding principle for institutional service design is essential. Venezuelan migrant women in Colombia must not be viewed solely as caregivers; they embody multiple intersectional identities and forms of diversity—such as ethnic-racial belonging, disability status, sexual orientation, and diverse gender identities—that, coupled with unfamiliarity with local contexts, deepen their vulnerability (DNP, ONM & USAID, 2023).

ChambaHub

**Extrapolable Solution
Proposal**



Extrapolable Solution Proposal: ChambaHub

Given this social problem, we propose the development of a digital platform for supply and demand of formal and paid employment, with its mobile and desktop versions (desktop) designed specifically to respond to the challenges faced by Venezuelan migrant women in Colombia.

CHAMBA HUB will be oriented to the insertion of Venezuelan migrant women and will have multiple functionalities that cross access to decent employment, care services and citizen participation, through technological, institutional and community solutions designed from an intersectional and human rights approach. This digital tool will be promoted by the State of the Republic of Colombia together with the collaboration of other strategic actors, such as business chambers, NGOs and educational institutions.

In order to create a user in the platform, each Venezuelan migrant must have an enabling migratory document (PPT, visa or foreigner's card associated to a valid visa) for identification and formalization. In other words, only regular migrants may use the tools. It should be noted that Colombia has a migration regime available that provides a "Temporary Protection Permit (PPT)" exclusively for Venezuelan nationals in this receiving State. The PPT is a mechanism for migratory regularization and the granting of an identification document for Venezuelan nationals, which allows them to have a residence permit, as well as legal work and access to health and education services for 10 years.

The platform will include a job offer and demand section, which will incorporate intercultural criteria that value the knowledge and care practices from their territories of origin, as well as the use of artificial intelligence (AI) matching algorithms to link applicant profiles with job opportunities and complementary training offered. In order to apply for the jobs posted, it will be necessary to complete the resume form in the applicant's user profile and, in the case of employers, to fill out a standard form of job characteristics, conditions and skills. Those freelancers seeking to offer their professional services will be able to post an advertisement by filling out a form detailing the characteristics, conditions and contact channels.

Another section will provide for the possibility of recognition of competencies acquired through experience,^[6] beyond formal qualifications, by means of technical tests, portfolios and interviews, which will be developed by booking an appointment in an interface of the section. Likewise, it will contemplate the equivalence of formal degrees obtained in Venezuela or other countries through mechanisms of remission of documentation and clarifying interviews for its management.

In addition, there will be a section on training with an equity approach that will seek to expand training opportunities for migrant women, particularly those who are unskilled or interested in diversifying their training, in order to reduce labor segmentation based on gender and origin stereotypes. Likewise, guides and tutorials will be provided for those who do not know how to use digital tools, both for accessing their registration on the platform and for taking the training courses offered. This comprehensive training strategy includes the offer of courses in trades and technical skills in sectors such as technology, logistics, health, administration, electricity and gastronomy, among others, promoting insertion in traditionally male-dominated or high-demand areas. In addition, access to higher education in public universities is facilitated through personalized

guidance and accompaniment during the enrollment, accreditation and permanence processes, guaranteeing more equitable conditions of access and educational continuity. These training courses will be offered through digital capsules and face-to-face meetings in some cases and will be taught by educational institutions, NGOs and business chambers.

In addition, this website and its application will have a section for a "Public and Community Care Network" for the Venezuelan migrant population in which each user can offer and request free or subsidized services for children, the elderly and people with disabilities. This network could be articulated with NGOs and territorial networks and include mobile units (with adapted mechanically movable containers) in areas with a high concentration of migrants, incorporating gender and cultural diversity approaches. This care network will act as a support for Venezuelan migrant women in Colombia. At the same time, we will advocate for the legal recognition of care work as a social and labor right, guaranteeing leave, social security and decent conditions for those who perform it. This section will be aligned with the 5Rs proposed by the ILO to value care work: recognize, reduce, redistribute, reward and represent.

Another section of the platform will function as a space for legal guidance and a safe channel for reporting situations of violence or discrimination.

On the other hand, this digital tool offers the possibility of collecting data for the improvement of intersectional public policies and fairer and more effective integration. These data obtained will be disaggregated by gender, migratory status, ethnicity and gender identity and will surpass the possibility of identification, i.e., the data will be anonymized.

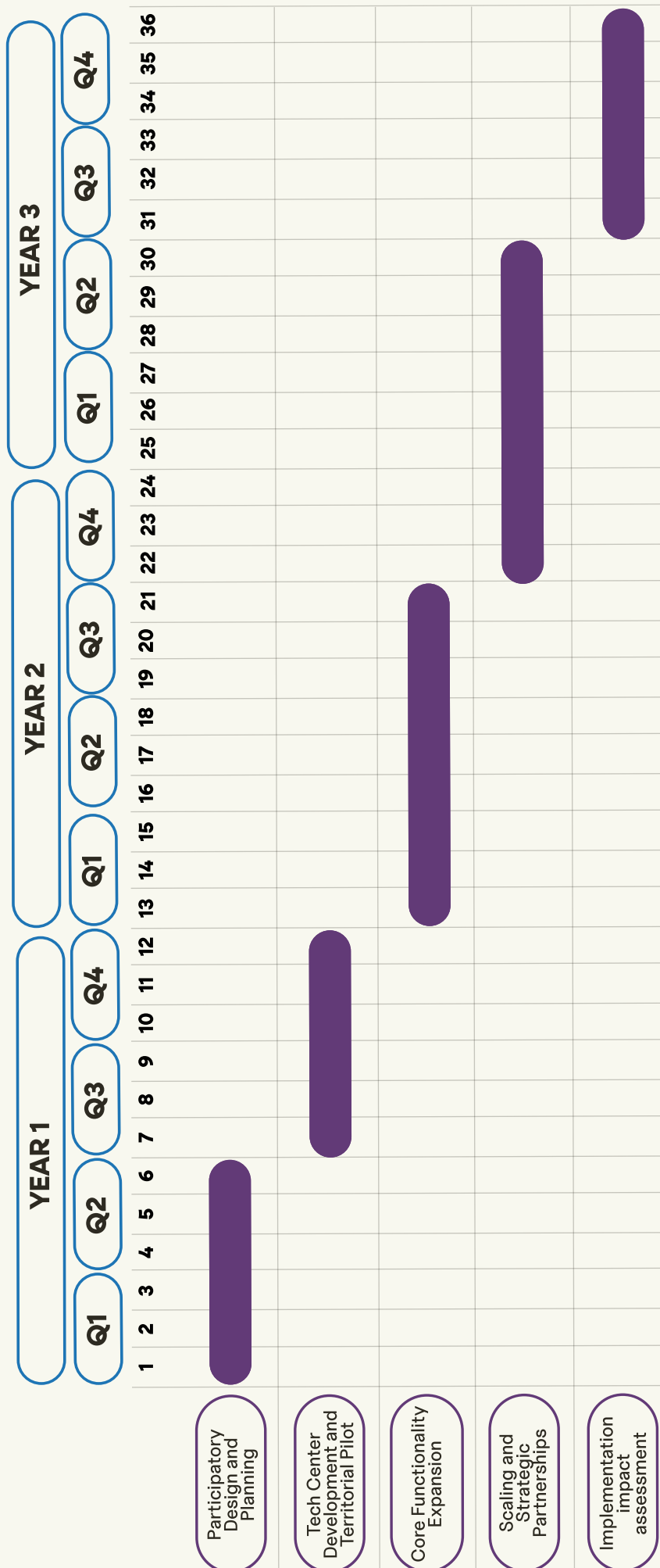
Development Timeline for the Platform and App

SCHEDULE OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PLATFORM AND ITS APPLICATION

PHASE	NAME	DURATION	PERIOD	KEY ACTIVITIES	ALTERNATIVE FUNDING
1	Participatory Design and Planning	6 months	Month 1–6 (Year 1, Q 1–2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public hearings with migrant women and allied stakeholders (chambers of commerce, educational institutions, NGOs) Functional and visual platform design Interinstitutional collaboration agreements and cooperation Data architecture and technical definition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inclusive existing public-policy budgets and international cooperation (IDB, EU, WB) Technical assistance from UN Women, UNHCR, IOM, UNICEF, UNDP In-kind support (spaces, facilitators, materials) from educational entities and NGOs

PHASE	NAME	DURATION	PERIOD	KEY ACTIVITIES	ALTERNATIVE FUNDING
2	Tech Center Development and Territorial Pilot	6 months	Month 7–12 (Year 1, Q 3–4)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration agreement with a university for platform development • Web and app development, use-case definition, stress testing • User-creation and job-matching modules • Facilitator training • Pilot launch and participatory evaluation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • University collaboration (students and graduates) via Pedagogical and Technological University of Colombia or TECH Global University • Private sponsorships from training and hiring companies • Free software licenses via tech-company agreements • Logistical support from municipalities and local networks
3	Core Functionality Expansion	9 months	Month 13–21 (Year 2, Q 1–3)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Module for the recognition of skills and qualifications, training, and labor linkage with validation of knowledge. • Care and legal orientation module • Disaggregated data visualization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training programs co-financed by business chambers. • In-kind benefits through cooperation agreements with universities and NGOs that develop training content
4	Scaling and Strategic Partnerships	9 months	Month 22–30 (Year 2, Q 4 – Year 3, Q 2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integration with public systems • Network of Allied Companies with tax incentives • Mobile care units in new territories • Development of tutorials on the use and functionalities of the app. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tax deductions to companies that hire or train • Agreements with business chambers for training programs • Financing of mobile units by foundations, NGOs or public-private partnerships.
5	Implementation Impact Assessment	6 months	Month 31–36 (Year 3, Q 3–4)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impact assessment • Identification of areas for improvement • Functional adjustment - Sustainability strategy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mixed funding for monitoring (cooperation + universities) • Regional technical support from multilateral agencies • Participatory consultations funded by existing human rights and migration projects.

Source: own elaboration



ChambaHub Functionalities

SECTION	DESCRIPTION	MAIN FUNCTIONS	TARGET POPULATION
1. Registration and identity verification	Registration of users by means of an enabling migratory document, and users from companies and other institutions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create user profile • Validate PPT, visa or foreigner's identity card • Validate documentation proving the legal status of the company or institution. 	Venezuelan migrant women with regular migratory status, companies and institutions.
2. Job board	A space to connect formal labor supply and demand.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Posting of offers and requests • Uses artificial intelligence (AI) matching algorithms • Forms for employers and workers offering their services • Job profile with CV 	Venezuelan migrant women and formal employers
3. Recognition of competencies	Validation of knowledge acquired outside the formal system and equivalence of degrees.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluation by technical tests • Portfolios and interviews • Foreign degree equivalency procedures 	Migrants with uncertified work experience or training, and those qualified.
4. Training with an equity approach	Expand training opportunities for migrant women, both in trades and higher education, to break with labor segmentation based on gender and origin stereotypes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Courses in trades and technical skills in areas such as technology, logistics, health, administration, electricity, gastronomy, among others. • Facilitated access to public universities, with personalized guidance and support in the process of enrollment, accreditation and permanence. 	Unqualified migrants and/or with interest in increasing their education and/or training in other areas.

SECTION	DESCRIPTION	MAIN FUNCTIONS	TARGET POPULATION
5. Public and Community Care Network	Platform to offer and request care services.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supply/demand of free or subsidized services • Integration with NGOs and territorial networks • Inclusion of mobile units 	Migrant women, local population, caregivers, and dependent persons.
6. Legal counseling and complaint channel	Space for legal advice and accompaniment in cases of violence or discrimination.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legal advice • Secure channel for complaints 	Venezuelan migrant women in situations of vulnerability
7. Data collection for public policies	Data analysis to improve integration policies and rights.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disaggregated data collection and analysis • Anonymized information for public decisions 	Governmental institutions, NGOs and research centers.

Conclusion

The persistence of structural inequalities that disproportionately affect migrant women—particularly regarding care work and labor integration—becomes unmistakably clear. The lack of recognition and protection for these tasks deepens precariousness and exclusion while underpinning economic systems that rely on unpaid or underpaid labor. In light of this reality, it is imperative that public policies adopt intersectional and intercultural approaches that acknowledge the diverse experiences and needs of migrant women and guarantee dignified living and working conditions.

As a solution, CHAMBA HUB aims to facilitate the integration of Venezuelan migrant women into their host country by addressing employment barriers, formally recognizing care work, and strengthening professional and caregiving skills. The platform represents an innovative digital tool designed to make this integration both accessible and sustainable, offering migrant women a path to a better future.

We have chosen this topic because it sits at the heart of the international agenda, spanning both south–south and south–north migration flows.

Reflecting on and proposing concrete migration tools not only contributes to improving the conditions of integration for migrant women, but also offers host states alternatives for developing public policies that generate multiple benefits: from strengthening fiscal systems and creating quality employment, to the comprehensive development of care systems, the reinforcement of community networks, and improved care for the elderly. In this regard, advancing toward integration models based on human rights, with gender and intersectional perspectives, not only addresses a need for social justice, but also constitutes an effective strategy for the sustainable development of host societies.

FOOTNOTES

1. Statistics from UNHCR. Available at: <https://data.unhcr.org/>
2. It is estimated that a considerable proportion of Venezuelan women living in Colombia perform irregular or informal labor activities. This situation increases their vulnerability in the labor sphere, not only due to factors such as gender and migratory status, but also because of the high risk of labor exploitation, sexual and psychological violence, breach of contract, mistreatment and other forms of abuse. This precariousness is aggravated by the fact that they are often hired at lower wages than nationals who assume the same workload (Sánchez Hidalgo, 2024).
3. Social and material conditions continue to hinder the inclusion of Venezuelan migrant women, particularly those related to the administrative requirements for the validation of degrees, such as valid documentation, virtual procedures and their costs, lack of knowledge of the processes and, especially in the case of women, the limited time available to complete these activities due to care responsibilities at home.
4. According to the results of the First Longitudinal Health Survey of Venezuelan Women in Colombia (2021 Ministry of Health and Social Protection of Colombia), women represent 49% of the total Venezuelan migrant population in Colombia. Regarding ethnic identification, 97.5% of the participants indicated that they did not belong to any ethnic group, while 1.4% identified themselves as Afro-descendant, 0.7% as indigenous, and 0.4% as part of the gypsy or Roma people (Sánchez Hidalgo 2024).
5. In the particular case of women refugees and migrants from Venezuela, a high degree of sexualization and exoticization is evident; a condition that exposes them to risks associated with human trafficking, harassment and sexual violence (ILO 2024b).
6. Although the level of higher education among Venezuelan migrant men and women in both cases is around 40% (with very little difference between them), when we compare men and women who have completed secondary education, that of Venezuelan women is significantly higher (39%) than that of Venezuelan men (31%).

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