MPI EVIDENCE BRIEF #2

Leaving No One Behind: Multidimensional Poverty of Refugees and Migrants in Chile

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KEY MESSAGES

Chile's national Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) measures deprivation across five dimensions: (1) education, (2) health, (3) employment and social security, (4) housing and local environment, and (5) social networks. Examining the MPI of foreign-born populations in comparison to nationals provides valuable insights for policy discussions aimed at addressing poverty among vulnerable groups.

The analysis focuses on Venezuelans, Colombians, and Haitians, all of whom, although not always granted formal protection status, face similar risks and vulnerabilities. To support a comprehensive assessment of individuals in need of international protection in Chile, the analysis includes disaggregation by gender, age group, region, sex of the household head, and the presence of children and adolescents in the household.

According to the 2023 Official Estimate of Foreigners by INE-SERMIG, 59% of Chile's refugee and migrant population resides in the Metropolitan Region. Among the three nationalities analyzed, 69% of the expanded survey sample also live in this area, prompting a comparison between the Metropolitan Region and the rest of the country.

Refugees and migrants face significantly higher levels of multidimensional poverty than nationals, with Colombians particularly affected. Key drivers of deprivation include employment, housing, and health. Poverty is especially pronounced among households with children and recent arrivals—over 64% of those who arrived during the survey year experience multidimensional poverty.

Chile's MPI highlights the importance of expanding regularization pathways, ensuring legal entry mechanisms, and enhancing local capacity for early support. Effective policy responses in employment, housing, and health should reflect the diverse profiles of refugees and migrants, taking into account their nationality, gender, household composition, and time of arrival. These measures are essential not only to reduce protection risks but also to prevent long-term social costs and foster integration.

Chile has played a key role in regional coordination spaces on human mobility, including the Quito Process and Cartagena +40. As part of the latter, it led the development of the Chile Action Plan (2024–2034), a regional roadmap aimed at strengthening protection and responses to forced displacement. In line with global commitments, progress has been made in the region toward improved statistical visibility of forcibly displaced populations, enabling more accurate and disaggregated analysis based on official data — an essential step for informed policy and effective inclusion.

Refugee and migrant well-being in Chile

The Americas region has continued to navigate an evolving situation of displacement. Chile, historically recognized for its commitment to welcoming refugees and migrants, has experienced a significant increase in its foreign-born population since 2017. By 2024, nearly 9% of the national population was foreign-born, according to the National Census, with over 1.6 million individuals residing in the country. This positions Chile as the country with the second-highest proportion of foreign-born residents in Latin America, surpassed only by Costa Rica, at 10.2%. Many of these individuals are people fleeing protracted socio-political crises in countries such as Venezuela, Haiti, and Colombia, who together account for a substantial share of this group, with Venezuelans representing 46%, Colombians 11%, and Haitians 9%.
This demographic shift presents both a challenge and an opportunity for national systems to foster inclusive development and social cohesion. To formulate a sustainable and effective response—one that promotes self-reliance and enhances resilience—it is imperative to ground policy decisions in rigorous and credible socioeconomic analysis that benchmarks the conditions of refugees and migrants against those of the national population.

Chile's national Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) offers a comprehensive framework for assessing development and well-being beyond income-based measures. It allows for identifying population groups and geographic areas that remain excluded from key opportunities, despite income levels. The MPI's insights serve as a basis for strategic policy dialogues within government institutions and align closely with the broader objectives of the United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. In line with the Sustainable Development Goals' (SDG) core principle of "leaving no one behind," identifying multidimensional deprivation among vulnerable populations is essential for designing targeted, evidence-based strategies and fostering coordinated cross-sectoral action.

This brief explores multidimensional poverty among refugees and migrants in Chile, drawing on data from the most recent national household survey, the *Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional* (CASEN 2022). As part of a broader analytical series, this brief contributes to a deeper understanding of deprivation among forcibly displaced populations in varying contexts. The findings aim to inform the development of inclusive policies and programs that address the specific needs of these groups, thereby supporting more equitable and resilient national development outcomes.

The hosting situation in Chile

Chile has become a safe place for individuals fleeing conflict and persecution. According to the latest available data, it hosts 2,488 recognized refugees, 13,366 asylum-seekers, and 1,688 stateless persons. In addition, many Venezuelan, Haitian, and Colombian nationals—though not always formally recognized under these categories due to case-by-case assessments—face similar protection risks and vulnerabilities. In line with UNHCR's internal guidance on International Protection Considerations, these groups are therefore included in the application of the Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) to ensure a comprehensive and inclusive analysis of deprivation among populations in need of international protection.

In recent years, social tensions in Chile have escalated, with forcibly displaced and stateless individuals increasingly subjected to xenophobia, discrimination, and negative public narratives. People in need of international protection are often portrayed as contributing to insecurity and overburdening public services, fostering a hostile environment that hinders their integration. According to the 2024 "*Encuesta Bicentenario UC*", 70% of the population perceives strong conflict between nationals and foreigners, 88% believe the number of foreigners in the country is excessive, and nearly 90% associate human mobility with rising levels of violence.

In this context, Chile has implemented a series of policy and legal reforms focused on border enforcement and security, particularly in the northern region, which is the main entry point for refugees and migrants. In 2024, amendments to the Refugee Law (Law No. 20.430) introduced stricter admissibility criteria and procedural deadlines, limiting access to the asylum system. Entry requirements have also tightened for

certain nationalities. Venezuelan and Haitian nationals are required to obtain a tourist visa prior to arrival. For Venezuelans, this requirement was introduced in 2019, and the 2022 enactment of Law No. 21.325 discontinued the Visa of Democratic Responsibility, further reducing regular entry options. These restrictions contributed to a sharp rise in irregular crossings, which peaked between 2021 and 2022 with over 80,000 unauthorized entries. Although Chile's legal framework guarantees access to basic services regardless of legal status, many face practical barriers, including complex administrative procedures, limited access to information, and fear of seeking services due to their legal situation (JNA, 2024).

Despite many challenges, refugees and migrants have made significant contributions to Chile's economic and social development. They account for 10.3% of national GDP (Fundación porCausa, 2025) and demonstrate a low fiscal dependency rate, contributing more to taxes than they receive in public services such as health, education, and subsidies (World Bank, 2024).

Figure 1. Refugees and migrants in key regions of Chile

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

Countries of origin and arrival trends over time

The CASEN 2022 survey enables disaggregated analysis of Chile's foreign-born population by nationality. This brief focuses on Venezuelan, Haitian, and Colombian nationals, given their significant presence and the distinct displacement dynamics shaping their experiences.

Arrival patterns differ markedly across these groups. Among Venezuelans, 55% arrived between 2017 and 2019, coinciding with the peak of the humanitarian crisis. Haitian migration is more concentrated, with over 75% arriving between 2016 and 2018—42% in 2017 alone. In contrast, Colombian migration reflects a more sustained trend: 19% arrived before 2013, with steady inflows, thereafter, suggesting long-term mobility rather than a single peak.

These variations in arrival timing and mobility pathways have direct implications for access to documentation, services, and integration. Earlier arrivals are more likely to have regularized their status and established livelihoods, while recent arrivals—particularly those entering irregularly—face greater barriers and vulnerabilities. Language is an additional challenge for the Haitian population, many of whom speak Haitian Creole or French and have limited proficiency in Spanish. This affects access to services, navigation of administrative systems, and community integration, and should be considered when interpreting indicators related to education, employment, and social networks.

Demographic overview of refugees and migrants relative to nationals

Table 1 provides a snapshot of the basic characteristics of the groups under study.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics (%)

	Nationals	Ref & Mig	Ven	Col	Hai
Gender					
Male	49%	51%	50%	48%	59%
Female	51%	49%	50%	52%	41%
Age group					
0-17	23%	18%	20%	16%	7%
18-29	17%	24%	24%	26%	20%
30-44	22%	43%	42%	39%	61%
45-59	19%	11%	10%	16%	10%
60 or above	20%	3%	4%	3%	0%
Region					
Metropolitan	40%	69%	72%	61%	61%
Rest of country	60%	31%	28%	39%	39%
Sex of head of household					
Male	51%	59%	59%	49%	76%
Female	49%	41%	41%	51%	24%
Children in the household					
HHs with at least one child	55%	66%	67%	60%	60%
No children	45%	34%	33%	40%	40%

Source: CASEN 2022.

Overall, there are several differences between the refugee and migrant population and nationals in terms of their sociodemographic profile. Notable distinctions include age distribution, geographic concentration, and household composition. Refugees and migrants are predominantly younger, with 67% between the ages of 18 and 44, compared to just 39% of nationals—highlighting the need for youth-focused employment, education, and integration policies. In terms of location, the majority reside in the Metropolitan Region, indicating a strong urban concentration that places additional demands on local infrastructure and public services. Additionally, refugee and migrant households are more likely to include children: only 34% are child-free, compared to 45% of national households, suggesting a greater need for childcare, education, and family support programs.

Beyond these trends, notable gender differences also exist across nationalities. While the overall gender distribution is relatively balanced among nationals and the broader refugee and migrant population, the Haitian group shows a significantly higher proportion of men (59%) and the highest share of male-headed households (76%). While this may partly reflect human mobility patterns, socio-cultural factors likely also influence household leadership structures. These dynamics underscore the importance of culturally sensitive approaches in designing social protection and community engagement strategies.

Measuring multidimensional poverty

Poverty extends beyond income deprivation, often encompassing deficits in health, education, living conditions, and access to essential services. A multidimensional approach to poverty measurement provides a more comprehensive understanding of well-being, enabling the design of policies and programs that more effectively address the needs of deprived populations. While the application of a standardized global measure of multidimensional poverty helps position a country's situation vis-à-vis others, a more tailored national MPI adapted to the local context can more effectively guide public policy discussions. Chile is among more than 40 countries that have adopted an official national MPI.

To measure multidimensional poverty, three key statistics are used:

- **Incidence (H)** or headcount ratio – the proportion identified as multidimensionally poor;

- **Intensity (A)** – the average share of weighted deprivations experienced by the poor;
- **Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI)** or adjusted headcount ratio – a measure of the share of people who are multidimensionally poor and the intensity of their poverty, calculated as MPI = H × A.[1] The MPI ranges from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating higher poverty.

Chile's national Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) is constructed using 15 indicators grouped into five dimensions (see Table 3). A household is classified as multidimensionally poor if it is deprived in at least 22.5% of the weighted indicators. To allow for a comparison that takes into account the national context and the distribution of deprivations, a relative poverty analysis was also conducted using the weighted median of the Chilean population as the cutoff point. According to the latest estimates from CASEN 2022, 13.4% of households in Chile were identified as multidimensionally poor, with notable variation across regions.[2] Given their distinct vulnerabilities and living conditions, refugees and migrants are likely to experience multidimensional poverty differently from the general population, underscoring the need for disaggregated analysis and targeted policy responses.

Table 3. Chile's National MPI Dimensions, Indicators and Thresholds

Dimension	Indicator		Deprived if living in a household where…
Education	1	School attendance	A member aged 4–18 is not attending school and has not completed high school, or a member aged 6–26 with a long-term condition is not enrolled.
	2	Educational lag	A member aged 21 or younger is two or more years behind in primary or secondary education.
	3	Educational attainment	A member over 18 has not completed the legally required years of education for their age.
Health	4	Child malnutrition	A child aged 0–6 is overweight, obese, malnourished, or at risk of malnutrition.
	5	Health insurance	A member lacks affiliation with any health insurance system.
	6	Access to medical services	A member has not received healthcare in the past 3 months or lacked AUGE-GES coverage for reasons beyond their control.
Employment & Social Security	7	Employment	A member over 18 is unemployed and actively seeking work.
	8	Social security	An employed member aged 15+ does not contribute to the pension system and is not a self-employed graduate.
	9	Pensions	A member of retirement age receives no pension or alternative income (e.g., rent, dividends).
Housing & Local Environment	10	Habitability	The household is overcrowded (≥2.5 people per bedroom) or the dwelling (walls, roof, and/or floors) is in poor condition.
	11	Basic services	The home lacks basic sanitation (toilet, indoor tap, or adequate water supply) according to urban or rural standards.
	12	Surroundings	The area has multiple pollution issues, lacks basic services, or members face long commutes with limited transport access.
Social networks & cohesion	13	Social support and participation	The household lacks external support in key situations, has no members aged 14+ participating in social groups, and no employed adults (18+) involved in work-related organizations.
	14	Equal treatment	A member has experienced discrimination or unfair treatment in the past 12 months.

[1] *Alkire, S., Kanagaratman, U., & Suppa, N. (2021). The Global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) 2021. OPHI MPI Methodological Note 51. Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, University of Oxford.*

[2] *Ministerio de Desarrollo Social y Familia (2023): **Informe de Desarrollo Social y Familia (2023)**.*

Dimension	Indicator	Deprived if living in a household where…
	15 Security	A member has witnessed or experienced drug trafficking or gun violence in the neighborhood in the past month.

Source: OPHI, Chile MPI. In Chile's national MPI, the first four dimensions are equally weighted at 22.5% each, while the fifth—Social Networks and Cohesion—carries a lower weight of 10%. Within each dimension, indicators are equally weighted. For example, the indicator "School Attendance" holds an individual weight of 7.5%.

Multidimensional poverty among refugees and migrants

Table 4 presents the percentage of the population deprived in each MPI indicator, disaggregated by nationality. In the education dimension, the most significant gap for refugees and migrants lies in educational attainment. While 27% of national households are deprived in this indicator, the rate rises to 33% among Colombians and reaches a striking 51% among Haitians. Venezuelans show a lower deprivation rate of 15%. School attendance deprivation is slightly higher among Venezuelan and Colombian households (9%) compared to nationals (2%), but notably low among Haitians (1%).

Table 4. Deprived population per indicator of the MPI (%), by displacement status/location

Dimension	Indicator	Nationals	Ref & Mig	Ven	Col	Hai
Education	School attendance	**2%**	**8%**	9%	9%	1%
	Educational lag	**1%**	**2%**	2%	4%	3%
	Educational attainment	**27%**	**21%**	15%	33%	51%
Health	Child malnutrition	**5%**	**4%**	4%	3%	6%
	Health insurance	**4%**	**28%**	31%	30%	8%
	Access to medical services	**7%**	**6%**	7%	3%	5%
Employment & Social Security	Employment	**13%**	**15%**	14%	18%	21%
	Social security	**31%**	**46%**	47%	50%	25%
	Pensions	**10%**	**9%**	10%	6%	2%
Housing & Local Environment	Habitability	**16%**	**31%**	31%	31%	33%
	Basic services	**5%**	**4%**	2%	9%	9%
	Surroundings	**10%**	**7%**	6%	12%	5%
Social networks & cohesion	Social support and participation	**6%**	**18%**	18%	17%	17%
	Equal treatment	**16%**	**38%**	37%	39%	44%
	Security	**11%**	**9%**	8%	8%	13%

Source: CASEN 2022.

In the health dimension, the most marked disparity lies in access to health insurance. Only 4% of nationals are deprived, compared to over 30% of Venezuelans and Colombians. Considering that deprivation in access to medical services is relatively low (6%), this may suggest reliance on private or informal healthcare options among refugees and migrants. Meanwhile, child malnutrition and access to medical services show relatively similar levels of deprivation across all groups.

Housing conditions reveal another critical gap: around one-third of refugee and migrant households live in overcrowded or substandard housing, double the rate observed among nationals (16%). In the social networks and cohesion dimension, deprivation in social support and participation is three times higher among

refugees and migrants than among nationals. Most strikingly, 38% of refugee and migrant households report experiencing discrimination or unfair treatment, rising to 44% among Haitians, making this one of the highest deprivation rates across all indicators, underscoring the presence of xenophobia and racism in the daily lives of refugees and migrants.

Table 5. Incidence (H), Intensity (A) and MPI

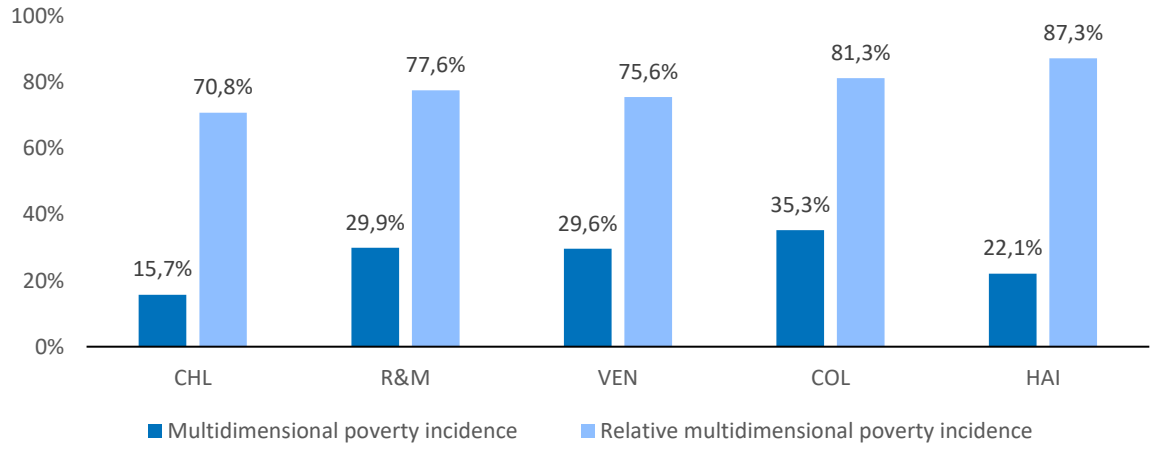
	Incidence (H)	Intensity (A)	MPI	Confidence intervals
Nationals	**15.7%**	**27.4%**	**0.043**	**(0.042, 0.044)**
Refugees & Migrants	**29.9%**	**30.9%**	**0.092**	**(0.081, 0.105)**
Venezuelans	29.6%	30.9%	0.091	(0.079, 0.106)
Colombians	35.3%	31.6%	0.111	(0.089, 0.138)
Haitians	22.1%	29.2%	0.065	(0.047, 0.088)

Source: CASEN 2022. The cut-off defining multidimensional poverty is 22.5%.

Table 5 presents the incidence (H), intensity (A), and Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) across population groups. Overall, the incidence of multidimensional poverty among refugees and migrants (29.9%) is nearly double that of nationals (15.7%). Among foreign-born groups, Colombians face the highest incidence at 35.3%, followed by Venezuelans (29.6%) and Haitians (22.1%). While differences in intensity are pronounced, the average share of deprivations among the poor is less pronounced, but they remain meaningful. Nationals experience a lower intensity (27.4%) compared to refugees and migrants (30.9%), with all refugee and migrant nationalities ranging between 29% and 32%. This suggests that, although the depth of poverty is relatively similar among the poor, a significantly larger share of the foreign population falls below the multidimensional poverty threshold.

As a result, the MPI score for nationals (0.04) is less than half that of refugees and migrants (0.09), reflecting a significantly higher level of multidimensional poverty among the latter. Colombians stand out with an MPI exceeding 0.10, highlighting the severity of their deprivation relative to both other foreign-born groups and the national population. These findings underscore a critical disparity in living conditions and point to the urgent need for differentiated, equity-focused policy responses that address both the prevalence and depth of poverty among refugee and migrant populations.

Figure 2. Relative multidimensional poverty incidence (H)



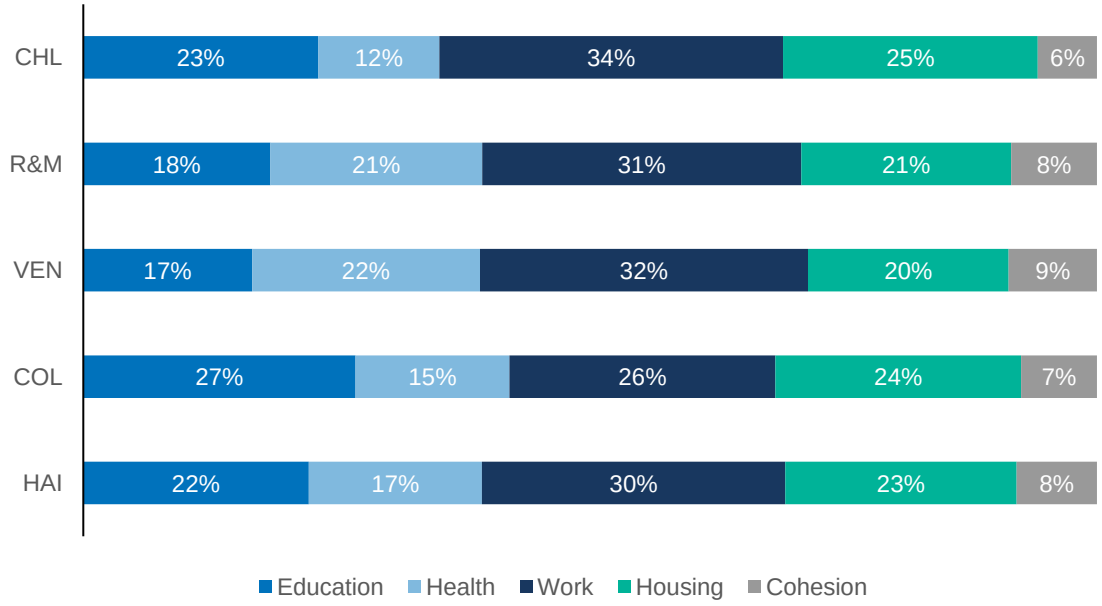
Source: CASEN 2022.

Figure 2 presents the relative incidence of multidimensional poverty among refugees and migrants in Chile, comparing their levels of deprivation against the national population. Specifically, it shows the proportion of

each group whose deprivation level is equal to or greater than the median level among Chilean nationals. This relative perspective allows for a more nuanced understanding of inequality, beyond the standard poverty threshold.

The data reveals that 77.6% of refugees and migrants fall at or above the median of multidimensional deprivation among nationals. This proportion is even higher among Haitians (87.3%) and Colombians (81.3%), indicating that these nationalities are disproportionately represented in the lower half of Chile's welfare distribution. While absolute poverty measures capture the most deprived, this relative indicator underscores how far behind most refugees and migrants remain. It points to entrenched structural inequalities and emphasizes the importance of integrating relative metrics to inform more inclusive and equitable policy responses.

Figure 3. Dimensional contribution to multidimensional poverty



Source: CASEN 2022.

The contribution of each dimension to multidimensional poverty reveals important differences between nationals and the refugee and migrant population. Among nationals, poverty is primarily driven by the dimensions of work and housing. In contrast, for refugees and migrants, deprivation is more evenly distributed across dimensions, with health emerging as a key contributor alongside work and housing.

Differences also emerge across nationalities. Haitians show a poverty profile similar to that of nationals, with work and housing as the main drivers. Colombians, however, stand out as the only group for whom education is the leading contributor to poverty, closely followed by work and housing. In contrast, Venezuelans experience poverty primarily through the work dimension, with education playing a comparatively minor role.

Table 6. Multidimensional poverty incidence (H), per subgroups (%)

	Nationals	Ref & Mig	Ven	Col	Hai
Gender					
Male	16%	30%	30%	38%	22%
Female	16%	30%	29%	33%	23%
Age group					
0-17	17%	36%	34%	48%	24%
18-29	17%	35%	36%	37%	19%
30-44	13%	25%	24%	30%	24%
45-59	14%	24%	23%	30%	15%
60 or above	19%	41%	39%	54%	0%
Region					
Metropolitan	15%	30%	29%	36%	21%
Rest of country	16%	31%	30%	34%	24%
Sex of head of household					
Male	14%	28%	28%	33%	21%
Female	17%	33%	32%	38%	27%
Children in the household					
HHs with at least a child under 15	18%	35%	35%	36%	24%
No children	13%	21%	18%	34%	19%

Source: CASEN 2022. All comparisons within groups present statistical differences, using t-test chi-square statistics, $p<0.05$.

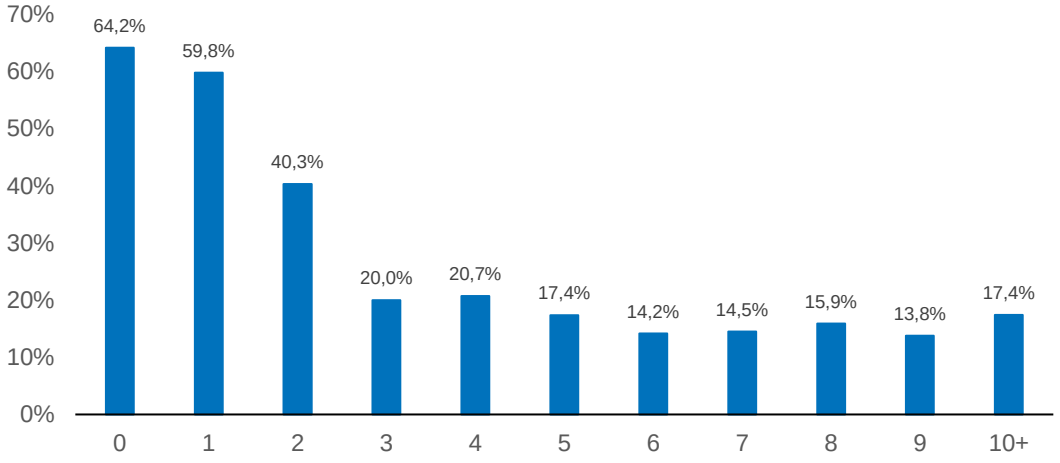
Table 6 and Figure 4 highlight key demographic disparities in multidimensional poverty across population groups. While gender-based differences are generally minimal, a notable exception is observed among Colombians, where men face a higher poverty incidence (38%) than women (33%).

Age is a consistent factor across all groups: individuals aged 60 and over experience the highest poverty rates, while those aged 30 to 59 show the lowest. At the household level, both the sex of the household head and the presence of children significantly influence poverty outcomes. Among refugees and migrants, 33% of female-headed households are poor, compared to 28% of male-headed ones. The presence of children further amplifies vulnerability—households with children face a poverty incidence of 35%, versus 21% among those without.

Poverty incidence among refugee and migrant households is strongly influenced by the time of arrival. The data show a clear pattern: the more recent the arrival, the higher the likelihood of experiencing multidimensional poverty. This trend peaks at 64.2% among those who arrived in the same year the survey was conducted, underscoring the acute vulnerability of newly arrived populations and the urgent need for early integration and support mechanisms. This pattern is particularly pronounced among Venezuelan nationals, many of whom entered Chile after the introduction of visa requirements in 2019 and amid a sharp rise in irregular border crossings between 2021 and 2022. These more recent arrivals are more likely to face irregular status, limited access to documentation, and exclusion from formal labor markets and public services—factors that compound their risk of poverty.

Although the CASEN survey does not directly capture legal status, the strong correlation between recent arrival and higher deprivation suggests that legal status is a critical, though unmeasured, determinant of poverty. These findings underscore the importance of considering both the time of arrival and legal status in poverty analysis and reinforce the need to expand regularization pathways as a structural response to reduce exclusion and support integration.

Figure 4. Multidimensional poverty incidence (H) among refugees & migrants, by years since arrival



Source: CASEN 2022.

Policy Considerations

Chile's Multidimensional Poverty Index reveals clear and urgent priorities. **Regularization is central:** without legal status, refugees and migrants face exclusion from employment, health care, education, and social protection. Expanding both ordinary and extraordinary regularization pathways—alongside safe and legal entry mechanisms—is essential to guarantee access to rights and reduce exposure to smuggling and protection risks. These measures also foster social cohesion, support economic development, and contribute to demographic renewal.

Poverty is highest among new arrivals, with over 64% classified as being in multidimensional poverty, suggesting the need to consider both the initial vulnerabilities of newly arrived populations and the barriers faced by those without regular status, particularly in a context where more restrictive visa requirements have limited access to regular pathways. This underscores the importance of timely access to documentation, legal orientation, emergency shelter, and essential services that can prevent long-term exclusion. Municipalities are key to this first response, yet often lack the resources to sustain it, highlighting the need to strengthen local capacities. As noted by the OECD (2019), early investment in integration reduces long-term social and fiscal costs.

Labour market exclusion and gaps in social protection continue to affect refugees and migrants disproportionately. They face higher unemployment and lower social security coverage (e.g., 50% of Colombians lack social security). Addressing these issues requires recognizing foreign qualifications, expanding job placement services, developing tailored employment programs, and establishing regularization mechanisms for individuals lacking legal work authorization.

Housing conditions are also a concern. Refugees and migrants experience higher rates of overcrowding and substandard housing compared to nationals. Beyond structural barriers to affordable housing, many face discrimination and documentation challenges (World Bank, 2023). The growing number of refugees and migrants residing in informal settlements or *campamentos* (Ministry of Housing, 2024) underscores the need for their inclusion in urban planning and housing policies, ensuring dignified living conditions and promoting social inclusion.

In education, school attendance deprivation among refugees and migrants is four times higher than among Chilean nationals. This gap reflects persistent barriers to educational access, including language obstacles that particularly affect Haitians. Addressing these disparities requires education and outreach

campaigns, as well as policies that promote school retention among refugee and migrant children. Evidence shows that early enrollment, inclusive school settings, and targeted language support have proven effective in reducing long-term learning gaps (Crul et al., 2017; Akgündüz & Heijnen, 2018; OECD, 2017**).**

Health access is another critical area, with over 30% of Venezuelans and Colombians lacking insurance. Streamlining enrollment processes and expanding community-based health services are critical steps to ensure equitable access and improve health outcomes.

Discrimination remains a significant barrier to integration. Haitians report the highest levels of perceived discrimination (44%), underscoring the need for anti-xenophobia campaigns, stronger legal protections, and intercultural education in schools and public institutions. Promoting peaceful coexistence through local-level initiatives is essential for long-term integration.

Certain groups face compounded vulnerabilities. Female-headed households and those with children show higher rates of multidimensional poverty. Evidence points to a “triple disadvantage” where gender, legal status, and forced displacement intersect. Expanding childcare, cash support, and family services can reduce these inequalities. The labor integration of refugee and migrant mothers is associated with better outcomes for their children, particularly their daughters (OECD, 2017).

Chile has the tools and partnerships to respond effectively. By acting across these priority areas, it can strengthen protection, support integration, and ensure that no one is left behind. Regional coordination initiatives such as the Quito Process and Cartagena +40 offer valuable opportunities for collaboration, while joint work with UN agencies under the Resident Coordinator system and the inclusion of displaced populations in national statistics and development plans can contribute to more informed and inclusive policies.