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South Asia

# **SRI LANKA: PROFILE OF MIGRATION**

**Shyamali Ranaraja**

**ANALYSIS**



# Imprint

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## Executive Summary

This policy brief outlines the multidimensional nature of migration from Sri Lanka, shaped by colonial legacies, internal conflict, economic hardship and global labor demands. As of 2023, approximately 3 million Sri Lankans live abroad, with outbound labor migration being the dominant form of movement. Economic drivers—particularly the pursuit of better wages and quality of life—account for over 79% of migration decisions. Although female migrants once dominated migration flows, regulatory changes and safety concerns have led to a reversal, with male migrants now forming the majority.

The Middle East remains the primary destination, with a large proportion of migrants in low-skilled employment, especially women. Education-based migration is rising, particularly to Australia, Canada, the UK and, increasingly, Germany. However, most students do not intend to return, raising concerns over brain drain. Irregular migration and trafficking also pose growing risks, especially among vulnerable populations.

Sri Lanka's remittances reached USD 5.97 billion in 2023, making them the country's largest source of foreign exchange. While migration supports household incomes and national reserves, it also creates socio-economic challenges. The brief recommends policy reforms including better skill-matching, removal of gender-discriminatory policies and stronger international cooperation to reduce irregular migration and enhance migrant protection.



## 1

# Introduction

Sri Lanka was occupied from 1505 A.D. first by the Portuguese, followed by the Dutch (1658 A.D.) and finally the British (1815-1948). This European occupation resulted in permanent migration for employment, as seen in other former colonies. There were several distinct periods or 'waves' of migration for different reasons (Jayawardena, 2020). The British brought in workers from South India to work on Sri Lankan tea plantations and also transported these workers subsequently to Malaysia, primarily to work on British-owned rubber plantations. After Sri Lanka gained independence from the British in 1948, the erstwhile government ruled that the majority language (Sinhala) should be the state language, causing many Sri Lankans of European descent as well as other minorities to migrate to Europe, Australia and New Zealand. Most of the early migrants included highly skilled professionals.

Migration in Sri Lanka therefore has several categories: temporary or permanent, internal or cross-border, for economic, educational, social or demographic reasons, or as displacement stemming from disasters or the three-decade long civil war that ended in 2009. A considerable number of Sri Lankans have also migrated for political reasons, mainly as refugees and asylum seekers. This internal conflict and economic factors have also led to irregular and unsafe migration (Jayasuriya, et al, 2016). There is also inbound migration of foreign citizens, although Sri Lanka is more a country of origin for migrants as opposed to a country of destination.

For these reasons, there has been a steady outmigration of Sri Lankans in the recent past, with the newly established Office for Overseas Sri Lankan Affairs estimating that a stock of 3 million people of Sri Lankan origin is presently living and working in host countries around the world. A recent study found that there were 1.25 million Sri Lankan-born persons permanently settled outside their country of birth, equivalent to almost one in 20 of the population (Hugo & Dissanayake, 2017), which is considered a significant diaspora-to-population ratio (Reeves, 2013). Internally, one in seven Sri Lankans has migrated within provinces, and one in five has migrated within districts (GOSL, 2012).



Most Sri Lankans living abroad have migrated for employment (GOSL, 2012, pp. 102), and workers' remittances now constitute the highest foreign exchange earner, reaching USD 5970 million in 2023, exceeding earnings from textile and apparel imports (USD 4678 million) and tea exports (USD 130 million). Remittances from migrants contributed approximately 10% of Sri Lanka's overall GDP and are a major source of income for one in eight households.

### 1.1. Legal and governance framework of migration

Sri Lanka has established a comprehensive legal and policy framework to govern labor migration, primarily focused on protecting the rights of outbound migrant workers. The country ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of Migrant Workers in 1996 but has yet to ratify key ILO conventions, although the legislative framework aligns with their principles. The National Policy on Labor Migration (2008) was the foundation for managing overseas employment, later updated through the National Policy and Action Plan on Migration for Employment (2023–2027) to address emerging challenges, including those brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic. Complementary policies such as the Sub-Policy on Return and Reintegration (2015) and the National Migration Health Policy (2012) further support migrant welfare. The Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment Act (1985) and its amendments regulate recruitment, licensing and welfare provisions, though some aspects, like the transmission of a part of the registration fee collected by the Sri Lanka Foreign Employment Bureau ("SLBFE") to foreign employment placement agencies, have raised concerns.

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<sup>1</sup><https://oosla.lk/#~:text=An%20estimated%20total%20of%203,communities%20back%20in%20Sri%20Lanka.>

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Central Bank of Sri Lanka 2023.

<sup>3</sup>[https://www.cbsl.gov.lk/sites/default/files/cbslweb\\_documents/publications/annual\\_report/2020/en/13\\_Box\\_04.pdf](https://www.cbsl.gov.lk/sites/default/files/cbslweb_documents/publications/annual_report/2020/en/13_Box_04.pdf)



The implementation of migration policies in Sri Lanka is shared among several institutions, including the Department of Immigration and Emigration and the Ministry of Foreign Employment, supported by inter-ministerial coordination bodies. Local public officials also play a role in executing migration-related decisions. Internationally, Sri Lanka engages in regional and global cooperation through platforms like the Abu Dhabi Dialogue, Colombo Process and Bali Process, aiming to improve labor mobility, reduce irregular migration and enhance worker protections. Bilateral agreements and memoranda of understanding with destination countries such as Italy, Qatar, South Korea and Australia help streamline recruitment practices and safeguard migrant rights abroad.



## 2 Outbound migration

Outbound labor migration from Sri Lanka is shaped by a complex interplay of economic, social and security-related factors. According to Jayasuriya et al. (2016), while a range of motivations influence individuals' decisions to migrate, the predominant driver continues to be economic, indicated by a growth in migration for employment. Expectations of higher wages abroad, the ability to send remittances to support families back home and the pursuit of a better quality of life were cited by over 79% of surveyed respondents as the main reasons for seeking employment overseas. The economic disparities between Sri Lanka and popular destination countries, combined with limited local high-paying job opportunities, create strong incentives for individuals—particularly from low-income and rural households—to seek employment abroad.

Social and security-related drivers also play a notable role. Families often consider migration a strategy for upward mobility, which includes the securing of better educational opportunities for their children or accessing improved healthcare and living standards. Additionally, the study highlighted that security concerns, particularly among ethnic minority groups, have influenced migration decisions. Lingering tensions and perceived discrimination have, at times, contributed to a sense of insecurity, prompting members of these communities to seek stability and safety abroad. These drivers—combined with an established migration infrastructure and diaspora networks—have contributed to making outbound migration a sustained and culturally embedded livelihood strategy in Sri Lanka (Jayasuriya et al., 2016).

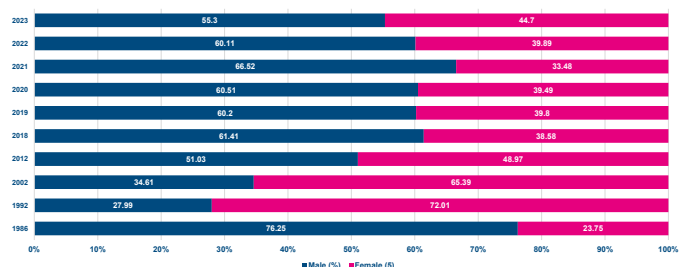
### 2.1. Migration for employment by gender

In the early 1990s, the majority of migrants for employment was female due to the demand for domestic workers and caregivers from the increasingly prosperous Middle Eastern countries; however, by 2012, these proportions were nearly reversed, with two thirds of all migrants being male. There are several reasons



for this reversal: namely, measures implemented to prevent the migration of women with young children, the imposition of a minimum age for female workers to migrate to destination countries in the Middle East, wide publicity around complaints of harassment and abuse of female migrant workers and the inter-governmental arrangement for foreign employment with the South Korean government, which streamlined the migration of male workers and reduced associated costs, thus encouraging greater numbers of male workers to migrate for employment. Although the number of female migrants has increased after the global pandemic in 2020 and the economic crisis in the country thereafter, it remains to be seen whether this trend will continue.

*Figure 1: Migration for employment by gender – 1986-2023 (Various years)*



**Source:** Compiled by the author from Annual Reports of the Central Bank of Sri Lanka, the Performance Reports of the Ministry of Foreign Employment and the Annual Report of the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment over the years

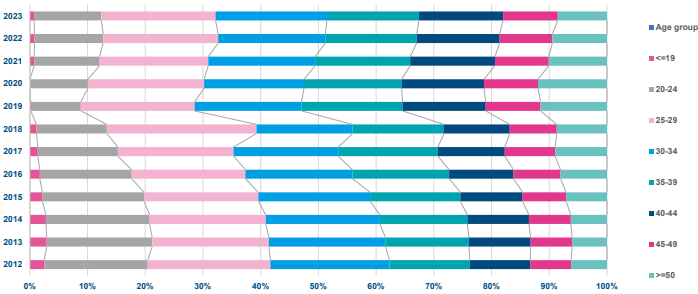
## 2.2. Migration for employment by age

In January 2013, the Sri Lankan government raised the minimum age for migrant domestic workers from 18 to 21, aiming to protect young women from potential abuse and exploitation abroad. Female migrant workers with young children were also discouraged from migration by the introduction of the requirement of a Family Background Report (Ranaraja, 2019). This policy also changed the pattern of migration where female



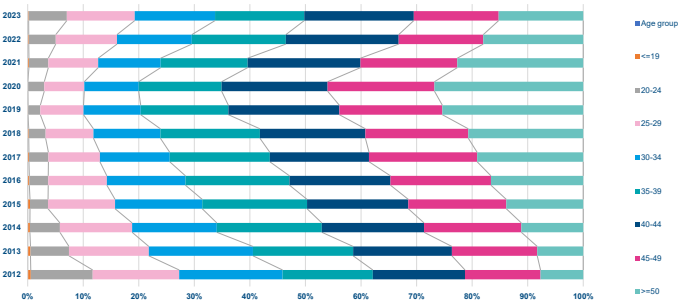
workers are concerned. As can be seen by comparing the two figures below, the age dispersion of male migrant workers has remained relatively unchanged (Figure 2), but female migrant workers are more likely now to be in the older age groups than they were a decade ago (Figure 3).

Figure 2: Male migrant workers by age (2012-2023)



**Source:** Compiled by author from various reports

Figure 3: Female migrant workers by age (2012-2023)



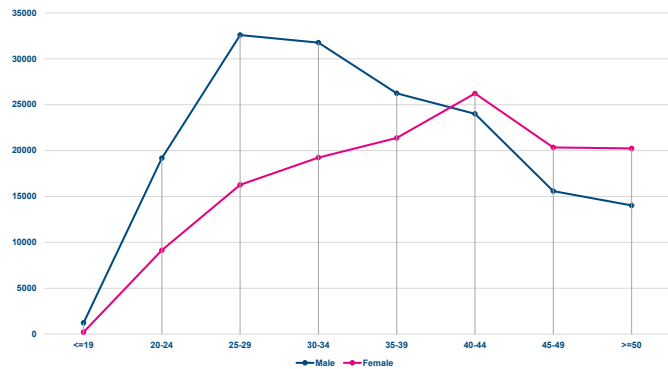
**Source:** Compiled by author from various reports

<sup>4</sup>The FBR requirement is a directive introduced in 2013 by the Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare (MFEPW) and its successor, the Ministry of Foreign Employment (MFE), implemented by the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment (SLBFE) with the intention of reducing the adverse psycho-social effects of children being left behind by the migration of mothers. According to this requirement, females with children under the age of five years are not “recommended” for foreign employment, while females with children above five years will only be recommended for migration if satisfactory alternative care arrangements are in place to ensure the protection of children.



However, younger female workers have started to migrate in higher numbers again after 2020, possibly due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and the economic crisis in the country in the years that followed. The difference in age between male and female migrant workers is also striking, with more women migrating in older age groups. Very few females of 19 years or below migrate for employment now, but a small proportion of male workers in this lowest age category continue to migrate, mostly for unskilled work.

Figure 4: Migration by age group and gender - 2023



**Source:** Annual Report of the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment (2023)

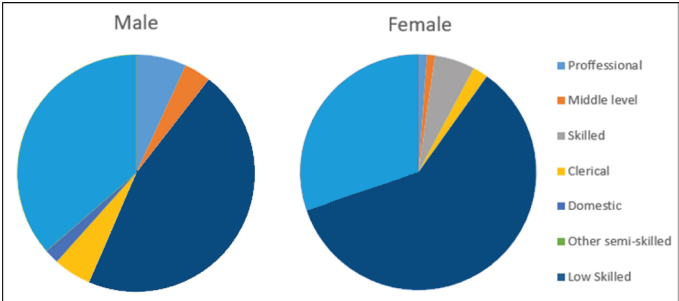
The highest proportion of female workers is found in the 40-44 age group, whereas that for male workers lies in the 25-29 year range. This is likely to be due to the restriction on migration of women with young children, where women wait to reduce their caregiving responsibilities within the family before migrating for employment.



2.3.Migration by skill level

A significant portion of Sri Lankan migrant workers occupies the semi-skilled and low-skilled categories; the numbers of migrants in professional categories remain low despite the high educational achievements of men and women. More than 90% of female migrant workers continue to migrate as domestic workers or low-skilled workers; in contrast, the largest portion of male migrant workers (Figure 5) is skilled. The combined share of low-skilled and semi-skilled migrant male workers is over 40%.

Figure 5: Migrant workers by gender and skill level - 2022



**Source:** Annual Report of the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment (2023)

Only a small proportion of female workers migrate for higher skilled and professional occupations, due largely to the low levels of labor force participation by women in Sri Lanka. This has perplexed researchers, as levels of literacy and education for Sri Lankan females are among the highest in Asia; despite this, labor force participation remains low even amongst women in the higher skilled and professional categories; it is likely that these categories of women do not seek to migrate for the same reasons that prevent them from entering the labor force.



## 2.4.Destination countries for migrant workers

The Middle East is the main destination for Sri Lankan migrant workers, male and female, with Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Qatar and the U.A.E. being the four main destinations across all skill levels.

Table 1.Destination country by skill level and gender - 2023

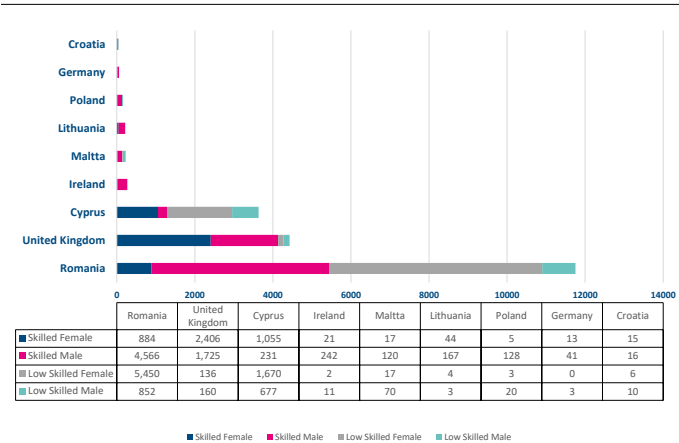
	Skilled		Low-skilled		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Total
Saudi Arabia	39,401	13,181	2,418	8,929	63,929
Kuwait	27,413	12,859	18,023	3,982	62,277
Qatar	4,023	28,470	1,119	14,909	48,521
UAE	10,944	18,040	2,728	6,739	38,451
Maldives	1,023	7,202	425	3,336	11,986
Romania	884	4,566	852	5,446	11,748
South Korea	6	1,458	120	8,162	9,746
Oman	4,219	1,732	200	497	6,648
Japan	963	3,650	79	952	5,644
Jordan	3,500	1,073	780	196	5,549
United Kingdom	2,406	1,725	136	160	4,427
Cyprus	1,055	231	1,670	677	3,633

**Source:** Annual Report of the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment (2023)



Germany has not been a significant destination country for Sri Lankans migrating for employment, although other European countries such as Romania, the United Kingdom and Cyprus have reported significant increases. The lack of knowledge of the German language is likely to be the main reason for these low numbers, given the increase in enrolment in other European countries.

Figure 6: Destination countries in Europe for Sri Lankan migrants (2023)



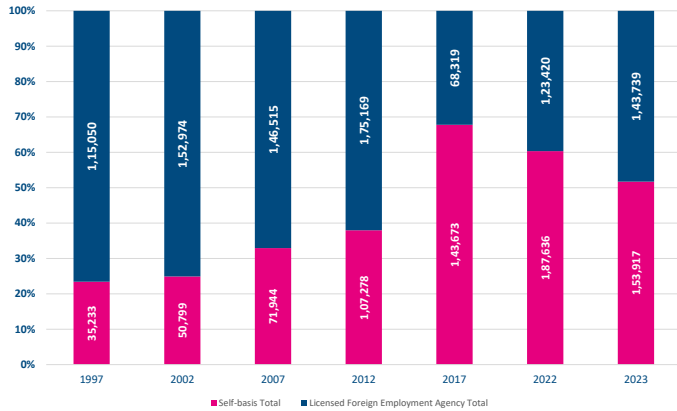
**Source:** Calculation by author from Annual Report of the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment (2023)

2.5. Migration by source of employment

While a high proportion of male and female migrant workers before 2000 tended to migrate by placement through a Licensed Foreign Employment Agent ("LFEA"), this is no longer the case, with an increasing number of workers tending to obtain foreign employment through personal sources without an intermediary. Even taking into consideration the reduction in female migration, the number of female workers taking the assistance of a LFEA has reduced by a far larger margin, with the result that slightly more than half of all migrant workers now migrate on a personal or 'self-basis.'



Figure 7: Migration by source 1997-2023 (selected years)



**Source:** Compiled from Annual Report of the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment (various years)

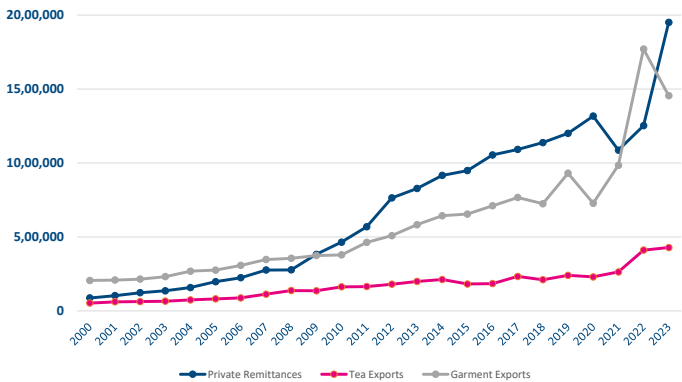
The SLBFE defines migration on ‘self-basis’ as migration through personal contacts, family members, internet advertisements, etc., where the migrant worker registers individually with the SLBFE; it is therefore not illegal or irregular migration but sourced through the migrant workers’ own contacts rather than through a fee-levying placement agency.

## 2.6. By remittances and economic impact of remittances

The importance of migrant employment to Sri Lanka is apparent from the contribution made to the economy through inward remittances. In the early 1990s, migrant workers’ remittances were third in terms of foreign exchange earnings, following tea exports and garment (including apparel and textile) exports; by 2009, worker remittances exceeded tea and garment exports. The growth in remittances has been phenomenal, increasing from the equivalent of 20% of total export earnings in 2000 to 63% in 2017.

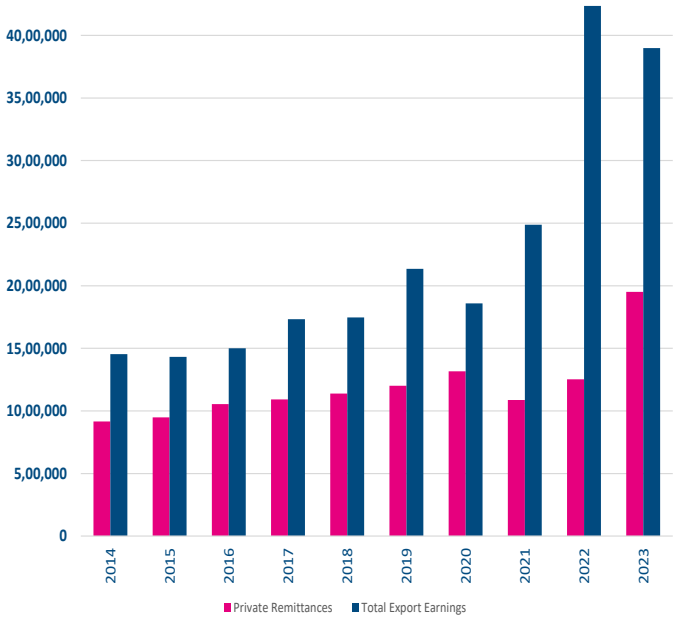


Figure 8: Contribution to the economy through remittances by migrant workers in relation to tea and garment exports (1990-2017)



**Source:** Compiled from Annual Report of the Central Bank of Sri Lanka (various years)

Figure 9: Value of private remittances from migrant workers compared with total export earnings (2014-2023)



**Source:** Compiled from Annual Report of the Central Bank of Sri Lanka (various years)



The rapid growth and value of remittances highlight the reliance placed by Sri Lanka on remittances from migrants for employment in its economic strategy.

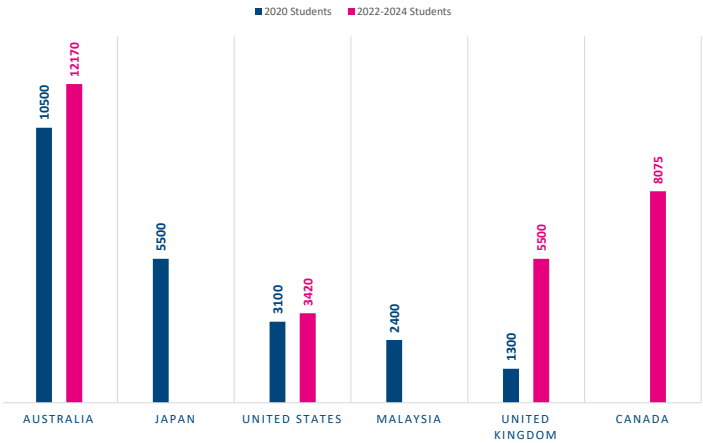
Remittances were of particular importance during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020-2021, where exports reduced considerably due to pandemic-control measures including lockdowns; remittances increased to over 70% of the value of total exports in 2020, cushioning the economy from the drastic effects of the pandemic-driven downturn



# 3 Other types of regular migration

The other key reason for the migration of Sri Lankans is the pursuit of higher education abroad. Out of the domestic market of 120,000 students that qualify for university education annually, nearly 28,000 students seek admissions in foreign universities in Australia, Canada and the United States of America, with these nations ranked among the top destinations. According to available data, the growth of student mobility in Sri Lanka has increased by 63% over the past five years for six major student destinations, with the peak occurring in 2024. In 2023, a total of 7,555 Sri Lankan students travelled to the UK; even if the number of students who obtained acceptance in 2024 remained the same, the overall increase tallies up to about 115% over the past five years.

Figure 10: Migration of Sri Lankan students for education (2020 & 2022-2024)



Source: Compiled from ICEF Monitor (2021 & 2025) and Echelon (2021)

<sup>5</sup><https://investsrilanka.com/wp-content/uploads/2023/08/Education-Sector-2023.pdf>



The most sought-after destination in Europe for students is the United Kingdom. Germany has not been a preferred destination in the past; in the 2022/23 winter semester, around 367,600 international students who obtained their university entrance certificates abroad came to Germany afterwards to study; of this number, only 884 were Sri Lankans, compared to nearly 49,000 students from India (DAAD, 2024). However, the number of students from Sri Lanka has increased sharply between the 2020/21 winter semester and the 2023/24 winter semester by nearly a hundred students to a total of 982; it is possible that stricter entry regulations being imposed in the USA and UK may result in more students applying for education opportunities in Germany.

A recent survey (Weeraratne, et al, 2022) found that most students in overseas education stated that they do not plan to return to Sri Lanka; the reasons presented for not returning included finding employment outside Sri Lanka (45%), continuing higher studies outside Sri Lanka (38%) and other personal reasons (17%). It is possible that if destination countries do not approve continued stay after completion of the course of education or mandated employment, these students may resort to staying on without proper authorization. While the direct costs of this exodus for education in terms of foreign exchange outflows are significant, the indirect cost of these students not returning to Sri Lanka in the main is even more formidable, given the loss of a well-educated younger generation capable of taking the country forward.



## 4 Irregular migration

Due to border control and visa requirements imposed by foreign governments on Sri Lankans entering their territories, aspiring migrants that are unable to satisfy these requirements may resort to using irregular and illegal migration channels to enter these countries; they risk not only legal sanctions if discovered in Sri Lanka or another country, but also becoming victims of other illegal activities such as drug smuggling, human trafficking, money laundering and terrorism. The Department of Immigration and Emigration reports that irregular migration and human trafficking (as well as human smuggling) to countries such as Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand (especially through Thailand, Myanmar and Vietnam) have increased, and the Border Surveillance Unit has increased vigilance to prevent such unsafe migration attempts. In 2023, it was reported that 415 irregular migration attempts from Sri Lanka were detected by the Department; 181 fraudulent documents and facilitators of such activities (as well as victims) have been identified and handed over to the relevant authorities for further investigation. Until 2012, Australia was also a popular destination, but this changed due to the housing of migrants outside Australian territory; claims for refugee and asylum status are strictly reviewed by the Australian Government. Sri Lanka has also been a transit country for nationals from the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation countries, who travel through the country enroute to Europe and Australia (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime [UNODC], 2015).

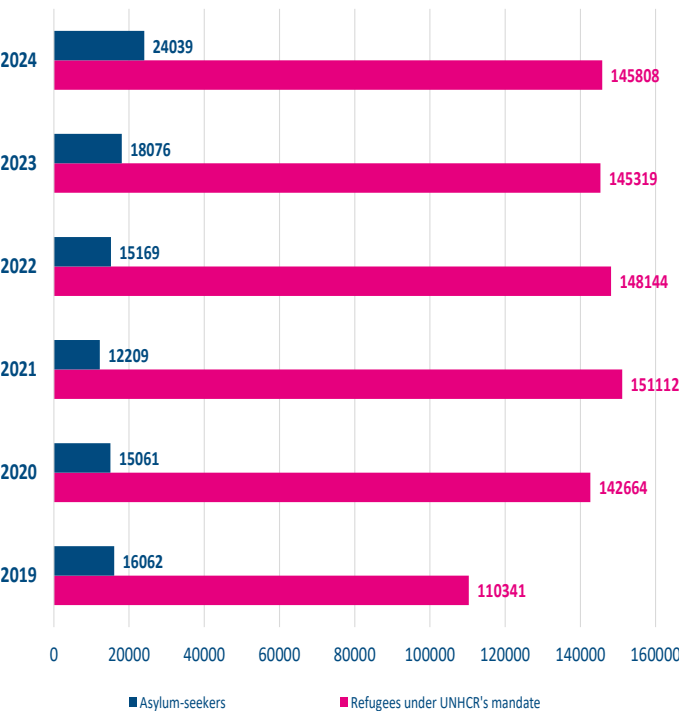
Sri Lanka is largely a source country for irregular migration due to its location on a major maritime route. Migrants smuggled out of Sri Lanka are largely moving towards the Middle East, Europe (mainly Italy) and North America. Recent data specifically on illegal (irregular) migration from Sri Lanka to Germany is limited. However, an incident reported in January 2025 highlights that at least one Sri Lankan national was intercepted in Romania enroute to Germany as part of irregular migration efforts: a Sri Lankan citizen was reported to have been apprehended while traveling by bus toward Germany using an expired Romanian visa—an example of irregular entry attempts across European borders (Schengen News, 2025).



### 3.1. Asylum/ refugee migration by Sri Lankans to other countries

More than one million Sri Lankans applied for asylum worldwide or had their applications pending in 2002 (UNHCR, 2004). However, with the end of the civil war, the number of asylum seekers has reduced, with economic factors more likely to be the underlying reason for application for refugee status.

Figure 11: Sri Lankan Asylum Seekers and Refugees to Other Countries



**Source:** UNHCR (2024)

### 3.2. Illegal migration/ human trafficking

The Penal Code Amendment Act No. 16 of 2006 introduced the language of the Trafficking Protocol in classifying and defining several criminal offences. It also added other elements to offences, such as criminalizing the recruitment of a child for use



in armed conflict. Many of the penal provisions were revised, with maximum penalties being set at not less than twenty years of imprisonment in some instances and not less than thirty years in others.

The Trafficking in Persons (TIP) report for 2024 has continued to rank Sri Lanka on its Tier 2 watchlist and notes that human traffickers exploit domestic and foreign victims in Sri Lanka; traffickers also exploit victims from Sri Lanka in other countries. Most reported Sri Lankan trafficking cases involve traffickers exploiting Sri Lankan migrant workers overseas. The levying of various fees, lengthy application processes and stringent visa regulations that work to the disadvantage of many aspiring migrants lead to the seeking of alternative routes for employment through irregular channels. Many migrants travel abroad on tourist visas in search of employment, resulting in increased vulnerability to trafficking; in addition, Sri Lankans migrating for employment who fail to register with the SLBFE are not permitted to access government services and are not considered the responsibility of the SLBFE; as a result, even legitimate migrant workers are considered undocumented by the government and become vulnerable to forced labor and sex trafficking

In several recently reported instances, traffickers have increasingly used social media to fraudulently recruit victims. Traffickers fraudulently recruit Sri Lankan victims with job offers and force them to engage in online scam operations, particularly in Southeast Asia. Traffickers reportedly also exploited foreign nationals in online scam operations in Sri Lanka. Alarmingly, some Sri Lankan migrants reported fraudulent recruitment while traveling to Russia, with attempts made to enlist them as foreign fighters in Russia's war in Ukraine.

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<sup>6360C</sup>. (1) Whoever -

(a) buys, sells or barter or instigates another person to buy, sell or barter any person or does anything to promote, facilitate or induce the buying, selling or bartering of any person for money or other consideration;

(b) recruits, transports, transfers, harbours or receives any person or does any other act by the use of threat, force, fraud, deception or inducement or by exploiting the vulnerability of another [defined as impelling a person to submit to any act, taking advantage of such person's economic, cultural or other circumstances] for the purpose of securing forced or compulsory labour or services, slavery, servitude, the removal of organs, prostitution or other forms of sexual exploitation or any other act which constitutes an offence under any law ;

(c) recruits, transports, transfers, harbours or receives a child or does any other act whether with or without the consent of such child for the purpose of securing forced or compulsory labour or services, slavery, servitude or the removal of organs, prostitution or other forms of sexual exploitation, or any other act which constitutes an offence under any law, shall be guilty of the offence of trafficking.



## 5

## Challenges of migration

Despite the inflows of remittances, which are a major source of income for low-income migrant workers' families and for the economy, the substantial social and economic costs of brain drain or human capital flight arising from outbound migration are substantial, as are the various adverse social implications, which are mostly overlooked in policy discussions. These adverse impacts are severe in the case of female migrant workers: they are exposed to various risks and physical harassment in certain hostile workplaces abroad mainly due to the nature of low-skilled jobs and their position within private households abroad. Domestically, given that family and care responsibilities are disproportionately borne by females in Sri Lanka (GOSL, 2020), families and children left behind by female migrant workers experience harsher outcomes than do families of male migrant workers.

The departure of individuals with knowledge and technical skills, known as 'brain drain' or 'human capital flight', involves high economic and social costs to Sri Lanka. The country sacrifices substantial human capital investment borne by the government, as it provides free access to healthcare and education up to tertiary level; the economy loses out on their talent and innovative capacity, which are imperative for knowledge-driven economic growth in the modern era of technology and innovation. Out-migration of small farmers or their family members has led to increases in their income and consumption levels; although there is potential to enhance farm production and productivity through the acquisition of land, better technology and equipment through remittances, these positive impacts have not been observed due to the lack of support by the authorities. Shortage of agricultural workers due to migration has led to persistent food insecurity and increasing poverty in rural areas.



Despite the government's adoption of a series of protective measures (the signing and ratifying of relevant international instruments and incorporation of these principles in national laws), many migrant workers abroad experience exploitative situations where human rights and dignity are violated. Such exploitation draws upon the vulnerability of those who are economically and socially disadvantaged and the structural factors that lead to risk taking behavior. Labor laws in many of the key destination countries in the Middle East do not provide adequate safeguards to migrant workers, especially not to domestic workers. The exploitative and abusive working conditions experienced by such migrant workers have lasting effects on their mental and physical health; Sri Lanka often bears the costs of their travails upon their return home.

Outbound migration has increasingly surfaced as a significant issue in Sri Lanka's electoral politics, particularly following the 2022–2024 economic crisis. Political parties and candidates have addressed the migration trend primarily as a symptom of economic collapse, youth disillusionment and lack of domestic opportunities. In high-migration districts, voters have emphasized the need for leaders who can restore economic stability and reduce the push factors driving people abroad. While the role of overseas remittances and the disenfranchisement of migrant workers have been mentioned, irregular migration has received limited attention on official political platforms (AP News, 2024).



## 6

## Policy recommendations to discourage irregular migration

To effectively reduce irregular and unsafe migration, Sri Lanka should adopt a rights-based and gender-sensitive migration governance framework that includes the removal of discriminatory barriers such as the Family Background Report (FBR), while ensuring equal protection for all migrant workers regardless of their migration channel. The government should enhance pre-departure training and skills development to improve access to secure and better-paying overseas jobs, ensure employment contracts are accessible in national languages and expand local livelihood opportunities—especially for women—through sustainable employment generation in rural and regional areas. These measures, alongside the full implementation of SLBFE protections in line with international standards, will address the root causes of irregular migration and reduce the vulnerability of migrants to exploitation and trafficking.

1. A recent report by the ILO (2024) has identified employment opportunities in Germany and recommends the following initiatives to overcome the barriers faced by Sri Lankans in accessing these jobs:
2. An MOU with the relevant German government authorities should be established that identifies specific job categories for Sri Lankan migrants.
3. The German Technical Institute that currently provides vocational qualifications in automotive technology, etc., should establish a compulsory German language course in the study programme to prepare aspiring migrant workers for work in Germany.



4. Public–private partnerships should be initiated to provide short-duration German language courses to be undertaken before leaving the country.
5. A quality matching framework should be adopted by the Sri Lankan government through universities and technical colleges to ensure that skill profiles for advertised vacancies are met.
6. With more opportunities in the industrial sector, German tech could be established as a pathway to cater to the job market in Germany.



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