PAKISTAN

MIGRATION SNAPSHOT

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Migrant: "IOM defines a migrant as any person who is moving or has moved across an international border or within a State away from his/her habitual place of residence, regardless of (1) the person's legal status; (2) whether the movement is voluntary or involuntary; (3) what the causes for the movement are; or (4) what the length of the stay is. IOM concerns itself with migrants and migration-related issues and, in agreement with relevant States, with migrants who are in need of international migration services (IOM, 2011)."

Asylum seekers: "A person who seeks safety from persecution or serious harm in a country other than his or her own and awaits a decision on the application for refugee status under relevant international and national instruments. In case of a negative decision, the person must leave the country and may be expelled, as may any non-national in an irregular or unlawful situation, unless permission to stay is provided on humanitarian or other related grounds (IOM, 2011)."

Refugee: "A person who, owing to a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinions, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country (Art. 1(A)(2), Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, Art. 1A(2), 1951 as modified by the 1967 Protocol)".

Undocumented migrant: "A non-national who enters or stays in a country without the appropriate documentation. This includes, among others: a person (a) who has no legal documentation to enter a country but manages to enter clandestinely, (b) who enters or stays using fraudulent documentation, (c) who, after entering using legal documentation, has stayed beyond the time authorized or otherwise violated the terms of entry and remained without authorization (IOM, 2011)."

Trafficking in persons: "The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation (IOM, 2011)".

Migrant smuggling: "The procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident (IOM, 2011)."

1. Introduction

Pakistan is 796,095 square kilometers in size and has a population of 197 million people. It is bordered by four nations. It shares its western border with Iran (Islamic Republic of) and Afghanistan; its northern border with China; and its eastern border with India. In the south, the border is defined by the Arabian Sea. With a human development index of 0.562, Pakistan is at the lower end of the medium development category and positioned 150th out of the 189 countries assessed by UNDP. Around 39 per cent of the Pakistani population live in multidimensional poverty (UNDP and OPHI, 2016). Yet, the development level and the multidimensional poverty index vary greatly between rural and urban areas of the country. In cities, 1 out of 10 people is multi-dimensionally poor while in rural areas multidimensional poverty affects 5 out of 10 people (UNDP and OPHI, 2016). The main development challenges are related to the education system and access to health care facilities (UNDP, 2018).

Table 1: Pakistan Key demographic indicators

Indicator	Pakistan
Total area, in sq km, million	0.796
Population (2017), thousand [d]	197,016
Migrant population (2017), thousand [d]	3,398
Migrant population (2017), % total population [d]	1.7%
Urban Population (2017), % of total [b]	36.4%
Population Growth rate (2017), annual % [b]	1.9%
Human Development Index (2017) [c]	0.562
Country Rank out of 189 [c]	150/189
Unemployment (2017), % of labour force [c]	4.0%
Youth Unemployment (2017), % ages 15-24 [c]	7.7%
Multidimensional Poverty Headcount (2015), %	38.8%
Gini Coefficient (2010-2017) [c]	30.7
Foreign Direct Investment (net inflows, 2017), current USD, billion [b]	2.815
Net Official Development Assistance Received (2017), current USD, billion [b]	2.953
Personal Remittances Received (2017), current USD, billion [b]	19.698
Personal Remittances Received (2017), % GDP [b]	6.5%

Source: [b] World Bank, 2018; [c] UNDP, 2018; [d] UNDESA, 2017; [e] UNDP and OPHI (2016).

In terms of migration, due to its geographical position as a crossroad between South Asia, Central Asia and the Middle East, Pakistan has always functioned as a bridge between the great civilizations of Asia and Europe. As such, it can be simultaneously categorized as a country of origin, transit, and destination for international migration flows.

A complex mix of forced and voluntary migration patterns characterize mobility to, from and within Pakistan. Since 1990, Pakistan has hosted one of the five largest refugee populations worldwide, while also producing considerable numbers of refugees itself (IOM Migration Data Portal, 2018). At the same time, labour migration to and from Pakistan also constitutes an important aspect of mobility in the country (Cibea et al, 2013). In Pakistan, internal migration flows are often linked to the development differential between urban and rural areas with people moving for better employment and to overcome poverty. Pakistan is also subject to a vast array of natural hazards, which have caused numerous waves of internal displacement and internal migration (Sadia et al., 2017; Cibea et al, 2013).

As shown in *Figure 1*, the immigrant population as a share of the total Pakistani population decreased sharply from 5.8 per cent in 1990 to 1.7 per cent in 2017. In comparison, the share of emigrants as a portion of the total population remained quite stable at 3 per cent over the last three decades. Since 2005, emigration from Pakistan appeared to be a more significant phenomenon as compared to immigration to Pakistan (Figure 1). The importance of emigration is also reflected in the large amount of remittances sent back to Pakistan, roughly representing 6.5 per cent of the country GDP (World Bank, 2018).

Figure 1: Immigrant and emigrant populations in Pakistan as shares of the total population (1990 - 2017)
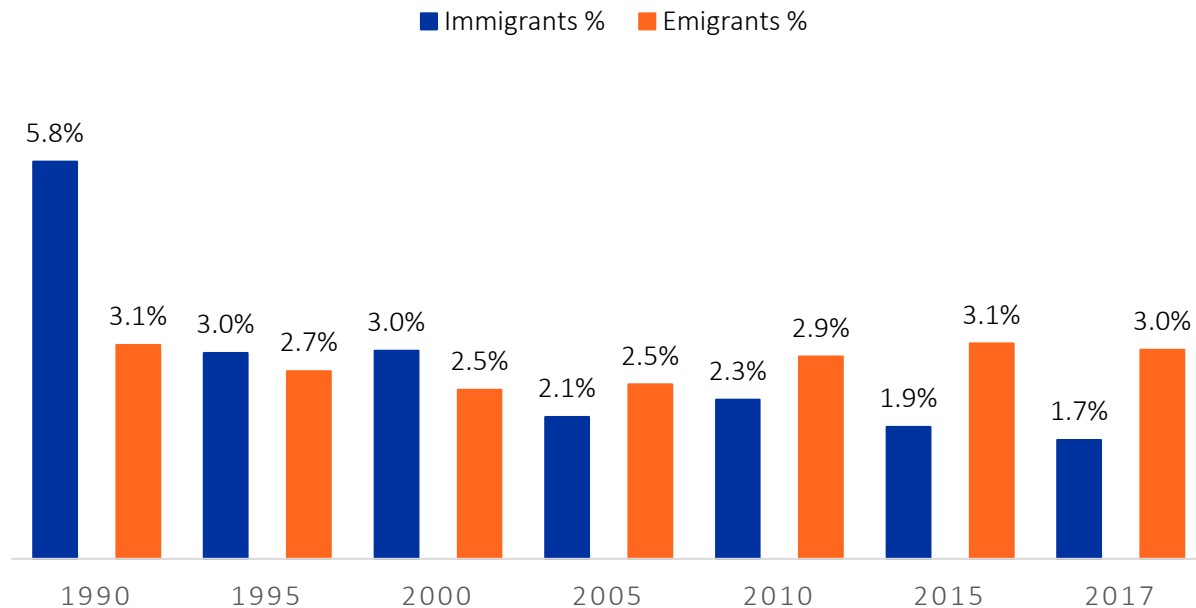
Source: UNDESA, 2017.

In 2017, there were almost 3.4 million immigrants in Pakistan, 45.1 per cent of whom were from Afghanistan (Table 2). In the same year, 1.4 million out of the 1.5 million Afghan born residents in Pakistan held refugee status. Since 1970 migration to Pakistan from Afghanistan has been highly influenced by the situation of war and instability in the country.

While migration to Pakistan has a strong cross-border dimension, the main destination countries of the large Pakistani diaspora are scattered across the world. In 2017, 22 per cent of the 6 million Pakistani emigrants lived in Saudi Arabia, 18 per cent in India, 16 per cent in the United Arab Emirates, 15 per cent in Europe and 6 per cent in the United States of America (Figure 3).

Figure 2: Origin of migrants in Pakistan (2017)
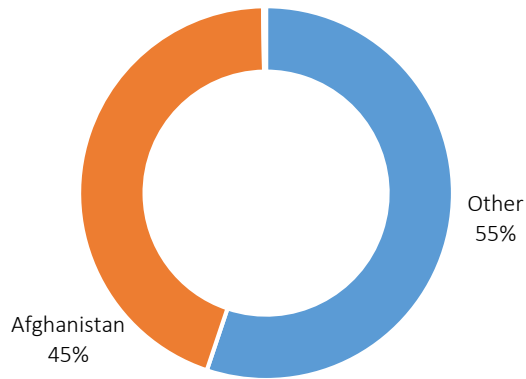
Source: UNDESA, 2017.

Table 2: Origin of Immigrants in Pakistan (2017)

Origin	Immigrants	Immigrants %
Total	3,398,154	100%
India	1,873,650	55%
Afghanistan	1,515,738	45%
Myanmar	2,303	0%
Iran	2,154	0%
Sri Lanka	541	0%
Other	3,768	0%

Figure 3: Destination of migrants from Pakistan (2017)
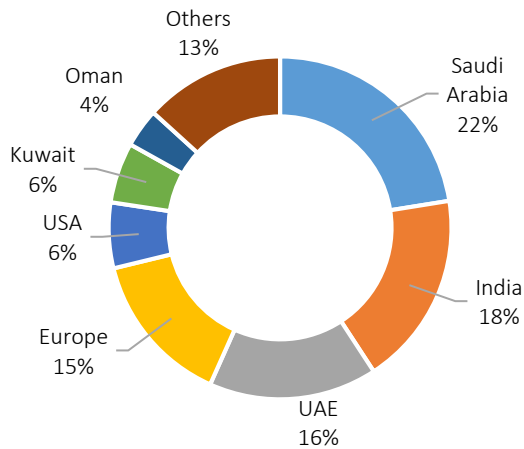
Source: UNDESA, 2017.

Table 3: Destination of Emigrants from Pakistan (2017)

Destination	Emigrants	Emigrants (%)
Total	5,978,635	100%
Saudi Arabia	1,343,737	22%
India	1,095,149	18%
UAE	950,145	16%
Europe	867,967	15%
USA	370,353	6%
Kuwait	340,481	6%
Oman	218,522	4%
Other	792,281	13%

2. Regular (labour) migration

2.1   Immigration

In Pakistan there are approximately 1.5 million documented individuals from Afghanistan. In relative terms, immigrants represent 1.7 per cent of the total population of Pakistan (UNDESA, 2017). However, due to porous borders and a lack of adequate infrastructure/resources to register foreigners over the past 50 years, there are also numerous undocumented migrants in Pakistan. According to Government estimates, Pakistan continues to host an estimated 350,000 – 550,000 undocumented Afghan nationals (Business Recorder, 2019; CAR, 2019; The Nation, 2019).

Due to the linguistical, geographical and cultural proximity of Afghanistan to Pakistan, Afghan nationals have been migrating to Pakistan for centuries. During the oil boom in 1973, Afghan labour immigrants started to take up jobs in the Pakistani Pashtun province, which was witnessing high out migration flows of Pakistani nationals leaving to work in oil rich countries. This was a legal and voluntary form of migration. Soon after, the Russian invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 triggered several waves of Afghan migration to Pakistan. Since then, the conflict and instability in Afghanistan have been the main reasons behind Afghan emigration to Pakistan. Over the years, numerous waves of both voluntary and forced return migration of Afghan migrants from Pakistan to Afghanistan have been observed (Marchand et al, 2015). As of today, the Afghan immigrant population in Pakistan is estimated to be around 2.4 million, comprising both: undocumented migrants and Afghan refugees holding Proof of Registration (PoR) (IOM-UNHCR, 2017)[1]. Despite their legal status, Afghans migrated to Pakistan largely because of the war and instability in their homeland and are often considered refugees. For this reason, information about this population, in terms of immigration and return migration are presented in section 3.1.

Apart from the discussion centered around forced migration from Afghanistan to Pakistan, circular, seasonal migration between the two countries is also an important phenomenon. Evidence based on a sample population of 2,023 migrants indicates that as many as 64 per cent of Afghan nationals travelling to and from Pakistan in 2009 were economic migrants (Majidi, 2009). Another prominent reason for circular, cross-border migration is healthcare. Davin and Majidi (2009) found that 21 per cent of the Afghans migrants seek medical treatment in Pakistan. Large numbers of labour migrants also travel from China, particularly highly skilled technical experts living in Gilgit-Baltistan and Balochistan. Many labour migrants work in the railways, construction, copper mining and energy sectors to fulfill the labour demand of China's large development projects in Pakistan, which in 2013 were almost 120 projects. A considerable number of foreign students are also studying in Pakistani universities, especially medical colleges (Cibea et al, 2013).

2.1   Emigration

With around 6 million emigrants, representing 3 per cent of the total Pakistani population, Pakistan is one of the top ten emigration countries in the world. Main destination countries for Pakistani emigrants are the Gulf States, India and Europe, particularly the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (UNDESA, 2017). Remittances received make up 6.5 per cent of the country's GDP and represent a core

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[1] Identification cards issued by the Pakistani National Database and Registration Authority (NADRA) on behalf of the Government of Pakistan. POR card holders are legally recognized as registered refugees by the Government of Pakistan and UNHCR

part of the economy of Pakistan (UNDESA, 2017; World Bank, 2018). The relevance of emigration is also acknowledged by the Government of Pakistan, which developed an advanced legal and institutional framework for emigration, and a dedicated Ministry: The Ministry of Overseas Pakistanis (Ministry of Overseas Pakistani, 2019).

In general terms, people from Pakistan migrating to North America and Europe tend to move overseas with their family and plan to stay long-term. Migrants who travel to neighbouring countries or to the Gulf States are on average low-skilled and semi-skilled seasonal migrants. Their migration is short-term and typically lasts for four or five years (UNESCAP, n.d.).

Over the past 10 to 15 years, there was a considerable increase in the number of Pakistani labour migrants, but this trend has changed since 2013. The number of Pakistani workers going abroad each year decreased from 622,714 in 2013 to 382,439 in 2018. In total, estimates indicate that some 9.8 million Pakistani workers have gone abroad since 1981 (BE&OE, Government of Pakistan, 2018). According to a study published in 2018, women only represent 0.21 per cent of the total flows, or 6,444 people (ILO, 2018). This could be explained by the 1979 Emigration Rules, whereby the minimum age for women to work abroad as a domestic worker is 35 years, and this constrains their possibility to migrate regularly (Government of Pakistan, 2015).

In 2016 most emigrants came from Punjab followed by Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP), Sindh and Baluchistan regions in Pakistan. It is maybe unsurprising that the largest share of the emigrants comes from Punjab, as it is the province with the largest population. In 2017, emigration flows reduced across the country except in the northern areas where there was a 15.4 per cent increase. In Punjab emigration declined by 41.3 per cent followed by Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (48.1%), Sindh (37.19%) and Baluchistan (29.1%). According to the Export of Manpower Analysis 2017 from the Pakistani Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment (BE&OE), in 2017, 53 per cent of the migrants originated from Punjab. Conversely, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province has the third highest population according to population statistics but produces the second highest number of Pakistani migrants. This indicates that people from Khyber Pakhtunkhwa are more attracted to foreign employment (Government of Pakistan, 2018).

According to an extensive study from the Ministry of Overseas Pakistanis, between 1981 and 2018, 52 per cent of all migrant workers from Pakistan originated from Punjab, 26 per cent from Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and 9.5 per cent from Sindh. In the same reporting period, 50 per cent of the migrant workers went to Saudi Arabia, 33 per cent to the UAE and 7.5 per cent to Oman. Most Pakistani migrant workers were skilled (42%) and involved in semi-skilled jobs such as welders, secretaries, masons, carpenters, plumbers and so on. Another proportion of the labour migration was composed of unskilled labourers (39%) such as agriculturists, labourers or farmers. Projections about future trends indicate that the number of Pakistani labour migrants will continue rising to reach 15.5 million in 2020 (Government of Pakistan, 2018.

Pakistan is making significant efforts in increasing student mobility. The number of Pakistani students abroad increased sharply in 2010 (36,366) as compared to 2006 (24,671), more than what was initially expected by the Government projections (IIE, 2011). In 2011, some 49,000 students from Pakistan were studying abroad, 65 per cent of whom were doing so in OECD countries (OECD, 2013). Between 2002 and 2012, the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC) sent 8,537 students abroad for higher studies (Kayani et al, 2015). A great majority of students migrate with their own finances or are financed by their families (IIE, 2011).

Despite numerous legal channels for regular migration, some Pakistani labour migrants use irregular channels to work abroad. Figures on deportations indicate that between 2012 and 2015, 242,817 Pakistani undocumented migrants were deported back to Pakistan (Government of Pakistan, 2015).

Flow monitoring data collected in Europe by IOM DTM operations between 2016 and 2018 provide a comprehensive picture of the most recent emigration trends of Pakistani migrants to Europe. In total 2,795 Pakistani nationals were surveyed, 98 per cent of the total were males, suggesting that migration to Europe is predominantly male, like migration to the Gulf States. Most respondents were young and single, half of whom were between the ages of 18 and 25. Educational backgrounds were diverse, with most had completed lower secondary (28%) and primary (24%) education, while secondary education (18%) was less common. Thirty-nine per cent of the total sample population were unemployed prior to departure, while 51 per cent were employed and only 10 per cent were students (10%). This might suggest that being unemployed is not necessarily a factor influencing the decision to migrate. Yet, participants reported that economic reasons were the main reason for migration (42%), followed by war and conflict (28%) and violence and persecution (14%). At the time of the interview, the most common intended destinations in Europe were Italy (54%) and Germany (14%). Participants reported socio-economic conditions (42%) and perceived access to asylum (31%) as the main determinants of their choice of destination country. Almost none of the Pakistani nationals interviewed were travelling with family and relatives, though 54 per cent were travelling in groups.

3   Forced migration and displacement

3.1   Refugees in Pakistan

Since 1980, Pakistan has been hosting one of the largest refugee populations in the world. With slightly more than 1.4 million registered refugees, Pakistan has the fifth highest refugee population worldwide (IOM Migration Data Portal, 2018). However, in addition, there is also an estimated 500,000 undocumented Afghan refugees living in Pakistan (CAR, 2019). If this population is considered, it would make Pakistan the third largest refugee host country globally. Almost all refugee and asylum seeker populations in Pakistan are from Afghanistan.

Registration of documented Afghan refugees is based on a Proof of Registration (PoR) card, which is a document that provides temporary legal stay and freedom of movement to registered Afghan refugees. Yet, the temporary nature of this card does not guarantee adequate protection to Afghan refugees in the country who are vulnerable to the negative impacts of changes in political and security environments. Afghan refugees, and especially undocumented migrants, are at risk of abuse, arrest and detention by authorities. Child protection is also an issue, as poverty, lack of education and insufficient access to basic services are common issue among Afghan children (International Rescue Committee, 2017).

Afghan forced migration to Pakistan started in 1979 after the Soviet occupation of Afghanistan. Within a decade, between 1979 and 1980, over 1.5 million Afghan nationals fled to Pakistan (Government of Pakistan and UNHCR, 2005). Tribal kin and pre-existing cross-border networks allowed many Pashtun tribes living in the south and east of Afghanistan to flee across the border into Pakistan (International Crisis Group, 2009). Most refugees of this first wave of migration lived in refugee camps and were welcomed by both the Government of Pakistan and the international community. A second spike in immigration occurred between 1991 and 2000 during the rise of the Taliban regime in Afghanistan. During this period, approximately 300,000 Afghan refugees fled to Pakistan (Government of Pakistan and UNHCR, 2005). Simultaneously, beginning in 1990, the Pakistani Government began its first repatriation program. The most recent large-scale migration to Pakistan from Afghanistan was in 2001, during the war between the Taliban and United States led coalition (Marchand et al, 2015).

In 2005, the Government of Pakistan carried out a census of the Afghan population in the country, which provides demographic and socioeconomic information about the Afghan nationals living in Pakistan. The largest proportion of Afghans lived in the North-West Frontier Province (62%), Baluchistan (25%) and Punjab (7%). Forty-two per cent of them resided in camps, whereas 57 per cent settled in urban and rural areas. The Afghan population was equally divided across sexes, and the average family was comprised of 5.6 people. Around 81 per cent of the Afghan nationals were ethnic Pashtuns, 7 per cent Tajik and 2 per cent Uzbek. One out of five people of the total Afghan population in Pakistan were under five years of age.

A recent socio-economic survey on Afghan nationals living in Pakistan carried out by the Danish Refugee Council (DRC) in 2013 suggests that two-thirds of the Afghan immigrants in Pakistan were employed (64%)., of whom some were shopkeepers (19%) or in the transportation sector (8%) (DRC, 2013). Findings from IOM's recent Return Intention Survey (RIS) 2018 reveal that of the Afghan immigrants who were employed, 38 per cent were day labourers (non-farming), 17 per cent were small business owners, 14 per cent were skilled-workers, 8 per cent were rickshaw/taxi drivers and 7 per cent were day labourers in the agriculture sector.

Since the beginning of the new century, the most visible trend has been returnee migration. In total, since 2002, over 4.3 million Afghan nationals have been repatriated from Pakistan, 2.7 million of whom were repatriated between 2002 and 2005 alone (UNHCR, 2019; Marchand et al, 2015). Data based on a returnee survey indicates that 60 per cent of those returning had spent over three decades in Pakistan and that 1 out of five was born in exile (IOM-UNHCR, 2017).

Between August 2017 and February 2018, the Government of Pakistan and IOM conducted an exercise to register Afghan migrants. Results indicate that 879,198 undocumented migrants applied in 21 different locations to receive an Afghan Citizen Card (ACC)[2] (IOM, 2018).

Table 4: Refugees and asylum seekers in Pakistan, mid-2017

Country of Origin	Refugees	Country of Origin	Asylum Seekers
Afghanistan	1,406,307	Afghanistan	2,790
Somalia	247	Turkey	363
Yemen	63	Somalia	27
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	48	Syrian Arab Republic	12
Other	129	Others	41
Total	1,406,794	Total	3,233

Source: UNHCR, 2017.

3.2   Refugees from Pakistan

As of mid-2017, there were 136,527 refugees from Pakistan worldwide. 87,082 of them were hosted in Afghanistan, 14,872 in Italy and 7,003 in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. In addition, there were 66,405 asylum applicants (Table 5). Most of them applied for refugee status in Germany (19,355), Italy (12,291) and Greece (6,080) (Ibid.).

The number of Pakistani refugees exceptionally rose from 49,000 in 2012 to 336,000 in 2013 (IOM Migration Data Portal, 2018). After remaining relatively stable in 2014, this number decreased to 136,527 as of mid-2017. A correlation can be observed between the 2013 peak in the number of refugees and the 7.7 magnitude earthquake, which hit the Baluchistan region in the same year. The earthquake destroyed numerous houses and directly impacted some 300,000 people (BBC, 2013). With the deterioration of the already scarce livelihood opportunities in the region, people migrated in search of better opportunities.

Table 5: Refugees and asylum seekers from Pakistan, mid-2017

Country of Destination	Refugees	Country of Destination	Asylum Seekers
Afghanistan	87,082	Germany	19,335
Italy	14,872	Italy	12,291
UK	7,003	Greece	6,089
Germany	5,773	USA	4,662
Canada	4,744	UK	2,897
Other	17,053	Other	21,131
Total	136,527	Total	66,405

Source: UNHCR, 2017.

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[2] Registration cards issued to undocumented Afghan individuals living in Pakistan by the Government of Pakistan during the 2017-18 documentation exercise. ACC holders are required to return to Afghanistan and can only return to Pakistan after receiving a Pakistani visa in an Afghan Passport.

3.3 Internal displacement in Pakistan

Over the past 20 years, natural disasters, especially floods, earthquakes and violent conflicts in the northern provinces of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and the Federally Administrated Tribal Areas (FATA) led to the internal displacement of millions of individuals in Pakistan (IOM, 2017; Waqqas, 2016). Since 2009, 5.2 million people were displaced due to conflicts; in 2010 floods affected 20 million individuals and the 2005 earthquake left 3.5 million people homeless (Sayeed, & Shah 2017).

Flood exposure is very high throughout the country, especially during the monsoon season, and earthquakes that affect the north of Pakistan. Poor quality buildings, ineffective early warning systems and a lack of awareness and education on disasters and response are all factors in the high damage caused by natural disasters in the country (Ginnetti, & Lavell, 2015).

Pakistan ranks eight among the most adversely affected countries on the 2019 Global Long-Term Climate Risk Index published by German Watch, and it is expected to be severely impacted by the negative effects of climate change in the future (Eckstein, Hutfils, & Winges, 2019). Pakistan has experienced a wide range of disasters over the past 40 years, including floods, earthquakes, droughts, cyclones and tsunamis. On average, approximately 3 million people are affected by natural catastrophes each year in Pakistan, which equates to approximately 1.6 percent of the total population. The National Disaster Management Authority (NDMA) estimates that climate-induced catastrophes between 1994 and 2013 resulted in an average economic loss of USD 3.99 billion per annum. From 2010 to 2014, floods resulted in monetary losses over USD 18 billion with 38.12 million people affected, 3.45 million houses damaged, and 10.63 million acres of crops destroyed (World Bank, 2015). More recent statistics shared by the Global Climate Risk Index 2018 indicate that Pakistan suffered 566 causalities in 2016, losing USD 47.313 million, equivalent to 0.0048 per cent of the GDP, due to extreme weather conditions (Eckstein, Kunzel, & Schafer).

From 16 to 22 July 2015, heavy monsoon rains, the rapid melting of snow and outbursts from glacial lakes in the northern mountainous areas of the country led to flash floods and the flooding of the Indus River in various locations across Pakistan. District Chitral in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa was the worst hit with an estimated 285,000 people affected. The floods caused damage to houses, displacement of families, loss of household assets and other structural damages. Irrigation channels, standing crops, agricultural lands and local power generation facilities were washed away. Parts of Gilgit-Baltistan, Punjab and Sindh were also severely affected. As per the National Disaster Management Authority (NDMA) report, 1,572,191 people were affected by the floods in more than 4,111 villages, with 238 reported deaths and 232 persons injured, across the country. The struggles of the affected population were compounded by a 7.5 magnitude earthquake that struck northern parts of the country and Kashmir (World Bank, 2015).

The most recent figures on internal displacement in Pakistan indicate that in 2017, the stock of internally displaced persons was 249,000. In the same year, displacement continued in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and the Federal Administrated Tribal Areas (FATA), causing the new displacement of 75,000 people. Yet, by 31December 2018, numerous individuals where able to return to their place of usual residence, and the stock of IDPs in Pakistan decreased to 119,000 (IDMC, 2019).

IDP families tend to live outside camps in different urban centers across the country. Due to their precarious situation they usually face several vulnerabilities. Lack of job opportunities, stigmatization, surveillance, limitation of freedom, and lack of education are common issues among IDPs. However, the effect of the challenges and issues depend on the district or province they have been displaced to (Sayeed, & Shah 2017).

4. Internal Migration

Internal migration flows in Pakistan are much larger than international migration flows. Estimates from the 2014-2015 Labour Force Survey (LFS) indicate that the internal migrant population is roughly four times larger than the emigrant population. This means that some 13 per cent of the Pakistani population is an internal migrant.

Internal migration in Pakistan is usually undertaken by low skilled workers who move from the rural mountain districts to urban areas (Hunzai, 2010). This phenomenon has been associated with a multitude of factors, including rural-urban wage differentials, economic opportunities and marriages, but it has also been linked to conflicts and natural disasters. Despite its magnitude and importance for the country, internal migration in Pakistan remains an understudied phenomenon. The lack of evidence-based decision making and the gaps in national policy hinder the developmental effects and positive economic potential of internal migration (Ghamz, Irman, & Ayesha, 2018; Sadia et al., 2017).

The most recent estimates of the 2014-2015 Labour Force Survey indicate that the main motive for migration is marriage, which accounts for 35 per cent of the total internal migration flows, followed by migration with parents (21%), and migration for employment (16.5%). Nine per cent of the surveyed population reported that the reason for migration is returning home, potentially indicating the role of seasonal circular migration. Other sources indicate that study purposes are also an important factor affecting the decision to internally migrate (Gazdar, 2006).

According to the LFS, a quarter of the total internal migration flows are rural to urban, and men are usually more likely to migrate as compared to women. Eighty-two per cent of the internal migrants are employed, most of whom are employees (49%) or self-employed workers (34%).

Since internal migrants are not adequately accounted for in national policies and statistics, cities are now facing several financial and human constraints. Challenges rise particularly in the delivery of services to the increased number of urban residents. Due to unplanned urbanization, migrant and non-migrant populations are at risk of not being able to access basic services (Sadia et al., 2017). Other problems faced by internal migrants are related to the lack of proper accommodation, loss of social network and difficulties in finding a job (Ghamz, Irman, & Ayesha, 2018).

5. Irregular migration

5.1 Migrant Smuggling

As referenced previously, due to its geographical position Pakistan is considered a source, transit and destination country for irregular migrants. In the context of migrant smuggling, Pakistan is principally considered a transit country. Estimates indicate that there are between 350,000 and 550,000 irregular migrants of Afghan origin living in Pakistan (CAR, 2019). Many of the new arrivals use Pakistan only as a transit country to reach their destination, and only a portion of the irregular migrants living in Pakistan used a migrant smuggler to enter the country (UNODC, 2013).

There are three main smuggling routes through Pakistan, leading to three destinations: Europe, Australia and the Gulf States.

The most common smuggling route in Pakistan is a well-documented land route to Europe. This is often referred to as the Eastern Mediterranean Route and is predominantly used by Pakistani, Afghan, and Bangladeshi nationals who rely on the same Pakistani smuggling networks while transiting into Pakistan. These smuggling rings are generally considered quite organized and developed. This route connects Afghanistan, Pakistan, Iran, Turkey and Greece. People cross land and sea borders with a combination of techniques by using fraudulent documents or genuine documents fraudulently obtained (European Commission, 2015). Usually smuggled migrants move from the Baluchistan region to Iran through land borders either at the Taftan border crossing or from the city of Mand Bullo in Pakistan to Pishin in Iran (IOM, 2016; UNODC, 2013). Main smuggling hubs for people heading towards Iran are Karachi, Peshawar and Quetta.

The land journey from Pakistan to Turkey usually costs around 2,500 USD while all-inclusive packages from Pakistan to Greece are about 4,000 USD (UNODC, 2018). This is somewhat in line with the flow monitoring data collected by IOM DTM between 2016 and 2018, which indicates that 40 per cent of the people surveyed travelling from Pakistan to Europe paid more than 5,000 USD to reach their current location within Europe. Some smugglers also provide an option for air travel to Europe, which costs between 12,000 and 18,000 USD (UNODC, 2018). Data on smuggling fees fluctuate constantly and the above statistics are susceptible to political and policy changes on smuggling routes. Pakistani migrant smugglers operating on the Eastern Mediterranean Route tend to evolve and change the routes they use, and are very sensitive to changes in border control tactics. For instance, it has been observed that improved land controls have led to an increase in the use of alternative routes via sea and air (UNODC, 2013).

Pakistani and Afghan migrants smuggled to Australia usually leave Pakistan via air with genuine passports and visas. They usually first travel to Malaysia or Thailand, and from there travel irregularly via land or sea to Indonesia. At this point, they then attempt the final leg of the journey to Australia by sea. Smugglers on this route are well-established and are seen by the community as necessary service providers to help them escape persecution in Pakistan (ibid.). Main smuggling hubs for migrants intending to go to Australia are the cities of Quetta, Karachi and Islamabad (UNODC, 2018). The total cost of this route is around 13,000 USD further divided into: 5,000 USD from Pakistan to Thailand or Malaysia, 3,000 from Thailand or Malaysia to Indonesia, and 5,000 USD from Malaysia to Australia (UNODC, 2013).

A large portion of South Asian migrants heading to the Gulf States travel through Pakistan via land and sea routes. From Pakistan, they usually travel to Iran and then reach Oman via sea. Air travel directly leading to the intended destination in the Gulf States and sea travel are also possible. Smuggling fees for this route, excluding the cost of travel documents, are approximately 1,000 USD (UNODC, 2018).

Migrant smugglers in Pakistan are also linked to document forgery. It has been observed that they offer both full-service genuine visas and fraudulent visas. Original visas can cost up to 16,000 USD while the cost for forged visas can be up to 3,000 USD. These prices include a total of three attempts, meaning that if the first journey fails, the smuggler will help the migrant two more times for no additional cost (UNODC, 2013).

Agents in Turkey, Greece, Italy and Germany were also in contact with the local agents in Quetta and those in Iran to Italy and Germany through land route of Iran, Turkey and Greece (ibid.).

Regardless of the route taken, smuggled migrants are considered particularly at risk of exploitation. Kidnapping and abuse have been often reported at the land border between Turkey and Greece. Migrants traveling to Australia must undertake the perilous sea travel from Indonesia to Australia in unsafe conditions. Migrants to the Gulf countries are at risk of harassment, bonded labour and human trafficking upon destination (UNODC, 2018; European Commission, 2015; UNODC, 2013).

5.2 Trafficking in Persons

Pakistan is ranked Tier 2 by the 2018 Trafficking in Persons Report published by the United States of America Department of State. This asserts that "the Government of Pakistan does not fully meet the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking; however, it is making significant efforts to do so" (UNDS, 2018). As compared to the previous years, the number of victims identified, investigations and prosecutions of sex trafficking cases increased. Also, convictions for bonded labour, which is the most common form of exploitation in the country, increased, especially in the Punjab area. Nevertheless, government efforts are too weak compared to the magnitude of human-trafficking in the country. The Penal Code does not criminalize all forms of child sex trafficking, and the penalties applied in the case of sex trafficking are not sufficiently stringent when compared with those prescribed for other serious crimes. Lack of services for VoTs has also been reported to be a problematic field (UNDS, 2018).

Pakistan is a source, transit and destination country for victims of human trafficking (VoTs) of all ages and sexes. Bonded labour is the largest human trafficking issue in Pakistan. Pakistani workers assume an initial debt as part of the terms of employment, but this debt is then exploited by the employer, who could, in this way entrap other family members, even for generations. This form of exploitation happens mostly in agriculture and brick-making jobs. Pakistani women and girls are considered particularly vulnerable to forced marriages and sex trafficking. Pakistani children are considered at risk of human trafficking too, and reports indicate that they are bought, sold, rented and kidnapped for various forms of exploitation, ranging from domestic servitude, begging rings and sex trafficking (ibid).

Pakistani emigrants are at risk of exploitation both in Europe and in the Gulf States. Migrants are often lured with false job offers and find themselves exploited in domestic servitude, construction work and other forms of exploitation. High fees charged by illegal agents prompt various forms of bounded labour abroad (ibid). Frontex data indicates that Pakistani nationals are among the most common male victims trafficked to Europe, especially in Spain. All the male victims tracked by Frontex are trafficked to Europe for forced labour (UNODC, 2013). VoTs to the Gulf States are predominantly women and girls, and main exploitation

hubs are Dubai, Abu Dhabi and other destinations in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Pakistani NGOs indicate that many of the victims exploited in the UAE, Bahrain and Oman come from Lahore city (ibid).

In 2017, provincial Pakistani authorities identified 14,571 VoTs, of whom 12,133 were women, 2,133 were men and 107 were children. It is found that traffickers are not necessarily strangers and can be relatives or close male neighbours and friends of the victims. Women and girls are not only coerced into trafficking with the use of force, but also with a mix of social customs, religion and gender norms (Hussein, & Hussein, 2012).

Main hubs for the internal trafficking of women and girls are Lahore and Sargodha (UNODC, 2013). The latter functions as a bridge between Lahore and Islamabad, while the first, Lahore, is where most trafficking rings operate. Trafficking networks operating to the Gulf States are considered professionally organized and well-structured criminal organizations (Ibid.). They use sophisticated recruitment methods, corruption and fraudulent documents to ease their operations (UNODC, 2015).

Information on the trafficking of Afghan refugees is scarce. However, due to their precarious socio-economic condition, Afghan immigrants are likely at risk of human trafficking, and this constitutes an area of further research.

6. Relevant National Policies and Stakeholders

Pakistan does not have a coherent migration policy document encompassing all types of migration and linking migration and development. However, it has several policy frameworks in place and structured migration governance to manage migration.

At the national level, the primary role in terms of migration policy, particularly related to immigration, is that of the Ministry of Interior. National registration, naturalization, immigration, regulation of entry and exit of foreigners and anti-smuggling measures are all duties covered by the Ministry of Interior. Responsibilities are further shared with various authorities under the Ministry of Interior (Cibea et al, 2013). The Migration Management Cell (MMC) is a unit dedicated to fight human trafficking, its mandate includes developing linkages between the various Ministries, organizations and stakeholders to fight human trafficking collectively. The National Aliens Registration Authority (NARA) has the mandate to register undocumented foreigners. The National Data Registration Authority (NADRA) is responsible for issuing national identity cards and special identity cards to Pakistani citizens abroad (Gazdar, 2003).

Emigration of Pakistani citizens falls under the mandate of the Ministry of Labour, Manpower and Overseas Pakistanis, which is comprised of three organizations that work on migration-related issues. The Overseas Pakistanis Foundation (OPF) creates and manages government schemes and concessions for overseas Pakistani nationals. In addition, they maintain their presence in Pakistani embassies and consular offices abroad. The Bureau of Emigration, & Overseas Employment (BOE), is responsible for protecting and regulating Pakistani migrant workers. Lastly, the Overseas Employment Corporation (OEC) is responsible for government-to-government recruitment programs (Gazdar, 2003).

There are other authorities in the field of migration with specific duties. The National Disaster Management Authority (NDMA) has the lead for disaster activities and internal displacement actions. The Ministry of States and Frontier Regions (SAFRON) works to replace and extend the Proof of Registration (PoR) cards for Afghan refugees. The Pakistani Chief Commissionerate for Afghan Refugees (CCAR) works under the direction of the President of Pakistan and alongside SAFRON to procure store and deliver relief assistance to Afghan migrants, collect statistics and coordinate work between federal and provincial governments (Cibea et al, 2013). The Federal Investigation Agency (FIA) is an autonomous body that undertakes investigations on anti-terrorism, migrant smuggling and human trafficking.

At the regional level, Pakistan has been one of the Colombo Process countries since 2003 and of the Bali Process on People Smuggling, Trafficking in Persons and Related Transnational Crimes since 2002. In addition, it has participated in two regional talks on international migration: the Asia-EU Dialogue on Labour Migration (2008) and the Abu Dhabi Dialogue (2008). Pakistan also has bilateral agreements on migration matters with the United Arab Emirates, Qatar, the Republic of Korea (2008), Jordan, Malaysia, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the European Union.

However, Pakistan has not signed the 1949 ILO Migration for Employment Convention or the 1975 Migrant Workers Convention. Similarly, it has not signed the 1951 Convention on the Status of Refugees or the 1967 Protocol. Pakistan also did not sign the Palermo protocol on migrant smuggling, human trafficking and other transitional crimes (Table 6). Signing these international agreements would be beneficial in terms of policy. On the other hand, Pakistan has signed a tripartite agreement with Afghanistan and UNHCR for the Voluntary Repatriation of Afghan Citizens, as well as 36 ILO conventions (Cibea et al, 2013).

At the national level, the main laws and policy regulating migration in to and from Pakistan are included in *Table 7*. Overall, Pakistan has a structured migration policy framework, particularly in terms of emigration. However, it is missing a comprehensive policy document encompassing all forms of migration and linking migration and development.

Table 6: Pakistan key international conventions

Policy	Ratification
1949 ILO Migration for Employment Convention [a]	No
1951 Refugee Convention [b]	No
1967 Refugee Protocol [b]	No
1975 ILO Migrant Workers Convention [a]	No
1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child [c]	Yes, 1990
1990 UN Migrant Workers Convention [c]	No
2000 Palermo Protocol [c]	No

Source: a. Normlex, 2018; b. UNHCR, 2015; c. UN.

Table 7: Pakistan key migration policies

Policy name	Policy content
Naturalization Act, 1926	This act sets out the rules and regulations regarding naturalization procedures. Eligibility criteria, definitions and application process are all explained in this act. (Naturalization Act, 1926)
Pakistan Citizenship Act, 1951; Pakistan Citizenship Rules, 1952.	This document sets up the rules for gaining and losing Pakistani citizenship. Citizenship can be gained by country of birth, descent or migration. Children of Pakistani nationals who are born outside Pakistan can obtain the citizenship. Persons who migrated to Pakistan from Indo-Pakistan territories before 1951 are declared citizens of Pakistan. (Government of Pakistan, 2019)
The Registration of Foreigners Act, 1939	This act set down the registration requirements for foreigners, entering, departing or moving within Pakistan. For instance, which kind of identity documents foreigners are required to carry and possible exceptions. (Natalex, 2019)
The Foreigners Act, 1946	Gives special authorities to the Federal Government to change the conditions for foreigners entering or residing in Pakistan. (Natalex, 2019)
Registration of Foreigners Rules, 1966	This decree underlines the procedures to follow to comply with registration requirements of foreigners. (Natalex, 2019)
Passport Rules, 1974	This document defines rules and regulations for obtaining a Pakistani passport. (Natalex, 2019)
The Emigration Rules, 1979	This decree regulates emigration from Pakistan in all its forms. Recruitment regulations and procedures, licenses to work abroad, minimum wage levels and minimum age are all included in this document. (Natalex, 2019)

Source: a Natlex, 2018; b Iran Constitution, 1979; c Iran Civil Code, 1928; d Regulations on the Entry and Residence of Foreign Nationals, 1973.

Data Gaps

The main data gaps identified in this report are related to three areas: irregular migration from Bangladesh, refugees from Pakistan and internal displacement.

Irregular migration of Afghan migrants is well documented. However, information on undocumented Bangladeshi migrants is much scarcer, even if estimates indicate their presence in Pakistan in high numbers.

Information on refugees from Pakistan is almost completely absent. Although this situation is quite common for countries with large refugee influxes and relatively small refugee outflows, it might be relevant to assess the needs and vulnerabilities of this population.

Information on internal displacement is overall quite structured and available. However, some important information is missing, particularly on the locations of the currently displaced persons and their sex, age, and socio-economic statuses.

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