

## GEOGRAPHY OF PAKISTAN

Pakistan geologically overlaps both with the Indian and the Eurasian landplates. The provinces of Sind and Punjab are found in the northwestern corner of the Indian tectonic plate; Balochistan and most of the North West Frontier Province exist on the Eurasian Plate tectonic plate; the Iranian plateau is part of both the Middle East and Central Asia. The Northern Areas and Azad Kashmir also lie mainly in Central Asia along the edge of the Indian plate and as a result are prone to severe earthquakes where Eurasian and the Indian plates collide.

Pakistan's western borders include the Khyber Pass and Bolan Pass, traditional invasion routes between Central Asia and the South Asia

### PAKISTANI NATIONAL BORDERS:

The Islamic Republic of Pakistan occupies a position of great geo-strategic importance, bordered by Iranian held Baluch nation on the west, named by them as Sistan Va Baluchistan province by the Persians, states of Afghanistan on the northwest, China (PRC) on the northeast, the artificial so-called Union of India on the east, and the Arabian Sea on the south .

The total land area is estimated at 803,940 square kilometers or 310,403 square miles of National Territory (including P.A.K/Pakistani Kashmir: Azad Jammu and Kashmir Divisions and the F.A.N.A). Apart from the 1,064 kilometers or 650 miles of the Pakistani coastline, on the Arabian Sea the Islamic Republic of Pakistan's interior land or external international boundaries totaling to 6,774 kilometers of boundaries with its neighbours on all four sides. The boundary with the Islamic Republic of Iran, is 909 kilometers in length or 565 miles long, was first delimited by a British commission in 1893, separating Iran from what was then the Balochistan region of British India. In 1957 Pakistan signed a frontier agreement with Iran, in Rawalpindi and since then the international border between the two countries has not been a subject of serious dispute between Islamabad and Tehran.

Geographic coordinates: 30°00'N, 70°00'E Pakistan's International boundary with Afghanistan is about 2,640 kilometers long or 1,640 in

length. In the north, it runs along the ridges of the Hindu Kush (meaning Hindu Killer) mountains and the Pamirs, where a narrow strip of Afghan-Occupied Gorno-Badakhshan territory called the Wakhan Corridor extends between Pakistan and Tajikistan. The Hindu Kush was traditionally regarded as the last northwestern outpost where migrants Pakistani Hindus could venture out in safety. The boundary line with Afghan Kingdom was drawn in 1893 by Sir Mortimer Durand, then foreign secretary in British India, and was acceded to by the Amir of Afghanistan in that same year. This boundary, called the Durand Line, was not in doubt when Pakistan became independent in 1947, although its legitimacy was in later years disputed periodically by the Afghan nationalistic government and is baseless as well as by Pakhtun tribes straddling the Pakistan-Afghanistan border in Afghanistan province. On the one hand, Afghanistan claimed that the Durand Line had been imposed by a stronger power upon a weaker one, and it favored the establishment of still another separatist state to be called Pashtunistan or Pakhtunistan (see Independent Pakistan, Ch. 1; Foreign Policy, Ch. 4). On the other hand, Pakistan, as the legatee of the British in the region, insisted on the legality and permanence of the external boundary. The Durand Line remained in effect in 1994.

In the northeastern tip of the country, Pakistan politically and militarily controls about 84,159 square kilometers of the former princely state of Jammu and Kashmir, that is extremely and naturally Islamic in nature. This area, consisting of Azad Jammu and Kashmir, a strip of Territory physically, historically, and geographically part of Pakistan, but not amalgamated constitutionally because of its anomalous sensitive status that it is an highly contested region territorially disputed area between Islamabad and New Delhi along with India-Occupied Jammu and Kashmir as a whole only to be divided by a cease-fire which both AK & IOK does not constitutionally form a part of Pakistani or Indian annexed regions of Jammu, Kashmir, and Ladakh Divisions (11,639 square kilometers) and most of the Federally Administered Northern Areas (F.A.N.A) (72,520 square kilometers), which includes Gilgit and Baltistan district, is the most visually stunning of the Islamic Republic in 'Northern Pakistan', also popularly known as the Eighth Wonder of the World. The Northern Areas has five of the world's seventeen highest peaks along with highest range of mountains the Karakoram and Himalaya. It also has such extensive glaciers that it has sometimes been called the "Third Pole." The international

border-line has been a matter of pivotal dispute between Pakistan and independent India ever since 1947, and the Siachen Glacier in northern Kashmir has been an important arena for fighting between the two sides since 1984, although far more soldiers have died of exposure to the cold than from any skirmishes in the conflict between their National Armies facing each other.

From the eastern end of the Afghanistan-Pakistan border, a boundary of about 523 kilometers or 325 miles runs generally southeast between PRC (China) and Pakistan (IRP), ending near the Karakoram Pass. This line was determined from 1961 to 1965 in a series of agreements between China and Pakistan and finally upon 3rd March 1963 both governments' Islamabad and Beijing formally agreed. By mutual agreement, a new boundary treaty is to be further negotiated between China and Pakistan in the future when the dispute over Kashmir is finally resolved between India and Pakistan. The Pakistan-India cease-fire line runs from the Karakoram Pass west-southwest to a point about 130 kilometers northeast of Lahore. This line, about 770 kilometers long, was arranged with United Nations (UNO) assistance at the end of the Indo-Pakistani War of 1947-48. The cease-fire line came into effect on January 1, 1949, after eighteen months of fighting between Indian occupying forces and Kashmiri civilians and their Freedom-Fighters and was last adjusted and agreed upon by the two countries according to the Simla Accord Agreement of July 2, 1972 between Bharat's Mother of the Nation Indira Gandhi and Quaid-e-Awam of the Bhutto dynasty. Since then, it has been generally known as the Line of Control or the (LoC). The Pakistan-India boundary continues irregularly southward for about 1,280 kilometers, following the line of the 1947 Radcliffe Award, named for Sir Cyril Radcliffe, the head of the British boundary commission on the partition of the Punjabs of Pakistan and Indian-annexed Khalistan in Pre-Pakistani territories and in united Bengal of Bharat (India) into Pakistan's Eastern wing of Mashriq-e-Bengal on 13th August 1947. Although this boundary with India referring only to present-day Pakistan and not aimed at formerly East Pakistan borders except only all three governments claiming the status of the district of Ferozpur and Pathankot between Pakistan, Khalistan, and Bharat. It remains another unresolved issue although it is not formally disputed; passions still run very high indeed on both sides of the international border. Many 'Hindu' Indians had expected the original boundary line to run farther to the west, thereby ceding the Lahore region to Hindu India, possibly granting them all of Gujranwala Division: Sialkot, Narowal, Gujrat, districts

and Sheikhpura, Okara, Kasur districts of Lahore Division; Pakistanis had expected the line to run much farther east, possibly granting them control of Delhi, the imperial capital of the Mughal Empire including a east Azad Punjab state for Sikhs of their own to govern.

The southern borders are far less contentious than those in Northern Pakistan (Kashmir). The Thar Desert in the province of Sindh is separated in the south from the salt flats of the Rann of Kachchh (Kutch) by a boundary that was first delineated in 1923-24. After partition and dissolution of Empire, Independent and free Pakistan contested the southern boundary of Sindh, and a succession of border incidents resulted. They were less dangerous and less widespread, however, than the conflict that erupted in Kashmir in the Indo-Pakistani War of August 1965 started with this decisive core of issues. These southern hostilities were ended by British mediation during Harold Wilson's era, and both sides accepted the award of the Indo-Pakistan Western Boundary Case Tribunal designated by the UN secretary general himself. The tribunal made its award on February 19, 1968; delimiting a line of 403 kilometers that was later demarcated by joint survey teams. Of its original claim of some 9,100 square kilometers, Pakistan was awarded only about 780 square kilometers. Beyond the western terminus of the tribunal's award, the final stretch of Pakistan's border with India is about 80 kilometers long, running west and southwest to an inlet of the Arabian Sea.

Area:

total: 803,940 km<sup>2</sup>

land: 778,720 km<sup>2</sup>

water: 25,220 km<sup>2</sup>

Area - comparative: slightly less than twice the size of California

Land boundaries:

total: 6,961 km

border countries: Afghanistan 2,640 km, China 500 km, India 2,912 km, Iran 909 km

Coastline: 1,046 km

Maritime claims:

contiguous zone: 24 nautical miles (44 km)

continental shelf: 200 nautical miles (370 km) or to the edge of the continental margin

exclusive economic zone: 200 nautical miles (370 km)

territorial sea: 12 nautical miles (22 km)

## GEOGRAPHICAL REGIONS

Pakistan is divided into three major geographic areas:

the northern highlands;

the Indus River plain, with two major subdivisions corresponding roughly to the provinces of Punjab and Sindh; and the Balochistan Plateau.

Some geographers designate additional major regions.

For example, the mountain ranges along the western border with

Afghanistan are sometimes described separately from the Balochistan

Plateau, and on the eastern border with India, south of the Sutlej River, the

Thar Desert may be considered separately from the Indus Plain.

Nevertheless, the country may conveniently be visualized in general terms as divided in three by an imaginary line drawn eastward from the Khyber Pass and another drawn southwest from Islamabad down the middle of the country. Roughly, then, the northern highlands are north of the imaginary east-west line; the Balochistan Plateau is to the west of the imaginary southwest line; and the Indus Plain lies to the east of that line.

The northern highlands include parts of the Hindu Kush, the Karakoram Range, and the Himalayas. This area includes such famous peaks as K2 (Mount Godwin Austen, at 8,611 meters the second highest peak in the world), and Nanga Parbat (8,126 meters), the twelfth highest. More than one-half of the summits are over 4,500 meters, and more than fifty peaks reach above 6,500 meters. Travel through the area is difficult and dangerous, although the government is attempting to develop certain areas into tourist and trekking sites. Because of their rugged topography and the rigors of the climate, the northern highlands and the Himalayas to the east have been formidable barriers to movement into Pakistan throughout history.

South of the northern highlands and west of the Indus River plain are the Safed Koh Range along the Afghanistan border and the Sulaiman Range and Kirthar Range, which define the western extent of the province of

Sindh and reach almost to the southern coast. The lower reaches are far more arid than those in the north, and they branch into ranges that run generally to the southwest across the province Balochistan. North-south valleys in Balochistan and Sindh have restricted the migration of peoples along the Makran Coast on the Arabian Sea east toward the plains.

Several large passes cut the ranges along the border with Afghanistan. Among them are the Khojak Pass, about eighty kilometers northwest of Quetta in Balochistan; the Khyber Pass, forty kilometers west of Peshawar and leading to Kabul; and the Baroghil Pass in the far north, providing access to the Wakhan Corridor.

Less than a one-fifth of Pakistan's land area has the potential for intensive agricultural use. Nearly all of the arable land is actively cultivated, but outputs are low by world standards. Cultivation is sparse in the northern mountains, the southern deserts, and the western plateaus, but the Indus River basin in Punjab and northern Sindh has fertile soil that enables Pakistan to feed its population under usual climatic conditions.

The name Indus comes from the Sanskrit word *sindhu*, meaning ocean, from which also come the words Sindh, Hindu, and India. The Indus, one of the great rivers of the world, rises in southwestern Tibet only about 160 kilometers west of the source of the Sutlej River, which joins the Indus in Punjab, and the Brahmaputra, which runs eastward before turning southwest and flowing through Bangladesh. The catchment area of the Indus is estimated at almost 1 million square kilometers, and all of Pakistan's major rivers--the Kabul, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, and Sutlej--flow into it. The Indus River basin is a large, fertile alluvial plain formed by silt from the Indus. This area has been inhabited by agricultural civilizations for at least 5,000 years.

The upper Indus Basin includes Punjab; the lower Indus Basin begins at the Panjnad River (the confluence of the eastern tributaries of the Indus) and extends south to the coast. In Punjab (meaning the "land of five waters") are the Indus, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, and Sutlej rivers. The Sutlej, however, is mostly on the Indian side of the border. In the southern part of the province of Punjab, the British attempted to harness the irrigation power of the water

over 100 years ago when they established what came to be known as the Canal Colonies. The irrigation project, which facilitated the emergence of intensive cultivation despite arid conditions, resulted in important social and political transformations.

Pakistan has two great river dams: the Tarbela Dam on the Indus, near the early Buddhist site at Taxila, and the Mangla Dam on the Jhelum, where Punjab borders Azad Kashmir. The Warsak Dam on the Kabul River near Peshawar is smaller. These dams, along with a series of headworks and barrages built by the British and expanded since independence, are of vital importance to the national economy and played an important role in calming the raging floodwaters of 1992, which devastated large areas in the northern highlands and the Punjab plains.

Pakistan is subject to frequent seismic disturbances because the tectonic plate under the Indian plate hits the plate under Eurasia as it continues to move northward and to push the Himalayas ever higher. The region surrounding Quetta is highly prone to earthquakes. A severe quake in 1931 was followed by one of more destructive force in 1935. The small city of Quetta was almost completely destroyed, and the adjacent military cantonment was heavily damaged. At least 20,000 people were killed. Tremors continue in the vicinity of Quetta; the most recent major quake occurred in January 1991. Far fewer people were killed in the 1991 quake than died in 1935, although entire villages in the North-West Frontier Province were destroyed. A major earthquake centered in the North-West Frontier Province's Kohistan District in 1965 also caused heavy damage.

Elevation extremes:

lowest point: Indian Ocean 0 m

highest point: K2 (Mt. Godwin-Austen) 8,611 m

## CLIMATE

Pakistan lies in the temperate zone. The climate is generally arid, characterized by hot summers and cool or cold winters, and wide variations

between extremes of temperature at given locations. There is little rainfall. These generalizations should not, however, obscure the distinct differences existing among particular locations. For example, the coastal area along the Arabian Sea is usually warm, whereas the frozen snow-covered ridges of the Karakoram Range and of other mountains of the far north are so cold year round that they are only accessible by world-class climbers for a few weeks in May and June of each year.

Pakistan has four seasons: a cool, dry winter from December through February; a hot, dry spring from March through May; the summer rainy season, or southwest monsoon period, from June through September; and the retreating monsoon period of October and November. The onset and duration of these seasons vary somewhat according to location.

The climate in the capital city of Islamabad varies from an average daily low of 2° C in January to an average daily high of 40° C in June. Half of the annual rainfall occurs in July and August, averaging about 255 millimeters in each of those two months. The remainder of the year has significantly less rain, amounting to about fifty millimeters per month. Hailstorms are common in the spring.

Pakistan's largest city, Karachi, which is also the country's industrial center, is more humid than Islamabad but gets less rain. Only July and August average more than twenty-five millimeters of rain in the Karachi area; the remaining months are exceedingly dry. The temperature is also more uniform in Karachi than in Islamabad, ranging from an average daily low of 13° C during winter evenings to an average daily high of 34° C on summer days. Although the summer temperatures do not get as high as those in Punjab, the high humidity causes the residents a great deal of discomfort.

Most areas in Punjab experience fairly cool winters, often accompanied by rain. Woolen shawls are worn by women and men for warmth because few homes are heated. By mid-February the temperature begins to rise; springtime weather continues until mid-April, when the summer heat sets in. The onset of the southwest monsoon is anticipated to reach Punjab by May, but since the early

1970s the weather pattern has been irregular. The spring monsoon has either skipped over the area or has caused it to rain so hard that floods have resulted. June and July are oppressively hot. Although official estimates rarely place the temperature above 46° C, newspaper sources claim that it reaches 51° C and regularly carry reports about people who have succumbed to the heat. Heat records were broken in Multan in June 1993, when the mercury was reported to have risen to 54° C. In August the oppressive heat is punctuated by the rainy season, referred to as barsat, which brings relief in its wake. The hardest part of the summer is then over, but cooler weather does not come until late October.

## Pollution and environmental issues

Little attention was paid to pollution and environmental issues in Pakistan until the early 1990s. Related concerns, such as sanitation and potable water, received earlier scrutiny. In 1987 only about 6 percent of rural residents and 51 percent of urban residents had access to sanitary facilities; in 1990 a total of 97.6 million Pakistanis, or approximately 80 percent of the population, had no access to flush toilets. Greater success has been achieved in bringing potable water within reach of the people; nearly half the population enjoyed such access by 1990. However, researchers at the Pakistan Medical Research Council, recognizing that a large proportion of diseases in Pakistan are caused by the consumption of polluted water, have been questioning the "safe" classification in use in the 1990s. Even the 38 percent of the population that receives its water through pipelines runs the risk of consuming seriously contaminated water, although the problem varies by area. In Punjab, for example, as much as 90 percent of drinking water comes from groundwater, as compared with only 9 percent in Sindh.

The central government's Perspective Plan (1988-2003) and previous five-year plans do not mention sustainable development strategies. Further, there have been no overarching policies focused on sustainable development and conservation. The state has focused on achieving self sufficiency in food production, meeting energy demands, and containing the high rate of population growth, not on curtailing pollution or other environmental hazards.

In 1992 Pakistan's National Conservation Strategy Report attempted to redress the previous inattention to the nation's mounting environmental problem. Drawing on the expertise of more than 3,000 people from a wide array of political affiliations, the government produced a document outlining the current state of environmental health, its sustainable goals, and viable program options for the future.

Of special concern to environmentalists is the diminishing forest cover in watershed regions of the northern highlands, which has only recently come under close scrutiny. Forest areas have been thoughtlessly denuded. Deforestation, which occurred at an annual rate of 0.4 percent in 1989-90, has contributed directly to the severity of the flooding problem faced by the nation in the early 1990s.

As industry has expanded, factories have emitted more and more toxic effluents into the air and water. The number of textile and food processing mills in rural Punjab has grown greatly since the mid-1970s, resulting in pollution of its rivers and irrigation canals. Groundwater quality throughout the country has also suffered from rapidly increasing use of pesticides and fertilizers aimed at promoting more intensive cropping and facilitating self-sufficiency in food production.

The National Conservation Strategy Report has documented how solid and liquid excreta are the major source of water pollution in the country and the cause of widespread waterborne diseases. Because only just over half of urban residents have access to sanitation, the remaining urban excreta are deposited on roadsides, into waterways, or incorporated into solid waste. Additionally, only three major sewage treatment plants exist in the country; two of them operate intermittently. Much of the untreated sewage goes into irrigation systems, where the wastewater is reused, and into streams and rivers, which become sewage carriers at low-flow periods. Consequently, the vegetables grown from such wastewater have serious bacteriological contamination. Gastroenteritis, widely considered in medical circles to be the leading cause of death in Pakistan, is transmitted through waterborne pollutants.

Low-lying land is generally used for solid waste disposal, without the benefit

of sanitary landfill methods. The National Conservation Strategy has raised concerns about industrial toxic wastes also being dumped in municipal disposal areas without any record of their location, quantity, or toxic composition. Another important issue is the contamination of shallow groundwater near urban industries that discharge wastes directly into the ground.

Water in Karachi is so contaminated that almost all residents boil it before consuming it. Because sewerage and water lines have been laid side by side in most parts of the city, leakage is the main cause of contamination. High levels of lead also have been found in water in Islamabad and Rawalpindi.

Air pollution has also become a major problem in most cities. There are no controls on vehicular emissions, which account for 90 percent of pollutants. The National Conservation Strategy Report claims that the average Pakistani vehicle emits twenty-five times as much carbon monoxide, twenty times as many hydrocarbons, and more than three and one-half times as much nitrous oxide in grams per kilometer as the average vehicle in the United States.

Another major source of pollution, not mentioned in the National Conservation Strategy Report, is noise. The hyperurbanization experienced by Pakistan since the 1960s has resulted in loose controls for heavy equipment operation in densely populated areas, as well as in crowded streets filled with buses, trucks, automobiles, and motorcycles, which often honk at each other and at the horse-drawn tongas (used for transporting people) and the horse-drawn rehras (used for transporting goods).

Natural hazards:

frequent earthquakes, occasionally severe especially in north and west;  
flooding along the Indus after heavy rains (July and August)

Environment - current issues:

water pollution from raw sewage, industrial wastes, and agricultural runoff;  
limited natural fresh water resources; a majority of the population does not have access to potable water; deforestation; soil erosion; desertification

Climate Change and Greenhouse Effect

New data from millennium-long tree-ring analyses are indicating that mountains in northern Pakistan have grown significantly wetter over the past century than they have been over the last millennium — quite possibly due to human-induced global warming. In Karakorum and Himalaya mountains in northern Pakistan, the upper reaches of the Indus Valley (which supplies the world's largest irrigation network), a group of researchers collected samples of Juniper tree rings that dated back as far as 828 CE.

## National conservation goals

The National Conservation Strategy Report has three explicit objectives:

conservation of natural resources, promotion of sustainable development, and improvement of efficiency in the use and management of resources. It sees itself as a "call for action" addressed to central and provincial governments, businesses, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), local communities, and individuals. The primary agricultural nonpoint source pollutants are nutrients (particularly nitrogen and phosphorus), sediment, animal wastes, pesticides, and salts. Agricultural nonpoint sources enter surface water through direct surface runoff or through seepage to ground water that discharges to a surface water outlet. Various farming activities result in the erosion of soil particles. The sediment produced by erosion can damage fish habitat and wetlands and, in addition, often transports excess agricultural chemicals resulting in contaminated runoff. This runoff in turn affects changes to aquatic habitat such as temperature increases and decreased oxygen. The most common sources of excess nutrients in surface water from nonpoint sources are chemical fertilizers and manure from animal facilities. Such nutrients cause eutrophication in surface water. Pesticides used for pest control in agricultural operations can also contaminate surface as well as ground-water resources. Return flows, runoff, and leachate from irrigated lands may transport sediment, nutrients, salts, and other materials. Finally, improper grazing practices in riparian, as well as upland areas, can also cause water quality degradation. The development of Pakistan is viewed as a multigenerational enterprise. In seeking to transform attitudes and practices, the National Conservation Strategy recognizes that two key changes in values are needed: the restoration of the conservation ethic derived from Islamic moral values,

called qanaat, and the revival of

community spirit and responsibility, haquq-ul-abad.

The National Conservation Strategy Report recommends fourteen program areas for priority implementation: maintaining soils in croplands, increasing efficiency of irrigation, protecting watersheds, supporting forestry and plantations, restoring rangelands and improving livestock, protecting water bodies and sustaining fisheries, conserving biodiversity, increasing energy efficiency, developing and deploying renewable resources, preventing or decreasing pollution, managing urban wastes, supporting institutions to manage common resources, integrating population and environmental programs, and preserving the cultural heritage. It identifies sixty-eight specific programs in these areas, each with a long-term goal and expected outputs and physical investments required within ten years. Special attention has been paid to the potential roles of environmental NGOs, women's organizations, and international NGOs in working with the government in its conservation efforts. Recommendations from the National Conservation Strategy Report are incorporated in the Eighth Five-Year Plan (1993-98).

## Natural resources

Pakistan's principal natural resources are arable land, water, and extensive natural gas and Oil reserves. About 28% of Pakistan's total land area is under cultivation and is watered by one of the largest irrigation systems in the world. The most important crops are cotton, wheat, rice, sugarcane, maize, sorghum, millets, pulses, oil seeds, barley, fish, fruits and vegetables, which together account for more than 75% of the value of total crop output. Pakistan also exports wood, cement, tiles, marbles, cotton textiles, leather goods, sports goods, surgical instruments, electrical appliances, carpets, rugs and hides & skins. The Salt Range in Punjab Province has large deposits of pure salt. Pakistan has extensive energy resources, including fairly sizable natural gas reserves, oil reserves, coal, gypsum, limestone, chromites, iron ore, rock salt, silver, gold, precious stones, gems, marbles, tiles, copper, sulphur, Fire clay, silica sand and large hydropower potential. However, the exploitation of energy resources has been slow due to a shortage of capital and domestic and international political constraints.

Land use:

arable land: 27%

permanent crops: 1%

permanent pastures: 6%

forests and woodland: 5%

other: 61% (1993 est.)

Irrigated land: 171,100 km<sup>2</sup> (1993 est.)

## MOUNTAIN PEAKS OF PAKISTAN

Pakistan is home to 108 peaks above 7,000 m. [1] and probably as many peaks above 6,000 m. There is no count of the peaks above 5,000 and 4,000 m. Five of the 14 highest independent peaks in the world (the eight-thousanders) are in Pakistan (four of which lie in the surroundings of Concordia; the confluence of Baltoro Glacier and Godwin Austen Glacier). Most of the highest peaks in Pakistan lie in Karakoram range (which lies almost entirely in the Northern Areas of Pakistan, and is considered to be a part of the greater Himalayan range) but some peaks above 7,000 m are included in the Himalayan and Hindu Kush ranges.

For the purposes of this and similar topographic pages, the border between India and Pakistan is considered to be the current line of control. Ranges that lie in the Northern Areas are claimed by India, which disputes Pakistan's claim to the region. Ranges on the Indian side of the line of control are not listed here, despite being claimed by Pakistan.

Pakistan is home to more than sixty peaks above 7,000m (22,960 feet). Five of the fourteen eight-thousanders (peaks above 8,000m) are in Pakistan, four of which are in Karakoram near Concordia.

Most of the high peaks in Pakistan are in Karakoram range, the highest of which is K2 (8,611m), the second highest peak on earth. The highest peak of Himalayan range in Pakistan is Nanga Parbat (8,126m), which is the ninth highest peak of the world.

## MOUNTAIN RANGES OF PAKISTAN

Following are the mountain ranges that are fully or partially included in Pakistan:

Karakoram range, highest peak is K2 (8,611m or 28,244 feet).

Himalaya range, highest peak in Pakistan is Nanga Parbat (8,126m or 26,653 feet).

Hindu Kush range, highest peak is Tirich Mir (7,690 metres or 25,230 feet).

Sulaiman Mountains range, highest peak is Takht-e-Sulaiman (3,487 m or 11,437 feet).

Safed Koh range, highest peak is Mount Sikaram (4,761 m or 15,620 feet)

Pamir Mountains, junction of the Tian Shan, Karakoram, Kunlun, and Hindu Kush ranges.

Salt Range, a hill system in the Punjab Province, abundant in salt

Toba Kakar Range, southern offshoot of the Himalayas in the Balochistan