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Retrospective Study of the Chief Executive of Pakistan: 1947-2008

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ABSTRACT

The parliamentary system of governance that Pakistan inherited creates two separate offices of the head of state and head of the government. Both offices have different roles and responsibilities. The head of the government belongs to the executive branch, led by the Prime Minister and federal ministers. This branch has an independent authority defined in the Constitution. However, in practice, the complexities of governance often diverge from its theoretical framework. The political history of Pakistan from 1947-2008 witnessed that not a single prime minister served the entire five-year constitutional term in office. They were dismissed either by the President or by the military. Accepting and respecting the distinct roles of the “head of state and the head of government” remained a persistent issue in Pakistan. Political instability, weak institutions, and the ambiguous role of office holders have hindered sustainable economic growth. The stability of a state depends on the strength of its institutions. Strong and independent institutions foster peace, justice, and sustainable governance. This paper deals with the Chief Executive of Pakistan from 1947 to 2008. It is a Retrospective study that examines the theoretical and practical dimensions of the chief executive. It narrates the frequent appointments and removals of the chief executive from their offices. It is divided into four phases from 1947-1958, 1958-1973, 1973-1999, and 1999 to 2008. The paper also discusses issues and challenges associated with this office and suggests recommendations to navigate the complexity.

Key Words: **Strong Institution, Chief Executive, Military Coup, Constitution, National Interest,**

Introduction

Stable institutions are essential for national development, economic stability, and prosperity within a nation. Since its founding, Pakistan has experienced brief phases of growth and economic progress, often impeded by fragile governance and political instability. Pakistani politicians were educated under the British model of the federal parliamentary system, which was introduced during the British Raj period in India through an Act passed by the British Parliament, known as the “Government of India Act 1935.” This framework established independent institutions, maintained a balance of power, and aimed to prevent the desecration of authority. However, within five years of independence, Pakistan became entangled in political turmoil that proved increasingly challenging to resolve.

There were dual offices—namely, the Governor-General or the President and the Prime Minister—yet the role of the chief executive remained ambiguous. Contrary to the principles of parliamentary democracy, the Governor-General or President retained more authority than the Prime Minister, resulting in a power struggle between these offices. The constitutional tenure of the Prime Minister was fixed at five years; nonetheless, between 1947 and 1958—spanning eleven years—seven Prime Ministers were appointed and subsequently removed. The first Constituent Assembly of Pakistan was dissolved by the Governor-General in 1954 without promulgating a constitution. The second Constituent Assembly enacted a constitution in 1956; however, the President did not conduct general elections to facilitate the transfer of power to elected representatives. The political decisions made during these formative years have had lasting impacts. None of these periods saw the successful completion of a full constitutional term. Extended intervals occurred during which the chief executive of Pakistan was not an elected Prime Minister, but the President or the Army Chief.

The only mechanism for removing the chief executive was through a motion of no confidence passed by a majority of parliamentarians. This established Parliament as the supreme authority above all other laws; however, in Pakistan, parliamentary sovereignty remained weak and susceptible to influence.

An Overview of The Chief Executives of Pakistan: 1947-1958

The creation of Pakistan represented a notable anomaly within the geographical configuration, geopolitical framework, and geostrategic environment. The newly established state inherited the British federal system along with a parliamentary governance structure. The parliamentary framework established two distinct offices: one for the “head of state” and another for the “head of government.” Initially, Pakistan implemented the “Government of India Act of 1935” as its interim constitution. This Act designated a distinctive function to the Governor-General, who served as the “representative of the British Crown” in India, thus possessing ultimate political authority. However, the Independence Act of 1947 reduced these discretionary powers null and void through an amendment specified under “Section 8(c) of the Act of 1947 (Indian Independence Act, 1947).” Muhammad Ali Jinnah was the first Governor-General of Pakistan with substantial powers and acted as the Chief Executive (CE) of the federation. He established the foundational principles of state governance. He possessed the authority to overrule cabinet decisions, a privilege unique to him as the Quaid and not merely because of his designation as Governor-General.

When Jinnah died after only thirteen months of independence, Khawaja Nazimuddin succeeded him. He was a senior politician from East Pakistan and the President of the Muslim League with a loose grip on party politics (Akbar, 1997). He had no parallel to Jinnah. He did not take the responsibility of the chief executive authority and shifted this power to the PM, Liaquat Ali Khan, who consolidated the nation (Ali, 1973). A balanced Parliamentary government became

functional but could not continue for more than three years because of the assassination of Liaquat Ali Khan on October 16, 1951. In total defiance of parliamentary procedures, Khawaja Nazimuddin was convinced to resign and took over as prime minister, and the cabinet was made to promote Ghulam Mohammad, the then finance minister, to the position of governor general (Zakaria, 2001). Several disagreements and skirmishes between the prime minister and the governors general during the ensuing years gradually revealed the relative strength of the former post in comparison to the latter (Ahmed, 2017, August 25).

Pakistan's national politics during 1952 and 1953 was essentially a struggle between the PM and the Governor-General that culminated in the Governor-General's illegal coup d'état on April 17, 1953, by dismissing the PM, who was trusted by his Cabinet (Tudor, 2013). Later, on October 24, 1954, the governor general dissolved the CA and dismissed the PM, Muhammad Ali Bogra, in yet another unlawful move. With the help of the military, Malik Ghulam marginalised all elected institutions by the end of 1954. By selecting compliant judges, the governor general was able to effectively dismiss further judicial challenges to the constitutionality of his actions (Tudor, 2013). Ghulam Mohammad undermined the three fundamental pillars of the state: the executive, the legislature, and the judiciary. He inflicted considerable damage to the foundations of the state in the early years, which subsequently appeared to be an irremediable loss in the following years. His health issues prevented him from remaining in office; in August 1955, he experienced paralysis and heart problems, which rendered him unable to continue his duties. The then Interior Minister, Iskander Mirza, assumed the position of Acting Governor General, and the following month, he was appointed Governor General of Pakistan. (Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Law, 1955).

Pakistan became a federal republic on March 23, 1956. Its dominion status was ended, and the post of Governor-General was replaced by the President. Pakistan's first president was Iskandar Mirza. While the Constitution adopted the parliamentary form of governance that extended nominal powers to the president, however, the role of a powerful head of state was not easy to abandon. The de jure chief executive was the Prime Minister, but the de facto was the President.

During the President (Maj-Gen retired) Iskander Mirza's reign, 1956-1958, four Prime Ministers were either forced to resign or removed from their offices. The Constitution that was delayed for nine years remained enforced for only two and a half years. General Elections were avoided, and when political pressure heightened for conducting general elections, Iskander Mirza revoked the Constitution on October 7, 1958, declared martial law, and designated General Ayub Khan as the "Chief Martial Law Administrator (CMLA)." Ayub Khan and Iskandar Mirza both administered the state affairs for the next twenty days, then Iskandar Mirza was forced into exile to Britain on October 27, 1958, and Ayub Khan became the chief executive of Pakistan.

Table 1: Names of the Chief Executives, their designation, tenure, and the Prime Ministers from

1947-1958

S.No	Chief Executive	designation	Tenure	S.No	PM
1	Muhammad Ali Jinnah	Governor General	14.08.1947 to 11.09. 1948	1	Mr. Liaqat Ali Khan
2	Mr. Liaqat Ali Khan	Prime Minister	14.08.1947 To 16.10.1951		Mr. Liaqat Ali Khan
3	Malik Ghulam Mohammad	Governor General	16.10.1951 to 7.08.1955	2	Khawaja Nazimuddin 16.10.1951 to 17.04.1953
				3	Mr. Mohammad Ali Bogra 17.04.1953 To 11.08.1955
4	Iskandar Mirza	Governor General	7.08.1955 to 23.03.56	4	Ch. Mohammed Ali 11.08.1955 to 12.09.1956
	Iskandar Mirza	President	23.03.56 to 27.10.58	5	Hussein Shaheed Suhrawardy 12.09.1956 to 18.10.1957
				6	I.I. Chundrigar 18.10.1957 to 16.12.1957
				7	Malik Firoz Khan Noon 16.12.1957 to 7.10.1958

Source: The National Assembly of Pakistan. <https://www.na.gov.pk/en/index.php>

A Shift from Parliamentary to Presidential form of Government, 1958-1969

Apparently, the West promoted democratic rule and observance of human rights in the post-WWII global order, but Ayub Khan was most suitable for the US in the Cold War period. He had already made Pakistan a most aligned ally of the US. However, Ayub Khan's military background was a hindrance to establishing relations with the West. To earn legitimacy and a civilian look, Ayub Khan held a presidential referendum on February 14, 1960, that made him the elected and legitimate President of Pakistan for the following five years. The responsibility to give a constitution to Pakistan lay in his office. In the absence of general elections and assemblies, he formed a Commission on February 17, 1960, headed by the former Chief Justice of Pakistan, Muhammad Shahabuddin, with ten senior justices as members, five from East and five from West Pakistan. The commission submitted its draft on May 6, 1961. In light of recommendations made by the Commission, Ayub Khan's cabinet approved the second Constitution of Pakistan that was promulgated on "June 8, 1962" (Bari, 2018). In the new Constitution, he changed the form of governance from a parliamentary to a presidential system. Being the chief executive of Pakistan, three sources of institutional power converged in Ayub Khan. He was the president, the supreme commander of Pakistan's armed forces, and the chief martial law administrator.

Gen Ayub Khan had to resign on March 25, 1969 (Chronology of the prime minister. 2004, June 27). He decided to transfer his powers to Maj. Gen. Agha Muhammad Yahya Khan, contrary to his own constitution's Article 16, stipulating that in such a case the Speaker of the National Assembly would take his place as an acting president. The speaker, Abdul Jabbar Khan, who belonged to East Pakistan, was not acceptable as the replacement of Ayub Khan (Dhaka Tribune, 2018). Yahya Khan enforced the second martial law and appointed himself the Chief Martial Law Administrator (CMLA). He announced the first general elections to be held on December 7, 1970. After the elections, he did not summon the session of the assembly. He was reluctant to transfer power to the elected people as per the electoral results. It led to a political crisis that ended with the separation of East Pakistan. In a last effort to pacify the people of East Pakistan, on December 7, 1971 General Yahya appointed Nurul Amin, from East Pakistan, as the Prime Minister. He remained in office till the resignation of Yahya Khan on December 20, 1971. Yahya handed over power to Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto (ZAB), who became the first civilian Chief Martial Law Administrator (CMLA), and the President of Pakistan at the time of national crisis. Two days later, ZAB appointed Nurul Amin as the first Vice President (Browne, 1971, December 22). The third constituent assembly, based on the 1970 elections, subsequently established an interim constitution on April 21, 1972. It offered a presidential system of governance, and Bhutto was elected as the president of Pakistan (Jalal, 2014).

Table: 2 1958-1973

	Chief Executive	Designation	Tenure
5	General Muhammad Ayub Khan (1958-1969)	Chief Martial Law Administrator (CMLA)	07.10.1958 to 08.06.1962
		Second president of Pakistan	27.10. 1958 to 25.03.1969
		Field Marshal	1960 to 1969
6	General Mohammed Yahya Khan	CMLA- President	25.03.1969 to 20.12.1971
7	Mr. Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto	CMLA- President	20.12.1971 to 13.08.1973

There were seven chief executives and nine Prime Ministers (PMs) appointed and removed from their offices in Pakistan from 1947 to 1973, a period of twenty-six years. It is noteworthy that from October 1958 to August 1973, a period of fifteen years, there was no post of Prime Minister.

The Constitution of Pakistan 1973: Role of the Chief Executive

The third Constitution of Pakistan was promulgated on August 14, 1973. It delineates the roles and responsibilities of the chief executive, which reside with the Prime Minister, who is identified in the constitution as the Chief Executive of the Federation. He presides over the executive branch of the government. The PM operates directly or through the federal ministers appointed from among the members of Parliament.

Article 1 of Pakistan's Constitution establishes that Pakistan will function as a federal republic, while Part III pertains to the Federation of Pakistan. This part is sub-divided into three chapters containing a total of sixty articles, ranging from Article 41 to Article 100. The third chapter is titled "The Federal Government," which designates the Prime Minister (PM) as the chief executive of the state, thereby rendering his office the most influential. Following the election of the Speaker and Deputy Speaker of the National Assembly (NA), the PM is selected from the party that secures victory in the elections.

Articles 90, 92, and 96 specify the role of the chief executive. Article 90 says, "The executive authority of the federation shall be exercised in the name of the President by the Federal government consisting of the Prime Minister and the Federal Ministers, which shall act through the Prime Minister, who shall be the

chief executive of the Federation.” Following Article 91, Clause 2, the President possesses the authority to appoint a member of the NA as the Prime Minister (PM), who, in the President’s judgment, is the individual most likely to command the confidence of the majority of the NA members.

Article 92 says that

“The Prime Minister shall appoint Federal Ministers and Ministers of State from amongst the members of Parliament.” The members of the Cabinet shall be accountable to the National Assembly (NA).

Article 96 (1) delineates the process for a “vote of no confidence against the PM.” The PM is to be elected by the NA and be removed by the NA through a vote of no confidence, which can be enacted by a simple majority of the NA members. Since the PM is not a member of the Senate, the Senate has no involvement in the election and no-confidence motion regarding the PM. The actual executive authority resides with the PM, who is identified in the constitution as the Chief Executive of the Federation.

The Enigma of the Chief Executive of Pakistan: 1973-1999

Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto became the Prime Minister or chief executive of Pakistan on August 14, 1973, and Chaudhary Fazal Elahi, the President with ceremonial powers. It was expected that political stability would be restored after a long period of chaos. But the culture of political intolerance, non-acceptance of the rights of opposition, was continued. In two western provinces of Pakistan, there was political unrest. In the absence of a second strong political party, the nine small opposition parties formed an alliance known as the “Pakistan National Alliance (PNA).” The assembly was elected for five years, but differences began between the ruling and opposition parties. Subsequently, as per Article 58 (1), on the advice of the PM, the president dissolved the NA on January 10, 1977, and early elections were announced in March. The election results were in favour of the Pakistan People’s Party, whereas the PNA did not accept the electoral results. There was a chaotic political situation in Pakistan that again paved the way for military intervention. On July 5, 1977, General Zia declared the third martial law in Pakistan, arrested the chief executive and the civilian leadership. The General could not abrogate the Constitution owing to the Constitutional deterrence given in Article 6 that makes its abrogator guilty of high treason (Ahmad, & Zafar, 1974). He put it in abeyance and ruled the state through the “Provisional Constitutional Order (PCO).” He became the Chief Martial Law Administrator (CMLA) with all executive powers. He was obliged to hold general elections within ninety days, but he adopted delaying tactics for the following two years. He did not depose the President, who continued his office till the completion of five years on September

16, 1978. On the same day, General Zia took the oath as the president of Pakistan without stepping down from the post of Chief of Army Staff (Aziz, 2014, November 30).

In December 1979, the Soviet occupation of Afghanistan changed the course of regional and global politics. In the following six years, General Zia remained the CE of Pakistan and the most important ally of the US against the Soviet Union. Due to the internal political pressure by the Movement for the Restoration of Democracy (MRD) to lift martial law and restore democracy, and on Western advice, he had to hold general elections, but on a non-party basis, under martial law on February 25, 1985. On March 2, before the first meeting of the parliament, the constitution was comprehensively amended through a President's order known as the “Revival of the Constitution Order (RCO) No. 14 of 1985 (Gazette of Pakistan, 1985, March 2).” Article 270-A was inserted by (RCO), which validated all Zia's ordinances and orders issued since he had taken power on July 5, 1977, provided that their validity couldn't be challenged by any court (Khan, 1986). The first session of the NA was held on March 20, 1985. General Zia nominated Muhammad Khan Junejo as the Prime Minister of Pakistan (Lodhi, 2024). The General did not lift martial law until the Eighth Amendment Act was not passed by the assembly and received Presidential assent on November 9, 1985 (The Gazette of Pakistan, Islamabad, 1985, November 11). The Eighth Amendment also endorsed all Orders made by Gen. Zia-ul-Haq, including Article 270A, with a slightly modified version, that did not affect the validity of Zia's orders and ordinances.

“The revival of the Constitution Order 1985 (P.O.No. 14 of 1985)” substituted a provision that conflicts with the Parliamentary system envisaged by the Constitution. This substitution made the president the chief executive of the federation. Article 58, Clause (2)b gave the President discretionary powers to dissolve the NA. It declined the parliamentary supremacy, making the NA vulnerable as the president could dissolve the house of elected members at any time.

Article 58, (2)b undermined the parliamentary system, as it was invoked on four occasions by the subsequent president to dissolve the National Assembly. However, on April 1, 1997, Parliament enacted the 13th Amendment Act, which repealed Article 58, (2)b (Jaffrelot, 2015). This amendment rescinded the “discretionary powers of the president to dissolve the National Assembly” and established the Prime Minister as the chief executive. Nevertheless, tensions escalated between the PM and the COAS, culminating in a military coup. On October 12, 1999, the Prime Minister was arrested, and the Chief of Army Staff assumed the role of chief executive of Pakistan.

Table 3 details the names of the CEs, their titles, and their tenures from 1973 to 1999. It includes a list of officials who held ceremonial powers. It further includes Article 58 (1) and 58 (2) (b), which dissolved the National Assemblies.

Table 3: 1973- 1999

	Chief Executive	Designation & Tenure	Ceremonial Powers	Dissolution of NAs
7	ZAB	PM 14.8.1973 to 5.7.1977	Chaudhary Fazal Elahi (President from 14.8.1973 to 16.9.1978)	58 (1) 10.1.1977
8	General Zia ul Haq	COAS-President 5.7.1977 to 17.8.1988	None	
	General Zia		M. Khan Junejo 23.3.1985 to 29.5.1988	58 2 (b)
9	Ghulam-Ishaq Khan	President from 17.08.1988 to 8.7.1993	Benazir Bhutto 2.12.1988 to 6.8.1990	58 2 (b)
			Ghulam Mustafa Khan Jatoi 6.8.1990 to 6.11.1990	Caretaker
			Nawaz Sharif 6.11.1990 to 18.4.1993	58 2 (b)
			Mir Balakh Sher Mazari 18.4.1993 to 26.5.1993	Caretaker
			Nawaz Sharif 26.5.1993 to 8.7.1993	
10	Wasim Sajjad	(Acting President) 18.7.1993 to 14.11.1993	Moin Qureshi (PM) 8.7.1993 to 19.10.1993	Caretaker
11	Farooq Leghari	President 14.11.1993 to 2.12.1997	Benazir Bhutto 19.10.1993 to 5.11.1996	58 2 (b)
			Malik Meraj Khalid 6.11.1996 to 17.2.1997	Caretaker
12	Nawaz Sharif	PM 1.4.1997 to 12.10.1999	Wasim Sajjad (30days), M. Rafiq Tarar 1.1.1998 to 20.6.2001	Military coup

Source: The author developed the above Table by collecting data from the “National Assembly website, Government of Pakistan.”

Between 1973 and 1999, a span of twenty-six years, Pakistan had ten prime ministers. Among them, four served as caretakers and six were elected. From 1977 to 1985, Pakistan was under martial law for an eight-year period.

Coup D'etat and The Chief Executive: 1999-2008

Following the military coup, General Pervez Musharraf took political power on October 12, 1999, and assumed the role of the Chief Executive. He dissolved both houses of the Parliament and disbanded all provincial legislatures but did not remove President Rafiq Tarar. Later, the President was dismissed, and Musharraf assumed the presidency on June 20, 2001. As per his predecessors, he called a referendum for legitimacy on April 30, 2002, and secured the presidency for five years (Lansford & Muller (ed.), 2012). Then Musharraf announced general elections on October 10, 2002. Subsequently, on November 23, 2002, Mir Zafarullah Khan Jamali was elected as the Prime Minister ([Jamali, cabinet take oath: PPP, PML-N abstain from ceremony](#), 2002, November 24). To remain most powerful, the COAS and President moved the Seventeenth Amendment Act to the Parliament, that passed on December 30, 2003. The Act revived article 58 (2) b, and allowed Musharraf to hold both posts, the Chief of Army Staff and the presidency (Schottli & Mitra & Wolf, 2006). Although the constitution of 1973 was restored in phases, General Musharraf remained a de facto Chief Executive of Pakistan from 1999 to 2008.

On October 6, 2007, amid boycotts and protests, Musharraf won the presidency using an electoral college that was set to dissolve constitutionally in the same month after completing five years (Asghar, 2007, October 7). Mohammed Mian Soomro assumed the role of caretaker Prime Minister on November 16, 2007, to supervise the general elections held on February 18, 2008. The thirteenth NA members took oath on March 17. The Pakistan People’s Party, with its coalition partners, formed a government in the centre. President Musharraf administered the oath to Syed Yousaf Raza Gillani on March 25, 2008 (“Pakistan’s newly elected PM takes oath,” 2008, March 25). The coalition government resolved to introduce the impeachment motion during a joint session of Parliament, which the President had to summon as per Article 56 (3) of the Constitution. Owing to the fear of impeachment, Musharraf resigned on August 18, 2008, as part of a deal to avoid prosecution ([Shah](#), 2008, August 18).

From October 12, 1999, to August 18, 2008, a span of nine years, there was a great power imbalance. Having five civilian PMs in total, among them two were caretaker. Table 4 contains its details.

Table 4: 1999 – 2008

S.No	Chief Executive	Tenure	PM	Tenure
13	Gen. Pervez Musharraf (COAS)	12.10.1999 to 19.6.2001		
	Gen. Pervez Musharraf COAS-President	20.6.2001 to 15.11.2007	Mir Zafarullah Khan Jamali	23.11.2002 to 26.6.2004
			Chaudhary Shujaat Hussain (Caretaker)	30.6.2004 to 26.8.2004
			Shaukat Aziz	28.8.2004 to 15.11.2007
	Gen. Pervez Musharraf President	16-11-2007 to 18-8-2008	Muhammad Mian Soomro (Caretaker)	16.11.2007 to 24.3.2008
			Syed Yousaf Raza Gillani	25.3.008 to 19.6.2012

Source: The author developed the above Table by collecting data from the “National Assembly website, Government of Pakistan”.

In the period of sixty-one years, there were thirteen Chief Executives of Pakistan. They were not the Prime Minister but the governors general, army chiefs, Presidents, and the PM too. The instability of this institution left deep scars on Pakistan’s society, economy, and politics.

Issues and Challenges

The fundamental issue pertains to the unresolved question of who holds the position of chief executive of Pakistan. The Constitution of 1973 delineates the roles and responsibilities associated with this office; however, the Constitution, in its original form, was in effect for only four years. The Constitution does not permit its suspension or martial law. Nonetheless, both actions were executed

during General Zia's eleven-year tenure. He disbanded the legislative body, arrested the chief executive, and the judiciary conferred legitimacy to his actions under the doctrine of necessity. When General Zia was compelled to restore the Constitution in 1985, he instituted the most substantial number of amendments, totalling 67, to the clauses and sections of the original Constitution of 1973. As a result of those amendments, no chief executive completed the constitutionally mandated five-year term. The modifications introduced in Article 58, Article 62, and Article 63 were pivotal in facilitating the dismissal of chief executives in Pakistan. The insertion of "2(b) in Article 58" gave discretion to the President to dissolve the National Assembly, depends on his perception that the Federal government cannot be carried on in accordance with the Constitution (Khan (ed.), 1986). Gen Zia expanded the qualifications for assembly members by amending Article 62 (1) from the initial three to seven. The amendment undermines the legislature; he further increased the parameters for disqualifications for assembly members in Article 63 from the original four to 16 in the constitution. It strengthened the role of judiciary but weakened the state's legislative and executive pillars (Sindh CM says legislative, executive weakened deliberately, 2023, February 26). The amended articles impose religious, moral, and ethical obligations upon members of parliament that may be invoked against them. Subsequent governments have been unable to exclude these provisions from the constitution due to their sensitive nature. The question of who the true chief executive of Pakistan is—whether it is the COAS, the President, or the Prime Minister—remains unresolved. Furthermore, another persisting enigma pertains to the concept of supremacy within Pakistan: does the Constitution occupy this position, and is there an authentic parliamentary democracy?

Recommendations to Navigate the Complexities of the Chief Executive

To navigate the complexities of the chief executive role in Pakistan, the recommendations are listed below:

From secondary education, students ought to be instructed on the concept of the state, the importance of a constitution, and the robustness of institutions. The aforementioned concepts ought to be imparted in detail during higher secondary education. Furthermore, at the undergraduate level, it is essential to conduct comparative studies on the various political phases of Pakistan, focusing on the misuse of the powers of the chief executive and its consequent impact on the political, economic, and social progress of Pakistan.

The importance of prioritizing the national interest over individual interests must be instilled in students. While states remain constant over time, individual personalities do.

Chapters about other Pakistani institutions that contain constitutional references must be incorporated in addition to the role and responsibilities of the country's three principal institutions, the judiciary, legislature, and chief executive, along with the military, the election commission, and the bureaucracy.

The state must invest in alleviating poverty and illiteracy in Pakistan. Poverty-stricken and illiterate people cannot think about institutional strength.

By spreading awareness through the education system of Pakistan, the state can produce people having strong knowledge about strong institutions of Pakistan.

The above-mentioned can assist in navigating the complexities of Pakistan's weak chief executive.

Conclusion

From the outset to 2008, the power struggle posed a significant obstacle to the establishment of effective institutions in Pakistan. As they do not perform their responsibilities independently and remain susceptible to the interference of external entities. The role of the chief executive remained an enigma within Pakistan's political framework. The institutional history of Pakistan is evident that all three basic institutions of the state remained weak, the legislature, the executive, and the judiciary. During 1947-2008 no chief executive completed his constitutional tenure. Until the state is governed in accordance with the Constitution, which fortifies the institutions, there can be no peace, progress and prosperity. Pakistan's geostrategic location has rendered it a pivotal country in containing communism during the "Cold War" era and in the campaign "against terrorism." The dynamics of regional and global politics, the interests of Western powers in Pakistan, do not align with strong institutions. A politically and economically stable Pakistan with an independent internal and foreign policy would harm Western interests. Consequently, the parliamentary system has been tested repeatedly, military rule was backed by the West and when there was an internal struggle to restore parliamentary democracy and West was criticised for supporting military rule in Pakistan, then the form of government was distorted by making amendments in the constitution. To prevent absolute power from corrupting the system, the fundamental principles are democratic institutions, a balance of power, accountability of the chief executive to the parliament, a free press, and open criticism. People become history, and it decides their respect based on their deeds. It disrespects the people who sacrificed national interest to protect personal one.

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