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The Colonial Imprint on Pakistan's Bureaucracy: A Legacy of Power and Control

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Abstract

The bureaucracy functions as backbone of a nation, ensuring an effective administration while keeping itself aloof from politics. The formation of policy is beyond its purview while maintaining law and order according to these polices comes under the jurisdiction of the bureaucracy. Colonialism ruled the India more than century on the basis of established Bureaucracy. The couple of years had added their crux to make it a more viable and affective administrative system. This colonial bureaucracy wielded extensive power and enjoyed considerable prestige across India. At the time of Independence, Pakistan inherited this bureaucratic legacy. This study has explored the role of colonial bureaucracy in British India and its enduring influence on Pakistan’s administrative structure.

Keywords:, Colonialism, Legacy, Bureaucracy, Administration, Governance

Introduction

The term civil service refers to a group of people who work for the government as a life vocation, sharing in the exercise of the sovereign power of the state by performing the different executive duties other than military duties. British rule in India left behind the Indian Civil Service, which was started by Warren Hastings and later modified by Sardar Vallabhai Patel. It is the structural

backbone of any political system. As colonialism had left many deep imprints on newly born states, especially in the context of Bureaucracy, which has deep roots into administrative and political system of Pakistan. Colonialism not only arrived alone but it also brought many other things along with. Indian bureaucracy is one of the examples which is functioning till now. British controlled all the administrative affairs through Indian bureaucracy. Modern administration relies heavily on bureaucracy. Both advocates for and opponents of bureaucracy acknowledge this. What is the main purpose of bureaucracy in a developing nation? The response may change based on a society's culture, level of socioeconomic development, and political structure. In most political systems, bureaucracy has traditionally been expected to preserve policy continuity, political order and stability, uphold the rule of law, foster economic growth, and maintain cultural coherence.

The advocates of bureaucracy have vehemently defended these conventional duties. The work of social scientist Max Weber, who lived in the 19th century, is significantly responsible for the foundation of the established and current conventional literature on bureaucracy. According to Weber the ideal bureaucrat should adhere to standards of rationalism, specialism, political impartiality, merit-based hiring, and long-term career ladders. The Weberian framework's idea of political neutrality calls for the bureaucracy to be disinterested in the political party in power and to make sure that their activities are based on impartiality and neutrality with regard to all political parties. The bureaucrat should be seen as a public servant who only acts in the best interests of the general public and should not submit to pressure from political parties or the political process. The Weberian conception of the perfect official is one who is logical. The idea of political neutrality is founded on historical precedent and theories from Western European states that has experienced the division of church, state, and society in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The skill and effectiveness of the bureaucracy in developing nations have been assessed using this idea of political neutrality. If public service is performed without any

favor being given to the political establishment and without intervention from any political party, the bureaucrat is considered a successful official in Weberian terms.¹

The Bureaucratic System in Undivided India

The British Empire's ability to govern effectively in India was largely due to the ICS, also called as the Imperial Civil Service. Phrase of Civil Service was just coined and had only been in practice for around a century. Prior to then, British India's civil administration was divided into Covenanted, or superior services, and Un-covenanted services. Englishmen brought a new paradigm to India, which helped to change the country's power culture. One of the best administrative apparatuses in recorded history was the efficient and effective bureaucracy that the British constructed. The organizational structure of Indian Civil Service was gradually developed. East India Company management was initially a mercantile service. The Company's public servants were later required to combine their commercial and administrative responsibilities when it also became a territorial sovereign.

The most effective civil service in the world at the time was born out of a private mercantile business that quietly evolved into a full-fledged public administrative service.² British rule in India underwent a substantial shift in the mid of nineteenth century. The British Crown, specifically the new India Office and the Secretary of State for India, seized sovereign power over British India after the Mutiny in 1857. Open examination and merit were established as the fundamental criteria for appointing British civil workers to the ICS. Similar and contemporaneous improvements to the hiring of government servants took place in Britain, most notably in the shape of the recommendations made in the 1854 Northcote-Trevelyan Report. Many people believe that the ICS serves as both a model and a testing ground for the merit reforms that India had adopted in a well-planned and forceful way. The colonizers endured the constant anxiety of the hierarchy being reestablished only on the basis of the size of the masses in addition to feeling superior. Thus, the dominant group made an effort to preserve its advantageous situation by using its military and administrative apparatus.

Additionally, the colonizers had to rely on stereotyped behaviors, pseudo-justifications and discriminatory actions, which led them to develop social structures that would support these attitudes and actions.

The administrative structure was created to further the intellectual and spiritual goals of the colonial situation in addition to the practical goals of maintaining law and order and generating revenue. Since the colonial educational system was typically created to support the administrative system.³ The Imperial Civil Service (ICS), which the British controlled until independence and never had more than 1,200 members, served as the "steel frame" that allowed them to rule India for almost a century. In 1859, John Bright testified before Parliament that they were "more grossly overpaid than anyone except bishops." The British gave the ICS a rank and prestige unlike anything England had ever known in contrast to the egalitarianism, fairness, and justice beliefs in which they were raised and trained. Nehru claimed that British education in India had caused the educated elite to suffer from physical injury, be rendered nearly unable to perform useful labour, and suffer permanent mental disabilities.⁴

The Structure of the Service:

Open entry based on academic competition, permanent tenure regardless of party-political change, a division into grades or classes according to whether the function was responsible or merely routine, a regular, graduated scale of pay, and a promotion system based on a combination of seniority and selection by merit were the main characteristics that set apart the modern British Civil Service. None of these characteristics could be seen in the Civil Service of the United Kingdom in the eighteenth century, not even in embryo. In fact, the primary driving force behind reform was a resolve that England's political life should not be dominated by the influence brought about by the abundance of Indian patronage. The Pitt's India Act of 1784 established clear pay and emolument scales, established the principle of promotion by seniority, and set the age of admission to the service of writers or military cadets at fifteen to eighteen years. This act also extended the authority of the governor general of Bengal over the other two

presidencies thereby promoting uniformity. The primary civil offices of India below the rank of member of council were reserved for members of the covenanted civil service, according to the 1793 renewal of the company's charter. When powers were shifted to crown in 1858 some irregular appointments were made. Schedule for the reserved post was also described in the act. British expansionism policy started in eighteen century this policy excluded some of the areas like Bengal, Madras. A generation later British rule arrived in Punjab people of that land were equally drawn in civil service.

The Process of Indianization and Civil Statute of India

Lord William Bentick told to Jeremy Bentham that as governor general he wanted to introduce the process of radicalization, through that he wanted to give some opportunities to western educated class. Principal Sadr Amin, a higher category of Indian civil judge, was established in 1831, and Indians were allowed to hold the position of deputy collector. At initially, promotions were used to fill these positions, but within a short period of time, appointments began to be made based mostly on the results of candidates in English-language public tests.

The leaders of the new Westernized classes were not happy with the situation, despite the fact that the urban Hindu middle class was quick to benefit from such reforms. In the Bengal Presidency, a new position of deputy magistrate was established in 1843, having parity (allegedly) with the junior covenanted citizens, largely in response to Dwarka Nath Tagore's requests. Dwarka Nath's nephew Chandra Mohan Chatterjee, who had travelled with him to England, received the first appointment. However, the salary was just Rupees 400 per month and would soon be 350, and there was no real parity of respect. Chandra Mohan left his position three years later. When the covenanted service was made open to competition, the reformers made it their top priority to support Indian candidates. The majority of the pioneer candidates came from fringe communities out of fear of losing their caste when they crossed the Black Water, particularly people from the Brahmo Semaj, the reformist neo-Hindu church started by Ram Mohan Ray and revived by Maharshi Defendant Tagore and Keshab Chandra Sen. Satyendranath Tagore, the first

elected Indian, took office in 1864 and was the Maharshi's second son. Four Brahmo candidates participated in the 1869 event and all were successful: Surendranath Banerjea, Romesh Chandra Dutt, Bihari Lal Gupta, and S. B. Thakur.

The re-organization of Oxford and Cambridge brought a noticeable increase in the number of young Englishmen pursuing honors degrees occurred around the same time that the ICS was made open to competition. The number of applicants for the ICS increased quickly (the Home Civil Service did not initially draw intellectuals from the middle class). For twelve positions, there were 60 contenders in 1857.

Formation of the British Civil Administration

The most significant problem relating to the British empire in India throughout the 19th century may have been the admittance of Indians to the Covenanted Civil Service. This civil service was extremely important to the raj's administration and for political stability. Because of this, only Europeans were allowed to hold major governmental positions starting in 1793. In addition to lacking personal integrity and political dependability, natives were also deemed to lack knowledge with Western judicial administration ideas. Later on, an admirable succession of proclamations of equality took the place of the problematic legal assertion of the discrimination. However, the Indian Civil Service was still a European aristocratic organization in the middle of the 19th century.

It is a general notion that East India company was lucky enough that it had two genius persons like Warren Hastings, (1773-1785) and Lord Cornwallis, (1785-1793) succeeded head of state in India. Hasting build up the state from darkness and ran administratively well. Cornwallis raised the integrity of the service. Lord wellesly (1798-1805) provided an organized education to the civil servants. In the beginning, Lord Wellesly faced hurdles in the construction of administrative system due to improper information about the area. Hastings was the first Governor General, though, to explicitly define the position of the Company's employees. The administration of the East India Company was known as Covenanted Civil Service (CCS). The

Company's Court of Directors appointed members to the CCS. Uncovenanted Civil Service (UCS) was the other service, which representatives were picked on the spot by the Fort William authority. But Warren Hastings, the first Governor General of Bengal, maintained the arbitrary power structure. He made his own fortune by adhering to the same old pattern of arbitrary authority. He used the power in a way that suited him.⁵

Lord Cornwallis (1785–1793), Hastings' liberal–aristocratic successor, was tasked with carrying it out. Being an heir to the Enlightenment, Cornwallis thought it was ethically and politically inappropriate to run an effective tyranny on local principles since the principle of despotic government was subject to a continued corruption, because it is even in its nature corrupt. The essence of the problem according to Cornwallis was to limit governmental power and thus prevent its abuse. The boards of revenue and collectors lost their judicial authority. The king gave up his universal ownership and transferred it to the zamindars, or local landlords, in the anticipation that an aristocracy would eventually develop. The district judge was granted more authority and supervision over the police in each Bengali district. Officers were warned against receiving gifts, and if they were ever forced to accept one, the gift was turned over to the public coffers along with a list of corrupt officers who should serve as an example. Through words and deeds, Cornwallis made it apparent that he did not view the nation as his private estate and that the state's apparatus and agents were subject to the law. Cornwallis started the codification process to make the law more precise and effective.⁶

In 1829 a hierarchy of administration comprised on the provincial division was established. An administrative officer was appointed to control such a charge. Being a trained in every field these officers were appointed in different parts. The duty of the officer to server as an academic elite and also collaborate in policy making. The charter Act of 1833 established the first declaration of racial equality for work in India. It had a significant impact on the locally recruited Uncovenanted Civil Service, but it turned out to be completely irrelevant to the more significant positions in the Covenanted Service that were under the Court of Directors favor.

Both Raja Ram Mohan Roy's adopted son and Dwarkanath Tagore's son failed to win nominations for writer-ship. The topic was dormant until 1853, when patronage was replaced by open competition as the method of selection for the I.C.S. Indians now had an equal chance to get admitted, in theory. Contrary to popular belief, the question was marked by the ambiguity and hypocrisy that would ruin it for. A notable degree of consensus was displayed by Englishmen with official ties to India at all levels in their condemnation of Indians' participation with the competitive system. Upon hearing that an Indian, Satyendranath Tagore, had won the 1863 competition, the good, charitable general mood immediately turned to one of tense hatred.

While the local media understandably celebrated, Tagore's achievement was viewed internationally as the thin end of the wedge that foreshadowed shoals of locals intimidating and dominating Englishmen. The reign of non-Christian Civilians who came from impure and idolatrous backgrounds was at the very least heralded by this event. To this menace, the domestic authorities reacted without delay. The competitive exam's upper limit for Sanskrit and Arabic had been increased. The most likely reason for this about-face was that Northcote discovered the simultaneous test question to be much more complicated and significant than he initially imagined. The desire for concurrent examinations was a key component of the civil service agitation, along with demands for recruitment at a relatively late age. It was by far the more extreme of the two requests. There were two different examination plans that could be used in India: one called for a small number of applicants to compete for a set number of positions, while the other called for simultaneous, identical exams to be given in England and India, with the results then being combined and listed in order of merit. A committee of the India Council, an otherwise conservative organization, initially proposed it in 1860. Unsurprisingly, Wood dismissed the committee's recommendations in their entirety. But afterwards, they were included in that corpus of nearly patristic authorities to which early

Indian nationalism so frequently appealed, together with the 1833 Act and the 1858 Proclamation.

Before 1833 the director courts were the supreme regarding an appointment of civil servants. In the charter of 1853 the power of director courts were also abolished. In 1855 board of control scheduled regulation of examination for the students. The ethical argument was the main one for concurrent examination. Mr. Fowler, an East India Association member, firmly stated that Indian government must operate in accordance with the principles of right and justice while seconding the memorial that Dadabhai Naoroji had introduced. It was evident that in reality, Indians were not being admitted to the Civil Service under the competitive system.⁷The Indian candidate was deterred by caste prejudice, travel expenses, and a natural reluctance to compete under the ambiguous norms of an English examination. However, given that Indians had been offered a shot at admittance, something obviously needed to be done to facilitate their success. For a fraction of the annual appointments, India conducts an examination After the war of independence, the direct rule of crown shifted in India the rule of East India Company was abolished and government of India act was enacted. That ended the supremacy of both board of controller and directors.⁸

The Layout Indian Civil Services after 1858:

The Policy of administrative reforms was adopted when British parliament took direct control of powers. An institution of Indian civil service was established and exams were conducted to recruit the great number in 1853. First of all, it was comprised on most of the Englishmen but later on the proportion of Indian candidates were also inducted. Paul Stuart stated that “reform of the procedures of the Indian office to select better personnel, to control their official behavior, to improve their efficiency, and to make them accountable to superiors had been featured prominently in efforts to change the operation of the governments of Indian programs since the early nineteenth century.” The process of transparency was also ensured in the process of recruitment of the candidates. Competitive examination system was introduced

twenty year earlier in the sub-continent than Britain. British designed their civil service on the pattern of Indian civil service. K.K Aziz, quoted that “India was bitterly administered than Great Britain herself.” Indian civil service became backbone of British administrative structure because candidates were selected on the basis of open merit.⁹ The European aristocracy of Indian government was served by the Covenanted Civil Service. Up to the middle of the nineteenth century, East India Company directors nominated young people for positions that were still referred to as writer-ships.

Before being accepted to the Company's training college in Haileybury, where he would spend two years studying law, political economy, and Indian languages, a nominee had to pass a straightforward exam. He next travelled to India, where he had to pass further tests in Indian languages in order to accept an appointment. The entire thing was altered between 1853 and 1855. The Government of India Act of 1853 ended director patronage and mandated that Covenanted Civil Service appointments be made based on the outcomes of competitive examinations. One of the policy concerns in India that had generated the greatest ongoing debate was open competition. Its introduction contained two crucial ideas: the viability of having the unique instance of Indian administration rely on this idea, as well as the viability of broadly replacing patronage with competition. Therefore, it can be viewed in two different ways: as a component of the current fashion at home and, more precisely, as a fresh way to serve the European corps d'elite in India. The introduction of competition had significant administrative, political, and social ramifications in both of these circumstances.

The competition's design was to give the most weight to subjects that contributed to the formation of the English gentleman's education. Therefore, the implementation of open competition was done in a broad and progressive manner. The scheme's practical arrangements were created with the intention of securing the bare minimum of intelligence required for the service to function effectively. At the same time, qualified guys would be given fantastic possibilities. India, however, was an exception. Frequently, the Indian Civilian served as a large province's sole consul. In order to balance the paternalistic attachment to the interests of native

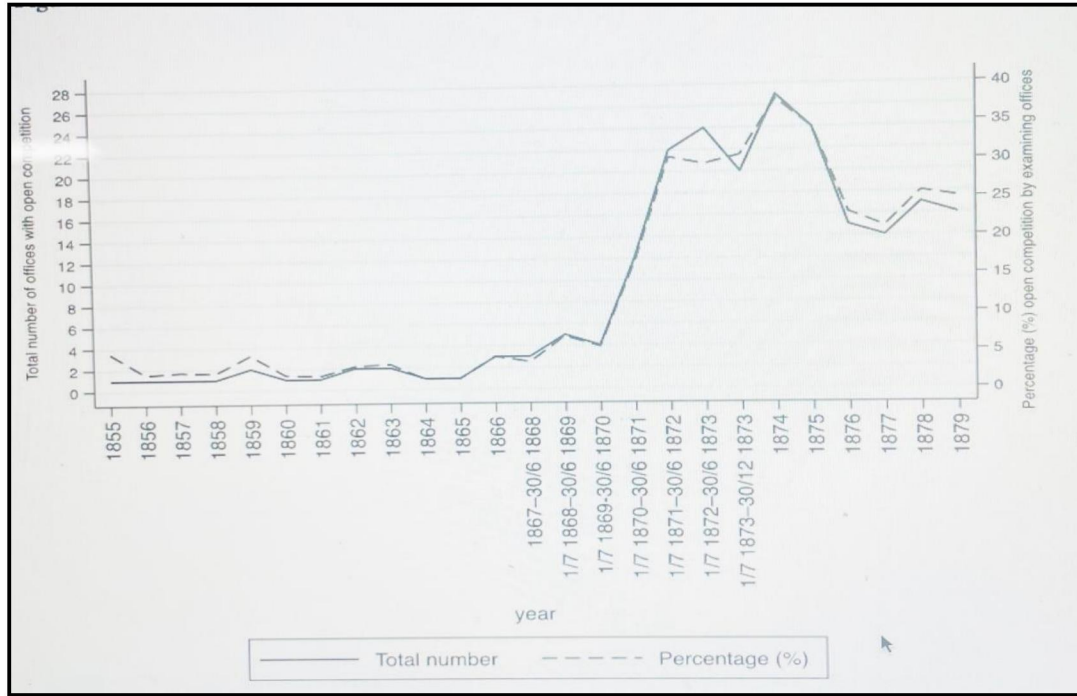
Indians on which the I.C.S. prided itself with the status of an elite member of the ruling race, he had to do it in his own person.¹⁰ In 1854, it was assumed that victorious competitors would typically be top graduates from Oxford and Cambridge with honors.

However, as the years passed, the Civil Service Commissioners were forced to settle for men from any university, then any men from Oxford and Cambridge. However, they were still abusing a system that was created specifically for a high percentage of graduates with high honors from the two older universities. Second, the group was adamant that men be chosen for practical and active occupations using virtually purely academic assessments. This choice was based on the sanctimonious assumption that academic achievement guaranteed good character, even if it wasn't directly tied to it. Institutions and local governments were set up to maintain the empire in India. This process started in early nineteenth century in Calcutta, Bombay, Madras. Slow progress had been done in local governments institution from 1850 to 1893. First forty years of twentieth century saw an extension of representative principle of Centre and provinces in British India and Indianization of the civil service of the civil service and military officer corps.

As a result, there was skepticism about how inclusive and open the open exams were when they were first introduced in 1855. The tests' taking place in Britain and the first test's concentration on general knowledge rather than on skills specifically pertinent to the ICS had a negative impact on both Indians and British settlers in India. According to P.J. Marshall, the British community in India was dominated by official employment recruited in Britain and set on returning to Britain. British immigrants in India who were not connected to the ICS or the military believed that, under the new system, gentlemen were appointed magistrates and judges without any consideration. Parallel criticism focused on the main justification for the merit reforms and whether patronage actually benefited India less than open competition. As an example, John Abraham Francis Hawkins stated in 1858 that it appears to me that this system of competitive examination at home had been framed much more for the benefit of the Universities in England than for the benefit of the people of India. Hawkins therefore proposed

that the merit reforms were motivated by issues relating to circumstances unique to Britain rather than India. However, it would seem more accurate to argue the complete reverse, namely that the ICS's actions.

Accordingly, Macaulay stated in 1853 that a British government worker in India had to synthesize the prestige of an elite member of the governing race with that paternalistic absorption in the interests of native India upon which the I.C.S. prided itself. In June 1861, Charles Wood, who was then the secretary of state for India, informed the House of Commons that “tyranny is the mildest form of government when one dominant race dominates over another”. It is difficult to agree with the claim that the ICS provided the primary support for efforts to establish a common culture of officialdom in the shape of a merit reform at home in light of these observations, which clearly distinguish the ICS reforms from merit reforms at home. According to the Selecting Committee on Civil Service Appointments 1860 recommendation, a system of limited competition should be implemented by every department, and at least five candidates should be put forth for each open position. Although the Committee discussed the subject of open competition, it did not suggest that it be adopted as a policy for the entire Civil Service. Nevertheless, it recommended that the experiment first tried at the India House i.e. the India Office in 1859, be repeated from time to time in other departments. The Selective Committee on Civil Service Appointments After that, several departments started offering open examinations.¹¹ Here is the figure demonstrate the number of seats which were given on the basis of open competition until 1859.



The middle-class leaders in India emphasized how difficult it was for Indian youth to compete successfully under these circumstances. As viceroy, John Lawrence established a programmed to reward distinguished Indian students with nine Queen's Scholarships each year, which were valid for three years in England. The scholarships, which had been established in 1868, were suspended the following year and never really granted again. The growing prejudice against the educated native, who it was said did not make an effective leader and governor of his countrymen, was the cause of this reduction, even if the reason was not explicitly mentioned. The deliberate construction of barriers to entry into the military came after the withdrawal of financial aid. The maximum age to compete was reduced in 1876. The maximum age to compete was reduced from twenty-one to nineteen years old in 1876. An Indian kid had little chance of success unless he was sent to Britain to receive an education starting at around the age of fifteen, which was still a nearly unheard-of occurrence.

The findings rapidly showed how the decreased age restriction had affected them. Eleven of the fourteen Indian applicants who took the exam between 1868 and 1875 passed. Twenty-eight people took the test between 1876 and 1883, and one of them succeeded. The reformers were naturally furious about the injustice. In his first year, Surendra Nath Banerjee had been expelled from the ICS for a technical infraction rather than a criminal one. He began his Civil Service movement in 1877 and 1878 as the initial stage of a protracted campaign of popular political activism. The Indianization of the ICS became one of the hallmarks of the Congress after its founding in 1885.

The Government of India noted that the Civil Service of India had 895 positions in its cadre as of November 1893, 731 of which were designated for covenanted civilians and military civilians. It was asserted that this already reduced the proportion of Europeans in higher administration to a minimum. The proposed approach was branded as dangerous and ill-advised. The secretary of state, Kimberley, who had always disagreed with Gladstone, agreed with this viewpoint. Following this, the Liberal administration was overthrown, and the Conservatives ruled Britain for the next 20 years. Indians maintained almost their same status in the administration.¹² The number of covenanted citizens in the Provincial Service was nearly doubled. In 1893, there were 898 covenanted civilians in total, although there were 1,030 in the executive department and 797 in the judicial branch of the Provincial Service. A blend of examination entry and entry under the nomination of the governor or other head of the province was used for recruitment outside of Bengal, where the Provincial Service was only entered by examination. The intended goal of treating the Provincial Service equally to the Indian Civil Service was not accomplished. British participation in the ICS ceased after World War. However, the advent of democracy, coupled by the riots in Amritsar in 1918 and Gandhi's first civil dissension campaign, gave the prospective British candidate a fresh perspective on India.

Uncertainty and civic unrest replaced security and threatened dominion. All of this came together to produce a condition in the ICS that one of its members refers to as dry rot. The selection of 150 British candidates, the majority of whom were World War I veterans, took place

between 1918 and 1923. The first departure was this one. In the meantime, one of the main issues for Indians had been quietly resolved after seventy years of vehement protest. The Civil Service commissioners, who were in charge of overseeing the administration of all British public service examinations, oversaw the conduct of the ICS test in Allahabad in 1922. There was also in the early 1920s, some senior civilians asserted that the establishment of dyarchy had violated the unwritten covenant between the secretary of state and the civilian, so removing all guarantees of tenure. As a result, the option to retire early with a pension commensurate with length of service was offered and accepted. In the 1920s, about 350 top British officials took early retirement as a result of these measures. In the meantime, one of the main issues for Indians had been quietly resolved after seventy years of vehement protest.

In light of this, another royal commission headed by Lord Lee of Fareham was asked to make recommendations regarding the future of the Indian services. Lord Lee and his colleagues, four of whom were British and four of whom were Indian, suggested that the all-India services, which dealt with matters now entirely under ministerial control under dyarchy no longer be recruited on an all-India basis and that the British entry should be revoked. The Indian Medical Service, the Indian Police, and the ICS were the only all-India services that should permanently retain a British component.

The latter was included as a war reserve of medical resources. The Lee Commission recommended that future direct recruitment via competition for the ICS be based on entry parity between British and Indian applicants. The idea of a racial quota was somewhat revived by this suggestion, despite the fact that it was meant to speed up Indianization. The Lee Commission also suggested that provincial service officials be appointed to the listed posts to fill 20% of the superior positions. It was calculated that these two initiatives would have the effect of making the ICS 50% Indian and half British by 1939. The British component would eventually disappear, but no deadline was established for full Indianization.

The secretary of state approved these and other suggestions made by the Lee Commission in the autumn. The mechanism for appointing provincial service officers to the Indian

Administrative Service (ICS) by way to foreshadow the process by which an independent India would increase the size of the IAS in 1947. One province may serve as an example of how the shift will affect things. All forty-eight district officers in the United Provinces were previously counted among the superior reserved posts, though twenty-one district and sessions judges were chosen from the provincial judicial service. From that point forward, nine additional district judges were selected from the United Provinces judicial corps, and fifteen district officers were provincial Civil Service men holding ICS posts and advanced to the ICS wage grade.¹³

Such a body had been authorized to be established by the 1919 Government of India Act. The Lee Commission advised that this provision be put into effect right away, and in 1926 it did. On behalf of the (British) Civil Service Commission, the Public Service Commission (India) organised the ICS examination in Delhi in 1928. After changing its name to the Federal Public Service Commission in 1937, this organization currently oversees recruitment for the all-India services, to which admittance was through examination. In 1929, there were 894 British and 367 Indians working for the ICS or holding ICS positions; by 1939, the numbers had decreased to 759 British and 625 Indians. Because there were few professional opportunities both in Britain and India. The Federal Public Service Commission held the inaugural competition for the new Indian Administrative Service (IAS), which superseded the ICS, in independent India in 1947. A large percentage of the Congress' efforts during its first 20 years were focused on allowing Indians access to the Islands. Indian nationalists viewed a career in the ICS as a valid and an honorable sphere of service even in the years shortly before World War I. In his autobiography, Rajendra Prasad, the first president of India, told how he began to be obsessed by a new idea to go to England somehow and pass the I.C.S. examination, but family circumstances closed the door. Subhas Chandra Bose took the test and served as a probationer for a year before his riding test failure resulted in his rejection, which sent him on a career of armed resistance against British rule. But even in the earliest days of Indian nationalism, Indian leaders believed that the true obstacle to the country's justifiable aspirations to become an independent state was British officialdom in India.¹⁴

In his book, Nehru for instance admitted to having some grudging respect for the ICS but he also stated “I was very persuaded that no new order could be built up in India so long as the spirit of the I.C.S. permeates our government and our public services.” The ethos of authoritarianism and freedom cannot coexist. Therefore, it appears crucial that the I.C.S and like services must fully vanish, as such, before we can actually begin working on a new order it. The Congress leaders developed a broad suspicion of the ICS, which included some Nehru family members among its Indian service members. Sardar Patel, a prominent politician but one who was actually an administrator. In independent India, this separation between the politicians and the administration still exists. When one is needed again, the senior administrator is exposed and used as the scapegoat. The scalping following the controversy involving the Life Insurance Corporation was an example of this trend. However, in a remarkable paradox, the Nehru strategy of centralized planning and control had resulted in administrators who were more numerous, powerful, and in charge of a wider range of duties than they were during the British era.

Colonial Shadows on Bureaucracy in Pakistan and Culture of Power:

Pakistan's political and administrative systems are heavily influenced by its colonial past. The newly born state brought British civil services as tool to administer the country in the right direction. The duty of these civil servants was to protect the constitution, political neutrality, consistency, anonymity and recruitment on the basis of merit. In the formative phase of Pakistan's bureaucracy played a constructive role in nation building. Jinnah wanted to inherit same colonial system of administration which would work for the betterment of the state by keeping itself apolitical institution.¹⁵ Quaid's address to civil servants provides the vision of Jinnah about the Bureaucracy as he stated in Peshawar:

“ The reason why I wished to meet you that I wanted to deliver a few words to you, because you are holding responsible and important positions in the administration of Pakistan in this province. The first thing I wanted to tell you is this, that you should not be influenced by political pressure, by any

political party or individual politician. If you want to uplift the prestige and greatness of Pakistan, you must not be a victim to any pressure, but to perform your duty as servants to the people and the state, fearlessly and honestly.”¹⁶

Undoubtedly, civil services performed outstanding job in the early phases of Pakistan. As Ishtat Husain quoted the words of Ilhan Niaz, ‘the weight borne this backbone (Bureaucracy) and the speed with which it managed to restore order, taxation, communications and even began working on a long-term development plan was stunning.’¹⁷ During the 19th and 20th centuries, the bureaucratic structure of the colonial administration became strong and highly centralized. The Indian Civil Service (ICS) was in charge of administering it. While being managed, colonial India progressively opened its doors to democratic institutions.

The elected representative functioned more as advisors than as decision-makers. These democratic institutions were not given authority; rather, they were established to support and legitimize the bureaucratic state. Thus, Pakistan inherited from colonial masters highly solid bureaucratic structures and inadequate democratic institutions. Compared to democratic players, the country's bureaucratic institutions have been playing an assertive and prominent role in the governing system since the withdrawal of the British from undivided India. They exercised power in the government's corridors directly or indirectly at the expense of the political institutions of accountability by working together with powerful military elites.¹⁸ The Pakistan Administrative Service's first staff was a holdover from the British. The Indian Civil Service, from which it drew a large portion of its members, was generally an effective administrative tool within the confined of its purview. It also held some of the best talent among the major communities of the subcontinent, talent that was drawn to the profession by the remuneration, security and prestige attached to it.

The British fiercely preserved the privileges it enjoyed in the many constitutional changes they were compelled to make in response to nationalist aspirations. The primary goal of the Service was to uphold law and order in the service of foreign power, which even gave

rise to concerns that civil employees might overthrow ethical regimes introduced in the provinces in 1937 under the Government of India Act, 1935, But these fears had proved generally baseless as the heads of many provincial governments, Congress and Muslim League alike, publicly testified to their sense of loyalty to the new regimes and the spirit of co-operation shown by them. Following the British withdrawal in 1947, the successor states were completely dependent on the Civil Service.

They were even more vitally needed in Pakistan, where the government had to be created from the ground up. One of them had served as a joint secretary and five or seven deputy secretaries in the government of undivided India, but the hundred officials who came under its jurisdiction were insufficient to meet its needs, and only a small percentage of them had any experience working at the higher levels of the administrative ladder. This small group of civil servants with unrelenting energy and unwavering devotion accomplished a feat that has few precedents in history, unfazed by the difficulty of the task and unaffected by their numerical disadvantage and physical limitation.¹⁹ Differences of opinions emerged, when official machinery tried to indulge itself in the political matters of the state. Though, statesmen were unable to formulate policies which could boost up the process of welfare in the state. In the initial period, the welfare of the state had become the core responsibility of the bureaucracy. This dependency carved the direction of the state on the opposite side. As in the colonial time, bureaucracy had beacon of powers. Since the day of partition, the bureaucracy in Pakistan has been holding prominent status in the context of powers.

Conclusion:

Being a backbone of the country bureaucracy controls most of the power apparatus in the country. Bureaucracy of any country runs the administrative setup of the state. The colonial bureaucracy passed through different phases to become an effective administrative system in the Subcontinent. On the basis of this organized system of administration, British ruled across the India. At the time of their departure from subcontinent, they left colonial bureaucracy as their legacy. Pakistan inherited this organized system of administration to run the state of

affairs of the newly born state. In the early phases of Pakistan, bureaucracy took up the responsibility to renovate the state. It was supposed to aside from political arena after mapping up the right direction for the country. Since then, it has been playing an active part in the power corridor. It is general notion about the bureaucracy that those who have bureaucracy of Punjab will rule in the province, and those have a Punjab would form a government in the Centre. As the power of culture is still prevalent in Pakistani society, many young aspirants have wish to become the part of this prestigious service. As perks and privileges come with power and most of the people want to enjoy the power. There is need of reforms in the bureaucratic system of Pakistan, public services must be included in the top priority of the officers. Everyone should be equal before the law and should be accountable to the law.

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