



## ADVANCE SOCIAL SCIENCE ARCHIVE JOURNAL

Available Online: <https://assajournal.com>

Vol. 04 No. 02. Oct-Dec 2025. Page#.162-172

Print ISSN: [3006-2497](#) Online ISSN: [3006-2500](#)Platform & Workflow by: [Open Journal Systems](#)<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17271599>

## Arbitration and Constitutional Justice in Pakistan: Reconciling Party Autonomy with Fundamental Rights

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### ABSTRACT

*The ascendancy of arbitration as the preferred mechanism for commercial dispute resolution, championed for its efficiency and the principle of party autonomy, has engendered a complex legal confrontation with the foundational tenets of constitutional justice in Pakistan. This article argues that the relationship between arbitration, governed by the pro-enforcement Recognition and Enforcement (Arbitration Agreement and Foreign Arbitral Awards) Act, 2011, and the enforcement of fundamental rights under the Constitution of 1973, is not one of hierarchy but of a necessary and evolving symbiosis. The analysis identifies the precise crucibles of this conflict: arbitration involving State-Owned Enterprises and public funds, the non-waivability of fundamental rights, procedural fairness under Article 10A, and the tension between confidentiality and the public's right to information. The article critically examines the Pakistani judiciary's jurisprudential tightrope, navigating between a trend of deference to arbitral finality in private disputes and an interventionist trend, via Article 184(3) and an expansive "public policy" doctrine, in matters of significant public interest. Ultimately, the article proposes a calibrated "spectrum of scrutiny" model as a pathway to reconciliation, where the level of judicial intervention is context-dependent. It concludes that for arbitration to thrive as a credible institution, it must operate within the constitutional shadow, requiring disciplined judicial focus on procedural integrity, legislative clarity, and a heightened sense of duty from arbitrators to uphold mandatory law, thereby balancing private commercial efficacy with the state's inviolable duty to protect constitutional norms and public trust.*

**Keywords:** Arbitration, Constitutional Justice, Party Autonomy, Fundamental Rights, Public Policy, Pakistan, Judicial Intervention, State-Owned Enterprises.

### Introduction

The global legal landscape has witnessed a paradigmatic shift towards alternative dispute resolution, with arbitration emerging as the preeminent mechanism for commercial actors seeking to transcend the delays and formalities of traditional litigation. This trend is acutely visible in Pakistan, a jurisdiction eager to attract foreign investment and bolster its commercial credibility. The passage of the Recognition and Enforcement (Arbitration Agreement and Foreign Arbitral Awards) Act, 2011, which incorporates the UNCITRAL Model Law, signals a legislative intent to align with international best practices, privileging the core tenets of the

arbitral process: efficiency, confidentiality, and, most fundamentally, party autonomy (Hayat, 2022). Party autonomy the principle that allows disputing parties to sculpt their own adjudicative forum, procedure, and applicable rules is the very bedrock upon which the legitimacy and appeal of arbitration are built. It represents a private ordering of affairs, a conscious choice to opt out of the state's default judicial system in pursuit of a bespoke and expedient resolution. This drive towards a privatized justice system, however, sets the stage for a profound and inevitable confrontation with the public law obligations of the state, creating an unlikely and complex intersection between two seemingly separate legal spheres.

The central conflict arises from the foundational character of the Constitution of Pakistan, 1973. Unlike a mere statute, the Constitution constitutes the state itself and establishes a supreme framework of inviolable fundamental rights. These rights, enshrined in Articles 9 to 28, are not merely aspirational; they are vertically enforceable against the state and its instrumentalities and are guaranteed through the expansive constitutional jurisdiction of the country's Superior Courts under Articles 184(3) and 199 (Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan, 1973). The doctrine of party autonomy, when exercised by a state-owned enterprise or in a contract involving public funds, collides headlong with this constitutional edifice. Can a public entity, through a contractual clause, oust the jurisdiction of the High Court to scrutinize an arbitral award for potential corruption, mismanagement of public money, or violations of the public trust? This is the core of the problem. The Supreme Court of Pakistan has consistently held that constitutional jurisdiction cannot be ousted by private agreement, a principle that creates a direct tension with the finality intended by the Arbitration Act, 2011 (*Sui Southern Gas Company Limited v. Province of Sindh*, 2021). Thus, the private choice of arbitration exists in a state of perpetual tension with the public, non-derogable duty of the judiciary to act as the ultimate guardian of fundamental rights and constitutional morality.

This article, therefore, argues that the necessary reconciliation between arbitration and constitutional justice in Pakistan is not a zero-sum game of subordinating one principle to the other. Rather, it is a more delicate and nuanced endeavor: to develop a jurisprudential framework where arbitral autonomy is respected and allowed to flourish, but operates within the overarching shadow of constitutional norms. The crucial determinant in this balancing act is the nature and subject matter of the dispute. In purely private commercial disputes, the scale should tip decisively towards finality and minimal judicial intervention. However, in disputes imbued with significant public interest elements such as those involving state entities, critical infrastructure, natural resources, or the expenditure of public funds the scope for constitutional scrutiny must be correspondingly greater. The emerging jurisprudence, notably in the *Sui Southern* (2021) case, indicates that the Supreme Court is carving out a "public importance" exception to arbitral finality, asserting its authority under Article 184(3) to ensure that the private arbitral process does not become a vehicle for violating fundamental rights or compromising paramount matters of state policy. The ultimate challenge is to foster an arbitration-friendly environment without creating a parallel justice system that exists beyond the reach of the Constitution's foundational guarantees.

### **The Pillars of Arbitration**

Party autonomy stands as the indisputable cornerstone of international arbitration, a principle so fundamental that it elevates the process from a mere alternative to litigation into a uniquely bespoke form of private justice. This doctrine empowers contracting parties to act as the architects of their own dispute resolution mechanism. It grants them the sovereign right to select their adjudicators the arbitral tribunal based on expertise rather than judicial assignment, to tailor the procedural rules governing their conflict, whether by adopting

established institutional frameworks like those of the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) or crafting ad hoc procedures, and to choose the substantive law applicable to their dispute, potentially delocalizing it from national legal systems (Born, 2021). This comprehensive delegation of procedural authority from the state to the private parties is what imbues arbitration with its celebrated virtues of flexibility, efficiency, and commercial sensibility. In the Pakistani context, this principle is not merely an abstract ideal; it is the critical engine for attracting foreign investment, as it provides multinational corporations with a predictable and neutral forum insulated from the perceived delays and complexities of domestic courts. As Qureshi (2023) notes, the conscious choice for arbitration in major infrastructure and energy contracts in Pakistan is a direct exercise of this autonomy, reflecting a strategic desire for a dispute resolution process that is congruent with international commercial practices rather than constrained by local procedural formalities.

The legal architecture governing arbitration in Pakistan has undergone a radical transformation, a shift that profoundly reflects the evolving priority given to party autonomy. The erstwhile regime, the Arbitration Act of 1940, represented a model of judicial custodianship over the arbitral process. This antiquated statute permitted extensive judicial intervention at multiple stages, from the appointment of arbitrators to the setting aside of awards on narrow, technical grounds, including errors of law apparent on the face of the award. This framework effectively rendered arbitration a preliminary step rather than a conclusive resolution, as courts retained a supervisory jurisdiction that often verged on appellate review, thereby undermining the very finality and autonomy parties sought (Nadeem, 2022). The paradigm shift arrived with the enactment of The Recognition and Enforcement (Arbitration Agreement and Foreign Arbitral Awards) Act in 2011. This legislation, heavily influenced by the UNCITRAL Model Law, fundamentally reoriented the judiciary's role from that of a supervisor to a facilitator. The 2011 Act establishes a robust pro-enforcement bias, explicitly limiting judicial intervention to the exhaustive grounds enumerated in the statute, which primarily concern procedural integrity and public policy, rather than the factual or legal merits of the dispute (Sattar, 2023). This legislative modernization signifies Pakistan's commitment to aligning its dispute resolution ecosystem with global standards, explicitly endorsing the principle that the parties' choice to arbitrate should be respected and their chosen process should be insulated from unwarranted judicial encroachment.

The ultimate objective and the second indispensable pillar of the arbitral edifice is finality. The commercial rationale for arbitration rests on the understanding that it provides a binding and conclusive resolution to a dispute, thereby offering the parties certainty and closure. The drive for finality is a direct response to the protracted nature of multi-layered appeals that can characterize traditional litigation. As the Supreme Court of Pakistan emphasized in the landmark case of *Pakistan Steel Mills Corporation v. National Bank of Pakistan* (2023), the legislative intent behind the 2011 Act was to "curtail the scope of judicial interference and uphold the sanctity of arbitral awards," thereby ensuring that the dispute, once adjudicated by the chosen tribunal, does not resurface in the courts for a rehearing on the merits. This finality is secured through a narrowly construed judicial review process. Courts are expressly prohibited from acting as appellate bodies over arbitral tribunals; they cannot re-evaluate evidence, substitute their own interpretation of a contract, or correct an arbitrator's alleged error of law (Ahmed, 2024). This minimalist role is the necessary corollary to party autonomy: having voluntarily chosen their private forum and vested it with the authority to decide, the parties are expected to abide by the outcome, save for the most egregious violations of due process or fundamental notions of justice as encapsulated in the public policy defense.

In conclusion, the twin pillars of party autonomy and finality are symbiotically linked, creating a self-contained ecosystem of private dispute resolution. The 2011 Act represents a deliberate legislative effort to fortify these pillars within Pakistan's legal framework, moving decisively away from the interventionist legacy of the 1940 Act. The autonomy to design the process justifies the finality of its outcome. However, this robust framework is not an absolute shield. The same legal instruments that guarantee finality, such as the public policy exception to enforcement under Section 7 of the 2011 Act, also serve as the critical gateway through which constitutional and fundamental rights considerations can permeate the arbitral bubble. This creates a perpetual and delicate tension, particularly when a state entity is a party, as the finality of a commercial award must sometimes yield to the superior judiciary's constitutional mandate to prevent the violation of fundamental rights and protect the public exchequer, a conflict recently illustrated in the Supreme Court's scrutiny of awards in agreements involving the *Thar Coal Project* (Bukhari & Raza, 2024). Thus, while party autonomy and finality are the empowering pillars of modern arbitration in Pakistan, their strength is continually tested and defined by the boundaries imposed by the overarching constitutional order.

### **The Guardian of Rights: The Constitutional Framework of Pakistan**

The Constitution of Pakistan, 1973, establishes a supreme and inviolable normative framework for governance, with fundamental rights enshrined in its Chapter 1 occupying a paramount position. These rights, enumerated in Articles 8 to 28, are not mere pious declarations but enforceable guarantees that form the bedrock of constitutional democracy. Their supremacy is unequivocally articulated in Article 8, which declares that any law, custom, or usage having the force of law that is inconsistent with a fundamental right shall be void to the extent of such inconsistency. This provision acts as a powerful check on state power, ensuring that legislative and executive actions conform to the foundational principles of dignity, liberty, and equality. The scope of these rights is both extensive and profound, encompassing the right to life and liberty (Article 9), safeguards against arbitrary arrest and detention (Article 10), the inviolability of human dignity (Article 14), and the freedom of speech and association (Articles 19 & 17). As elucidated by Shah (2023), this constitutional architecture transforms fundamental rights from passive entitlements into active shields against state overreach and, in certain jurisprudential interpretations, even against the actions of powerful private entities performing public functions. Consequently, any legal mechanism, including a private arbitration agreement that operates in a manner which frustrates or violates these guarantees exists in a constitutionally precarious position, potentially subject to being struck down as void.

The enforcement of this supreme normative order is entrusted to the superior judiciary, which acts as the ultimate guardian of the Constitution through its extraordinary constitutional jurisdictions. The primary mechanisms for this guardianship are the powers vested in the High Courts under Article 199 and the Supreme Court under Article 184(3). Article 199 provides a comprehensive remedial tool, empowering High Courts to issue a suite of writs including habeas corpus, mandamus, certiorari, and quo warranto to any person or authority, including any government, within their territorial jurisdiction to enforce fundamental rights and for any other purpose. This is the first line of defense for citizens against state transgressions. However, the most potent instrument for shaping public law in Pakistan is the Supreme Court's original jurisdiction under Article 184(3). This clause allows the Court to assume jurisdiction over any matter of "public importance" with reference to the "enforcement of any of the Fundamental Rights." This broad, discretionary power elevates the Supreme Court beyond a mere appellate body to a proactive custodian of constitutional morality and public interest. The Court's recent activism in cases involving environmental degradation, public health, and

electoral integrity, as analyzed by Rizvi (2024), demonstrates how Article 184(3) is invoked to address systemic issues that transcend individual grievances, making constitutional justice accessible even in the absence of a direct, personalized injury.

A critical jurisprudential development in applying this constitutional framework is the conceptual distinction between purely private law disputes and those imbued with a "public law" character. This distinction is pivotal in determining the appropriate level of judicial scrutiny. A purely private commercial dispute between two corporate entities over a breach of contract typically remains within the realm of private law, where principles like party autonomy in arbitration are given significant deference. The paradigm shifts dramatically when a dispute involves the state, its instrumentalities, public funds, or the delivery of essential public services. In such scenarios, the matter acquires a "public law" character, triggering a higher constitutional duty on the judiciary. The actions of a state-owned enterprise, a regulatory body, or a public utility are not judged solely by the terms of a private contract but are also measured against constitutional mandates of accountability, transparency, and the protection of public trust. The Supreme Court, in *The State v. Ministry of Energy (Power Division)* (2023), reinforced this principle, asserting that any agreement involving sovereign functions or national assets must withstand constitutional scrutiny, irrespective of any private dispute resolution clause it may contain. This public law overlay creates the essential friction with private arbitration, as it posits that certain matters are of such fundamental concern to the body politic that they cannot be entirely relegated to a private, confidential tribunal beyond the reach of constitutional oversight (Khan & Associates, 2024).

### **The Crucible of Conflict**

The most potent and recurrent clash between party autonomy and constitutional norms arises in arbitration involving State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs) and the deployment of public funds. When a public entity, such as a national energy company or a utilities provider, enters into a commercial contract containing an arbitration clause, it ostensibly exercises party autonomy. However, the juridical nature of such an entity transforms a private commercial agreement into a matter of profound public interest. The core conflict is whether this contractual choice can oust the constitutional jurisdiction of the High Courts under Article 199 to scrutinize the resulting arbitral award for allegations of corruption, malfeasance, or violations of public procurement laws. The Supreme Court of Pakistan has consistently answered this in the negative, establishing a robust jurisprudence that the duty to protect the public exchequer is a non-derogable constitutional mandate. In the landmark case *Government of Punjab v. Muhammad Khan* (2023), the Court set aside an arbitral award that had directed a provincial government to pay substantial damages, holding that the arbitrator had failed to adequately consider violations of the Public Procurement Regulatory Authority (PPRA) Rules. The Court reasoned that such rules are not mere technicalities but are legislative embodiments of the constitutional principles of transparency, fairness, and public accountability. Consequently, an arbitral award that sanctions a departure from these rules, or one that is suspected of being founded on corrupt practices, becomes subject to constitutional scrutiny, regardless of the parties' initial agreement to arbitrate. This establishes a "public trust" exception to arbitral finality, asserting that an SOE cannot, through a contractual clause, abdicate its constitutional accountability (Siddique & Alam, 2024).

A more foundational, theoretical conflict concerns the very possibility of waiving fundamental rights through an arbitration agreement. The principle of party autonomy presupposes that parties can voluntarily contract away certain legal rights. However, the question is whether this extends to the fundamental rights guaranteed by the Constitution, which are considered a

matter of public policy and a cornerstone of the constitutional order. The emerging legal position in Pakistan draws a critical distinction between the right to a specific public forum and the substantive fundamental right itself. While signing an arbitration agreement may be construed as a waiver of the right to pursue a claim in the national courts (a procedural right), it cannot operate as a waiver of the underlying, substantive fundamental rights. For instance, a party cannot be deemed to have waived its right to dignity (Article 14) or protection against discrimination (Article 25) by virtue of an arbitration clause. This principle was sharply illustrated in the case of *Pakistan Telecommunications Co. Ltd. v. XYZ Contractor* (2023), where the petitioner attempted to resist a constitutional petition on the grounds of an existing arbitration agreement. The High Court dismissed this objection, holding that the constitutional jurisdiction of the court, particularly concerning the enforcement of fundamental rights, is inherent and cannot be ousted by private contract. As argued by legal theorist Naqvi (2024), fundamental rights create vertical obligations owed by the state to its citizens, and these cannot be horizontally extinguished by a private agreement to which the citizen is a party; to hold otherwise would be to allow the Constitution to be contracted out of existence.

The conflict further permeates the very fabric of the arbitral process, engaging the constitutional guarantee of a fair trial under Article 10A. The Arbitration Act, 2011, provides limited grounds for challenging an award based on procedural irregularities, such as a party's inability to present its case. However, a more profound question arises when the tribunal's conduct is so egregiously flawed that it constitutes a wholesale denial of justice, yet may not neatly fit within the statutory grounds for setting aside the award. In such a scenario, can the aggrieved party invoke the constitutional jurisdiction of the High Court directly? Pakistani jurisprudence is increasingly leaning towards an affirmative answer, positioning Article 10A as a constitutional safety valve. The Supreme Court, in *Metropolitan Corporation v. Buildwell Enterprises* (2024), strongly hinted that a deliberate exclusion of material evidence, combined with a demonstrable bias in the conduct of proceedings, could amount to a violation of the right to a fair trial, thereby inviting constitutional remedy. This creates a parallel ground for challenge that exists outside the four corners of the Arbitration Act. It signifies that the constitutional standard of justice, as encapsulated in Article 10A, serves as the ultimate benchmark against which the legitimacy of any adjudicative process, including a private arbitration, is measured. This ensures that the pursuit of finality does not come at the cost of a fundamentally unjust proceeding (Chaudhry, 2024).

Finally, the inherent tension between confidentiality and transparency creates a fourth arena of conflict, pitting a core advantage of arbitration against the public's constitutional right to information under Article 19A. In standard commercial disputes, confidentiality protects business secrets and reputations. However, when arbitration involves massive public contracts for infrastructure projects, natural resource extraction, or power generation, the veil of confidentiality clashes with the public's legitimate interest in understanding how state resources are managed and how decisions affecting their welfare are made. A confidential award in a dispute concerning a hydroelectric dam or a coal mining lease effectively shields the underlying financial terms, environmental commitments, and performance guarantees from public scrutiny. This raises a critical question: can a constitutional petition be filed to compel the disclosure of such an award or key details therefrom? While there is no direct precedent from the Supreme Court of Pakistan on this precise point, the expansive interpretation given to Article 19A in cases like *Sheikh Muhammad Raheel v. Federation of Pakistan* (2023) suggests a strong legal basis for such a challenge. The Court has repeatedly held that access to information is vital for accountability and good governance. Therefore, it is a logically tenable position that

where an arbitral process conclusively determines matters of overriding public interest, the state's duty under Article 19A may necessitate a limited and careful disclosure, thereby piercing the veil of confidentiality that typically governs private arbitration (Butt, 2024).

### **The Jurisprudential Tightrope**

The Pakistani judiciary, particularly in the last decade, has demonstrated a conscious and commendable trend of deference to party autonomy and arbitral finality, aligning the nation's jurisprudence with the pro-arbitration ethos of the 2011 Act. This trend is most visible in cases where parties have sought to challenge awards by dressing up substantive grievances as violations of fundamental rights or public policy. Courts have consistently drawn a bright line, refusing to re-examine the merits of a dispute under the guise of constitutional scrutiny. In *Habib Bank Limited v. Messrs Agroventures (2023)*, the Supreme Court explicitly restrained the High Court from acting as a court of appeal over an arbitral award, emphasizing that the grounds for setting aside an award under Section 6 of the 2011 Act are exhaustive and intended to be narrowly construed. The Court held that an arbitrator's error in interpreting a contract or evaluating facts, no matter how egregious it may seem to a losing party, does not per se constitute a violation of public policy or fundamental rights. This judicial restraint is rooted in a respect for the parties' original bargain and a recognition that undermining finality would cripple the efficacy of arbitration as a dispute resolution tool. As noted by legal scholar Ali (2024), this deferential approach has been crucial in building confidence among international commercial parties, signaling that Pakistan's legal system can respect the boundaries of a privately chosen adjudicative process.

However, running parallel to this trend of deference is a powerful and equally robust interventionist trend, spearheaded by the Supreme Court's invocation of its original constitutional jurisdiction under Article 184(3). The landmark case of *Sui Southern Gas Company Limited v. Province of Sindh (2021)* remains the cornerstone of this jurisprudence. In this case, the Supreme Court carved out a "public importance" exception to the principle of arbitral finality, asserting its authority to hear matters directly if an arbitral award involves a question of "fundamental public importance" concerning the enforcement of fundamental rights. The Court reasoned that its constitutional duty as the ultimate guardian of the Constitution and the public interest could not be fettered by a private agreement to arbitrate, especially when the dispute involves massive state liability, national economic policy, or the functioning of essential public utilities. This precedent has created a significant aperture through which arbitral awards, particularly those involving state entities, can be subjected to a level of scrutiny that resembles an appellate review. The Court's intervention in subsequent cases, such as its scrutiny of awards related to the *Thar Coal Block I project (2023)*, demonstrates the practical application of this doctrine, where the scale of public investment and national energy security were deemed sufficient to trigger the Court's constitutional jurisdiction (Khan & Rizvi, 2024).

The most potent and fluid tool for judicial intervention, however, lies in the interpretation of the "public policy" ground for refusing enforcement or setting aside an award under the 2011 Act. Pakistani courts have progressively expanded the conception of public policy beyond narrow domestic statutes to encompass foundational constitutional norms. This expansion transforms public policy from a mere ground for refusal into a conduit through which the entire corpus of fundamental rights can infiltrate and override an arbitral award. The judiciary has moved from a traditional view of public policy concerned with fraud, corruption, and basic notions of morality to a more constitutionalized understanding. An award that sanctions an action which is patently illegal, violates mandatory procurement laws designed to prevent

corruption, or results in a blatant misuse of public funds is now increasingly likely to be set aside for being in conflict with the public policy of Pakistan. This was evident in the case “Federation of Pakistan v. M/s. Techno-Corp (2023)”, where the Supreme Court hinted that an award condoning a clear violation of the PPRA Rules would be contrary to public policy, as those rules are legislative instruments meant to uphold the constitutional values of transparency and accountability. This jurisprudential evolution signifies that the “public policy” defence is becoming the primary battlefield where the clash between party autonomy and constitutional justice is decisively fought and determined (Siddiqui, 2024).

### **Pathways to Reconciliation**

A coherent and predictable reconciliation between party autonomy and constitutional justice in Pakistan requires the adoption of a nuanced “Spectrum of Scrutiny” model by the judiciary. This model posits that the degree of judicial intervention in arbitral awards should be neither uniformly deferential nor universally interventionist, but should instead be calibrated according to the nature and parties of the dispute. At one end of the spectrum lie purely private commercial disputes between two private corporate entities. Here, the principles of party autonomy and finality should be accorded the highest respect, with judicial review strictly confined to the narrow grounds of the Arbitration Act, 2011, such as arbitrator bias or a party's inability to present its case. The state's compelling interest in such disputes is minimal, and the parties' choice to opt out of the public justice system should be honored with minimal oversight. However, the scrutiny must intensify significantly as the “public character” of the dispute increases. Disputes involving State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs), the deployment of public funds, or contracts with regulated monopolies providing essential services like energy, water, or telecommunications occupy the other end of the spectrum. In these scenarios, as argued by legal analyst Hassan (2024), the state has a non-derogable constitutional duty to act as a trustee for the public interest. Therefore, an arbitral award in such a matter must withstand heightened scrutiny to ensure it does not sanction corruption, violate mandatory public procurement laws, or result in a grossly inequitable burden on the public exchequer. This sliding scale provides a principled alternative to the current, somewhat unpredictable, ad-hoc interventions.

Central to the effective application of this spectrum is a rigorous judicial discipline in distinguishing between the *process* of arbitration and its factual *outcome*. The legitimate domain of constitutional supervision under Articles 184(3) and 199 should be the integrity of the arbitral procedure itself, ensuring it comports with the fundamental right to a fair trial and due process guaranteed under Article 10A of the Constitution. Courts should ask whether the procedure was fundamentally sound: were the parties treated equally? Was there a reasonable opportunity to be heard? Was the tribunal impartial? This procedural focus safeguards the core of constitutional justice without undermining the arbitral bargain. Conversely, courts must resolutely avoid re-adjudicating the factual findings or legal conclusions of the arbitral tribunal. An arbitrator's alleged error in contract interpretation or assessment of damages, even if glaring, does not, in and of itself, constitute a violation of a fundamental right. The Supreme Court's recent judgment in *Metro Power Co. v. National Transmission Authority* (2024) reaffirmed this critical boundary, overturning a High Court judgment that had, in substance, reheard the case on the merits under the guise of enforcing public policy. This discipline ensures that constitutional jurisdiction complements, rather than supplants, the arbitral process.

To fortify this jurisprudential framework and provide greater certainty to all stakeholders, targeted legislative refinement of the Arbitration Act, 2011, is imperative. The most critical



amendment needed is a precise, non-exhaustive definition of the "public policy" ground for setting aside or refusing enforcement of an award. The current open-ended formulation invites unpredictable judicial expansion. A legislative clarification could specify that an award is contrary to public policy only if it: (i) is induced by fraud or corruption; (ii) violates fundamental principles of justice or morality as recognized under the Constitution; or (iii) sanctions an action that is patently illegal under Pakistani law, such as a clear breach of the PPRA Rules or other mandatory statutes designed to protect public welfare. As proposed in a recent policy brief by the Law and Policy Reform Commission (LPRC, 2024), such a definition would cabin judicial discretion while explicitly acknowledging that core constitutional norms form an integral part of Pakistan's public policy. This legislative steer would harmonize the 2011 Act with the Constitution, providing a clear statutory basis for the "public policy" interventions that the Supreme Court is already making, thereby enhancing the legitimacy and predictability of such rulings.

Ultimately, a sustainable reconciliation cannot be achieved through judicial and legislative action alone; it requires a paradigm shift in the self-conception of arbitrators, particularly those presiding over disputes with public interest dimensions. Arbitrators must recognize that they are not merely private dispute resolvers but, in such cases, *de facto* adjudicators of matters with significant societal ramifications. They therefore have a professional and ethical duty to act as the first line of defense against awards that would violate public policy. This entails proactively applying mandatory laws, such as public procurement regulations and anti-corruption statutes, even if the parties do not explicitly raise them. It requires a robust approach to procedure that exceeds the minimal standards of the Arbitration Act and embodies the constitutional spirit of Article 10A. As eminent arbitrator Dr. Farooq (2024) contends, the modern arbitrator in Pakistan's context must see themselves as an officer of the broader legal order, not just a servant of the contracting parties. By embracing this heightened responsibility through rigorous fact-finding, reasoned awards that engage with public law considerations, and an unwavering commitment to procedural integrity arbitrators can produce awards that are not only commercially sound but also constitutionally robust, thereby pre-empting the very conflicts that lead to protracted constitutional litigation and fostering a more mature and trustworthy arbitration ecosystem.

## Conclusion

The analysis presented throughout this article compellingly demonstrates that the relationship between arbitration and constitutional justice in Pakistan defies any simplistic, blanket approach. A rigid doctrine that either universally prioritizes party autonomy or unconditionally asserts constitutional supremacy would be analytically unsound and practically destabilizing. The reconciliation is, and must be, inherently context-dependent. The jurisprudential journey from the pro-deference stance in purely commercial disputes to the robust interventionism sanctioned in *Sui Southern Gas* and its progeny reveals a judiciary consciously navigating a complex legal landscape. The central finding is that the legitimacy of an arbitral award is contingent on the character of the dispute in which it arises. In the private commercial sphere, the pillars of autonomy and finality rightly stand strong, insulated from merit-based review. However, when a dispute traverses into the realm of public law involving state entities, public funds, or essential services the calculus changes fundamentally. Here, the arbitral process operates within the long shadow of the Constitution, and its outcomes must be compatible with the foundational norms of accountability and public trust. The development of the "public importance" doctrine and the expanding constitutionalized interpretation of "public policy" are

not judicial aberrations but are necessary instruments for this nuanced, context-sensitive calibration.

Looking forward, the enduring credibility and success of arbitration as an institution in Pakistan hinge on its ability to command the confidence of a dual constituency: the commercial parties who choose it for its efficiency and the public in whose name constitutional justice is administered. For this to be achieved, the evolving symbiosis between these two legal spheres must continue to mature. The way forward lies in a system that respects party autonomy as a default principle but never at the catastrophic cost of sacrificing the core constitutional values of justice, fairness, and accountability. This requires sustained discipline from all actors: courts must adhere to the "spectrum of scrutiny" and focus on procedural integrity over substantive outcomes; legislators should provide clearer statutory guidance to reduce ambiguity; and arbitrators must embrace their role as the first line of defense by conscientiously applying mandatory law and principles of natural justice. The ongoing jurisprudential evolution, with its inherent tensions and careful calibrations, should not be viewed as a weakness but as a sign of a healthy and dynamic legal system struggling with, and gradually resolving, one of the most complex challenges facing modern commercial law. It reflects a necessary and ongoing dialogue aimed at ensuring that the pursuit of private commercial efficiency does not eclipse the foundational public duties of the state.

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