Human Rights in the Muslim World

Human Rights in the Muslim World

Fundamentalism, Constitutionalism, and International Politics

Maimul Ahsan Khan

CAROLINA ACADEMIC PRESS

Durham, North Carolina

Copyright © 2003 Maimul Ahsan Khan All Rights Reserved

ISBN 0-89089-045-5 LCCN 2002114415

Carolina Academic Press 700 Kent Street Durham, North Carolina 27701 Telephone (919) 489-7486 Fax (919) 493-5668 www.cap-press.com

Printed in the United States of America

Contents

Pretace	1X
Acknowledgments	xv
Chapter 1. The Emergence of Muslim Nation-States: Colonialism,	
Nationalism, and Socialism	3
The Industrial Revolution and Muslim Rulers	3
Muslim Countries under European Colonial Rule	7
Secular Character of Muslim Statehood in the Post-Colonial Era	11
Democracy and Modern Methods of Governance	15
Socialism in the Muslim World	25
The Greatest Setback for Muslim Political Thought	32
The Islamic Revolution in Iran: A New Era for the MFF	39
Nationalism in Arab and Non-Arab Muslim Nations	45
Ritualism: Across the Muslim Masses	53
Sufism and the Rule of Shariah in Muslim States	57
Ottoman Rule and Western Christendom: Legal System Reforms	67
Chapter 2. Fundamentalism: Political and Economic Dimensions	85
Muslim Nation-States and the Shariah Law	85
Interrelationships among the Sources of Shariah and Legal Reforms	100
Rights and Duties: Corresponding Relationship and Convergence	113
Creation of Wealth and Distribution: The Core Legal Issues	118
Forms of Jihad and Their Legal Implications	130
Military Might of the Muslim Governments and Their Race for	
Nuclear Weapons	138
Chapter 3. Islamic Legal Philosophy and Human Rights	143
The Islamic Doctrinal Legal Philosophy: The Earliest Documents	
of Muslim Statehood	143
The Medinah Charter	146
Treaty or Constitution?	146
The Territorial Integrity of Medinah	149

vi · Contents

Nationhood and Citizenship of the State of Medinah	150
The Issues of War and Peace	152
Principles of the Law of Crimes	154
Status of Head of the State	155
Muhammed and the Opposition Parties in Medinah: The Rules	
of the Battles of Badr and Uhud	157
The Siege of Medinah	160
The Security of Medinah and the Jewish Tribes	162
The Treaty of Hudaibiyah: A Peace Treaty or a Constitutional	
Document?	167
Some Defining Points of Constitutionalism in Muslim States	172
Quranic Law: The Naskh, Mansukh, and Kadi Systems	179
Theory of Abrogation (Mansukh) of the Quranic Laws	183
Kadi System: Independence of the Judiciary	203
Some Doctrinal Human Rights Issues: Muslim Perspectives	211
Humanism and Freedom in Islam: Doctrinal Dichotomies	213
Spiritual Dimensions of Human Rights in Islam	215
Muslim Political Authority and Rights of the Non-Muslims	226
Muslim Nation-States and Human Rights	230
Islamic Constitutionalism and Human Rights	234
Islamic Concepts of Human Rights and Realities in the Muslim	
World	240
Chapter 4. Socialist Constitutionalism: Muslim Statehood and	
Human Rights	245
Humanism and Liberalism: Socialist Vis-à-Vis Capitalist	245
The Success and Failure of Socialist Human Rights	249
Socialist Regimentation and Liberalization: The Soviet Legacy	251
Regime of Work and Human Rights: Constitutional Framework	251
Soviet Technology and Human Rights	257
Dichotomy in Socialist Humanism	258
Soviet Constitutional Paradigms: Survival of the Muslim	
Nationalities	261
Russian Nationalism and Muslim Factors: A Historical Perspective	263
Declaration of Sovereignty by the Soviet Republics: Muslim	
Vis-à-Vis Russian	269
Gorbachev's Legacy and the CIS: Muslim Independent States	276
The Russian Federation and the Successor Independent States	278
Marxism in Russia Ends in Gorbachevism	282
Chapter 5. Soviet-Afghan Relations: The Rise and Fall of the Taliban	287
Soviet-Afghan Relations: The Bedrock of Afghan Politics	287

Afghanistan: A Security Problem for the Bolsheviks up to the 1940s 288 Soviet-Afghan Relations before Military Intervention: 295 Ideological Battles Soviet Occupation of Afghanistan: Security and Religious Issues 303 Afghanistan with New Security Dimensions 310 The Revisited Russian Military Intervention in Afghanistan 314 The Rise and Fall of the Taliban Government: Internal and External Factors 316 Role of the Loya Jirga 317 Talibanism Vis-à-Vis Wahhabism 321 Pakistani and Soviet Factors in Taliban Ideology and Crisis 331 Western Policies Toward the Taliban 338 Western Policies Toward the Taliban: Regional and International Ramifications 342 Human Rights in Afghanistan: Ideological and Violent Confrontation 348 Chapter 6. New Dynamics of U.S.-Iran Relations: A Lesson from **International Politics** 357 Chapter 7. Regional Economic Cooperation under the ECO: Political and Legal Implications for Human Rights 373 The CIS and Central Asia 375 The Economic Importance of Central Asia 377 The ECO and Central Asia 381 The Founding Members of the ECO: Economic Cooperation in a Dilemma 383 The ECO and Volatility in Afghanistan 386 390 The ECO and Economic Crisis in Russia Some Specifics of the ECO Members 393 Structure of the ECO 395 Major Hurdles of the ECO 397 399 Prospects of the ECO The ECO: Dilemma of Muslim Economic Cooperation 401 Chapter 8. Religious Factors in South Asian Politics: The Nuclear Arms Race and Poverty 409 Colonial Legacy and Irrational Muslim Politics 410 Cold War Factors in South Asian Politics: A SAARC Perspective 413 The Arms Race in South Asia: Regional and Global Ramifications 418 429 Regional Economic Cooperation: A Political Agenda in South Asia Concluding Remarks on South Asian Politics 433

Contents · vii

viii · Contents

Appendix of Documents	443
The Treaty of Medinah, or the Medinah Charter	443
Pact with the Tribe of Juhaina	448
Pact of Bani Dhamra	448
Pact of Bani Ghadaya and Bani Uraiz	449
Pact of Najran	450
Pact of Saqeef (Taif)	451
Pact of Akbar bin Abdul Qais	454
Treaty of Hudaibiyah	454
Farewell Sermon of Muhammed, Prophet of Islam	455
Glossary of Islamic Terms	457
About the Author	473
Index	475

Preface

As of this writing, more than two decades have passed since the rise of Muslim fundamentalism caught the world by surprise. Islamic fundamentalism had previously been defined and understood in the context of oppositional religious forces using legal and illegal means and methods to overthrow their own governments. Subsequently, some Muslim political groups with religious orientation have been negatively labeled as "Islamic Fundamentalists" and equated with the "Christian Fundamentalists" of the early decades of the twentieth century.

This term was heard more often after 1979, when Iranian revolutionary students held American diplomats and employees of the American embassy hostage in Tehran, claiming that the diplomats were spies interfering in the domestic affairs of Iran. The prolonged hostage incident lasted for 444 days and created an unprecedented crisis in modern international relations and law. From that incident to the destruction of the World Trade Center in 2001, issues of Muslim terrorists and Islamic fundamentalism have demonstrated a persistent relevance to the bedrock of both international and regional politics.

In 1946, the American-led Western powers thwarted the Soviet Union's attempt to make Iran a satellite state similar to those of the former Eastern bloc in Europe. With the withdrawal of Russian troops from Iran, the American factor in Middle Eastern politics became more important than ever before. Prior to the Islamic revolution, Iran was one of the United States' most trusted allies in the region; and there was no apparent anti-Americanism there. So why did the Islamic forces in Iran come to characterize the United States as the "great Satan"? Currently, a number of Muslim governments and peoples regard the Western state powers as their religious and national enemies. Why are Muslim religious forces now marked by anti-Western and anti-American feelings? Does the rise of Muslim fundamentalism have anything to do with the philosophies and actions of the Western states and their leaders?

Religious leaders are accepted as the political leaders of some Muslim countries. Author William Zartman notes:

It is no accident that Islamism is rising at the end of the twentieth century. Such events occur when the current order is no longer

x · Preface

a source of stability and satisfaction. When order, identity and resources collapse, believers flock back to their religion....

[This is] because its economic and political program "is in the Quran," in the words of Islamist campaigners from Algeria and Tunisia to Sudan and Iran.¹

Islamic doctrines have been either misunderstood or misused for a long period of time in the different regions of the world. Some observers have simply dismissed political, economic, and legal postulates based on Islamic theories as issues of the past, while others have not acknowledged the relevance of Islamic doctrines to present-day affairs. Many researchers confine their understanding of Islamic factors to the ideas of Arabism, Wahabism, Maududism, Khomeinism, or Talibanism and are reluctant to pursue a deeper analysis of Islamic political and legal doctrines.

Other observers think that, like the Chinese, Indian, Egyptian, and Greek civilizations, Islamism is an anachronism in today's world. There are profound reasons why many orthodox religious doctrines can be only marginally considered as practical working political and legal ideologies.

There are, of course, many religious, psychological, and political reasons for this, but all of these reasons derive from a sense that so far as the West is concerned, Islam represents not only a formidable competitor but also a latecoming challenge to Christianity.

...Islam was believed to be a demonic religion of apostasy, blasphemy, and obscurity....It was as if a younger, more virile and energetic version of Christianity had arisen in the East.... Only Islam seemed never to have submitted completely to the West; and when, after the dramatic oil-price rises of the early 1970s, the Muslim world seemed once more on the verge of repeating its early conquests, the whole West seemed to shudder.²

As a worldwide phenomenon, Islamic political ideology is a complex iteration of Quranic inspiration and reformist, fundamental orientation. What is Islamism? What are the main tenets of Islamic fundamentalism? How does political Islam differ from fundamentalism? What are the principal breeding grounds for Muslim fundamentalist forces? Are these forces

^{1.} William Zartman, A Search for Security and Governance Regimes, in Democracy, War, and Peace in the Middle East 48, 54 (David Garnham & Mark Tessler eds., 1995).

^{2.} EDWARD W. SAID, COVERING ISLAM: HOW THE MEDIA AND THE EXPERTS DETERMINE HOW WE SEE THE REST OF THE WORLD 4–5 (rev. ed. 1997) [hereinafter SAID, Covering Islam].

gaining momentum in Muslim and non-Muslim countries? How crucial are economic crises and nuclear weapons to Muslim fundamentalist forces? Why are these forces driven by anti-Westernism and anti-Americanism? Is terrorism the only option for Muslim fundamentalists? Are religious fundamentalist forces also using peaceful methods to capture power in the Muslim countries? Would a democratic system be an acceptable form of governance to the religious forces in Muslim countries of the future?

Only recently have analysts begun to look at Islamic legal doctrine within the context of modern human rights. Attempts to mix Islamic doctrines and modern concepts of human rights are certain to generate heated controversy in Muslim countries. The relationship between institutions of Muslim religious practice and modern concepts of universal human rights is complex and problematic.

Just as there is no unitary Islamic position on the merits of rationalism and humanism, so there is no unanimity on where Islam stands vis-à-vis constitutionalism, an institution closely tied to the development of legal protections for rights.³

Most religious doctrines place more emphasis on duties than on rights. This might not seem a serious problem, but many political forces impinge on human rights in the name of religious duty. In fact, it becomes increasingly difficult for Westerners and Muslim secularists to believe that religious doctrines can complement human rights in an expression of freedom and political liberty. Many analysts indeed perceive contemporary issues of Islamic constitutionalism and human rights as a threat to modern concepts of democracy and human dignity. Western minds often persist in believing that Islamists oppose democratization and the implementation of human rights in Muslim countries. Iranian scholar Ayatullah Taleqani says:

Islam is the religion of freedom. Its goal is people's liberation. If a religion aims at liberating people from all forms of bondage, it cannot itself be made a chain for keeping people in bondage.... In the name of religion, (they wish to) further the interests of their own class by enslaving people in exploitative chains.⁵

^{3.} Ann Elizabeth Mayer, Islam and Human Rights: Tradition and Politics 50 (1991).

^{4.} See Abdullahi Ahmed An-na'im, State Responsibility under International Human Rights Law to Change Religious and Customary Law, in Human Rights of Women 167 (Rebecca Cook ed., 1994), reprinted in Henry J. Steiner & Philip Alston, International Human Rights in Context 426–28 (2d ed. 2000).

^{5.} Ayatollah Taleqani, Last Friday Prayer Sermon (Nov. 1979), *quoted in* Anjuman-E-Touhidi-E-Resalat, Mardi-Ez-Tabar-E-Nur [A Man from the Abode of Light]

xii · Preface

Most religious circles in Muslim communities equate Western concepts of freedom with decadent sexual permissiveness. By contrast, Westernized Muslim intellectuals have introduced modern models of secularization to combat traditional religious forces. Neither side can claim a decisive victory in achieving modernization or Islamization. Apart from discussing the various religious and ideological perceptions of Muslim peoples, this book focuses on the dichotomies between sociopolitical, economic, and cultural aspects of Muslim statehood and the military build-up that accompanies a nation-building process.

Maimul Ahsan Khan University of Illinois-UC April 2002

^{10–18 (1979),} reprinted in Suroosh Irfani, Iran's Islamic Revolution, at ii (1983) [hereinafter Irfani].

All mankind is from Adam and Eve. An Arab has no superiority over a non-Arab, nor does a non-Arab have any superiority over an Arab; also a white has no superiority over a black nor does a black have any superiority over a white except by piety and good action.... All those who listen to me shall pass on my words to others and those to others again; and may the last ones understand my words better than those who listen to me directly.

— From the Farewell Hadj Sermon of the Prophet delivered on the Ninth Day of Dhul-Hijjah, tenth year of the Muslim calendar (632 C.E.)

It may seem presumptuous on my part, but I personally believe we need to think seriously whether a violent reaction is the right thing to do and in the greater interest of the nation and people in the long run. I believe violence will only increase the cycle of violence. But how do we deal with hatred and anger which are often the root causes of such senseless violence?

> —From a letter written by the Dalai Lama to President G. W. Bush on September 12, 2001

Public opinion in the Muslim world in general wants peace, security, and stability and the right to defend their religion and their freedom. As long as there is oppression, suppression, as long as people are humiliated and no one hears their cries, we will have a kind of feeling among the humiliated and desperate people, a kind of feeling among them that make them susceptible to extremist views or perceptions. It is therefore incumbent upon all of us to address the root causes, the issue of poverty to eliminate that, to assist people in pain.

—President Mohammad Khatami, in an interview with the *New York Times* on November 9, 2001

Acknowledgments

Over the last several years, many of my colleagues and friends have inspired me to write this book. I would particularly like to thank Philip McConnaughay, Robert Quinn, Craig Mousin, Thomas Ulen, Charles Terry, Thomas Mengler, Andrew Leipold, Ellen Deason, Thomas Ginsburg, Susan Schreiber, Beth Greenwood, John Quigley, and Bartram Brown. They are law professors/deans at seven different renowned American universities. Among the professors/specialists in other fields who helped and/or inspired me most are Earl Kellogg, Amenah McCloud, Vibert White, Zaynab Hoffman, Kirk Hauser, Hans Hock, Uwe Schramm, Kerin Jassim, Jalal Effendi, N.M. Sheikh, Moniruzzaman Miah, Shah Abdul Hannan, Nazr Mowla, Justice Abdur Rouf, Ibulaimu Kakoma, David Kelly, and Thomas Simon.

Among others who helped me in various ways are Ann Perry, Sherry Cibelli, Hafiz Abdur Rahman, Nazmun Nahar, Julia Todd, James Graham, Kim Priet, Lindsay Gardner, Nazir Husain, Rraim Murtishi, Nathaniel Hurd, Naeem Sheikh, Emily Chang, Anthony McGee, Mattew Lee, Amelia Felty, and Jan Michael. John Ahmed Herlihy and Christopher Weller read the entire manuscript and made stylistic suggestions, and Dorothy Koontz checked most of the English footnotes. I am grateful to each and every individual mentioned above and to many others I could not mention here.