



**WHEN COURTS SPEAK COHERENTLY: JUDICIAL NARRATIVES
AND MINORITY GOVERNANCE IN PLURI-LEGAL STATES**

Journal:	<i>World Politics</i>
Manuscript ID	Draft
Manuscript Type:	Research Article
Subject Category:	Comparative Politics, Country Studies < Comparative Politics
Keyword:	Israel, India, Greece, Ghana, Muslims, minority rights
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Abstract

This article examines how courts govern ethno-religious minorities in pluri-legal personal status systems by focusing on the narratives judges deploy when adjudicating Muslim Family Law (MFL) disputes. Moving beyond institutional design accounts, it argues that the political effects of personal status regimes depend less on formal legal structures than on the degree of narrational cohesion within the judiciary. Drawing on a comparative study of Israel, Greece, India, and Ghana, the article shows how cohesive judicial narratives, when coupled with socially receptive environments, can facilitate socio-legal reform, while narrational incohesion—or cohesive exclusion—fosters legal estrangement among minority communities. Based on an original dataset of over 3,000 judicial decisions and nearly 400 interviews, the analysis introduces three indices measuring narrational cohesion, extrajudicial ripeness, and legal estrangement. The findings recast courts as technologies of governance whose narratives shape reform trajectories, legal legitimacy and state-minority relations in pluri-legal states.

INTRODUCTION

A personal status regime is a legal system that governs family relations by subjecting individuals to different laws based on their ethno-religious background rather than a uniform civil code. Under

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3 such systems, for example, Muslims are subject to Muslim law, Jews to Jewish law, Hindus to
4 Hindu law, and so forth. Far from neutral accommodations of cultural difference, personal status
5 regimes are historically constituted technologies of governance, often designed to control
6 populations deemed politically “suspect” or “dangerous.”¹
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14 Across the world today, eighteen Muslim-minority states² employ such pluri-legal systems
15 with respect to their Muslim citizens by formally integrating Muslim Family Laws (MFLs) into
16 their legal systems. While there is a robust literature on personal status arrangements by Muslim-
17 majority states to accommodate non-Muslim minorities—for instance, under the Ottoman *millet*³
18 system—the reverse configuration yet remains understudied.⁴ In these settings, MFLs function as
19 instruments through which Muslim-minority states regulate difference and mediate relations
20 between majority polities and highly-securitized minority populations.⁵
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31 In these jurisdictions, civil judges—mostly non-Muslims—exercise oversight over Islamic
32 marriage, divorce, custody, maintenance, and inheritance disputes. Through this routine
33 adjudication, courts do not merely resolve legal disputes; they actively make and remake Muslim
34 subjectivities, delineate the boundaries of legal and political belonging, and shape how citizens
35 experience state authority in everyday life. Whatever the original motivations behind the personal
36 status regimes, their effects on the ground are often shaped less by institutional design than by how
37 consistently courts interpret and narrate such laws over time. In this respect, the article examines
38 how courts exercise this governing function through the consistency of narratives embedded in
39 their judgments, often with unintended political and social consequences.
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53 Civil judges overseeing MFL disputes in Muslim-minority states routinely justify their
54 decisions by invoking broader stories about religion, gender, national identity, and constitutional
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3 order. Consider, hypothetically, three identical cases in which three Muslim men divorce their
4 wives by pronouncing *talaq*, a unilateral extrajudicial repudiation. In each case, the wife
5 challenges the validity of the divorce before a civil court. The first judge invalidates the *talaq*
6 because it violates gender equality and contravenes constitutional guarantees. In the second case,
7 a different judge reaches the same conclusion but does so by reasoning that the *talaq* procedure
8 fails to comply with Qur'anic requirements. In the third case, yet another judge invalidates the
9 divorce by asserting that *talaq* is a custom of "desert tribes" and thereby has no place in a modern
10 Christian nation.
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23 The legal outcome is identical across all three cases. Yet the judicial narratives differ
24 sharply in ways scholars have yet to theorize fully. Narratives are not mere stories but normative
25 frameworks that communicate visions of justice and legitimacy and thus do more than justify
26 outcomes. As they recur across cases and forums, they rearticulate authoritative accounts of who
27 Muslim minorities are, what their law signifies, and the role religious difference may legitimately
28 play in defining the parameters of citizenship. Over time, as these narratives harden into recurring
29 patterns, they acquire meaning that extends well beyond the doctrinal content of individual rulings,
30 structuring behavior and legal consciousness both within and beyond minority communities.
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42 In the example above, the rulings exhibit narrational incohesion: each decision relies on a
43 distinct normative frame that communicates a different message to judiciaries, activists, and
44 litigants, despite converging on the same legal conclusion. This divergence raises theoretical and
45 empirical questions that the present article seeks to address. First, where do distinct judicial
46 narratives originate, and what explains their (in)cohesion within and across national judiciaries?
47 Second, how do these narratives travel beyond the courtroom, and how does their (in)cohesion
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3 shape social mobilization and socio-legal reform? Finally, how does narrational (in)cohesion shape
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5 state-minority relations, including minority attitudes towards civil courts, and perceptions of
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7 procedural justice and equal citizenship?
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11 To answer these questions, the article develops a comparative study of MFL systems in
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13 Israel, India, Greece, and Ghana. It argues that whatever the original intent behind the adoption of
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15 personal status regimes, courts sit at their political center, and the effects of these systems depend
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17 less on judicial outcomes than on the consistency of the narratives through which courts speak.
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19 Judicial narratives about MFLs are not created anew; they are inherited from late-colonial and
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21 early state-building periods. Cohesion emerges where there is a strong ideological and professional
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23 consensus within the judiciary regarding the proper place of MFL in the national legal order—
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25 whether it should be accommodated, restricted, or abolished. Cohesion, the internal and external
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27 consistency of judicial narratives across courts and over time, matters because it enables the
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29 judiciary to convey coherent and intelligible governing messages through its decisions.
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35 When judicial narratives are coherent, they are more likely to travel beyond the courtroom.
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37 Where they resonate with surrounding communities and extrajudicial conditions are ripe for their
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39 absorption—as assessed by the ripeness test—they can facilitate socio-legal change by diffusing
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41 into communal discourse. They also influence perceptions of procedural justice and legal
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43 belonging among minorities—as measured by the estrangement test—by reducing arbitrariness
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45 and signaling that the courts speak with a coherent and inclusive voice. Together, these dynamics
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47 help explain why courts sometimes succeed in fostering reform and trust even within institutions
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49 originally built as regimes of control and exclusion, as in Israel, and why, in other settings, they
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51 instead produce alienation and distrust.
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3 The analysis utilizes an original dataset of more than 3,000 judgments and nearly 400
4 interviews with judges, lawyers, and litigants over a decade in all four countries. Drawing on
5 literature on state-society relations, legal pluralism, historical institutionalism, judicial decision-
6 making, legal mobilization, and procedural justice, the article demonstrates that judicial narratives
7 are not mere rhetorical devices but technologies of minority governance. They structure legal
8 authority, facilitate socio-legal reform, and shape how state power is experienced in pluri-legal
9 societies. In doing so, it proposes a comparative political theory of courts as governing institutions,
10 demonstrating how (in)cohesion of their narratives affects reform trajectories and state-minority
11 relations.
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25 The article proceeds in six parts. The next section develops the argument by locating
26 judicial narratives at the center of minority governance in pluri-legal states. Section Two outlines
27 the research design, data, and methods. Section Three maps cross-national variation in narrational
28 cohesion across Israel, India, Greece, and Ghana. Section Four examines how narrational cohesion,
29 when it encounters a ripe extrajudicial environment, can facilitate socio-legal reform. Section Five
30 turns to the opposite configuration, showing how narrational incohesion—and cohesive exclusion—
31 drive legal estrangement by eroding trust and belonging. The conclusion situates the findings
32 within broader debates on courts in pluri-legal societies and the governance of religious
33 differences.
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3 NARRATIVES: THE MISSING LINK IN PLURI-LEGAL MINORITY GOVERNANCE
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7 Dominant accounts of courts in pluri-legal societies emphasize institutional design, particularly
8 jurisdictional rules, the constitutional status of religious law, and communal autonomy.⁶ Such
9 accounts posit that similarly structured personal status regimes should produce similar political
10 effects.⁷ Yet this expectation is contradicted by the cases examined here. Israel and Greece, for
11 example, share *millet*-inspired personal status systems and comparable levels of securitization of
12 their respective Muslim populations, yet exhibit sharply divergent trajectories of reform and legal
13 estrangement.⁸ By shifting attention from institutional design to the narratives through which
14 courts speak, this article identifies the narrative cohesion as a missing mechanism linking courts
15 in pluri-legal states to broader patterns of minority governance and state-society relations.

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29 Political scientists working in the field of law and courts—especially in U.S. contexts—
30 have developed influential models of judicial decision-making, most notably attitudinal, strategic,
31 and institutional approaches, which are indispensable for understanding why judges decide cases
32 as they do.⁹ These models are highly effective at identifying ideological, strategic, and contextual
33 factors that influence judicial choices and case outcomes, particularly at the level of individual
34 judges, panels, or specific courts. However, they are less well suited to explaining how non-
35 Muslim courts, across the judicial hierarchy—from district-level family courts to superior courts—
36 adjudicate MFL disputes. Specifically, existing models leave under-theorized the normative
37 frames or narratives through which courts make sense of Muslim law and communities, how
38 consistent these narratives are across time and forums, and when they resonate with—or fail to
39 resonate in—the surrounding society. This article treats judicial narratives as a meso-level variable
40 linking micro-level decision-making to macro-level outcomes in legal mobilization, procedural
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3 justice, regulation of ethno-religious diversity and state-society relations. In this sense, the four-
4 country comparison does not simply reapply familiar decision-making models; it shows that their
5 explanatory power depends crucially on the consistency and social resonance of the narratives
6 judges employ.
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14 This explanatory gap becomes most visible in the everyday adjudication of MFL disputes,
15 where judges operate under institutional and professional constraints. MFLs, derived from
16 Qur'anic and prophetic injunctions,¹⁰ are rarely fully codified in non-Muslim jurisdictions,
17 requiring judges to rely on precedent, secondary literature, and religious sources when applying
18 them. This challenge is compounded by the fact that most civil judges are non-Muslim¹¹ and
19 generally lack formal training in Islamic law, competence in Arabic, and familiarity with the
20 customs and values of the Muslim communities whose disputes they adjudicate. Moreover, MFLs
21 often occupy an ambiguous place within the domestic system hierarchically, leading many courts
22 to treat them as immune from full constitutional scrutiny. Against this backdrop, narratives assume
23 a critical role in judicial decision-making. In the absence of explicit statutory guidance and amid
24 pervasive judicial unfamiliarity, narratives supply judges with the interpretive frames, master
25 stories, and justificatory tropes they rely on to make sense of Muslim law, identity, and belonging.
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42 Legal scholarship underwent a narrational turn in the early 1980s.¹² Since then, an expanding
43 body of scholarship has examined how narratives influence legal discourse, particularly in the
44 adversarial framework of criminal law.¹³ Over the subsequent decades, narrative studies in law
45 developed into a rich scholarly field. Alongside courtroom storytelling, socio-legal scholars have
46 explored how narratives shape the broader ecosystem of legality. Haltom and McCann, in
47 *Distorting the Law*,¹⁴ trace how political operatives, journalists, and interest groups crafted highly
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3 stylized “tort tales” that helped manufacture the so-called American litigation crisis and reshape
4 public opinion. Engel’s “The Oven Bird’s Song...,”¹⁵ and later his work with Munger,¹⁶
5 demonstrate how injury stories relate to legal consciousness, including why individuals so often
6 refrain from mobilizing the law even when harmed. Ewick and Silbey, in *The Common Place of*
7 *Law*,¹⁷ further expand this perspective by showing how everyday narratives shape the way ordinary
8 people imagine legality and their own relationship to state authority. Despite this vibrant literature,
9 how judicial narratives enable courts to exercise governing authority beyond the courtroom—
10 particularly in regulating ethno-religious differences—remains underexplored.¹⁸ This article
11 contributes to this understudied field by offering a new theoretical and methodological framework
12 for analyzing narratives in judicial decision-making and their central role in shaping legal
13 mobilization, procedural justice, and broader state-minority relations.
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30 The type of narratives examined here differs from the judicial narratives proffered by
31 criminal attorneys who compete to eventually influence the judge’s final story.¹⁹ Those are case-
32 specific ad hoc narratives that do not become determined until the judge delivers his judgment.
33 Yet the narratives observed in the MFL decisions of non-Muslim courts are predetermined
34 “master” or “meta” narratives which serve as foundational stories, or Goffmanian frames, through
35 which legal cases are understood and decided.²⁰ They begin to take shape before any words in a
36 judicial opinion are written.²¹
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47 Such master narratives are not the products of individual judges’ imagination but emerge
48 from collective modes of thought, alternative ways of interpreting historical experience, social
49 norms and relations.²² In Balkin’s words, they provide historical and social scripts for analysis and
50 interaction.²³ Courts continually invoke such constructs—sometimes consciously, often
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3 subconsciously—when adjudicating MFL cases. These narratives serve multiple purposes: they
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5 justify outcomes, persuade lower courts that a particular course of action is correct, and
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7 communicate with communities whose behavior and beliefs the judiciary seeks to influence.
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9 Robert Cover, who stated, “no set of legal institutions or prescriptions exists apart from the
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11 narratives that locate it and give it meaning,”²⁴ was the pioneering legal scholar who aptly
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13 understood the complex role and power of narratives in sustaining, reshaping, and validating
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15 normative worlds.
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20 Cover’s work remains instrumental for understanding the narrative foundations of law. His
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22 central insight—that state law exists within a broader normative universe generated by multiple
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24 communities, each producing its own legal meanings—reoriented jurisprudence toward narrative,
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26 legal pluralism, and the jurisgenerative power of non-state groups. Yet a major limitation of
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28 Cover’s theory is that it treats state courts as top-down mono-narrative institutions: their function,
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30 in his account, is to select a single authoritative meaning and extinguish all competing ones. This
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32 article, adopting a Migdalian state-in-society²⁵ approach, extends that framework by showing that
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34 courts in pluri-legal systems do not speak with one voice but instead draw on multiple, often
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36 conflicting, normative frameworks. In contrast to Cover’s image of narrative singularity, my
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38 approach conceptualizes courts not only as governing institutions but also as discursive sites where
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40 multiple narrative strands interact, negotiate, clash, and blend, ultimately communicating the terms
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42 on which reform and state legitimacy are mediated within communities.
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50 Plurality of judicial opinions is widely viewed as healthy for the development of law,
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52 especially in common law jurisdictions.²⁶ Narrative plurality, however, carries very different
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54 implications. The U.S. Supreme Court’s decision in *Obergefell v. Hodges* (2015) illustrates this
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3 distinction. The majority and dissents differed sharply in their conclusions, yet both operated
4 within a shared constitutional narrative.²⁷ In other words, their disagreement reflected divergent
5 opinions, not divergent narratives. Had the justices grounded their reasoning in different narratives
6 (such as a biblical-morality narrative versus a fundamental-rights narrative), the decision would
7 have reflected narrativ pluralism rather than doctrinal debate. As Dworkin argues, law's integrity
8 requires that judges maintain a commitment to narrativ cohesion and consistency.²⁸ Sander
9 likewise shows in the context of international criminal courts that while some narrativ diversity
10 is inevitable, competing foundational narratives risk fragmenting the legal order rather than
11 enriching it.²⁹ In sum, judicial opinions can disagree productively when they operate within the
12 same overarching narrative; but when courts deploy multiple conflicting narratives, even to justify
13 similar outcomes, the result is not doctrinal innovation but narrativ incohesion and uncertainty.
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30 As noted, personal status systems place different ethno-religious groups under distinct laws
31 rather than subjecting all citizens to a uniform civil code. Historically, such pluri-legal regimes
32 have functioned less as expressions of multicultural accommodation than as instruments of
33 minority governance, structuring how difference is managed within the state.³⁰ The four cases
34 examined here follow this pattern. Each incorporates MFL into their national legal system as part
35 of a broader strategy for governing the internal affairs of highly securitized Muslim populations—
36 an arrangement shaped by historical relations between majority and minority communities and, in
37 many instances, by geopolitical considerations involving neighboring kin states.
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49 Within these governance arrangements, courts do not merely apply law; they actively
50 participate in defining the terms of minority incorporation. Judges who preside over MFL cases in
51 Muslim-minority states overwhelmingly belong to the majority community and therefore approach
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3 such disputes with preexisting assumptions about the proper place of MFL within the national
4 legal order—whether it should be accommodated, restricted, or ultimately abolished. Where these
5 attitudes toward MFL converge across the judiciary, shaped by shared ideological commitments,
6 professional norms, and institutional incentives and constraints, courts tend to articulate stable and
7 recurring narrative frames. Where they diverge, courts generate competing, fragmented, or
8 internally contradictory narratives. Crucially, the forces that generate these patterns of (in)cohesion
9 are deeply path-dependent,³¹ reflecting the legacies of late colonial rule and early state-building
10 experiences that structured how MFLs were initially incorporated, contested, and understood
11 within national legal systems.³²

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25 Using a novel test to assess narrational (in)cohesion across judicial levels, forums, and time,
26 the article argues that narrational incohesion carries three analytically distinct implications for the
27 rule of law and state-minority relations. One implication concerns the over-politicization of
28 judicial decision-making, a dynamic especially pronounced in common law systems and examined
29 elsewhere.³³ This article instead focuses on the remaining two implications, which speak directly
30 to the influence of narratives over state-minority relations. First, narrational incohesion weakens the
31 prospects for internal reform within minority communities by sending conflicting normative
32 signals that complicate efforts to harmonize communal norms with state law. Second, narrational
33 incohesion also erodes trust in the judiciary and fosters legal estrangement, as minorities constantly
34 hear contradictory stories about who they are and what their rights are vis-à-vis the majority-run
35 institutions.

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39 The first of these implications concerns internal reform and normative harmonization. As
40 Andersen³⁴ and Lobel³⁵ demonstrate, it is often the framing of a judicial decision—rather than its

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3 doctrinal holding alone—that structures the interpretive processes through which communities
4 negotiate internal change. Building on this insight, the article argues that when courts embed their
5 rulings in coherent, rights-affirming narratives, and when those narratives resonate with communal
6 values and are taken up by internal actors, the prospects for internal reform increase substantially.
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8 This is the logic of harmonization: a feedback loop in which ethno-religious communities
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10 selectively recalibrate their internal legal meanings in response to persistent and normatively clear
11 messages conveyed by state courts.³⁶ Put differently, narrativ cohesion, when it encounters a
12 receptive environment, provides stable interpretive cues that reformers can appropriate to contest
13 entrenched norms from within. The degree of communal receptiveness to such narratives, captured
14 by the ripeness test, helps explain when judicial framing catalyzes reform and when it does not.
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27 The second implication of narrativ incohesion concerns procedural justice and, more
28 broadly, legal estrangement. Classic procedural justice theory³⁷ emphasizes individuals' direct
29 encounters with courts, yet in pluri-legal systems, only a small fraction of minority citizens ever
30 resort to state courts. As a result, perceptions of legality are shaped primarily through vicarious
31 experience—stories, observations, and collective memories of how “people like us” are treated.
32 Drawing on Bell's concept,³⁸ this article argues that narrativ incohesion deepens legal
33 estrangement by linking procedural injustice to vicarious marginalization and structural exclusion.
34 It generates a collective belief among minorities that the law governs without recognizing their
35 culture, which mirrors Lazarev's account of legal alienation in Chechnya.³⁹ Incoherent judicial
36 narratives (e.g., declaring religious practices as constitutionally protected in one case and unlawful
37 in another) deepen perceptions of arbitrariness and bias. Over time, these perceptions erode trust,
38 widen social distance, and encourage disengagement from state courts. In this sense, narrativ
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3 incohesion molds state-minority relations not through isolated courtroom encounters, but through
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5 the gradual build-up of estrangement.
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9 The preceding discussion specifies a set of analytically distinct but interrelated concepts—
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11 narrational cohesion, social ripeness, and legal estrangement—that structure the article’s
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13 explanatory framework. The argument implies that variation in judicial outcomes and political
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15 effects across pluri-legal systems cannot be understood without attending to how consistently
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17 courts articulate narratives over time and across judicial levels, how receptive surrounding
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19 communities are to those narratives, and how these dynamics shape perceptions of legality and
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21 belonging among Muslim minorities. The next section outlines the research design, explains the
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23 selection of cases, and details the construction of original indices used to operationalize the key
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25 variables.
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34 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

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37 This article employs a most-similar-systems design.⁴⁰ All four countries examined—Israel, India,
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39 Greece and Ghana—formally inherited state-administered MFL systems at independence, yet
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41 subsequently evolved along distinct institutional and narrational trajectories. Together, they
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43 represent a regionally diverse sample of MFL traditions spanning Southeast Europe, the Middle
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45 East, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa.
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51 Greece and Israel inherited and adapted the Ottoman *millet* system, under which MFLs
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53 continue to be administered by state-run religious courts. In both countries, civil courts exercise
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55 constitutional oversight, review religious court decisions, and intervene when they exceed their
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3 jurisdictional boundaries.⁴¹ In certain issue areas, especially in Israel, national laws recognize
4 concurrent jurisdiction, allowing civil courts to apply Islamic law in cases involving Muslim
5 litigants. India and Ghana, by contrast, inherited a British colonial model in which religion- and
6 custom-based personal laws are applied by civil courts—without the involvement of religious
7 judges—within a unified judiciary, a structure that remains in place today.⁴²
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16 The cases also vary across legal families—civil law (Greece), common law (India and
17 Ghana), and a hybrid system (Israel)—as well as constitutional and administrative arrangements.
18 India is a federal state, while Israel, Ghana, and Greece are unitary systems; Greece further limits
19 the application of MFL to the northeastern region of Thrace. The cases also differ in their
20 constitutional orientation toward religion: Greece and Israel are states with established religions
21 that shape national identity and judicial culture, whereas India and Ghana are constitutionally
22 secular but continue to grapple with religion’s enduring social and legal presence.
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33 The study relies primarily on qualitative methods, combining systematic content analysis
34 of judicial decisions with semi-structured interviews. I collected about 3,000 trial, appellate, and
35 high court decisions spanning nearly seven decades. Judgments were obtained through national
36 legal databases,⁴³ archival research, and personal connections with lawyers, activists, and litigants.
37 All judgments were digitized, and, where necessary, machine-translated, with translations verified
38 against originals during pre-coding.
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48 Relevant decisions were identified through iterative keyword searches sensitive to local
49 legal terminology and transliteration practices. All cases were read line by line and manually coded
50 using ATLAS.ti. Automated or AI-based coding tools were not used due to their limited reliability.
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3 Coding proceeded in two cycles using attribute, structural, and pattern coding techniques,⁴⁴ with
4 codes tailored to each jurisdiction's doctrinal and institutional context.
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9 This analysis enabled the identification of recurring judicial narratives and the tracing of
10 their diffusion across courts, judicial levels, issue areas, and time. On this basis, I constructed a
11 Narrativ Cohesion Index (NCI), which assesses the degree to which judicial narratives align
12 vertically between the higher and lower courts, horizontally across courts at the same level,
13 internally within individual judgments, and over time. Each dimension is scored from 0 to 2,
14 yielding an NCI score of 0–8 and classifying systems as low, medium, or high cohesion.
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24 To contextualize and validate the textual findings, I conducted over 400 semi-structured
25 interviews with judges, lawyers, activists, and litigants across the four countries who were
26 identified through snowball sampling, with multiple independent referral chains to mitigate
27 network bias.⁴⁵ Interviews were conducted in person or remotely and took place in English,
28 Hebrew, Arabic, Hindi, Urdu, Hausa, Greek, and Turkish, with translation assistance where
29 necessary. They explored how judicial narratives are understood and transmitted beyond the
30 courtroom. Many participants invoked these narratives habitually, as taken-for-granted frames for
31 understanding MFL issues. This iterative back-and-forth between case law and field interviews
32 generated data for two additional measures.
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45 First, building on Irshai and Zion-Waldoks,⁴⁶ I developed a Ripeness Index (RI) to assess
46 when judicial narratives are likely to gain traction within Muslim communities—that is, when they
47 are accepted, mobilized, and internalized by activists. Ripeness is operationalized along five
48 dimensions: communal resonance, the presence of interlocutors, internal unity or division,
49 receptivity of religious authorities, and historical continuity. Each dimension is scored on a 0-2
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3 scale, producing an overall ripeness score (0-10) that classifies cases as exhibiting low, medium,
4
5 or high ripeness.
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9 Second, drawing on Bell,⁴⁷ I constructed a Legal Estrangement Index (LEI) to measure the
10 extent to which judicial narratives influence minority communities' sense of trust, belonging, and
11 alienation vis-à-vis the legal system. The index has three dimensions: (1) procedural (in)justice,
12 proxied by levels of trust in family courts; (2) vicarious experience, reflected in the prevailing
13 stories communities share about others' encounters with the law; and (3) legal exclusion or
14 belonging, assessed by whether courts are experienced as "our" institutions or as the law of the
15 majority—each scored on a 0-2 scale. The resulting total score (0-6) classifies communities into
16 low, medium, or high levels of legal estrangement. All three indices are additive and summarized
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31 As with all comparative qualitative research, the methods employed in this study have
32 certain limitations. First, content analysis has well-known constraints.⁴⁸ Despite adherence to best
33 practices, the coding process inevitably reflects the subjective reading of the coder, in this case,
34 the author. The second limitation concerns the representativeness of the dataset. In all four
35 jurisdictions, only a small fraction of decisions is accessible through databases. Although I
36 supplemented publicly available data with cases obtained through personal contacts, the overall
37 representativeness of the corpus remains uncertain, as no reliable record exists of how many MFL
38 judgments are issued annually, or how many are reported or stored in any form. Finally, the
39 author's positionality as a researcher working across diverse legal, linguistic, and cultural
40 traditions may have also influenced both access to participants and the information shared during
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3 interviews.⁴⁹ These considerations are characteristic of comparative qualitative research and are
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5 noted here to provide appropriate context for interpreting the findings.
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11 12 NARRATIVAL COHESION: THEORY, MEASUREMENT, AND CROSS-NATIONAL 13 14 VARIATION 15 16 17

18 As noted, narratival cohesion across national MFL systems is driven primarily by ideological and
19
20 professional consensus within the judiciary, conditioned by path-dependent attitudes toward Islam
21
22 and Muslim minorities rooted in collective memories of nation-building, national ethos, and
23
24 perceived security threats. Where judges converge around a shared understanding of whether MFL
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26 should be accommodated or excluded, judicial narratives tend to be cohesive. Where such
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28 consensus is absent, narratival incohesion emerges.
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33 Cohesion refers to the internal and external consistency of the narratives courts employ to
34
35 adjudicate MFL disputes. Where cohesion is high, a clear and stable message emerges regarding
36
37 the normative status and legitimacy of MFL, as well as the rights and obligations of those subject
38
39 to it. Through repeated and convergent reasoning, judicial actors collectively author coherent
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41 narratives that stabilize expectations among litigants, bureaucrats, and judges across all levels of
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43 the judiciary.⁵⁰ In such settings, even when individual opinions vary, the legitimacy of MFL as an
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45 integral part of the national system is not contested, and adjudication does not oscillate between
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47 competing sources of authority—for example, grounding rights in constitutional principles in one
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49 case and in Qur'anic text in another.
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Where cohesion is low, by contrast, narrativial divergence produces vertical inconsistency between higher and lower courts, horizontal fragmentation across courts at the same level, or internal contradiction within individual judgments. Courts may continue to speak authoritatively, but they do so in conflicting normative registers, for example, affirming the constitutional legitimacy of Muslim marriages or inheritance rules in one line of cases while casting them as foreign, incompatible with national norms and morality, in another. Over time, such mixed signaling undermines the rule of law, erodes trust in courts among minorities, and weakens both judicial legitimacy and the prospects for internal reform.

Against this theoretical backdrop, the remainder of this section introduces each country briefly, explaining why Israel and Ghana exhibit high cohesion, while Greece displays medium cohesion and India approaches medium-low cohesion. The subsequent sections then examine how these differing levels of cohesion influence internal reform trajectories and experiences of legal estrangement.

Table 1. Narrativial Cohesion Across National MFL Systems

Country	Vertical Alignment	Horizontal Alignment	Internal Coherence	Temporal Stability	Total Cohesion (NCI score)
Israel	2	2	2	2	8 (High)
Ghana	2	2	2	2	8 (High)
Greece	0	1	2	2	5 (Medium)
India	1	1	0	1	3 (Med.-Low)

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3 *Israel: High Cohesion*
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6 Table 1 shows that the Israeli judiciary exhibits a high degree of narrational cohesion in MFL cases.
7
8 MFL operates within a broader pluri-legal personal status framework rooted in shared jurisdiction
9
10 between the religious courts of fourteen ethno-religious communities and the civil family courts.
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12 Under this system, Muslims⁵¹ are subject to shari‘a courts,⁵² which exercise exclusive jurisdiction
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14 over marriage and divorce and concurrent jurisdiction with civil family courts in all other matters.
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16 Civil courts apply Islamic law in some areas (e.g., maintenance, alimony), and secular legislation
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18 in others (e.g., custody, inheritance). The High Court of Justice (HCJ) reviews both family court
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20 decisions and rulings of the Shari‘a Court of Appeals (SCA) to ensure compliance with national
21
22 legislation, principles of natural justice, and jurisdictional limits.
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28 The founders of Israel deliberately constructed this pluri-legal system as a central pillar of
29
30 the nation-building project. Established as a Jewish state by largely European immigrants in a
31
32 territory where Arabic-speaking natives constituted the majority, Israel faced from its inception
33
34 the dual challenge of forging a unified Jewish national identity while governing a non-Jewish
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36 population positioned outside that collective. The *millet*-like⁵³ personal status system served these
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38 aims simultaneously by enabling horizontal homogenization among Jews—through intermarriage
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40 across diverse Jewish communities—while enforcing vertical segmentation by prohibiting
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42 intercommunal marriage among natives and between Jews and non-Jews.⁵⁴
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50 Within this framework, the state’s accommodation of MFL through the incorporation of
51
52 shari‘a courts became an integral component of minority governance. Jewish elites, including
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54 members of the judiciary, largely converged around the guiding principles of this arrangement.
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3 Interviews indicate that nearly all Jewish judges endorsed the system in one form or another. As
4 one retired family court judge explained, Islamic law was widely understood as a “normative
5 fence” to be preserved rather than dismantled to sustain the ethno-genealogical unity of the
6 majority community and the Jewish character of the state.⁵⁵
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14 This shared ideological commitment has been the primary driver of high narrational
15 cohesion. Content analysis of MFL-related case law shows that, from the lowest civil family courts
16 to the HCJ at the top, judicial narratives display strong horizontal, vertical, internal, and temporal
17 alignment; whatever issue- and level-specific variations exist do not conflict but instead operate in
18 tandem.
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30 *Ghana: High Cohesion*

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33 The Ghanaian judiciary also demonstrates a high degree of narrational cohesion, though the forces
34 that produced it operated in the opposite direction. Whereas in Israel, ideological and professional
35 consensus coalesced around accommodating MFL, in Ghana, it converged on excluding it from
36 the purview of the national courts.
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44 The formal basis for the application of Islamic law in Ghana lies in colonial-era legislation,
45 the Mohammedan Marriage Ordinance (MMO) of 1907, which recognized registered Muslim
46 marriages and divorces and vested colonial courts with jurisdiction to regulate their consequences
47 and succession disputes according to Islamic law.⁵⁶ The British enacted the legislation to co-opt
48 the Muslim Hausa population⁵⁷ in the Gold Coast at a time when Mahdist⁵⁸ movements threatened
49 colonial authority in the wider region. However, colonial officials soon came to regard the
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3 ordinance as a mistake. They gradually undermined its application by constructing an official
4 narrative that Islamic law did not properly belong within the Ghanaian legal system.⁵⁹
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9 The post-independence judiciary inherited this narrative and further institutionalized it
10 through influential jurists such as Justice Ollennu of the Supreme Court, who also served as
11 Speaker of Parliament and Acting President. Interviews conducted in 2017 in Accra, Kumasi, and
12 Tamale indicate that nearly all judges and state attorneys had internalized the view that Islamic
13 law did not properly belong within the Ghanaian judicial system. Respondents repeatedly
14 emphasized what they described as the foreign origins of Islam and “Mohammedan law,”
15 portraying it as incompatible with Ghanaian values and ways of life. This same exclusionary
16 orientation is also evident in both colonial and postcolonial case law, where courts have
17 consistently rejected MFL claims on procedural grounds, refusing to engage their merits and
18 thereby denying Muslim law normative legitimacy and even juridical existence. In parallel,
19 bureaucratic agencies have undermined implementation by weakening the registration machinery
20 necessary to activate the MMO. These judicial and administrative practices reflect a rejectionist
21 narrative that has remained highly coherent over time and across all dimensions measured.⁶⁰
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40 *Greece: Medium Cohesion*

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43 Greece presents a case of medium narrational cohesion. MFL applies not nationally but only in the
44 northeastern region of Thrace, bordering Türkiye, where *mufti* tribunals⁶¹ have long exercised
45 jurisdiction over the autochthonous Muslim minority.⁶² This geographically and institutionally
46 limited arrangement, however, did not translate into narrational clarity. Civil courts frequently
47 disagreed over whether *mufti* jurisdiction was compulsory and over the scope of its subject-matter
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3 authority, with this uncertainty most pronounced before Law No. 4511/2018, which made recourse
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5 to MFL contingent on the consent of the parties.
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9 Greece preserved *mufti* tribunals pursuant to bilateral treaties with the Ottoman Empire and
10
11 later Türkiye.⁶³ Since the 1920s, security-minded elites in Athens have deliberately emphasized
12
13 the largely Turkish-speaking minority's Islamic character over its ethnic identity to insulate it
14
15 against secular Turkish nationalism and to minimize the perceived "threat from the East." Mustafa
16
17 Mustafa, a Member of Parliament from the Coalition of the Radical Left (SYRIZA), openly
18
19 acknowledged this policy during the parliamentary debates on Law No. 4511/2018: "The
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21 preservation of shari'a was a choice of our state, which was trapped in the theory of the
22
23 religionization...and the de-Turkification of the minority...We invested in the shari'a and the
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25 *muftis*...And this crooked policy continues to this day."⁶⁴ Within this securitized⁶⁵ framework,
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27 *mufti* tribunals came to function as central pillars of state policy in the region.
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33 Legally speaking, decisions of *mufti* tribunals are enforceable only after review by local
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35 civil courts for constitutionality and compliance with the European Convention on Human
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37 Rights.⁶⁶ Greek courts, unlike their Israeli counterparts, do not apply Islamic law; they do,
38
39 however, frequently settle jurisdictional questions concerning *mufti* tribunals, such as whether
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41 child custody falls within their purview or whether Muslim Thracians may bypass Islamic
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43 inheritance rules by executing civil wills.⁶⁷ The Greek judiciary—which includes no Muslim
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45 judges⁶⁸—has responded to these questions by deploying competing narratives.⁶⁹ My interviews
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47 with former judges who served in Athens and Thrace suggest that members of the judiciary largely
48
49 shared the securitized state policy toward the minority and MFL.⁷⁰ Yet regional courts and the
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51 apex court diverged sharply on how best to address the perceived "threat."
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3 The Supreme Court of Cassation (ScoC), located in Athens, consistently advanced a
4 compulsory-shari‘a narrative.⁷¹ This insistence has been widely interpreted as an extension of the
5 securitized state policy aimed at reinforcing the minority’s religious identity over its ethnic identity
6 to counter Turkish influence in the border region. Lower court judges, especially those in Thrace,
7 by contrast, often favored limiting *mufti* jurisdiction or abolishing it altogether, advocating a
8 narrative of optional access to civil courts.⁷² Many local judges held the view that the continued
9 existence of separate *mufti* tribunals and compulsorily subjecting Muslims to shari‘a hindered
10 minority integration and, paradoxically, served Türkiye’s interests more than those of Athens in
11 the region.
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25 These competing narratives generated significant vertical divergence and some horizontal
26 fragmentation. Although judges broadly agree on a securitized framing of the minority issues, their
27 disagreement over appropriate institutional responses has prevented full cohesion. The result is
28 medium cohesion: a partial narrational alignment marked by unresolved ideological disagreement,
29 particularly between the apex court in Athens and lower courts in Thrace.
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41 *India: Medium-Low Cohesion*

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45 India exhibits medium-low judicial narrational cohesion, driven by deep ideological divisions
46 within the judiciary over the role of MFL within the national legal system. At independence in
47 1947, India inherited from the British a plural family law system in which civil courts apply distinct
48 personal laws to individuals according to their religious affiliation. As part of this framework,
49 courts apply MFL, which remains largely uncodified, to Indian Muslims.⁷³ However, since the
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3 early 1980s, the question of MFL has become a highly divisive one, pitting judges aligned with
4
5 the Congress-era tradition of pluralist accommodation against those associated with the rising
6
7 Hindutva (Hindu supremacy) movement, which seeks to abolish separate personal laws,
8
9 particularly MFL, in favor of a uniform, Hindu-inspired civil code.⁷⁴
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14 Content analysis reveals that these ideological divisions have produced competing judicial
15
16 narratives over time. Furthermore, compared to Greece's unitary civil law system,⁷⁵ India's federal
17
18 common law structure encourages dissents, producing an even deeper form of narrational
19
20 fragmentation. In India, incohesion thus manifests not only vertically and horizontally across
21
22 courts, but also internally within individual judgments: intra-bench divisions and political
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24 pressures to address multiple audiences often result in decisions that articulate multiple, and at
25
26 times conflicting, narratives within individual decisions. Informants, including judges and
27
28 attorneys, widely acknowledged that this condition is undesirable and carries negative implications
29
30 for the rule of law, but attributed it to communalization, political polarization, and sustained
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32 pressures on the judiciary. As one former High Court judge put it, "in uncertain times, ambiguity
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34 becomes a strategy...You appear to say many things, but ultimately you say nothing."⁷⁶
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40 Therefore, India approaches low cohesion. Judicial narratives neither converge on
41
42 accommodation nor exclusion, leaving MFL in a state of persistent uncertainty. This narrational
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44 incohesion has significant implications for reform trajectories and how Indian Muslims experience
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46 the state law and power, explored below.
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54 WHEN COHESION MEETS RIPENESS: THE CONDITIONS FOR SOCIO-LEGAL REFORM
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3 Judicial narratives are important to understand not only for how courts think, but also for whether
4 their messages affect the world beyond the courtroom and bring about socio-legal change. For this
5 to happen, judicial narratives must be coherent, and the surrounding extrajudicial environment
6 must be sufficiently ripe to receive and internalize them. Cohesion concerns whether courts speak
7 in a clear and internally consistent voice, avoiding mixed signals. Ripeness, by contrast, indicates
8 whether social, political, institutional, and intra-community conditions are conducive to absorbing
9 narratives into action. In other words, the confluence of narrative cohesion and extrajudicial
10 ripeness creates favorable conditions for socio-legal reform.
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23 Reform typically unfolds through a process of harmonization mediated by interlocutors
24 within affected communities—such as feminist activists—who act as conduits between courts and
25 society. During my field work, women’s rights advocates consistently reported paying close
26 attention to judicial narratives in, especially rights-affirming, MFL decisions, focusing not only on
27 outcomes but also on how courts framed their reasoning. They assessed whether narratives aligned
28 with their reform agendas and resonated with prevailing communal values and, when they did,
29 appropriated and vernacularized judicial language to counter resistance from religious authorities
30 and conservative actors. Through this process, judicial narratives entered communal discourse
31 about familial, spousal rights and obligations. As interlocutors continued mobilizing courts for
32 favorable rulings and sustained internal advocacy, these narratives deepened over time, shaping
33 expectations within the community. Religious authorities, in turn, often compromised—either in
34 response to internal pressure or to avoid further confrontation with state law—culminating in the
35 establishment of new rules governing contested practices.
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3 As mentioned, ripeness is operationalized along five dimensions. The more a judicial
4 narrative resonates with communal values, avoids deepening existing divisions or creating new
5 ones, is tolerated by religious authorities rather than openly resisted, and endures over time, the
6 more likely it is to meet the conditions of ripeness necessary for meaningful socio-legal change.
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8 Table 2, which reports ripeness scores across all four communities, identifies the Israeli Muslim
9 community as having the ripest extrajudicial context. Combined with the Israeli judiciary's high
10 cohesion scores in Table 1, this configuration makes Israel the paradigmatic case of how cohesion
11 and ripeness interact to produce socio-legal change, most clearly illustrated in the domain of child
12 custody.
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25 In the field of custody, Israeli law requires religious courts to set aside religious rules and
26 instead apply the Legal Capacity and Guardianship Law (LCGL) of 1962, which prioritizes the
27 child's best interests.⁷⁷ Consistent with this mandate, the civil judiciary—particularly the HCJ and
28 the family courts—articulated a cohesive narrative centered on the child's welfare. Following
29 internal restructuring in 1994, however, the shari'a courts' own custody narrative moved in the
30 opposite direction. A new directive by the chief *qadi* barred regional *qadis* from applying the
31 LCGL and instead required reliance on rigid age presumptions and rules about mothers' marital-
32 status derived from religious law. From the mid-1990s onward, these competing narratives clashed
33 openly. In several high-profile cases,⁷⁸ the HCJ overturned shari'a court rulings, requiring them to
34 base their decisions on individualized welfare assessments rather than categorical religious
35 presumptions. Through these decisions, the civil courts consolidated a coherent custody narrative
36 that aligned closely with the demands of Muslim women systematically disadvantaged under
37 shari'a law.
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Table 2. Extrajudicial Ripeness across Muslim-Minority Contexts and Legal Domains

Community / Issue	Resonance	Interlocutors	Unity	Religious Receptivity	Durability	Total Ripeness (RI score)
Israeli Muslims (<i>Custody</i>)	2	2	2	2	2	10/10 (High)
Greek Muslims (<i>Inheritance</i>)	2	0	2	1	2	7/10 (Med.-High)
Indian Muslims (<i>Triple Talaq</i>)	1	1	0	0-1	1	3-4/10 (Low-Med.)
Ghanaian Muslims (<i>Exclusion of Islamic Law</i>)	0	0	2	0	0	2/10 (Low)

In the Arab sector, secular women's organizations—most prominently Kayan—played a pivotal role in sustaining this narrative by helping women file custody petitions before civil courts to challenge patriarchal presumptions of shari'a courts. Religious feminist groups such as Nisā' wa-Āfāq worked toward vernacularization by developing Islamic arguments that framed women-friendly custody arrangements as compatible with shari'a rather than as secular impositions.⁷⁹ These actors attended not only to judicial outcomes but to narrative framing, internalizing the language of the child's best interests to resonate with communal values while limiting internal polarization. As litigation and internal advocacy intensified, pressure mounted on the shari'a establishment, which—seeking to preserve institutional legitimacy and avoid further H CJ intervention—recast custody doctrine through Islamic concepts such as *maṣlaḥa* and *maqāṣid al-sharī'a*.⁸⁰ The process culminated in not just the creation of new rules but also a robust socio-legal transformation accompanied by a new normative frame that was largely internalized within the community. This internalization was evident in my interviews, particularly with female litigants, who expressed near-unanimous support for the narrative.

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3 By contrast, the Greek case shows how partial cohesion can delay reform even when social
4 practices are already aligned with egalitarian norms. MFL in Greece is not codified but applied as
5 unwritten “customary” law by *muftis*. Through ethnographic research in the region, I observed that
6 communal practices among local Muslims diverged sharply from classical Islamic law, especially
7 with respect to property relations. For example, community members—including sitting *muftis*—
8 who frequently referred to their laws as “light shari‘a,” openly rejected gender-discriminatory
9 inheritance rules, and routinely distributed property equally through *inter vivos* transfers or civil
10 wills.⁸¹ In other words, at the communal level, everyday practice and narrative were largely
11 egalitarian and ripe for reform.
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25 Yet judicial narratives failed to align with these practices. When heirs challenged civil
26 wills, lower courts in Thrace often upheld Muslims’ right to opt out of Islamic jurisdiction, relying
27 on a narrative of choice that treated shari‘a as optional in property relations. The SCoC, however,
28 repeatedly overturned these rulings, insisting that Muslims were mandatorily subject to Islamic
29 law as a matter of treaty obligation. Operating from Athens and largely detached from local
30 realities, the apex court advanced a narrative that framed shari‘a as an essential component of
31 securitized minority governance. This conflicting judicial messaging—confounded by intense
32 geostrategic anxieties and the rivalry between the Greek and Turkish intelligence agencies in
33 Thrace—also undermined narrational harmonization by discouraging the emergence of
34 interlocutors among local Muslims capable of contesting the judicial narratives that were at odds
35 with people’s lived experiences.⁸²
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51 Unlike Israel, where cohesive judicial narratives interacted with social ripeness to produce
52 endogenous reform, change in Greece emerged only after external intervention. Two Greek
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3 academics stepped into the interlocutory vacuum left by communal actors and brought the issue
4 before the European Court of Human Rights. The application and the subsequent judgment of
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6 *Molla Sali v. Greece* (2018) triggered legislative changes, making recourse to shari‘a optional.
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8 Only after this externally induced shift did Greek courts begin to align their narratives coherently
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10 with existing communal practices, as heightened social ripeness around inheritance finally
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12 converged with judicial cohesion to make the socio-legal change complete.
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18 India, with judicial cohesion at the low end of the medium range and low-to-medium
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20 extrajudicial ripeness, illustrates how socio-legal reform is stalled. Since colonial times, the Indian
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22 judiciary—particularly the Supreme Court and state High Courts—has addressed the so-called
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24 triple *talaq*⁸³ disputes using multiple, and often conflicting, frames rather than a consistent
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26 narrative. These include a non-intervention narrative that treats MFL as a protected minority
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28 domain; religious narratives debating whether triple *talaq* is grounded in Islamic text and tradition;
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30 secularist narratives portraying the practice as antithetical to India’s secular principles;
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32 femonationalist narratives that exploit gender issues surrounding triple *talaq* for majoritarian
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34 politics; and fundamental-rights narratives framing triple *talaq* as unconstitutional. Different
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36 benches invoke different combinations of these frames without resolving their tensions, producing
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38 fragmented and often contradictory judicial messaging about the legitimacy of Muslim law and
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40 culture in India.
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47 The extrajudicial environment mirrors this fragmentation along all dimensions measured.
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49 Normative resonance varies sharply across audiences: conservative religious bodies and many
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51 ordinary believers gravitate toward non-intervention and religious frames, while women’s
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53 organizations and liberal groups engage selectively with rights-based and reformist religious
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3 narratives. The field of interlocutors is also deeply divided, encompassing women's NGOs, public-
4 interest litigators, Hindu supremacist actors, conservative *ulama* such as the All-India Muslim
5 Personal Law Board, and reformist religious scholars—each mobilizing rival narratives rather than
6
7 converging around a shared frame. As a result, communal unity remains low, as debates over triple
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9 *talaq* generate accusations of co-optation, betrayal, and Islamophobia, while religious authority is
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11 divided into competing camps that selectively endorse narratives aligned with patriarchal,
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13 reformist, or majoritarian agendas. In this fractured and unreceptive environment, the Supreme
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15 Court's decision in *Shayara Bano v. Union of India* (2017) was issued against conditions ill-suited
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17 to transformative harmonization. Its internally convoluted narratives and the following
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19 criminalization law reinforced existing divisions and failed to establish a clear or authoritative
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21 standard for Islamic divorce, producing little lasting socio-legal change.⁸⁴
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30 The Israeli, Greek, and Indian cases suggest that judicial narratives do not merely succeed
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32 or fail in producing reform; they also shape whether law is experienced as legitimate or as an alien
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34 imposition. The next section turns to legal estrangement, examining how narrational incohesion—
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36 and exclusionary cohesion—can deepen the normative gap between courts and the communities
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38 they govern by generating distrust and alienation.
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WHEN COHESION FAILS OR EXCLUDES: THE RISE OF LEGAL ESTRANGEMENT

(In)Cohesion thus structures two divergent pathways through which judicial narratives travel beyond the courtroom. Where narratives are cohesive and encounter receptive environments, they can facilitate reform; where they are fragmented, they instead foster legal estrangement among minority populations by generating perceptions of distrust, exclusion, and uncertainty. As noted earlier, the LEI was developed to capture this perception of estrangement among Muslim minorities by measuring how they relate to civil family courts; the results are reported in Table 3, which reveals sharp cross-national differences.

Israel stands out with a medium level of estrangement, reflecting relatively higher trust in courts than in the other cases, alongside ambivalent perceptions of legal belonging and mixed vicarious experiences. By contrast, India, Ghana, and Greece—though less extreme than the other two—exhibit uniformly high estrangement across all three dimensions. In all three countries, Muslims report low trust in civil courts, overwhelmingly perceive the legal system as belonging to the majority rather than to them, and hear predominantly negative stories about others' encounters with the judiciary. This convergence of institutional distrust, symbolic and lived exclusion, and negative collective memory produces deeply alienated legal subjectivities: civil courts are experienced less as neutral arbiters and more as arenas of cultural, religious, or political domination.

Table 3. Legal Estrangement Across National MFL Systems

Country	Procedural (in)Justice— Trust in family courts (%)	Legal Exclusion	Vicarious Experience	Total Estrangement (LEI score)
Israel	1 (62%) *	1	1	3/6 (Medium)
Greece	2 (18%) *	2	1	5/6 (High)
India	2 (30%) *	2	2	6/6 (High)
Ghana	2 (18%) *	2	2	6/6 (High)

* The trust scores are obtained through the author's in-depth interviews with Muslim minority members in each country.

Interviews with Muslim informants suggest that the relationship between narrational cohesion and legal estrangement is conditional, not linear. Cohesion appears to reduce estrangement only when the judiciary speaks with an inclusionary voice, one that treats MFL as a legitimate object of legal governance rather than as a normatively suspect domain to be abolished or ignored. Israel, a high-cohesion/medium-estrangement case, illustrates this scenario. As noted, Israel has a dualistic system in which Muslim litigants have access to both civil and religious courts. Shari'a courts already command high trust and respect among Muslims.⁸⁵ Yet Table 3 shows that civil courts—used by only about 10% of Muslims—also command relatively high levels of trust,⁸⁶ higher than in any other country studied, even as Muslims express ambivalent feelings about legal belonging and mixed vicarious experiences due to the state's exclusionary and discriminatory policies.⁸⁷

Interviews suggest that this relative trust stems from the cohesion of judicial narratives, as one lawyer put it, "If each court tells a different story, you never know where you stand. But in Israel, the shari'a courts and the civil courts echo some of the same values. That consistency creates

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3 trust.”⁸⁸ The consistency, in turn, appears to reinforce perceptions of procedural fairness and
4 thereby curb legal estrangement. A Muslim woman who petitioned before a family court
5 explained: “When the judge gave his decision, it was...exactly what I had expected...[I]t matched
6 what I had heard from others...the ruling was fair. It gave me more confidence [about the
7 system].”⁸⁹ In brief, limited data suggest Israeli Muslims experience family courts as relatively fair
8 and normatively receptive, a configuration that tempers estrangement and renders the system more
9 legitimate than in the other three cases.
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20 Cohesion, however, is not normatively neutral. When cohesion forms around an
21 exclusionary narrative, it can intensify estrangement rather than mitigate it. Ghana illustrates this
22 dynamic clearly. There, the judiciary speaks in a highly coherent voice, but that coherence is
23 anchored in a narrative that denies Islamic law any legitimate place within the legal system. Courts
24 have systematically dismissed MFL claims on procedural grounds without substantive
25 engagement, while bureaucratic agencies have undermined the mechanisms necessary to register
26 Muslim marriages. Many Muslims consequently perceive the legal system as structurally biased.
27 As a result, trust is extremely low, exclusion is extremely high, and vicarious experiences are
28 overwhelmingly negative. Alienation was expressed in stark terms. One Muslim taxi driver bluntly
29 stated: “Courts are not for Muslims...They do not accept our law. My law is shari‘a.”⁹⁰ A university
30 student echoed the sentiment: “We, Muslims in Ghana, do not have a state of our own. The
31 Christian majority owns the state and courts....”⁹¹ Another informant—who reportedly had friends
32 who traveled to Syria to join ISIS—expressed distrust and frustration in more radical terms,
33 describing Ghana as a “state of *kufir* [disbelief]” because its courts refused to recognize Islamic
34 law, concluding that “it is OK to make jihad [against such a state].”⁹² Ghana thus shows that
35 cohesion is an amplifier. When the prevailing narratives are rights-affirming or supportive of
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3 recognition, it lowers estrangement, but when they are rights-denying or exclusionary, it deepens
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5 separation and drives communities away from state courts.
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9 Where cohesion is low, estrangement tends to be high, as conflicting and ambiguous
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11 narratives erode trust and foster alienation. Even in the absence of overt discrimination, narrational
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13 inconsistency can generate the perception that the legal system is biased, reinforcing suspicions
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15 that outcomes hinge on extra-legal considerations. India and Greece illustrate this in different
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17 ways.
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21 India represents an extreme form. Courts routinely deploy multiple, at times conflicting,
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23 narratives—often within the same judgment. As a result, many Muslims come to regard civil courts
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25 as unpredictable, untrustworthy, and most importantly, political, rather than neutral arbiters,
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27 thereby contributing to their legal estrangement. Interviewees frequently interpreted the judiciary's
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29 incohesion through the lens of Hindu majoritarian politics, viewing courts as agents of the ruling
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31 party. One Muslim lawyer summarized this sentiment starkly: “[Courts] do the BJP's
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33 bidding...Muslims are unwanted citizens in Modi's India...Can anyone blame them for not
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35 trusting this country's courts?”⁹³
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41 Greece presents a subtler but structurally similar pattern. While individual judgments
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43 usually display internal coherence and limited horizontal consistency, vertical cohesion remains
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45 weak due to persistent narrational conflict between regional courts and the SCoC. The result is
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47 structural estrangement—manifested in low trust and strong perceptions of exclusion—even where
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49 vicarious experiences are mixed rather than uniformly negative. This estrangement is further
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51 compounded by the institutional exclusion of Muslim judges from the bench. This feature
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53 distinguishes the Greek case from the other three countries examined in this study.⁹⁴ Interviewees
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3 repeatedly framed this absence as emblematic of a broader denial of equal belonging within the
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5 legal order, with one noting pointedly: “This is a Greek Orthodox state. Greece is a religious state,
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7 not a secular one. How can Muslims be equal? If we are equal, where are the Muslim judges?”⁹⁵
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11 All in all, the four cases underscore two general propositions. First, cohesion reduces
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13 estrangement only when it is paired with inclusionary, rights-affirming narratives that recognize
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15 minority law as a legitimate object of legal governance. Second, incohesion—and even more
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17 starkly, cohesive exclusion—predictably fosters estrangement by producing a stable message of
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19 normative rejection. In both configurations, courts shape state-minority relations not only through
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21 what they decide, but through the narratives they consistently—or inconsistently—project beyond
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23 the courtroom.
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26 27 28 CONCLUSION 29

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32 This article argued that courts exercise political power in pluri-legal systems not only through the
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34 outcomes they produce, but through the narratives they create and consolidate over time. Focusing
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36 on MFL systems in four Muslim-minority countries—Israel, Greece, India, and Ghana—it has
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38 shown that judicial narratives function as technologies of minority governance that shape reform
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40 trajectories, and perceptions of trust, belonging and legal estrangement among minority
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42 communities. The central claim is that institutional design alone cannot explain why similarly
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44 structured personal status regimes generate divergent political effects. Instead, it is the degree of
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46 narrational cohesion within the judiciary, and its interaction with extrajudicial conditions of
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48 ripeness, that determines whether courts facilitate endogenous reform, require external
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50 intervention, or deepen estrangement.
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3 Theoretically, the article advances a comparative political account of courts as governing
4 institutions embedded in state-society relations. By introducing narrational cohesion as a meso-level
5 mechanism linking judicial behavior to macro-level outcomes, it bridges a persistent gap between
6 institutionalist explanations that focus on legal architecture and attitudinal or strategic models that
7 center on individual judges. Existing approaches can explain why judges reach particular
8 outcomes, but they are less equipped to account for how courts generate durable political effects
9 across time, judicial hierarchy, and social context. By shifting attention from what courts decide
10 to how consistently they speak, the analysis demonstrates that judicial influence depends crucially
11 on the coherence and social resonance of the narrative worlds courts help to produce. In this
12 respect, the article also extends and revises Cover's influential account of narratives by showing
13 that courts in pluri-legal systems are not mono-narrational institutions but sites of narrational
14 interaction, conflict, and mediation, with significant implications for state-minority relations.
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32 The findings further contribute to the literature on legal pluralism, minority governance,
33 and securitization. The Israeli case yields the study's most counterintuitive result: even a highly
34 exclusionary institutional design can, inadvertently, facilitate reform and comparatively lower
35 estrangement when judicial narratives are cohesive and encounter socially ripe conditions. Greece,
36 on the other hand, shows how partial cohesion, within a securitized framework, can delay reform
37 even when communal practices are already ripe or egalitarian. When that happens, outside help is
38 needed to realign judicial narratives with communal values and practices. India and Ghana present
39 alternative trajectories: narrational incohesion and cohesive exclusion, respectively. Both produce
40 high levels of estrangement by rendering law unpredictable, normatively hostile, and
41 untrustworthy. All in all, the cases underscore that cohesion is not normatively neutral. When it
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3 is coupled with inclusionary narratives, it can foster reform and trust; when built around
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5 exclusionary narratives, it can lead to alienation and disengagement.
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9 Methodologically, the article offers a framework for examining the power and influence of
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11 judicial decisions beyond the courtroom. It does so by combining systematic content analysis of
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13 more than 3,000 judicial decisions with nearly 400 interviews across four countries, and
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15 introducing three original indices—the NCI, the RI, and the LEI. These tools operationalize the
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17 ways judicial narratives align institutionally, travel socially, and are experienced collectively,
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19 thereby enabling scholars to conduct qualitative, narrative-centered comparisons across time and
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21 space. More broadly, the study illustrates the value of integrating judicial opinions, ethnographic
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23 insight, and comparative methods to trace how law operates as a lived and narrated form of
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25 governance.
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31 In conclusion, the article's findings invite students of comparative politics, law and courts
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33 to focus on judicial narratives as units of analysis. Courts do not just interpret the law. As shown,
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35 they tell stories about belonging, authority, and legitimacy that extend well beyond the courtroom
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37 and deeply shape state-society relations. Understanding when those stories cohere, when they
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39 diverge, and with what consequences is essential for explaining how states govern diversity—
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41 and why law sometimes reforms, sometimes estranges, and occasionally does both at once.
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NOTES

¹ Sezgin 2013, 19–42.

² Cameroon, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Ghana, Greece, India, Israel, Kenya, Mauritius, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Suriname, Tanzania, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Uganda. Sezgin 2023a.

³ See footnote 53 **Error! Bookmark not defined..**

⁴ Some exceptions are: Karayanni 2016 ; Sezgin 2010 ; Tsitselikis 2007.

⁵ Asad 2003 ; Cesari 2010 ; Mahmood 2016.

⁶ Bali and Lerner 2016 ; Mamdani 1996.

⁷ Hathaway 2001 ; Lerner 2009 ; Tamanaha 2021.

⁸ Sezgin 2018.

⁹ Segal and Spaeth 2002 ; Westerland et al. 2010.

¹⁰ Ali 2000.

¹¹ See footnote 94.

¹² Di Donato 2020 28; Olson 2018 21.

¹³ Brooks 2018 140.

¹⁴ Haltom and McCann 2004.

¹⁵ Engel 1984.

¹⁶ Engel and Munger 2003.

¹⁷ Ewick and Silbey 1998.

¹⁸ Hanne and Weisberg 2018 117.

¹⁹ Feeley 1992 ; Hanne and Weisberg 2018 120.

²⁰ Balkin and Levinson 1998 986–990; Goffman 1974.

²¹ Beasley 2023.

²² LaRue 1995.

²³ Balkin 2024 184.

²⁴ Cover 1983 4–5.

²⁵ Migdal 2001.

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²⁶ Ginsburg 2010.

²⁷ Galston 2019.

²⁸ Dworkin 1978 ; 1985.

²⁹ Sander 2018 575.

³⁰ Hayward 2019.

³¹ Mahoney 2000 ; Thelen 1999.

³² Lerner 2013 ; Tamanaha 2021.,

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³⁴ Andersen 2006.

³⁵ Lobel 1995.

³⁶ Sezgin 2023b.

³⁷ Tyler 2003.

³⁸ Bell 2017.

³⁹ Lazarev 2019.

⁴⁰ King et al. 1994.

⁴¹ Sezgin 2018.

⁴² Josiah-Aryeh 2015 ; Subramanian 2014.

⁴³ *Nevo and Takdin* in Israel; *Casemine, Indian Kanoon, and Manupatra* in India; *Dennislaw and Digital Attorney* in Ghana; and *Nomos and DSanet* in Greece.

⁴⁴ Saldaña 2021.

⁴⁵ Biernacki and Waldorf 1981.

⁴⁶ Irshai and Zion-Waldoks 2024.

⁴⁷ Bell 2017.

⁴⁸ Kolbe and Burnett 1991.

⁴⁹ Holmes 2020.

⁵⁰ Dworkin 1986 228–232.

⁵¹ Muslim population within Israel's pre-June 5, 1967, borders (excluding the Occupied Palestinian Territories and the Golan Heights) is estimated at 1.7 million (18.1% of the total) in 2021, source: Israeli Central Bureau of Statistics. Available at https://www.cbs.gov.il/he/mediarelease/DocLib/2022/217/11_22_217e.pdf (Accessed in June 2024).

⁵² As of June 2024, nine regional shari'a courts and a Shari'a Court of Appeals operated within Israel. These courts were staffed by twenty-two state-appointed *qadis*, all but one of whom were male.

⁵³ I use the term "*millet*-like" to underscore key differences between the Ottoman *millet* system and its contemporary iterations in Israel. Under the Ottomans, the *millet* operated as a broad framework of communal self-rule, encompassing wide-ranging religious, social, and legal authority. By contrast, Israel—and Greece—retained only its family law-related components. Moreover, whereas Muslims constituted the majority when the *millet* system was originally conceived, they now occupy minority status within these modern states. Benjamin 1982 ; Boogert 2012 ; Karpat 1982 ; Layish 2008 ; Sezgin 2010.

⁵⁴ Karayanni 2016 ; Sezgin 2010.

⁵⁵ Virtual interview with Hon. Yitzhak Aryeh Rabinowitz (pseudonym), September 2024.

⁵⁶ Anderson 1954 249–286; Josiah-Aryeh 2015 5–15; Weiss 2005.

⁵⁷ According to the 2021 census, there were 6.1 million Muslims in Ghana making up 19.9% of the total population, source: Ghana Statistical Service. Available at <https://census2021.statsghana.gov.gh/> (Accessed in June 2024).

⁵⁸ Mahdism was an Islamic revivalist and anti-colonial movement led by Muhammad Ahmad, who established the short-lived Mahdist State in the Sudan (1885–98). The movement became a powerful source of inspiration for anti-colonial resistance across Africa. Searcy 2011.

⁵⁹ Hiskett 1976 ; Sezgin 2024.

⁶⁰ Sezgin 2023b.

⁶¹ A *mufti* is a religious scholar who interprets Islamic law and issues non-binding legal opinions (*fatwas*). Traditionally, *muftis* do not serve as judges (*qadis*). However, the Greek government has authorized state-appointed *muftis* (in Komotini, Xanthi, and Didymoteicho) to adjudicate family matters among local Muslims per usage and custom. Tsitselikis 2012a 54.

⁶² The Thracian Muslim minority, composed mainly of ethnic Turks, Pomaks, and Roma, is estimated to number between 85,000 and 140,000; no official figures exist because Greece does not collect data on religion in its national censuses. Tsitselikis and Sakellariou 2020 ; Verhás 2019.

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⁶³ The Treaty of Constantinople (1881), the Treaty of Athens (1913), the Treaty of Sèvres (1920), and the Treaty of Lausanne (1923).

⁶⁴ Hellenic Republic 2018.

⁶⁵ From 1936 until 1996, parts of Thrace were designated a restricted military zone which residents could not enter or leave without special permits. As a result, the Ministry of Defense became the primary architect of minority policy in the region. Yagcioglu 2004 117–118.

⁶⁶ Tsitselikis 2012b.

⁶⁷ Ktistakis 2013.

⁶⁸ See footnote 94

⁶⁹ Sezgin 2026.

⁷⁰ A former judge from Thrace said: “[T]he issues of *mufti* and Islamic law...concern the history and politics of the region...it is about national security and bilateral relations [with Türkiye].” Virtual interview with Hon. Dimitris Konstantinidis (pseudonym), September 2017.

⁷¹ Topidi 2021.

⁷² Tsitselikis 2001.

⁷³ Approximately 172 million people (~14.2% of the total) according to the latest census from 2011; source: India Census 2011. Available at <https://www.census2011.co.in/data/religion/2-muslims.html> (Accessed in Sep 2025).

⁷⁴ Herklotz 2016.

⁷⁵ The Greek Constitution of 1975 (Article 93(3)) permits judges to issue dissenting and concurring opinions, but this practice is rarely used in MFL cases.

⁷⁶ Virtual interview with Hon. Raju Verma (pseudonym), January 2022.

⁷⁷ Ramadan 2008.

⁷⁸ Ramadan 2008.

⁷⁹ Kozma et al. 2011.

⁸⁰ Edres 2024.

⁸¹ Figures I obtained from the Mufti Tribunal in Komotini show an average of 185 inheritance rulings per year in 1964-85, about 20 in 1985-2005, three to five in the 2010s, and none in 2018-22.

⁸² Sezgin 2026.

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8⁸³ Triple *talaq* is a unilateral instant divorce effected by three pronouncements at once, religiously disfavored yet long tolerated in law.

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8⁸⁴ Saxena 2022.

8⁸⁵ According to a recent survey, 64% of Muslims trust in shari‘a courts: Finkelstein et al. 2022.

8⁸⁶ In my interviews, 62% of Muslims expressed trust in civil family courts; survey data report trust levels of 49% among Muslims, compared to 38% among Jews: Finkelstein et al. 2022.

8⁸⁷ Yagil and Rattner 2005 ; Yiftachel 1999.

8⁸⁸ Virtual interview with Attorney Muhammad Khalil al-Husseini (pseudonym), June 2022.

8⁸⁹ Personal interview with Aisha Samira al-Tamimi (pseudonym), Jerusalem, May 2018.

8⁹⁰ Personal interview with Abdulai Issahaku (pseudonym), Accra, May 2017.

8⁹¹ Personal interview with Aisha Sulemana (pseudonym), Accra, May 2017.

8⁹² Personal interview Mustapha Tahiru (pseudonym), Tamale, June 2017.

8⁹³ Virtual interview with Karimullah Usman Qureshi (pseudonym), March 2022.

8⁹⁴ While there are no Muslim judges in Greek civil courts, Muslims do serve in the judiciaries of the other countries examined. In Ghana, informants reported in 2017 that six Muslim judges served on the superior courts (~3.5%), though reliable figures for the lower courts were unavailable. In Israel, as of May 2024, there were two Muslim family court judges (~3%). My review of the official judicial directory in September 2025 identified roughly 80 Arab judges (including Christians and Druzes), of whom approximately 50, I estimate to be Muslim—about 5% of the judiciary. In India, official and academic sources suggest that Muslims constitute approximately 7–8% of judges in the lower courts and around 4% at the High Court level. Ash et al. 2022 2; Chandrachud 2014 254–255; Sachar 2006 174.

8⁹⁵ Personal interview with Hasan Can Kaya (pseudonym), Komotini, December 2022.

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