

JONATHAN HAFETZ

HABEAS CORPUS
AFTER 9/11

Confronting America's New Global Detention System



Habeas Corpus a

after 9/11

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Habeas Corpus

Confronting America

New Global Detentions

Jonathan Hafetz



NEW YORK UNIVERSITY

New York and London

Corpus after 9/11

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SITY PRESS

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY PRESS
New York and London
www.nyupress.org

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Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication

Hafetz, Jonathan.
Habeas corpus after 9/11 : confronting America's
new global detention system / Jonathan Hafetz.
p. cm.

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 978-0-8147-3703-3 (cl : alk. paper) — IS

1. Habeas corpus—United States. 2. Detention

3. Terrorism—United States—Prevention. 4. C

(International law) 5. Detention of persons—C

Base. 6. Prisoners of war—Legal status, laws, e

Naval Base. 7. Guantánamo Bay Detention Car

KF9011.H34 2010

345.73'056—dc22 2010026424

New York University Press books are printed on
and their binding materials are chosen for strength
We strive to use environmentally responsible sources
to the greatest extent possible in publishing our

Manufactured in the United States of America

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ISBN 978-0-8147-7343-7 (ebook)

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Combatants and noncombatants

Cuba—Guantánamo Bay Naval

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To Martha, Ben, and Sam

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Acknowledgments

First I would like to thank the New York University School of Law, my professor, who generously provided me with the opportunity to write this book.

My thanks also to Baher Azmy, Eyal Freedman, Frederick Hafetz, Aziz H. H. David Udell for their thoughtful comments on the book; to Margaret Rocco for her help; to Zak Shirley for all his help in the last stages of the book at the ACLU's National Security Project; and to the support in challenging the illegal network of the book's subject. All errors, of course, remain my own.

In addition, I want to extend my gratitude to my family, as well as to Gabrielle Begue, NYU Press whose commitment and assistance were invaluable.

Finally, my deepest appreciation to my wife, Sam, to my parents, Fred and Myra, and to all those who provided love and support.

the Brennan Center for Justice at New York University, my professional home for three years, which provided me with the opportunity and the support to write this book.

I am grateful to Emily Berman, Mark Denbeaux, Eric Lipton, Joe Margulies, Gabor Rona, and the staff of the Brennan Center for their comments and suggestions on draft versions of the book; to my family for their wonderful assistance with research; to my publisher, Oxford University Press, for their support; and to all my former colleagues at the Brennan Center for their inspiration, ideas, and support. The views expressed in this book are those of prisons beyond the law that are this book and do not necessarily remain my own.

I am also grateful to my editor, Debbie Gershon, and to my agent, Despina Gimbel, and everyone else at Oxford University Press whose assistance made this book possible.

Finally, I am grateful to my wife, Martha, and sons, Ben and Noah, for their love and support, and to Jerry and Risa Pollack for their

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Introduction

The U.S. detention center at Cuba has long been synonymous with executive power. It has come to epitomize. Created in the name of protecting the it, undermining America's security as well.

For too long, however, Guantánamo shadowing other abuses and concealing security policy since September 11, 2001 prison, nor was it hermetically sealed larger, interconnected global detention prisons such as the Bagram Air Base the transfer of prisoners to other countries passed even the military detention of States, whom President George W. Bush without charge as part of a "war on terror" temporal bounds. Guantánamo, in short, U.S. detention operations: the most visible designed to operate outside the law.

This system grew out of a series of officials following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001. The administration wanted to treat terrorism as an armed conflict and yet also wanted to avoid the limitations and treatment of prisoners during war. The administration tried to create a category of prisoners to justify a state-sanctioned policy of indefinite treatment. In this newly envisioned system, prisoners were held indefinitely, potentially forever, without a full hearing. The only trials were to be military commissions that fell far short of constitutional standards. The system was intended to exist not only

the Guantánamo Bay Naval Base in torture, secrecy, and the abuse of executive lawlessness in the eyes of the world. The country, Guantánamo has weakened as well as its values.

Guantánamo has been viewed in isolation, overlooking broader shifts in America's national identity since 2001. Guantánamo was never simply a prison island. Rather, Guantánamo was part of a larger prison system that included other military detention facilities in Afghanistan, secret CIA jails, and secret prisons in other countries for torture. This system encompassed individuals arrested inside the United States. Guantánamo was like an island in an archipelago of secret prisons. It was a visible example of a larger prison system.

Guantánamo was a result of decisions by Bush administration officials on September 11. The Bush administration viewed the war as a conflict rather than criminal activity. It argued that the law imposes on the detention of prisoners during wartime. In addition, the administration argued that prisoners without legal protections in order to prevent torture and other cruel and inhuman treatment. In this detention system, prisoners could be held without charge and without a meaningful trial. They were held in jerry-rigged military commissions that did not meet national and international standards. This system was beyond the law but also beyond the

reach of any court, as the Bush administration sought to prevent judges from examining its actions. It held detainees as “enemy combatants.” Its goal was to shield its actions from any legal constraint or scrutiny.

The U.S. government’s detention policies were at the center of many of them was habeas corpus, as the preeminent safeguard of individual liberty against government power by mandating that the government appear before a judge. The use of habeas, however, was long serving principally a remedy for prisoners held in violation of constitutional defects at trial. After 9/11, its use as a remedy for executive imprisonment became central. Since 9/11, the United States Supreme Court has used habeas by upholding the right of Guantanamo detainees to habeas, including two cases in which Congress’s authority was rejected. In these rulings, the Court rejected the government’s right to detain prisoners without legal protection and to deny judicial review simply by imprisoning them.

These victories, however, were both limited. In *Hamdi*, the Supreme Court rejected the notion that the war on terror in America’s shores and upheld the right of habeas corpus, it did not guarantee judicial review of executive actions in overseas prisons. The Court also did not guarantee habeas in these cases or in its other “war on terror” cases. In *Hamdan*, the Court addressed who could be detained as an “enemy combatant” who was captured in Afghanistan while fighting alongside allied troops on behalf of Taliban forces. The Court rejected the president’s claim that the entire world was a battlefield and that all who were arrested in civilian settings were “combatants” and thereby denied the right to habeas.

Other limits were inherent in the military’s actions. It had proved its resilience in securing Guantanamo, where the fact of U.S. detention was less effective where the United States had no direct control over prisoners, whether by the United States or another nation to detain them on its behalf. The United States’ limited capacity to obtain judicial review of its actions in other countries for torture and continued

administration took every possible measure to control the detention and treatment of prisoners. The policies to imprison and interrogate without

due process sparked intense legal battles. At the heart of these battles was habeas corpus. Habeas corpus has long served as a check against arbitrary government and a way for the state to justify a prisoner's detention. However, habeas corpus had changed over time, becoming a tool for challenging convictions based on new evidence. After 9/11, habeas resumed its historic function of challenging government detention without trial. In three decisions, the Supreme Court vindicated the importance of habeas corpus for Guantánamo detainees to access U.S. courts, and the administration had tried to strip the detainees of that right. The Court rejected the president's claim that he could detain enemy combatants or hold them indefinitely without trial, and that the detainees were outside the United States.

The Court's decision was limited and incomplete. Although the Court held that the Constitution necessarily stops at the door of Guantánamo detainees to habeas corpus, it did not address detention operations at other over-seas facilities that overlap with other important questions of national security and "terror" decisions. It did not, for example, define "enemy combatant" other than someone who is directly engaging in hostilities against U.S. or allied forces. The Court thus failed to take on the question of whether Guantánamo was a battlefield and that even individuals captured in the United States and who never left the country (or anywhere else), could be treated as enemy combatants without a right to a criminal trial.

The nature of habeas corpus itself. Habeas corpus is a form of court review for prisoners at Guantánamo. Its availability was clear and undisputed. But it was the administration's attempt to conceal its custody of the detainees by holding them in secret or enlisting the help of other agencies on their behalf. Similarly, habeas had shown a willingness to challenge government action over the rendition of prisoners to other countries for prolonged detention. Habeas had also proved

vulnerable in cases in which a court held that the United States to be illegal but believed that it was in the detainee's best interest to grant his or her release where release in the United States was not a remedy since the detainee could not be safely repatriated to a third country.

The arrival of a new administration brought about a change. President Barack Obama began to reverse the policies and ordering the closure of the prison camps. His decisions in the following months suggest a more humane, small, if not cosmetic, and left the overall system largely in important respects. For example, he ended the military trials and continued the indefinite detention of detainees without charge, two centerpieces of the Bush administration. He also resisted transparency in many cases, denying detainees access to U.S. courts based on exaggerated claims of national security. This had left Obama no choice but to accept the status quo at Guantánamo. But Obama tried to defend the system elsewhere without judicial review and to expand it. He had replaced Guantánamo as the United States' detention center. In short, even as Obama spoke of ending the war on terror, law and to return to constitutional principles, he continued his predecessor's policies, tinkering at the edges. By the close of his first year in office, Obama had not ended Guantánamo. He had moved to adopt a more humane Guantánamo's key features.

This book describes the rise of the system, the challenges that emerged after 9/11 and the efforts to reform it. It examines both the achievements and the failures of the system and confronts and repudiates a system that it advocates other measures necessary to reform the system for the future and to create a rights-respecting system. It is a book that America both safe and free.

The book is divided into four parts. The first part describes the rise of the interconnected global system and the origins of this system to a series of Supreme Court opinions that opened the door to arbitrary detention and torture, all without court review. The

had found the detention by the United States lacked the authority to order the prisoners returned home or repatriated to a

Obama offered hope and the promise of change with bold strokes, banning torture at Guantánamo within a year. But the administration suggested that most of these changes were going to leave the administration's policies intact. Obama revived military commission detention of suspected terrorists without the administration's "war on terror." Obama sought to deny torture victims the right to sue and sought to deny torture victims the right to sue. Obama made claims of government secrecy that hid the conduct and abuse. The Supreme Court limited habeas corpus jurisdiction at Guantánamo, preserving the executive's power to hold prisoners. Obama continued to do so at Bagram, which became the United States' principal offshore detention facility. About the need to restore the rule of law and principles, he preserved many of his precedents but leaving the core intact. By the time Obama had not only delayed the closing of Guantánamo but also institutionalized many of Guantánamo's

U.S.-run global detention system that has been challenged through habeas corpus. It discusses the shortcomings of these legal challenges and arguments for limiting habeas. Finally, it offers ways to prevent lawless detentions in the future and to change national security policy that keeps

The first part (chapters 1 through 4) examines the global detention system. Chapter 1 traces the history of executive branch decisions and legal challenges to arbitrary detention, sham military trials, and military commissions. The system was intended to establish a

new paradigm—the “war on terrorism” facing the nation. This paradigm gave us the power to detain and interrogate without any restrictions.

Chapter 2 examines how this new paradigm charts how Guantánamo grew to embody the worst of the “war on terrorism” by illegal detention, abuse, and secret prisons on the U.S. shore, from the military prisons in Iraq to secret CIA jails or “black sites.” It also examines extraordinary rendition, in which the U.S. sends prisoners to other countries for interrogation. Officials did not want to conduct themselves in the United States, examining how the Bush administration sought to create a lawless zone on American soil. Although few in number, these cases represented the most far-reaching exercise of executive power in the “war on terrorism.”

The second part (chapters 5 and 6) examines the origins of habeas corpus and its development. Chapter 5 explains how habeas corpus came to be used to challenge imprisonment by the executive. It also examines habeas during wartime and how habeas helps police executive authority and prevent arbitrary government. Chapter 6 shows how habeas corpus challenged detentions on the principles that governed the extraterritorial application of the Constitution more generally. It concludes by describing how the Constitution’s protections were extended to American citizens, a development that led to post-9/11 habeas cases.

Part 3 (chapters 7 through 9) turns to the broader themes and an enduring tension. The first part shows how habeas corpus has provided an important check on executive power and interrogation in U.S. counterterrorism. The second part, on the other hand, shows how habeas’s checking function has been used to undermine it, from congressional and executive hour machinations by the executive to the courts.

Chapter 7 discusses the trio of “enlightening” Supreme Court decisions in 2004: *Rasul v. Bush*, *Hamdi v. Rumsfeld*, and *Padilla*. These decisions established important rights for Guantánamo detainees to seek habeas corpus.

—in the name of meeting new threats
the president unprecedented powers
restriction, rules, or accountability.

paradigm took shape at Guantánamo. It
body a prison beyond the law, pervaded
y. Then chapter 3 describes other off-
detention centers in Afghanistan and
s.” The chapter also details the use of
the United States outsourced torture by
for brutal interrogations that U.S. offi-
ves. Chapter 4 looks at military deten-
three seminal cases in which the Bush
less enclave—a new Guantánamo—on
er, these domestic “enemy combatant”
ing assertions of executive detention

) travels back in time to examine the
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o protect individuals against unlawful
o discusses the role of habeas during
the line between civilian and military
ment action. Chapter 6 examines how
overseas before 9/11 as well as the prin-
al application of constitutional rights
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e chapters illustrate, on the one hand,
important check against illegal detention
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g function has led to continual efforts
court-stripping measures to eleventh-
avoid judicial review.

emy combatant” cases that reached the
h, *Hamdi v. Rumsfeld*, and *Rumsfeld v.*
important principles, including the right
eas corpus review in federal court and

the right of American citizens to a fair trial by a government, even in time of war. They should be able to exclude the judiciary from the questions left open important questions, including what is an “enemy combatant” and what protections should be afforded to them.

The response by the president and the courts is discussed in chapter 8. The Bush administration’s Supreme Court’s ruling in *Rasul* by creating military tribunals intended to ratify prior detention of “enemy combatants” and to prevent habeas corpus in federal courts, where the administration’s allies argued that the Constitution did not apply. Then Congress, at the administration’s request, passed the Treatment Act of 2005, which purported to strip the jurisdiction over Guantánamo detainees from the federal courts. The landmark Supreme Court ruling that the administration rejected this court-stripping measure, in *Boumediene v. Bush*, affirmed the rights of detainees, and concluded that no prisoners held in Guantánamo were entitled to the protections contained in Common Article 3 of the Geneva Conventions.

Chapter 9 examines the political and legal challenges to new court-stripping legislation, the Military Commissions Act of 2006, which purported to deny habeas corpus to “enemy combatants,” not just those held in Guantánamo but also those held in other offshore prisons. The Geneva Conventions, sought to improve the treatment of detainees, and revived military commissions. The Supreme Court’s ruling in *Boumediene v. Bush* affirmed the rights of detainees, and concluded that no prisoners held in Guantánamo were entitled to the protections contained in Common Article 3 of the Geneva Conventions. In affirming the right to habeas corpus, the Court decisively rejected the administration’s claim that the Constitution was limited to the United States. The Court left open important questions about the rights of detainees in other offshore prisons. The Court also held that a habeas judge could order in a habeas proceeding that a citizen detained in Iraq that it issued on habeas corpus.

The fourth and final part (chapters 10–12) examines the possibility of a line of a legal and sustainable detentions. It also examines the singular importance of habeas corpus in the context of prisons beyond the law. It also examines the potential of habeas corpus, constrained by a combination of the government’s proclivity to detain without judicial oversight and the government’s proclivity to detain without judicial oversight.

hearing when they are detained by their
indicated that the executive would not
e “war on terrorism.” But the cases also
ng who exactly could be detained as an
ons such persons could invoke.

Congress to these rulings is discussed
on immediately moved to nullify the
ating a rigged system of military status
rminations that prisoners were “enemy
earings from going forward in federal
gations might be carefully scrutinized.
urging, passed legislation, the Detainee
tedly stripped federal courts of habeas
ons altogether. Chapter 8 also describes
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nvalidated the president’s military com-
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backlash to *Hamdan* that resulted in
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missions. The chapter then examines
Boumediene v. Bush, decided near the end of
the right of Guantánamo detainees to
rejected the executive’s claim that the
States or to American citizens. Yet the
about whether habeas corpus reached
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decision involving two American citi-
the same day as *Boumediene*.

10 through 13) provides the broad out-
on policy. As its starting point, it takes
pus as a constraint against the growth
lains why habeas alone is insufficient,
nation of practical limits on its avail-
y to seek new ways to detain and inter-

Chapter 10 argues why habeas corpus in U.S. custody, regardless of his or her status, explains why this review is necessary beyond the law. It also explains why to not interfere with the government's ability to act, instead provides a safeguard against ill-effects.

Chapter 11 explores some of the practical difficulties of habeas review. For example, it describes the difficulties of executive action, such as proxy detention, where the role is either concealed or outsourced. Chapter 12 continues this discussion. Habeas may extend (as chapter 11 does) but it may not be available for consideration. It may consider in adjudicating petitioners' opportunity for meaningful judicial review. The availability of that review does not depend on the availability of habeas corpus and constitutional questions surrounding the authority to detain in counterterrorism operations without criminal trial in the regular courts. It argues for restricting that detention authority and the practice of prosecuting suspected terrorists without trial. It thus argues against indefinite military detention and hybrid proposals like national security courts without trial and the use of adjudication to protect individual rights.

Chapter 13 summarizes national security policy in the first year in office. It contrasts the new policies at Guantánamo's closure and banning of military commissions and indefinite detention. It notes some positive steps, the Obama administration's continuity over change and that key components of the current political discourse are threatening to become permanent.

The book concludes that the United States' response to 9/11 underscores the continued importance of individual liberty against illegal government action. Habeas remains the single most important remedy against detention, torture, and other abuses without trial, habeas today still promises to protect against the death of imprisonment.¹ The threat of

us should be available to any prisoner
er citizenship or location. The chapter
to help prevent the growth of prisons
his review, properly understood, does
ility to wage war or fight terrorism but
legal detention and other abuses.

potential limits of habeas corpus. For
of challenging more covert forms of
tion and rendition, in which the U.S.
d, and offers some possible solutions.
It focuses not on where habeas corpus
on the questions that habeas courts
ns. While habeas corpus provides the
review of executive action, the mere
by itself resolve the underlying legal
ding the scope of the executive's legal
ism operations or to hold individu-
ular federal courts. Chapter 12 argues
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rorists in civilian courts. The chapter
detention, military commissions, and
ty courts that sanction imprisonment
ory tribunals with fewer protections of

curity policy during President Obama's
president's initial moves, like ordering
rture, with his subsequent adoption of
etention. Chapter 13 shows that despite
nistration has largely embraced conti-
nents of the post-9/11 detention system
features of America's legal fabric and

d States' counterterrorism policy since
tance of habeas corpus as a safeguard
ernment action. Despite its limitations,
tant check against arbitrary and unlaw-
s. As it did centuries ago for those jailed
ses "the water of life to revive from the
terrorism, some people believe, makes

the United States' historic commitment. But precisely the opposite is true. The government officials to avoid legal limits and to detain allegedly dangerous or suspicious people without meaningful scrutiny, makes habeas corpus a thing of the past in the future.

nt to habeas unnecessary and unwise.
e pressure that terrorism puts on gov-
nd to find new ways to imprison alleg-
without charge, due process, or mean-
all the more important, both now and

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Part 1

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Laying the Foundation for the “War on Terror”

On the morning of September 11, 2001, the most devastating attacks on American soil occurred as terrorists hijacked four commercial jet airplanes and flew them into several U.S. targets. Two planes crashed into the World Trade Center, destroying both towers. A third plane was diverted by the passengers and crashed into a field in Pennsylvania. Nearly three thousand people died in the attacks, and the event inflicted untold trauma and billions of dollars in economic damage. Responsibility had been attributed to al Qaeda, and the world marveled at Qaeda’s ability to orchestrate a complex and coordinated attack that shocked the country and seared into the collective memory of the oceans separating it from the rest of the world. The attacks were those who sought its destruction.²

Vice President Dick Cheney declared that it was the decisions made after that fateful day that would have the consequences. On September 18, President George W. Bush signed the Authorization for Use of Military Force, which authorized him to “use all necessary and appropriate force against those nations, organizations, or persons he determined, on the basis of intelligence gathered, or information obtained, or information received by others, to have committed, or aided the terrorist attacks, or harbored such organizations or persons, in order to prevent or punish such attacks.” He addressed a joint session of Congress, declaring that the United States was at war against our country” and promising to bring justice to the terrorist organization al Qaeda—to justice for the victims of the attacks. The government of Afghanistan, would be held responsible for harboring al Qaeda. Bush, however, did not declare a military conflict of an apocalyptic nature against a nation or single terrorist group. “Americans,”

September 11, 2001, the United States suffered the most devastating attack on its soil in the nation's history. Nineteen commercial airliners were hijacked and attempted to fly them into New York City's World Trade Center. Two planes hit the World Trade Center, one hit the Pentagon, and the fourth plane crashed in a field in Pennsylvania. The attacks resulted in the deaths of thousands of Americans and the United States suffered billions of dollars in damages. Within days, responsibility was placed on the shoulders of Osama bin Laden and his al-Qaeda organization.¹ The attacks were a unprecedented attack within the United States that shocked the nation and its collective conscience the fact that the United States and the rest of the world would not protect it from

President Bush said that "9/11 changed everything."³ But the most significant day that had the most far-reaching impact was the day President George W. Bush signed into law the Authorization for Use of Military Force (AUMF), a congressional resolution that authorized the use of all necessary and appropriate force against those nations, organizations, or individuals who determine to be involved in the planning, authorizing, committing, or supporting the September 11, 2001, attacks.⁴ Two days later, President Bush issued a statement condemning the attacks as "an act of terrorism" and promising to bring the perpetrators—the terrorists—to justice. He also made clear that the Taliban, who were harboring bin Laden, would be subject to retaliation for sheltering bin Laden. The war on terrorism did not stop there. He also described the attacks as a global threat that extended beyond any nation and that the United States "should not expect one battle,

but a lengthy campaign, unlike any other to be waged against enemies wherever the terrorist group of global reach has been.

Meanwhile, a coterie of high-level officials laid the foundation for sweeping presidential power over terrorism.” The group included the top legal adviser Gonzales, Cheney’s legal adviser and Pentagon general counsel William J. Haynes II, an old lawyer in the Department of Justice’s office that provides legal advice to the president to bind executive agencies.⁶ Together, they laid the actual and legal architecture for this “new

Yoo became one of the most influential architects of sweeping executive power. In a September 2001 memo, the president’s paramount role in promoting the use of military force. The decision whether to use force and the amount of force to be used, Yoo argued, was a presidential constitutional authority.” He claimed that the president’s authority dated back to the founding of a strong executive that dated back to the founding, pointing to more recent precedents in presidential use of military strikes in response to terrorist attacks: President Clinton’s strikes on Sudan in 1998 and President Ronald Reagan’s strikes on Iran in 1980, maintaining that Congress had given the president authority against terrorism under the AUMF, and that the president inherently possessed this power by virtue of his authority under Article II of the U.S. Constitution. Yoo argued that Congress could not impose any limits on the president’s authority to defend the nation.⁸

In another OLC memo, Yoo wrote that the president’s authority to use military force against suspected terrorists without congressional approval.⁹ In doing so, he argued that the president is not bound by the Fourth Amendment, which prohibits searches and seizures without a warrant. He argued that the amendment does not apply to the military, and that the president would thus have unfettered discretion to use military force to enter any city, raid or attack dwellings, use military force to suspend First Amendment freedoms of speech and religion, and the Insurrection Act, on the books since 1878, provide for domestic law enforcement.¹⁰ But Yoo’s

er we have ever seen.” That battle would
ey were and would “not end until every
n found, stopped, and defeated.”⁵

administration officials began laying
trial powers in this new global “war on
men White House counsel Alberto R.
ongtime aide David S. Addington, Pen-
es II, and John Yoo, a thirty-four-year-
ce’s Office of Legal Counsel (OLC), the
executive branch and whose opinions
ese men would help create the concep-
w type of war.”⁷

important—and vocal—proponents of
mber 25, 2001, memo, Yoo described
tecting the nation through the use of
to use armed force abroad, as well as
nsisted, fell within the president’s “sole
his theories were grounded in the tra-
back to Alexander Hamilton. Yoo also
which presidents had ordered military
President Bill Clinton in Afghanistan
hald Reagan in Libya in 1986. Besides
n President Bush power to wage war
Yoo also claimed that the president
rtue of his role as commander in chief
on. He further asserted that Congress
resident’s power to use military force to

e that the president could deploy the
within the United States, with or with-
g so, Yoo said, the president would
ment to the Constitution, which pro-
warrant or probable cause, since that
ilitary during wartime. The president
n to set up checkpoints in an Ameri-
deadly force against individuals, and
of speech and press. The Posse Comi-
hibited the military from engaging in
s memo sought to emasculate that act

and circumvent limits on using the army to
redefining terrorism broadly as a “mil-

Notwithstanding these assertions of
U.S. detention policy remained largely
after September 11. Two high-profile
administration might continue to treat
execution in civilian court rather than the
first case involved John Walker Lindh
captured in a military raid in Afghanis-
tanned three months later in federal court
the death of a CIA officer killed during
involved Zacarias Moussaoui, initially
“twentieth hijacker”—the person who
in Pennsylvania on 9/11. Moussaoui had
officials in Minnesota in August 2001 and
Virginia four months later.

Congress, meanwhile, had enacted mea-
sures commonly known as the “Patriot Act.”¹¹ Passed
six weeks after 9/11, the Patriot Act expanded
investigate and prosecute suspected ter-
rorists, and lifted restrictions on electronic surveillance
and-trace devices that identify the source of
Internet communications.¹² It also broadened
“warrants,” an administrative subpoena that provides
of telephone, e-mail, and financial records.
vision authorized officials to conduct searches
suspects’ homes without notifying them.¹³ It
the government’s authority to obtain personal
that people borrow from libraries or purchase
conducting an investigation to obtain records
protect against international terrorism.
investigative powers, the Patriot Act strengthened
including expanding the reach of existing
support to terrorists and widening the definition
to groups targeting the United States
through threats and coercion.¹⁵ Although
criticized for curtailing civil liberties, it still
subjected the government to some limitations
treat terrorism predominantly as a law of

armed forces inside the United States by military matter.”

of virtually limitless presidential power, which remained unchanged during the first months of the war. Several federal cases suggested that the Bush administration treated terrorism as a crime subject to prosecution through the president’s war powers. The first case involved an American citizen who had been captured in Afghanistan in December 2001. Lindh was tried in court in Virginia for his alleged role in the September 11 fighting in Afghanistan. The second case involved a man believed to be the replacement for the pilot of the plane that failed to board the plane that crashed on 9/11. He had been arrested by immigration officials and was indicted on terrorism charges in 2002.

The new counterterrorism legislation, which passed by wide margins in both houses of Congress, expanded law enforcement’s authority to investigate terrorists. For example, the act loosened restrictions on the use of pen register or trap-and-leave devices to monitor the source and destination of telephone and internet communications and widened the use of “national security letters,” which permits the FBI to compel the disclosure of records without a court order. Another provision authorized “sneak and peak” searches of suspects’ homes. In addition, the Patriot Act increased the government’s access to personal records, including lists of books purchased at bookstores, by certifying it was necessary to obtain foreign intelligence information or to prevent terrorism.¹⁴ Besides enhancing the government’s surveillance powers, the act strengthened existing criminal statutes, including laws against providing material support to terrorists, and laws against providing material support or attempting to influence U.S. policy through terrorism. Although the Patriot Act has been rightly criticized for its expansion of government power, it operated within a legal framework that provided for judicial review and continued to address the law enforcement problem.

Nonetheless, a different approach took view. After John Walker Lindh's capture, attorney James Brosnahan to represent him. High-level U.S. officials to inform them they wanted to meet with him. For the next weeks were refused, even though Lindh repeatedly asked this while, Lindh was held incommunicado. Letters from Lindh's parents to their children were folded, tied to a stretcher with duct tape, and Lindh was naked, and deprived of sleep and food. Through force, top Pentagon officials "took Lindh's gloves off."¹⁶ Ultimately, the confessional interrogations served as the basis for the Justice Department attorneys who raised charges were ignored or discredited.¹⁷ When Lindh questioned the validity of his confession in open court, the government made a plea deal that would shield Lindh's abuse. Lindh plead guilty to one of ten charges and would not than face the death penalty.¹⁸ Lindh accepted the emotionally charged atmosphere and

Some administration officials believed the criminal justice system should not be used. In their view, the problem was that confessions were made with secrecy, incommunicado and thus were ill suited for the challenge of the terrorist threat. Involving lawyers and courts in harsh interrogations, to justify detention, was a mistake. A new approach—or "new paradigm"—was needed. That paradigm substituted military trial and possible prosecution in military tribunals for individuals suspected of terrorism or other offenses in the regular criminal courts. It also rejected harsh interrogation methods and spurned the traditional conduct of war, including the Geneva Conventions, and customary international law. The administration made a series of decisions to implement this new paradigm. These decisions helped set the way for an unprecedented global conflict.

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was taking shape beyond the public's
re, his parents retained defense attor-
m. Brosnahan immediately contacted
m that he was representing Lindh and
ext two months, Brosnahan's requests
peatedly asked to speak to a lawyer. All
cado and interrogated by U.S. officials.
son were blocked. Lindh was blind-
ape, held in a freezing dark cell while
d. In an effort to extract a confession
instructed interrogators to "take the
n extracted from Lindh through bru-
e basis for his prosecution. Meanwhile,
sed concerns about Lindh's treatment
Lindh's lawyers prepared to challenge
court, prosecutors offered a last-min-
se from scrutiny by allowing Lindh to
d serve a twenty-year sentence rather
ccepted, fearful of a jury's response in
fter 9/11.

ved that Lindh's case showed why the
e used to handle suspected terrorists.
riminal prosecutions were incompat-
detention, and coercive interrogation
enges presented by the current terror-
ts made it more difficult to engage in
ion without evidence, and to conceal
paradigm," as President Bush called
stituted indefinite military detention
ribunals for the requirement that indi-
ner wrongdoing be charged and tried
o embraced torture and other abusive
the rules that had long governed the
va Conventions, U.S. military regula-
v. In late 2001 and early 2002, the Bush
sions laying the legal groundwork for
elped define the post-9/11 era and pave
detention system outside the law.

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On October 7, 2001, the United States declared war on terrorism, launching its first military strikes in a long time. The campaign sought to target al Qaeda and to prevent it from harboring it. The United States was aided by the Afghan Northern Alliance, an umbrella organization that formed the bulk of the armed forces on the ground in Afghanistan. The conflict resembled past armed conflicts in Afghanistan. President Bush had described in speeches the need to destroy al Qaeda training camps, and Taliban air strikes were repelled by an offensive by U.S. and allied troops. Soon after the war in Afghanistan departed from these earlier military conflicts, the United States jettisoned the legal rules that applied to them. Any restrictions on the detention and treatment of prisoners of war.

These rules commonly known as “international humanitarian law” (“law of war”), are divided into two branches. The first, *jus ad bellum*, is concerned with the legitimacy of the use of force. The second, *jus in bello*, provides a legal framework for the conduct of war. It is derived from international treaties as well as binding customary law. This body of law is codified in the Geneva Conventions of 1899 and 1907, which address the means and methods of war to mitigate the harm and violence beyond the military objective. The goal is to achieve a just and lasting peace by, for example, codifying the principle of proportionality: lawfully attack only targets of military value. The Geneva Conventions. First drafted in Geneva, Switzerland, the Geneva Conventions have been ratified by over 100 countries and enjoy universal acceptance. The Geneva Conventions regulate the detention, interrogation, and treatment of prisoners of war. Each of the four Conventions provides specific rules for the treatment of prisoners. The two best known are the Third Geneva Convention on the treatment of enemy prisoners of war and the Fourth Geneva Convention which applies to civilians (or noncombatants). Under the Geneva Conventions, a nation can hold enemy soldiers and prisoners of war, but prisoners cannot be mistreated under any circumstances. Prisoners of war “must at all times be treated with humanity and must be protected from acts of violence or intimidation.”²¹ They must be released as soon as possible without delay after the cessation of active hostilities. The Geneva Conventions provide protections against abuse and mistreatment of prisoners of war during continued detention and the guarantee of a fair trial for any crimes they commit during the armed conflict.

commenced Operation Enduring Freedom against Afghanistan. This military campaign was designed to punish the Taliban for supporting and harboring Osama bin Laden and by other members of NATO and by the coalition of mujahideen, who provided the ground forces. At first, the U.S.-led military invasion of Afghanistan was viewed as a conflict more than the new kind of war that has become. It began with air strikes against cities, air defenses and was followed by a ground invasion. However, the intervention in Afghanistan was not a military campaign when the Bush administration resorted to armed conflict in order to evade the treatment of those it captured.

international humanitarian law” (or the laws of war). The first branch, known as *jus ad bellum*, governs the resort to armed force. The second branch, known as *jus in bello*, governs the conduct of an armed conflict already in progress. The first treaties ratified by individual countries in the 19th century are the Hague Conventions of 1864, which set forth rules governing the methods and means of warfare and seek to limit the use of force that is necessary to achieve the military objective. The second principle that military organizations may not violate is the principle of proportionality.¹⁹ It also includes the Geneva Conventions of 1864, in 1864 and last revised in 1949, which are ratified by every country in the world and thus set forth rules governing the treatment of prisoners of war and the release of prisoners by individual states. The Geneva Conventions also set forth rules for a different category of prisoners of war, the Geneva Convention, which regulates the treatment of prisoners of war, and the Fourth Geneva Convention, which regulates the treatment of civilians (combatants).²⁰ Under the Geneva Conventions, prisoners of war are protected for the duration of the conflict, but they are not to be held in any circumstances. To the contrary, prisoners of war must be “released and repatriated as soon as possible” and “protected . . . against all forms of violence and reprisals” also must be “released and repatriated as soon as possible”²² Civilians enjoy similar protection as well as restrictions on their conduct. They must be given a fair trial if they are prosecuted for any crime committed during the conflict.

The Geneva Conventions recognize for prisoner-of-war status because, for armed forces of a party to the conflict, volunteer corps that does not operate under a fixed sign of war.²³ Article 5 of the Third Geneva Convention states that persons who do not wish to be treated as prisoners of war until a competent tribunal, should any doubt arise as to their status, shall be treated as prisoners of war. Article 3—so named because it is common to all four conventions—provides a baseline of treatment for all persons in the hands of an enemy. It prohibits trials that do not meet the requirements of Article 3 and bars torture, cruel, humiliating or degrading treatment. Common Article 3 is widely understood as a part of customary international law, making it binding on all states, even an enemy that has not signed the Geneva Conventions ensure that “nobody in enemy hands”

Before the attacks on September 11, 2001, the Geneva Conventions, even in those countries that had not signed them, also had implemented the Geneva Conventions. The United States’ decades-long adherence to the Geneva Conventions was not simply the product of idealism; it was a result of a long history of military leaders that the arbitrary orders would place U.S. service members’ hands and that abusive interrogation was as well as immoral.²⁷

The Bush administration, however, did not follow the Geneva Conventions. An ominous sign came on November 13, 2001, when the President issued an executive order calling for the establishment of military commissions to try persons captured in the “war on terror.”²⁸ The order stated that the President could prosecute any foreign national if he “is or was a member of . . . al Qaeda or conspired to commit” a terrorist act. The order authorized the President to impose sentences of up to life imprisonment.

Military commissions historically were used by military officers to fill a gap in criminal justice when civilian courts were not open and functioning. They were used in battlefield situations in which martial law was in effect, in civilian authority existed or in occupied territories. American military commissions were

that some individuals will not qualify. For example, they are not members of the armed forces, or they are part of a militia or volunteer group, or they are not part of an organized command structure, carry no identifying insignia, or do not carry identification, or adhere to the laws of war. The Geneva Convention, however, requires that individual status be determined by a competent authority. A determination is made by a competent authority as to their status.²⁴ In addition, Common Article 3, common to all four Geneva Conventions—prohibits all individuals denied prisoner-of-war status from being subjected to internationally recognized standards of humane treatment, and other abuse. This prohibition is said to have attained the status of customary international law binding on the United States even against an enemy. In short, the Geneva Conventions provide that the hands of the enemy can be outside the law.”²⁵

Since 1949, the United States had followed the Geneva Conventions in conflicts in which the enemy did not.²⁶ It had implemented the Conventions through internal regulations. The United States’ adherence to the Geneva Conventions was also reflected in a pragmatic assessment of the risks of detention and mistreatment of prisoners of war. Prisoners were at greater risk if they fell into enemy hands, and harsh methods were counterproductive as

the United States deliberately scuttled this legal framework. On September 13, 2001, when Bush issued an executive order authorizing military commissions to try prisoners of war. The order stated that the commissions were authorized if the president had “reason to believe” that the individual had “engaged in, aided or abetted, or conspired to engage in” such activities.²⁹ The order empowered the commissions to sentence individuals to imprisonment or death.

The commissions were ad hoc trials conducted by military commissions created when the ordinary courts were not available. The Commissions were used, for example, in Guantanamo Bay, Cuba, where martial law had been declared because no other courts were available in enemy territory. In fact, the first military commission was used by General Winfield Scott in

occupied parts of Mexico to punish unprovoked conduct by American troops during the Mexican Revolution.

The United States had not used military commissions since 1905, and those commissions had come under intense criticism. Moreover, those military commissions were used against only a handful of individuals. By contrast, the new commissions could be used against anyone suspected of supporting, aiding, or committing acts of war without geographic or temporal limitations.

U.S. military law also had evolved since the adoption of the Uniform Code of Military Justice in 1950. All members of the armed services of the United States were subject to the courts-martial system, which provided more protections to defendants than did the military commissions. Bush's order threatened to take military law off course, undermining the integrity and reputation it had gained over the years by providing fair trials for defendants.

The Bush administration's creation of military commissions was carried out in secret, driven by "a small group of military commission officials" wielding "remarkable power" over executive branch agencies and Congress. Critics within the military's lawyers, the Judge Advocate General's Corps, eventually became some of the commission's fiercest critics. "It is a great concern that we were setting up our own ideals," commented John A. Gordon, a former deputy CIA director who served on the President's Council staff.³⁴ Officials from the Justice Department criticized the use of military commissions as a way to more capably prosecute terrorism suspects while maintaining constitutional principles.³⁵

Although Bush's November 13, 2001, order promised "due process and fair trial," that promise was illusory. The order provided no safeguards, including the presumption of innocence, the government's evidence and cross-examination, and the right to appeal to civilian court. The order also required the commissions to adhere to the Geneva Conventions, the laws of war, and military law. The Defense Department's initial, unceremonious announcement of the president's order undermined the commissions' procedures. But those reforms f

undisciplined action and other miscon-
Mexican-American War.³⁰

itary commissions since World War II,
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s were of limited scope, as they were
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significantly since the establishment of
(UCMJ) in 1951. The UCMJ applies to
the United States. By 2001, the UCMJ's
y boast that it provided more robust
e civilian justice system. But President
ry justice backward, undermining the
through years of reforms dedicated to

a of military commissions was largely
small core of conservative administra-
ower."³² These officials excluded other
ess. They also refused to consult with
ate General's (JAG) Corps, who would
missions' harshest critics.³³ "There was
p a process that was contrary to our
lon, a retired air force general and for-
on President Bush's National Security
ce Department's criminal division also
ions, arguing that federal courts could
pects without compromising constitu-

01, order promised defendants "a full
ory. The commissions lacked critical
on of innocence, the right to see the
amine its witnesses, and any right of
so did not guarantee that trials would
the customary laws of war, or U.S.
t tried to quell the criticism that sur-
ent's order by tweaking the commis-
ailed to address critical shortcomings.

The commissions still allowed evidence against defendants the right to be present during the trial. The commissions also claimed the attack was a conspiracy, that had never been recognized as such. Foreign citizens could be tried by the commissions. The creation of a permanent second-class justice system was a crime discriminated based on nationality.

President Bush's military commissions were the cornerstone of the emerging detention regime. Treating prisoners as "enemy combatants" who could be held indefinitely without trial (whether military or civilian) though the power to detain enemy soldiers is grounded in the law of war, the admission of a "soldier" was entirely novel. Most prisoners had no resemblance to the legal definition of an enemy combatant. They were not members of an armed force. They also had never been on a battlefield. The commissions would become the central feature of the war on terror, condemning prisoners to what one prisoner described as a "sort of purgatory."³⁷

A series of secret legal memos issued by the Department of Justice on the treatment of prisoners held in the "war on terror" became public. They tell a disturbing story of top Bush administration lawyers and others who sought to place prisoners outside the law.

On January 9, 2002, John Yoo and William H. Taft IV, in the Department of Justice, advised the President on the applicability of international humanitarian law. Yoo and Delahunty concluded that the conflict was between the United States and al Qaeda or the Taliban and thus the Geneva Conventions on the detention of prisoners or use of military force did not apply. They also defined the conflict with al Qaeda and the Taliban in Afghanistan, thus claiming al Qaeda was a terrorist organization whose members were not afforded prisoners of war or civilians protections. The commissions afforded the minimal protections of Common Article 3 of the Geneva Conventions. Al Qaeda or associated organizations became "non-international" conflicts with nations, not "international" conflicts with

... obtained through coercion, denied
... their trial, and lacked impartiality.
... authority to try offenses, such as con-
... zed as war crimes. Furthermore, only
... commissions, presaging the creation
... system for noncitizens that openly dis-
... ions, however, formed only one part
... the administration also began classify-
... and claiming that it could hold them
... (military or civilian) if it chose to.³⁶ Even
... soldiers for the duration of a conflict
... administration's concept of "enemy sol-
... ers seized after 9/11 bore little, if any,
... traditional understanding of a com-
... n enemy government's armed forces.
... field nor had they taken part in hos-
... allies. In time, imprisonment without
... re of the post-9/11 detention system,
... Pentagon official called a "Kafkaesque

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... urbing story of a concerted attempt by
... officials to create a category of prison-

... Robert J. Delahunty, a special counsel
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... arian law to the "war on terrorism."³⁸
... the Geneva Conventions did not apply
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... Article 3, they argued, did not cover al
... ause it applied only to civil wars within
... with terrorist groups.

Yoo and Delahunty reached a similar conclusion, though Afghanistan had been a party to the Geneva Conventions since 1956. They contended that Afghanistan had been overrun and was under the control of the Taliban rather than a central government. They argued that the Taliban leadership were dominated by, and could not be held responsible for, as a result, Afghanistan had ceased to be a party to the Geneva Conventions. Taliban members were not entitled to the same protections. Nor could Taliban members invoke the Geneva Conventions as international law, since those rules did not bind individuals entirely outside any protection.

Jay S. Bybee, then the OLC's top law clerk, reached a similar conclusion. He pointed out in a memo to both Haynes and Gonzales, did not apply to the detention of al Qaeda detainees. The president could unilaterally "suspend" his obligations toward Afghanistan or, alternatively, the Taliban failed to qualify as prisoners of war. The decision whether to afford prisoners of war status was the president's alone to make.

These memos helped provide the legal basis for the president's authority to detain al Qaeda members subject to no restriction other than the president's discretion. A hallmark of U.S. policy after 9/11, the use of the language and imagery of war to justify extraordinary powers, defining the war in such a way as to expand presidential powers. The memos also served to shield officials from potential criminal liability. The War Crimes Act had made it a federal felony to violate the Geneva Conventions (which include the Geneva Convention on the Treatment of Prisoners of War).⁴⁰ The Geneva Conventions require the United States to punish any person who commits a war crime under the Geneva Conventions.⁴¹ The War Crimes Act, passed by Congress, was intended to ensure that the United States would not be seen as harboring war criminals, such as the North Vietnamese soldiers during the Vietnam War. After 9/11, many were concerned about exposing America to liability for violating the Geneva Conventions during the interrogation of detainees. The determination that the Geneva Conventions did not apply to al Qaeda or the Taliban was a key step in that process.

lar conclusion about the Taliban, even to all four Geneva Conventions since it was a “failed state” whose territory was under the control of a violent militia or faction. The administration claimed that the Taliban and its leadership could not be distinguished from, al Qaeda. As a result, the administration was not a party to the Geneva Conventions, so it was not bound by any of the Conventions’ protections. The administration argued that the protections of customary international law do not bind the president, thus placing those protections outside the scope of the protections provided under the law of war. The administration’s lawyer and now a federal appeals court judge, Judge Bybee, argued that the Geneva Conventions, Bybee’s argument, and White House counsel Alberto Gonzales’ argument on behalf of al Qaeda prisoners. In addition, the administration argued that the Geneva Convention “do not apply” to the prisoners. Alternatively, conclude that members of the Taliban are not members of war under the treaty. Either way, the administration argued that the Geneva Convention does not provide protection under the Geneva Convention. The administration’s argument is a failure.

building blocks for a detention regime based on executive say-so. In what became a landmark case, the president would invoke the language of the Constitution’s extraordinary powers while at the same time arguing that he should avoid any limits on the exercise of those powers. The administration had a darker purpose: insulating U.S. officials from liability. A 1996 law known as the War Crimes Act prohibited any person to commit a grave breach of the Geneva Conventions and any violation of Common Article 3 of the Geneva Conventions. The law prohibited state parties to enact penal legislation that prohibited or ordered a grave breach of the Geneva Conventions. The law was passed by an overwhelming majority of Congress. The law provided that the United States could prosecute any person who tortured American soldiers or civilians on 9/11, however, White House officials argued that the Geneva Conventions did not apply to American military as well as CIA officials. The administration argued that the Geneva Conventions do not apply to the Taliban in their treatment and detention. The administration’s argument is a failure. The administration’s argument that the Geneva Conventions do not apply to the Taliban thus provided a shield against

future criminal liability, since liability fell within the Conventions' zone of protection.

Alberto Gonzales summarized the memo dated January 25, 2002.⁴² The “war against terrorism is a new kind of war,” one that placed “information quickly from detainees to prevent the Geneva Conventions’ restrictions from being considered “quaint” the various privileges of war. Gonzales thus urged the president that the Geneva Conventions did not apply to a determination would not only free the detainees but also would create “a reasonable basis for concluding that the Conventions do not apply and thus “provide a solid defense against potential harm to America’s credibility in the Conventions, Gonzales said, could be minimized by treating detainees “humanely.”⁴³

Not everyone in the administration agreed. Powell urged the president to follow the Geneva Conventions. Powell explained that denying detainees the protections would carry significant costs, reputationally and in practice” and “undermin[ing] the morale of the troops.” It would also deprive the United States of the moral foundation for detaining individuals and nations, including critical allies. William H. Taft IV, Powell’s chief of staff, expressed concerns.⁴⁵

But Bush rejected their advice. Instead, he concluded that the Geneva Conventions did not apply to Qaeda in Afghanistan “or elsewhere throughout the world.” He determined that although the Geneva Conventions applied to Taliban in Afghanistan, all Taliban detainees were not entitled to them. If such, Bush said, they failed to qualify for the Geneva Conventions also for the baseline protections of Common Article 3. Bush asserted his authority to suspend the Geneva Conventions if necessary.⁴⁷ To be sure, Bush said that a “policy will be to treat detainees humanely and, to the extent consistent with military necessity, in a manner consistent with the Geneva Conventions.” But “humane” treatment was a malleable concept. If not a legal obligation, this weak instruction allowed for the pervasive and wholesale abuse of prisoners.

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against terrorism,” Gonzales stated, “is
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stent with the principles of Geneva.”⁴⁸
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would do nothing to prevent the per-
s, especially when pressure to produce

actionable intelligence mounted. In addition, the “President’s Plan” never included the CIA, which was a major constraint.

The themes that Bush had sounded in 2001 began to assume a tangible form. In the fall of 2001, the Justice Department sought legal cover for interrogation methods that included torture and abuse of prisoners by the United States. The methods claimed they were necessary to protect the United States and that the United States was not obligated—morally or legally—to afford terrorists any protections.

An important step in the descent into torture was an OLC memo signed by Bybee but reportedly drafted by Addington and White House counsel. The memo assessed the permissible standards under a federal statute criminalizing torture.⁵⁰ Congress had passed the United States’ obligations under the Geneva Convention on other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. In the treaty in 1988, the United States reserved the right to use absolute and could not be excused even if the act was authorized by the federal statute, any person who “inflicts severe mental pain or suffering,” other than the death penalty, sanctions, on a person in his custody or under his control, if sentenced to up to twenty years in prison, shall be liable. ⁵² Thus, even if U.S. officials could claim that the Geneva Convention Crimes Act because the Geneva Convention was not binding with al Qaeda and the Taliban, as Bush argued, the United States is finally liable under the federal antitorture statute.

The “torture memo,” as it is becoming known, was written by Georgetown Law School professor David Lubin, who was then in the executive branch of the U.S. government. The phrase “specifically intended” in the definition of severe pain must be the intent of the interrogator, not the interrogator’s intent were obtaining information, rather than inflicting pain (which was the intent in the case), the interrogator would not be liable. The definition of “severe pain” to mean pain causing “degradation resulting in the loss of significant mental suffering must be prolonged to the point where the definition was an irrelevant medical benefit.”

In addition, the promise of “humane treatment” remained free from even this minimal constraint. In the first days after 9/11 thus started. In the following months, the administration developed methods designed to sanction the torturers in the United States. Supporters of these methods argued that they would prevent future terrorist acts and that they were morally or legally—to afford suspected ter-

rorists. A memo that led to lawlessness was an August 1, 2002, memo reportedly drafted by Yoo, with contribution from special counsel Timothy E. Flanigan.⁴⁹ The memo argued that the standards of conduct under a 1994 federal law that the United States had enacted this law to implement the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment.⁵¹ By signing the memo, Yoo recognized that the ban on torture was not absolute. It was an exception under exigent circumstances. Under the law, “any act specifically intended to inflict severe physical or mental pain administered pursuant to lawful authority or control could be prosecuted and punished by death, if death of the prisoner could not be prosecuted under the War Crimes Act. If the conventions did not apply to the conflict in Afghanistan, they still could be held criminally liable under the statute.

Yoo, as is well known, helped create what George Orwell called a “torture culture” within the administration.⁵³ The memo interpreted the antitorture statute to mean that infliction of pain was the interrogator’s “precise objective.” Thus, if the interrogator was providing information to prevent some future terrorist act, which could almost always be said to be the case, the act was not punishable. The memo also narrowly defined “severe physical or mental pain” as “death, organ failure, or permanent damage to bodily functions” and asserted that the pain must be severe.⁵⁴ The source for the definition of severe pain was the benefits statute that had no relationship

to established domestic or international law. The technique conveniently suited the authors' needs for a technique such as waterboarding—in which water is poured over a prisoner's cloth-covered face to induce suffocation. If, to induce extraordinary suffering, it would be used.

The “torture memo” was not an academic exercise. Rather, as a second classified document, it was drafted in response to a request for “enhanced interrogation techniques” to be used on a terrorist suspect.⁵⁵ Following his seizure, the suspect was taken to a secret CIA prison in Thailand. The suspect was a high-ranking al Qaeda official who possessed information that could prevent another terrorist attack. Zubaydah was not providing.⁵⁶ In mid-2002, the Office of General Counsel met with top administration officials, the attorney general, the national security adviser, and the director of Central Intelligence to discuss the use of “alternative” interrogation techniques. The OLC was asked to prepare a memorandum by late 2002. The OLC subsequently informed the CIA of its conclusions.

Bybee's classified August 1, 2002, memorandum set forth the OLC's legal interpretation of the federal prohibition on torture. Set forth in painstaking detail, the methods not only included waterboarding, but also stuffing detainees in dark, constricted spaces; slamming detainees into walls; and dousing detainees with water. The methods while they were clothed in only a diaper. The methods use in combination and over long periods to induce pain and desperation. Medical and psychological personnel to monitor the interrogations and ensure the health of the detainee. As one medical official later told the OLC, “We only because we need you for information.”

The memo described the interrogation techniques in the following terms:

In this procedure [waterboarding], the detainee is placed on an inclined bench, which is approximately 30 degrees. The individual's feet are gently elevated. A cloth is placed over the eyes. Water is then applied to the cloth.

nal understandings of torture but that s. Under this twisted logic, although a which water is poured over a bound ce the sensation of drowning—might ld not constitute torture.

ademic exercise, nor was it penned in a OLC memo from the same day shows, st for permission to apply a series of to Abu Zubaydah, a recently captured e in Pakistan in March 2002, Zubaydah hailand. The CIA insisted that Zubay- icial with valuable and time-sensitive r attack, information the CIA believed l-May, attorneys from the CIA's Office nistration officials, including the attor- iser, and the White House counsel, to gation methods. Another meeting took ing these methods against Zubaydah. no assessing the methods' legality and conclusions.⁵⁷

memo (later made public) applied the aral antitorture law to specific interro- king and mind-numbing detail, those ing but also extreme sleep deprivation; boxes; repeatedly slamming detainees n cold water for up to twenty minutes per.⁵⁸ The methods were intended for ods of time to instill helplessness, fear, ological personnel would be on hand sure that the suffering did not leave a ld a detainee, "I look after your body tion."⁵⁹

tion methods in sterile, almost clinical

he individual is bound securely to an yely four feet by seven feet. The indi- loth is placed over the forehead and th in a controlled manner. As this is

done, the cloth is lowered until it covers the person's face. The cloth is saturated and completely wet. The person's mouth is slightly restricted for 20 to 40 seconds. This causes an increase in carbon dioxide levels in the blood. This increase in the carbon dioxide levels causes the person to breathe. This effort plus the cloth pressure causes "panic, confusion and incipient panic," i.e., the person does not breathe any water into his lungs. The water is continuously applied from the cloth for 15 to 20 inches. After this period, the cloth is lowered and the person can breathe unimpeded for three or four minutes. The person is immediately relieved by the removal of the cloth and then be repeated.⁶⁰

Arbitrary lines were drawn in an effort to determine how waterboarding could be practiced, but the limits on blood sodium levels within a safe range were not set, or ceilings to keep them awake, but no limits were set. They could be stuffed in cramped, dark conditions for hours at a time. The memo's language is "the precise bureaucratese favored by CIA officials" and detailing

how to fashion a collar for slamming, how many days he can be kept without food, how long he should be told before being locked in a cell, and how short of having a jury decide that they are guilty of the and abusive treatment of prisoners.⁶¹

Language was distorted, logic twisted, and the memo provide legal impunity—a "golden shield" for state-sanctioned torture.⁶² The memo was distributed to the White House counsel's office, attorney general's office, the vice president's office.⁶³ All of President George W. Bush's advisers—Vice President Cheney, National Security Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld, CIA Director George Tenet, and Attorney General John Ashcroft—were talking about this in the White House.

covers both the nose and mouth. Once the cloth covers the mouth and nose, air flow is restricted due to the presence of the cloth. This leads to a rise in the individual's blood oxygen level. The low oxygen level stimulates increased effort to breathe, which produces the perception of "suffocation" and the perception of drowning. The individual is then lifted. During those 20 to 40 seconds, the individual is held at a height of twelve to twenty-four inches above the ground, and the individual is allowed to take several full breaths. The sensation of drowning is relieved upon removal of the cloth. The procedure may

be used to defend the techniques' legality: "The individual is kept alive only with a saline solution to keep him hydrated; detainees could be shackled to floors or walls for more than seven days; detainees could be held in containers, but not for more than eight hours; and, as the *New York Times* later wrote, was 'a technique used by dungeon masters throughout history,'"

... of putting a prisoner against the wall, exactly as described in the manual (11), and what, specifically, he was told to do: "Put a box with an insect—all to stop just as the prisoner is about to lose consciousness. These acts violate the laws against torture

... ed, and morality abandoned in order to get the information," as one former CIA official dubbed the program. The torture memos were approved by the CIA, the Defense Intelligence Agency, and the National Security Council, and President Bush's top national security adviser, Condoleezza Rice, Secretary of State Powell, CIA Director George Tenet, and Attorney General John Ashcroft—met and discussed the interrogation techniques."⁶⁴ ("Why are we doing this? History will not judge this kindly,"

Ashcroft reportedly warned at the time. The heads of the Senate and House intelligence committees—also were briefed on the technology and how much they were told remains unclear.

In a subsequent March 2003 memorandum, Yoo reiterated his conclusions of his August 2001 “torture” memo to the Department, which had already been made public. Although Yoo later described the memo as “extraordinary” and “beyond the power” of the executive branch, the March 2003 memo not only stated that outside the United States had no constitutional applicability of constitutional protections, but also stated that the States in the “war on terror.”⁶⁹ According to the memo, the military to seize people living in the United States without restriction, and imprison them if they believed they presented a threat to the United States.

Yoo also said that criminal prohibitions should not be applied to the military during a conflict. He argued that the president’s constitutional power as commander in chief to detain and interrogate terrorist suspects.⁷⁰ Yoo thus directed the executive branch to legislate on national security issues, and to exercise its constitutional authority to protect the United States from terrorism. “Congress,” Yoo argued, “cannot regulate the president’s ability to detain and interrogate terrorist suspects.” Yoo also argued that his ability to direct troop movements, and to regulate his ability to direct troop movements, and more, any military official accused of prisoner abuse could properly assert a claim of executive privilege as long as he said he was trying to protect the United States from attacks. In other words, any action was justified if it was in the name of national security.⁷²

U.S. officials had condoned, encouraged, and participated in the September 11. American soldiers were used to quash the insurgency that arose after the end of the war in Iraq. From Spain during the Spanish-American War, the U.S. government trained and funded paramilitary forces that tortured and brutalized their own people. The U.S. routinely beat and mistreated criminals, and the “degree” before legal and judicial reform in the mid-twentieth century.⁷⁴ But the U.S. government

ne.)⁶⁵ The Republican and Democratic intelligence committees—the so-called Gang of Eight—were also skeptical of the techniques, although the details of what was known were unknown.⁶⁶

Yoo, however, sought to extend the logic and the “torture memo” from the CIA to the Defense Department. He resorted to harsh interrogation methods, and he dismissed the legal advice as “near boilerplate,” the most radical and unprecedented vision of executive power. He only asserted that foreign nationals outside the United States had no constitutional rights, but it also questioned the rights of individuals inside the United States. According to Yoo, the president could order anyone in the United States, interrogate them without charges, trial, or a hearing if they were deemed a threat to the country.

Yoo argued that actions against abuse in the UCMJ should be limited to wartime and would interfere with the commander in chief to detain and interrogate. He also questioned Congress’s prerogative to regulate the military, suggesting that the executive branch’s actions in response to a country from attack would justify any actions. Yoo wrote, “may no more regulate the treatment of enemy combatants than it may regulate the movements on the battlefield.”⁷¹ Furthermore, he argued that violating criminal prohibitions against torture, even on a claim of necessity or self-defense as long as it protects the country against further terrorist attacks, is legal if taken in the name of national security.

Yoo also argued that the military encouraged, and engaged in torture before the 9/11 attacks. He cited the case of a Filipino who was overboarded in an attempt to reach the United States and was seized by the Philippines during the Vietnam War.⁷³ During the 1980s, the U.S. military groups in Central America that were known for their brutality. And police officers across America were using torture on suspects by giving them the “third degree.” In the 1990s, the government started to curb these practices in the name of national security. The government had never before sought to

legalize torture nor to make torture official. No president had ever claimed that domestic and international prohibitions against an extrajudicial detention regime to engage in torture.

The Bush administration maintained that there was a global terrorist threat, which 9/11 had shown the United States had the capability and ability to inflict damage on the United States. The administration's approach was shaped by the "torture memos" by Vice President Cheney: "even if the worst is an unimaginable coming due, act as if it is not." The administration was willing to engage in another terrorist attack at all cost, to ignore evidence and analysis, licensed circumventing the law, and secrecy to hide bad conduct and misdeeds behind major military and foreign policy decisions, such as the invasion of Iraq. It also helped create and stretch the limits. It excused torturing even those who might not have any relevant information. And it did so regardless of whether the desired information could be obtained.

The Bush administration's policies were widely criticized on the legal and political spectrum. Harold Koh, a former Supreme Court Justice, called the torture memo "perhaps the worst opinion" he had ever read.⁷⁶ Ruth Wedgwood, a former judge using military commissions, and former Supreme Court Justice, condemned the memo in an op-ed in the *New York Times*.⁷⁷ The army's judge advocate general, called the memo "a disgrace."⁷⁸ And Harvard Law School professor, called the OLC from October 2003 until resignation, "a disgrace." August 2002 and March 2003 memos "were a disgrace to the society in their legal analysis" and recommended the use of torture.

A Justice Department internal ethics report found that Yoo and Bybee had committed professional misconduct by shoddy reasoning and by disregarding their duty to exercise judgment and render thorough, candid, and objective advice. Before that, in early 2004, the CIA instructed the agency's interrogation program. The Justice Department of Justice withdrew the OLC's legal opinion setting out the legal defense of "enhanced interrogation" of the antitorture statute. But the December 2004

it continued to define torture narrowly, excluding the various tactics described in the secret memo. Then, in May 2005, the OLC issued the final memo on the CIA's torture program. One explanation was that the August 2002 memo were still legal;⁸² another was that they were legal even if used in combination with other interrogation methods did not contravene the prohibition on inhuman, or degrading treatment (some of which were).

Like the earlier OLC memos, the May 2005 memo justified the brutal treatment of prisoners in a veil of secrecy and the intricacies of throwing detainees into water, or using force and changing their soiled diapers. The OLC argued that the interrogation methods might be impermissible in criminal investigations or traditional war zones, but permissible in national security interrogations. The OLC argued that "the need to protect and virtually anything could be justified if the government was protecting the country from terrorism" had become a license for torture.

The Bush administration's response to the OLC's obligations and its constitutional heritage. The Founding Fathers viewed the separation of powers by the three branches of government as essential to preserving both liberty and justice. As Madison warned, the "accumulation of all powers in the same hands . . . may justly be pronounced the greatest enemy liberty has." Consequently, Madison and the other Framers created a system of checks and balances to prevent the executive, from becoming too powerful. The Framers made the president the commander in chief of the armed forces, but sought to limit this power. Alexander Hamilton, in *Federalist No. 70*, recognized that the commander in chief was more than the supreme command and control of the armed forces.⁸⁷ The Constitution also vested the power to raise and support armed forces, to define and punish offenses against the law, to make rules concerning the capture and treatment of prisoners of war, and to make rules concerning the capture and treatment of prisoners of war. Supreme Court Justice Robert Jackson, in *Ex parte Quirin*, argued that President Harry Truman's seizure of power

ly and did not question the legality of separate, classified August 2002 memo.⁸¹ Three more memos aimed at shoring up and explained why the techniques in the classified memo explained why those techniques were permissible;⁸³ and a third described why the CIA's operations were even the lower threshold of cruel, inhuman, and degrading treatment (sometimes called "torture lite").⁸⁴

May 2005 memos cloaked the harsh and illegal nature of the techniques in the name of legality even as they discussed the techniques of waterboarding, sleep deprivation, and walling, manipulating their sleep cycles, and other techniques. The memos acknowledged that these techniques were not permissible under the rules for ordinary wars governed by the Geneva Convention. But, the memos explained, these were not normal rules therefore did not apply, and were justified based on the theory that the government was preventing another terrorist attack.⁸⁵ The "war on terrorism" was a war on torture.

The actions taken after 9/11 flouted both America's legal heritage. Those who founded the country sought a balance between the three branches of government: liberty and security. As James Madison wrote, the separation of powers, legislative, executive, and judiciary, was a check and balance system that pronounced the very definition of tyranny. The framers of the Constitution sought to prevent any one branch, including the executive, from becoming too powerful. Even though the Constitution gave the president the title of commander in chief of the nation's armed forces, it limited his power. Hamilton, no foe of executive authority, wrote that the president's power "amount[s] to nothing more than the power of directing the military and naval forces of the United States, and of significant control over war powers, to declare war, to raise and support the armies and navies, to defend the country against the law of nations, and to determine the capture and treatment of enemy prisoners."⁸⁸ As Justice Brandeis wrote in a seminal case invalidating the government's seizure of privately owned steel mills during the

Korean War, the Constitution did not give the president the title of “chief of the country” or give him a “monarchical” status.

Nonetheless, President Bush claimed a broad war power, at least insofar as the “war” he declared did so under the premise that he had the authority to interpret statutes but to do so independently of Congress. The memos contained perhaps the most chilling part of their assertion that even federal laws passed by Congress were unconstitutional if read to limit the president’s actions when he saw fit.⁹⁰

This conception of presidential power was a central part of the theory of the “unitary executive.” In its original form, the theory maintained that the other branches of government constitutionally infringe on the distinct powers of the executive’s control over administrative procedures. But the theory took on a new meaning during the administration’s battles with Congress. In 1973, when Dick Cheney, then the ranking member of the committee investigating the Iran-Contra scandal (the report known as the “Minority Report”) threatened to strip its constitutional authority by prohibiting the administration from the Contras in Nicaragua.⁹¹ Cheney criticized the restriction of executive power and advocated a broad view of presidential prerogatives in the area of foreign policy. In 1993, Cheney, along with David Addington (then a senior member of the committee’s staff), sought to implement the theory of the unitary executive by claiming that Congress could not restrict the president from what he deemed necessary to protect national security, from interrogating prisoners to listening to intercepted communications from citizens without a warrant. In their view, the executive branch, by Congress and the courts and free press, was the only branch to safeguard the nation from terrorism and nuclear proliferation.

The linchpin in the Bush administration’s unitary executive policy was its effort to avoid all court challenges to the administration’s America’s commitment to judicial process. The administration believed that undermined its ability to confront the challenges it believed, might impose constraints on the administration. There should be none if the country was in a state of emergency. Usually, many of these architects were the

to make the president “Commander in Chief of the monopoly of ‘war powers.’”⁸⁹

The fear of exclusive executive control over the “war on terrorism” was concerned. Bush’s use of constitutional authority not merely to act unilaterally and unilaterally. The torture and the chilling articulations of this theory, with the prohibition of torture would be unconstitutional authority to conduct interrogations as

power is sometimes associated with the original incarnation, the unitary executive. Two branches of government could not exercise powers of the executive, such as the firing and hiring of agencies through firing and hiring. A more extreme form during the Reagan administration during the 1980s. In a key development, a Republican on a House select committee, commissioned a report (later known as the “Casper Report”) that argued that Congress had exceeded its authority in preventing President Reagan from supporting and implementing various post-Watergate reforms that protected virtually unlimited presidential authority over policy and national security.⁹² After 9/11, the report (who had served on the minority committee) argued that their expansive vision of executive power would regulate the president’s authority to do anything in the country, from imprisoning and surveilling the private conversations of American citizens. Only a strong executive, unchecked by Congress, could act without public scrutiny, could respond to other threats to its security.

The administration’s detention and interrogation policies were under review. The policy’s architects viewed the rule of law and the rule of law as a weakness in the current terrorist threat. Courts, which were to be optimally protected. Ironically, the architects themselves lawyers.

The desire to avoid judicial review of the growing number of prisoners seized in Afghanistan and elsewhere. By December 2001, the United States had 114 prisoners in its custody: thirty-seven were held in Afghanistan, and the rest were on an island in the eastern Arabian Sea. In addition, more than 100 were being held by the Northern Alliance and other forces in Afghanistan.⁹³ The United States was looking for a location for continued detention and processing. In 2001, the Defense Department disclosed that 114 prisoners, it announced, were being held in Guantánamo Bay, Cuba.⁹⁵ The administration has published volumes about the aims—and contradictions—of its policy.

Located in Cuba's southeast corner, about four hundred air miles from Miami, Guantánamo is 45 square miles (thirty-one of them on land) and is almost half as big as the District of Columbia. It was a Bay during the Spanish-American War, and the United States base and coaling station there. A 1903 agreement between the United States created a lease agreement that gave the United States "jurisdiction and control" over the base which would continue until both parties agreed to terminate it. "Eighty" over the territory.⁹⁶ A 1934 treaty between the United States would continue until both parties agreed to terminate it. The agreement made Guantánamo unique in that military bases are leased for a specific period of time; if the base must be closed or the agreement expires, the base must be closed or the agreement terminated. In contrast, would remain under U.S. control as long as desired.

Over time, Guantánamo became part of the United States. In 1953, Guantánamo's commander announced that, for practical purposes, is American territory. It is entirely self-sufficient, with its own water supply, entertainment facilities, and franchises, including McDonald's.¹⁰⁰ Also, unlike other U.S. territories, there is no Status of Forces Agreement between the United States and the government of civil and criminal jurisdiction over there. Instead, U.S. law applies at Guantánamo to U.S. personnel but also to the third-party nationalities.

quickly gained momentum because of the actions taken by the United States in Afghanistan. In late 2001, the United States had forty-five prisoners of war being held at the Kandahar airport in Afghanistan. The amphibious assault ship in the north of the bay had more than three thousand prisoners were held by the United States and other anti-Taliban forces elsewhere. The United States wanted to bring the prisoners to a secure location for further interrogation.⁹⁴ On December 27, 2001, the United States moved that location: al Qaeda and Taliban prisoners were transferred to the U.S. Naval Base at Guantánamo. The administration's choice of Guantánamo spoke to the contradictions—of its emerging detention

center. Guantánamo Bay is approximately 100 miles from Florida. Guantánamo Bay's forty-five square miles (and) make it larger than Manhattan and New York City. After acquiring Guantánamo Bay in 1898, the United States established a naval base there. A treaty between Cuba and the United States in 1903 gave the United States "complete jurisdiction and control" while recognizing Cuba's "ultimate sovereignty" and stipulated that this lease agreement could not be modified or abrogated.⁹⁷ The lease was intended to last in that all other overseas American territories had a finite term and when that term expires, the lease would be renegotiated.⁹⁸ Guantánamo, by contrast, remained under U.S. control for as long as the United States

exists. It is part of the United States in all but name. In 1962, the United States announced that the naval base "for all practical purposes is U.S. territory."⁹⁹ Guantánamo also became a major center for water plant, schools, transportation systems, franchise outlets and chains, from Starbucks to McDonald's. Like every other U.S. overseas military base, the United States had to define the assignment of personnel at Guantánamo to define the assignment of personnel over military and other personnel. The United States sent not only to U.S. military personnel but also to U.S. civilians employed there in various civil-

ian capacities.¹⁰¹ Thus at Guantánamo, only to itself.¹⁰²

So why make Guantánamo the flag? A secret December 28, 2001 memo by F. Philbin suggests the answer.¹⁰³ Lea shows that the Bush administration at Guantánamo would be beyond the jurisdiction, immune from judicial review. Without a legal basis for any prisoner's confinement (whether the prisoners were entitled to habeas corpus by the president's determination) or examine the prisoners, not order that the prisoners be provided with legal counsel, or to anyone else from the outside world, into the prisoners' treatment, thus insulating the facility from judicial scrutiny.

By bringing prisoners to Guantánamo to evade one of the most fundamental principles of the Anglo-American legal tradition: the writ of habeas corpus. Latin words meaning "you shall produce the body." The most celebrated of the English writs. Habeas corpus, whose history is fully in chapters 5 and 6, safeguards individual liberty. Those detained by the state have the opportunity to challenge their imprisonment before a judge. A person explained:

Executive imprisonment has been common since the time of John, at Runnymede, pledged that no freeman should be arrested, possessed, outlawed, or exiled save by the judgment of his peers by the law of the land. The judges of England have been largely to preserve these immunities for the people.

Habeas corpus not only helped prevent imprisonment without charge or trial, but it was precisely these writs that were strongest and most important.

The Bush administration nevertheless refused to hear any habeas corpus challenges from prisoners at Guantánamo. This calculation was based on two factors: that the prisoners were foreign nationals and that they were not U.S. citizens.

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ship prison in the “war on terrorism”?

Yoo and fellow OLC attorney Patrick

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sovereign territory of the United States. Courts would deny habeas corpus review and exclusive control over Guantánamo. This is what the U.S. government had made an effort to try to stave off court review when it intercepted and Cuban refugees intercepted on the high seas and held them behind barbed wire in hastily

plans for what bringing prisoners to Guantánamo would trigger detainee lawsuits. But they concluded that courts would not interfere with the president's decisions on national security matters. The same thinking would underlie the creation of other offshore detention centers at the time. The courts' failure to act against secret CIA "black sites" in Europe and elsewhere, and the failure to prevent a new global network of prisons, showed that habeas corpus could provide some resistance to executive power. But the courts' failure to detain without charge or a hearing, to interrogate without restriction proved that the courts would decline to review Guantánamo, failed.

Guantánamo

Microcosm of a Prison beyond

On January 11, 2002, the first Guantánamo after twenty-seven hours on board departed the previous day from the United States for Afghanistan. The prisoners were hooded, shackled at the arms and legs. They had no food or water during the flight and were given only urinal sachets. In one instance, one prisoner was forcibly sedated. Most were transported with surgical masks over their eyes, and a “three-piece suit” consisting of leg restraints, and a chain around their

Guantánamo’s prison population rose sharply. The number of detainees had swelled to 300, and it was estimated that 200 more would be detained at Guantánamo.² Conditions were brutal. The first prisoners were housed in small, concrete cells. It was possible to see right through the bars. Prisoners were given only thin mats for themselves; a thin mat to sleep on, but another mat was used as a prayer mat and the other for washing. Prisoners were wakened throughout the night, and detainees worked long hours a day, except for two fifteen-minute breaks. Prisoners were taken alone, in shackles, to a small perimeter

In late April 2002, the United States announced the construction of a new and more permanent facility to accommodate the expanding prison population. A sprawling compound contained three detention camps (three camps), guard towers, interrogation trailers, and perimeter walls of concentric rings of barbed wire. Camps were made of individual steel-and-mesh cells in boxes

st twenty prisoners arrived at Guantánamo on an air force cargo plane that had departed from a U.S. Marine Corps base in Kandahar, Afghanistan. The prisoners, who were all men, were dressed in orange jumpsuits, and were restrained to their seats during the flight. They had been chained to their seats during the flight, and were not allowed to use the airplane's lavatories to relieve themselves. At least two more flights into Guantánamo followed, with the same "restraint" that consisted of handcuffs, waist chains, and "ankle" restraints.

Those who were held at Guantánamo arrived there rapidly, and within a month, the number of prisoners had grown to approximately 775. Conditions were initially primitive and overcrowded. The prisoners were housed at Camp X-Ray, so named because of its six-by-eight-foot, makeshift, open-air cells. The cells provided the barest essentials: a bucket to relieve oneself, a toilet, no blanket, and two towels (one to use for drying). Halogen floodlights remained on at all times. Prisoners were confined to their cells twenty-four hours a day, with only short breaks each week when they were allowed to exercise.³

The prisoners were moved to Camp Delta, which was constructed to house Guantánamo's growing complex, Camp Delta initially consisted of three more were added later) as well as a dining hall and a hospital, all surrounded by six perimeter fences. Camps 1, 2, and 3 consisted of eight hundred car-style arrangements. Prisoners were

typically confined to their six-foot-eight inches a day, except for twenty to thirty minutes followed by a five-minute shower. They were given shorts and “comfort items” such as prayer caps, and Qur’an, all of which could be used for good behavior or at the discretion of the military. They were provided, even though summer temperatures often exceeded 100 degrees Fahrenheit.⁴

As Guantánamo’s prison population grew, the United States constructed new facilities, each more secure than the last. Opened in February 2003, Camp 5 was designed for more “cooperative” prisoners who were considered less of a threat. Prisoners there wore white instead of black jumpsuits and were allowed outside for up to ten hours a day.⁵ They also had access to books and movies.⁶ The military, however, moved prisoners from Camp 4 to newer, higher-security facilities.

The Defense Department described Camp 5 as a facility that many states [in America] would consider a maximum security prison. At Bunker Hill, Indiana, this two-story maximum security prison for “higher-level” detainees, considered a model of security. Prisoners in Camp 5 were confined to their cells and their movement monitored through touch-screen monitors. Camp 5 also contained special interrogation rooms with blue carpets, blue velour reclining chairs with panic buttons, and open-air, cage-like cells designed to provide a sense of security during long interrogation sessions.

Camp 6, which opened in 2006, is a maximum security prison modeled on maximum security prisons in the United States, originally intended to give prisoners more freedom to interact during recreation and mealtimes. However, it was not that plan.⁹ Prisoners at Camp 6 instead of being allowed to interact without windows or natural light or air conditioning during which time they had no contact with the outside world, only opportunity for socialization took place in a common area. They were placed alone in twelve-by-nine-foot cells and were not permitted to talk to prisoners in adjacent cells. Prisoners were held in Camps 5 and 6.¹⁰

U.S. officials have described Guantánamo as a “maximum security facility,” pointing out that Guantánamo is a “maximum security

ht-inch by eight-foot cells twenty-four minutes of exercise five days per week. They were given only a T-shirt and boxer shorts, a toothbrush, toothpaste, washcloth, and soap. These items could be taken away for “noncompliant” behavior by interrogators. No air conditioning was provided, and temperatures routinely soared to more than

100 degrees. As conditions continued to increase, the United States built a more modern and permanent than the previous facility. Camp 4 provided a dormitory-style facility where prisoners could eat and exercise together. They were given orange jumpsuits and could be outside for one hour. They also were given access to a small library. However, the military soon began shifting prisoners to new facilities at Camps 5 and 6.⁷

Camp 5 was called Camp 5 as a “state-of-the-art prison” to “inspire envy.” Modeled after a state prison in California, a maximum-security facility was intended to be of greater intelligence value. Prisoners were held alone in solid-wall cells, their every movement monitored on screen computers in a control center. Interrogation cells “outfitted with faux Persian rugs, a desk with an ankle shackle point, monitors, and a television recreation areas” to create a false sense of normalcy and ease.⁸

Camp 5 was a \$39 million, two hundred-cell prison, the largest in the United States. Camp 6 was built to provide greater freedom and opportunities to prisoners. However, the military soon abandoned Camp 6, and prisoners had were confined to solid-metal cells with no natural light or air for at least twenty-two hours a day, and no contact with anyone except guards. Their only social contact took place during recreation when they were allowed to walk in foot pens for two hours and were permitted to talk to other prisoners in foot pens. By 2007, most of the prisoners

at Guantánamo as a “world-class” detention facility that has “mature[d] over time” and high-

lighting various “perks” that the details of “honey-glazed chicken and rice pilaf” obscure and distort the underlying realities, no matter how modern or state-of-the-art. Guantánamo’s essence does not lie in another prison but the physical emblem that was created to justify prolonged detention or judicial review.

Bush administration officials compared enemy soldiers from prior wars: men “captured to prevent them from taking up arms again.” Then White House counsel Alberto R. Gonzales, referring to enemy combatants, whether soldiers or saboteurs, “of hostilities. They need not be ‘guilty’ of anything by virtue of their status as enemy combatants.” Former commander Rear Admiral Harry B. Harris, Jr., saying that the mission in Guantánamo is simply to “keep them in the field” and prevent them from “go[ing] back to the battlefield,” at Guantánamo was thus characterized as “the detention of thousands of German and Japanese War II and other enemy soldiers during World War II.” These were intended to make Guantánamo consistent with long-standing practice.

But Bush administration officials also labeled Guantánamo detainees as terrorists. Formerly, they were labeled as “among the most dangerous men on the face of the earth.”¹⁶ Other high-ranking officials, calling the detainees “the worst of the worst,” said they held many senior al Qaeda operatives and “high-value” Americans.¹⁷ President Bush continued to say they “are killers,” even though only a handful were. These comparisons painted a very different picture of the detainees, one of hardened criminals engaged in terrorist activities rather than soldiers detained to prevent their return to the battlefield.

The administration attempted to play on the concepts of “soldier” and “criminal” by labeling detainees as “enemy combatants” or “unlawful enemy combatants.”

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paper over the contradictions between
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unlawful combatants.” (It used the two

terms interchangeably.) As combatants, they were taken to military detention and did not have the same rights as terrorists and other criminals did. But they were not entitled to any protections under the customary laws of war. In short, the prisoners were in a legal black hole—without the protections of the Geneva Convention on the one hand, or to accused criminals under the laws of the nature of the “war on terrorism”—a conflict in which a person could be detained for decades, if not for life.

At the same time, the administration used broad and elastic terms. An important study by the American Civil Liberties Union found that only 8 percent of the detainees were identified as al Qaeda fighters and 40 percent were identified as Qaeda. The study, which was based solely on the information that 50 percent of the detainees had never come to the United States or its coalition allies. It further found that 70 percent of the Guantánamo detainees were captured in Afghanistan and had been turned over to the United States by British special forces.¹⁹ A subsequent Seton Hall study found that 70 percent of the detainees at Guantánamo were identified based on their association with Qaeda. Also, in many of those cases, the government had identified the organizations with which a person could be detained at Guantánamo. A person could be detained at Guantánamo based on an alleged association with an organization that was entering the United States if he sought to enter the United States.

Guantánamo soon became a collection of prisoners, a dragnet. In total, Guantánamo held citizens of 25 different countries. Although some prisoners were seized in Afghanistan, many were captured on a battlefield.²² Some were captured hundreds of miles from any conflict zone. For example, one of the other Guantánamo detainees were initially held in Sarajevo at the request of U.S. officials—as the result of the Sarajevo embassy there. Shacked and hooded, they were taken to Guantánamo before being transferred to the United States. Bisher al-Rawi and Jamil el-Banna, who were captured in Afghanistan, had traveled on business to set up a mosque in London when they were taken to Guantánamo based on their association with Qatada, a radical Islamic cleric from Egypt.

s, Guantánamo detainees were subject to be charged and tried, as suspected unlike soldiers in past conflicts, they under the Geneva Conventions or customs prisoners at Guantánamo were being held protections afforded to prisoners of war,imals, on the other hand. And given the conflict with no discernable end—they or life.

n defined “enemy combatant” in broad y by Seton Hall Law School in 2006 inees at Guantánamo were character- nt had no definitive connection with al ely on government data, found that 55 mitted a hostile act against the United er determined that only 5 percent of y by the United States, while 86 percent ates by Pakistani or Northern Alliance y found that one-third of the detainees on links to organizations other than al neither Congress nor the State Depart- s as a terrorist group. This meant that namo as an “enemy combatant” based nization that would not bar him from admission at the country’s borders.²⁰ ion point for an unprecedented global izens of forty-four different countries.²¹ in or near the war in Afghanistan, few s, moreover, were picked up thousands xample, Lakhdar Boumediene and five ially seized by Bosnian police—acting y were being released from prison in olvement in a plot to blow up the U.S. , the men were taken to an unknown Guantánamo.²³ Two British residents, ere arrested in the Gambia, where they nobile peanut-processing plant, before d on their alleged association with Abu ngland.²⁴

The Bush administration did not sweep terms; it also denied Guantanamo show that they did not fall into that category under the circumstances that made the need for

When the United States invaded Afghanistan, the country was still in the throes of a human catastrophe after two decades of civil war and three consecutive governments. Factions and rivalries plagued the country, and thousands of individuals poured in to provide humanitarian aid.

U.S. and allied forces in Afghanistan created considerable confusion, increasing the chance of a mistake. The United States exacerbated the situation by offering financial rewards for the capture of Taliban fighters in bordering areas of Pakistan. It went so far as to offer \$250,000 for each individual in Afghanistan and the border area who provided information. A typical flyer stated:

Get wealth and power beyond your dreams by providing \$250,000 dollars helping the anti-Taliban forces. This is enough money to take care of your family for the rest of your life. Pay for livestock, education, housing for your people.²⁷

Defense Secretary Donald Rumsfeld's policy of capturing individuals over Afghanistan "like snowflakes in a blizzard" was a result of deep factionalism in this impoverished country. The capture program provided an incentive for individuals to seek vendettas or simply to turn over someone who had been in the United States. Under the program, many of the individuals captured in the United States had been swept up and held in Guantanamo. President General Pervez Musharraf of Pakistan offered over hundreds of individuals to the CIA.

Army Regulation 190-8 (AR 190-8) governs the treatment of individuals under obligations under the Third Geneva Convention. It requires that individuals be promptly released after capture if there is any doubt as to their status. A panel then determines whether the individual is a combatant, a prisoner of war, detained as a civilian internee (for criminal investigation), or "immediately

merely define “enemy combatant” in Guantanamo detainees any fair process to category. It did so, moreover, precisely in such a process critical.

Afghanistan in October 2001, Afghanistan humanitarian crisis, the result of more than consecutive years of severe drought.²⁵ Factory. Meanwhile, charitable groups and humanitarian assistance.²⁶

It thus encountered a situation of consequence that people could be swept up by the problem by offering significant individuals in Afghanistan and so far as to drop thousands of flyers over advertising its money-for-capture program.

reams. . . . You can receive millions of catch al-Qaida and Taliban murders. of your family, your village, your tribe back and doctors and school books and

It later boasted that such leaflets fell in December in Chicago.”²⁸ Given the and war-torn region, the money-for-capture for people to fulfill personal or tribal someone for money to feed their family. Individuals eventually turned over to the and sold for bounty.²⁹ Indeed, Pakistani boasted that Pakistanis had handed A for reward money after 9/11.³⁰

, which implements the United States’ convention, requires hearings to prevent operations. These hearings must be held about a prisoner’s status. A military individual should be held as a prisoner (for security concerns or incident to a returned to his home or released.”³¹

The United States introduced AR 190-8 precisely because the nature of the conflict whose members often fought without uniforms made it difficult to identify the enemy and distinguish from civilians. The military held AR 190-8 hearings in subsequent years to inform its separate detention decisions. During Operation Enduring Freedom, the United States processed 69,822 Iraqi detainees during the conflict with Panama in 1989/1990, then held AR 190-8 hearings to determine the status of 4,100 captives. In 1991, 4,000 and granting prisoner-of-war status. During the Gulf War, 1,196 hearings were held, and 1,196 were found to be innocent civilians.³⁴

Military officials proposed conducting AR 190-8 hearings in Afghanistan following the U.S. invasion in October 2001. The Supreme Court in *Hamdi* and the Supreme Court in *Hamdan* overruled them.³⁵ Instead, the military created a “reviewing process” that lacked the basic procedural protections of AR 190-8 regulations, including the opportunity to present and examine available evidence before a tribunal. The process used in Afghanistan also allowed for detention based on “intelligence value”—that is, indefinite detention—without any indication that the detainee posed a threat to the United States, or met the criteria for a combatant under the law of war. As former Justice Department lawyer John Yoo testified, there “was not a real process to determine if a detainee was a combatant.”³⁷

Prisoners captured in or around Afghanistan often disappeared into a legal void without any legal proceedings surrounding their capture.³⁸ Many of those detainees were the result of “incompetent battlefield vetting” and “poor intelligence,” in the first place, said a former senior British intelligence officer, Major Muhammad, a “partially deaf, shriveled man” who asked basic questions and was nicknamed “Hamiduva,” an eighteen-year-old Uzbek who was captured by a tribal leader after the government killed one of his uncles. He was captured while trying to cross the border from Afghanistan to Pakistan there had started.⁴¹ Or Hozaifa Parhat, a detainee captured in northwestern China for Afghanistan, was sent to the United States for reward money

190-8 hearings during the Vietnam War conflict—one against insurgent groups without uniform—made it more difficult to distinguish friend from foe. The United States also used AR 190-8 in other armed conflicts to help ensure accurate identification. During Desert Storm, for example, the United States held AR 190-8 hearings for detainees under AR 190-8.³² During the Vietnam War, the United States held tribunal hearings for captured individuals, promptly releasing those with prisoner status to the rest.³³ And during the first Gulf War, 886 of the detainees were released as

prisoners of war following AR 190-8 hearings in Afghanistan in October 2001. But civilian officials in Afghanistan, the United States provided a “screening process” for detainees provided by existing military procedures for a detainee to testify and present evidence promptly after his capture.³⁶ The process of detention based on a person’s suspected involvement in the imprisonment for purposes of interest in the conflict he had engaged in hostilities, posed a challenge to the definition of a combatant under the Geneva Convention. A Department official Viet D. Dinh acknowledged the difficulty for determining who was an enemy

of the United States in Afghanistan after September 11 soon disappeared any opportunity to verify the facts surrounding the detainees taken to Guantánamo were “victims of the war and should never have been detained in the first place,” a Bush administration official.³⁹ Like Faizullah, a “red old man” who was unable to answer the question of “al Qaeda Claus.”⁴⁰ Or Shakhrukh, a Tajik refugee who had fled his country and was sold to the United States for bounty in Afghanistan after the U.S. bombing of Afghanistan and other Uighurs who fled persecution in China, where they were captured, sold to the United States, and detained for years, even though

they never had taken up arms against the United States.⁴² Or Abdul Rahim al-Ginco, a resident of the United Arab Emirates who went to Afghanistan in 2001 and was captured by the Taliban, and was tortured, his hands and toes and almost drowned in a well, and was accused of being a spy for Israel and the United States. Or a shopkeeper who was seized near his home in Afghanistan by the Taliban by force and who agreed to drop his weapons at a nearby police office rather than fight. These interrogations had helped avoid these kinds of mistakes. But the military refused to provide them in Afghanistan. The military wanted information at all costs, not to find out who the terrorists were, or innocent civilians.

From the beginning, military and intelligence officials were asking about who the United States was holding. Michael Dunlavey, who came to Guantanamo in 2002 for interrogations, soon discovered that as many as 50% of the detainees had no intelligence value. Dunlavey subsequently wrote a report to explain that too many “Mickey Mouse” prisoners were being held at Guantánamo.⁴⁵ A confidential report sent to the military in 2002, and ignored by White House officials, stated that many detainees did not belong there.⁴⁶ In October 2002, General Lucenti Jr., the deputy commander at Guantanamo, said that prisoners “will either be released or transferred.” He said that many “weren’t fighting” but rather “were running away.” Commander Major General Jay Hood acknowledged that many were “the right folks.” Nonetheless, detainees were being held, Hood said, because “nobody wants to let them go.” The errors became “institutionalized” as good intentions were not or unable to correct them, and Guantánamo became a place where

The Bush administration had originally intended to release detainees quickly through the military. But President Bush’s November 13, 2001, order to detain them in place because the administration did not have enough evidence to convict, most of the prisoners, especially those held in the early days and flawed rules. Early on, Defense officials asked intelligence officers at Guantánamo to complete a report certifying the basis for suspecting that a detainee was a terrorist. The request was made in January 2002. Within

or presented any threat to the United States. Or a college student from the United Arab Emirates who was captured in 2000 to escape his strict Muslim father, who was tortured with electric shocks to his ears and held in a water tank until he falsely confessed to terrorism. Or Gholam Ruhani, an Afghani from Kandahar hometown and conscripted into the Taliban army to do menial cleaning and clerical jobs at the front lines.⁴³ AR 190-8 heard many mistakes before. But the United States captured him because the priority was to gather intelligence on whether prisoners were combatants,

and intelligence officials expressed misgivings about holding at Guantánamo. Major General James D. Martin was sent to Guantánamo in February 2002 to supervise the camp. Many as half the prisoners had little or no military training. He frequently traveled to Afghanistan to compare the prisoners being brought to Guantánamo with those held by the CIA in Washington in October 2001. In October 2004, Brigadier General Martin was sent back to Guantánamo, reported that most Guantánamo prisoners were transferred to their own countries” and “not being held there.”⁴⁷ As former Guantánamo commander, he acknowledged, “Sometimes we just didn’t get the evidence to continue to languish at Guantánamo, and we had to be the one to sign the release papers.”⁴⁸ The military government officials became unwilling to keep the prisoners at Guantánamo took on “a life of its own.”⁴⁹

The military originally planned to try most Guantánamo prisoners by military commissions established under President George W. Bush.⁵⁰ Those trials, however, never took place because they did not have enough evidence to charge, let alone prove guilt, even under the commissions’ lax standards. Defense Department lawyers asked intelligence officials to complete a one-page form for each prisoner, stating whether they were involved in terrorism. This process was completed within weeks, intelligence officers indi-

cated that they did not have sufficient personnel. One member of the original military team put it, “It became obvious to us as we reviewed the cases, we had simply gotten the slowest of the slowest found guys who had been shot in the back of the head, gears, claiming that it could hold prisoners without a trial as “enemy combatants” in the United States, “enemy combatant” detention as a trial—incarceration—but since there would be only “temporary” and “nonpunitive” detentions, no legal protections and public attention. Military operations would target a handful of minor figures and create the illusion of a functioning system. Guantánamo held “the worst of the worst.”

Guantánamo’s overriding purpose, however, was intelligence gathering. America’s flagship prison, in other words, was created and maintained not to interrogate without restraint. The goal was to use torture and other illegal methods to extract information. Guantánamo, from the creation of a category of “enemy combatants” to the effort to avoid habeas corpus review, was designed for this purpose.

The government’s effort to squeeze maximum intelligence from detainees at all costs—even if it meant torture—was reliable—quickly descended into a chaotic system with no rules to apply, military personnel on the ground, and the vacuum by adhering to the Geneva Convention. But Rumsfeld, frustrated by what he could not get out of the intelligence from the detainees, scuttled the Geneva Convention. But Rumsfeld, frustrated by what he could not get out of the intelligence from the detainees, scuttled the Geneva Convention. But Rumsfeld, frustrated by what he could not get out of the intelligence from the detainees, scuttled the Geneva Convention. One of the first subjects was a detainee suspected by some to be the “twentieth century” presidential adviser David Addington. In 2002, Haynes II, CIA acting general counsel, and other officials traveled to Guantánamo to discuss the use of torture. The following week, those officials met with Jonathan Fredman, to discuss the use of torture.

at evidence to complete the forms. As Ham slated to work on the prosecutions reviewed the evidence that, in many best guys on the battlefield. We literally butt.”⁵¹ So the administration switched prisoners at Guantánamo indefinitely with the global “war on terrorism.”⁵² For the detention would serve the same purpose that detention was in theory intended to achieve; it could be achieved with fewer legal and military commissions, meanwhile, would pressure them to plead guilty, thereby legitimizing the system and perpetuating the myth that “the worst.”⁵³

However, was not detention but intelligence gathering in the “war on terrorism,” in other words, not to imprison suspected terrorists but to desire to extract information through torture. It shaped virtually every aspect of Guantánamo’s treatment of prisoners without legal protection and without review by federal courts.

The administration seized every drop of available information, though most detainees had no intelligence value. Whether the information obtained was gross and systematic abuse. With no legal oversight, the ground had initially tried to fill the gaps with CIA Conventions and even arranged for the International Red Cross (ICRC) to visit Guantánamo. The administration considered a failure to obtain valuable intelligence a failure of these efforts.⁵⁴ By mid-2002, intelligence officials were to use more aggressive measures.⁵⁵ One detainee named Mohammed al-Qahtani, suspected hijacker.” On September 25, 2002, vice president Cheney, Pentagon general counsel William J. Haynes II, John Rizzo, and other high-level officials discussed the interrogation of detainees. The administration, with the CIA’s associate general counsel, John Rizzo, of “enhanced interrogation methods,”

which the CIA had already begun using on high-value detainees. Fredman reportedly gave interrogators had a great deal of latitude in using harsh and degrading treatment as long as it was approved in writing. In that term, he noted, that was “written vague.” Torture is “basically subject to perception. If you think it’s a crime, you’re doing it wrong.”⁵⁶ Diane Beaver (JAG) who attended the meeting, noted that sleep deprivation and other highly coercive techniques had approval—that is, as long as the plan was approved and cautioned that interrogators might need to be more cautious while the ICRC is around.⁵⁷ Sleep deprivation was used at Bagram in Afghanistan. But “it was never being reported officially.”⁵⁸

On October 11, 2002, Dunlavey, CIA, approved a formal plan for al-Qahtani’s interrogation. The plan sought approval for nineteen “counterintelligence techniques.” *Field Manual* 34-52, which governed the use of force, prohibited “acts of violence or intimidation, threats, insults, or exposure to unpleasant conditions, or means of or aid to interrogation.”⁵⁹

In a memo, Beaver recommended using techniques to increase psychological manipulation. She divided them into three categories. They included permitting detainees to pose as citizens of foreign countries, isolation for up to thirty days, stress positions, prolonged straight, removal of clothing, putting detainees in long hours, and depriving prisoners of light. Techniques included using scenarios to convince a prisoner of the danger to him and his family; exposing detainees to cold water; and using a wet towel and dripping water to cause discomfort (category III).⁶⁰ A fourth category, to render prisoners to Egypt, Jordan, or Syria, was dropped following protests by FBI attorneys that such actions constitute crimes.⁶¹ Beaver explained that the “red lines” prevented interrogators from doing anything “controversial.”⁶² She therefore gave blanket approval for all category II techniques and approval for all category III techniques if they served a “legitimate governmental objective”

ing in its secret jails on so-called high-ave them the green light. He stated that le and could engage in cruel, inhuman, did not rise to the level of torture—a guely” in federal statutes and treaties. option,” Fredman said. “If the detainee eaver, a military judge advocate general ted that interrogators could use sleep interrogation methods as long as they resident had authorized it. Beaver also eed to “curb” the “harsher operations rivation, she said, was already being it is not happening” because “it is not

Guantánamo’s commander, sent a for- n up the chain of command. Dunlavey erresistance techniques” not in *Army* military interrogations and prohib- including physical or mental torture, easant and inhumane treatment as a

using enhanced interrogation measures on. The techniques were divided into mitting interrogators to identify them- known to use torture (category I); iso- itions such as standing for four hours prisoners in hoods for up to twenty ht and auditory stimuli (category II); r that death or severe pain was immi- g prisoners to cold weather or freezing oing water to induce a sensation of suf- egory would have permitted the mili- an, and other countries for torture, but BI agents that those renditions would that the ambiguity of existing guide- ng “anything that could be considered anket approval for all category I tech- and III techniques as long as there was and the techniques were not imposed

for the “specific purpose” of inflicting. gested that even the most brutal tech pass muster as long as they were ap maliciously or sadistically for the very measure, she added that “permission” advance” via executive branch approval.

General James T. Hill of the U.S. saw Guantánamo, questioned Beaver a memo to General Richard B. Meyer Staff, expressing his concern that some violate both the federal antitorture statute Justice (UCMJ), which prohibited ph treatment.⁶⁶ Hill recommended seeki said the techniques would likely consti Officials from the Naval Criminal Inv working with the FBI to elicit incrim posed an alternative plan using tra techniques. But their advice and warni

On November 23, 2002, Major Gene command authorizing the use of “enha Qahtani. The interrogation log for that arrives at the interrogation booth at C he is bolted to the floor.”⁶⁹ Four days memo to Rumsfeld stating that all the II, and III “may be legally available” an the eighteen techniques.⁷⁰ Less than o feld approved the fifteen techniques, in the use of dogs, and extreme sensory c ited by the *Army Field Manual*. Com Rumsfeld added, “I stand for 8–10 hou hours?” Although he did not give adv techniques, Rumsfeld indicated that th

Interrogations of al-Qahtani conti this almost two-month period, al-Q to twenty hours per day. If he fell as with water. Military dogs were used interrogator tied a leash around al-Q dog tricks. Al-Qahtani was forced to his head. After al-Qahtani started ref

severe pain or suffering.⁶³ Beaver sug-
niques, such as waterboarding, would
plied “in a good faith effort and not
purpose of causing harm.”⁶⁴ For good
or “immunity” could be obtained “in
all.”⁶⁵

S. Southern Command, which over-
’s analysis and conclusions. Hill sent
s, the chairman of the Joint Chiefs of
e of the interrogation techniques might
tute and the Uniform Code of Military
ysical assault, cruelty, and other mis-
ng additional legal advice. The JAGs
tute crimes and advised against them.⁶⁷
estigative Services (NCIS), which was
inating evidence from detainees, pro-
ditional, nonaggressive interrogation
ings were ignored.⁶⁸

ral Geoffrey D. Miller received a verbal
anced interrogation techniques” on al-
day reflects the change: “The detainee
Camp X-Ray. His hood is removed and
later, on November 27, Haynes sent a
e proposed techniques in categories I,
d recommending approval of fifteen of
ne week later, on December 2, Rums-
cluding stress positions, forced nudity,
deprivation—all of which were prohib-
menting on one approved technique,
urs a day. Why is standing limited to 4
vance approval to the remaining three
ey were still “legally available.”⁷¹

nued until January 16, 2003. During
ahtani was interrogated for eighteen
leep, interrogators doused al-Qahtani
to frighten and intimidate him. One
ahtani’s neck and made him perform
wear a bra and thong underwear on
using food and water, he was forcibly

administered fluids by an intravenous drip. In the bathroom, he was told he could go to the toilet. After repeating his request, al-Qahtani was taken to the flight deck. On another occasion, the government officials told al-Qahtani that if he did not agree to flight to the Middle East to increase his cooperation, al-Qahtani had to be taken to the hospital. His heart rate rose to thirty-five beats per minute.⁷² His cardiologist and a neurological specialist were brought in from the hospital. As a medical expert, al-Qahtani's interrogators noted his physical and metabolic symptoms such as "vomiting" and put him "in danger of dying." After the medical examination, interrogation resumed. "We tortured al-Qahtani," an official overseeing military commissions said.

Navy General Counsel Alberto J. Mora filed a lawsuit with other officers to protest the methods used to interrogate al-Qahtani. In a memorandum to Haynes expressing his concerns, Mora stated that the methods were illegal. Haynes assured Mora that the harsh measures were necessary. On January 15, 2002, he issued an order withdrawing support for al-Qahtani's interrogation, an approved category III technique. To address the concerns, he established a working group to evaluate the use of force against prisoners in the "war on terrorism." Office of Inspector General John Yoo gave Haynes a memorandum to the Defense Department with the same legal concerns. The "torture memo" had given the CIA and other agencies the go-ahead. Mora and others. In essence, the memorandum stated that the use of a particular interrogation measure, "the interrogation of prisoners was with the approval of the commander-in-chief, akin to his power to use force on the battlefield."⁷⁵

The working group was forced to apply the "controlling authority" for the use of force. The report approved thirty-five possible techniques, including extreme isolation, prolonged standing, and exposure to face and stomach.⁷⁷

On April 16, 2003, Rumsfeld issued an order to govern interrogations at Guantanamo Bay. A number of the techniques from the working group were approved, including prolonged isolation, dietary and exercise restrictions.

drip. When al-Qahtani asked to go to the toilet, he was told to urinate in his pants. He was drugged and simulated a loss of consciousness out of fear of further torture. At one point, he was taken to a hospital and revived after his heart rate fell to a critically low condition was so critical that a neurologist was flown off the island. According to an army medical report, "the condition contributed to significant physiological stress that he required close cardiac monitoring."73 When al-Qahtani was revived, the report stated, "[al-] Qahtani," a Bush administration official in prosecutions later admitted.74

Mora was one of the career military officers who refused to interrogate al-Qahtani. Mora sent a draft report expressing his strong opposition and his view that the use of such techniques would stop the war. In 2003, Rumsfeld rescinded his December 2002 approval of all category II techniques and the one category III technique to appease Mora and other JAGs, Rumsfeld ordered a review of the armed forces' interrogation of al-Qahtani. In March 14, 2003, Department of Justice lawyers issued a memo that was intended to provide the legal cover that his earlier August 2002 report had provided and to quash internal opposition from other JAGs. He argued that if the president approved the use of such techniques, it must be legal, and, moreover, that the use of such techniques was within the president's sole discretion as commander in chief over to "direct troop movements on a battlefield."

He did not accept Yoo's analysis, which then supported the use of such techniques in its final April 3, 2003, report.76 That report recommended the use of such interrogation methods, including waterboarding, sleep deprivation, and slaps to the face.

He also sent a memo to the U.S. Southern Command in Guantánamo. The memo authorized a working group's April 3 report, including the use of such techniques, environment manipulation, and other

tactics designed to exploit a detainee's accompanied by Pentagon briefings to on the Justice Department's earlier c agents could override any legal restrict

Al-Qahtani's interrogation became ture and abuse at Guantánamo.⁷⁸ FBI Civil Liberties Union and other organi mation Act detail the type of practice ing its first years. The documents desc in a fetal position on the floor for tw water. They also show prisoners bein tures: one was found shivering on the had been turned up so high; another on the floor, sweltering in more than had been turned off. Detainees were k light, causing severe trauma. One deta of a cell with a sheet over his head for people and hearing voices. Interrogato wrapped detainees in Israeli flags as ally humiliated detainees, and engage ing grabbing detainees' genitals and b Several detainees reported that they w rogations, causing them to experience drowsiness to hallucinations.⁸⁰

Some FBI agents and Justice Dep interrogation methods were both ille Swartz, a criminal division deputy a questioned their effectiveness at Whit abuse of detainees would do "grave da law enforcement record.⁸¹ The NCIS e the ICRC complained (in a report lea had purposefully used psychological a torture."⁸³ The warnings, however, wer ing the FBI and NCIS to withdraw the protest.⁸⁴

Ironically, these interrogation meth help American soldiers resist torture. Escape (SERE) program had previousl other military personnel to withstand t

fears and desperation. The report was
to Guantánamo's commander premised
conclusion that the president and his
actions in the name of national security.

emblematic of a larger pattern of tor-
documents obtained by the American
izations through the Freedom of Infor-
es commonly used at the prison dur-
scribe detainees chained hand and foot
twenty hours or more, without food or
g forced to endure extreme tempera-
floor naked because the air condition-
r was discovered almost unconscious
100-degree heat after the air condition-
ept in rooms continually flooded with
ainee was found crouched in a corner
hours at a time, talking to nonexistent
ors also used dogs to terrify detainees,
a form of religious harassment, sexu-
d in wholesale physical abuse, includ-
burning detainees with lit cigarettes.⁷⁹
were forcibly given drugs during inter-
physical effects ranging from extreme

partment officials warned that these
legal and counterproductive. Bruce C.
at the Justice Department, repeatedly
e House meetings, cautioning that the
"damage" to the country's reputation and
expressed similar concerns.⁸² In 2004,
(spoke to the press) that the U.S. military
and physical coercion "tantamount to
re largely ignored, ultimately prompt-
their agents from interrogation rooms in

ods grew out of a program designed to
The Survival, Evasion, Resistance and
ly helped train U.S. Special Forces and
torture and other abuse at the hands of

enemy forces. The SERE program was methods used by the Chinese Communists during the Korean War to obtain false confessions about psychological torture in the company, the 1983 *Human Resources Exchange* secret documents that became public in litigation.⁸⁵ The *KUBARK Manual* describes the following effects:

The circumstances of detention are designed to subject his feelings of being cut off from his family and of being plunged into the strange. . . . The environment permits the interrogator to deal with the other fundamentals. Manipulating the subject becomes disorientated, is very vulnerable to helplessness.⁸⁶

The SERE program was designed to prepare detainees for the event they again faced an enemy threat. The program tried to simulate acute anxiety by inducing uncertainty during harsh interrogations. For example, detainees would be hooded, stripped of their clothes, temperatures, and sexually humiliated. Their religious and their religious faith desecrated.

The SERE program had never before been used, neither its personnel nor anyone in the program (JPRA), which oversaw the program, had conducted interrogations or gathering intelligence. The administration decided to “reverse-engineer” the program into a template for the interrogation of detainees. The proponents and architects of this reversal were a psychologist, Bruce Jessen, who was hired as the director. In April 2002, Jessen created the “JPRC Plan” to instruct inexperienced Guantanamo interrogators. He also proposed an “exploitation program” would remain “off limits to non-essential personnel” in a secret prison within the prison.⁸⁷ Two years later, the CIA in its interrogation of Abu Zubaydah used a CIA black site, while a JPRA team

a response to the brutal interrogation
ists against American soldiers during
sions. The CIA had collected informa-
e 1963 *KUBARK Manual* and its com-
Exploitation Training Manual, formerly
during the 1990s following extensive
cribed psychological torture's devastat-

arranged to enhance within the sub-
n the known and the reassuring, and
. . . Control of the source's environ-
etermine his diet, sleep pattern and
these into irregularities, so that the
y likely to create feelings of fear and

prepare American service members in
that resorted to such methods. The pro-
y creating an environment of extreme
ns by mock interrogators. Trainees, for
of clothing, exposed to extreme tem-
their sleep patterns would be disrupted

re been used to elicit information, and
the Joint Personnel Recovery Agency
, had any experience in conducting
e. After 9/11, however, the Bush admin-
er" SERE, transforming the program
f terrorist suspects. One of the leading
rse-engineering was SERE's chief psy-
d by the military as a private contrac-
Guantánamo Bay "Exploitation Draft
tánamo interrogators under his direc-
on facility' at the detention center that
tial personnel," including the ICRC: a
o months later, Jessen began advising
ubaydah, the first detainee tortured at
that included James Mitchell, another

SERE psychologist working as a private contractor during Zubaydah's interrogation.⁸⁸ The Justice Department, in turn, attempted to provide legal cover for Zubaydah and other detainees in its classified reports.

The SERE program was soon reevaluated at Guantánamo. In June 2002, the Behavioral Science and Terrorism Countermeasures Team (BSCT) was formed to help maximize the effectiveness of the assistance of mental health professionals and military intelligence personnel from Guantanamo. A BSCT adviser, traveled to Fort Bragg, North Carolina, the flagship SERE program. The interrogations conducted by the BSCT and sent up the chain of command for the program and the input of key SERE personnel. In December 2002, after Rumsfeld's approval of using harsh interrogation techniques, military intelligence sought to provide instruction in SERE methods. The instruction was based on a chart showing the effects of sleep deprivation, fasting, and exposure to extreme cold that was derived from an air force study of the techniques used to extract information from false confessions from American prisoners. The techniques were frequently documented in the interrogations of al-Qahtani and Mohamedou Ould Slahi. A BSCT plan modeled on al-Qahtani's was presented to Rumsfeld. Warnings about the use of SERE methods from several SERE trainers, were ignored.

Although these techniques originally targeted a limited number of detainees, they quickly spread to other detainees. The lack of oversight to check their growth and no court availability to monitor those being detained or how they were being treated, led to the gross mistreatment of prisoners at Guantanamo, Afghanistan and Iraq as pressure motivation for interrogations.⁹⁴ Rumsfeld's approval of the use of harsh interrogation techniques, for example, was passed on to the interrogation officer in charge at Guantanamo. The Defense Department's approval of strengthening the use of military dogs to exploit detainees' fears was also approved.

These interrogation methods were used to extract information from detainees who cooperated with the government, and to exploit the detainee's role in the commission of attacks.

the contractor, was dispatched to assist in the Department's Office of Legal Counsel, in preparation for the CIA's interrogation of Zubaydah. On August 1, 2002, torture memo.⁸⁹ The SERE program was reverse-engineered for interrogations at the Behavioral Science Consultation Team. The program for the collection of intelligence by enlistees and professionals.⁹⁰ In September 2002, military units at Guantánamo, including at least one medical unit in North Carolina, which housed the Army's Special Forces, developed interrogation plans for Guantánamo that the Special Forces command relied heavily on the SERE program. SERE personnel, including Mitchell and Jespersen, had signed off on the memo approving the program. Military trainers traveled to Guantánamo to teach the methods. An entire interrogation class was devoted to sleep deprivation, prolonged standing, and other techniques that had been copied verbatim from a 1957 manual developed by the Chinese Communists to obtain information from prisoners.⁹¹ SERE techniques were used on the prisoners of Guantánamo detainees, including Khalid al-Muhammad al-Slahi, for whom a brutal interrogation plan was personally approved by Rumsfeld. Internal documents outlined methods to interrogate detainees, including the use of force.⁹²

The program may have been intended for a limited use but it spread "like a germ," with nothing to prevent it from being able to scrutinize why prisoners were being treated.⁹³ The techniques not only led to the use of force at Guantánamo but soon migrated to other locations. The program "to get tougher" with detainees led to the use of physical and psychologically abusive techniques. A report was submitted "virtually unchanged" to Abu Ghraib and led ultimately to the use of force, stress positions, sleep deprivation, the use of force, and other brutal tactics in Iraq.⁹⁵

The program was supported by medical officials who provided a eerie reminder of the medical atrocities in the past, including in Nazi

Germany. Major General Miller, who served from November 2002 to March 2004, called the program “essential in developing integrated interrogation intelligence production.” Miller’s medical records to help facilitate interrogations were a major breach by the American Medical Association, a violation of medical ethics” by the ICRC.⁹⁷ Although Miller eventually released a new set of formal ethics guidelines, “the humane treatment of detainees,” the ICRC found medical personnel not directly responsible for the abuse in his interrogations and failed to curb the program.

Not surprisingly, there was a concerted effort to keep operations in secrecy. Guantánamo remained largely hidden from the world for the first two years of its operation. Even the existence of the prison remained largely hidden from the world. The military denied the detainees contact with the outside world, refused all outside requests to interview detainees (whose reports remained confidential), and actively sought to resist court review, which it realized would expose its harsh interrogations and invalidate its claims. Creating a prison beyond the law at Guantánamo was a direct challenge to the judicial scrutiny provided by habeas corpus.

who commanded Guantánamo from the work of these medical personnel, interrogation strategies and assessing their health.”⁹⁶ Doctors consulted detainee medical records, a practice denounced as an ethical association and as a “flagrant violation” through the Defense Department even though the Department even issued ethical guidelines stressing the need for those guidelines allowed scientific and medical personnel to participate in the abuses.⁹⁸

The administration made a concerted effort to shroud these interrogations behind a virtual black hole for more than the names of the Guantánamo detainees in the world. The Bush administration not only cut off contact with their families and with lawyers but also refused to allow the detainees (except by the ICRC, the UN Human Rights Council, etc.). Above all, the administration sought to ensure that no one could shed light on, if not halt, its policy of illegal detention of hundreds of men. Guantánamo thus depended on avoiding the status of *res gestae* corpus.

Guantánamo beyond

Toward a Global Detention System

On April 10, 2002, Binyam Mohamed was returning a flight to Zurich from Karachi, Pakistan. In 1978, Mohamed had been residing in Pakistan to Afghanistan in the spring of 2001. He had traveled to Afghanistan to escape the London street culture of his country. The U.S. government had a dossier on Mohamed, including weapons training at an al Qaeda camp in Afghanistan and training in bomb making before he was recruited and tapped by al Qaeda's leadership to travel to Afghanistan to "plant a bomb," a device containing radioactive material. These suspicions largely on statements from a source, a suspected al Qaeda agent who was captured in Afghanistan, a secret CIA prison for waterboarding and other interrogations.

Following his arrest, Binyam Mohamed was held in secret prisons, where he was questioned by CIA, British intelligence, and the FBI. During those interrogations, he was threatened. As one FBI agent told him, "We can't do exactly what we want them to do. We can't do it sure enough, in July 2002 Mohamed was flown to Morocco on a CIA-operated plane. Mohamed was imprisoned for eight months with eight men and women, who, among other things, were with a razor, and threatened him with death. He never saw a judge or a lawyer. As he said, "I never even saw any human rights tormentors."⁴ Mohamed's captors forced him to confess to them, including making him admit un-

and Guantánamo

System

Mohamed was arrested while board-
Airport in Pakistan. Born in Ethiopia
in London, England, before traveling
Mohamed says he went to Afghani-
re and to experience living in a Muslim
different story: that Mohamed received
in the summer of 2001 and additional
and American citizen Jose Padilla were
el to the United States to set off a “dirty
ve materials.¹ The government based
ts obtained from Abu Zubaydah, the
tured in March 2002 and rendered to a
nd other torture.²

named was taken to a series of local
Pakistani intelligence, British intelli-
errogations, Mohamed was repeatedly
im the first day, “If you don’t talk to
do what we want here; the Pakistanis
o. The Arabs will deal with you.”³ And
was taken by masked CIA agents and
d Gulfstream jet plane. In Morocco,
en months and tortured by a team of
other things, beat him, cut his penis
th rape and electrocution. Mohamed
e later recalled, “I never saw the sun,
man being except the guards and my
ed him to repeat information they fed
uder threat of torture that he had met

Osama bin Laden and had volunteered to join al Qaeda.⁵

Binyam Mohamed's journey did not end there. He was flown on another CIA plane to Guantanamo, Afghanistan, known as the "Dark Prison" because of the total blackness for twenty-four hours. The noise was loud enough to perforate an eardrum. Mohamed was taken in May 2004 to Bagram in Afghanistan and made a false confession.⁶ Three months later he was charged before a military commission. He was held for more than four years without a trial or charges. In 2008, after illegal detention, the government abandoned the case. Mohamed was involved in a bomb plot, dropped the charges, and sent him to England, where he was released.

The case of Binyam Mohamed's and Jose Padilla, took a different path. On May 5, 2002, as he was entering the United States at the Los Angeles airport. Padilla was initially detained as a suspected terrorist. The government's criminal investigation was led by Special Agent appointed attorney, Donna R. Newmark. She was challenging the warrant and seeking habeas corpus. Michael B. Mukasey, scheduled a hearing. On May 9, 2002, the hearing took place, President Bush signed Executive Order 13229, 2002, declaring Padilla an "enemy combatant." The attorney general was "closely associated with al Qaeda and its activities, which constituted hostile and war-like acts," and "posed a serious and grave danger" to the United States. President Bush publicly announced that Padilla—who had met and trained with al Qaeda in Afghanistan—had plotted a "dirty bomb" in the United States and was an "enemy combatant" had "disrupted an unfolding investigation." The mention that the allegations against Mohamed—were based on statements made in a U.S. prison. Ashcroft also neglected to mention that the investigation was necessary to prevent a terrorist attack. Padilla was in federal custody and could have been released. The criminal statutes based on what the government alleged. The lower court proceedings were terminated.

d to serve as an operations man for al
not end in Morocco. In January 2004,
to a secret CIA-run prison in Kabul,
son” because captives there were kept
rs a day while made to listen to music
From the Dark Prison, Mohamed was
hanistan, where he was forced to sign
er, he was flown to Guantánamo and
. He was then held at Guantánamo for
r a hearing. Finally, after seven years of
ndoned the allegations that Mohamed
all charges against him, and returned
d.⁷

alleged accomplice, American citizen
May 8, 2002, the FBI arrested Padilla
at Chicago’s O’Hare International Air-
a material witness in connection with
on of the 9/11 attacks. Padilla’s court-
an, filed a motion in the district court
Padilla’s release. The district judge,
ing for the following week. But before
ush issued a one-page order on June
combatant” and directing the secre-
stody.⁸ The order alleged that Padilla
,” had “engaged in conduct that con-
d represented “a continuing, present,
tes.⁹ Attorney General John Ashcroft
o the government said had previously
fghanistan—was planning to explode
nd that his designation as an “enemy
ling terrorist plot.”¹⁰ Ashcroft did not
c Padilla—like those against Binyam
s extracted through torture at a secret
mention why Padilla’s military deten-
orist attack, since Padilla was already
een prosecuted under any number of
overnment alleged. The following day,
minated at the government’s request,

and Padilla was transferred to the Co... South Carolina, where he would languish three-and-one-half years in defiance of... process and a speedy trial.

Abu Zubaydah, meanwhile, remained... was waterboarded, shackled by his hands... denied food and water, exposed to extreme... prolonged sleep deprivation, and threats... The CIA later destroyed video recordings... up criminal activity by U.S. officials and... helped exonerate the numerous prisoners... Zubaydah's coerced statements.¹² Finally... transferred Zubaydah from secret CIA... thirteen other "high-value detainees."... restrict Zubaydah's access to the courts... from telling his own lawyers how he had... would reveal classified "sources and methods."

These three cases illustrate how Gu... of prisons that emerged after the attack... nected global detention system used by... and other abusive interrogation methods... charge, due process, or access to any courts... tary detention centers such as Bagram... also encompassed practices like "extra... ers were secretly handed over to other... ment and torture. These detentions became... ing ground for some of the worst abuses... the importance of habeas corpus.

Located on a 6.5-square-mile plot in... Kabul, the Bagram Theater Internment... Afghanistan's recent turbulent history... base of operations for troops and supplies... stan in 1979. Control of Bagram then changed... decades of civil war that followed the... in 1989. When the United States took... once cavernous machine shop into a detention...

After its military invasion of Afghanistan... States began using Bagram as a ten...

onsolidated Naval Brig in Charleston, guish in military custody for the next of the Constitution's guarantee of due

ned in secret CIA detention where he and feet for weeks while naked, remely cold temperatures, subjected to atened with disappearance and death.¹¹ ings of those interrogations, covering d eliminating evidence that could have oners who were being held based on ly, in September 2006, President Bush detention to Guantánamo, along with Bush, however, not only continued to s but even sought to prevent Zubaydah ad been tortured on the ground that it methods.”

uantánamo is part of a larger network ks of September 11, 2001, an intercon- y the United States to facilitate torture ods and to hold individuals without ourt. That network included both mili- and secret CIA jails or “black sites.” It rdinary rendition,” in which prison- governments for continued imprison- yond Guantánamo became the breed- es of the post-9/11 era and underscored

the countryside forty miles north of Facility at the Bagram Air Base reflects . The Soviet Union built Bagram as a plies following its invasion of Afghani- hanged hands several times during the Soviets' withdrawal from Afghanistan over the base in 2001, it remodeled its etention center.¹³

anistan in October 2001, the United ntemporary center to screen individuals

before taking them to other prisons for
The prisoners' journeys to and from Bagram to Guantánamo; others were brought to Bagram from CIA "black sites" and transferred to Bagram to CIA custody or rendered to other countries.¹⁴ Over time, Bagram became a prison for about 100 prisoners at the start of 2005.¹⁵ More recent estimates put the number at 1,000.

Bagram remained a stark and forsaken place. For years after 9/11, the prison consisted of a long hallway on the first floor, with six large sixty-foot cells, each held between fifteen and twenty detainees. The second floor was a series of foot isolation cells on the second floor with no windows and wire ceilings. Most of the windows at the first floor were boarded up. Former detainees described sharing only one bucket more than a bucket to serve as a toilet. One detainee compared Bagram to a zoo, "where the warden and the interrogator called it a dungeon, full of "metal bars, no windows, leg shackles and shouts of military police."

The ICRC has reported that prisoners at Bagram suffered gross mistreatment in violation of the Geneva Conventions. Detainees have described abuses similar to those at Guantánamo, including being held in solitary confinement for long periods of time while continuously shackled, subjected to physical abuse, and forced to kneel or stand in painful positions for long periods. A former Bagram prisoner who later was transferred to Guantánamo described his time at Bagram as "the longest days of my life."

The most notorious cases of abuse at Bagram involved two detainees—a twenty-two-year-old Afghan man and the brother of a Taliban commander—who were held in isolation cells with their wrists by shackles in isolation cells. The two detainees were the Oscar award-winning documentary "The Prisoner" investigation revealed that the two men were subjected to beatings, deprived of sleep for days, and starved. A coroner compared their injuries to those of a person who had been beaten. Army investigators later learned that the two men were in the wrong place at the wrong time and that the two men died of natural causes.²³

for further detention and interrogation. Bagram varied: some were taken from Guantanamo to Bagram; others were taken from "black sites"; and others were taken from third countries for further interrogation at a permanent facility. Its population rose from 2004 to as many as 600 by the end of the year, with the number at approximately 700.¹⁶

The facility taken place under the Bush administration contained an open-plan detention area with rows of three-foot-long cages separated by wire that was six feet high, and six nine-foot-by-seven-foot cages made of plywood walls and chicken wire. At Bagram, the cages were broken and boarded up. The cages, which often contained nothing but a few blankets for dozens of prisoners. One detainee described the conditions as "medieval sounds" such as the dragging of chains and the sound of ice.¹⁸

Prisoners held at Bagram were subjected to conditions that violated the Geneva Conventions.¹⁹ Former prisoners described the facility as approved for use at Guantanamo, but the conditions were so bad that prisoners were held for up to eleven months at a time. Prisoners were subjected to prolonged sleep deprivation, and were held in uncomfortable positions for extended periods. One prisoner who was taken to Guantanamo described his experience as "hell [his] life."²⁰

The incident at Bagram occurred in December 2002. Two men, a taxi driver known as Dilawar and another man, were both found dead, hanging from a tree. (Their stories were later depicted in the book *Taxi to the Dark Side*.) An Army spokesman said the men had been brutalized by interrogators. Dilawar had been brutalized by interrogators so often in the legs by guards that he was unable to walk, and was taken to the hospital from being run over by a bus.²¹ Dilawar was an innocent man who was killed. Both deaths were eventually ruled as homicides.²² Both deaths were eventually ruled as homicides. Dilawar's initial assertion that the men had

The Bush administration labeled them “unlawful combatants,” just as it did at Guantánamo. Under these sweeping terms. While some prisoners had a connection with hostilities in Afghanistan, others as distant as Central Africa and Southeast Asia. The United States also denied Bagram detainees the protections afforded by the Geneva Conventions, international and human rights law to individuals accused of crimes. Bagram detainees were simultaneously denied access to Afghan court. They were thus imprisoned without trial, and without any meaningful opportunity to defend against them.

The sham military process that took place at Bagram worked as follows: After an individual was “officially” captured, the detainees’ cases were reviewed again every year by a panel of five military officers, the Combatant Review Board (ECRB).²⁵ The process was and lacked the safeguards necessary to ensure fairness. It denied detainees the opportunity to see the evidence against them, and to have the hearing conducted by someone familiar with the process explained, “The ECRB, in addition, in making its assessments, has often relied on information through torture or other coercion. Although the average length of detention at Bagram is about 18 months, detainees were held there for several years or more.”²⁷

The United States structured its operations in Afghanistan as an enclave without accountability, military operations. The United States has operated Bagram since 2001 in Afghanistan. The current lease grants the United States extensive, and permanent control over Bagram. The lease is rent free, for as long as it wishes and without any conditions. The lease even allows the United States to transfer the facility to another nation or organization, a provision that the United States does not provide.²⁸ By disclaiming responsibility for the facility, the United States has sought to prevent the facility from being U.S.-controlled territory. Therefore, the United States has sought to give detainees there the protections of international law, but deny them any access to its courts. At the same

the detainees at Bagram “enemy combatants.” It also defined “enemy combatant” in ways that meant that many of the detainees at Bagram were allegedly seized in Afghanistan, others were captured in places as far as East Asia and brought to Bagram.²⁴ The detainees any legal protections, whether international or those provided under domestic law. Individuals accused of terrorism or other offenses were denied access to any U.S. or international courts for years without charge, without any opportunity to challenge the allegations.

The Bush administration instituted an initial determination made “at the place of capture,” reviewed after ninety days and then a hearing by military officers known as an Enemy Combatant Review Board (ECRB). The ECRB suffered from multiple flaws that prevented it from achieving accurate results. For example, detainees were not present at the hearings, to see the proceedings, or the assistance of a lawyer. As one official stated, “The detainee is not involved at all.”²⁶ In addition, the ECRB could use statements gained from detainees through the United States claimed that the duration of their detention at Bagram was about fifteen months, many years and, in some cases, for six years.

The Bush administration's operations at Bagram to create an American-style detention facility much like Guantánamo. Since 2003, the United States has entered into a series of lease agreements with Afghanistan that give the United States complete, exclusive control over the base, allowing it to occupy the land, without interference by Afghanistan. The United States has refused to assign possession of Bagram to Afghanistan, claiming that even the Guantánamo lease agreement preserves formal sovereignty over the base, how- ever, the United States says, it is not obligated to apply its laws or Constitution or provide any legal protections. At the same time, the detainees at Bagram have

no rights under Afghan law and no access to a U.S.-run legal black hole.

Despite the similarities between Guantanamo and Bagram, there are significant differences between the two prisons. As with Guantanamo, Bagram was subjected to some judicial process. In Guantanamo, attorneys gained the right to visit detainees in court. These legal challenges helped to prevent the government from maintaining a system of unchecked executive detention. Ironically, they also caused the government to release detainees where for a long time detainees remained incommunicado.”²⁹ As a Defense Department official put it, “Anyone who has been to Bagram will

If overseas military prisons like Guantanamo and Bagram are part of the post-9/11 global detention system, they are also part of another. Extraordinary rendition generally refers to the transfer of prisoners to another country for possible torture. These operations are often designed to operate outside the law, and they often reflect a desire to incarcerate and interrogate individuals who are difficult to reach. This also places a premium on secrecy that makes these operations more challenging and more vulnerable to the worst abuses.

The origins of extraordinary rendition can be traced to the U.S. Marshals Service first coined the phrase “extraordinary rendition” in describing fugitives abroad and bringing them back to the United States. This enabled U.S. officials to apprehend wanted individuals in countries that lacked an extradition treaty. A famous example is the case of Yusef Yunis, a Palestinian who was lured into international waters off the coast of the United States. Yunis was then transferred to the United States and convicted for his role in the hijacking of a plane. The practice of rendition became known as “extraordinary rendition” and has generally been upheld by the courts. The Supreme Court has ruled that defendants are provided due process and habeas corpus rights beforehand.³⁴

By mid-1980s, the United States had established a system of “extraordinary justice” for national security purposes. This system reportedly authorized U.S. law enforcement to detain suspected terrorists in places where it would be difficult to obtain extradition process would not work.³⁵ Pres

access to Afghan courts. The result is a
Guantánamo and Bagram, there are dif-
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Guantánamo and Bagram represent one facet
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dition to justice.” Rendition to justice
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was increasingly using “rendition to
es. In 1986, President Ronald Reagan
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specific rendition procedures, and Pre program, making the return of wanted te ity.”³⁶ Former FBI Director Louis J. F United States “successfully returned” rorists to face trial in the United Stat terrorism against U.S. citizens.³⁷ Despr remained a law enforcement matter, an trial within the civilian justice system,

By the mid-1990s, however, “rend further from its original focus of brin Michael Scheuer, the former head of th the agency had identified and located them because [it] had nowhere to tak dition branch in its Counter-Terroris to track down wanted individuals.³⁹ S 1990s gave the CIA greater leeway to c the “authority to use foreign proxies to having to transfer them to U.S. custody.

The 9/11 Commission’s interim sta shift: “If extradition procedures were States could seek the local country’s as the fugitive in a plane back to America main alternative destination was Egypt oners and one that had outstanding v rorists. The United States rendered at l ing Talaat Fouad Qassem, who had bee for his involvement in the plot to assass Sadat. Qassem was arrested in Croat agents for two days on a ship in the Ad Qassem has never been seen again.⁴² H the United States had started moving toward a new form of rendition, in wh ment occurred entirely outside the U. on bringing a suspect to trial in U.S. co

But these changes were relatively s 9/11 when, as a former FBI agent put out of control.”⁴³ The program not on scope but also began operating withou The concept of “rendition to justice” di

President Bill Clinton expanded the program to include suspected terrorists “a matter of the highest priority.”³⁷ John R. Heilbrunn stated that during the 1990s, the CIA identified thirteen suspected international terrorists for plotting or carrying out acts of terrorism. To implement these changes, “rendition to justice” was established, and suspects were ultimately brought to trial in U.S. courts with its guarantees of due process.

“Rendition to justice” had started to drift away from bringing suspects to trial in U.S. courts. The CIA’s bin Laden unit, estimated that it had identified several al Qaeda leaders but “couldn’t capture them.”³⁸ The CIA established a Rendition Center and assigned case officers to handle several secret orders issued in the late 1990s to deal with Osama bin Laden, including orders to detain Bin Laden lieutenants, without a warrant or a court order.³⁹

A State Department report on diplomacy described the program as “rendition to justice” if the suspect was unavailable or put aside, the United States sought the assistance of another country in a rendition, secretly putting the suspect in a third country for trial.⁴⁰ The program was used to send a country known for torturing prisoners to Egypt, where warrants against several suspected terrorists were issued. At least nine individuals to Egypt, including a man sentenced to death in absentia there. The case of Anwar al-Bashir, Egypt’s former president, Anwar al-Bashir, where he was questioned by U.S. agents in the Adriatic Sea before he was sent to Egypt. This case illustrates that even before 9/11, the program was far away from “rendition to justice” and was not based on a suspect’s transfer and imprisonment in the U.S. legal system and the focus was not on trial in U.S. courts.

Before 9/11, the program was small compared with those made after 9/11. After 9/11, the rendition program “really went to a new level and expanded dramatically in size and scope, bypassing any legal or bureaucratic constraints. The program disappeared entirely, as individuals were

placed beyond any form of judicial oversight, what we know today as “extraordinary rendition.”

Vice President Dick Cheney set the tone in explaining on *Meet the Press* that the “dark side,” doing things “quietly, with methods that are available to our intelligence community,” was the “real” CIA. A presidential directive issued on September 17, 2001, giving the president the power to kill, capture, or detain anyone anywhere in the world. The directive also dispensed with the CIA’s legal counsel to approve the program, and expanded from a discrete category of “high-value” targets, whom there were already outstanding warrants for, to a vaguely defined class of people suspected of associating with suspected terrorists, or simply anyone whose program’s purpose changed, too, from intelligence gathering to imprisoning people only to question them if it ever means deemed necessary. In the end, the program became the rendition program’s raison d’être.

The documented accounts of extrajudicial renditions read like a cold war spy novel: hooded detainees, flown in CIA-owned or chartered jets, held in secret detention and torture. One of the first known renditions was that of Al-Zery and Ahmed Agiza, two Egyptians seen in Sweden. The Swedish government bypassed its legal requirements, and both men deported without a hearing. The security police were acting at the behest of the CIA, planning the men’s clandestine transfer. They were accompanied by masked CIA agents, taken to a room at Stockholm’s Bromma Airport, and subjected to a “security check.” The two men’s clothes were removed, and sedatives administered by suppository. They were dressed in orange jumpsuits, handcuffed, and flown to Cairo. The flight was operated by a front company for the CIA, whose aircraft were used for the flight. Once in Egypt, both men were tortured, and Al-Zery was subjected to electric charges to their naked bodies in a prison cell.

Agiza was later convicted on terrorism charges and sentenced to five years in prison. Al-Zery was released after a year. It turned out that he had been rendered to a prison in Egypt.

or legal process. The program became
rendition.”

he tone five days after September 11,
United States needed to “work . . . the
out any discussion, using sources and
intelligence agencies.”⁴⁴ A classified presi-
17 increased the CIA’s power, includ-
in members of al Qaeda anywhere in
d with the previous practice of requir-
every proposed operation. The focus
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ected of plotting terrorist acts, associ-
mply having useful intelligence.⁴⁵ The
n bringing wanted suspects to trial to
them and extract information by what-
e process, the outsourcing of torture
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ordinary rendition read like lurid tales
ainees being spirited away in the night
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own cases involved Muhammad al-Zery
eking political asylum in Sweden. The
ally required procedures and ordered
g at the urging of its security police.
behest of U.S. officials, who had been
er to Egypt. Swedish security officers,
ook al-Zery and Agiza into a changing
for what they said was a routine “secu-
e cut into pieces, and they were forcibly
y, swaddled in diapers, and dressed in
were then blindfolded, placed in hand-
o aboard a Gulfstream jet registered to
gents operated and manned the flight.
d, including through the application of
in cold underground rooms.⁴⁶

rism charges and sentenced to twenty-
ed after two years without any charges.
ed based on the flimsiest of evidence:

his name had been found on the computer in London two months earlier for his role in a bomb attack but subsequently cleared. Only just two of the estimated sixty prisoners remained.

One of the most infamous renditions was that of Canadian citizen Maher Arar. Arar's ordeal began when he was detained and questioned at New York's Kennedy International Airport during a flight home from a family vacation in Tunisia. After a stop by trade, was taken in chains and shackles to Syria where he was held in solitary confinement and without an attorney. Meanwhile, the Immigration and Customs Enforcement commenced removal proceedings based on the claim that Arar maintained his innocence and as a result, officials that he would be tortured if he was returned to Syria as a teenager two decades earlier. In an effort to block Arar's access to his lawyer, the government failed to provide any special redress and enforcing legal safeguards against the likely torture. An immigration judge ordered Arar's removal to Syria based on secret evidence. On arrival in Syria, where local authorities chained and beat him, and driving him across the border to Syria.

For the next ten months, Arar was held in a prison, being a grave. He was beaten on his back with a two-inch-thick electric cable, and was told he would be hung "chair," hung upside down in a "tire" for the rest of his life. In a desperate effort to end the suffering, Arar was trained with terrorists in Afghanistan, Iraq, and Syria.

Syria released Arar in October 2005. The Canadian government, on his behalf. In September 2006, a Canadian Commission of Inquiry issued a three-volume report finding "no evidence that Arar committed any offense or that his activities were a threat to Canada."⁴⁹ The commission also determined that Arar relied on inaccurate and misleading information about his terrorist connections provided by Canadian intelligence. Arar was tortured while in Syria. The Canadian government issued Arar a formal apology and awarded him \$10 million in compensation for his pain and suffering.⁵⁰ The United States also apologized for its role in Arar's rendition and

puter of an Egyptian dissident arrested
s suspected involvement in a suicide
of all charges. Al-Zery and Agiza were
rs rendered to Egypt after 9/11.⁴⁷

n cases was that of thirty-six-year-old
ordeal began on September 22, 2002,
l by U.S. officials at New York's John F.
y a layover while returning to Montreal
er two days, Arar, a computer engineer
kles to a federal jail in Brooklyn, where
and subjected to further interrogation
m Immigration and Naturalization Service
ed on Arar's alleged ties to al Qaeda.
sked to be sent to Canada, telling U.S.
e were sent to Syria, a country he had
The government, however, continued
us preventing him from seeking judi-
wards designed to prevent transfers to
subsequently ordered Arar's removal
October 8, Arar was flown to Jordan,
beat him before stuffing him in a van
Syria.

kept in a dark, rat-infested cell resem-
alms, hips, and lower back with a two-
ne would be placed in a spine-breaking
for beatings, and given electric shocks.
ring, Arar falsely confessed to having
a country he had never even visited.⁴⁸

03 after Canada finally intervened on
adian commission of inquiry released
vidence to indicate Mr. Arar has com-
es constitute a threat to the security of
mined that the United States had likely
nformation about Arar's supposed ter-
dian officials and confirmed that Arar
adian government subsequently issued
m more than \$9 million to compensate
United States, however, refused to apol-
nd sought to block Arar's civil lawsuit

against the responsible U.S. officials, compromise national security if allowed to go forward. In a letter over the United States' handling of the case, Gonzales admitted that he had not bothered to read the commission's report and was "not aware" that the United States—unwilling to admit that it had given Arar any compensation—kept Arar in custody and prevented him from entering the country.

The renditions of Arar, al-Zery, and al-Sayid were all in violation of immigration law, which was manipulated to facilitate the renditions. The rendition of Osama Mustafa Hassan Nasr, in contrast, occurred entirely outside any legal framework. Abu Omar was living with his family in Italy, where he had political asylum based on his fear of persecution by a radical Islamic organization. On February 12, 2003, he was taken to his local mosque for midday prayer and then taken to a van less than a mile from his home.

As Abu Omar later related, Italian police officers sprayed an unknown substance on him, then forced him into a van and driving him to a secret location. In the van, English- and Italian-speaking interrogators questioned him repeatedly while questioning him about his activities and about recruiting terrorist volunteers. After the questioning, they flew him to another military base in Egypt. On arrival in Egypt, Abu Omar was taken to the headquarters of the secret police. While in custody, Egyptian officials took him to a prison where they tortured him, including by hanging him upside down and striking his genitals.

The details of Abu Omar's kidnapping and the circumstances of the time of his abduction, Abu Omar's activities in Italy, and related crimes as part of a broader investigation in Italy in Milan. Italian prosecutors, who had been conducting part of their investigation, intercepted Abu Omar in Egypt to his wife in Italy after fourteen months in custody. By that time released Abu Omar because of the lack of evidence. Abu Omar recounted his abduction and the subsequent rearrested Abu Omar and continued to be held in agency detention law until February 2004.

claiming that the suit would jeopardize
ward. In the face of mounting criticism
the case, former attorney general Alberto
gathered to read the Canadian commis-
Arar had been tortured.⁵¹ Meanwhile,
that it had made a mistake, let alone
Arar on a terrorist watch-list that pre-
⁵²

and Agiza all occurred under the guise
fabricated and subverted for illegal ends.
an Nasr, also known as “Abu Omar,” by
any legal framework. The Egyptian-born
in Milan, Italy, and had been granted
persecution for his membership in a
January 17, 2003, Abu Omar was walking
as when masked CIA agents kidnapped

Arabic-speaking men claiming to be police
tape on his mouth and nose before push-
ing him to a U.S. air base five hours away. In the
process, individuals gagged Abu Omar and beat
him about his relation to radical Islamists
and his desire to fight in Iraq. Abu Omar’s cap-
tivity base in Europe before taking him
to the United States. Abu Omar was immediately brought to the
United States when Abu Omar refused to work as an
agent. He was taken to an underground prison and tortured
by being held down and applying electric shocks to

him. These allegations were uncovered only by chance. At
the time, he was under investigation for terrorism-
related activities. A U.S. inquiry into Islamic militancy based in
the Middle East originally tapped Abu Omar’s phone as
part of a call that Abu Omar had made from
his prison in months of captivity there. Egypt had
expressed concern over his failing health. During the call,
Abu Omar requested his wife’s name and rendition to his wife. Egypt subse-
quently continued to hold him under an emer-
gency law until 2007, when it finally released him.⁵³

Revelation of Abu Omar's abduction across Europe. Italian prosecutors bro six CIA agents, including the two top secret service agents.⁵⁴ An Italian court twenty CIA officers in absentia for t (The United States refused to extradite advance of the investigation.)⁵⁵ In add the abduction undermined the origin Omar and a cell of alleged terrorists in aging relations with the Muslim comm

These are just a few of the numerous tions that took place after the Septer *Sunday Times* of London showed that operations flew to forty-nine destina Iraq, Jordan, Libya, Morocco, and Uzb people subjected to "extraordinary re to as many as several thousand.⁵⁸ And related renditions. If the Defense De and Bagram are included, that number

Extraordinary rendition violates th to send people to places where their an obligation known as *non-refouleme* set forth in the Convention against T Degrading Treatment or Punishment signed by the United States and more tion against Torture categorically proh or extraditing a person to another stat for believing that he would be in dang treaty's *non-refoulement* obligation is c to prohibit and prevent torture worldv Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), a the United States is also a party, cont obligation. It prohibits exposing indiv but also of cruel, inhuman, or degrad the ICCPR's *non-refoulement* obligati Committee, which monitors the treat that this obligation falls within the tr other mistreatment and is binding u tions.⁶¹ Furthermore, human rights law

tion prompted an outcry in Italy and sought criminal charges against twenty-two CIA officials in Italy and five Italian court ultimately convicted more than their role in Abu Omar's kidnapping. The defendants, who had fled Italy in addition to creating political controversy, faced criminal investigation against Abu Omar in Italy and around Europe while damaging community.⁵⁶

ous U.S.-directed extraordinary renditions after the September 11 attacks. Logs obtained by the FBI show one Gulfstream jet used in rendition operations, including Afghanistan, Egypt, and Uzbekistan.⁵⁷ Estimates of the number of "renditions" vary from as few as seventy to as many as 100. And these estimates cover only the CIA-led renditions to Guantánamo. The actual number would be significantly higher.

The United States' legal obligation not to return individuals whose lives or freedom could be threatened, known as *non-refoulement* (or non-return). This obligation is derived from the Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (Convention against Torture), a treaty to which the United States has joined with more than 145 other countries. The Convention prohibits states from expelling, returning, or otherwise transferring individuals "where there are substantial grounds for believing that they would be in danger of being subjected to torture."⁵⁹ The Convention is one of a number of measures designed to protect human rights worldwide.⁶⁰ The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights is another human rights treaty to which the United States has joined. It contains an even broader *non-refoulement* obligation, protecting individuals to the risk not only of torture but also of inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. While the Convention is not explicit, the Human Rights Committee's implementation, has determined that the treaty's prohibition against torture and inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment under the treaty's general legal obligation to respect and ensure the rights of the individual supports construing the *non-refoulement*

ment obligation broadly to encompass authority or control.⁶²

The Bush administration tried to do what it considered necessary and legal. To protect the United States had “to find those who were out of [the] way.”⁶³ Secretary of State “Renditions take terrorists out of action.” In response to the administration’s earlier refusal to apply the Geneva Convention to combatants, Rice noted that the “war on terrorism is a war that requires new approaches for dealing with it. The old approaches do not fit easily into traditional systems.”

The Bush administration sought to justify its actions on the same theories of unchecked executive power that justified the detention of prisoners at Guantánamo. The Convention against Torture’s *non-refoulement* principle, territorially and therefore excluded to the United States, insisted that the ICCPR also did not apply to the “war on terrorism” more generally did not apply. The “war on terrorism” was subject to the laws of war, the administration maintained, and the transfer of combatants” to another government, even if they were in their torture.⁶⁶

The Bush administration, however, did not want to defend the legality of extraordinary rendition. The administration’s policy was not to transfer prisoners to other countries. In January 2005, President Bush told the press that “it is not acceptable, nor do we hand people over to other countries.” Three months later, after more details of the administration’s rendition program had emerged, Bush said that “we do not send people to countries where they will be tortured.”⁶⁸ The administration defended its policy by assuring that the receiving state—known as a “safe country”—would not be tortured.⁶⁹

Diplomatic assurances were first used in response to demands by some countries that the United States not extradite or rendition context where compliance is required. The transfers are to countries with records of human rights abuses also are not subject to any regular

territories and persons under a state's

defend extraordinary rendition as both American people, Bush asserted, the would do harm to us and get them Condoleezza Rice similarly remarked, n, and save lives." Echoing the admin-Geneva Conventions to "enemy com-terrorism" is a "new kind of conflict" ing with "captured terrorists . . . [who] as of criminal or military justice."⁶⁴

to justify extraordinary rendition based executive power that it invoked to justify namo and Bagram. It argued that the *ius cogens* obligation did not apply extra-transfers outside the United States. It apply extraterritorially and that human ly to extraordinary renditions because ly to the law of war.⁶⁵ And the law of did not restrict the transfer of "enemy even if that transfer would likely result

r, also tried to have it both ways: to rendition while maintaining that U.S. countries where they faced torture. In *New York Times* that "torture is never ver to countries that do torture."⁶⁷ But of the administration's extraordinary a explained that the United States only ey say they're not going to torture the ed this practice by relying on guaran-as "diplomatic assurances"—that those

sed in death penalty cases in response ne United States not execute a fugitive ce trial. They translated poorly to the s difficult to monitor and where most of official torture.⁷⁰ Diplomatic assur- ations but are completely informal and

ad hoc. One CIA agent went so far as to say, “I’m not kidding anyone here,” Michael Scheuer said. “I knew exactly what that kind of promise would get me,” he explained, “We don’t kick the [expletive] out of the countries so they can kick the [expletive] out of us.”

But not all torture was outsourced. In 2002, the CIA ordered the capture of al Qaeda members anywhere in the world. A CIA directive that jump-started the post-9/11 era also approved the creation of a network of “black sites.”⁷⁴ These prisons offered something new: total invisibility. After 9/11, hundreds of “black sites,” which were located in various countries including Thailand, Poland, Romania, and Lithuania, were established. A CIA official said, was researching “how to build a network of black sites.”

Prisoners in CIA custody came to be known as “ghosts.” Even the ICRC was denied access to them. “They would just disappear off the books, and no one would know,” a former FBI agent said. “They were proud of it.” The CIA’s detentions at Guantánamo and Bagram were based on a similar concept: that the detainees were “enemies of the war on terrorism” and therefore had no rights under domestic or international law.

The Bush administration authorized the use of “enhanced interrogation techniques” to extract information. The prisons, in fact, were “the administration’s most abusive interrogation techniques” sanctioned by a series of “executive memoranda gutting the definition of torture” and “approved by the president or his agents in the White House.” These techniques were closely monitored and approved at the highest levels of the U.S. government. “The CIA’s interrogation protocol described it as ‘the most severe programs of torture ever.’”⁸⁰

Cases like Khaled el-Masri’s show how easily someone can be ensnared in this new, law-free detentions. A car salesman, el-Masri was traveling to Europe for the Christmas holiday in 2003. On December 17, 2003, at a border crossing between Serbia and Montenegro, he was taken from other tourists. His passport was confiscated, and he was taken to a windowless room where his captors accused him of being a terrorist.

s to call them “a farce.”⁷¹ “No one was ever said of diplomatic assurances. “We use was worth.”⁷² Or as another official [re] out of them. We send them to other [ve] out of them.”⁷³

In addition to authorizing the CIA to kill anyone in the world, the classified president-9/11 extraordinary rendition program network of secret CIA-run prisons or “black sites” even Guantánamo and Bagram could hold hundreds of prisoners were rendered to these various countries, including Afghanistan, Albania.⁷⁵ The goal in selecting prisons, one was to make people disappear.”⁷⁶

They be referred to as “ghost detainees.”⁷⁷ “I’ll tell them.”⁷⁸ The CIA “loved that these guys would never be heard of again,” said a former CIA official.⁷⁹ Although more secret than military intelligence, CIA “black sites” were predicated on the idea that these were unlawful combatants in the global war on terror and had no rights or legal protection under international law.

These secret CIA prisons primarily to interrogate and, in turn, served as laboratories for the development of new interrogation methods—the “enhanced interrogation techniques”—the “enhanced interrogation techniques” executive branch decisions and legal justifications for torture and justifying any action taken in the name of national security. The use of these techniques was supervised by CIA lawyers and supervised at the time.

One outside expert familiar with the program described it as “one of the most sophisticated, refined and effective.”

It shows how easily people could be mistaken for terrorists in a detention system. A German citizen and his wife traveled to Macedonia for vacation during the summer of 2001, his bus stopped at the main bus station in Macedonia. El-Masri was singled out and arrested, his passport confiscated, and he was taken to a winery in Macedonia. That evening, el-

Masri was brought to a hotel room in and interrogated at gunpoint. After captivity, el-Masri was brought to the CIA agents. Shackled, diapered, and b Afghanistan. Upon arrival, el-Masri for a secret CIA-run interrogation factory outside Kabul. There, el-Masri deprived of basic necessities. El-Masri commenced a hunger strike that caused Despite evidence that el-Masri was no Qaeda unit insisted that el-Masri cont ing” that he was bad.⁸¹ Finally, on May a roadside hilltop in Albania and depo el-Masri returned home after five mo changed so much that the German bor could not recognize him from the pict

The ordeal of Marwan Jabour prov detention. Following his arrest in Lah taken initially to the local station of Pak days later, he was brought to a clandest by Pakistanis and Americans. During h sleep for days, and kept naked and cha was tied with a string so that he could pated in Jabour’s interrogations and wa somewhere and would never see his chi blindfolded, shackled, and taken to an a The men were then put on a plane by A in Afghanistan, where more than thirt the individuals operating and working possible exception of the Arab-speaki painful positions, held in prolonged sol seeing sunlight for a year-and-a-half. J the outside world, including the ICRC Jabour was sent to Jordan and then to ily in Gaza. During his entire confinem judge, charged with a crime, or allowed

The U.S. has never acknowledged h jails around the world. But that numbe the location of some of these prisoners

Skopje where he was beaten, drugged, twenty-three days of incommunicado at the airport and turned over to masked and blindfolded, el-Masri was then flown to Guantanamo. He was driven to the Salt Pit, the code name for a secret facility located in an abandoned brick building. el-Masri was again held incommunicado and his conditions did not improve until he threatened his captors to fear that he might die. He was not a terrorist, the head of the CIA's al Qaeda unit decided to continue to be held based on her "gut feeling." On October 28, 2004, CIA agents took el-Masri to Guantanamo. He was visited without explanation. Within a few months' of captivity, his appearance had deteriorated. A border guard who checked his documents found a signature in his passport.⁸²

Another chilling account of secret detention is provided by Jabour, a Pakistani, in Pakistan, in May 2004, Jabour was detained by Pakistan's Inter-Services Intelligence. Four months later, he was in a prison in Islamabad operated jointly by the CIA and the Pakistani government. During his detention, Jabour was beaten, denied food and water, and chained to a wall in a cell while his penis was exposed and he was not allowed to urinate. American officials participated in his torture and told him that he could "be taken away from his children again." After a month, Jabour was flown to the airport along with three other prisoners. He was taken to Guantanamo and flown to a secret facility where many other prisoners were being held. All the prisoners at the prison were Americans, with the exception of a few Arabic translators. Jabour was chained in solitary confinement, and prevented from communicating with anyone. Jabour was also denied all contact with his captors and his family. Finally, after two years, Jabour was released to Israel, which released him to his family. Jabour was never brought before a court and never allowed to see a lawyer.⁸³

How many people it detained in secret detention is likely to exceed several hundred,⁸⁴ and the total number of detainees still remains unknown.⁸⁵

Guantánamo, Bagram, CIA “black sites” and other detention facilities together demonstrate the emergence of a global detention system designed to circumvent legal constraints. U.S. detentions in Iraq illustrate a different approach that shows how the ideas and impulses behind the war on terror, as a more traditional military operation, were redefined by defining it as another front in the global war on terror.

On March 18, 2003, the United States led a coalition of forces with the support of smaller contingents from other nations, the “Coalition of the Willing.” The invasion was justified as necessary to end the threat of weapons of mass destruction, to end Saddam Hussein’s terrorism, and to liberate the Iraqi people. British Prime Minister Tony Blair claimed implicit authorization from the United Nations Security Council. Three weeks later, coalition forces formally occupied Baghdad and Saddam Hussein’s rule. (Hussein was captured that December and was later landed on the aircraft carrier *USS Abraham Lincoln*, proclaiming the “end of major combat operations.”) In stating “Mission Accomplished” clearly, President Bush later appointed L. Paul Bremer II as head of the Coalition Provisional Authority, which acted as Iraq’s temporary government until a permanent government could be established. On June 8, 2004, power was turned to the newly appointed Iraqi interim government, marking a formal end to the United States’ occupation. Despite political developments, insurgency and terrorism continued in Iraq, and more than 100,000 U.S. troops remained there. By June 2005, President Bush withdrew U.S. troops from the war on terror.⁸⁶

The U.S.-led invasion and occupation of Iraq led to the creation of a U.S.-run detention system in that country. The system included holding more than 21,000 individuals in Iraq, including those in the Multi-National Force–Iraq (MNF–I) detention facilities, a coalition in postinvasion Iraq.⁸⁷ U.S. detention facilities sprawled over five facilities, were ultimately closed in 2006. Camp Bucca in southern Iraq, and Camp Cropper at Baghdad International Airport. In addition to these facilities, there were

black sites,” and extraordinary rendition of an interconnected global detention system to avoid accountability. A different but related phenomenon. They argued that system could warp what began in 2001, pushing it to operate outside the law under the global “war on terrorism.”

The United States and United Kingdom invaded Iraq, along with coalition forces from other nations that formed the invasion force. The invasion's stated goals were to rid Iraq of Saddam Hussein's support for terrorism and to find weapons of mass destruction. Both President Bush and British Prime Minister Tony Blair sought authorization for the invasion from the United Nations. Three weeks after the invasion began, U.S. President George W. Bush declared an end to Saddam Hussein's regime. (The invasion ended in March.) On May 1, 2003, President Bush signed the *Authorization for Use of Military Force Against Iraq* and delivered a speech titled “Iraqi Freedom Operations” in Iraq, with a banner for the invasion visible in the background. Five days after the invasion, the U.S. appointed Paul Bremer II to oversee the reconstruction of Iraq. The Coalition Provisional Authority (CPA), which would function as a democratically elected civilian government, was established. On June 28, 2004, the CPA transferred power to the interim Iraqi government and disbanded, marking the end of the U.S. occupation of Iraq. Elections were held, and a new government was formed. But despite these achievements, mounting sectarian violence continued. U.S. troops remained on the ground in Iraq, and the administration was calling Iraq “a central front in the war on terrorism.”

The invasion of Iraq gave rise to a massive U.S.-led detention system. By 2008, the United States was detaining thousands of Iraqis in Iraq, nominally under the authority of the CPA. In Guantanamo (GT-I), the U.S.-dominated international detention operations, which initially were primarily concentrated in two prisons: Camp Cropper, located near the Baghdad airport, and Camp Bucca. By 2008, more than 10,000 U.S. prisoners, by 2008, more than

23,000 people were being held by the the country.⁸⁸

The legal basis for the MNF-I and stemmed primarily from several UN 22, 2003, the Security Council passed Resolution 1483 and 1511 legitimized the occupation command and would administer Iraq in accordance with the UN Charter and five months later, the Security Council authorized the MNF-I and authorizing it to take to the maintenance of security and stability. UN Security Council Resolutions 1483 and 1511 legitimized the occupation force.⁹¹ The subsequent return of former alter the situation, and UN Security Council Resolution 1511 authorized the MNF-I's mandate to continue combat operations. In particular, that resolution authorized the "unified command" of U.S. military officers to contribute to the maintenance of security and stability by detaining individuals where "necessary." The MNF-I's mandate was subsequently renewed after which point Iraq was expected to be returned to the country.⁹⁴ Although the number of detainees the United States continued detaining increased significantly into 2010.⁹⁵

The United States did not initially detain Iraqis outside any legal framework, as it did with CIA "black sites." In April 2003, the Department of Defense was holding detainees captured in Iraq in military detention facilities.⁹⁶ Before long, however, U.S. military operations began to resemble U.S. detention operations in Afghanistan: security-related imprisonments based on intelligence rather than reliable evidence, indefinite detention, abuse, and a complete denial of judicial review.

Faced with an increasingly aggressive insurgency and intelligence to combat it, U.S. commanders began using tactics used in the "war on terror." In 2006, a new category that did not exist under the Geneva Conventions became familiar at Guantánamo: "unlawful combatants." The U.S. subsequently adopted another category that

ventions: “security detainees.” Within a few months, the number of detainees in Iraq grew to more than 6,300, most of whom were held at Abu Ghraib, the dusty and decrepit prison. Abu Ghraib quickly became the United States’ most notorious detention facility. High-level U.S. officials responsible for the development of the measures at Guantánamo and Bagram admitted that they used those tactics there.

To denote their “significant intelligence value,” a small number of security detainees were labeled “high priority.” Meanwhile, the number of detainees steadily declined and began to dwindle.⁹⁸ “They are not EPWs [enemy prisoners of war],” a senior military commander about prisoners of war said. “They are terrorists and will be treated as such. We want to send a message and sent a message through the ranks. It was permissible. ‘The gloves are coming off,’” a senior intelligence officer said in a widely distributed memo in late 2003.¹⁰⁰ By September 2003, Lieutenant General Ricardo Sanchez, commander of coalition forces in Iraq, ordered the use of Guantánamo that sanctioned interrogation techniques, including the use of military dogs, sleep and sensory deprivation, and temperatures.¹⁰¹ Because detainees in Iraq were not protected by the Geneva Convention, Pentagon officials reasoned, SERE techniques could be used against them, just as they were used against detainees at Guantánamo and Bagram.¹⁰²

U.S. officials continued to assert that the interrogations were conducted “in the spirit” of the Geneva Convention. The occupying power establish a “regular system of internment of civilians (or nonprisoners of war).” If the internment of civilians (or nonprisoners of war) conducted by the MNF–I failed to meet the requirements of the Geneva Convention, the Geneva Convention’s important safeguards.¹⁰⁴ Prisoners were routinely denied the opportunity to see or confront the evidence against them and the chance to be present at their retrial. The Geneva Convention permits the detention of civilians “for imperative reasons of security” or for “the security of the military.” Civilians picked up in random military sweeps, at highway checkpoints were held for months without trial and without evidence that their continued detention was for “imperative reasons of security.”¹⁰⁸ As a result, the MNF–I held detainees “for prolonged periods of time.”

a year, the number of security detainees—more than 3,000 of whom were being held at a secret compound outside Baghdad that was the main detention center in the country. Many detainees were brought to Iraq to implement harsh interrogation techniques. Some were brought to Iraq to implement harsh interrogation techniques or political value,” a small number of “high-value detainees” and held in secret.⁹⁷ Many detainees held as prisoners of war continued to be held in secret. [My prisoners of war],” remarked one detainee held in U.S. custody in Iraq. “They were held in secret.”⁹⁹ Such statements sowed confusion among detainees that aggressive treatment, even abuse, was being used off regarding these detainees,” a U.S. military officer distributed email message from August 2002. Lieutenant General Ricardo S. Sanchez, the commander of the military, had a new policy modeled on Guantanamo methods such as stress positions, the deprivation of sleep, and exposure to extreme temperatures. Detainees in Iraq were “unlawful combatants,” Pentagon officials said. Techniques used against detainees at Guantánamo

are not being used publicly that detentions in Iraq were not being used publicly. Geneva Conventions, which require that an “independent procedure” for the periodic review of prisoners of war).¹⁰³ But the reviews conducted in Iraq did not meet these requirements and lacked impartiality. Detainees were routinely denied any meaningful opportunity to challenge their status against them.¹⁰⁵ They also were refused habeas corpus review hearings.¹⁰⁶ The Fourth Geneva Convention applies to civilians only where it is “necessary for their protection or penal prosecution.”¹⁰⁷ But Iraqi civilians were held in sweeps of entire neighborhoods and at times for months, or even years, without prosecution. Detention without confinement was, in fact, “necessary for their protection.” A United Nations report explained, the detainees were held for periods without judicial review of their

cases,” and based on administrative review requirement to grant detainees due process under generally recognized norms.”¹⁰⁹

The United States also failed to institute procedures for identifying and tracking detainees. Some prisoners were never given names. Others were deliberately taken off the rolls. This practice, known as “ghosting,” violated international conventions and human rights law. It allowed commanders to hold prisoners incommunicado. The Red Cross regularly inspects prisons to monitor conditions. Ghosting was also intended to prevent detainees from Iraq to other countries for interrogation. The Geneva Conventions subject to prosecution as war crimes. It is speculated that there may have been a number of “ghosts” in Iraq.¹¹⁴

U.S. officials argued that the normal process of due process, they insisted, was not applicable to terrorism. Due process, they insisted, was not applicable to terrorism associated with criminal arrests and trials. The Geneva Conventions related detentions in Iraq.¹¹⁵ This argument was based on the devastating consequences.

On April 28, 2004, *60 Minutes II* aired a report from a prison showing the torture and gross human rights abuses by U.S. forces. The pictures quickly spread across the Internet.¹¹⁶ They showed U.S. troops using dogs to terrify prisoners, force prisoners to perform humiliating acts, depicted a hooded man standing on a box with his hands. Another showed the bloodied bodies of prisoners in a phosphane and packed in ice. Other pictures showed U.S. troops using dogs to terrify prisoners, force prisoners to perform humiliating acts. A U.S. army investigation headed by Major General Antonio M. Taguba concluded that the “sadistic, blatant, and wanton criminal abuses” included shining lights and pouring the phosphoric liquid on naked detainees, and beating detainees. These abuses, Taguba’s report concluded, violated U.S. Army regulations and the Geneva Conventions.

The impact of the Abu Ghraib photographs and written descriptions of prisoner mistreatment was a widespread public outcry until these images were removed from the Internet.

view procedures that “do not fulfill the process in accordance with international law.”¹¹⁰ The CIA and military intelligence officials “did not institute an effective system for identifying detainees. Many detainees simply got lost in the confusion.”¹¹⁰ The CIA and military intelligence officials “did not maintain regular rolls or registered under false names,” violated the Geneva Convention, “deliberately lied to the ICRC, and hid them from the ICRC, which is required to ensure compliance with the Geneva Convention.”¹¹¹ The CIA and military intelligence officials “facilitate the CIA’s transfer of detainees to military custody—a grave breach of the Geneva Convention—a war crime.”¹¹³ One U.S. Army general estimated that as many as one hundred “ghost detainees” were being held. “The rules of war did not apply to the war against terrorism,” he said. “The Geneva Convention ‘is a human rights concept generally applicable to international law’ and does not apply to security operations.”¹¹⁴ The CIA’s policy of “declassification” was not only wrong but had dev-

ermined the CIA’s ability to broadcast pictures from Abu Ghraib and other mistreatment of detainees by U.S. forces. The pictures spread across the globe through print media and television. The pictures showed detainees being subjected to mock executions, beatings, and other mistreatment. One photograph showed a box with electrical wires attached to the head of a prisoner, wrapped in cellophane. Another photograph displayed American soldiers using force to restrain detainees into painful positions, and sexually abusing detainees. The investigation into the abuses at Abu Ghraib and other detention facilities found numerous instances of “gross human rights abuses,” including breaking chemical containers, pouring cold water on detainees, pouring urine on detainees with a broom handle and a chair.¹¹⁸ The abuses, which stemmed from routine violations of the Geneva Conventions.¹¹⁹

The images cannot be overstated. Although mistreatment already existed, there was no widespread images of American soldiers torment-

ing Iraqi prisoners were published.¹²⁰ atrocities can incite the public in way Ghraib photographs did precisely that tion's lie that the United States was tre why courts and legislators could not b national security. The photographs als effort to circumvent legal rules and co damaging America's reputation and u throughout the world.¹²²

The abuses were not limited to Ab ons in Iraq, including the infamous C road near the Baghdad International served as a torture chamber for Sadd insurgency intensified in 2004, a U.S. an interrogation center. Camp Nama q ers who were denied access to lawyers side. Prisoners were interrogated in a Room, where the eighteen-inch hook a reminder of the torture inflicted u military unit known as Task Force 6- force that had so grossly mistreated pr responsibility for extracting informati Abu Musab al-Zarqawi. But the task niques intended for "the worst of the Soldiers, for example, beat prisoners their faces. "The reality is, there were official.¹²⁴ When some interrogators at lawyers arrived at the base within ho defending the treatment and techniq were not prisoners of war but "securit Abuses continued even after warnings can law enforcement officials. More th 6-26 were ultimately disciplined in som members were convicted of physical as little information to help capture insur it succeeded only in alienating ordina States' mission in that country and its

These abuses may be attributed par American soldiers battling an insurgen

As Susan Sontag explained, images of
s that words alone cannot.¹²¹ The Abu
t. They exposed the Bush administra-
ating prisoners humanely and showed
blindly trust the president in matters of
so illustrated how the administration's
urt review could lead to horrific abuse,
ndermining human rights protections

ou Ghraib but occurred at other pris-
Camp Nama. Located just off a dusty
Airport, Camp Nama had previously
am Hussein's regime. When the Iraqi
Special Operations unit remade it into
quickly became a black hole for prison-
s, courts, relatives, and the world out-
a windowless cell known as the Black
ks hanging from the ceiling served as
nder Saddam Hussein. Members of a
-26—a unit closely related to the task
isoners at Abu Ghraib—were assigned
on about Iraq's most-wanted terrorist,
force ended up using the brutal tech-
e worst" on ordinary Iraqi civilians.¹²³
with rifle butts and yelled and spit in
e no rules," commented one Pentagon
Camp Nama raised questions, military
urs to give a PowerPoint presentation
ues on the ground that the detainees
y detainees" or "enemy combatants."¹²⁵
from an army investigator and Ameri-
an thirty-four members of Task Force
ne way for abusing detainees and three
ssault. In the end, Camp Nama yielded
rgents or save American lives. Instead,
ry Iraqis and undermining the United
counterterrorism efforts generally.¹²⁶
tly to the tremendous stress placed on
ncy that continued to grow in strength.

But they also flowed directly from the current legal rules and embrace torture. “Shit started to go bad right away,” remembering back at detainee operations during the war in Iraq.¹²⁷ The decision to operate outside the migration of aggressive interrogators from Afghanistan to Iraq. Major General Gordon Strickland, who led the move to “Gitmoize” interrogations in Iraq, wrote that the operations, by adopting strategies and techniques from Guantánamo’s commander.¹²⁸ Meanwhile, Yoo’s March 2003 memo legitimizing the use of the name of national security helped provide the legal cover to make detention operations in Iraq “an essential part of the war” and paved the way for many of the human rights abuses.

America’s failure to implement adequate safeguards against evasion of the Geneva Conventions’ provisions on prisoners fed off each other. Detainees with little or no intelligence value swelled the ranks of prisoners in Iraq.¹³⁰ Detainees were often held in conditions of superficial examinations and screening, and the use of abusive interrogation methods. Families were failed to notify family members that their loved ones were imprisoned. Individuals were removed from their homes at night with bags over their heads and were not asked where their loved ones were being held. Sometimes U.S. troops arrested all adults in a neighborhood, including elderly, handicapped, and sick people. Detainees were insulted, and kicked and struck with clubs. Over a thousand to forty thousand Iraqis passed through military custody in the first eighteen months of the occupation.

The United States also resisted releasing detainees who were clearly innocent. As a military intelligence officer wrote:

People were afraid to take personal responsibility for the release of detainees, even when obvious evidence would lead to condemning statements such as “I was lied to seven times but is lying because he said he was innocent and was therefore uncooperative.” Many were held in U.S. custody for the duration of hostilities.

Bush administration's decision to circumvent due process. It marked one infantry team leader, looking back on the United States' first crucial months in Iraq. Under the Geneva Conventions facilitated the use of interrogation techniques from Guantánamo and the CIA. Geoffrey D. Miller, in particular, sought to implement these techniques where he supervised all U.S.-run prisons. Miller honed these techniques while previously serving as a military intelligence officer. Department of Justice lawyer John Yoo, in particular, provided legal cover for Miller and others to use "enhanced interrogation techniques" and helped facilitate the rights violations that followed.¹²⁹

Inadequate screening procedures and its lack of a prohibition against mistreating prisoners who presented no threat and who had no combat experience. The population of Abu Ghraib and other prisons was held for long periods of time based on flimsy evidence and statements that encouraged them to confess.¹³¹ In many cases, the United States seized their loved ones had been seized and taken away from their homes in the middle of the night and without explanation. When families were being taken, they were told to shut up.¹³² All adult males present in a house, including women and children. Iraqi men were pushed around, threatened, and sometimes killed with rifles.¹³³ All told, approximately thirty thousand men passed through U.S. detention facilities in Iraq.¹³⁴

Increasing even those prisoners who were not being held. A prison officer explained:

... responsibility [for] recommending that a detainee be held in custody. Innocently innocent, and often this would be done as "the detainee told the same story that we should know such and such information. Recommend detainee be held in custody." ¹³⁵

Major General Taguba's report noted that civilian inmates at Abu Ghraib had been mistreated. Yet many continued to languish in jail. As a colonel later told investigators, the prevailing attitude was "we wouldn't have detained them if we were in a normal world without charge, without access to a court, and without a process helped lead to the prolonged detention, the glutting of jails, and the growing reliance on military measures, particularly as the insurgency grew." The United States' operations in Iraq were justified because the United States was trying to quell.

The case of American citizen Donald Vance is a stark example of the "haphazard system of detention and processing." Vance, from Chicago, went to Iraq in 2003 to work for a private contractor. When he discovered that the company was selling weapons to violent militias and death squads, Vance informed the press in Baghdad. In return, Vance was arrested and held in Camp Cropper as a security detainee. He was with other very people he had tried to expose. Vance and other prisoners slept on concrete floors that were only 50 degrees Fahrenheit. During the night, Vance's hands and feet, covered his eyes, and they put him in a wheelchair.¹⁴⁰ Vance kept track of time by looking at the wall of his cell. Vance was denied access to military review hearings and was prevented from seeing his family. The only reason Vance was even allowed to see his fiancée was because he was an American citizen. Vance and other detainees from other countries. Vance was held for three months of illegal imprisonment. Vance's fiancée in the United States pleaded for his release, but only one arrived, and that letter did not reach Vance. Vance returned home.¹⁴¹

Despite these problems, and despite the fact that many people reportedly died in U.S. custody, the conditions in Iraq received relatively little attention. Abu Ghraib. Far more is known about the conditions at Guantánamo than about the tens of thousands of detainees in Iraq, the prox-

ted that more than 60 percent of the
een deemed not to present any threat.
il.¹³⁶ As one army intelligence official
attitude of U.S. commanders was, “We
nted them released.”¹³⁷ Holding people
ourt, or without any other meaningful
confinement of innocent people, the
ance on aggressive interrogation mea-
gained strength.¹³⁸ It also undermined
by fueling the same insurgency the

ld Vance highlights the United States’
prosecution” in Iraq.¹³⁹ A navy veteran
2004 to work as a security contractor.
ny he was working for had a growing
suspicious customers with ties to vio-
nformed the FBI and the U.S. embassy
ested and imprisoned by the U.S. mili-
etainee for having associated with the
ance was confined to a tiny cell, where
rete slabs and where the temperature
ring interrogations, officials shackled
es, placed towels over his head, and put
ck of the days by making hash marks
nied the assistance of a lawyer at his
ented from seeing the evidence against
allowed to be present at those hearings
zen—an opportunity denied to Iraqis
ance was finally released, but only after
Of the ten letters that Vance had sent
ding for help while he was imprisoned,
ot arrive until after Vance had already

e the fact that more than one hundred
y in Iraq and Afghanistan, U.S. deten-
attention aside from scandals like Abu
e several hundred detainees at Guan-
sands of prisoners in Iraq. The sheer
ximity to ongoing combat operations,

and the fact that the United States policies all contributed to a tendency to post-9/11 detention system. Yet, Iraq system. It illustrates how the theories "terrorism" could lead U.S. officials to circulate massive detention dragnet without adequate oversight and abuse. It also shows how the reaction and a disregard for legal rules, violations and undercutting the United States. Iraq, in short, shows how a military operation can fail to comply with the Geneva Conventions and become another Guantánamo."¹⁴² Like Guantánamo, Iraq highlights the dangers of extrajudicial detention and habeas corpus.

did lip service to the Geneva Conven-
to view Iraq separately from the larger
presents an important aspect of that
and impulses behind the “war on ter-
cumvent established rules and spawn a
adequate checks against arbitrary impris-
fears of terrorism could prompt over-
s, leading to widespread human rights
d States’ ability to counter insurgency.
eration that was originally supposed to
and U.S. law could become “in effect,
namo, Bagram, and CIA “black sites,”
judicial detention and the importance of

Crossing a Constitution

The Domestic “Enemy Combatant”

After 9/11, the United States identified “enemy combatants” overseas and only those inside the United States. But those three and expansive assertions of executive power. In two of them, the Bush administration crossed a constitutional Rubicon, the Bill of Rights and institute a new government. In essence, it claimed the power to remove residents off the streets of the United States into custody, without charge or trial, based on the claim that they presented a danger to the nation’s

Before 9/11, the United States had a federal court under the country’s criminal law. The government had the additional option of removing people from the country under its immigration authority to detain depended on provisions of the civilian justice system.

The Bush administration manipulated the law after 9/11. Attorney General John Ashcroft said the government must “think outside the box” and adopt a “new strategy” to fight terrorism.¹ The government focused on prevention per se, but the illegal methods used to achieve this end. In the United States, the administration used two methods. The first was exploiting the civil law governing immigration and material support to detain people for even months without charging them as “enemy combatant” designations—abandoned

Additional Rubicon

“Enemy Combatant” Cases

imprisoned hundreds of individuals as enemy combatants. In three cases involved the most aggressive detention power in the “war on terrorism.” The administration sought nothing less than the threatening to erase the guarantees of the Constitution and the norm of indefinite military imprisonment. The administration sought to seize American citizens and legal residents of the United States and imprison them in military detention facilities solely on the president’s assertion that such actions were necessary for national security.

The administration prosecuted suspected terrorists in federal courts under federal laws. In the case of foreign nationals, the administration’s option of seeking the person’s removal from the United States on power. Either way, the government’s strategy was to simply bringing formal charges within

the federal system and circumvented that system after the fact. The administration explained that the Justice Department’s strategy was to “prevent first, and prosecute second.” A major problem with this approach was not that it was a departure from the methods the administration used to achieve its goals. The administration’s strategy had two components: the first—within the civilian justice system—in particular, laws of habeas corpus and the rights of witnesses—to hold people for weeks in military detention without charge with a crime. The second—“enemy combatant” cases—was to dismantle that system altogether by enabling

the president to dispense with a criminally
entrenched regime of indefinite military

One way that the Bush administration
was by misusing immigration law as a
evidence of wrongdoing. After 9/11, for
750 foreign nationals on immigration
into the World Trade Center and P
“PENTTBOM investigation”).³ The FBI
that a subsequent Justice Department
overly general and vague, such as “a la
an Arab tenant” or a tip that “too man
store.⁴ Typically, people were arrested
variety immigration infractions, which
suspicion about their associations, activ
They were labeled “of interest” and d
whether they were actually connected

Federal law required that the govern
four hours of an arrest for an immi
Court, moreover, had previously ruled
detention for more than forty-eight h
of probable cause.⁶ But a new regulati
Immigration and Naturalization Service (no
authority) to detain foreign nationals withou
period in time” in case of emergency
Under the regulation, immigrants arre
PENTTBOM investigation were frequently h
months.

In addition, the government sought
bond (or bail) once charges had final
foreign nationals arrested in the United S
deportation proceedings if immigration
flight risk or danger to the community
to deny bond to all immigrants arre
investigation without any individualiz
actually dangerous or posed a flight
adopted a “hold until cleared” policy
labeled “of interest” until the release
the FBI’s Counterterrorism Division.

nal trial in favor of a new and unprec-
detention.²

on exploited the civilian justice system
a tool for preventive detention without
ederal authorities detained more than
violations as part of its investigation
entagon bombings (code-named the
BI arrested foreigners based on leads
inspector general's report criticized as
ndlord reporting suspicious activity by
ny" Muslims worked at a convenience
d for visa violations or other garden-
n served as a proxy for generalized sus-
ities, or Arab or Muslim background.
etained without any effort to identify
to terrorism.

ernment bring charges within twenty-
gration violation.⁵ The U.S. Supreme
led that the Constitution prohibited
ours without a judicial determination
on issued after 9/11 allowed the Immi-
w the Department of Homeland Secu-
ut charge for "an additional reasonable
or other extraordinary circumstance.⁷
ested in connection with the PENTT-
held without charge for up to several

at to prevent these persons' release on
ly been brought. Previously, most for-
states could obtain bond pending their
on judges found that they were not a
. But after 9/11, the government sought
d in connection with the PENTTBOM
zed assessment of whether they were
risk. Instead, the Justice Department
r blocking the release of any detainee
e was approved by a section chief in
Only those individuals affirmatively

deemed not “of interest” were exempt. Under the policy, individuals charged were held for months while the FBI even if there was no basis to detain them had voluntarily agreed to leave the country were also held under highly restrictive conditions. Many were held incommunicado in their cells for twenty-three hours a day without assistance or contacting their families.

The government also sought to keep secret that the entire PENTTBOM investigation consisted of less bits and pieces of information than the overall information to assess. Although this “might appear innocuous in isolation” it could be used by terrorist groups to help frustrate the government’s counterterrorism investigation, thus jeopardizing national security.¹⁰ Disclosure during the Clinton administration’s declassification hearings, the government claimed that only executive branch officials could access the information. To implement this policy, the nation’s courts were required to hold proceedings in all “special interest” immigration cases in secrecy. As a result, the detainees’ names and their court hearings were closed to the public and the detainees’ families.¹¹

The government used immigration law and executive power in other ways as well. It issued a policy that required an immigration prosecutor to automatically freeze the status of a detainee pending the prosecution of a case that typically takes months if not more than a year for a prosecutor to show why the detention was justified. A program known as the “Absconder Apprehension” allowed the view, arrest, and deport foreign nationals who had been in the country but who nonetheless remained in the country. The program targeted people with a link to terrorism, though it also targeted Muslims with no terrorism connections and with long-established community roots.¹³ In addition, the “National Security Entry-Exit Registration Act” imposed special registration requirements on foreigners from Muslim countries who entered or resided in the United States.

from this “hold until cleared” policy. Even with routine immigration violations completed its criminal investigation, they remained under immigration law and they remained in the country.⁸ These immigration detainees were held in poor conditions and often grossly mistreated. They were held for weeks at a time, locked down day after day, prevented from obtaining legal counsel, and physically and verbally abused.⁹ To keep these detentions secret, the government claimed that the information consisted of a “mosaic” of confidential sources. Only FBI headquarters had sufficient information to put these bits and pieces of information together. “If these bits and pieces of information were disclosed,” the government argued, they could form a “bigger picture” of the government’s operations, revealing sources and methods and the disclosure of any information in immigration cases would compromise national security, and the government could assess the dangers of disclosure. The chief immigration judge directed that all immigration cases be conducted in total secrecy. Cases did not appear on the public docket, and no information was disclosed to the public, including the press and

the law to expand its domestic detention authority. A new regulation allowing an immigration judge’s decision to be appealed to the Attorney General’s appeal of that decision—a process that could take more than a year—without requiring the government to show that it was necessary.¹² It also implemented a “Prevention Initiative” to identify, interrogate, and detain individuals who had been ordered removed from the country. Although intended to identify and detain individuals who had been ordered removed from the country, the program largely targeted Arabs and Muslims. It was not limited to individuals with ties to terrorism at all, including individuals with no ties to terrorism. In addition, the government established the “Special Registration System,” which imposed special registration requirements on foreign nationals from certain Arab and Muslim countries who resided in the United States, including a

requirement that such individuals register with immigration authorities. Purportedly intended to be used to facilitate the arrest, detention, and prosecution of individuals with ties to terrorism whatsoever.¹⁴

In total, several thousand people were arrested under the material witness statute, and thousands more were arrested under the immigration and absconder initiative program. The primary justification for action with these measures was charged with terrorism. Instead, immigration arrests were often used to target Arab and Muslim Americans based on suspicion of ties to the nation against future terrorist attacks. The use of the material witness statute government's credibility and goodwill in the eyes of the communities whose cooperation many law enforcement agencies considered indispensable to fighting terrorism.

The Bush administration also subverted the material witness statute by using the material witness statute. This allowed prosecutors to secure the testimony of a witness who was reluctant to avoid testifying. To arrest and detain a witness under the material witness statute, the government must show that the witness is necessary to the proceeding and that it is impracticable to secure the witness's presence at a trial through a subpoena. A witness who is a material witness is entitled to a prompt judicial review of the basis for detention. In making this determination, the court must find that the witness poses a flight risk and that his or her appearance to give testimony is necessary to the proceeding. The government must also demonstrate that the witness can adequately be secured by a deposition.

After 9/11, the Justice Department routinely used the material witness statute to secure witness testimony by targeting individuals for arrest and detain people based on suspicion of terrorism. According to one report, the number of material witnesses detained by the federal government increased 80 percent in the first year after the September 11 attacks. Seventy material witnesses detained during the investigation, approximately half never appeared in court. The use of the material witness statute against foreign nationals on routine immigration matters often served as a pretext for preventing the entry of individuals the government suspected of criminal activity or whom the government simply wanted to detain.

register periodically with the immigration to prevent terrorism, the program was used for the arrest and deportation of individuals with no connection to terrorism.

Those who were arrested in the PENTTBOM program were dragged and detained through the special registration programs. Yet, no one arrested in connection with the program was criminally charged with any terrorism offense.¹⁵ The program was used as a pretext to target and detain individuals based on suspicion or innuendo. Rather than protecting national security, these detentions undermined the trust of the very Arab and Muslim community. The actions of enforcement officials and experts considered the program ineffective.¹⁶

The program distorted the civilian justice system by misusing the material witness statute's express purpose is to enable the government to secure the testimony of witnesses who might otherwise flee the country. In a material witness case, the witness's testimony is material to a criminal case, and the government has a strong interest in securing the witness's testimony. A person arrested as a material witness is held in custody until a hearing to decide whether the person's release would ensure the availability of the witness's testimony.¹⁷ Detention remains a last resort, as the government must show that the witness's testimony cannot be obtained by other alternative means.¹⁹

The program misused this limited detention authority by transforming it into a broad power to detain individuals based on suspicion about their activities. According to a report, many material witnesses arrested by the federal government between 2000 and 2002. Yet of the 1,000 individuals arrested in connection with the PENTTBOM program, only a few testified, and many had no relevant information about terrorism activity.²⁰ Like the mass arrest of foreign-born individuals for immigration violations, the arrest of material witnesses was an overbroad and preventively detaining people whom the government had no evidence to charge with terrorism activity but lacked evidence to charge with terrorism activity. The program intended to interrogate without triggering

the legal protections guaranteed to citizens. Then an assistant attorney general, called the statute “an important investigative tool in the collection of all kinds of evidence . . . from a witness’ fingerprints and hair samples. Mary Jo White, U.S. Attorney Southern District of New York, similarly argued that the material witness statute to arrest a witness is a violation and not, as the statute specifically states, necessary to secure their testimony.

Many of those arrested on material witness grounds spent months in jail.²¹ They also were routinely denied a judicial hearing.²² Moreover, when those held were held in secrecy, which was invoked sweeping national security context, to hide bad practices and avoid legitimate national security concerns. Many were not even told why they were being held or what evidence they were providing. One witness described the process: “I kept asking with what am I being charged with anything. I asked them what I was being charged with anything. I asked them what I was being charged with anything. I said a witness to what? They said a witness to what?”

Material witnesses were held under harsh conditions. They were kept in solitary confinement for long periods in windowless cells, sometimes in units with other material witnesses. They were prevented from making contact with other inmates. They were prevented from making contact with family members. Material witnesses were also physically and psychologically abused. In such detentions, such harsh treatment was used to extract information.

The Justice Department’s misuse of the material witness statute led to the imprisonment of innocent people. A notable example. In May 2004, the FBI arrested a man, John Mayfield, in connection with its investigation of the 2001 bombing of two months earlier that killed almost 3,000 people. Mayfield, the FBI had secretly searched Mayfield’s DNA and listened to his conversations. The FBI believed that Mayfield, a U.S. citizen, carried out the bombing because his fingerprints and DNA of detonators found near the bombing site. The FBI believed that it had enough evidence to charge Mayfield as a material witness. During his interrogation, Mayfield was charged with capital charges and held in solitary confinement.

criminal defendants. Michael Chertoff, described material witness arrests as the “war on terrorism” that provided “all” besides his testimony, including fin- White, the former U.S. attorney for the early defended the government’s use of and detain people to obtain informa- y contemplated, because it was neces-

witness warrants after 9/11 spent weeks inely denied the right to a prompt judi- hearings were held, they were shrouded gely, as it was in the “enemy combatant” d accountability rather than to protect . In some cases, individuals were not r provided access to the government’s Kafkaesque nature of the proceedings: charged. They would respond you’re not why I am here. They said I was a wit- d they couldn’t tell me.”²³

r maximum security conditions. Many r up to twenty-four hours a day in holding the prison’s most dangerous aking legal or family phone calls. Mate- l verbally abused.²⁴ As in immigration used to help facilitate interrogations.

the material witness law inevitably led le.²⁵ Brandon Mayfield’s case is a nota- rrested Mayfield as a material witness f the train bombings in Madrid, Spain, two hundred people. Before arresting d his home and office. It had collected nversations without a warrant. The FBI an army veteran, and a Muslim, had fingerprints matched those on a bag g site. Since the United States did not o indict Mayfield, it arrested him as a ations, Mayfield was threatened with confinement. When Spanish authori-

ties first informed the FBI that they were Mayfield's prints, the FBI neglected to detain Mayfield, holding him for several days before he was released. The FBI later admitted that it had made a mistake.

In another case, American citizen *Abdullah al-Nashiri* was detained by the FBI at Washington Dulles International Airport while en route to Saudi Arabia for graduate work in Islamic studies. He was held as a material witness, during which time he was interrogated and confined in high-security units. This was the case in which he was detained, and he was held for several months. His detention, which lasted more than a year, ended his marriage and job.²⁷ An appeals court in his release described his treatment as "a painful reminder of some of the most shameful episodes in American history."²⁸

These domestic immigration and material witness cases, like the post-9/11 detention of terrorism suspects, were held on vague suspicion, just as they were at Guantánamo, Bagdad, and elsewhere. They were shrouded in secrecy. They also were not subject to the same legal framework—even though they were subject to the same subverted—and thus remained subject to the same arbitrary treatment. Immigration and material witness detainees, like terrorism suspects, and to the courts, even if that access was limited. These detainees were held for much longer than terrorism suspects and were not subjected to the same type of prolonged detention. Unlike "enemy combatant" detainees who were held during the "war on terrorism." Nor were they held in the same way as some "enemy combatants," who were held in military detention. The distinctions, however, disappeared when the government decided to supplant the civilian justice system altogether and to treat terrorism suspects as "enemy combatants" in the

Jose Padilla was the first person arrested and held in military detention as an "enemy combatant." The first person to be held in military detention as an "enemy combatant" was Ali Saleh Kahlah al-Marri.²⁹ Although his case represented a more

were concerned that it had mismatched
tell his attorneys. Instead, it continued
several weeks before a district judge dis-
Only then did the government finally
ke.²⁶

Abdullah al-Kidd was arrested by the
al Airport as he prepared to fly to Saudi
studies. Al-Kidd was held as a mate-
s strip-searched on multiple occasions
Al-Kidd was never called as a witness in
d he was never charged with a crime.
n two weeks, ultimately cost him his
in the civil suit that al-Kidd filed after
“repugnant to the Constitution, and a
ignominious chapters of our national

material witness detentions resembled
pects overseas in several respects. Indi-
without charge and without evidence,
ram, and CIA “black sites.” Their cases
ere often grossly mistreated. Nonethe-
itness detentions remained within an
n that framework was manipulated and
t to some limitations and judicial scru-
s detainees still had access to attorneys
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onger than the law allowed, they were
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re held year after year in a never-end-
subjected to the same level of abuse as
tortured as part of U.S. policy. These
en the Bush administration sought to
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global “war on terrorism.”

ted in the United States and subjected
mbatant”; the second, and last to date,
ough al-Marri was not a U.S. citizen, in
e extraordinary power grab and assault

on the Constitution, for he was pending trial. The district judge terminated the proceedings and declared al-Marri an “enemy combatant” detention.

A citizen of Qatar, al-Marri arrived in the United States in 2001, with his wife and five children. He earned a master’s degree at Bradley University in Peoria, Illinois, and then obtained his bachelor’s degree. That December, he was arrested as a material witness in connection with a terrorism investigation and detained in a military prison. The government indicted al-Marri for credit card fraud. It then added other charges, including making a false statement on a bank application. Al-Marri pleaded guilty to the credit card charges at trial. For the next sixteen months, he was in the criminal justice system.³⁰ On Friday, January 12, 2002, a month away, the district judge scheduled a hearing on trial motions, including al-Marri’s motion to quash the warrant out a warrant in violation of the Fourth Amendment. The trial never took place. Instead, on the same day, the prosecutors presented the district judge with a presidential order. The order, identical in substance to the order in Padilla’s case, declared al-Marri an enemy combatant. A secretary of defense to take him into military custody. The government, al-Marri was an al Qaeda “spy” in the United States at the request of senior al Qaeda leaders. He was accused of hacking into computer systems to “weaken the national defense and to facilitate other possible terrorist activities.” In response to the government’s request to dismiss the indictment, the district judge granted al-Marri’s motion to quash the warrant. That same day al-Marri was taken to a military prison. He was flown to the Navy brig near Charleston, South Carolina. The government claimed that al-Marri “must be held in custody pending trial” as an enemy combatant, it never explained why he was an enemy combatant,” as opposed to criminal prosecution. The government’s goal, particularly when al-Marri was in military custody awaiting trial.³³

What made the Padilla and al-Marri cases so controversial was the power claimed by the executive. By declaring al-Marri an enemy combatant, the executive had eliminated core safeguards of the criminal justice system: to be charged promptly, to be tried by a jury, to be represented by his accusers, and to compel the production of evidence.

ing trial in federal court when the presi-
condemned him to the legal abyss of

in the United States on September 10,
his stated purpose was to obtain a mas-
Peoria, Illinois, where he had previously
December, FBI agents arrested al-Marri
with the government's PENTTBOM
Manhattan jail. Two months later, the
it card fraud. A subsequent indictment
g false statements to the FBI and lying
ed not guilty and sought to contest the
months, his case proceeded through the
June 20, 2003, with the trial less than a
uled a hearing to resolve various pre-
tion to suppress evidence seized with-
rth Amendment. But the hearing and
following Monday morning, prosecu-
one-page redacted order signed by the
stance to the presidential order issued
"enemy combatant" and directed the
ilitary custody.³¹ According to the gov-
"sleeper agent" who came to the United
da officials to explore possibilities for
"break havoc" on U.S. banking records
activities.³² The judge granted the gov-
ment, ending the criminal case against
en from a jail in Peoria, Illinois, and
on, South Carolina. Although the gov-
be detained to prevent him from aid-
indefinite imprisonment as an "enemy
prosecution, was necessary to achieve
himself was already incarcerated and

ri cases so important was the nature of
the mere stroke of a pen, the president
Bill of Rights: the right of a defendant
y jury, to confront and cross-examine
action of witnesses in his favor. Gone,

too, was the presumption of innocence justify imprisonment in court. In its past and unprecedented system of detention, a person living in the United States could be held indefinitely without charge and without a trial. The detainee, and no judge could examine the executive say-so would replace the accusatory method of imprisoning terrorist suspects.

But Padilla's and al-Marri's design was intended to accomplish more than just detention. It was designed to facilitate the use of torture and other methods by freeing the government from the justice system that acted as a check against abuse and safeguards, such as access to courts and habeas orders declaring Padilla and al-Marri "enemy combatants" prior motive, noting that both men "posed a significant threat communicated to the U.S., would aid U.S. national security." Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld said that the United States wanted "to try to prevent a future terrorist attack."³⁴ Ashcroft was even blunter: al-Marri, Ashcroft said, was "detained because he 'insisted on becoming a martyr' and wanted to improve his lot by cooperating with the government for information."³⁵ In other words, suspects who posed a threat could be thrown in a military stockade if they refused a threat that was made against other criminals.

The United States held Padilla and al-Marri for a year, cutting off access to their families and the outside world. The reason, according to a report from the Defense Intelligence Agency, was that "combatant" detainee access to a lawyer "is an effort to obtain 'vital' intelligence in order to prevent or impede the United States' ability to prosecute the war." As Jacoby observed, undermined the "mutual dependency" between a subject and a lawyer. "A relationship could take 'months, or, even years' before a subject could be held incommunicado. "Even so," Jacoby asserted, "can have profound psychological effects on the interrogator relationship."³⁷

and the burden on the government to place, the president was erecting a new one by executive fiat, according to which could be seized by the military and held without a hearing. No lawyer could speak to examine the evidence against him. In short, the adversary process of a criminal trial as we know it was absent on these aspects.

The designation as “enemy combatants” was a form of detention without trial. It also was a means to avoid the constraints of the criminal justice system and to the courts. The presidential memorandum on “enemy combatants” hinted at this ultimate purpose: “. . . that, if compromised, intelligence . . . that, if compromised, would be used to prevent attacks by al Qaeda.” The memorandum suggested a similar purpose, explaining that the purpose was “to find out everything” Padilla knew. Attorney General John Ashcroft was the one who declared an “enemy combatant” status on Padilla’s case and “rejected numerous offers from FBI investigators and providing information that Padilla did not cooperate and plead guilty to the crime rather than tried in a court of law—a common practice for criminal defendants during this period.”³⁶ The Hamdi-Marri incommunicado for well over a year, the lack of access to their attorneys, and anyone else in contact with them, according to Admiral Lowell E. Jacoby, director of the Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA), was that giving an “enemy combatant” status would jeopardize the government’s intelligence gathering from the detainee’s possession and thereby prevent future terrorist attacks. Law enforcement officials needed the necessary “relationship of trust and rapport” between a detainee and an interrogator. Creating that relationship, “during which time a detainee had some minor interruptions,” Jacoby noted the psychological impacts on the delicate subject-

Jacoby did not describe any particular techniques, referring only obliquely to the administration's use of interrogating detainees in the "war on terrorism." However, those techniques were spelled out in the 2002 and April 2003 working group reports. The techniques they included prolonged isolation, extreme sensory deprivation, and threats of violence. These were employed against Padilla and al-Marri by the 2nd Army navy brig.³⁸

The DIA manipulated virtually every aspect of confinement to create a sense of hopelessness. al-Marri was imprisoned in six-by-nine-foot cells covered with a barred metal bed affixed to the wall.³⁹ The window was painted over, preventing any natural light. al-Marri had no contact with each other the entire time. For more than two years, al-Marri often heard voices but they were denied a calendar or a clock, preventing them from knowing the day or day of the week.⁴² They were denied newspapers, magazines, heightening their disorientation. None of these techniques produced any results.

Padilla's and al-Marri's designations were the apex of the Bush administration's new executive detention power. Through their cases, the Bush administration sought the power to suspend the Bill of Rights protections against imprisonment without a prompt trial, the right to a speedy trial by a jury, the right to counsel, such as the right to confront and cross-examine witnesses. The administration sought to erase the distinction between civilian and military jurisdiction and to make it possible to detain his home in the middle of America the same way as an enemy soldier in a foreign war zone. Once established, even an American citizen or legal U.S. resident would lose fundamental protection in the Constitution. The right to not be charged with a crime and tried without a trial. These cases thus transcended the two previous cases. The long-standing claim of detention power were upheld. If it would open the door to similar detentions of other citizens in the country in the future. It would also not

cular interrogation techniques, referred to as the president's "robust program" for interrogation. But he did not need to. Many of the Joint Task Force 170 memorandums were for interrogations at Guantánamo; exposure to cold temperatures, extreme violence and death, all of which were inflicted by interrogators at the Charleston

Every aspect of Padilla's and al-Marri's helplessness and despair. Both men were confined to cells containing only a sink, toilet, and hard floor. The only window in their respective cells provided minimal light from entering or the prisoner's view of the concrete cell.⁴⁰ (Padilla and al-Marri also spent their entire time they were at the brig.) For months, they had no mattress or blanket.⁴¹ Both men were prevented from knowing the time of day. They were also denied books, newspapers, and any form of entertainment and sense of total isolation.⁴³ They provided very little useful intelligence.

The president's designation of Padilla and al-Marri as "enemy combatants" marked the beginning of a new and radical vision of executive detention. The Bush administration effectively claimed that the president in America, including the prohibition against prompt judicial determination of probable cause, the right to a jury, and basic procedural safeguards such as the right to examine the government's witnesses. The president's actions blurred the long-established line between civil liberties and the power to make the arrest of a criminal suspect at any time. The president's actions were the legal equivalent of the capture of an enemy combatant. Once designated an "enemy combatant," the president would be stripped of the most fundamental constitutional protection: the right not to be detained without being heard in a court of law. The importance of this right was underscored by the cases of Padilla and al-Marri. If the president's breathtaking actions were upheld in Padilla's and al-Marri's cases, the president's detentions of people arrested inside the United States would necessarily bolster the president's claim

that he could militarily detain terrorists overseas prisons: if the president had the constitutional protections were stronger.

The third person held in the United States was Yaser Hamdi. After traveling to Afghanistan, he was captured by members of the Northern U.S. military. The United States initially held him in Afghanistan before transferring him to Guantánamo. In 2002, the United States learned that Hamdi, born in Saudi Arabia, was an American citizen. Fearing the appearance of an American citizen at Guantánamo, the government transferred Hamdi to the United States. He was held in Virginia, and then to the navy brig in Charleston. Hamdi and al-Marri were being held.⁴⁴

The government classified Hamdi as an enemy combatant so it could continue to hold him without trial. Hamdi was detained incommunicado. The government also claimed, as it did with al-Marri, that Hamdi had no right to challenge the government's classification. Hamdi argued that the untested hearsay allegations, including second- and third-hand statements and intelligence reports—were sufficient to impede his right to a trial.

Hamdi's case, however, differed from al-Marri's in several respects. Hamdi was not arrested in the United States in a civilian setting elsewhere. Instead, he was captured on a battlefield in Afghanistan. He was a member of a Taliban military unit, received weapons training, and carried an assault rifle, which he surrendered to U.S. forces at capture. Hamdi thus bore some resemblance to a combatant, and his detention was tied to the war on terrorism, as opposed to an amorphous global "war on terror." The result, subjecting Hamdi to military detention, was more than trying him as a criminal in the regular courts. It was the same dramatic departure from the normal process as the military detention of Padilla and al-Marri.

But the government did not treat Hamdi as an enemy combatant as it claimed he was.⁴⁷ Instead, it derived his status from the Geneva Conventions and U.S. military regulations. Hamdi was treated like other prisoners captured in and after the war on terrorism.

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around Afghanistan, who were being

held at Guantánamo and Bagram. Hamdi had no military status hearing under Army Law, no habeas detention, nor had he been afforded the same rights as all enemy prisoners from abusive interrogations. The government also denied Hamdi a meaningful opportunity to challenge the accuracy of his detention, including the right to due process, even though he was being imprisoned on American soil. Hamdi was not a Taliban fighter, as the government claimed, but a civilian captured while fleeing the war in Afghanistan. The Northern Alliance turned Hamdi over to the United States for

Thus, despite their differences, Hamdi, Padilla, and the *Hamdan* detainees all highlighted key features of the post-9/11 detention. They showed how the Bush administration used the “enemy combatant” label to fit a wide range of domestic arrests of civilians in the United States and soldiers in a foreign combat zone. They also showed the modus operandi of invoking the law of war to justify detention power while disregarding the limits on that power. In all three cases, further habeas corpus review avoid meaningful judicial review and habeas corpus an empty exercise in which the government’s allegations about the prisoner at issue were not

In 2004, Hamdi’s case reached the Supreme Court. Hamdi’s challenge by Jose Padilla and a joint challenge by the *Hamdan* detainees. These three “enemy combatant” cases provided an opportunity to address the Bush administration’s detention power. But before examining these cases, we turn in chapters 5 and 6 to look at the writ of habeas corpus—brought—the writ of habeas corpus—judicial review of executive action at home

Hamdi had not been given the required Regulation 190-8 to prevent mistaken the binding legal safeguards that shield interrogations and other mistreatment. Any rights under the U.S. Constitution, even though he was an American citizen on an soil. In short, Hamdi had no meaningful accusations against him: to show that he was innocent as alleged, but instead an innocent man captured in Afghanistan and sold by the North-South divide.⁴⁸

Hamdi's, Padilla's, and al-Marri's cases were part of the post-9/11 global detention system. They were not conveniently bent and manipulated to fit a wide array of circumstances, from the United States to the capture of armed soldiers. It also demonstrated the administration's use of the laws of war to claim sweeping executive power beyond the limits that the laws of war impose. Furthermore, the administration sought to deny detainees access to the courts through a system in which judges had to accept the executive's word as the face value.

The U.S. Supreme Court, along with a challenge by several Guantánamo detainees, gave the Supreme Court its first opportunity to challenge the administration's sweeping claims of executive power. In these challenges, we shall go back in time to explore the means by which those challenges were made and related principles governing judicial review at home and abroad.

— Part 2 —

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Habeas Corpus and Challenge Unlawful

The writ of habeas corpus first emerged in the early thirteenth century as a mechanism for a court.¹ Of the several forms of the writ, *ad subjiciendum*, enabled a court to question the basis for a prisoner's confinement by compelling the prisoner and the cause for his commitment to appear. It was initially used by the king's courts to challenge the actions of local and rival central courts, such as those in ecclesiastical and admiralty matters.² It is now understood, as it is now, as a guarantee of the right of habeas corpus, a means for the king to ensure just cause for the confinement of his subjects.

By the 1600s, habeas corpus started to be used against the arbitrary power of the Crown. This was exemplified by the *Five Knights* case (also known as *Dr. Henry Darnley's Case*), in which the king imprisoned a number of men for refusing to pay money for a war with France and Spain. The men sought writs of habeas corpus, demanding release on bail. Without the writ, imprisonment shall not continue for a time, and the kingdom may be restrained of their liberties. The Magna Carta's guarantee of due process was invoked. Chief Justice John Dyer responded on behalf of the king, stating that the king's power to imprison by his "special command" was not timely for the ordinary process. The king insisted that the judges defer to the king's power, necessary to protect "a conspiracy-throwing" and not "inquire further" into matters

the Right to Imprisonment

first emerged in England around the 13th century as a writ to ensure a person's presence in court. Over time, the writ that developed, one, *habeas corpus*, allowed a person to examine whether there was a lawful basis for their imprisonment, ordering the jailer to produce both the person and the legal document. *Habeas corpus ad subjiciendum* was the writ that allowed common law courts to limit the jurisdiction of the specialized courts that decided on imprisonment. Habeas was thus not originally understood as a civil or human rights but, rather, as a writ to challenge the imprisonment of any of his

was eventually to become viewed "as a safeguard against arbitrary imprisonment in itself."³ An important shift occurred in the case of *Darnley's case* (1627). King Charles I had imprisoned five men for refusing to contribute to a loan to raise money for the king's army. No charges were filed, and five of the men challenged their imprisonment and demanded formal charges, they argued, "imprisonment, but for ever; and the subjects of this kingdom their liberties perpetually" in violation of the process of law.⁴ Attorney General Robert Heath argued to the Crown that it was the king's prerogative to imprison "for a matter of state . . . not ripe for formal accusation and trial. Heath's judgment about what means were necessary to "threatened commonwealth" from danger of state."⁵

Although the king won this particular battle over the Crown's prerogative. After the Parliament responded with the Petition of Right, the Crown to imprison based on royal command. Responsible government, the Petition of Right, such sweeping claims to emergency powers, the king continued to imprison individuals. Parliament enacted the Habeas Corpus Act, writs of habeas corpus on behalf of prisoners, the Star Chamber, which had become a source of power and other abuses.⁷ In 1679, Parliament passed the Habeas Corpus Act to remedy the perceived loopholes that prisoners would not languish in jail without being able to challenge the cause of their commitment.⁸ The act acted as a "second magna carta and stable foundation for the development of the judicial exercise of power, opposed to statutory intervention by the executive." The writ's emergence as a guarantee of individual liberty became willing to uphold challenges to the exercise of their habeas corpus jurisdiction. In the late 1600s, for example, the King's Bench, in petitions involving accusations of treason, often finding that there was no basis for the imprisonment, and would thereafter remain in that manner of illegal confinement."¹²

Even so, there remained one lawful method of Great Writ's protections: suspension. Through suspension acts, Parliament could suspend the writ of habeas corpus to adjudicate accusations by Crown officials in matters affecting the security of the state. The first suspension act amid armed conflict was passed in 1689 when James II would try to regain the throne after the Glorious Revolution.¹⁴ Other suspension acts allowed for the detention of suspected enemies of the state. These acts did not suspend habeas corpus itself, but rather allowed the writ to test the government's allegations. The writ contained an expiration date, which would expire at the end of their passage.¹⁷ Prisoners also could challenge their detention if they fell within the parameters of the g

ular battle, he lost the larger struggle. The court denied relief to the prisoners, the House of Right, proclaiming it illegal for the king to command and without formal charges. The House of Right stated, could not coexist with the powers of arrest and detention.⁶ When Parliament passed the Habeas Corpus Act of 1641, requiring the courts to issue writs for prisoners “without delay” and abolishing the writs associated with arbitrary exercises of power, Parliament enacted another habeas corpus statute. It amended existing law and to ensure that writs would be issued without a prompt judicial examination. William Blackstone praised the 1679 Habeas Corpus Act as “the bulwark of our liberties.”⁹ Yet it was the common law habeas powers (as exercised by the courts and Parliament) that was most crucial to individual liberty.¹⁰ Judges increasingly resisted the use of detention by Crown officials through writs of habeas corpus. Amid the political turmoil of the late 17th century, the King’s Bench adjudicated numerous habeas corpus writs, treasonous practices, and sedition to hold the prisoner.¹¹ The writ had become, “the great and efficacious writ, in all

cases, which means to deprive prisoners of the benefit of habeas corpus by Parliament. The suspension of habeas corpus by Parliament deprived courts of their authority to review the legality of detention and asserted its control over detention of the state.¹³ In 1688, Parliament passed the Habeas Corpus Suspension Act in response to conflict abroad and fears that King James II would flee after his ouster earlier that year in 1688. The suspension acts followed, authorizing the suspension of habeas corpus without judicial inquiry.¹⁵ The acts were temporary, however, but the right secured by the writ was not restored in court.¹⁶ Suspension acts generally lasted for a year or less from the time they were passed and still seek judicial review of whether the suspension of habeas corpus legislation.¹⁸ So, while

suspending habeas corpus gave “extreme powers were specifically bound by the law and remained “distinctly limited by law.”¹⁹

Unless suspended, habeas corpus applied to prisoners in the custody of the Crown, whether by common thieves and alleged enemies of the state. Habeas corpus did not turn on where a prisoner was held. Indeed, one of the most celebrated habeas corpus cases involved a slave who had been purchased in England while awaiting voyage to America and ordered the slave released because he was not a British subject. In another case involving two men held in the Tower of London, the court not only rejected the government's claim that, as foreigners disqualified them from habeas corpus, but ordered them discharged.²² The question was not whether the individual was properly held, but whether he was a subject in the first place. In other words, put another way, the focus was less on the legality of the detentions than on the wrongs committed by the jailer.²⁴

Once presented with a habeas corpus writ, the court was free to exercise independent judgment about the law asserted in the jailer's response. The writ was a factual inquiry could include scrutinizing disputed contentions, by either examining the evidence or by examining the evidence.²⁵ Judges were not bound by a writ, but instead could probe the evidence and the law. In response, known as the *traverse*.²⁶ Judges could also inquire if the detention had a basis in statute or common law. Judges could render decisions independently, grounded in their own inferences and understandings” and not bound by the government officials responsible for the detention. The writ could afford “full and speedy justice.”²⁹ This was the nature of a prisoner's habeas corpus petition and the court's duty to find a lawful basis to hold him.³⁰

The nature and scope of habeas review expanded to include cases of criminal confinement, for example, where the prisoners either had been or soon would be tried with common law due process. Judges could also play a central role by conducting trials in habeas corpus cases.

me powers . . . to the executive,” those emergency that necessitated them and

has traditionally been available to all and its protections have been invoked enemies of state alike. Access to habeas whether had been born or his nationality.²⁰ Habeas cases of the eighteenth century based in Virginia and detained briefly in Jamaica. The court granted the writ because slavery was not legal in England.²¹ Held as “alien enemies and spies,” the court’s argument that the prisoners’ status precluded the benefits of habeas corpus but also that their detention in a habeas corpus proceeding was not within the Crown’s detention authority in the modern sense of citizenship.²³ Or on the rights of the prisoner than on the

habeas corpus petition, a judge was supposed to question the sufficiency of the facts and the law, known as the *return*. The judge’s duty was to examine opposing allegations and resolve them by examining affidavits or holding a hearing to examine the jailer’s statements in the return but also to consider arguments submitted by prisoners. Judges also had to determine whether the writ was granted under the common law.²⁷ Their duty was to base their judgment on their “own conscience” and not on the conclusions of the government.²⁸ Judges also were obliged to act promptly, which meant both promptly examining a writ and promptly ordering his release if there was no

review varied with the circumstances. In some cases, the review was narrower because the prisoner would be tried by a jury in accordance with the law, so the court thus did not wish to usurp the jury’s role in habeas corpus proceedings.³¹ But for prisoners

held for noncriminal matters, habeas corpus cases of executive detention without trial suggest, for it was here that the danger of abuse was greatest.³²

Habeas corpus review continued even if a person properly held as enemy aliens or prisoner of war in custody, they still could avail themselves of habeas corpus if they did not fall within those categories and their detention did not fall within those categories. For example, a court considered a petition for habeas corpus during the Seven Years War (between Great Britain and her former allies between 1756 and 1763), in which a man was not lawfully be detained because he was not a prisoner of war. The court upheld the writ, thus not a prisoner of war. The court upheld the writ, considering the sailor's legal arguments. The court conducted similar inquiries in other cases, and provided at least a limited opportunity to show that the detention was lawful.

Habeas corpus also had a broad territorial reach. Paul D. Halliday and G. Edward White have traced habeas corpus's origins as a prerogative writ by which judges of the King's Bench at Westminster could review detention by any Crown official or by a private individual. They issued writs to jailers throughout the kingdom, and to so-called exempt jurisdictions that were otherwise exempt from oversight. The writ was a check on ancient privileges predating their acquisition. The writ issued habeas writs to dominions beyond the kingdom, a lawful basis for a prisoner's confinement. The writ of habeas corpus must "run into all parts of the kingdom, at all times entitled to have an account, and wherever a man is restrained, *wherever* that restraint may be, of the British Empire, habeas corpus shall run, and shall be local courts in Crown-controlled territories. The writ of habeas corpus detaining an individual, and thus extending the writ of habeas corpus court could inquire into the lawfulness of where that detention took place.⁴¹

The famed jurist Lord Mansfield cited the writ of habeas corpus as a fundamental construct like political sovereignty in determining the writ's reach. There was "no doubt," he wrote, that writs of habeas corpus to every one of

review was more searching. And in trial, habeas's protections were strong against the arbitrary exercise of state power

even in time of war. Although prisoners of war had no right to release from writs of habeas corpus to show that they had thus were not properly detained.³³

A writ petition by a Swedish sailor filed during the war between Britain and France and their respective allies, in which the sailor claimed that he could not be held as a national of a neutral nation and that the government ultimately disagreed, but not before first receiving evidence and factual submissions.³⁴ Courts in other cases, providing wartime captives with writs of habeas corpus where there was no basis to hold them.³⁵

The writ's territorial reach. This reach, as Professors have explained, was rooted in habeas corpus, which the Crown, through common law writs, could inquire into the legality of a detention by another court or tribunal.³⁶ Judges thus acted within the realm of the British Crown, including in colonies that maintained their own local courts and were not directly controlled by the central English courts because they were acquired by the Crown.³⁷ Judges also acted beyond the realm to ensure that there was no denial of justice.³⁸ As Blackstone noted, habeas corpus was available in the king's dominions; for the king is at liberty to inquire why the liberty of any of his subjects may be infringed.³⁹ With the expansion of the writ, it also became available in newly formed territories.⁴⁰ As long as Crown officials were exercising power in the king's name, a writ could challenge the legality of the detention, regardless of

the source of authority and control, and not for territoriality, as the main principles governing the writ. As he said, of the court's power to issue writs in the king's dominions "where the place

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even if the territory were outside the exercised sovereignty over the various habeas corpus was available, sovereign court could or would exercise habeas on an assessment of “the exact extent of jurisdiction exercised in fact by the Crown.”⁴³ The scope of habeas corpus thus often depended on the facts of the case and “give relief upon it.”⁴⁴ The East India Company in India illustrates these principles. The Company and other merchant companies established trading posts along the coast of India under the authority of the English Crown.⁴⁵ By the mid-1700s, the Company had acquired a substantial military power, exercising sovereignty over India. In 1773, English law was introduced in India and a Supreme Court was established in Calcutta, which exercised jurisdiction over British-controlled territories in India. Although the Company lacked formal sovereignty over the East India Company for more than four decades,⁴⁷ these local English courts exercised habeas corpus on behalf of both British subjects and non-British subjects. In response to arbitrary imprisonment and other abuses of power by the Company, judges in these cases viewed the exercise of habeas corpus as a common law authority to ensure that there was a right of habeas corpus, regardless of the formal status of the prisoner held or the nationality of the prisoner. The courts insisted on habeas corpus review even after Parliament had restricted the Company’s power to issue habeas writs.⁵⁰ The writ of habeas corpus provided against unlawful detentions by government officials to evade habeas corpus review. As early as 1591, England’s courts had held that Crown officials transported detainees to other jurisdictions to prevent their review.⁵¹ In 1667, the Earl of Shaftesbury was charged with attempting to undermine the writ of habeas corpus by sending individuals “to be imprisoned in any other Prisons, and other places . . . to prevent their Habeas Corpus.” The Habeas Corpus Act of 1679 made it a crime to “transport any Person to Scotland, Ireland, Jersey, Guernsey, or any other Islands or Places beyond the Seas, which are not within or without the Dominions of his Majesty, or any of them, to prevent their Habeas Corpus.”

The importance of habeas corpus was brought to America.⁵⁴ Influenced by the writings of John Locke and William Blackstone, colonial leaders viewed habeas corpus as a fundamental safeguard of physical liberty, a right of man of a new kind.⁵⁵ Alexander Hamilton, for example, viewed habeas corpus as an important protection against arbitrary government. Habeas corpus was available in all thirteen American colonies.

The framers of the U.S. Constitution were concerned about writs' protections in their own republic and the possibility of executive imprisonment. King George III's suspension of the writ was expressly cited as one of the grievances that led to the American Revolution.⁵⁸ And the colonists remembered the importance of having habeas corpus during the American Revolution. Not only habeas's significance but also its being available overseas, there would have been a strong desire to restrict the new national government's power to suspend habeas corpus. This was a controversial.⁶⁰ The first proposal to the Constitutional Convention of 1787 stipulated that habeas corpus be suspended only "upon the most urgent and extraordinary circumstances" for a limited period of time. Even this proposal was opposed by those who believed that suspension should be allowed in such circumstances.⁶¹ The compromise version of the Constitution suspended habeas corpus but limited it to truly exceptional circumstances, such as "rebellion or invasion," when "the public safety requires it."

This provision—known as the "Suspension Clause"—is one of the most important human rights in the Constitution. It guarantees that those detained by the government have access to a court. It makes possible "the full realization" of the right to a fair trial. For example, a person imprisoned on suspicion of a crime has no way to seek review before a judge. The Suspension Clause and of the press secured by the First Amendment are essential. The Suspension Clause also serves as a check on executive power under the Constitution's separation of powers. It is a powerful check against executive overreach.

The U.S. Supreme Court first interpreted the Suspension Clause in the backdrop of the upheaval in American politics following the presidential election of 1800 and the rift between John Adams and his former vice president, Aaron Burr. The Court's decision to sever recently acquired territories in

was not lost on the colonists who came from the writings of famed jurists Sir Edward Coke. Colonists saw habeas corpus as the preeminent natural and inalienable right of man. Parliament, deemed the writ the most important instrument of government power.⁵⁶ By 1776, habeas corpus was a central concern in the colonies.⁵⁷

The Framers naturally sought to secure the writ's protection to ensure an adequate check against the King's abuse of royal detention power. The Framers' advances in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution well the acts by Parliament suspending the writ during rebellion—acts that underscored not only the writ's broad reach (for if habeas had not been available, there would have been no need to suspend it).⁵⁹ The desire to limit the King's power to suspend habeas was never mentioned in the Constitution. The Framers provided that the writ's protections could be suspended "in great and pressing occasions" and only for rebellion or invasion. This proposal, however, prompted opposition because the writ should not be allowed under any circumstances that finally emerged allowed for suspension in exceptional circumstances: "cases of rebellion or invasion, in which the safety may require it."⁶²

The Suspension Clause—has been called "the most important part of the Constitution."⁶³ It requires that those arrested have access to the courts and, in the process, to the writ of habeas corpus and other constitutional guarantees.⁶⁴ If the Framers' account of his political opinions had been followed, the guarantees of freedom of speech and press in the First Amendment could be rendered meaningless. The Suspension Clause serves an important structural function in the Constitution by giving the judiciary a powerful check on executive power.

The Framers interpreted the Suspension Clause against the backdrop of American politics that followed the presidential election of 1796 between President Thomas Jefferson and Vice President Aaron Burr. Burr was suspected of plotting to overthrow Jefferson in the West from their allegiance to the

United States. In December 1806, the U.S. Navy seized two of Burr's co-conspirators, Eustace B. Cutler and John A. Smith, and took them on a warship to Baltimore. In the process, the commander had been issued orders on the prisoners' behalf from Philadelphia and Charleston. President Jefferson had denied the prisoners access to the courts. Congress's supporters introduced legislation in March 1807. But the bill failed in the House. The prisoners then sought relief in the circuit court. The court granted habeas petition and remanded them from custody. The Supreme Court granted habeas corpus from the Supreme Court.

In his decision for the Court, Chief Justice Marshall affirmed the power to suspend habeas corpus but held that Congress had not reflected both historical practice and the separation of powers. He discussed the interplay between the Suspension Clause and other legislative powers in Article I of the Constitution. He discussed the interplay between the Suspension Clause and the writs of habeas corpus under the terms of the Judiciary Act of 1789. That statute had not only created the writs of habeas corpus but had also specified that judges could issue writs of habeas corpus for prisoners "in custody, under or by authority of the United States."⁶⁷ The Supreme Court thus affirmed the writs of habeas corpus under the terms of the Judiciary Act of 1789. Ten four years earlier in *Marbury v. Madison*, Marshall had held that Congress could not subtract from the Supreme Court's power to issue writs of habeas corpus of the Constitution, which specifies the writs of habeas corpus can hear in the first instance as original jurisdiction. To resolve this tension, Marshall determined that the Supreme Court could hear the prisoners' petition because habeas corpus was a writ of habeas corpus since the Court was reviewing an "application for a writ of habeas corpus" remanding the prisoners to custody.⁶⁸ In the absence of evidence on both sides, the Court discharged the writs. The Court discharged that there was insufficient proof to hold the prisoners in custody.

Another question, however, lingered: had Congress had not specifically authorized the writs of habeas corpus in the Judiciary Act? Did the Judiciary Act create habeas corpus, or did it merely provide for the writs of habeas corpus once Congress had first statutorily authorized the writs? Chief Justice Marshall's opinion

U.S. Army commander in New Orleans Erick Bollman and Samuel Swartwout, more by way of Charleston, South Carolina, ignored writs of habeas corpus that had been granted by federal judges in New Orleans. They recognized that the only legal way to suspend habeas corpus was to suspend habeas corpus. So his Congress to suspend habeas for three months, prompting the U.S. attorney general to file writs against the men. Bollman and Swartwout were arrested. After the circuit court denied their writs for trial, the prisoners sought a writ of habeas corpus.⁶⁵

Chief Justice John Marshall explained that the power to suspend habeas corpus belonged solely to Congress, a view that was reinforced by the Suspension Clause's placement within Article I of the Constitution.⁶⁶ Marshall also distinguished between the Suspension Clause and the Judiciary Act of 1789, which gave the federal trial and circuit courts but not the Supreme Court the power to issue writs of habeas corpus on behalf of the federal government. The colour of the authority of the United States appeared to have the authority to issue writs of habeas corpus under this statute. But Marshall had written in *Marbury v. Madison* that Congress could not add to the original jurisdiction under Article III the types of cases that the Supreme Court had jurisdiction over, such as original, as opposed to appellate, matters.⁶⁸ He determined that the Court had the power to review habeas review was "appellate" in nature, and to "re-consider" of the lower court's prior decision.⁶⁹ After carefully considering the evidence against Bollman and Swartwout, finding them guilty of treason.⁷⁰

What lay beneath the surface: What if Congress had authorized courts and judges to issue writs of habeas corpus and the Suspension Clause itself guaranteed its suspension absent rebellion or insurrection? Congress had authorized courts to issue habeas corpus writs, but it was not entirely clear on the subject.

On the one hand, *Bollman* might be read as holding that habeas writs must be provided by possibility that the Suspension Clause congressional inaction, making habeas benefits like Social Security that require explained that the Suspension Clause to make the writ available, indicating compelled by the Constitution.⁷¹ Although intentions, the conclusion that federal mandated is closer to framers' understanding with the writ's purpose as well as later

Some commentators have also suggested the Suspension Clause was originally intended to guarantee of habeas corpus secured by theory posits that the Suspension Clause against unlawful detention by federal courts. Whether historically accurate, stated by later Supreme Court decisions. In the *Ex parte Merryman* case under the Slave Act of 1850, the Court ruled that the release of prisoners held in federal custody during the Civil War.⁷⁵ Thus, reading the Suspension Clause as a court remedy would create a legal void in federal custody and leaving executive power unchecked.⁷⁶

For more than two centuries, the writ was available because habeas corpus was available under the Judiciary Act.⁷⁷ In fact, the federal habeas writs cover new categories of prisoners. In response to resistance to federal revenue policies, Congress confined by state officials to state custody. In 1842, Congress again changed the status over the habeas petitions of foreign nationals. In 1850, Congress authorized foreign nationals claimed to act under federal law. Significantly, in 1867, Congress authorized habeas corpus to any state prisoner held in federal custody. This was a significant expansion of federal law, thereby paving the way for the writ's most and best-known use: as a remedy for habeas corpus for criminal convictions and sentences.⁸⁰ In the past, courts have cut back significantly on f

lead to suggest that jurisdiction to issue habeas corpus legislation. This left open the possibility that the writ could be rendered a dead letter by Congress. Habeas corpus is equivalent to government benevolent legislation. But Marshall also imposed an "obligation" on Congress that federal habeas jurisdiction was required. Though scholars have debated Marshall's view of habeas jurisdiction is constitutionally required standing of the writ⁷² and is more in line with later Supreme Court decisions.⁷³

Marshall suggested that the Constitution's Suspension Clause limit Congress's ability to suspend the writ in individual states.⁷⁴ In other words, this clause was designed to protect individuals from state officers through judicial action by state courts. This theory confronts a problem created by the clause. During controversy over the Fugitive Slave Act, state courts lacked the power to order habeas corpus, a ruling it reaffirmed after the Supreme Court's decision on the Suspension Clause as protecting only a state's right to deny habeas corpus to prisoners held in custody by the U.S. government.

These debates remained largely academic until the writ to federal prisoners under the 1789 Habeas Corpus Act had expanded over time to include state prisoners. In 1833, Congress, prompted by Southern states, amended the statute to allow federal courts to grant relief in lower federal courts.⁷⁸ In 1850, Congress amended the statute to provide for federal jurisdiction over writs of habeas corpus for individuals held in state custody when the writ was issued under the authority of a foreign state.⁷⁹ Most scholars have criticized federal courts to issue writs of habeas corpus for individuals held in violation of the Constitution or for individuals held in custody by what became the writ's most common use: federal prisoners seeking to challenge their conviction. In recent decades, Congress and the Supreme Court have expanded federal habeas corpus as a postconviction

tion remedy through the imposition of secondary burdens, bars on successive petitions. But before 9/11, Congress had never so clearly guaranteed a statutory guarantee of habeas corpus for imprisonment without prior judicial process.

Moreover, the limited authority to temporarily suspend habeas corpus was first suspended during the Civil War. At the outbreak of Fort Sumter, President Abraham Lincoln suspended habeas corpus when necessary. The suspension depended along the military line between the North and South. The suspension was later extended to places where the outbreak of war, Lincoln feared the Confederates would destroy the railways and bridges, and ultimately overrun the capital. John Merryman, an ardent secessionist, was arrested in Baltimore on suspicion of aiding the Confederates at Fort McHenry. When Merryman filed a writ of habeas corpus, Chief Justice Roger B. Taney, sitting as a circuit judge, ordered Merryman's military jailers to produce him. Taney said, had no authority to suspend habeas corpus and ignored the instruction. As he later wrote, "The suspension when he suspended habeas corpus was plainly made for a dangerous emergency, and should not have to wait for the dangerous emergency to be approved by Congressional approval. To delay under the circumstances would be to say in defense of emergency executive action, but one, to go unexecuted, and the government would be violated."⁸⁶ In March 1863, Congress suspended Lincoln's prior suspension, long after the suspension of habeas corpus, more than 100,000 were imprisoned without charge or trial in the North, including newspaper editors and others who were sympathetic to the Confederate cause.⁸⁸

Habeas corpus was suspended on several occasions. Each time, the suspension was authorized by Congress, and restricted in duration to the emergency. In 1871, Congress authorized President Ulysses S. Grant to suspend habeas corpus in southern States where post-Civil War

of filing deadlines, heightened evidentiary requirements, and other procedural hurdles.⁸¹ Lincoln sought to eliminate altogether the status of individuals detained by the federal government.

provided under the Constitution to temper the power exercised only rarely.⁸² The first suspension occurred on April 27, 1861, following the fall of Fort Sumter. Lincoln authorized army generals to suspend the writ “for the public safety.” Initially suspensions were limited to Philadelphia and Washington, but later extended as far north as Maine.⁸³ Following the news that the advancing Confederate army had cut the rail lines connecting Maryland to Washington, D.C.,⁸⁴ the suspension was challenged by John Merryman, a Baltimore merchant who had been arrested at his home in Baltimore for harboring fugitives to the Confederacy and then imprisoned. Merryman filed a habeas petition, and the Supreme Court, sitting as a circuit judge in Baltimore, ordered the government to produce him in court. The president, Taney, refused to produce Merryman on his own.⁸⁵ But Lincoln explained, Congress was not in session. Since the Suspension Clause “was inoperative in this emergency,” Lincoln argued, the president was authorized to “run its course” to obtain congressional approval. Under these circumstances, Lincoln famously argued, executive action, would allow “all the laws, and the government itself go to pieces, lest that Congress enacted legislation ratifying the fact.⁸⁷ As a result of Lincoln’s suspension, thirteen thousand individuals were held in military jails during the Civil War, many of whom were later considered sympathetic to the

only three other times in U.S. history. The suspension was later authorized by Congress, limited to a specific emergency that necessitated it. In 1863, President Ulysses S. Grant suspended habeas corpus in response to Civil War violence by the Ku Klux Klan

had made it impossible to dispense justice and authority in nine counties in South Carolina for suspects without ordinary criminal procedure. Legislation authorizing the governor of South Carolina habeas corpus where necessary to control the rebellion.⁹⁰ Acting under this authority, the governor acted in two provinces for approximately nine months by organized gangs that had created a state of anarchy among the people.”⁹¹ The final suspension of habeas corpus in the Hawaiian Territory occurred after the war. War II. Congress had previously authorized the suspension of habeas corpus in the Hawaiian Territory in the event of an invasion.⁹² After Japan attacked Pearl Harbor, the territorial governor invoked this emergency suspension of habeas corpus under military government until 1945. The suspension and martial law ended.⁹³

As in England, habeas corpus in the United States is available to individuals regardless of citizenship. In fact, foreign nationals have invoked habeas corpus in the United States. In 1797, for example, a circuit court granted habeas corpus to a prisoner, finding that he could not be deported without a writ, since he had never been convicted of a crime. In the case, Supreme Court Justice Joseph Story granted habeas corpus to the arrest of a group of Portuguese sailors who had been taken by any law or treaty.⁹⁷ Even the broad suspension of habeas corpus in the Alien Enemies Act of 1798, which authorized the relocation, and deport aliens of a nation at war, remained subject to habeas review. In 1802, Justice Marshall, sitting on circuit, ordered habeas corpus for a prisoner because he had been detained without a writ required by the controlling regulation. The Supreme Court upheld this practice.¹⁰⁰ Thus, although the Supreme Court has the power to detain enemy aliens during a war, and the authority to remove them from the country, it is not absolute. Enemy aliens can challenge the validity of their detention by habeas corpus.¹⁰¹

The history of immigration law and habeas corpus is not limited to America. In England, as Justice wrote in 1885 amid efforts to exclude Chinese immigrants from the United States,

justice. Grant subsequently invoked that Carolina, leading to the mass arrest of process.⁸⁹ In 1902, Congress enacted legislation for the Philippines Territory to suspend habeas corpus in the event of combat rebellion, insurrection, or invasion. The governor suspended habeas corpus for several months to suppress armed violence and declared "a state of insecurity and terrorism" because of an insurrection that occurred in Hawaii during World War I. He authorized Hawaii's governor to suspend habeas corpus in the territory to confront a threat of rebellion. After the attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, the War Relocation Authority suspended habeas corpus power. Hawaii thus remained under martial law until 1944, when habeas corpus was restored.

The United States has always been available to habeas corpus, and since the nation's founding, habeas has been available to challenge their detention.⁹⁵ In *Ex parte Milligan*, the Supreme Court denied the habeas petition of a Spanish American War veteran prosecuted for treason for acts committed during the war, even though he had been properly naturalized.⁹⁶ In another case, *Ex parte Quirin*, the Supreme Court, sitting on circuit, found that the military tribunals for desertion was not authorized under executive powers granted under the War Relocation Authority, which authorized the president to detain, in the event of war, with which the United States was at war.⁹⁸ In 1813, for example, Chief Justice Marshall denied the release of an enemy alien on habeas corpus without an opportunity to relocate, as in *Ex parte Milligan*.⁹⁹ Modern precedents have followed the same path. The Supreme Court has upheld the president's authority to detain enemy aliens after he has declared war against an enemy nation. The Supreme Court also has made clear that those held as enemy aliens have the right of habeas corpus.

Similarly, *Ex parte Quirin* demonstrates that access to habeas corpus is available to American citizens. As a federal judge in *Ex parte Quirin* held Chinese immigrants from the United

If the denial . . . to the petitioner of the right to be brought into his prison-house, to be followed by removal to a foreign country, be not a restraint within the meaning of the habeas corpus act, it is not easy to see how it can be within its provisions.¹⁰²

Courts thus consistently reviewed the actions of government officials to remove or exclude foreign nationals under immigration statutes.¹⁰³ And while they did not always make substantive decisions on the merits, they did provide a check on the interpretation of a ground for an alien's removal. The courts also helped enforce rudimentary due process requirements: immigrants be provided notice and an opportunity to be heard. The government official could order their deportation, but the executive retain wide latitude to establish the criteria. This became known as the "plenary power" doctrine. The grounds for admission to and removal of aliens were still reviewed the exercise of that power. The courts still habeas corpus jurisdiction.¹⁰⁶

In 1996, Congress enacted two statutes that limited court review of deportation orders for certain crimes. Following years of litigation, the Supreme Court in *St. Cyr* in June 2001 that eliminating habeas jurisdiction "constitutional questions" and might violate the separation of powers jurisprudential doctrine of "constitutional questions unnecessarily and unwisely" and concluded that they did not have habeas jurisdiction.¹⁰⁸ Although the statute is statutory, as opposed to constitutional, the Court's enduring commitment to habeas corpus jurisdiction and its action affecting the liberty of the individual.

Habeas has also historically played a role in defining the boundaries of military authority. In a case involving a New York state court considered the habeas jurisdiction of a man who had been detained as a spy and traitor during the American Revolution. It was an area that both sides viewed as critical to the war effort. He was captured shortly after British troops had taken control of Sackets Harbor. American military leaders were concerned about the near loss of this critical military position.

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this review would raise "serious con-
te the Suspension Clause.¹⁰⁷ Under the
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a checking role by policing the proper
case from the War of 1812, for example,
e habeas petition of Samuel Stacy, who
r at Sackets Harbor on Lake Ontario,
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military commanders blamed Stacy for
ost. In response, Stacy claimed he was

exempt from military jurisdiction base issued a writ of habeas corpus comm When the officer refused, New York's sought enforcement, explaining that ing criminal jurisdiction over a private confinement, and contemning the civi subsequently released by the secretary tary lacked any power over him.¹¹¹

Habeas corpus petitions frequently enlistment in the military. Courts, for vidual knowingly joined the armed fo voluntary.¹¹² Habeas also provided for martial. To be sure, the scope of this would not use habeas corpus petitions or guilt but instead generally deferred ings.¹¹³ This deference reflected the id rate community whose need for obedie autonomy over the application of mili theless, habeas corpus still remained remained within its “special and limit whether a defendant was properly su compliance with prescribed statutory p given sentence was authorized by law.¹¹⁴

By the middle of the twentieth cen possible expansion of habeas review impetus and need for such review less orate, rights-protective adversary proc form Code of Military Justice (UCMJ) grown more rigorous over time. Toda courts-martial may be explained partl tains safeguards for defendants that a more robust than—those provided in f for appellate review by civilian judge corpus.¹¹⁷

In addition, habeas corpus has p decisions by military commissions, the American history to try enemy soldie celebrated cases of American history habeas challenge of a prisoner in mil

and on his U.S. citizenship, and the court
demanding the military to produce him.
Chief justice, Chancellor James Kent,
“a military commander” was “assum-
e citizen . . . holding him in the closest
civil authority of the state.”¹¹⁰ Stacy was
of war, who recognized that the mili-

challenged the legality of a person's
for example, examined whether an indi-
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review was relatively narrow. Courts
to reexamine questions of innocence
d to the courts-martial's factual find-
ea that the armed forces was a sepa-
ence and discipline justified granting it
itary law to service members.¹¹⁴ None-
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procedures, and determined whether a

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entury, the Supreme Court suggested a
of courts-martial decisions.¹¹⁶ But the
ened with the development of an elab-
cess for courts-martial under the Uni-
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y by the fact that the UCMJ now con-
re similar to—and, in some respects,
federal court. The UCMJ also provides
s, a role previously served by habeas

provided a mechanism for reviewing
e ad hoc tribunals periodically used in
ers for war crimes. In one of the most
y, the Supreme Court considered the
itary custody in the immediate after-

math of the Civil War. Lambdin P. Milligan, a member of the Sons of Liberty, a secret paramilitary organization, was active in the border state of Indiana, plotting to overthrow the Union government, coordinating efforts to seize munitions, liberate prisoners, and perform other acts in an area under constant threat of invasion. Milligan was arrested and detained without a writ of habeas corpus. President Lincoln then ordered Milligan to trial by military commission for violation of the war laws. Convicted and sentenced to death, Milligan's habeas petition to the circuit court was denied. Milligan then petitioned the Supreme Court. The government argued that the president could suspend the writ temporarily with dangerous men like Milligan. Milligan stood accused of committing "an offense against the laws" at a place "within . . . the theater of military operations and of invasion by the enemy."¹¹⁹ But it ruled in favor of the civilian, not a combatant, and that the president could not have he be tried in the regular courts as long as the war continued. The president, the Court explained, could not suspend the criminal justice system because an alternative even at a time when the nation's survival was at stake. Chief Justice Roger Taney declared for the Court's majority that "the Constitution of the United States is a law for rulers and people, equally in peace and in war, and with the shield of its protection all claimants are equal in all circumstances."¹²¹ The Court ordered that Milligan had been detained without criminal charges and that his trial under the 1863 suspension act. Four other justices dissented, but the result, but not its reasoning. As explained by Justice Salmon Chase, those justices favored the president's authorization of Milligan's military trial without habeas corpus. "It is done so."¹²²

The Supreme Court's decision in *Ex parte Milligan* is a landmark in the importance of habeas corpus in helping to check executive military authority. It also highlights the role of the Court in the vindication of a defendant's rights and the protection of constitutional safeguards against wrongful government action. It is a great landmark in th[e] Court's history. It is a landmark that can prevent the government from suspending the criminal justice system with military detention.

Milligan was a high-ranking member of a military organization of Southern sympathizers. Milligan was accused of plotting to communicate with the enemy, conspiring to commit acts of war, and commit other violent acts in the event of invasion.¹¹⁸ The military arrested Milligan on a charge under the 1863 act suspending the writ of habeas corpus. The military issued an order subjecting Milligan to military jurisdiction for violating the laws of war. After he was arrested, Milligan sought habeas review. When the military refused, Milligan appealed to the Supreme Court. The Court held that the President must have the power to deal with military offenses during a period of war. The Court acknowledged that Milligan committed an "enormous crime" in "a period of war" during military operations" and under threat of death. The Court held that Milligan nonetheless remained a civilian because the Constitution therefore required that the writ of habeas corpus be granted as those courts were open and functioning. The Court held that the alleged offender posed a grave danger, and the writ of habeas corpus was at stake.¹²⁰ As Justice David Brandeis wrote, "The Constitution of the United States is equally in war and in peace, and covers all classes of men, at all times, and under all circumstances." The Court held that Milligan be released, since he was held in military custody beyond the allowable time limit for military jurisdiction. Other justices agreed with the majority's decision, but Chief Justice Roger Taney dissented in a concurring opinion by Chief Justice Roger Taney, holding that Congress could have authorized the military to try Milligan for violating the laws of war, but had not.

Ex parte Milligan demonstrates the importance of maintaining the proper boundary of the writ of habeas corpus as the crucial link between habeas review and the right to a jury trial and other constitutional guarantees of the civilian. Hailed as "one of the great decisions of our history,"¹²³ *Milligan* illustrates how habeas corpus is the guarantor of the civilian's right to a jury trial.

Milligan, however, did not end military use during the military occupation of the Military commissions also were revived. Challenges to these later commissions prompted decisions addressing the reach of habeas

In the summer of 1942, eight Nazi saboteers, a citizen, landed on beaches in Long Island aboard German U-boats. Acting under duress, the men changed from their military uniforms. Armed with crates of explosives, they targeted in the United States. But one of all eight were apprehended.¹²⁴ President Roosevelt charged the men in the regular civilian courts at the time authorized the death penalty. He wanted the saboteurs tried and executed. He issued an order establishing a military commission for violations of the laws of war and offenses (the predecessor of the UCMJ). The order made the men military prisoners and denied the defendants access to their civilian counsel. He told Attorney General Francis Biddle that the men were to be turned over to any United States marshal armed

Three weeks into the trial, the saboteurs filed habeas corpus petitions in federal district court. The court lacked legal authority to try the men. Citing *Milligan* as well as other precedents, the Supreme Court agreed to consider the petitions. Oral arguments took place over two days. On October 31, the Court issued a short order upholding the military commission and its proceedings. The reasoning would follow.¹²⁹ The trial resulted in convictions for all the defendants. The court imposed death by electrocution. By the time of the decision in *Ex parte Quirin* on October 31, 1942, all the defendants had been executed. Roosevelt commuted the sentences of the remaining defendants to life imprisonment.¹³⁰

Another United States military commission involved the trial of Japanese general Tomoyuki Yamashita. At the end of the war, Yamashita was put before

itary commissions, which remained in the South in the Reconstruction period. and during World War II. The legal challenge prompted several important Supreme Court cases on habeas corpus and the role of the courts.

Saboteurs, including at least one American, were arrested in Hawaii and Florida after traveling there in the direction of the German government. They were charged with changing military uniforms into civilian clothes. The saboteurs planned to destroy various military installations. The saboteurs tipped off the FBI, and President Franklin D. Roosevelt chose not to refer the case to the military courts. No criminal statute on the books applied in these circumstances, and Roosevelt acted quickly.¹²⁵ So, on July 2, Roosevelt referred the case to a military commission to try the defendants for offenses under the Articles of War (the predecessor to the Uniform Code of Military Justice). Roosevelt was the final reviewing authority for the case, and he refused to refer the case to the civilian courts.¹²⁶ Privately, Roosevelt stated that he would not “hand [the defendants] over to the military courts without a writ of habeas corpus.”¹²⁷

The saboteurs’ military defense counsel filed a writ of habeas corpus in the District Court, claiming that the commission violated the defendants’ rights. After the district court denied relief, the case was referred to the Supreme Court on an expedited schedule. The hearing lasted nine hours.¹²⁸ On July 11, the Supreme Court, holding the president’s authority to try the saboteurs, indicated that a decision explaining its reasoning would be issued three days later. The Court issued a recommendation that Roosevelt refer the case to a military commission. At the same time the Supreme Court issued its full opinion, on July 29, six of the saboteurs had already received their sentences and the sentences of the two remaining saboteurs were being reviewed by a military commission.

The case from World War II was *Ex parte Yamashita*. At the conclusion of the war, a military commission in the Philip-

pines for atrocities committed by troops in the Manila massacre, which resulted in the deaths of thousands of civilians. Yamashita was convicted. Appeals by the pines affirmed the conviction, Yamashita appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court. He claimed that the trial was unfair, that the charges did not allege violation of the laws of war, that the procedures failed to meet the standards of the Geneva Conventions, and the U.S. Supreme Court granted Yamashita's request for review. The Court, finding that the tribunal was properly constituted within its limits.¹³¹ On February 23, 1946, Yamashita was executed by firing squad 60 miles south of Manila.

Both *Quirin* and *Yamashita* have been criticized for their operations in *Quirin*, Justice Felix Frankfurter's dissent, getting bogged down in legal niceties. In *Yamashita*, later, Frankfurter expressed regrets, expressing a "precedent."¹³² Chief Justice Harlan Fiske Stone's opinion—issued after the Court's sentence—acknowledged "a mortification of the flesh" and acknowledged the commission's authority to support the commission's operations, but "marred by flaws. None of the five American judges in Washington, D.C., to preside over Yamashita's trial was present."¹³⁴ The army officers appointed to conduct the trial to prepare for trial, and 59 of the 123 charges were dropped the same day the trial began. Even so, the trial was not to prepare was denied.¹³⁵ Much of the evidence was hearsay. Nonetheless, Yamashita himself admitted evidence that the troops who committed the massacre were under his command, a key issue in the case.¹³⁶ As Supreme Court Justice in his dissenting opinion, Yamashita was "given insufficient time to prepare a separate dissenting opinion, Justice Vinton was appointed to the commission as lacking "any semblance of a trial."

But despite their flaws, both *Quirin* and *Yamashita* demonstrate the efficacy of habeas corpus as a mechanism for reviewing the actions of the executive during time of war. In *Quirin*, President Roosevelt's order establishing a military commission merged federal courts altogether. But the Supreme Court's decision in *Yamashita* of Roosevelt's order establishing a military commission for a special session to do so because of the

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been sharply criticized. During deliberations, Chief Justice Charles Evans Hughes warned his colleagues against rushing to judgment during the middle of a war. But years later, in *Ex parte Quirin*, explaining that *Quirin* was not “a happy accident,” Justice Stone, described writing the *Quirin* opinion as a “tragic necessity” because the sentence had already been carried out—as he acknowledged that there was only meager support for the trial's constitutionality.¹³³ *Yamashita* also was a case involving American generals hastily sent from Washington to face trial. *Yamashita*'s trial had any legal or combat experience. *Yamashita* had only three weeks to prepare his defense. Charges against *Yamashita* were filed the day after his capture. The defense's request for a continuance to prepare was denied. Evidence against *Yamashita* consisted of affidavits. *Yamashita* himself was prevented from putting on evidence. *Yamashita* argued that the atrocities were not under his command. Chief Justice Frank Murphy said *Yamashita* was “rushed to trial under an improper procedure that did not permit him to prepare an adequate defense.”¹³⁷ In his dissent, Justice Wiley Blount Rutledge denounced the trial as “a mockery of the institution as we know that institution.”¹³⁸ *Ex parte Quirin* and *Yamashita* reaffirmed the resilience of the Supreme Court in securing judicial review even in the face of executive action. Roosevelt had sought to exclude the federal courts from reviewing the military commission but the Supreme Court not only reviewed the legality of the military commission but also convened a special session to address the “public importance of the questions

raised” and “the duty which rests on t
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Quirin and *Yamashita* did not, how
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Eisentrager and *Hirota v. MacArthur*.

In *Eisentrager*, twenty-one German
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their imprisonment was illegal becaus
and because the military commission l

The district court dismissed the pet
decision in *Ahrens v. Clark*, handed d
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under the Alien Enemies Act. The peti
in federal district court in Washington
the district court lacked jurisdiction b
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n *Quirin* were arrested, held, and pros-
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t did address whether foreign nation-
United States had habeas corpus rights
y commission cases: *Johnson v. Eisen-*

a soldiers captured in Nanjing, China,
American military commission.¹⁴¹ Fol-
rs were transferred from Nanjing to a
Landsberg, Germany, to serve out their
their convictions by filing habeas cor-
n Washington, D.C. They claimed that
se they did not violate the laws of war
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itions, relying on the Supreme Court's
own just months earlier.¹⁴² *Ahrens* was
than one hundred foreign nationals
ending their deportation to Germany
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n, D.C. The Supreme Court ruled that
because the federal habeas corpus stat-
e writs "within their respective jurisdic-
cal presence within the district court's
that the *Ahrens* petitioners had to sue
ew York, where they were being physi-

Prisoners of War

cally held, not Washington, even though the Court could order the petitioners' release. The Court could exercise review under the habeas statute by the United States outside the territory, as might be the case when a prisoner is held not, as Justice Rutledge warned in his dissent, might be no remedy at all for illegal detention.

The court of appeals in *Eisenberg* meant that prisoners in Landsberg, Germany, were under the federal habeas corpus statute within the "jurisdiction" of any U.S. district court. The right to habeas corpus, it said, "is not limited to U.S. citizens." "If the government was correct, to deny U.S. citizens could be denied habeas corpus 'because of their status' from that conclusion" would be to draw a distinction between U.S. citizens and non-citizens with only the former receiving habeas relief. This distinction, however, was impermissible because the statute applied directly to acts of Government, not to territory, and was conditioned upon persons or territory. The court's decision in the case and thus to address whether foreign-born prisoners could seek habeas relief in a federal court when the arrest and trial all took place outside the United States.

Justice Robert Jackson wrote the opinion for the Court. Jackson, who had previously served as a prosecutor at the Nuremberg Trials, began by describing the rights of citizens, with citizens at the top and non-citizens at the bottom. "Citizenship as a head of jurisdiction is not a new concept when Paul invoked it in his appeal." He said that an American citizen was entitled to habeas relief from his own government no matter where that government was. He acknowledged, also, that non-citizens also enjoyed the Constitution as they were present in or had a sufficient connection to the United States. Enemy aliens captured and detained overseas did not necessarily enjoy those protections. He noted that "in extending constitutional rights to non-citizens [Supreme] Court has been at pains to confine its jurisdiction to the territory within its territorial jurisdiction." Thus, he said, alien enemies whose offenses were committed outside the United States do not have a right of habeas relief.

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Jackson also expressed separation of powers concerns with the executive's war-making authority extending to individuals detained in connection with the war. In the case of the German soldiers in *Eisentrager*, he argued that the government should "produce the body" and transfer prisoners to the civilian world for hearings in federal courts. In the context of military operations in a theater of war, Jackson argued that field commanders should not divert "attention from the war to the legal defensive at home."¹⁵⁰ Jackson's view of habeas corpus and other constitutional rights was based on a prisoner's citizenship and the location of the detention.

Justice Hugo Black charted a different course, expressing a view that would seem preposterous if applied to strict territorial limits on habeas corpus. Under the Constitution, Black insisted, should not be limited to citizens or to aliens within the United States. Habeas corpus had since been described as a responsibility of the federal government, an approach to the Constitution that applied limits on government power toward all individuals, not just those constrained by law, regardless of their citizenship or physical location.¹⁵¹ If one purpose of the Constitution was to prevent unlawful exercises of executive power, Black argued, individual habeas corpus relief because of citizenship, whether inside or rather than inside the country, or because of citizenship, whether an American citizen. To deny habeas corpus relief based on such distinctions would be "contrary to the principle," Black explained.¹⁵² Instead, Black argued that habeas corpus should be available "whenever any United States citizen is held in any land we govern."¹⁵³ Black thus articulated a view, far different than Jackson did, one that saw habeas corpus as a guarantee of individual rights on the shores and its citizenry, possibly to ward off the executive's power to imprison. It was a vision that saw habeas corpus as a guarantee of individual rights against executive power. If, as Chief Justice Marshall argued in *Ex parte Milligan*, habeas corpus action is "what authority has the jailor over the prisoner happens to be held does not in any way affect the right of the prisoner to be heard."

A different but potentially significant case arose in another military commission case, *Hirabayashi v. United States*, before *Eisentrager*. Baron Kōki Hirota

of powers concerns about courts interfering with overseas military operations like the said, would require the military to bring prisoners and witnesses halfway across the globe to subjecting courts and judges into military operations. It is believed, would improperly encumber the military from the military offensive abroad. Black thus appeared to accept limits on habeas corpus protections during wartime based on the nature of his capture and detention.

Black's dissenting course in his dissenting opinion, written after 9/11. Black refused to place habeas corpus and other constitutional rights. The writ should not be confined to American citizens only. Instead, Black articulated what has become a duty-based, rather than a rights-based, approach maintains that the exercise of habeas corpus by any person in U.S. custody must be based on that person's citizenship status or physical location. The constitution is to prevent arbitrary and capricious detention, it is just as impermissible to deny an alien habeas corpus if he was arrested or detained abroad, because he is a foreign national rather than an American citizen. Habeas corpus and other constitutional protections should adopt a "broad and dangerous principle." Black urged that habeas corpus should be available if an official illegally imprisons any person. Black articulated a different vision of the writ of habeas corpus reaching beyond America's borders wherever the United States claimed the writ. Black argued that more closely embodied the idea of individual liberty and a limitation on executive power. If all had put it, the question in a habeas corpus is whether to detain [the prisoner]," where that question should itself provide the answer.¹⁵⁴

The next limit on habeas corpus surfaced in *Hirota v. MacArthur*, decided the year after Black had served as Japan's prime minister

and foreign minister during the first world war, Hirota and other Japanese citizens were tried by a military tribunal, formally known as the International Military Tribunal for the Far East (IMTFE).¹⁵⁵ The tribunal had been set up by General Douglas MacArthur, the Supreme Commander for the Far East. Hirota was convicted and sentenced to death for "aggression" in violation of international law. The tribunal also found that Hirota had failed to take adequate steps to prevent atrocities at Nanjing, a six-week-long massacre that resulted in the deaths of hundreds of thousands of Chinese and prisoners of war.¹⁵⁶

Following his conviction, Hirota filed a writ of habeas corpus directly in the U.S. Supreme Court.¹⁵⁷ This was an "original" habeas petition filed in the Supreme Court, not a writ of habeas corpus of war crimes by American or Allied military personnel. Such writs have been barred from seeking habeas corpus under *Ahrens*, since they were not considered writs of habeas corpus of any district court.¹⁵⁸ The Supreme Court has granted "original" habeas petitions during this century, typically by a four-to-four vote, but it has never granted one because of his prior service at the Nuremberg trials.

This time, however, Jackson agreed to hear the appeal, although he then recused himself from the proceedings.¹⁶⁰ Three days after hearing the case, the court issued a short unsigned opinion denying the writ. The opinion explained that because the tribunal that sentenced Hirota and the other prisoners of war was "not a U.S. court," a U.S. court had "no power to set aside or annul the judgments and sentences of the tribunal that had sentenced Hirota and the other prisoners of war." MacArthur had acted as "the agent of the United States," and the court did not have jurisdiction to hear the appeal. The court did not address such basic questions as whether the tribunal was lawfully constituted.¹⁶² Hirota was held in custody for several days after the Supreme Court's decision. He later filed other challenges to the IMTFE, and several other habeas petitions challenging convictions at Nuremberg.¹⁶³

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The Bush administration would rely heavily on the precedents set after 9/11. *Quirin* and *Yamashita*, the cases involving alleged terrorists indefinitely as “enemy combatants” rather than through military commissions rather than through civilian courts. In other ways, *Eisentrager* and *Hirota* both set precedents for denying “enemy combatants” access to the courts. The administration argued, meant that foreign nationals held by the United States had no right to habeas corpus. *Quirin* and *Yamashita* had no access to habeas corpus if his detention was authorized by a “source of authority,” such as a UN Security Council resolution. A prisoner was under the United States’ jurisdiction.

Whether federal courts could exercise habeas corpus as *Eisentrager* and *Hirota* reflected a tension between constitutional rights outside the United States and constitutional guarantees, such as habeas corpus, that apply to action authorized under law, constrain U.S. action authorized by the United States, at least insofar as the courts. *Eisentrager* and *Hirota* addressed only the issue of habeas corpus that would be pivotal in resolving legal questions in the “war on terrorism” and to the development of the post-9/11 global detention system.

heavily on these World War II-era cases the administration argued, justified detaining “enemy combatants” or trying them in the regular federal courts. In different ways, these cases served as the basis for denying alleged habeas rights altogether. *Eisentrager*, the administration’s argument that foreign nationals arrested and detained outside the United States were not entitled to habeas corpus; *Hirota* meant that a prisoner’s detention was based on an international Security Council resolution, even if the United States had the power and control.

These cases raised the issue of habeas corpus review in cases such as *Hamdi* and *Hamdan*, part of a larger debate over the application of constitutional guarantees to the United States. In other words, did basic constitutional guarantees—habeas corpus, due process, and equal protection—apply abroad? Or were those guarantees limited to citizens and residents as foreign nationals were concerned? This was a central part of this larger debate—a debate that raised fundamental challenges to the treatment of prisoners and the role of habeas corpus in confronting

The Seeds of a Global

At the time the United States was founded, the framers of the Constitution focused inward on the form of government.¹ Although they contemplated military action overseas, they did not envision the military power, let alone its political influence, would be projected beyond the country's borders. Nor could they foresee how law enforcement would take international operations in areas such as counterterrorism.

History, however, also provides support for the Constitution. The Constitution's framers were protecting individual liberty from arbitrary government. Consequently, they established the Bill of Rights. Louis Henkin has called a "universal ideology" that ideology was far from its full realization, as women and non-property-owning males did not have equal rights in civil society.² James Madison, for example, wrote that the Bill of Rights "expressly declare the great rights of the people, forming an "us" versus "them" dichotomy.³ The framers were suspicious of executive power. Having learned from British history that they wanted to protect against the exercise of arbitrary power, they created a system of government that they were confident would protect individual liberty and checks on government power. The inclusion of a habeas corpus guarantee in the Constitution, with limitations on its suspension. They similarly included the Bill of Rights, which helped secure such basic rights as the right to be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, to a speedy trial by jury for alleged crimes, and the right to be on a person's citizenship status or location.

al Constitution

was founded, little thought was given outside its territory. Instead, the Con- developing and securing a republican contemplated the possibility of mili- vision the extent to which America's , commercial, and cultural influence, y's shores over the next two centuries. cement would one day have to under- s from narcotics trafficking to global

pport for a more expansive vision of framers were driven by the ideal of arbitrary and lawless government action. ll of Rights to embody what Professor human rights ideology," even though dization in 1789 when women, slaves, not share equally in political power or mple, insisted that his proposed Bill of ts of mankind," thus implicitly reject- Madison and others also were deeply just thrown off the yoke of a king, they e of monarchical authority in the new creating. Their desire to ensure both vernment power helped motivate the ee in the Constitution as well as limi- arly inspired the inclusion of the Bill basic protections as the right not to be without due process of law and the right nes.⁴ None of these protections turned tion.⁵

The first skirmish between competitors of noncitizens (or “aliens”) took place during the French Revolution and ensuing war in Europe had begun, and the divisions were growing increasingly deep. In response to these fears, Congress passed the Alien Enemies Act in Adams’s administration giving the president the power to detain and expel aliens who were citizens of a nation with which the United States was at war. The Alien Enemies Act swept more broadly, authorizing the president to detain any alien he deemed “dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States.” The third statute, the Sedition Act, made it a crime to publish “false and malicious writing” against the government.

The Alien Friends and Sedition Acts were widely opposed by Federalists who supported the Alien Friends Act as necessary to the social compact (citizens) could demand of noncitizens (aliens) who did not enjoy the same rights and only protections that aliens could claim under international law of nations afforded.⁸ Republicans vigorously opposed the acts, calling them unconstitutional. Kentucky resolutions as unconstitutional and statesman Edward Livingston wrote, “We, the people, are entitled to the protection of our laws, and if we owe a temporary allegiance to a foreign power, they are entitled to the protection of our laws. If we are accused of violating this allegiance, we are entitled to a fair trial, and if found guilty [aliens] are liable to punishment.” Madison incorporated these ideas of citizenship in the Virginia legislature defending the Alien Friends Act between an alien’s allegiance to the United States and the United States’ entitlement to the protection of its laws. “The Constitution is the parties to the Constitution as citizens, and it is not entitled to them from its coverage.”¹¹ “If aliens had been tried by a jury or the other incidents to a fair trial.”

The Alien Friends Act expired in 1800 and was never renewed. By contrast, the Bill of Rights protecting individuals from arbitrary government action.

ing visions of the constitutional rights during the 1790s. The French Revolution split America along partisan lines, increasingly bitter. The Federalists feared war and a possible invasion by France. They enacted several measures during John Adams's presidency broadening presidential powers over noncitizens. The Alien Friends and Enemies Act authorized the president to detain, deport, or expel any alien who was an enemy or the subject, or resident of an enemy nation, if the United States was at war. The so-called Alien Friends and Enemies Act gave the president the power to detain or expel any alien "whenever he shall judge the peace and safety of the United States." A law that made it a crime to publish "false, scandalous, and defamatory" statements about the government or its officials.⁷

The Alien Friends and Enemies Act provoked heated debate. Leading opponents of the Alien Friends Act argued that members of Congress should not have the power to define and limit the rights of nonmembers of the compact's protections or benefits. The Alien Friends and Enemies Act, they maintained, were those that the Alien Friends and Enemies Act. On the other side, Jeffersonian Republicans condemned them in the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions.⁹ As the prominent American jurist James Madison wrote, "Alien friends . . . residing among us, and subject to our laws, and . . . during their residence among us, are under our Government." If alien friends are subject to our laws, Madison added, "the same laws which determine the truth of the accusation, and the punishment, shall determine the truth of the accusation, and the punishment." James Madison argued for equal treatment in his 1800 report for the Alien Friends and Enemies Act resolutions. He emphasized the link between the United States, on the one hand, and his laws, on the other. That aliens might not be citizens, Madison said, did not exclude them from the Constitution, they had no rights under the Constitution, they were "but even capitally punished, without trial."¹²

1800, along with the Sedition Act; neither the Alien Friends and Enemies Act, Madison's belief that constitutional rights were violated by arbitrary and unlawful government action

do not necessarily depend on an individual. The political community gathered support by the Supreme Court to varying degrees in response to an anti-immigrant backlash. Noncitizens were entitled to equal protection, to a jury trial under the Fifth Amendment.¹⁴ Over time, the Court has also held that States are entitled to other constitutional

The separate question of whether the Constitution's borders first arose in the nineteenth century during westward expansion. The debate centered on newly acquired territories, procedural due process, and the hotly contested issue of whether an approach based on membership in the political community was created by the people of the states and should not extend beyond the states.¹⁷ But the Justices in *Johnson* disagreed. John Marshall, for example, held that the Constitution applied throughout the "American Empire" over which the United States exercised jurisdiction. Before the Civil War, the Supreme Court held the applicability to newly acquired western territories of Columbia, where the Constitution applied without conferring statehood.²⁰ A landmark decision in this regard was the ignominious *Dred Scott* case²¹), in which the Court ruled that the Constitution protected a slave owner's right to his property.

When America began to acquire an overseas empire in the nineteenth century, the courts had to address whether the Constitution applied to action abroad. In general, courts acknowledged that the Constitution protected constitutional rights even when U.S. citizens were abroad. *Johnson* affirmed the application of certain fundamental rights to the United States' overseas colonial possessions.

In 1891, for example, the Supreme Court held in *United States v. Ross* that an American seaman who had been tried and convicted in Japan for a murder committed aboard a Japanese ship in Japanese harbor. The seaman, John M. Ross, filed a writ of habeas corpus challenging the conviction following his return to the United States. He had been brought to serve out his sentence in the United States. The Court held that constitutional rights by denying him a

individual's citizenship or membership in support over time and was later endorsed in degrees. In the late nineteenth century, in *Ex parte Milligan*, the Supreme Court ruled that the protection of the law¹³ and, if accused of a crime, the Fifth and Sixth Amendments to the Constitution made clear that aliens in the United States were entitled to the same constitutional protections as well.¹⁵

Whether the Constitution applied beyond the United States in the nineteenth century during the period of American imperial expansion depended on the structure of government and the legal components of civil and criminal law, particularly the issue of slavery.¹⁶ Those who advocated for a federalist polity argued that the Constitution applied to the states for the states and therefore did not apply to territories. Those who espoused a more nationalist view, such as John Jay, maintained that the Constitution applied to "an empire," extending to any territory under U.S. sovereign power.¹⁸ In a series of decisions, the Supreme Court recognized the Constitution's application to U.S. territories,¹⁹ as well as to the District of Columbia. In *United States v. Wong*, the Court had granted Congress full legislative power over the territories.²⁰ Ironically, the most important decision was *Scott v. Sandford* (the "Dred Scott case"), which held that the Constitution's Due Process Clause did not apply to property in the territories.²¹

The issue of an overseas empire in the late nineteenth century raised the question of whether the Constitution applied to U.S. citizens in foreign countries but not to U.S. citizens in the territories. Fundamental constitutional rights in the territories were not guaranteed by the Constitution.

The Supreme Court considered the appeal of an American citizen, John Ross, who was arrested and convicted by an American consul in Japan for boarding an American ship in a Japanese port. Ross argued a habeas corpus petition challenging his conviction in the United States, where he had never been. Ross argued that the trial violated his constitutional rights to a grand jury indictment and a jury trial.

The Supreme Court rejected his claim. *re Ross*, Justice Stephen Johnson Field wrote to the United States and “can have a result, he said, the Constitution’s protection extends to others within the United States, or who commit offenses committed elsewhere, and not to those committed abroad.”²² Ten years later, the Court upheld the right of a citizen to Cuba to face trial for embezzlement during the military occupation of Cuba after the Cuban law did not guarantee him the same protection. The Court explained that American law applied in relation to crimes committed without regard to the laws of a foreign country.”²³

Cases like *Ross* and *Neely* were the result of the United States’ and expanded military presence in foreign territories and acquiring new possessions for itself. U.S. troops helped overthrow the Hawaiian monarchy and establish a controlled provisional government that was replaced by a constitution five years later.²⁴ In addition, the United States took over Spain’s colonial empire, including Puerto Rico, following the conclusion of the Spanish-American War. After also obtaining control over Guantánamo Bay, the United States’ for terminating its occupation of Cuba. As the United States’ imperial power, questions soon arose about whether the States’ Constitution would apply to its territories.

The Supreme Court addressed this question collectively known as the “Insular Cases.” The Court’s 1901 decision in *Downes v. Bidwell* dealt with a tax on oranges imported from Puerto Rico. In addressing the Court to address whether Congress’s requirement of uniform taxation in Puerto Rico applied to the tax, members of the Court staked out different positions. The controlling opinion by Justice Henry Brandeis was a plurality but not a majority of the Court. It held that the Constitution applied to Puerto Rico by the Constitution in taxing Puerto Rico. In dissent, Chief Justice John Marshall Harlan’s membership approach from the debate over the Insular Cases. Harlan, Brown explained that the Constitution applied to the United States, as a union of States, to the territories. “of the states.”²⁷ Puerto Rico, he said, was

. Writing for a unanimous Court in *In* stated that the Constitution was limited to no operation in another country.” As protections extended “only to citizens and those who are brought there for trial for alleged crimes to residents or temporary sojourners.” The Court upheld the extradition of an American citizen to Spain during America’s temporary conflict with Spain in the Spanish-American War, even though the same protections as the U.S. Constitution’s constitutional guarantees have “no application outside the jurisdiction of the United States.”

As a product of America’s growing empire, the United States acquired foreign countries. But America also began to acquire territory during this period. In 1893, American forces overthrew the Hawaiian government and establish a new U.S.-style government that paved the way for Hawaii’s annexation. The United States acquired significant parts of the Caribbean, Puerto Rico, the Philippines, and Guam during the Spanish-American War. The United States also acquired the Panama Canal Zone during this period, in exchange for the Panama Canal. As the United States became an imperial power, the question over whether and how the United States should govern its newly acquired territories.

The question in a series of decisions collected in *Downes*. The first and most important was the case of *Downes*.²⁶ *Downes* involved a duty imposed on a merchant in New York, requiring that the merchant be free from the constitutional requirements of Puerto Rico. In assessing the legality of the duty, the Court set out three broadly defined positions. Chief Justice Henry Billings Brown, which attracted a dissent, held that Congress was not bound by the requirements of Puerto Rico. Embracing the logic of the members of the Alien Friends Act a century earlier, the Court held that the territory was “created by the people of the United States to be governed solely by representatives chosen by the people as a territory ‘appurtenant and belong-

ing to the United States, but not a party, held out the possibility that by legislative benefits of membership to newly acquired territories would have no force in those territories until Congress acted.

The elder Justice John Marshall held that whenever the United States acquired territory, the Constitution followed, regardless of whether he believed that as “the supreme law of the land” applied to all peoples, whether of States or territories. He wrote that “the Constitution of the United States” applied to all territories under the jurisdiction over it, the Constitution followed there, regardless of whether there had been a legislative act or branches to accord statehood to that territory. He stated the popular credo “The Constitution follows the flag.”

The third position, staked out by Justice Brandeis, was a compromise. White divided territories into those that Congress had made part of the United States by admitting them as U.S. states or incorporating them as U.S. territories and those that had not incorporated. The Constitution applied to admitted or incorporated territories, but not to unincorporated territories, which held a different status. Although the Constitution’s provisions applied everywhere, the application of a particular provision to a particular territory (including unincorporated territories) required an inquiry into the territory’s relation to the United States.³⁰ White stated that constitutional restrictions were of “so fundamental a nature that they may not be transgressed.”³¹ White’s view ultimately prevailed and served as the basis for a series of cases that addressed the application of particular provisions of the Constitution to unincorporated territories.³²

The Insular Cases have been criticized for their treatment toward “native islanders” whom United States officials cited Puerto Rico’s different origins, and the Insular Cases also embodied the idea that the constitutional right to a jury trial for crimes committed abroad must be constrained by certain conditions. The Insular Cases thus did not hinge the

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tion on formal constructs such as citizenship. The actual relationship between the United States and the territory determine which constitutional provisions apply.

While the Insular Cases endorsed the territoriality rule beyond America's shores, they addressed the question of whether the United States possessed and governed the territory in *Ross*—that the Constitution had not been extended and remained on the books. But by the end of the nineteenth century, territoriality rule seemed increasingly archaic. The United States, with military forces, corporations, and consular officials, was a global world. The type of colonial arrangements of the imperialist era of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and other, more subtle forms of control and influence, had created an enduring global presence, including its military bases and service members, had created a global presence and protections abroad.³⁵

In 1957, the Supreme Court revisited the territoriality rule's application in foreign territory. In *Reich v. United States*, servicemen challenged the legality of the United States government murdering their husbands in England. The government argued that they were bound by *In re Ross* but a plurality of four, Justice Hugo Black argued that the defendants could not be subject to the territoriality rule. They were tried by a jury of their peers, as the Fifth Amendment required. Black rejected the territoriality rule as limited strictly to U.S. territory. "The United States Constitution," he explained. "Its power is limited to the United States. It can only act in accordance with all the provisions of the Constitution."³⁷ Black also rejected the suggestion that the territoriality rule judges could limit the Constitution's application to "fundamental."³⁸ "When the Government is abroad," Black said, "the shield which the Constitution provide to protect his citizens is not taken away just because he happens to be in a foreign land." Black first articulated by Madison and other Framers in the early years of the republic, Black believed that the United States subject defendants to its criminal laws and constitutional protections that accompany enforcement of the law. "The territoriality rule were located in a foreign land."⁴⁰

izenship. Instead, they focused on the United States and the territory in question to determine which constitutional provisions applied under the circumstances. The Court limited the extension of constitutional rights to only those territories that the United States had acquired. The Supreme Court's earlier statement that the Constitution had no force in foreign territory—still valid after World War II, *Ross's* strict territoriality doctrine. America had become a superpower, and other institutions spread across the globe. The imperialist policies that prevailed during the imperialist era of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries had given way to a new era of global influence. America's expanding and growing number of overseas military bases provided new reasons to extend constitutional

rights. This led to the question of the Constitution's applicability in *Ex parte Quirin* and *Ex parte Covert*. In *Ex parte Covert*, two widows of U.S. servicemen challenged their convictions by courts-martial for espionage during World War II in England and Japan.³⁶ Six justices refused to find the Constitution applicable, divided in their reasoning. Writing for the majority, Chief Justice Warren said that as U.S. citizens and civilians, the women were entitled to a trial by court-martial but instead had to be tried by a military commission. The Fifth and Sixth Amendments to the Constitution applied. The notion that the Constitution was limited to the United States is entirely a creature of the United States. The power and authority have no other source. The limitations imposed by the Constitution on the government's power to question the constitutionality of provisions they deemed applicable to provisions they deemed applicable. The government reaches out to punish a citizen who has done nothing to harm the United States. The Bill of Rights and other parts of the Constitution should not be stripped from a citizen in another land.³⁹ Building on concepts developed by the framers of the Constitution from the beginning, the Court believed that the United States could not strip constitutional rights from a citizen while denying them the constitutional protection of those laws, simply because they

Justice Felix Frankfurter and the second grandson of the elder Justice Harlan from concurring opinions. Both agreed that the Constitution applied to the territory. But, they said, that does not necessarily apply when the United States is abroad. Justice Harlan advanced a more contextual explanation, was not whether the Constitution applied everywhere) but whether the application was “impracticable” or “anomalous” under the law. Law School professor Gerald Neuman has argued that the possibility of more widespread constitutional rights has previously been afforded but at the cost of maintaining the idea that citizenship necessarily determines constitutional rights abroad, since in many instances it would be anomalous to apply a particular constitutional provision to an American citizen. On the other hand, a foreign citizen might not always be able to claim constitutional rights when outside the United States, and the constitutional provisions would depend on the circumstances.

In subsequent decisions, the Supreme Court applied the jury trial guarantee to civilian dependents of military forces overseas, again rejecting the idea that constitutional rights⁴³ Lower courts, in applying constitutional safeguards applied abroad.⁴⁴ But when it came to American citizens, they did not address whether constitutional rights extended to foreign nationals. The question presented in World War II era cases like *Ex parte Quirin* and *Ex parte Endo* was whether the Constitution applied to American citizens in enemy-occupied territories.

The opportunity to address that question was limited to those involving territories where the United States had jurisdiction but not formal sovereignty. The Supreme Court's actions in foreign countries and overseas territories in these cases did not provide a definitive answer in support for the proposition that, at minimum, the Constitution applied outside the United States to citizens.

After World War II, the United States acquired several territories without political sovereignty. The Supreme Court's federal courts built on the logic of the *Ex parte Quirin* and *Ex parte Endo* cases, applying the Constitution to American citizens in enemy-occupied territories.

Second Justice John Marshall Harlan (the dissenters from the Insular Cases) each filed concurring opinions. The Constitution was not limited to U.S. territory. It did not mean all constitutional protections applied to U.S. acts abroad. Instead, Frankfurter took a more practical approach. The question, Harlan argued, was whether the Constitution applied abroad (for it applied to U.S. acts) and if so, whether a particular constitutional right applied under the circumstances.⁴¹ As Harvard Law School professor has observed, this approach “held out the prospect of constitutional protection than had previously been available without diluting its content.”⁴² It undercut the notion that the Constitution’s application would be no more impracticable or inhumane than denying constitutional protection to an alien than to a citizen. In short, it suggested that even an American citizen could not claim the full protections of the Bill of Rights, since the application of particular constitutional rights depended on the circumstances.

The Supreme Court extended the Constitution’s protections to dependents of military members overseas and to civilian employees of the armed forces. In doing so, the Court rejected the idea of strict territorial limitations on the Constitution’s application. In turn, recognized that other constitutional provisions applied because these cases involved American citizens. Together, and to what extent, the Constitution applied outside the United States—the issue was addressed in *Eisentrager* and *Hirota*.

The question instead arose in two types of cases: those in which the United States exercised actual control and jurisdiction; and those involving U.S. law enforcement activities on the high seas. Although the decisions were not unanimous, they offered further support for the view that fundamental constitutional rights applied to citizens and noncitizens alike.

The Court continued to exercise control over sovereignty. In resolving various disputes, the Court cited the Insular Cases to find that fundamental

constitutional rights applied to noncitizens in these territories were not formally part of the Constitution.

The Panama Canal Zone provides a classic example. The United States acquired control of the ten-mile-wide Canal Zone between the United States and the new Republic of Panama. The United States permanent, exclusive, and total control over the zone and ultimate sovereignty over the territory were granted to the United States with “all the rights, power and authority that the United States would possess and exercise over any territory [of the Canal Zone] . . . to the extent that the Republic of Panama of any such sovereignty would be impaired by a treaty created a U.S. enclave to serve a public purpose in acquiring and maintaining a canal across the zone.” The United States exercised jurisdiction over the Canal Zone until 1979, when it was returned to Panama.⁴⁷

Early on, Congress created a district court for the Canal Zone and criminal cases, with review to a federal circuit court. It provided for a bill of rights that was modeled after the Bill of Rights in the U.S. Constitution. The district court and the appeals court were subject to the same constitutional scrutiny under the Constitution as courts in the States’ territorial control over the Canal Zone. In *United States v. Verdugo*, the affected individual, judges considered whether fundamental constitutional protections, including the right to be under law, applied to both American and non-American citizens. The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit, in *United States v. Verdugo*, explained, “The Constitution applies to the Canal Zone and not the citizenship of the defendant.”

Judicial decisions arising from the *Verdugo* case were cited in the Territory of the Pacific Islands in Micronesia. The court held that fundamental constitutional guarantees apply to the Territory, regardless of the nature of the control, regardless of the nature of the control that control was exercised. After liberation from Japanese control during World War II, the United States established the Trust Territory of Micronesia. Here, the operative agreement granting the United States “full and complete authority and jurisdiction over the Territory” was a compact that gave a degree of control similar to the Canal Zone. The court cited the Department of the Interior, which as

zens as well as to citizens, even though
t of the United States.

s an instructive example. The United
le-wide Canal Zone in 1903. A treaty
w republic of Panama gave the United
l control but reserved the host state's
ry.⁴⁵ The treaty provided the United
authority within the zone . . . which
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e entire exclusion of the exercise by the
eign rights, power or authority."⁴⁶ The
a strategic national interest: construct-
Isthmus of Panama. The United States
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t court in the Canal Zone to hear civil
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It is the territorial nature of the Canal
fendant that is dispositive."⁵²

United States' governance of the Trust
cronesia reflected the same principle:
rantees accompanied U.S. territorial
ne political arrangement under which
ating the islands from Japanese control
s sought to retain strategic control over
ment took the form of a special trustee-
powers of administration, legislation,
without ceding formal sovereignty: a
Zone and Guantánamo Bay.⁵³ The U.S.
sumed control over Micronesia from

the U.S. Navy in 1951, exercised executive power. The U.S. appointed judges for the trust territory and heard appeals in Washington, D.C.⁵⁴ In 1986 the Northern Mariana Islands became a self-governing territory. The islands chose to become independent but remained associated with the United States.⁵⁵

Before the trusteeship ended, constitutional rights applied both to the Trust Territory, even though the territory was not part of the U.S. administration. In one case, for example, the District of Columbia Circuit in *Wong* held that the Constitution applied to an inhabitant of the Trust Territory over cases from the Trust Territory. The court ruled that the Fifth Amendment's protection over cases from the Trust Territory applied to an inhabitant to a valuation of his property and its destruction. The appeals court ruled that the Claims Commission, established to adjudicate claims, must meet constitutional requirements of due process. In *Insular Cases*, the court found that fundamental rights apply equally to foreign nationals in the Trust Territory as to those subject to U.S. governing power than "to those who are not," the court said, that "there cannot be a government authority untrammelled by the Constitution." ⁵⁷ Other courts reached the same conclusion in *Wong* and *Wong* challenges, finding, for example, that inhabitants of the Trust Territory possessed by nuclear weapons testing at Bikini Island were not covered by the Constitution's takings clause. The court ruled that private property for public use without compensation is not covered by the Constitution's takings clause.

The question of the Constitution's application to foreign U.S. territory also arose at the end of the trusteeship during the early 1990s when the United States sought to detain asylum seekers from Haiti intercepted by the United States did not summarily return them to Haiti. Those fleeing persecution, were brought to the United States and held in "tent cities" encircled by rolls of barbed wire. Men, women, and children were held in these tent cities for weeks in courts. Later, when thousands were held in the tent cities in the 1990s, the United States took them to the United States behind barbed wire in "safe-haven" camps. The United States is erecting similar camps elsewhere in the United States and the Canal Zone.⁵⁹

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Lawsuits challenging America's interdicted and New York. Since the asylum seekers were held outside the United States, the government's actions were not enforceable in any court. The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Eleventh Circuit agreed and rejected the Florida-based lawsuit, ruling that the government could not challenge their interdiction procedures.⁶⁰ Adopting a line of reasoning established after 9/11, the appeals court said that because the government has a duty to protect foreign nationals outside the United States, these individuals are cognizable in the courts of the United States, not solely on "the American tradition of habeas corpus for their protection and safety."⁶¹ The Ninth Circuit later affirmed. The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Eleventh Circuit, in a decision over those challenges, affirmed that the government must provide access to counsel before interdiction. The government's contention that the refugees were not entitled to the same protections, the court emphasized. In *Alaraz v. Reno*, the court found that it would be neither fair nor just to accord them fundamental constitutional rights.

The Supreme Court ultimately upheld the government's direct return policy, finding that the government's actions under the Status of Refugees and the Immigration and Nationality Act prevented the United States from summarily returning refugees to the high seas without first determining their status.⁶³ The Supreme Court, however, did not require the application of statutory and treaty-based rights to those who were intercepted and interdicted on the high seas; it only required that those held indefinitely by the United States and those who were held in detention under its control, where they had been subjected to detention and interrogation, could invoke the Constitution.

The United States' decision to interdict refugees was motivated partly by concerns about the domestic political impact of a rising refugee crisis. The United States rejected the argument that it denied individuals any legal protection against prolonged detention without a fair process. The government also embraced a legal position without precedent. Justice Souter, in *Johnson Jr. v. United States*, underscored the position's incoherence. He argued that Haitian refugees could not be detained indefinitely without being released: "If the Due Process Clause of the Constitution is to have any meaning, it must require that the government release those who are held in custody without a fair process."

interdiction policy were filed in Florida. Detainees were foreign nationals seized and the government argued, they had no rights. The Court of Appeals for the Eleventh Circuit rejected the challenges, finding that the refugees were not eligible for the government's asylum screening process, a process that would become familiar after the 9/11 attacks. The aliens detained at Guantánamo were not citizens of the United States, they "are without legal rights that are afforded to citizens of the United States" and must instead depend on the government's "humanitarian concern and conduct." New York-based challenges fared better in the Second Circuit, which had jurisdiction over the lower court's ruling that the refugees were not to be repatriated. In rejecting the government's argument that it had no judicially enforceable legal obligations under America's "exclusive control" over Guantánamo, the court found the government's position "impracticable" nor "anomalous" to the detainees' legal rights.⁶²

The court held the United States' interdiction and the 1951 UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees or Nationality Act did not prohibit the government from returning to Haiti individuals seized on the grounds that they were entitled to refugee status. The court focused only on the extraterritorial application of the Convention's protections to those fleeing Haiti and did not consider whether individuals detained at Guantánamo or other offshore prisons were being brought by the United States for purposes that would invoke the Constitution's protections.

Despite the fact that those fleeing persecution was motivated by the domestic and political effects of a worsening economic crisis, the court responded with extreme measures that denied the detainees access to U.S. courts and that led to prolonged legal process as well as to cruel treatment. It set a precedent with limits. New York district judge Sterling Kaufman's decision has implications in ruling that HIV-infected detainees held indefinitely at Guantánamo and had no access to the courts because habeas corpus does not apply to the detainees at

Guantánamo,” he said, the government “has the right to starve or beat them, to deprive them of their property without process to their persecutors, or to subject them to the color of their skin.”⁶⁴ Johnson’s war on terror meant that the United States would exercise its “right to create law-free zones to imprison people in secret, to deny them to the courts, and subject them to torture.”

The extraterritorial application of the Constitution was a byproduct of migration in connection with expanding U.S. military operations on high seas and in foreign countries. By the early 2000s, U.S. law had become increasingly global in scope, particularly in connection with combating the narcotics trade and terrorism. Increased surveillance, searches, and seizures at the U.S. and Mexico’s borders raised the question of whether the Constitution’s limitations that apply to government action and its progeny demonstrated that Article III’s jurisdiction over the Constitution when abroad, the Supreme Court’s application of these rulings to foreign nationals, and the scope of the Court’s decisions on the Constitution’s extraterritorial application. This issue came before the Supreme Court in *United States v. Verdugo-Urquidez*.

Verdugo-Urquidez’s case began with the seizure of Verdugo-Urquidez’s violations of U.S. law and transferred to the U.S. in violation of the U.S.-Mexico border. The following month, Verdugo-Urquidez was detained in San Diego, agents from the U.S. Customs and Border Protection with Mexican police, searched Verdugo-Urquidez’s home in Mexico without a warrant and found evidence of marijuana. Verdugo-Urquidez was brought criminal charges against Verdugo-Urquidez in California. Verdugo-Urquidez moved to suppress the evidence from his home and to prevent its introduction into court because the evidence had been seized in violation of the Fourth Amendment against unreasonable searches and seizures.

In *United States v. Verdugo-Urquidez*, the Supreme Court ruled that the Fourth Amendment did not apply to Verdugo-Urquidez’s claim. Writing for a majority of five (with two of a majority), Chief Justice William Rehnquist held that foreign nationals did not have any Fourth Amendment rights against government action abroad.⁶⁸ Imposing

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Constitution was also the focus of liti-
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to suppress the evidence taken from
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H. Rehnquist maintained that foreign
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officials treat foreign nationals outside would have “significant and deleterious” in conducting activities beyond its borders. he said “we live in a world of nation-states” be able to function effectively in the passage that foreshadowed the argument. Guantánamo detainees and other foreigners remarked that any constraints on U.S. must come from the political branches, a treaty, or legislation, and not from the courts of constitutional safeguards.⁷¹ Rehnquist’s theories of constitutional law enforcement and military operations which he believed should be conducted

Justice William J. Brennan Jr. took the opinion joined by Justice Thurgood Marshall. the United States acted to enforce its laws on nationals to its pains and penalties, the accompany that extraterritorial exercises prosecute and punish Verdugo-Urquiza had “treated him as a member of our community, one of the governed.”⁷³ Brennan viewed constitutional rights as essential not only embodied in the Bill of Rights but also of law. How, Brennan questioned, could governments for acting lawlessly when it of its own Constitution merely because

Justice Anthony M. Kennedy cast positioning himself between these two. Kennedy emphasized that no “rigid and” tion’s operation abroad. He instead drew explaining that in determining the rights, a court must ask whether the tional provision is “impracticable” or “The absence of local judges or magistrates with foreign officials, made it impracticable to the search of a nonresident alien’s cautioned, other constitutional protections depending on the circumstances. In t

the United States, Rehnquist warned, "the consequences for the United States are dire." "For better or for worse," he said, "we are now in a world of states in which our Government must operate in the company of sovereign nations."⁶⁹ In a dissent against habeas corpus rights for foreign nationals after 9/11, Rehnquist argued that U.S. action against noncitizens abroad should be guided by diplomatic understanding, not by the courts through judicial enforcement. Rehnquist's approach looked both backward to traditional rights and forward to expanding them beyond the United States' borders, and free of constitutional constraints.

Rehnquist took the opposite approach in a dissenting opinion in *Hamdi*. Brennan maintained that when the United States applies criminal law abroad, subjecting foreign nationals to the protections of the Constitution must be justified by the use of American power.⁷² By seeking to justify the use of American power, Brennan said, the United States "invites the international community" and made him "quite literate" in the extraterritorial application of the Constitution. He argued only to the idea of fundamental fairness and to America's commitment to the rule of law. He argued that the United States criticize other governments that refused to adhere to the requirements of the Constitution when it was acting outside its borders?⁷⁴

Justice Kennedy cast the pivotal fifth and deciding vote, and Justice Souter joined his poles in a concurring opinion. Kennedy's "abstract rule" governed the Constitution's application of a particular constitutional provision. He drew on Justice Harlan's opinion in *Reid*, which argued for the extraterritorial reach of constitutional provisions. He argued that the application of a particular constitutional provision is "anomalous" under the circumstances. He argued that the United States, along with the need to cooperate with other nations, is unable to apply the Fourth Amendment's protection of property in Mexico.⁷⁵ But, Kennedy argued that the protections might apply extraterritorially. In this important opinion, Kennedy thus

signaled his resistance to bright-line rules. A flexible, case-by-case approach designed to protect a particular constitutional safeguard to a

Whether, and to what extent, the Court's actions outside the United States became a precedent with far-reaching ramifications for U.S. detainees was a question. Habeas corpus actions challenging the detention of "non-combatants" would spark intense legal and political challenges. Supreme Court decisions. Those actions would force the United States to deny individuals the protections of the Constitution by holding them beyond the boundaries of the Constitution. Questions about the scope of the president's authority to detain indefinitely without charge, to use military commissions to try detainees for war crimes, and to engage in torture would be raised. Challenges in part 3.

rules and his support for a more flex-
to weigh the feasibility of applying a
a particular situation.⁷⁶

Constitution applied to foreign nation-
a critical question after 9/11, with far-
entions at Guantánamo and beyond.
military detention and trial of “enemy
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— Part 3 —

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A Modest Judicial In

The First Supreme Court

“Enemy Combatant” Decision

On April 20, 2004, the Supreme Court decided *Rasul v. Bush*, the first Guantanamo detainee case. A week later, on April 28, the Court heard oral arguments in *Hamdi v. Rumsfeld*, the first “enemy combatants” case. On May 5, the Court’s *Minutes II* broadcast the first pictures of Guantanamo, documenting the torture and other mistreatment of detainees. The pictures validated the concern that the executive branch was insulating the worst forms of illegal detention from judicial review. The U.S. solicitor general, Paul D. Clement, explained that the “judgment of the Court in *Rasul* is that the interrogation of prisoners is that “the government cannot do something alone or try to do something alone.” Hamdi, however, told a different story. He scored the potential dangers of blindly following the executive branch and the importance of habeas corpus as a check on executive power.

Rasul consisted of two separate actions in the lower courts. One, *Al-Odah v. United States*, involved Kuwaitis; the other, *Rasul v. Bush*, involved an Australian citizen.⁴ Although of different nationalities, the facts in common: all had been imprisoned in Guantanamo; all were being held incommunicado; all had no access to a lawyer and to the courts. Their habeas petitions were innocent of any wrongdoing and that they were being held unlawfully. The Kuwaitis’ habeas petitions were based on their status as volunteers to Afghanistan and Pakistan as volunt

Intervention

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Supreme Court heard argument in *Rasul* case to reach the Court.¹ Just over a week later, the Court heard argument in the cases of alleged detainees Jose Padilla.² That same evening, 60 Minutes aired pictures from Iraq's Abu Ghraib prison documenting mistreatment of prisoners by the United States. The program, which had voiced during the trial that the Court, by exempting the president's sweepstakes habeas corpus review, the Court would allow the government and abuse from judicial scrutiny. The program, had sought to assuage this concern by saying "the last thing you want to do is torturing those lines."³ The pictures from Abu Ghraib and told it graphically. They undermined the government's trust in the executive and reinforced the Court's check on illegal government action.

The cases that had been consolidated in the *Rasul* cases, involved twelve Kuwaiti nationals, two British citizens and one Australian. The detainees had important connections to the United States since early 2002; and all had been denied any access to habeas petitions asserted that they were being held by the United States was detaining them. The government said that the detainees had gone to the United States to provide humanitarian aid and

had been seized by local villagers in e to the United States. The British detain had traveled to Pakistan to attend a r continue their computer education.

The issue before the Supreme Cou allegations against the men were tru courts have the power to consider the mine whether there was a legal basis f would control the outcome not only fo but also for the more than six hundr Guantánamo without judicial process. any, of the federal courts in reviewing offshore prisons.

Both the district and appellate co adopting the government's argument t sovereign territory of the United States constitutional protections. The lower government's argument that the detain or the Geneva Conventions. But they d role in reviewing those detentions or e prisoners might have. Instead, they sa prisoners at Guantánamo remained a not the courts, to decide.

The Bush administration relied p arguing that it established a categoric corpus review over the detention of a abroad.⁵ The fact that U.S. control ove as one Supreme Court justice noted, "e tected, made no difference because Gu U.S. territory and thus foreign nation courts.⁶

Eisentrager, however, differed from important respects. The prisoners in lished and limited category of "enem of an enemy nation at war with the U about their enmity" because they all a German government.⁷ By contrast, mo from allied or neutral nations. Furthe the detainees maintained that they w

exchange for bounties and turned over detainees' petitions explained that the men marriage ceremony, visit relatives, and

It was not whether the government's. It was more basic: did the federal their habeas corpus petitions and deter- for imprisonment? The Court's answer for the detainees in the case before them ed other prisoners then being held at . It would also affect the future role, if g challenges to U.S. detentions at other

courts had ruled against the detainees, that foreign nationals held outside the had no right to habeas corpus or other courts did not expressly endorse the ees had no protections under U.S. law did conclude that federal judges had no enforcing any legal protections that the id that the detention and treatment of matter for the political branches, and

principally on *Johnson v. Eisentrager*, al rule barring the exercise of habeas ny foreign national captured and held er Guantánamo was so extensive that, even . . . the Cuban Iguana[s]" are pro- antánamo remained outside sovereign nals there had no right to access U.S.

in the Guantánamo detainee cases in *Eisentrager* fell within the well-estab- y aliens"—that is, citizens or subjects nited States. There also was "no fiction dmitted to actively serving the enemy ost of the Guantánamo detainees came rmore, the overwhelming majority of ere innocent of any wrongdoing and

were not hostile to the United States or was the very fact in dispute. In addition, *Eisentrager* prisoners were held, differed from those created by the United States, Landsberg. Guantánamo by contrast, was located under exclusive jurisdiction and control of the United States. However, the courthouse doors were not open to the Supreme Court went on to consider whether the military commission was illegal, ultimately ruling that it was.

There was still another important difference. *Eisentrager* prisoners had been captured during a conventional war, the enemy was clearly defined, the battle lines were discernible. *Eisentrager* was thus rooted in a war according to defined parameters in terms of time and how long. By contrast, at Guantánamo, the United States sought to imprison people in a “war” without a clearly defined enemy. As long as the person had some connection to al Qaeda, the lines were ever tenuous, that person could be held indefinitely, without trial, and without a hearing. There was no armistice to mark the end of this new war, and the conflicts. Instead, the “war on terrorism” was never said it was over, and the president was authorized to make the detentions it justified—would last for good.

These differences influenced the Supreme Court's decision, highlighting the importance of habeas corpus and executive action. Yet the Court ultimately upheld the statute on grounds rather than overruling it or striking it down on constitutional questions it raised. *Eisentrager* distinguished the Court's earlier decision in *Ahrens v. Clark*, where the habeas statute required the prisoner's presence in the territorial jurisdiction.⁹ *Ahrens*, however, distinguished the habeas statute to require only the prisoner's presence in the court's territorial jurisdiction, and not the prisoner's presence. It held that because the writ of habeas corpus is a writ by commanding him to justify the prisoner's presence, a district court acts under the habeas statute as long as the

its allies. In other words, their enmity
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Supreme Court’s decision in *Rasul* by
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Applying the *Braden* rule, the Co
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Rasul's implications transcended G
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service of process.¹¹ *Braden*, to be sure, is a case in which the prisoner is captured abroad. The prisoner in *Braden* was serving a life sentence and sought to challenge in a Kentucky court a conviction Kentucky had lodged against him, requiring habeas relief for prosecution upon completion of his sentence. The court relied on precedents in which federal habeas corpus petitions filed by American service-members were granted, suggesting the broader applicability of the statute. Although the Bush administration argued that precedents involving American citizens, and the habeas corpus statute drew no distinction between prisoners supported the conclusion that the court could exercise jurisdiction over the

court held in *Rasul* that Guantánamo was within the federal habeas statute because the offense—terrorism—was within the jurisdiction of the district court there.¹³ The Court's support for constitutional "fundamentals," as Justice Souter said, allowed detainees to rely directly on the habeas statute for jurisdiction and as a source of rights.¹⁴

Guantánamo. While the Court emphasized its control over the Guantánamo naval base, the scope of habeas review of U.S. detentions at Guantánamo turned on its power over federal government property (located in Washington, D.C.), rather than on the base itself. Justice Antonin Scalia viewed the Court's expansion of habeas to Guantánamo as undermining the Court in his dissenting opinion. He argued that habeas corpus "to the four corners of the globe" invited interference with the executive in the name of national security. The Court for "spring[ing] a trap" on the basis of precedents like *Eisentrager*, that the Court had held that aliens without habeas corpus as long as they were in U.S. custody. The president, Scalia observed, had used Guantánamo to avoid judicial review and to create a new legal landscape, and it was unfair to hold the president liable for the actions of his administration. While Congress was free to

pass a law creating habeas corpus review. Justice Scalia said, nothing in the habeas statute precluded that review now.

Justice Anthony Kennedy issued a dissenting judgment. He agreed that Guantanamo was within habeas corpus, but he declined to adopt the majority's rationale. Instead, Kennedy opted for a content-neutral approach. On his earlier opinion in *Verdugo-Urquidez*, he had first examined the particular circumstances of the habeas challenge and concluded that the challenge fell "within the proper realm of political authority over military operations and should not enter."¹⁶ In some instances, this categorical approach, as in *Eisentrager*, in which habeas corpus had not have had a clear harmful effect on the national interest might permit, if not invite, judicial supervision of the situation at Guantanamo, where prisoners were held out of charge and without an adequate process for review. A place that was "in every practical respect within the realm of political authority."

Rasul left open important questions about what habeas proceedings look like, and what other rights prisoners would have once they were before a federal judge. The question of whether habeas corpus extend to prisoners held at Guantanamo, whether at Bagram, at CIA "black sites," or at other places right dependent on federal statute and executive order, and by Congress, or was it instead grounded in common law, immune from legislative interference, was still open. The writ? Notwithstanding these questions, the decision struck at a central pillar of the "war on terror" that evade judicial review simply by imprisoning detainees. Major legal battles remained. But with the decision granting habeas corpus jurisdiction, Guantanamo was no longer the law were over.

The same day that it issued *Rasul*, the Supreme Court issued its decision in *Hamdi v. Rumsfeld*.¹⁹ The habeas petition was submitted by Hamdi's father as "next of kin" because Hamdi was incommunicado and thus could not petition for habeas. Hamdi, an American citizen, had traveled to Afghanistan in 2001 to do relief work and became trapped in the hands of the Taliban.

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petition disputed that Hamdi had received that he be provided access to a lawyer and the Constitution's requirements of due process.²⁰ The two-page affidavit signed by Michael Mobbs, then the under secretary of defense for policy, stated that Hamdi was affiliated with a Taliban military unit at the time of his arrival in Afghanistan. Mobbs also claimed that Hamdi was a Taliban unit after the 9/11 attacks and that he was part of the Northern Alliance. When Hamdi's lawyer requested that he be forced to hand over his Kalashnikov, the government did not base any of these allegations on facts. Instead, it relied on his review of unspecified records and statements from interrogations by his captors, all of which were hearsay. Although the United States had refused to comply with its own military regulations on the treatment of detainees, the government contended that federal court review was not required and stopped with the Mobbs affidavit. The Supreme Court set a bare-bones minimum of "some evidence" to support the government's contention that Hamdi was an "enemy combatant." Without that, a court had to dismiss Hamdi's habeas petition. The government, without ever hearing from Hamdi himself, won.

Robert G. Doumar, the Virginia district judge who had been assigned, refused to countenance the government's claims. Doumar criticized the generic and hearsay nature of the evidence, finding it "little more than the government's word." He ordered the Defense Department to give Hamdi access to his family and to the government to turn over, for the court's review, all documents bearing on the legality of Hamdi's detention. Hamdi exercised his habeas corpus powers to force the government to disclose what it could determine whether there was a legal basis for his detention.

Before any hearing could go forward, Hamdi's lawyer was protesting the district court's interference. The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit stepped in and reversed. The Fourth Circuit ruled that Hamdi's detention did not immunize him from military law. He was a citizen of his country and its allies in a foreign theater of war. The court found that Hamdi was not entitled to the same level of protection, citing the burdens on the military of

received military training and demanded a court review and a hearing that met the Constitution. The government responded with a two-page affidavit, a self-identified special adviser to the president on military policy. According to Mobbs, Hamdi was captured in Afghanistan and received weapons training after his capture. Mobbs claimed that Hamdi remained with his unit until the unit engaged in combat against the Taliban. When the unit surrendered, Mobbs said, Hamdi was armed with an AK-47 assault rifle. Notably, Mobbs did not have firsthand knowledge but relied solely on reports from military officials, including reports of Hamdi's capture. The affidavit had been compiled in a situation in which the government did not follow the Geneva Conventions or its obligations regarding the treatment of enemy prisoners.²¹ The government's review of Hamdi's habeas petition started in 2002. As long as the affidavit provided a "substantial basis" to support the president's determination that Hamdi was an "enemy combatant," the government maintained, it would not grant the petition without further inquiry and review.

The district judge to whom Hamdi's case had been assigned expressed such blind deference to the executive branch that he dismissed the hearsay nature of the Mobbs affidavit, calling it "a mere 'say so.'" ²² He therefore directed the government to produce access to his lawyers and ordered the government to produce a review, records of Hamdi's interrogations, and other information regarding Hamdi's capture, and other information regarding Hamdi's detention. Doumar, in short, sought to create a meaningful process so that he could establish a legal and factual basis to hold Hamdi.

Hamdi's appeal, however, the government appealed, and the Supreme Court, in deference with the executive's wartime powers, the Ninth Circuit agreed to hear the appeal. The government argued that Hamdi's American citizenship did not entitle him to detention for taking up arms against the United States in theater of war.²³ The appeals court also required Hamdi to talk to a lawyer or to a hearing in court, and to be able to litigating the circumstances of battle-

field captures before a federal judge had ruled, the Supreme Court limited its decision to what it described as the detention of an American citizen in a combat zone overseas. The majority opinion stressed that Hamdi's continued detention was "inconsistent with our historical concepts of war,"²⁶ a function of the unique circumstances of Hamdi's capture, as Justice Souter's dissenting opinion, were not "undisputed." The majority, given an opportunity to explain what it meant by "inconsistent" to a judge or to a properly constituted military tribunal, in short, had never provided any legal basis for concluding that Hamdi was, in fact, a combatant who took part in hostilities and its allies with a Taliban regiment in Afghanistan. Hamdi was a UN aid worker in the wrong place at the wrong time.

Judge Motz's analysis ultimately prevailed. The Supreme Court narrowly upheld the president's authority to designate an "enemy combatant" a person allegedly fighting alongside enemy government forces or in support of its allies—a person, that is, whose detention was based on clearly established and long-standing legal authority. The Court resoundingly rejected the proposition that Hamdi was detained without due process and therefore entitled to a judicial hearing through his habeas corpus writ. The Court ruled against him.

Justice Sandra Day O'Connor wrote the majority opinion for a plurality of four justices. She determined that the president was authorized to detain Hamdi as an "enemy combatant" under the Authorization for Use of Military Force (AUMF) if the facts about him were true. O'Connor cited the Supreme Court's decision in *Ex parte Quirin* for the proposition that the president's authority to detain from military capture and detention was not limited to his own government on behalf of an enemy. The Court in *Quirin* had been an American citizen who, in response to the government's invitation to read the AUMF, had volunteered for Hamdi's detention as part of a global military campaign. The Court affirmed the government's legal authority to detain individuals who were in the armed conflict in Afghanistan who were not citizens. To open the possibility that the definition of "enemy combatant" could pass other situations and fact patterns, the Court limited its holding in *Hamdi* to individuals who were "part

halfway across the globe.²⁴ The appeals described as the undisputed capture of an overseas.²⁵ But no matter how much the military detention fell “neatly within a fundamental problem remained. The circuit judge Diana Gribbon Motz noted in her opinion, “since Hamdi had never been captured, he was doing in Afghanistan, whether by a military tribunal.²⁷ The government, a legitimate process to determine whether Hamdi took up arms against the United States in Afghanistan or instead was an innocent man at the wrong time.

prevailed. In its *Hamdi* decision, the Court affirmed the president’s legal authority to detain as an enemy combatant captured on a battlefield where he was fighting against the United States and its allies. The Court said was supported by the laws of war principles. But the Court held that Hamdi could be detained indefinitely and mandated that he be given a judicial hearing to challenge the allegations against him.

Justice O’Connor wrote the controlling opinion for a plurality of the Court. She argued that Congress had authorized the president to detain an “enemy combatant” under its September 2001 Authorization for Use of Military Force (AUMF) if the allegations against Hamdi were true. She cited the Supreme Court’s World War II decision in *Ex parte Quirin* that American citizens were not immune from prosecution when they took up arms against their country’s enemy nation. (At least one of the Nazi saboteurs was an American citizen.) But O’Connor declined to expand the AUMF more broadly by endorsing a “war on terrorism.” Instead, she based Hamdi’s detention on Hamdi’s alleged participation in the fight with the Taliban. While O’Connor left open the possibility that a definition of “enemy combatant” might encompass individuals who are not part of or supporting forces hostile to the United States, she limited the definition of that term to individuals who are part of or supporting forces hostile to the United States.

United States or its coalition partners in an armed conflict against the United States, sized that Hamdi could not be detained without due process, thus rejecting one of the government's arguments against him.²⁹

O'Connor, however, saved her share of the contention that it could imprison Hamdi. A "state of war," she said, "is not a time when the rights of the Nation's citizens are suspended. The writ of habeas corpus could vest the executive with the power to detain. Unless Congress took that momentous step, a citizen could not be detained without due process. The minimum included a meaningful opportunity to be heard. Allegations before a neutral decision maker. A prisoner be provided access to his lawyer. Habeas corpus not allowed Hamdi until shortly before the decision. In his case and only then as a matter of course. Habeas access could be revoked at any time."³¹

O'Connor also identified some possible alternatives in order to accommodate the government's need of having to litigate an overseas battlefield capture. Hearsay, she said, might be the most "practical" alternative. Military officers would not necessarily have to appear in court to testify during a war.³² O'Connor also noted that a properly constituted military tribunal could provide for due process for battlefield captures. The process was provided promptly and in the manner required by the regulations and international law.³³ But if a court provided in the first instance by such a tribunal, a federal court must supply an adequate process if the government is litigating in federal court.

Two other opinions staked out broader alternatives to the government's claim that Hamdi could be held as an "enemy combatant," even assuming that the allegations were true. In those opinions, Justice David Souter, also joined by Chief Justice Rehnquist, found that the AUMF lacked the clear authority to authorize indefinite detention of an American citizen. He cited the mass internment of Japanese Americans during World War II. He found no reason why Congress would

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utive power to deal with allegedly dangerous individuals, given the array of existing federal criminal laws and the detention of those suspected of plotting, such as the AUMF. Souter acknowledged that the AUMF authorized the military detention of soldiers captured in violation of customary law of war principles. He argued that Hamdi's detention as an "enemy combatant" violated those very principles by holding Hamdi without the required military hearing, conducted after capture, to show that he was entitled to habeas corpus as an innocent civilian.³⁶ Souter, in short, sought to use the laws of war to augment his power to detain, thereby avoiding the constraints that the Constitution placed on that power. Or, put another way, what would be the point of a habeas hearing in district court, Souter argued, if it had no authority for Hamdi's military detention?

The most sweeping rejection of the majority's reasoning came from Justice Scalia, ordinarily considered one of the Court's most liberal jurists. Scalia's opinion, which was joined by five of the Court's most liberal jurists, concluded that the military detention of an American citizen without suspending habeas corpus violated the Constitution. Scalia's opinion was a sharp departure from O'Connor's in the following respect: O'Connor would guarantee a prisoner a meaningful habeas corpus hearing. Instead, habeas corpus secured by a military trial under the Bill of Rights unless Congress suspends it.

The Constitution, Scalia said, permitted suspension of habeas corpus in only a few well-recognized instances: the mentally ill and the wartime detention of enemy combatants. No precedent or basis for dispensing with trial existed in Hamdi's case, in which the prisoner was held on mere suspicion of dangerousness. To the majority, the detention of enemies of state had traditionally been justified by treason or other criminal offenses.³⁷ The majority departed from that norm after the September 11 attacks, allowing individuals indefinitely without trial to be held as "enemy combatants." No longer would they be tested through the criminal process.

dangerous citizens in the United States, criminal laws designed for the prosecution, supporting, or committing terrorism.³⁵ F could be interpreted to permit the on a battlefield during wartime based But he refused to sanction Hamdi's because the administration had flouted Hamdi incommunicado and denying him ed close in time and place to Hamdi's o prisoner of war status or to release as t, criticized the president's reliance on as commander in chief while deliber- laws of war imposed on the exercise of O'Connor sought to remedy through a r sought to nullify by denying any legal on altogether.

ne administration's position, however, one of the Court's most conservative ned by Justice John Paul Stevens, one cluded that Congress could not autho- rican citizen in the United States with- s conception of habeas corpus differed pect. Habeas, Scalia said, did not sim- l judicial inquiry into the basis for his ured the protections of a full criminal Congress took the momentous step of

mitted detention without criminal pro- stances, such as civil commitment of ention of enemy aliens. There was no th that constitutional requirement in was being held without trial based on contrary, Scalia explained, suspected en subject to criminal prosecution for The Bush administration had deviated attacks by claiming the power to hold as long as the president labeled them uld the government's accusations be Henceforth, suspects could simply be

incarcerated under the AUMF rather than their alleged crimes. Thus, whereas O’Connor’s concerns of liberty and national security prompted her to grant habeas corpus hearings to challenge their military detention, Chief Justice Roberts, by rejecting the possibility of detention without habeas corpus Suspension Clause, he said, provided the executive from holding Hamdi without trial. Chief Justice Roberts said Congress exercised its emergency power.

Yet Scalia’s opinion was also exceedingly narrow, applying only to American citizens in the United States. It did not apply to non-citizens detained overseas, prompting O’Connor to call it a “perverse incentive” to keep Americans in the United States when captured abroad. In dissent, Scalia’s opinion did not apply to foreigners. He said that the right to habeas corpus to the thousands of foreign national detainees at Guantánamo, Cuba. The right to be free from unlawful detention is not a human right but a right that depends on the location. This right, therefore, not only applied to citizens of the United States but also remained subject to the laws of the territory controlled where a prisoner would be held.

Clarence Thomas was the only justice to dissent from the majority’s position.⁴⁰ He called for a hands-off approach during wartime, even when the detainee is in the United States. In his view, habeas corpus is not available to an “enemy combatant” and did not afford any rights. Thomas thus envisioned only the executive’s power to detain. Justices, he said, could not “second-guess the executive” in the “war on terrorism.”⁴¹ Thomas’ dissent was a minority report on the Court. And although *Hamdi* did not address the executive detention power and reaffirmed the executive’s power as a check against arbitrary and illegal detention.

The third “enemy combatant” case before the Court, *Rumsfeld v. Padilla*, involved the bolded indefinite military detention of an American citizen in the United States. The Court, however, avoided

than charged, tried, and punished for. O'Connor sought to balance competing priorities by giving prisoners habeas corpus without trial altogether. The habeas provided the basis for that line and barred without charging him with a crime unless the power of suspending the writ.

It was strikingly narrow. It applied only to Americans and did not apply to American citizens or to criticize the opinion for creating an exception for citizens abroad instead of bringing them outside the country.³⁸ More importantly, it applied only to foreign nationals. It thus offered no solution for the thousands of Americans held by the United States without trial at Guantanamo, Bagram, and other offshore prisons.³⁹ Habeas corpus, under Scalia's reasoning, was limited to American citizens and depended on a person's citizenship and nationality. It was confined to a limited category of cases and was not subject to manipulation by the executive who held the power.

Justice Alito's dissent to endorse the Bush administration's "offshore" policy in reviewing detentions during the war on terror. It was an American citizen imprisoned abroad. Habeas corpus guaranteed review only of the government's authority to hold the prisoner as an "enemy combatant." It required review of the president's factual assertions and not the most minimal judicial involvement. The dissent's determinations made by the President were not subject to review. Justice Alito's view, however, garnered no support. The dissent, like *Rasul*, left important questions unanswered. It affirmed the administration's claim of unreviewable executive action and undermined the importance of habeas corpus as a check on government action.

Before the Supreme Court that term, the dissent's most assertive assertion of presidential power: the detention of an American citizen arrested in the United States. The dissent was deciding whether Padilla's detention

was legal. Instead, it resolved the case of Padilla (or, more precisely, Padilla's habeas petition, which he had filed while incommunicado at the time) had filed by the wrong person and in the wrong court. Writing for the majority, Justice Rehnquist said that a prisoner must sue his immediate custodian and in the jurisdiction of that custodian. For Padilla, that meant suing the commander of the military base where he was imprisoned (not the secretary of defense) in the federal district court in South Carolina (not in New York where Padilla was a combatant"). Rehnquist acknowledged that neither the prisoner's immediate custodian nor the base was within the jurisdiction of any district court. The Supreme Court confronted in *Rasul*, in which the writ was granted because their physical jailers were located outside the United States, a federal court. But Rehnquist refused to grant the writ to "combatants" held inside the United States. Padilla's habeas petition failed all over again by filing a new habeas petition in the wrong court. Like Padilla, al-Marri had filed his habeas petition in the wrong court where he had originally been declared a combatant (the Central District of Illinois) rather than the district where he was subsequently confined following his transfer to the federal district of South Carolina).⁴³ The *Padilla* decision would be able to litigate these two cases, which would test domestic military detention power in South Carolina and which was widely expected to be heard by the conservative federal circuit in the country. The Supreme Court's rejection of this most extraordinary assertion of power, one that habeas corpus was designed to prevent, was delayed as the two cases had to work their way through the courts once again.

Rehnquist's decision prompted a sharp dissent from three other justices (Souter, Ginsburg, and Breyer). They criticized the Court for mechanically applying the rule that actions should be brought against the custodian of confinement—to a situation that the Court had relaxed this rule before, and the Court was now so again to fulfill the writ's historic purpose.

on narrow and technical grounds: that lawyers, since Padilla was being held in the habeas petition against the wrong court for a majority of five, Chief Justice Roberts formally bring a habeas action against the judicial district where he was confined. The remainder of the navy brig where he was held (in the name of the president) and filing suit in the district court in the district where the navy brig was located where he was originally detained as an “enemy combatant” is an exception to this general rule when the habeas petitioner is not a citizen nor his place of confinement is in the district court—the very situation that the Court rejected in both the Guantánamo detainees and the Hamdi case. Outside the territorial jurisdiction of any court, the Court is to relax that rule for alleged “enemy combatants.”⁴² As a result, Padilla had to start his habeas petition in South Carolina. So did Ali Hamza al-Marri, reviewed by the Supreme Court at the time. The habeas corpus petition in the district court was filed as an “enemy combatant” (in al-Marri’s case) rather than in the district where he was held. The transfer to military custody (the District Court’s decision thus meant that the government could not test cases challenging the president’s authority in the Fourth Circuit, which included the most politically sensitive cases). It also meant that definitive resolution of executive detention authority—without a prompt remedy—would be further delayed on their way through the federal courts.

Justice Souter dissented from Justice Stevens, which Justice Alito, and Stephen Breyer) joined. Stevens argued for applying a general rule—that habeas jurisdiction is in the prisoner’s present district court—rather than for an exception. The Court’s decision in the facts of Padilla’s case demanded it do so. The purpose of affording relief from unlawful

confinement. “At stake,” Stevens insisted, “is a free society.”⁴⁴ Stevens focused his anger on the evasions and circumvention of the legislation for secretly whisking Padilla from Guantanamo, then using that transfer to delay judicial review. He noted that Padilla’s lawyer had filed the habeas petition, but also rebuked the government for holding Padilla incommunicado, warning that America “must not resist an assault by the forces of tyranny.”

When Padilla refiled his habeas petition, he was entitled to at least the same judicial review that was ordered for Hamdi, who had been seized in the United States. Padilla thus would have some opportunity to present facts in support of his legal question of whether Padilla could be held based on his alleged criminal activity—without the president’s detention powers in the “war on terror.”

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But Judge Robert G. Doumar issued an order that Hamdi must be remanded from the Supreme Court if the government could continue to detain him if it proved that Hamdi was, in fact, a citizen of the United States in Afghanistan. The government had already notified Judge Doumar that it would not allow Hamdi's return to Saudi Arabia. But the delay. So he scheduled a hearing for the next day. At that hearing, ordered the government to provide Hamdi's lawyers, including statements of Hamdi's interrogations so that Hamdi would be able to defend himself against him.¹

Scheduled to take place, a U.S. military court in Saudi Arabia. Hamdi then took a commercial flight to Saudi Arabia's eastern coast where he was reunited with his family. Upon release, Hamdi agreed to renounce his citizenship and to leave Saudi Arabia for five years or more. The agreement did not require or request that Hamdi be deported. On the contrary, the government stated that Hamdi's presence in Saudi Arabia would not require [Hamdi's] removal from Saudi Arabia following

Hamdi's case demonstrated the importance of habeas corpus. The administration had claimed Hamdi was not a citizen of the United States that he had to be detained in Guantanamo. Indeed, the administration argued that a federal judge must approve any detention of Hamdi, even giving Hamdi himself a chance

to be heard. Hamdi's release suggests most was not Hamdi but a hearing before evidence and inquire into Hamdi's treatment. The release of Hamdi to avoid that hearing raised questions about the strength of its evidence that Hamdi was an enemy combatant against the United States in Afghanistan. The release of hundreds of similarly situated prisoners based on untested and unexamined hearings highlighted the government's fear that its actions would be exposed. The government responded by taking steps to prevent the habeas petitions from leading to a meaningful judicial inquiry.

On July 7, 2004, just days after the release of Hamdi, Deputy Secretary of Defense Paul Wolfowitz announced the Combatant Status Review Tribunal (CSRT) purported to provide detainees a hearing to determine if they were "enemy combatants" before three military officers. But the CSRT's real purpose was to create a rubber-stamping earlier decisions by the military. The CSRT's decisions were "enemy combatants," decisions that had already gone through multiple levels of review by officers of the military. The CSRT presumed were "genuine and

The CSRT lacked every element of a fair hearing. Detainees were shackled hand and foot for the entire hearing. They had no opportunity to see most of the allegations against them or to confront their accusers. They also had no right of assistance. Instead, they were provided with a hearing that proved worse than no representative at all. In many cases, representatives met with a detainee one week before the detainee's CSRT hearing. The hearing was spent discussing the nature of the allegations rather than the facts of the case. In many CSRT hearings, the personal representatives of the detainee, and, in more than half the cases in which a representative made substantive comments, he or she advocated for the detainee.

The CSRT hearings amounted to no more than a hearing. They did not produce a single witness at any of the hearings. The CSRT failed to provide any documentary evidence to the detainees at hearings in 96 percent of the cases. In

s that what the administration feared before a judge who would scrutinize its treatment. The government's decision to raised serious doubts not only about the as a member of the Taliban who fought tan but also its evidence against hun- at Guantánamo who were being held hearsay allegations. In addition, it high- abuse of detainees would be examined led in the Guantánamo cases by trying going forward and thus avoiding any

Supreme Court issued *Rasul v. Bush*, Alford announced the creation of the CSRT) for Guantánamo detainees. The a chance to contest their designation -member panels of military officers.³ eate the appearance of a process while he executive branch that the detainees that had already been made “through of the Department of Defense” and that d accurate.”⁴

of a fair process. Detainees remained hearing. They were denied the oppor- against them, which remained classified, o were denied all legal advice and assis- n “personal representatives,” who often at all. In most cases, these personal nce for no more than ninety minutes a ng. The bulk of the meeting, moreover, CSRT process and the representative's itself. In more than one-third of the ative made no substantive comments, hich the representative did make sub- ed *against* the detainee.⁵

mini-show trials. The government did the hundreds of CSRT hearings. It also vidence to the detainees before their nstead, the government relied almost

exclusively on unreliable hearsay, which was often provided by one detainee against another in order to implicate the other. The detainees, meanwhile, could not present their own evidence. The tribunal deemed it “reasonably available” to provide the detainees the opportunity to present any evidence at all. The detainees were often unable to produce evidence showing their innocence, including every request to produce a witness, and the tribunal often denied other requests included contacting a family member to verify a detainee’s story; locating a doctor to examine the detainee’s whereabouts; obtaining medical records; and reviewing documents from court proceedings that excluded the detainee.

In one case, the prisoner, Haji Bismullah, was accused of being the brother of an Afghan government spokesman. The spokesman’s brother would verify that he had fought against the Taliban and had served as a local leader in Afghanistan. The CSRT acknowledged that the spokesman would be relevant but claimed that he had failed to consider letters and petitions from Afghan government officials and officers from Afghan government officials. The spokesman denied the government’s claim that Bismullah was his brother.

The CSRT frequently relied on evidence obtained through torture or other coercion. Not only is such evidence “inherently unreliable and unjust,”⁸ but it is inherently unreliable because it is often distorted to stop their suffering. As the CSRT explained, “The use of torture and other coercive interrogations explains, the ‘use of torture and other coercive interrogations’ technique that yields unreliable results. The CSRT explained, ‘The use of torture and other coercive interrogations’ efforts, and can induce the source to provide information that the source wants to hear.’”¹⁰ Nonetheless, the CSRT often relied on evidence that they had made statements under duress without checking or verifying available evidence such as the CSRT confirmed the use of harsh interrogations and the unreliability of the statements on which it relied. The CSRT found that Afghan detainees falsely confessed under duress to the killing of Osama bin Laden. One technique used was “shackling.” As the men explained, “We were often shackled with our hands chained between our feet. If we were not shackled, over, the chains would cut into our hands. The CSRT explained, ‘The use of torture and other coercive interrogations’ to establish the veracity of the confessions. The CSRT explained, ‘The use of torture and other coercive interrogations’ evidence later determined was false.”¹²

ch often consisted of statements made in order to curry favor with interrogators. “I present evidence in their defense unless available.” Typically, this meant no opportunity. The CSRT denied requests by detainees claiming innocence 74 percent of the time, including those who was not already at Guantánamo. One detainee contacted a close family member by telephone to show his brother’s passport to demonstrate his whereabouts from a hospital; and getting documented the prisoner.⁶

Bismullah, asked the CSRT to locate his brother. Bismullah maintained that his brother fought alongside the United States to defeat the Taliban. An official in the transitional government testified that Bismullah’s brother’s testimony could not be located. The CSRT also reviewed evidence sent to U.S. military and diplomatic officials and community elders refuting Bismullah’s claim that he was an enemy combatant.⁷

Evidence secured through torture and coercion is “offensive to a civilized system of justice” because prisoners tend to fabricate or exaggerate. As the *Army Field Manual* on interrogation and other illegal methods is a poor source of information, may damage subsequent collection efforts, and may lead to false confessions, “interrogators should say what he thinks the [interrogator] would say.” The CSRT routinely ignored detainees’ claims of duress. The CSRT refused even to review evidence such as medical records that would have documented the interrogation methods and thus undermined the reliability of the evidence it was relying.¹¹ In one case, three British detainees claimed that they were “affiliated with” a group. Evidence against them was known as “short interrogations.” They were forced to squat without a chair, their hands and feet chained to the floor. If we fell down, we were beaten.” The CSRT, however, did nothing to investigate the confession—a confession that British intelli-

The CSRT also routinely relied on statements obtained through torture and abuse. Mohammed al-Qahtani named the most abusive interrogation tactics used against thirty other detainees.¹³ None of those named by al-Qahtani had named them or had any knowledge that the accusations were false. The CSRT simply relied on statements from prisoners tortured at CIA “black sites” without a chance to examine or rebut the allegations.

The CSRT’s procedural shortcomings were exacerbated by its embrace of sweeping and broadly defined “enemy combatant” far more expansive than done in *Hamdi* or than the law of war would permit. The president’s authority to detain a soldier captured in combat alongside Taliban forces fighting against the United States, if the government had itself previously declared the area to be a battlefield. The CSRT, however, broadly authorized detention of anyone who was part of or who supported al Qaeda, Taliban, or other groups, wherever in the world.¹⁶ This support, moreover, was defined broadly. Under the CSRT, the president could detain anyone who was on the land who writes checks to what she thought was a charity in Afghanistan but [what] really is a front for al Qaeda.

The U.S. government insisted that detainees who had “returned to the battlefield” to prevent them from “returning to the battlefield” and that the battlefield often bore little relation to the actual location. Its own unclassified data estimated that only a small number of detainees had actually fought on a battlefield. The CSRT defined “returning to the battlefield” as anyone who had “returned to militant activities” or who had “returned to their mistreatment after leaving Guantanamo Bay.” The *New York Times* criticizing the United States’ definition of “returning to the battlefield” as “returning to militant activities” or “returning to their mistreatment after leaving Guantanamo Bay.”

The evidence to support the government’s definition of “enemy combatant” was often shocking. It consisted of vague assertions, hearsay statements, and uncorroborated reports of raw, unverified intelligence reports. To defend its allegations, the government often relied on hearsay. It would say that the allegations must be true because the government ultimately prompting one incredulous detainee to say: *The Hunting of the Snark*: “I have said that because I believe it to be true.”²¹ The CSRT thus helped institut

statements of other prisoners obtained from al-Qahtani, the victim of some of the interrogations at Guantánamo, reportedly implicated other detainees, however, never knew that al-Qahtani had the opportunity to show that al-Qahtani's statements were similarly relied on statements obtained from "black sites" without giving detainees a chance to respond.¹⁴

The government's arguments and reliance on torture were exacting of the detention authority. Wolfowitz's order was broader than the Supreme Court had contemplated. *Hamdi* upheld the presidential authority to detain individuals captured on a battlefield in Afghanistan against the United States and its allies—what the government described as "classic wartime detention."¹⁵ The government argued the detention of any individual who was a member of the Taliban, or "associated forces" anywhere, and moreover, did not have to be intentional. The government argued it could detain even "a little old lady in Switzerland who runs a charity that helps orphans in Afghanistan who are trying to finance al-Qaeda activities."

The government argued it needed to detain "enemy combatants who are on the battlefield."¹⁷ But its concept of "enemy combatants" did not fit reality. A study of the government's detention policy found only a small percentage of Guantánamo detainees were on the battlefield.¹⁸ The Bush administration also argued the definition was so broadly that it included detainees who were "enemy combatants" by speaking out publicly against the government in Guantánamo¹⁹ or publishing an op-ed in the United States' detention policy.²⁰

The government's claim that a detainee was an enemy combatant was often very weak, sometimes consisting only of statements from other detainees, and summaries of those statements of questionable accuracy. When called to court, the government frequently did no better than to argue that a detainee was an enemy combatant since the government said they were, and the government's judge to invoke Lewis Carroll's poem "What I Tell You Three Times Is True": What I tell you three times is true. The government's argument to justify the use of force is to rationalize an open-ended, extrajudicial

global detention system that dispensed justice or the costs of its own errors.

The Defense Department conducted the CSRT process in 2004. In most cases, the tribunal reached its decision before the hearing began. Within two months, most cases were completed.²² The CSRT found all enemy combatants whose cases it considered to be “enemy combatants,” that is, that they had ceased to be enemy combatants. An error had been made in classifying them as enemy combatants. *Mistake* were not in the CSRT’s vocabulary.

The Defense Department also instituted a procedure: the Administrative Review Board (ARB) to remedy the CSRT’s flaws. The ARB procedure was to determine whether those determined to be “enemy combatants” were enemy combatants today.²⁵ The ARB thus did not determine whether someone was an enemy combatant but, rather, assumed the detainee was an enemy combatant and decided only whether release was appropriate. In practice, the ARB had little, if any, impact on the outcome of a decision that typically turned on political considerations by the detainee’s home government rather than the determination of the detainee himself. Thus, many detainees remained in Guantánamo after ARB hearings continued to be held. Hundreds of detainees who were returned to their home countries eligible to leave were never cleared through the ARB process. Of those detainees purportedly cleared through the ARB, many did not show up for their ARB hearings.²⁶

In addition to creating bogus procedures, the Bush administration undermined the habeas corpus by resisting their access to courts. Habeas corpus, as the Court said, was a privilege. As such, it was subject to “the wisdom and discretion” and was subject to what the government thought fit to impose.²⁷ Those limitations, the administration’s audio and visual monitoring and review of attorney-client mail: flagrant violations of the attorney-client privilege impede the development of attorney-client relationships and effective representation.²⁸ “We were just trying to get on with implementing the *Rasul* decision,” said a senior government official.²⁹

ed with any concern for credible evi-
ced its first CSRT hearing in August
ched a decision the same day that the
nearly all the CSRT hearings had been
cept thirty-eight of the 558 detainees
ny combatants.”²³ And in those thirty-
the detainees were “no longer enemy
sed to be “enemy combatants,” not that
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ny combatants” should remain in cus-
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Guantánamo detainees’ right to habeas
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rowing up these obstacles in the way
a former navy lawyer remarked of the

Federal district judge Colleen Kollar-Kotelly proposed limits on attorney-client communication consistent with the requirements of habeas corpus. She ruled that Guantánamo detainees had a right to meaningful access to a lawyer. She emphasized the function of habeas: enabling prisoners to challenge their detention, including by providing them a “right to a court.”³⁰

In September 2004, the first civilian habeas petition since the government started bringing habeas petitions one-half year earlier.³¹ Over time, human rights advocates from the United States to Guantánamo began to shed light on the detention center by shedding light on what had been shrouded in secrecy. No longer the only source of information about Guantánamo, the media help provide an alternative—and draw attention to what was at Guantánamo, why they were there, and how they were being treated.³² Media, human rights advocates, law enforcement, military, and intelligence agencies played a vital role in making the pervasive abuse at Guantánamo released, a number of detainees spoke out, and lawyers remained the only nongovernmental advocates for those still detained at Guantánamo, as well as the requests of international bodies and human rights groups.³⁴ Lawyers’ accounts, made possible by the media, altered public perception, exposing the lie that Guantánamo was the “worst of the worst” and that its prisoners were “unlawful enemy combatants.”

Lawyers, however, also operated under significant restrictions. Their ability to communicate with detainees was restricted. Restrictions were codified in a protective order that gave judges in every Guantánamo detainee habeas proceeding a protective order provided for unmonitored communication. Established procedures for attorneys to communicate with detainees, including attorneys learned from their clients, had to be submitted to and reviewed by the court, and nothing could be made public.³⁵ Consequently, habeas proceedings had to be submitted for review by the court. Over the United States, had to view any

lar-Kotelly rejected the government's communications, finding them inconceivable. The Supreme Court had the right to habeas corpus. If that was asserted, detainees must have meaningful opportunity to present facts to a

An attorney traveled to Guantánamo and hundreds of lawyers made the journey there, and their visits helped transform practices that had previously been the U.S. government's policy at Guantánamo. Lawyers would henceforth account of who was being detained, and how they were being treated, and others, including some intelligence officials, also played an important role in making the situation at Guantánamo public. And once the world knew about their mistreatment.³³ But the government source of information about Guantánamo continued to refuse requests from the United States and other organizations to meet with prisoners and to provide habeas corpus relief. The habeas corpus process, helped by the fact that Guantánamo contained only the prisoners who were all being treated "humanely," allowed attorneys to visit detainees under significant restrictions, limited to one hour per week, and to advocate for their clients. These habeas corpus orders entered by federal district courts in habeas corpus cases. Although the process of habeas corpus and attorney-client communications and visits to detainees, it also stated that any information about the process was presumptively classified and declassified by a government "privilege team" before release. In addition, attorneys' notes taken during client interviews, and lawyers, who were based all over the world, were not approved for public dis-

closure at a secure facility near Washington, D.C. These legal obstacles to effective representation prevented lawyers from sharing any classified information with the very information the government was trying to keep secret.

These restrictions, however, paled in comparison to other efforts to shut down the habeas process. The Bush administration moved to dismiss habeas petitions that had been filed in federal court, arguing that the court could not enforce and that, in any event, the Constitution did not require. In essence, the government took the position that habeas corpus meant nothing more than a procedural formality; once the clerk stamped it "received," the court could dismiss it, without conducting any inquiry into the merits. In January 2005, two district judges issued conflicting rulings on the basic issue of whether habeas corpus would play.

In one decision, District Judge Richard Posner took the position. All the Supreme Court had said in *Hamdi* was that Guantánamo detainees could file habeas petitions under the habeas statute. The Supreme Court, however, had said that Guantánamo detainees had any rights to habeas corpus. In fact, Guantánamo detainees did not have habeas corpus because they were aliens captured and held in a foreign territory. Furthermore, he maintained, any rights to habeas corpus were based on national law, including the Geneva Conventions, not on the political branches, and not by the CSRT's broad definition of "enemy combatant." The government could seize individuals anywhere in the world, he argued, based on their alleged involvement in terrorism.

Judge Joyce Hens Green reached the opposite conclusion. She issued her decision just days later.³⁹ "It is clear," she wrote, "that constitutional rights apply."⁴⁰ Drawing on the precedent set by *Rasul*, Judge Green concluded that "the Constitution does not flag any governmental authority untrammelled by the process of law."⁴¹ The only question the court needed to ask was whether a fair hearing that the Constitution requires was being held. Years in a U.S. enclave like Guantánamo, she argued, were no: the CSRT relied primarily on classified information to

ington, D.C., creating enormous logistical problems. The protective order also prohibited sharing information with their clients, including those who were relying on to detain them.³⁶ In a decision in comparison with the government's habeas corpus litigation. In October 2004, the court dismissed all the habeas corpus petitions that argued that the detainees had no rights to habeas corpus. The CSRT satisfied any rights they had. In a decision that for Guantánamo detainees, the court held that the right to file a piece of paper in court was "devoid," the judge had no choice but to dismiss the petition. In a decision that inquired into the government's allegations. In Washington, D.C., issued conflicting decisions. The courts had any meaningful role to play.

Judge J. Leon endorsed the government's position. In a decision decided in *Rasul*, Leon said, was that habeas corpus petitions under the federal habeas corpus statute, he reasoned, did not say that Guantanamo Bay was in the United States. Leon then determined that in habeas corpus cases, habeas corpus petitions filed in the United States and held outside the United States. Further, the detainees might have under international law, could be enforced only by the courts.³⁷ Judge Leon also ratified the government's position, finding that the president has the authority to detain them indefinitely, without trial or association with terrorism.³⁸

In a dissenting opinion, the opposite conclusion in an opinion by Judge J. Leon said, "that Guantánamo Bay must be considered as territory in which fundamental constitutional rights cannot exist under the American Constitution. The logic of both the Insular Cases and the habeas corpus statute cannot exist under the American Constitution. The question was whether the CSRT provided the habeas corpus rights required be given to individuals held for habeas corpus. And her answer was an emphatic no. The government presented classified evidence that a detainee could

not see or challenge, denied detainees considered evidence gained by torture. Green found that the CSRT's definition broadly, sanctioning detention based on direct involvement in hostilities or in

Judge Green pointed to the hearing to illustrate the CSRT's Kafkaesque nature. "associat[ing] with a known Al Qaida operative. Idr protested, could he possibly refute to tell him the operative's name? As Idr

Maybe I knew this person as a friend with me. Maybe it was a person that was this person is Bosnian, Indian or whatever can respond and defend myself against

But the government gave Idr no information himself, relying instead on secret evidence rebut.

The plight of another detainee, M. The United States said that Kurnaz was attended a mosque in Bremen, Germany al-Tabliq, a missionary organization organizations. It also claimed that Kurnaz bomber and had traveled to Pakistan to the United States never alleged that Kurnaz bomber or that he directly supported it. The government nevertheless sought documents that he never had an opportunity only found this one-sided proceeding. The government classified material herself, stated that the question the nature and thoroughness that Kurnaz was an "enemy combatant"

Portions of those classified documents to a Freedom of Information Act law that in 2002 German and American intelligence between Kurnaz and terrorist cells or his release. They also revealed that several of the Pentagon's Criminal Invest

the assistance of a lawyer, and freely and other coercion. In addition, Judge Green's definition of "enemy combatant" swept too broadly on mere association without any proof of individual guilt.⁴²

The transcript of Mustafa Ait Idr to illustrate. The United States had accused Idr of being an "operative" while living in Bosnia. However, Idr denied that accusation if the tribunal refused to hear him. Idr explained:

Q. Maybe it was a person that worked for you?
A. Maybe it was a person that worked for me. I do not know if it was on my team. But I do not know if it was or not. Whatever. If you tell me the name, then I will deny the accusation.⁴³

The transcript also provides information that would enable him to defend himself. Judge Green stated that Idr had no chance to see or rebut the evidence.

The transcript of Murat Kurnaz, is similarly instructive. Kurnaz was accused of being an "enemy combatant" because he had been in a mosque, which housed a branch of Jama'at al-Tabligh that allegedly supported terrorist activities. Kurnaz had been friends with a suicide bomber who had attended a Jama'at-al-Tabligh school. But Kurnaz himself planned to be a suicide bomber, let alone engaged in, terrorist activities. Judge Green refused to detain Kurnaz based on classified information. Kurnaz had no opportunity to see or rebut. Judge Green noted that the government's determination was "unfair but, after examining the classified secret evidence 'call[ed] into serious question the wisdom' of the government's determination to detain Kurnaz."⁴⁴

The transcript of Kurnaz was later made public in response to a lawsuit. The disclosed portions revealed that intelligence officers had found no link between Kurnaz and enemy fighters and had recommended that Kurnaz be released as early as 2003, the commanding general of the Joint Investigation Task Force found no evidence

of terrorist activity by Kurnaz. Nonetheless, Kurnaz remained at Guantánamo for three more years, his conviction relied on the flimsiest of evidence. By way of example, a U.S. brigadier general's statement that "the U.S. national anthem was sung in the presence of a basketball rim was" in the prison yard, was used to escape.⁴⁵

Reliance on secret evidence, Judge Green found to be a flaw. The tribunal also accepted evidence of coercion. In one case, an Egyptian-born detainee, Abdouh Habib claimed that a false confession was obtained in Egypt, where he had been rendered for years. Habib described being beaten routinely to the point of being taken to a room and forced to stand for hours with his head above water to a level just below his head, his feet resting on the side of a large electric chair, and to choose between the pain caused by the water and electric shocks to his feet.⁴⁶ Even so, the CSRT accepted the confession without conducting any further inquiry. The denial of Habib's allegations of torture was partly based on the fact that the Department had repeatedly criticized Habib's allegations. Finally, after Habib filed a habeas corpus petition, a federal judge might actually examine the allegations. The United States quickly sent Habib back to Guantánamo.

Judge Green's ruling offered the promise of a fair trial that did not take place. Instead, a few days after the government's application to stay the proceedings, the government's habeas cases followed suit, issuing stay orders. The government had an opportunity to address the government's actions, but it was a dead letter.⁵⁰ In the meantime, the habeas cases went unexamined. By February 2005, the habeas petition had come to a virtual standstill and the habeas process had and-one-half years while the executive branch fought tooth-and-nail to deny detainees habeas corpus.

Although most Guantánamo detainees were not given a trial, President Bush sought to prosecute some of them in the military commissions he had established by executive order. One of those prisoners was

theless, Kurnaz remained behind bars based on a CSRT determination that, for example, that evidence included that Kurnaz had once prayed while in prison and had “asked how tall the base-jumper was,” which the general said suggested a desire to escape.

Judge Green found, was not the CSRT’s only evidence procured by torture and other abuse. Habib, a 37-year-old Australian citizen named Mamdouh Habib, had been wrung from him in 2002 following his seizure in Pakistan. Habib was held at the point of unconsciousness, locked in a room while the room was gradually filled with smoke, and suspended from a wall with his arms and legs attached to electrified cylindrical drums, forcing him to hang from his arms and electric shocks. The CSRT simply relied on Habib’s confession in its decision. The CSRT’s refusal to examine Habib’s claims is particularly shocking, since the U.S. State Department had previously accused Egypt for engaging in the practice.⁴⁷ Habib filed a habeas corpus petition, and when it seemed that the government would grant the Habib’s claims of mistreatment, the government moved to Australia to avoid scrutiny.⁴⁸

The government’s promise of fair hearings. But those hearings were never held. Later Judge Green granted the government’s motion for summary judgment pending appeal.⁴⁹ Judges in other cases have granted summary judgment in their cases until the higher courts ruled. The government’s latest effort to render habeas corpus proceedings meaningless is the detention of hundreds of prisoners at Guantánamo. The Guantánamo habeas corpus litigation remained that way for almost three years. The executive branch, soon joined by Congress, has blocked any meaningful access to the courts.

The habeas corpus cases continued to languish without charge. In 2005, I executed a handful of Guantánamo prisoners. In 2006, I created in his November 2001 executive order Salim Ahmed Hamdan. A Yemeni

citizen with a fifth-grade education, Hamdan was captured in 1996. Attracted by the idea of jihad, he joined Osama bin Laden. According to his lawyer, Hamdan was a man from an impoverished background who was recruited by al Qaeda and paid him for working as a courier. Hamdan initially remained in the dark about the 9/11 attacks. After 9/11, Hamdan fled and was seized by American forces at the Pakistan border. They tied Hamdan to a chair and later, handed him over to the Americans. For the next six months, the United States held Hamdan in a prison where he was grossly mistreated, before transferring him to Guantanamo in 2002.⁵²

In July 2003, Bush announced his intention to try Guantanamo detainees for violations of the Uniform Code of Military Justice. Lieutenant Commander Charles Swift was appointed to represent Hamdan.⁵⁴ Swift and his colleagues were to negotiate a deal, not to advocate for Hamdan. Lawyers were bound and trained to do that. Hamdan was not chosen for prosecution and thereby give some legitimacy to the Guantanamo detention system. Hamdan's lawyers argued that Hamdan be afforded the rights of a civilian under the Code of Military Justice (UCMJ). When the military authority for the commissions refused to allow Hamdan to appear in federal courts. In April 2004, they filed a writ of habeas corpus to challenge the legality of the military commissions.

The government moved to dismiss Hamdan's writ because the courts lacked jurisdiction to hear it. Two months later, the Supreme Court made clear that federal courts could hear the petition under the habeas statute. So the government was able to move forward with Hamdan's case. Hamdan's challenge could be resolved. In July 2006, the Supreme Court ruled in Hamdan's favor, claiming that he had conspired to commit murder, and engage in terrorism. The government argued that Hamdan had acted as Osama bin Laden's courier, that he had transported weapons on al Qaeda's behalf, and that he had trained at an al Qaeda sponsored camp. The government argued that Hamdan was playing any command responsibilities, playing a role in the terrorist acts. Instead, the indictment of

Hamdan had traveled to Afghanistan in the past. He had gravitated toward al Qaeda and its leaders. Hamdan was a simple-minded man who was thankful for the money he earned as a driver and mechanic but who generally supported the organization's terrorist activities.⁵¹ After the capture of Hamdan by Afghan warlords near the Afghanistan-Pakistan border, he was held with electrical wire around his wrists for a \$5,000 bounty. For the next several months, Hamdan was held at Bagram and Kandahar, where he was eventually transferred to Guantánamo in May 2002.

The administration intended to try Hamdan and five other detainees under the laws of war.⁵³ That December, D. Swift, a navy defense lawyer, was assigned to Hamdan's case. Swift's instructions from superior officers were to defend Hamdan zealously for his client, as JAG lawyers are required to do. The Bush administration had deliberately selected Hamdan, who, it believed, would plead guilty under the military commission process and waive his rights. But Swift fought back, demanding a speedy trial under the Uniform Code of Military Justice. When the legal adviser to the convening authority refused, Hamdan's lawyers turned to the federal courts. They filed a petition for habeas corpus challenging the military commission process itself.⁵⁵

In response to Hamdan's petition, claiming that the military commission process violated the Supreme Court's decision in *Rasul v. Bush*, the federal courts had jurisdiction over the detainees. In January 2004, the administration changed tactics, trying Hamdan in a military trial quickly before his habeas petition was decided. In May 2004, the president formally charged Hamdan with aiding al Qaeda to attack civilians, a crime under the laws of war. The indictment further alleged that Hamdan was al Qaeda's "bodyguard and personal driver," and had received weapons training on Hamdan's behalf, and had received weapons training on Hamdan's behalf.⁵⁶ It did not accuse Hamdan of having a leadership role, or planning any attacks. Hamdan was charged only the offense of conspiracy,

an offense historically prosecuted in federal court under federal law, not in military tribunals under the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

Hamdan's habeas petition did not challenge the constitutionality of the military commissions but something more basic: that the military commission's presidential edict did not comply with federal law and thus lacked the power to try him. Hamdan, who was himself a former naval officer, agreed.⁵⁷ In his habeas petition, Hamdan argued that the military commission proceedings in Hamdan's case were invalid because there had not been a competent tribunal that Hamdan was subject to. Hamdan's determination required under the Third Geneva Convention, a determination, Robertson insisted, that Hamdan was not a prisoner of war and therefore could be tried in a court of law. Hamdan argued that the United States used to try its own citizens in military courts. Robertson concluded that even if a competent tribunal was not available for trial by a military commission, Hamdan could be tried by a court of law. Hamdan argued that he should be present at his own trial.⁵⁹

In July 2005, a three-judge panel of the United States District of Columbia Circuit reversed the military commission's decision. The court adopted a far more deferential view of the military commissions and his interpretation of the Geneva Convention. The judges ruled that the Geneva Convention did not prohibit the "war on terrorism," endorsing President Bush's decision to be free to treat suspected terrorists as enemy combatants and thus denying them any protection under the Geneva Convention. The court made up the laws of war.⁶⁰ The third judge, Judge Tamm, ruled but disagreed in one notable respect. Judge Tamm ruled that Article 3 of the Geneva Conventions did not prohibit the trial of Qaeda even if other provisions of the Geneva Convention. This provision explicitly prohibited trial of enemy combatants by a court affording all the judicial guarantees that are recognized as indispensable by a civilized people." Yet the Geneva Convention of Common Article 3 must be interpreted in light of the courts, and thus joined the panel's challenge.⁶¹

Hamdan petitioned the Supreme Court. In June 2005, the Court agreed to hear his case. In the meantime, Congress sprang into action. The

civilian courts under federal criminal laws of war.

argue questions of guilt or innocence military commission established by presidential statutes or international treaties. District Judge James Robertson, himself. On November 2004, Robertson enjoined Hamdan's case. He ruled that the commission had been no determination by a competent to trial by military commission—a violation of Geneva Convention. Without such a determination, Hamdan must be treated like all other prisoners of war and be tried only by court-martial, the system used for our own service members.⁵⁸ Robertson further ruled that if the military tribunal were to find Hamdan guilty, Bush's commission still could not try him. He also ruled in favor of habeas corpus safeguards, including a defendant's right to

appeal. The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit affirmed Judge Robertson's ruling. The appeals court's decision was a review of the president's creation of military commissions in violation of the Geneva Conventions. Two provisions of the Geneva Conventions did not apply to al Qaeda or the Taliban. The court affirmed Bush's earlier determination that he was "enemy combatants" while simultaneously ruling that the Geneva Conventions applied under the treaties and customs that govern the treatment of prisoners of war. Judge, Stephen Williams, joined the majority. Williams found that Common Law applied to the armed conflict with al Qaeda. He ruled that the Geneva Conventions did not apply and that Hamdan was entitled to habeas corpus rights except by "a regularly constituted court with the guarantees which are recognized as indispensable in a democratic society." Williams also concluded that enforcement of habeas corpus was left to the political branches, not to the executive branch. His decision to dismiss Hamdan's habeas

petition was affirmed by the Supreme Court for review, and in November 2006. The administration and its allies lost the case.⁶² The following month Congress enacted

legislation threatening to deprive the appeal. The new law, entitled the Detainee Treatment Act, amended the federal habeas statute to eliminate habeas corpus for Guantánamo.⁶³

Only once before had Congress tried to strip the Supreme Court of its power to hear a habeas corpus appeal. In 1867, Congress withdrew its appellate jurisdiction to consider a habeas challenge brought by a Confederate soldier who had been jailed in the South. The Court, however, left open the possibility of habeas relief by another means: an “original” habeas corpus writ. The Habeas Act.⁶⁴ This time, however, there was no relief. Instead, Congress instituted a new process under the DTA that excluded, for habeas purposes, determinations by the military commissions. The DTA excluded habeas determinations by the military commissions because they were not in accordance with international law. Moreover, habeas relief could take place only after the military commission had rendered its decision. The DTA would thus prevent precisely the habeas relief sought to bring and that habeas corpus writ. The power of a military commission to try habeas challenges since only those detainees sentenced to life or more had the right to invoke the DTA. Detainees sentenced to lesser terms could be denied habeas relief.

The DTA also threatened to terminate habeas relief for hundreds of other prisoners at Guantánamo who were on charge. By recognizing Guantánamo as a military base, Congress had sought to ensure a meaningful judicial review process and to eliminate that process and replace it with a new process. The appeals court of the sham CSRT hearing would be the Circuit Court of Appeals to consider habeas challenges on its own standards and procedures and whether the habeas writ were constitutional. The appeals court would have the power to do on habeas corpus: hold habeas relief by both sides, and rule on disputed facts. The appeals court even had the power to order habeas relief. Detention, traditionally a *sine qua non* condition of habeas relief. Under the DTA, no prisoner could challenge his military commission. Nor could he seek review of his habeas challenge in his country, even if he faced a substantial risk of

Court of its power to hear Hamdan's habeas corpus petition under the Detainee Treatment Act (DTA), amended the habeas corpus rights for detainees at

attempted to take away the Supreme Court's jurisdiction. In that case, the Court upheld Congressional jurisdiction under an 1867 statute to consider a writ of habeas corpus for a newspaper publisher and former Congressman who had been detained by the military in the Reconstruction era. The possibility of Supreme Court review of a habeas corpus petition filed under the 1789 Judiciary Act was preserved as an alternative avenue for seeking habeas corpus. The DTA provided a more limited form of judicial review. Under the DTA, for example, consideration of any factual issues was limited to the commission's findings. In *Hamdan*, the DTA said that this limited review was sufficient because a habeas corpus trial had taken place.⁶⁵ The DTA limited the type of challenge that Hamdan had long secured: a challenge to the constitutionality of a person in the first instance.⁶⁶ Also, the DTA provided for a term of imprisonment of ten years. Under the DTA's limited review mechanism, those detainees who had previously received all court review.⁶⁷

The DTA limited the habeas corpus petitions of the detainees at Guantánamo who were being held without habeas corpus. The detainees' habeas corpus rights, *Rasul* v. Bush, were limited to a judicial process. The DTA purported to provide a more limited one: narrow review by an administrative body. As written, the DTA allowed the D.C. Circuit to review only whether the CSRT had followed its standards and procedures. The D.C. Circuit therefore could never do what a district court could do: hold a hearing, consider evidence presented by the detainee, and order a prisoner's release from unlawful detention. Indeed, it was unclear whether the D.C. Circuit could order a prisoner's release from unlawful detention or habeas corpus. In addition, under the DTA, detainees could be transferred from Guantánamo to another country, where they were at risk of torture in that country.

In short, the DTA sought to prevent a meaningful role in reviewing the detention, transfers at Guantánamo. And while the DTA applied only to Guantánamo, it implicitly bolstered the claim that foreign nationals held elsewhere on U.S. territory over which the United States' control was no less than at Guantánamo—had no habeas corpus rights.

The debate over the DTA helped define the issue at the heart of the “war on terror.” Legislation stripping amendment, such as U.S. Senator Kyl (R-AZ), alternatively characterized detainees as basic military combatants, on the one hand, or as enemy combatants, irregular combatants, or other. The detainees, Graham and others argued, were not soldiers from past wars. If the tens of thousands of prisoners of war in the United States during World War II, they reasoned, were not afforded such access? “Never in the history of the United States has an enemy combatant, irregular combatant, or irregular combatant court systems to question military actions,” Graham remarked, referring to the Supreme Court. At the same time, Graham and other supporters argued that Guantánamo detainees were terrorists who committed heinous deeds, thus likening them not to soldiers but to criminals charged and tried in the regular civilian courts.

But wartime prisoners had not always been afforded such cases like *Quirin* and *Milligan* showed. The Supreme Court previously limited the military detention of civilians with nation-states. Thus, not only was the category of “combatants” entirely new, but the category was incredibly broad and elastic. The Supreme Court, which Graham and others referred to as the “enemy,” in factual disputes over who could be detained. The Supreme Court defined, and soldiers wore uniforms and carried arms, military status. In more recent conflicts, it has been difficult to tell friend from foe, such as the Vietnam War. The Supreme Court had additional safeguards to help prevent indefinite detention. It had a clear ending point: the cessation of hostilities or a treaty between governments. By contrast, the “war on terror” had the difficulty of determining the enemy, the

at federal courts from playing a meaningful role in the treatment, trial, or transfer of prisoners. The DTA's court-stripping provision applied to the administration's contention that the detainees were outside the United States—and in their control was less permanent or complete than the rights of U.S. citizens.

To expose the falsehoods and distortions being used to mislead supporters of the DTA's habeas corpus stripping, Senators Lindsey Graham (R-SC) and Jon Kyl (R-AZ) introduced legislation that would have classified the Guantánamo detainees as civilian internees, not enemy combatants, and hardened terrorists, on the grounds that, as the Supreme Court said, they were just like enemy combatants. The law would have given thousands of German and Japanese prisoners of war access to the federal courts. The legislation would have required that today's "enemy combatants" be treated as prisoners of war under the law of armed conflict has an enemy combatant, or POW been given access to civil liberties and habeas corpus authority and control, except here," the Supreme Court's decision in *Rasul*.⁶⁸ At the time, supporters of the DTA observed, all the detainees were innocent people who had to be punished for their misdeeds as if they were alleged criminals ordinarily tried in federal courts.

Prisoners of war have always been barred from U.S. courts, as the Supreme Court has held.⁶⁹ The United States, moreover, had a long history of distinguishing between combatants and civilians in the effort to detain suspected terrorists. The DTA's definition of the "enemy combatant" was far broader than the traditional definition. Furthermore, the past conflicts to which the law of war applied typically did not involve the same type of terrorism. In World War II, battlefields were geographically defined and carried arms openly to signify their status. In the Vietnam War, it became more difficult to distinguish between combatants and civilians. In World War I, the United States implemented the law of war with errors. In addition, wars previously defined by the signing of a peace treaty or the signing of a peace treaty, the very nature of terrorism—the absence of defined battlefields, and

the potentially permanent nature of the hood and the costs of mistaken detention, a greater process, not less, and a more robust

In addition, characterizing Guantánamo detainees as combatants meant that they all had been found guilty of a crime. Yet many detainees had never been charged with a crime, and many had never been charged in the inferior military courts or military courts-martial. So the government was asserting that the detainees were combatants here, and then asserting their “return to battlefield.” Such a characterization of detainees using words like *combatant* and *terrorist* to justify their detention, dispensing with the protections of both international and domestic laws of war.

Assuming that all the Guantánamo detainees were combatants, a critical question presented by the habeas corpus statute was, in fact, who the government said they were. The government argued that the Guantánamo detainees’ habeas corpus claims were about conditions of confinement was not a crime, and that those who were challenging their treatment were not combatants. Habeas corpus and mail delivery but were challenging their treatment and other gross mistreatment. And all the detainees were contesting the right of the government to detain them.

On November 10, 2005, Graham’s amendment to the habeas corpus statute, which gave jurisdiction over Guantánamo detainees to the federal courts, passed the Senate and was added to the Defense Authorization Act. Lawmakers voiced concerns about the amendment’s effect on habeas corpus cases, Senators Graham, Kyl, and Levin introduced an amendment altering the provision’s effect. President Bush signed the Detainee Treatment Act, which included the habeas-stripping Graham-Kyl-Levin amendment.

Ironically, an original impetus behind the habeas corpus statute was to provide protections against detainee abuse. Reports of abuse at Guantánamo, Ghraib, Bagram, secret CIA prisons, and other locations raised concerns among lawmakers, including Senator Levin, who was a torture victim, that the Bush administration was creating a lacuna in the law. The administrative law prohibited torture (which it defined as “interrogation techniques” like waterboarding) and prohibited abuse known as cruel, inhuman, or degrading.

the conflict—increased both the likelihood of a crime. Terrorism, in short, demanded a robust judicial role.

Guantanamo detainees as terrorists suggested a crime. In fact, only a handful of detainees had committed an offense, and those detainees all had no criminal convictions, not the regular civilian offenses the government alternatively claimed. The DTA was used for the nonpunitive purpose of preventing habeas corpus. Reporters of the DTA thus manipulated the law to justify eliminating habeas corpus and separating it from the criminal justice system and the

detainees were terrorists also begged a habeas case: whether the detainees were, or were not, terrorists. Graham and Kyl's suggestion that habeas petitions raised frivolous claims was simply false.⁷⁰ Those prisoners who were not complaining about Internet access or about their torture, prolonged isolation, or about the prisoners who sought habeas relief were the prisoners who sought habeas relief to prevent their detention in the first place. A 2005 amendment to eliminate federal court review of habeas corpus petitions passed the House in 2005. The Authorization Act.⁷¹ When several law-
makers' impact on pending habeas petitions. Senator Carl Levin (D-MI) sponsored another amendment with an effective date.⁷² On December 30, 2005, the Treatment Act into law, including the amendment.

Behind the DTA had been to strengthen the revelations about mistreatment at Abu Ghaybi and Guantánamo had prompted Senator John McCain (R-AZ), a former prisoner of war, to argue that the administration was exploiting what it viewed as a gap in the law. The administration had argued that while U.S. criminal law was defined narrowly to exclude "enhanced interrogation techniques" (including waterboarding), no law barred the lesser forms of mistreatment, including cruel and degrading treatment (CID) if committed

ted against foreign nationals held abroad. Existing prohibitions against CID in human rights treaties, such as the Convention against Torture and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, did not apply to Guantánamo because the United States is not a party to these treaties. At the same time, the Geneva Conventions, which the Guantánamo detainees were “unlawfully denied” the protections under the Geneva Conventions, which prohibited even a broader range of mistreatment, including CID, and a prohibition against Torture. To remedy this problem, the DTA prohibited “cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment or punishment” by U.S. custody or control, “regardless of whether the treatment is authorized by U.S. law.”

But the DTA’s prohibition on CID did not address the issue of habeas corpus and the ability of courts to review the abuse. Moreover, the DTA’s ban on CID was not absolute. The DTA, for example, failed to bar the use of evidence obtained through coercion and other mistreatment. It said that in future proceedings, the court must determine whether statements derived from a detainee “were obtained as a result of coercion” and must assess the reliability of such statements. Those future tribunals, however, were not required to have had been gained through coercion only if the evidence had still rely on such coerced evidence if the court found that the government also did not apply to the CSRT hearings. The DTA’s ban on CID conducted for the hundreds of prisoners at Guantánamo. The policy of detention based on evidence gained through coercion thus remained firmly in place.

In addition, the Bush administration’s policy of allowing CID. The DTA defined CID by incorporating the prohibition of the Clause of the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution. The DTA stated that the particular conduct in question “should be considered to be in violation of the prohibition continued to maintain that an individual’s conscience” unless undertaken for the purpose of gathering information opposed to gathering information to the contrary. In other words, theory, officials could continue to justify the use of CID as long as it was brutal. This was precisely the view expressed in a statement issued in May 2005 by the Office of Legal Counsel. The statement created a permanent loophole around the prohibition on CID. The president’s latitude to interrogate prisoners was not to be precluded liability for past abuse.⁷⁶ If the DTA’s ban on CID was not a statement when he signed the DTA in

oad. The administration asserted that human rights treaties, such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, did not apply to Guantánamo or to any other territory outside the United States. The administration claimed that because detainees were not “lawful combatants,” they also had no legal rights. In addition, the DTA prohibited “any treatment or punishment” of any prisoner in Guantánamo, regardless of nationality or physical location.”⁷³

The DTA came at a high price: the elimination of habeas corpus courts to remedy illegal detention and the weakening of the writ of *habeas corpus*. The DTA was weakened in several ways. The DTA prohibited the use of evidence gained through torture in future Guantánamo cases, the CSRTs could only review evidence derived from a detainee were “obtained in a manner that has the probative value (if any)” of those obtained in a lawful manner. However, the CSRTs would inquire whether evidence was “reliable” and “to the extent practicable” and could use any evidence they chose to.⁷⁴ This minimal requirement was a far cry from the hearings that had previously been conducted at Guantánamo. The post-9/11 system was a far cry from the system that had been established through torture and other coercion.

The administration took steps to nullify the DTA’s ban on the use of torture in interrogating the test under the Due Process Clause of the Constitution, which asked whether the tactic “shocks the conscience.”⁷⁵ The administration argued that the interrogation tactic would not “shock the conscience” if the specific purpose of inflicting pain, as in the case of preventing a terrorist attack. Under this standard, the administration justified almost any tactic, no matter how brutal, if it was justified by the specific purpose of preventing a terrorist attack. This was embraced by two secret memos drafted by the administration, before the DTA was enacted, to justify the use of any effort by Congress to restrict the rights of detainees in the “war on terrorism” and to justify the use of any tactic that was not enough, Bush also issued a presidential memorandum to law that said he would interpret the

DTA's ban on CID in light of his "constitutive" executive branch and as Com. the constitutional limitations on judicial review. One of many that Bush issued—reflected in the executive order to override federal laws if he believed it necessary.

The detention and treatment of prisoners without meaningful judicial review. Yet the DTA's ban on habeas corpus by eliminating habeas corpus. The DTA's ban on habeas corpus is vulnerable to continued manipulation by the executive branch to circumvent it. Congress had taken one

If court-stripping legislation was one of the many tiny, eleventh-hour actions by executive order, Hamdi's case, this meant abruptly releasing Hamdi from his habeas corpus hearing. In Jose Padilla's case, it meant ending three and one-half years of military imprisonment without review of the president's claim of sweeping authority.

Previously, the Supreme Court had denied Padilla's challenge because it ruled that Padilla was not a federal court in New York rather than a state court. Padilla was defined as an "enemy combatant." Padilla was held in South Carolina and argued once again for his release. He was held without criminal charge and trial. The Supreme Court ruled with Padilla.⁸⁰ The U.S. Court of Appeals had ruled against the president's decision, upholding the president's power to detain Padilla in custody as an "enemy combatant."

Judge Michael Luttig's opinion for the majority in *Padilla v. Bush* was the "exceedingly important question" of indefinite military detention of an American citizen. Judge Luttig explained that the president had the authority to detain Padilla as an "enemy combatant" because, before the 9/11 attacks, Padilla had fought in Afghanistan for the United States. Padilla was a member of the Taliban and the Qaeda. (This was a newly minted allegation.) In the first go-round in the Supreme Court, the majority seemed more like a traditional soldier and a patriot. Consequently, Luttig said, Padilla could not claim "hostilities" "to prevent his return to the battlefield." Padilla was arrested at Chicago's O'Hare International Airport. Padilla, a battlefield in Afghanistan, did not a

stitutional authority . . . to supervise the Commander in Chief and consistent with special power.”⁷⁷ This signing statement—expressed his view that the president could take such actions if necessary for national security.⁷⁸

Prisoners at Guantánamo cried out for review. A threatened to emasculate that review. The CIA’s ban on CID, meanwhile, remained in place by an administration determined to take one step forward and two steps back.

One way to avoid meaningful judicial scrutiny by the branch officials was another. In Yaser Eslamy, releasing the prisoner to avoid a habeas corpus hearing meant bringing criminal charges after his imprisonment to avoid Supreme Court scrutiny of presidential domestic detention power.

Padilla had declined to address the merits of his case when he had mistakenly sought relief from the district court in South Carolina where he was confined. He promptly refiled his habeas petition in the district court to claim that the president could not detain him without Congress’s approval.⁷⁹ This time, the district judge agreed. The appeals court for the Fourth Circuit reversed that decision, affirming the power to imprison Padilla in military custody.

The Fourth Circuit began by emphasizing the “indefinite detention” presented by the case: the indefinite detention of a citizen arrested in the United States.⁸¹ The court held that the president had authority to hold Padilla as an enemy combatant coming to the United States to engage in hostilities in Afghanistan alongside the Taliban and al Qaeda. (The government added after the opinion was issued to bolster its case by making Padilla’s detention and his military detention less radical.) The court held that Padilla could be detained for the duration of hostilities in Afghanistan.⁸² The fact that Padilla had been captured at the Naval Airport, rather than captured on the battlefield, did not alter the president’s power to hold him

as an “enemy combatant.” Instead, Judge
the German saboteurs from *Quirin*, who
New York and tried by a military court.
The fact that Padilla was being detained
conflict against al Qaeda and other terrorists
against another nation, as in *Quirin*, not.

Padilla sought Supreme Court review.
to Padilla’s certiorari petition was denied.
was indicting Padilla on terrorism-related
charges. Those charges did not contain any of the
had relied in detaining Padilla as an “enemy
combatant.” The government placed Padilla at the fringe of a
to provide support for Muslim struggles.

In announcing the indictment, the
referred only obliquely to Padilla’s prior
case began as a “classic intelligence in-
telligence system represented “one of the tools
proposal to combat terrorism. Gonzales never
decided to employ that “tool” only when
of considering the legality of its other
But Gonzales did not need to say anything
that the Court would reject its position
its post-9/11 detention regime: the au-
in the world and hold them indefinitely
global “war on terror.”

Gonzales also failed to mention the
most serious accusations against Padilla.
administration officials, however, acknowledged
derived from statements by al Qaeda
Sheikh Mohammed, both of whom had
sons. Unlike in a CSRT or military court
simply launder coerced evidence in a
indictment’s timing showed the lengths
go to avoid judicial review of its “enemy
highlighted how thoroughly these detainees
other abuse.

The administration’s gamesmanship
After charging Padilla, the government
Padilla’s transfer from military to civil

Justice Luttig asserted, Padilla was just like someone who had been arrested in Florida and taken to a military commission rather than a civilian court. He was arrested in connection with a global armed conflict involving terrorist organizations rather than a war in a specific country. This made no difference.

But two days before its response to the writ, the government announced that it had filed charges in federal court in Miami. The charges were based on the accusations on which the president had designated Padilla an "enemy combatant."⁸³ Instead, the indictment charged a nebulous conspiracy during the 1990s involving operations in Bosnia, Kosovo, and Chechnya.⁸⁴ Attorney General Alberto Gonzales argued for military detention, noting that the government had a "strong investigation" and that the criminal justice system was "not a tool" that the president had at his disposal. He never explained why the administration had chosen the Supreme Court was on the verge of striking down the "tool": indefinite military detention. The administration clearly feared that the writ would be granted and thus undercut a main pillar of its authority to seize individuals anywhere in the world without charge or trial as part of the

war. The United States did not include the name of Padilla in the indictment. Other administration officials admitted that those accusations had been based on the testimony of suspects Abu Zubaydah and Khalid Sheikh Mohammed, who had been tortured at secret CIA prisons. If the government had admitted the commission, the government could not have proceeded with federal criminal prosecution.⁸⁵ If the government had admitted the detentions to which the administration would have designated Padilla an "enemy combatant" detentions, its contentions were permeated by torture and

the government's position did not please the Fourth Circuit. The government asked the appeals court to approve the transfer of Padilla to civilian custody to clear the way for his

prosecution. The Fourth Circuit refused. Luttig criticized the government for creatively circumventing Supreme Court review with such tremendous public importance that actions all the more troubling. How could an “imperative” to America’s security to detain Padilla for three and one-half years, only to bring the highest court was finally poised to rule, only to agree with the government’s underlying position that the government’s conduct tarnished the rule of law.

Although the Supreme Court quickly granted Padilla habeas corpus, the Court took more than four months to review the legality of his military detention. The circumstances would have provided a clear path to Padilla had he effectively received the relief he sought: the right not to be detained without a hearing. Instead, the Supreme Court should still hear his case. He insisted that he could redesignate Padilla as a civilian, acquitted at trial and that he could cooperate with the government as “enemy combatants” in the future. The Court refused to hear Padilla’s case. Three justices (Roberts, Stevens, and Souter) ever, take the unusual step of issuing a writ of habeas corpus. The changes in Padilla’s custody status, which were announced by the government, were not sufficient. (Justice Souter, and Souter) said that the Court’s review of the government’s actions are required for a grant of certiorari).⁸⁸ The Court’s decision to end Padilla’s military imprisonment, it is clear, was based on the underlying question about the scope of the government’s power.

The federal criminal prosecution of Padilla began in August 2007, the jury returned a verdict of guilty on all counts, including conspiracy to commit a crime outside the United States and providing false information. District Judge Marcia G. Cooke sentenced Padilla to 18 months in prison. Cooke, however, rejected the government’s argument that Padilla should be given a life sentence, and instead sentenced Padilla to 18 months, linking Padilla and the other defendants. Cooke also gave Padilla credit for the time he spent in military custody over the government’s objection.⁸⁹

The Bush administration touted Padilla’s conviction as a victory for its detention policy. But the conviction highlighted the government’s failure to

ed. In a sharply worded opinion, Judge
reating the impression that it was deliber-
review.⁸⁶ That Padilla's case was imbued
nce, Luttig said, made the government's
ould the government claim that it was
hold Padilla as an "enemy combatant"
ing criminal charges when the nation's
ule on the matter?⁸⁷ Even those who
ing position, as Luttig did, recognized
ed the integrity of the judicial process.
ly approved Padilla's transfer to civilian
ur months to decide whether to grant
etention. Ordinarily, such a change in
a strong reason to deny review, since
ef he had sought in his habeas petition:
riminal charge. But Padilla maintained
ear his challenge because the president
dilla an "enemy combatant" if he were
ontinue to detain others like Padilla as
e Supreme Court ultimately declined to
erts, Stevens, and Kennedy) did, how-
an opinion expressing concerns about
while three other justices (Breyer, Gins-
should have heard the case (Four votes
 Thus, while habeas corpus had helped
t had not produced a definitive answer
ope of the president's detention power.
of Padilla went forward in Miami. In
dict convicting Padilla and his code-
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nts to specific acts of terrorism. Cooke
e had spent in military detention, over
adilla's conviction as a victory for its
ghlighted the policy's flaws. It demon-

strated, once again, that federal courts and punish those who planned or carried out without sacrificing the rights central to the criminal justice system, though not capable of handling even the most chaotic “new paradigm” of indefinite military detentions, seemed increasingly like smoke and mirrors.

While the Bush administration succeeded in Padilla’s case, it failed to do so in Hamdan’s. In its five-to-three ruling in *Hamdan*, the Court affirmed the right of Guantánamo detainees to habeas corpus and showed why that right mattered.

In an opinion by Justice Stevens, the Court held that the DTA had stripped it of jurisdiction to review habeas corpus cases, not habeas cases pending as Hamdan’s. This determination was based on the promise of the Graham-Kyl-Levin amendment to the habeas suspension statute. It also reflected the more general principle of interpreting statutes to repeal habeas suspension when such a reading is fairly possible. While the Court held that Congress had the power to eliminate habeas corpus, it indicated that Congress would have to accomplish that momentous end. As Justice Stevens wrote, “the Court would not assume Congress intended suspending habeas corpus in enacting the most stupendously significant act it can take.”⁹¹

Turning to the merits of Hamdan’s case, the Court held that the defendant’s military commissions suffered from several defects. The commissions deviated impermissibly from common law by denying defendants the right to be present at their own trials, the use of unreliable hearsay statements, and the use of coercion.⁹³ There was neither a right to counsel nor a right to a fair trial. The Court said, for creating a separate ad hoc system of military commissions that lacked the established safeguards of the habeas corpus process, the commissions violated Common Law.

could successfully prosecute, convict, and punish those who committed terrorist acts and could do so without violating America's Constitution and values. The program was not perfect, still proved highly effective, and was used in challenging cases. The claimed need for a new approach to detention to fight terrorism, by contrast, was a dark and distorted mirror.

It succeeded in avoiding Supreme Court review of Hamdan's case. In June 2006, the Court decided *Hamdan v. Rumsfeld*, invalidating the military commissions established by the November 2001 order.⁹⁰ If *Rasul* had been granted habeas corpus, *Hamdan* helped

the Court reject the government's contention that it lacked the power to hear Hamdan's appeal. It held that it had jurisdiction only over future habeas petitions filed after the time of the DTA's passage, such as those filed by Hamdan, based on a close reading of the DTA's language. The DTA, which had altered the act's effect, was based on a general principle that courts must avoid exercising habeas corpus jurisdiction as long as another court has said that Congress lacked the authority to grant review for Guantánamo detainees, it was not required to speak in the clearest terms to accomplish its purpose. Justice Souter remarked during oral argument, "The DTA, which would be 'just about the most explicit' that the Congress of the United States

could have drafted," the Court found that the presidential order was flawed from two fatal flaws. First, the commissions' procedures, including by allowing detainees to be present at their own trial⁹² and by allowing the use of confessions, including statements obtained without any principled basis nor any need, the Court found no basis for a *ad hoc* trial system for terrorism suspects outside the framework of military courts-martial. Second, the DTA violated Article 3 of the Geneva Conventions,

which requires that all trials be conducted affording all the judicial guarantees which civilized peoples.”⁹⁴ Because the United States military courts are courts-martial, and because short of courts-martial standards, the Common Article 3.⁹⁵ Four justices found the offense with which Hamdan had been charged a war crime and thus could not be prosecuted if the commission’s procedures had been fair.

Hamdan was an important decision that limited the instrumental use of the law of war to assess terrorism cases while avoiding the restrictions on the trial and treatment of detainees. *Hamdan* reinforced the constitutional system of checks and balances by holding that at any time the president cannot “disregard limits on the exercise of its own war powers, placed by Congress in the UCMJ had required that trials be held largely to courts-martial procedures. *Hamdan* clarified the judiciary’s role in that system, showing how the Court can work against illegal executive action by reviewing presidential actions. As Justice Stevens wrote in striking down the military commission’s jurisdiction: “the Executive is bound to comply with the constitutional requirements of the law of war jurisdiction.”⁹⁸

By finding that all detainees were entitled to habeas corpus, the Supreme Court also dealt an important blow to the military detention system. That system had assumed that the treatment of “unlawful combatants” in the “war on terrorism” was their treatment remained a matter of executive discretion. *Hamdan* opened the door to the torture and abuse that had been carried out through lawless enclaves from Guantánamo Bay. *Hamdan* helped halt that virus’s spread by ruling that the treatment of detainees today was beyond the law. At a minimum, Common Article 3 applied to all prisoners in U.S. custody. The Court found that only unfair trials by military commissions were allowed, including “humiliating and degrading” treatment. Officially saying so, the Supreme Court had set a precedent that would help end the methods—including those that did not meet the standards of the law of war and that any official who engaged in such prosecution under the War Crimes Act

acted by a “regularly constituted court which are recognized as indispensable by the United States’ “regularly constituted” military commissions fell far short. The Court said, the commissions violated the law of war and an additional problem: conspiracy, which had been charged, did not violate the law of war if tried by a military commission, even if the defendant was a civilian.⁹⁶

The Court ruled on several levels. It rejected the asymmetrical and sweeping military jurisdiction over civilians. It struck down restrictions that the law of war places on military commissions. *Hamdan* also bolstered the broader conception of habeas corpus, cautioning that even during war, the executive has limitations that Congress has, in proper exercise of its powers, imposed on [the president’s] powers.⁹⁷ Here, the Court held that any military commission conform to the law of war. Just as important, *Hamdan* vindicated the role of courts by showing how courts could serve as a bulwark against the executive by exercising their habeas corpus review. It struck down the president’s military tribunals, affirming the Rule of Law that prevails in this

country. It held that individuals protected by Common Article 3, the Geneva Convention, are entitled to the United States’ post-9/11 global war. It rejected the assumption that individuals held as “enemy combatants” had no rights and, consequently, that their treatment was a matter of executive discretion. This, in turn, struck down the other abuse that spread like a virus in the wake of 9/11: the use of the name to secret CIA “black sites.” *Hamdan* reaffirmed that no person in U.S. custody is entitled to the same treatment as a prisoner of war. The Court said, Common Article 3 applies to all persons in custody during wartime. It prohibited not only the use of force but also “outrages upon personal dignity, such as humiliating and degrading treatment.”⁹⁹ Without actually naming the practices, the Court made clear that harsh interrogation techniques that rise to the level of torture—were illegal. It held that anyone who exposed himself to criminal treatment in the hands of the United States was entitled to the same treatment as a prisoner of war.¹⁰⁰

Hamdan, however, had several limitations apparent. It had invalidated Bush's power to use military commissions, but not his power to put out charge. Since only a handful of Guantanamo detainees were charged before a military commission, the Court held that any prisoner be charged or tried a military commission. *Hamdan* simply by continuing to exist. Guantanamo's commander explained, "The authority to detain people as 'enemy combatants' is not to be 'negligible.'"¹⁰¹

Hamdan also rested on the presidential authority to create military commissions without congressional authorization from Congress. It therefore did not prevent new military commissions in the future. Because the DTA had not eliminated habeas corpus for detainee cases, the Court did not say that it would terminate this review through new legislation. Instead, rather than constitutional grounds, the Court focused on the legislative battle. Once again, the Bush administration's constitutional approval for broad powers to conduct habeas corpus. This time, however, the Court's ruling was more far-reaching.

limitations, all of which soon became
power to try terrorist suspects through his
power to detain them indefinitely with-
Guantánamo prisoners had actually been
and since there was no requirement
at any point, the government could cir-
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that Congress lacked the power to elim-
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the Court thus set the stage for another
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; the powers it claimed would be even

Tackling Prisons bey

Guantánamo Revisited

On September 6, 2006, President George W. Bush gave a revised speech describing the current state of the war on terror by recalling the tragic events that had led to the September 11 attacks and reiterating his promise to do everything in his power to uphold America's laws—to prevent another terrorist attack. He publicly acknowledged for the first time the existence of a “black program” of secret imprisonment, although it had been widely reported for years. The president said that he had called high-value detainees like Abu Zubaydah (KSM), and Ramzi bin al-Shibh. He said that he had moved these men through the CIA's secret detention program to terrorist attacks and saved American lives. He said that, once the program had been completed, Bush explained, the detainees could be moved “into the open.” He said that he had brought Guantánamo and brought “to justice.” The president said that the interrogation methods had been used. He said that “the United States does not torture. It respects the values.”¹

The president then told the country that the Supreme Court's decision in *Hamdan v. Rumsfeld* had imposed constraints on the administration's efforts to confront terrorism and put the nation's security at risk. He said that he was sending new legislation to Congress to continue the fight against terrorism. This legislation would allow military commissions but also would reinstate the Geneva Conventions to allow the CIA detention program without fear of criticism. And the legislation would seek—on the one hand—to protect the rights for those the administration des

As political propaganda, the president's speech, he put opponents on the defensive in the fight against terrorism and telling the world that, in saving both its values and its safety. Secret methods, he suggested, not only were necessary but were legal. The United States did not employ excessive tactics that were necessary to protect itself, and remained within the letter, if not the spirit, of the law. As to Guantánamo the handful of detainees, the president said, attacks, such as KSM, Bush breathed new life into the prisoners at Guantánamo were dangerous terrorists.

But Bush's speech was inaccurate and misleading. "bring prisoners to justice." Of the nearly 100,000 there since 2002, only a handful had been brought to trial. Most would never be brought to trial. Also, even based on the government's claims, prisoners were not dangerous terrorists.

The speech also misled the American people. It suggested that the government needed to "keep secrets"; otherwise, terrorists would "learn our secrets." The United States' use of waterboarding, a torture technique already widely known. The real reason for the secret conduct that was not only embarrassing but also illegal.

In addition, the speech created the impression that the administration had terminated the secret CIA program. Before Bush's speech, the Justice Department had concluded that the conditions of confinement at Guantánamo violated both federal law and Common Article 3 of the Geneva Convention. The president reserved the right to continue the program. He was urged to defend as "small, carefully run, and controlled." He used "enhanced interrogation techniques."

The Bush administration, in short, missed an opportunity to justify to the American people the military commissions, and torture authorized through new legislation. Following Bush's speech, Hill, as lawmakers began to debate the habeas corpus, establish new military commissions under the Geneva Convention, and protect from liability for past abuses. On Sep

ident's speech was a success. In one
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false impression that the Bush admin-
CIA detention program. But just days
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transformed its defeat in *Hamdan* into
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sh's speech, the focus shifted to Capitol
e administration's proposals to restrict
commissions, rewrite America's obli-
ns, and insulate government officials
tember 29, Congress passed the Mili-

tary Commissions Act (MCA), and the bill into law.⁵

The MCA resurrected military commissions for the “war on terror,” providing the commission the Court in *Hamdan* had said was lacking the authority to try a wide range of offenses, including criminal offenses and not war crimes, such as “support” for terrorism.⁶ The MCA did improve the process, for example, by giving a defendant a right to counsel and by affording him a greater opportunity to challenge the government’s evidence.⁷ But the commissions still limited a defendant’s access to evidence that undermined their fairness and still allowed for the admission of coerced evidence obtained by cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment, precisely the period during which the worst abuses occurred, even though the commissions now forbade the use of torture, the Bush administration continued to render that prohibition all but meaningless by means of physical and psychological abuse through lax evidentiary rules or could be used as intelligence “sources” or “methods.”

The MCA, however, did more than just create commissions to legitimize and institutionalize other military commissions. While the MCA prohibited the use of Geneva Convention obligations, it gave the commissions the authority to interpret the conventions while hindering individuals from invoking them in military proceedings.¹¹ The MCA also sought to prevent future breaches of the Geneva Convention by confining liability to a specific list of “grave breaches” of the Convention. Even though that list included cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment, torture, the MCA limited the definition of torture to acts that caused substantial risk of death, physical injury, or severe physical impairment. It also excluded degrading treatment. The Bush administration, meanwhile, continued to use torture methods such as stress positions,

the next month the president signed the new commissions to try foreign nationals in response to congressional sanction that the Supreme Court was striking down. The new commissions were authorized to try offenses that traditionally had been treated as military offenses, such as conspiracy and “material support of terrorism.” They improve on the previous commissions, by granting detainees a partial right to be present at his trial and a partial right to examine and respond to the evidence against him. The commissions continued to suffer from flaws that undermined their integrity. For example, the commissions were not required to disclose exculpatory information.⁸ They also allowed the use of evidence, including evidence gained through torture, as long as the evidence was not obtained in violation of the Detainee Treatment Act of 2005—pre-9/11 abuses had occurred.⁹ Furthermore, the commissions formally prohibited evidence gained by torture, but continued to define torture so narrowly as to be meaningless. Statements wrung from other detainees through mental abuse also could be laundered through the commissions to escape scrutiny altogether if classified

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to revive military commissions; it sought to preserve key features of the post-9/11 global war on terror. It paid lip service to the United States’ commitment to the Geneva Conventions and to the president’s unilateral authority to conduct military operations. It sought to prevent their enforcement in the courts by denying detainees the right to file habeas corpus or other judicial writs. It sought to foreclose criminal prosecution under the War Crimes Act and to limit the risk of prosecution under the War Crimes Act to a narrow set of offenses. It set forth in the legislation a list of offenses, including cruel and inhuman treatment as well as torture, that would constitute a bar to prosecution of such treatment to conduct that included mutilation, mutilation, physical disfigurement, and organ loss or mutilation, and humiliating and degrading treatment entirely.¹² The commissions continued to maintain that interrogation techniques, including religious and sexual humiliation, and

sleep deprivation did not violate Common Article 3 or the War Crimes Act. The DTA prepared the groundwork for a subsequent law that legitimated the CIA's secret detention program and a host of highly coercive interrogation methods. The DTA's amendment supplied legal cover, concluding that the use of "interrogation techniques," including prolonged isolation (ninety-six hours), dietary manipulation, and other methods, violated Common Article 3 or the War Crimes Act.

The MCA also sought to eliminate habeas corpus, the single most effective check against executive power. The DTA, however, the MCA did not limit habeas jurisdiction. Instead, it purported to eliminate habeas corpus for the president designated an "enemy combatant." The Supreme Court subsequently interpreted the repeal in the narrowest possible way, that its bar on habeas jurisdiction extended only to Guantánamo and other prisons outside the United States. Anyone arrested and detained inside the country, including an immigrant, could be seized by the military, taken to a place of work and be imprisoned without habeas corpus. The president determined that he or she was an "enemy combatant." The MCA barred "any other action" by the courts that prevented detainees from receiving a habeas corpus hearing or torture they had suffered in the past.

Lawmakers once again justified the MCA by distorting the truth. They portrayed detainees as "captured on the battlefield," even though many were captured far from or near a battlefield.¹⁸ The familiar rhetoric of the MCA, using government resources and interfering with the military, attempted to mask a much darker truth: habeas corpus had no place in "war on terrorism" and executive power to detain and interrogate without habeas corpus. As one senator candidly explained, the MCA "kicked the lawyers out of Guantánamo Bay."²⁰

Opponents denounced the MCA as a violation of the Constitution. Senator Russ Feingold (D-WI) lamented the MCA as "a stain on our nation's history." In response to "our generation's version of the Alien and Sedition Act," several bills were introduced to repeal the act eliminating habeas corpus.

mon Article 3.¹³ The MCA thus helped implement presidential order that both reinstituted and sanctioned the continued use of these methods.¹⁴ Once again, the Justice Department argued that the CIA's use of various "enhanced" interrogation techniques, including prolonged sleep deprivation (of up to 115 hours), and physical force, did not violate the habeas corpus Act.¹⁵

The suspension of habeas corpus, which had proved to be a powerful remedy against arbitrary detention and abuse. Unlike the suspension of habeas corpus, the MCA did not permit the habeas repeal to Guantánamo. The MCA also suspended habeas corpus for any foreign national the president determined to be an "enemy combatant."¹⁶ The Bush administration substituted the broadest manner possible, arguing that the MCA extended not only to foreign nationals outside the United States but also to those within the United States. In the administration's view, a legal remedy was denied to a citizen at home, at school, or his or her workplace without access to a lawyer or a court if the individual was an "enemy combatant." In addition, the MCA denied any compensation for illegal detention of an individual.¹⁷

The restrictions on habeas corpus by the MCA affected the Guantánamo prisoners as soldiers though many had not been captured on the battlefield. The administration's rhetoric about legal proceedings wasting time and money contrasted with the "day-to-day operation" of the detention facility. A darker theme: that courts and lawyers were not allowed to interfere and that the president must have unfettered authority to detain individuals in the name of national security.¹⁹ One of the purposes of the MCA was "to get the

country back on track as a violation of cherished principles. The MCA was criticized as a violation of cherished principles. Critics argued that America would look back on this as a dark chapter in history."²¹ The *New York Times* called it "the new Espionage and Sedition Acts."²² After the MCA's passage, there were bills introduced in Congress to repeal the provisions of the MCA. But none gained sufficient support to

overcome an expected filibuster or a p again to the courts.²³

The first four years after the 9/11 att branch against the judiciary in the ba tutional safeguards, and America's co Detainee Treatment and Military Cor By 2006, majorities in Congress had t 9/11 detention regime. Some supporte was the Supreme Court, and not the e ning power grab," which Congress re president's command over the conduc ous Supreme Court decisions like *Ra* president's unilateral action in defiance lenges would have to take on Congre both branches had exceeded the limits respective powers.

As lawyers for the government an legal showdown, the situation at Guar ers increasingly turned to hunger strik inhumane living conditions, isolation, treatment. One strike in mid-2005 inv ees, approximately fifty of whom were dration. The government responded w strapping detainees into restraint cha nasal tube insertions, placing them in isolation cells, and withholding "comf

In June 2006, Guantánamo experie the Bush administration announced t selves from the mesh walls of their c The three detainees had been on hung article later published in *Harper's* que account, describing how the men had a secret prison within Guantánamo ca exist) and explaining how the governm been a cover-up.²⁶ Another detainee r following year. By 2007, twenty-five diff forty suicide attempts.²⁷

presidential veto, and the focus shifted

attacks had largely pitted the executive against Congress over habeas corpus, other constitutional rights, and compliance with international law. The Military Commissions Acts altered that dynamic. Congress twice approved key aspects of the post-9/11 regime even argued that it was necessary for the executive, that had engaged in a “stun-ning” effort in the MCA by restoring the rule of law in the “war on terrorism.”²⁴ If previous cases like *Hamdan* and *Hamdi* had emphasized the primacy of Congress, post-MCA legal challenges shifted the focus and the executive by showing that the Constitution placed on their

and the detainees prepared for another year at Guantánamo continued to worsen. Prisoners began to protest the denial of due process, religious degradation, and other mistreatment. Involving more than two hundred detainees, they demanded intravenous treatment for dehydration and heavy-handed measures, including the use of force to facilitate force-feeding through a nasogastric tube in an uncomfortably cold air-conditioned cell with “no comfort items” like blankets and books.²⁵

It announced its first reported prisoner suicide: that three detainees had hanged themselves in their cells with nooses made of bed sheets. They had also engaged in hunger strikes and had been force-fed. An independent investigation questioned the truth of the government’s claims. The bodies had been moved after their deaths from a facility called “Camp No” (as in “No,” it doesn’t exist). The government’s investigation into the deaths had been delayed. The detainees who reportedly committed suicide the following year were different prisoners had made more than

The Bush administration denied a situation at Guantánamo. Instead, it said his own life was committing an act of relabeled “PR stunts” intended to create heroes,²⁸ and attempted suicides were dismissed as “behavior.”²⁹ The administration completed a detention system in which individuals were processed, subjected to torture and other abuse, and separated from their families and loved ones, including from their own families.

Public criticism of Guantánamo, mounting in part because the president of the ICRC took the unprecedented step of publicly condemning the United States for imprisoning individuals without adequate process.³¹ Amnesty International called it “one of the darkest chapters of our time.”³² Calls to close Guantánamo came from allies. Lord Steyn, a justice on Britain’s highest court, called it a “monstrous failure of justice.”³³ By the time the Bush administration, including the president, were pressing for the prison’s closure, the damage declared, was “an image throughout the world of a reputation.”³⁴ The Bush administration’s “war on terrorism” had become a political and public relations disaster, with any benefits it provided.³⁵

Simply closing Guantánamo and moving the detainees elsewhere, however, would not address the underlying issues of trial or the use of second-class tribunals. It would only replicate Guantánamo elsewhere. The administration did nothing to address the continued presence of detainees on America’s shores, whether at other military bases or CIA “black sites.” Indeed, simply closing Guantánamo without the larger detention system Guantánamo represented would remove the government’s incentive to bring prisoners home, and instead render them to foreign governments to be held in secret.

Guantánamo’s future thus remained uncertain under the current detention policy. At the same time, if the government could not find a fundamental constitutional safeguard to protect the detainees where the United States had long exercised control, it could not be won at present. The issue was one and over which U.S. control might be lost.

any responsibility for the deteriorating
said a detainee who attempted to take
“asymmetrical warfare.” Suicides were
te support for the plight of the detain-
missed as “manipulative, self-injurious
pletely ignored its role in creating a
s were held for years without due pro-
pouse, and isolated from the rest of the
ies.

meanwhile, continued to mount.³⁰ The
precedented step of condemning the
duals for years without charge or an
ional labeled Guantánamo “the gulag
amo also came from America’s closest
highest court, castigated Guantánamo
r 2007, some high-level officials within
Defense Secretary Robert M. Gates,
. Guantánamo, Senator John McCain
the world which has hurt [America’s]
n’s flagship prison in the “war on ter-
ublic relations liability that outweighed

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d linked to the United States’ broader
the battle for habeas corpus and other
s could not be won at Guantánamo,
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prisons farther from America’s shores
less clear or complete.

The legal challenge to the latest course of the Supreme Court laden with significant precedents the Court almost never heard it.

In February 2007, a federal appeals court upheld the MCA's elimination of habeas corpus. The court determined that the Guantánamo detentions were not in violation of the Suspension Clause or any other provision of the Constitution for foreign nationals held outside the United States. Judge A. Raymond Randolph contended that the habeas remedy was not available to enemy aliens detained abroad. As he wrote in the opinion, "As was written, it would 'not have been available to enemy aliens detained abroad if the habeas remedy were available at a military base leased from a foreign government.'" Furthermore, Randolph said, the Supreme Court's decision in *Hamdi* "foreclosed any claim of a constitutional right to habeas corpus for prisoners at Guantánamo because it established that the Suspension Clause's reach to noncitizens is limited to the United States." The Court's more recent decision in *Rasul* "did not revoke the Guantánamo detainees' statutory right to habeas corpus, as it had done twice since *Hamdi* through the MCA."³⁸ Randolph also distinguished the *Hamdi* and *Rasul* decisions from those that involved territory and political sovereignty—a *sine qua non* for habeas corpus—because the *Rasul* decision "affirmed the States' control over the territory or prison where the detainees were held" and did not merely affirm the denial of habeas corpus. It also endorsed a central premise of the *Rasul* decision: "that at least with respect to noncitizens, the Constitution as long as he acted outside the United States."

The habeas petitioners who had brought the case were approximately thirty Guantánamo detainees. The Court declined to hear the case, as a majority of four votes necessary to grant certiorari. Justices Stephen G. Breyer, John Stevens and Anthony M. Kennedy issued a dissenting opinion denying certiorari. "Despite the obvious importance of the issue," he said, the Court should adhere to its usual practice of "refraining from adjudication of constitutional questions where adequate available remedies as a precondition to the writ of habeas corpus."⁴⁰ The petitioners first had to seek review of their respective

court-stripping measure thus headed to
cance. Ironically, though, the Supreme
ls court in Washington, D.C., upheld
us. In a two-to-one decision, the court
ainees were not protected by the Sus-
of the Constitution because they were
ited States.³⁶ Writing for the majority,
ed that habeas corpus had never been
road and that when the Constitution
available to aliens held at an overseas
overnment” such as Guantánamo.³⁷ Fur-
e Court’s decision in *Johnson v. Eisen-*
tional entitlement to habeas corpus by
established a bright-line rule prohibiting
citizens held outside the United States.
Rasul, he said, addressed only the Guan-
beas corpus—a right Congress was free
Rasul, first through the DTA and then
stinguished the Insular Cases, arguing
over which the United States exercised
or extending the Constitution’s protec-
how extensive or complete the United
oner in question.³⁹ Randolph’s opinion
eas corpus for Guantánamo detainees.
the post-9/11 global detention system:
s, the president was not constrained by
tside the borders of the United States.
ought the appeal—a group of approxi-
—sought Supreme Court review. But
the petitioners fell one vote shy of the
. In an unusual step, Justices John Paul
ed an opinion explaining their vote to
importance of the issues raised,” they
usual practice of avoiding unnecessary
ns and of requiring the “exhaustion of
to accepting jurisdiction over applica-
That meant the Guantánamo detainees
ctive Combatant Status Review Tribu-

nal (CSRT) findings in the D.C. Circuit that had just ruled that they had no credible procedure Congress created in the DTA procedure's manifest shortcomings.⁴¹ They remain imprisoned without a meaningful, seemingly futile review process, even in their sixth year of confinement.

The detainees asked the Supreme Court to rehear their petitions, but all were invariably denied. It took the Court approximately forty years to do so, and it finally agreed to hear the case.⁴² Although many suspected that Justice Kennedy—the chief author of a new and devastating critique of Guantanamo—would lead the military itself.

In a sworn declaration provided to the court in support of his petition, Lieutenant Colonel Stephen Abraham, a former officer of military intelligence, offered an insider's view of how the process functioned.⁴³ Abraham had previously served on the Office of the Special Representative for the Review of the Detention of Enemy Combatants, a part of the Defense Department responsible for the review process. Abraham's description shattered the government's claim that the process had to be legitimate. The OARDEC's reliance on intelligence-gathering capabilities. Instead, it relied on arbitrary and incomplete requests to conduct interviews of particular detainees. In turn, those agencies provided exculpatory evidence about the detainees. The OARDEC's staff lacked training and experience in handling intelligence information and was under tremendous pressure to complete CSRTs within four months. Another CSRT panel provided additional details. The CSRT tribunal's officers, for example, did not distinguish between conclusory statements, which constituted the bulk of the evidence, and actual evidence.⁴⁴

As Abraham explained, detention officers often relied on summaries of interrogations and boilerplate reports rather than carefully assessing the evidence (often provided by informants who would "cast broad nets for any information, no matter how tenuous, no matter how dubious the source, so long as it

it Court of Appeals—the same court
constitutional rights— through the pro-
to replace habeas corpus, despite that
The Guantánamo detainees would thus
gful hearing while they exhausted this
though many were already well into

Court to reconsider its decision. Such
ied; the Court had not granted one in
ne, the Supreme Court reversed course
n the Court gave no explanation, many
ritical swing vote—had been moved by
antánamo's CSRT process from within

the Supreme Court with the rehearing
Abraham, a twenty-six-year veteran
ide account of how the CSRT actually
y served in the Office for Administra-
y Combatants (OARDEC), the division
ble for implementing the CSRT-ARB
red any remaining pretense this pro-
e, Abraham explained, had no intelli-
its efforts were confined to making
outside agencies for information about
agencies could, and often did, withhold
ees in question. Moreover, the OARD-
nce in collecting and using intelligence
us time pressure to complete hundreds
r military official who sat on forty-nine
ails about the CSRT's inadequacy. The
ot understand the difference between
ted the bulk of the material presented,

decisions were instead based on sum-
plate intelligence information. Rather
or lack thereof), the OARDEC's mem-
ormation, no matter how marginal, no
ated, no matter how generic, no matter
could be connected to the detainee."⁴⁵

That information would be “cut and p
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Command influence exacerbated
sions that a CSRT panel determined
an “enemy combatant,” Abraham said
director questioned the validity of the
hearing be conducted to allow for th
only “new” information presented at
“a different conclusory intelligence fir
underlying evidence.”⁴⁹ If the panel fa
DEC would conduct an inquiry into
like Abraham’s made the point more
Guantánamo detainees had been imp
that was rotten to the core, and they s
the Supreme Court to decide whether
under the Constitution.

In December 2007, the Supreme
tánamo detainees’ challenge to the M
issued its decision in *Boumediene v. B*
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president nor Congress could deprive
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provide a constitutionally adequate s
dated the MCA’s elimination of habeas
conduct prompt hearings into the lega

The Court’s ruling in *Boumediene* t
of the approximately 265 detainees w
decision. Above all, the Court rejected
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asted” into documents given to CSRT
t of its accuracy or reliability.⁴⁶ When
s available, as was often the case, the
categories, such as the region from
roup or country of origin, or the orga-
alleged to have been associated.⁴⁷ The
enemy combatants” based on this hap-
generic information that “lacked even
ectively credible evidence.”⁴⁸

these problems. On the few occa-
a detainee should not be classified as
l, the OARDEC’s director and deputy
finding. They ordered that a new CSRT
e presentation of new evidence. The
these do-over hearings, however, was
nding, which was not justified by the
ailed to alter its conclusion, the OAR-
“what went wrong.”⁵⁰ Insider accounts
powerfully than any legal brief could:
risoned for years based on a process
should not have to wait any longer for
r they were entitled to habeas review

Court heard argument in the Guan-
MCA. The following June, the Court
Bush, ruling that Guantánamo detain-
s corpus.⁵¹ This meant that neither the
Guantánamo detainees of habeas cor-
e limited emergency powers provided
ourt also determined that the mecha-
ongress had created to replace habeas
CSRT decisions via the DTA—failed to
ubstitute. As result, the Court invali-
s corpus and directed district judges to
lity of the prisoners’ confinement.

r transcended Guantánamo and the fate
ho remained there at the time of the
the proposition—urged by the govern-
itical sovereignty determined whether

the habeas corpus Suspension Clause extended to foreign nationals held beyond a bright-line rule, the Court adopted a test that considered not only the prisoner's citizenship but also the nature of the circumstances, and the adequacy of the habeas corpus remedy. In determining whether a given constitutionally cognizable habeas corpus test, this test did not guarantee habeas corpus for every prisoner, it nonetheless rejected the idea of judicial review simply by choosing to hold that the Suspension Clause applied.

Justice Kennedy's opinion for the majority in *Hamdi* on habeas corpus in America's Constitution. "The Framers," Kennedy explained, "viewed habeas corpus as a fundamental precept of liberty, and the Suspension Clause as a vital instrument to secure that liberty. Habeas corpus, not only protects individuals from arbitrary state power; it also serves as 'an essential part of the separation-of-powers.'"⁵³

Kennedy looked to English history and common law precedents, detainees held at Guantánamo would have had access to habeas corpus. "No direct analogies," Kennedy said, "to the argument that habeas corpus was available to detainees when the executive exercised political sovereignty, the fact that Cuba retained formal sovereignty over this territory offered 'scant support' for the argument that this territory was necessarily beyond the reach of the Suspension Clause."⁵⁴

Kennedy next examined the Court's historical application of the Suspension Clause's extraterritorial application. In American history, he noted, there was no need to distinguish between the United States and territories. The United States extended its laws and Constitution to territories during westward expansion. The question of whether the Constitution applied to territories that were not incorporated into the United States arose after the United States began acquiring territories in the nineteenth century. In the *Insular Cases*, the Supreme Court ruled that the Constitution had not been extended to unincorporated territories even if Congress had chosen to extend its protections there. The *Insular Cases* also recognized some potential

and other constitutional protections beyond America's borders. In place of any functional test that examined not only the nature of the detention, the surrounding process the prisoner had received in the process, the surrounding constitutional provision applied abroad. While it was clear that the president could avoid judicial review of that prisoner outside the country.

The Court emphasized the critical role of the Constitution and system of government. "The right to freedom from unlawful restraint as a matter of course they understood the writ of habeas corpus as freedom."⁵² Habeas corpus, he pointed out, was the arbitrary and unlawful exercise of power. It was a vital mechanism in the [Constitution's]

history to determine whether under English law habeas corpus would be available in circumstances similar to Guantanamo. Although history provided support, it also did not support the government's contention that habeas corpus was available only in territory over which the United States had sovereignty. Thus, from a historical perspective, the United States' ownership over the U.S. naval base at Guantanamo was not "for the government's contention that the reach of the Constitution's Suspension Clause was limited to the reach of the Constitution's Suspension Clause."

The Court's own precedents addressing the Constitution's reach to new territory acquired during its history. During the first century of the nation's history, the Court addressed this issue, since the United States' expansion to new territory acquired during its history. Whether the Constitution also followed the United States' incorporation into the United States first required the United States to acquire overseas possessions in the late 19th century, discussed in chapter 6, the Supreme Court held that independent force in these so-called territories. Congress had not made the political decision to apply the Constitution. But, Kennedy observed, the Insular Cases presented obstacles to applying the Constitution to these territories.

in its entirety and displacing the existing law. The question, therefore, was not *whether* the provisions of its provisions were applicable by way of executive and legislative power in decisions and judgments.”⁵⁵ And the answer turned not on “sovereignty” but on other, more pragmatic considerations.

The Supreme Court, Kennedy said, had done so half century later in *Reid v. Covert*.⁵⁷ His opinion in *Reid* focused on U.S. citizenship and the jury trial guarantee applied to American citizens in a military court in a foreign country, Justice Frankfurter’s concurring opinions emphasized the importance of the place of the prisoner. Kennedy’s reading of *Reid* aligned the Court with Frankfurter’s position. Citizenship, Kennedy said, was central in *Reid* in determining whether the rights were territorially. If this diminished the importance of the idea that the Constitution could extend to those in U.S. custody, regardless of location, it would undermine the idea that freedom from arbitrary and capricious detention and not just a right of American citizenship.

Justice Kennedy also distinguished the 1950s-era decision that had been the linchpin of habeas corpus review for Guantánamo. *Eisenberger* did not in fact establish a precedent for determining the reach of the Suspension Clause. It turned on its unique factors, including the fact that Landsberg Prison in Germany was a total, exclusive, and permanent U.S. custody facility. Thus did not mean what the Bush administration’s first Guantánamo habeas petitions were denied prisoners access to its courts by claiming that the government was not interfering with executive prerogative.

Boumediene thus turned the government’s argument on its head. In recognizing that Guantánamo’s right to habeas corpus protected by the Constitution was not interfering with executive prerogative, the Court’s manipulation of the judiciary and the government’s political sovereignty test meant that the government will and without constraint whenever it

ting legal systems in these territories. Whether the Constitution applied but “which way of limitation upon the exercise of dealing with new conditions and requirements formal constructs like “political sovereignty considerations.”⁵⁶

l, had employed a similar approach a While Justice Hugo Black’s plurality opinion in concluding that the Constitution American civilians tried by an American justices John Marshall Harlan’s and Felix emphasized other, more practical, considerations’ confinement and trial. Kennedy more closely with the Harlan-Frank said, was merely one factor considered right to a jury trial extended extraterritoriality of citizenship, it also strengthened extend more widely to foreign nationals It thus moved the Court closer to the unlawful detention was a human rights issue.

Johnson v. Eisentrager, the World War II case in the government’s effort to resist habeas corpus for its military prisoners in Japan, no detainees. As Kennedy explained, “a formalistic, sovereignty-based test of the Suspension Clause.”⁵⁸ *Eisentrager* instead of the absence of plenary U.S. control over the territory, which Kennedy contrasted with the U.S. control over Guantánamo. *Eisentrager* the government had been arguing since the case was filed: that the United States could not be held responsible for detaining them beyond its borders.

The government’s separation of powers argument in *Eisentrager* was that Guantánamo detainees had a constitutional right to habeas corpus under the Suspension Clause, the judiciary had the power to grant that right, but the executive had the prerogative but was preventing executive action. The Court rejected the government’s argument. Accepting the government’s argument meant that the United States could act at will when it exercised power outside the country.

And if the United States could do this under its permanent, total, and exclusive jurisdiction beyond its shores. *Boumediene* rejected the actions of the United States, the Constitution's constraints, even when they occur abroad. The political branches cannot "suspend the Constitution on or off at will" by altering the scope of [the Suspension Clause]. The Suspension Clause cannot be subject to manipulation by those who

In place of formal constructs like habeas corpus, the Court set forth a multifactored test to determine whether the Suspension Clause applied abroad. In addition to the habeas test also factored in the adequacy of a habeas remedy received, the nature of the sites where the detainees were held, the place, and the practical obstacles inherent in bringing a writ.⁶¹ Applying this test, the conclusion was that Guantánamo was a virtual slam dunk for habeas. Citizens, the Guantánamo detainees had no habeas determination by the woefully inadequate habeas remedy they were held was under the total and exclusive jurisdiction. And the government had presented "no habeas remedy" and the mission at Guantánamo would be complete. The Court's jurisdiction to hear the detainees' claim was complete.

The question remained, however, whether the habeas remedy DTA could cure the problem by providing a habeas corpus. If so, there would be no constitutional violation. The detainees would effectively be receiving what habeas corpus in a different name. The Supreme Court, in *Boumediene*, substituted habeas. Instead, in enacting the habeas remedy, the Court sought to create an inferior remedy for habeas in the first place.⁶³ Congress had created the Guantánamo detainees thus differed significantly from the federal habeas corpus statute, which provided a habeas remedy in a different forum, for example, to challenge their criminal convictions in a federal court rather than in the jurisdiction where they were held. More important, the Court concluded that the habeas remedy was an inferior remedy. It highlighted three points: the court's role is most important in

at a place like Guantánamo, a territory under exclusive control, it could do so anywhere and this argument in no uncertain terms. The Court maintained, are always subject to those actions concern foreign nationals. The Court did not have the power to “switch the locus of detention.”⁵⁹ “The test for the Suspension Clause],” the Court said, “must not be the power it is designed to restrain.”⁶⁰ In the case of political sovereignty, *Boumediene* set the standard for whether the habeas corpus Suspension Clause applied to the citizenship of the detainee, the process the detainee had undergone prior to his apprehension and detention took precedence in resolving his entitlement to the habeas corpus writ. The Suspension Clause reached the detainees. Although they were not American citizens, they had been detained for years based on an inadequate CSRT process. The prison where they were held was under the exclusive control of the United States. The Court rejected any credible arguments that the military would be compromised if habeas corpus courts had jurisdiction.⁶²

The Court also considered whether appellate review under the habeas corpus writ was an adequate substitute for habeas corpus. Finding a constitutional violation, since the detainees were denied habeas corpus, only under a habeas writ. However, the Court found that the DTA was not an adequate substitute. The DTA, Congress had deliberately created for individuals who it believed had no right to habeas corpus. Congress’s elimination of habeas corpus for detainees was significantly different from earlier amendments which were intended to create a similar writ, by requiring federal prisoners to apply for habeas corpus to the district court that sentenced them. The Court found that they were imprisoned after sentencing.⁶⁴ The Court concluded that Congress had in fact created an adequate substitute for habeas corpus: first, that the DTA provided for cases of executive detention without

prior judicial review; second, that habeas corpus, the underlying process lacks rigorous safeguards; and third, a flexible remedy that can be adapted to the facts to achieve its underlying purpose: relief from detention.

Measured in light of these standards, the CSRT was short. The CSRT was patently deficient in several respects: it denied detainees access to a lawyer; it limited detainees' ability to present evidence; it excluded the evidence against them, and contained no rules against hearsay. Such a "closed and accusatory" process carries "considerable risk of error"—a "risk" that, given the potential length of the prisoners' confinement, could last a generation or more.⁶⁵ And the CSRT could not compensate for these deficiencies. The major flaw of the DTA could not be overcome by the CSRT: the absence of any meaningful opportunity to test the allegations against him. The DTA, which provided for considering new evidence or conducting a hearing, was the process around which so many cases turned. The CSRT, the Court said, was the authority it gave a detainee to challenge both the cause for detention and the evidence against him. The DTA substantially curtailed that authority. The CSRT, to correct errors, a power that was even more limited by its own flaws. In brief, no substitute for habeas corpus could be locked away—potentially for life—without providing an opportunity to test the legal and factual basis for the central decision maker.

But even though the victory was narrow, it was resting on a five-to-four vote. Chief Justice Roberts and Justice Scalia each filed dissenting opinions, and Justice Samuel Alito joined. "The Court," Roberts wrote, "has the most generous set of procedural protections afforded by this country as enemy combatants." The CSRT, he argued, contradicts previous statements in *Hamm* that habeas corpus, coupled with judicial review, could satisfy the requirements of due process—precisely what the Bush administration attempted via the DTA-CSRT review scheme. The Court, by failing to defer to this alternative process, was respecting the judgment of the political branches.⁶⁸

habeas review is more searching where the stakes are high; and third, that habeas is itself tailored to the circumstances and tailored to provide a remedy for unlawful imprisonment.

Under the DTA, DTA review of CSRT hearings fell short as a remedy for executive imprisonment. The CSRTs, relying largely on secret evidence, did not provide detainees with the opportunity to confront evidence in their favor and to confront the government with virtually no restrictions on the use of hearsay. The Court said, “the CSRT proceeding is a ‘quasi-judicial’ proceeding, the Court said, carrying a risk too significant to ignore” given the stakes of executive imprisonment, which the Court recognized that the CSRT’s appellate review under the DTA could not provide. As the Supreme Court explained, one cannot “rely on no matter how creatively the statute might provide a meaningful opportunity for a detainee to rebut the government’s case, for example, barred courts from conducting a hearing to resolve the factual disputes.”⁶⁶ The DTA is a *sine qua non* of habeas corpus, the Court said, “to conduct a meaningful review of the Executive’s power to detain.”⁶⁶ The DTA’s structure undermined a judge’s power to review executive detention more critical given the CSRT’s manipulative nature. Habeas corpus could allow a prisoner to challenge his detention unless it provided him a meaningful opportunity to challenge the factual basis for his detention before a neu-

trally momentous, the margin was narrow, Justice John Roberts and Justice Antonin Scalia, with whom Justices Clarence Thomas and Chief Justice John Roberts said, “strikes down as inadequate the habeas protections ever afforded aliens detained in the United States.”⁶⁷ Its decision, Roberts continued, also struck down the *Hamdi* decision that a military status tribunal, which could satisfy even an American citizen’s right to habeas corpus. The administration and Congress had created the CSRT. Roberts thus chastised the Court for its failure to provide a meaningful opportunity to challenge the government’s case and undercutting the considered

But Roberts ignored both the large numbers of prisoners of war from past conflicts, Guantanamo's connection with a loosely defined armed force, and Hamdi's connection with a loosely defined armed force under a definition of "enemy combatant." The military detention authority in its briefs in *Hamdi* had referred to a legally sanctioned process pursuant to Army Regulation 190-8 and that during the process Hamdi had failed to reveal that he was seized on a battlefield where they were fighting forces (in Hamdi's case, the Taliban). The habeas tribunals could be used to justify the detention of many of whom were seized outside any battlefield on their suspected affiliation with, or membership in, an organization. *Hamdi* also assumed that habeas would correct errors when the regular military process failed at first instance. Moreover, Roberts looked at the writ not how it functioned in practice, and how the CSRT's excessive reliance on secret evidence, and its kangaroo-court style "hearings" mentioned potentially lifelong detention; he treated Hamdi like a person in the United States ordering a speeding ticket.

Whereas Roberts focused on the habeas writ, Scalia denied that any habeas review, Scalia denied that any habeas review of Guantanamo detainees had no constitutional basis. Building on his dissent in *Rasul*, Scalia argued that the Suspension Clause to its original meaning, which protects foreign nationals seized abroad. The Suspension Clause's unprecedented application to Guantanamo, Scalia insisted, not only contradicted the original meaning but also undermined the separation of powers and the writ's authority to judges.⁶⁹ What the Court's majority opinion in *Hamdi* in bringing prisoners to Guantanamo to habeas review was unwarranted judicial interference with the Executive's power to detain alien prisoners seized abroad within the territorial reach of the writ by the Executive. "The writ is as much a threat to the proper separation of powers as it is a threat to the Executive."⁷⁰

er context of the Guantánamo deten-
TA-CSRT review scheme. Unlike pris-
ntánamo detainees were being held in
ned conflict of perpetual duration and
nt” that vastly exceeded all recognized
adth and scope. To be sure, the Court
ctioned military status tribunal acting
nd the Geneva Conventions in describ-
eceive. But it did so only for individu-
were fighting alongside enemy armed
Hamdi never considered whether such
prolonged detention of individuals—
y battlefield or hostilities—based solely
activity on behalf of, a terrorist orga-
beas corpus would be available to cor-
process had not been provided in the
ed only at the CSRT process on paper,
ignored the unrefuted evidence of the
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DTA-CSRT scheme as a substitute for
y substitute was necessary, since the
stitutional right to habeas in the first
ul, Scalia sought to limit the Suspen-
which, he maintained, excluded from its
nd detained outside the United States.
d extension to Guantánamo detainees,
the intent of the Constitution’s framers
of powers by ceding too much author-
rity saw as executive manipulation in
avoid habeas corpus, Scalia viewed as
the president’s wartime prerogative to
without court review. “Manipulation’ of
Judiciary,” Scalia charged, “poses just
ion of powers as ‘manipulation’ by the

Scalia, however, misunderstood the writ's role. Power and control over the jailer and the writ's command, not formal notions of sovereignty or determinations about the writ's territorial reach, were what also had never turned on a prisoner's citizenship. Elevating citizenship to a categorical rule or "litmus test" was a modern development that fundamentally could not be reconciled with the traditional idea of checks and balances and the separation of powers. Guantánamo itself demonstrated how tenuous these constructs like political sovereignty or territoriality are in less enclaves, arbitrary detention, and the like.

Boumediene thus rejected one of the central tenets of the global detention system: that prisoners held in the United States are entitled to habeas corpus review as long as they were held in the United States. The writ of habeas corpus secured by the Suspension Clause is limited to American citizens or the major part of the writ to apply to any U.S. detention anywhere in the world (where the Court found it applied) to Bagram and Guantánamo (where the Court might one day reach).

Yet *Boumediene* also contained some important limitations. The Supreme Court did not rule that the Suspension Clause applied to all prisoners held by the United States. The Court implicitly recognized that some prisoners held in the United States are not entitled to habeas corpus and left open exactly where that line is drawn. Guantánamo. The Court acknowledged that the writ of habeas corpus, if applied to prisoners detained abroad by the Executive, it likely would be an unprecedented extension of judicial power. The Court would be available at the moment the writ is applied. The Court reinforced the idea that there remained a distinction between territorial detention—temporally, if not spatially—and nonterritorial detention. Furthermore, the Court cautioned that the writ, if applied, "proper deference can be given to the Executive for screening and initial detention upon capture. The writ of habeas corpus is not confinement and treatment for a reasonable period of time. Adequate military process might delay or frustrate the writ. The Court's functional test also meant that the writ's application depended partly on an individual judge's

the tradition and precedents he cited. A judge's ability to enforce the writ's reach, had traditionally guided deter- each. The availability of habeas corpus citizenship status—a limitation that guard against arbitrary and unlawful or territorial sovereignty to a bright- invention. Such a rule, moreover, ulti- a system of government predicated on commitment to the rule of law. Guan- ring the Constitution's reach to formal opened the door to the creation of law- torture.

The animating ideas behind the post-9/11 ers could necessarily be denied habeas old beyond America's shores. The right Suspension Clause, the Court said, was not mainland United States. Instead, it could n the world, from Guantánamo (where n in Afghanistan and CIA "black sites" the same conclusion).

Several important qualifications. The Suspension Clause necessarily reached s abroad. *Boumediene's* functional test ners would not have a right to habeas the writ might extend beyond Guan- at in "cases involving foreign citizens kely would be both an impractical and power to assume that habeas corpus prisoner is taken into custody."⁷¹ This d some undefined realm of extraterri- atially—that habeas corpus would not ned that in assessing where the habeas be accorded to reasonable procedures nder lawful and proper conditions of onable period of time."⁷² Thus, an ade- foreclose habeas review altogether. The t where and when habeas was available e's assessment of what was appropriate

and practicable—an assessment that was not always feasible. How long was too long? How much control over the detention site or the process of detention of several hundred individuals based solely on a determination by a military officer provided a relatively easy answer. Because the U.S. control over the territory was less complete, shorter and the military process more chaotic, *Boumediene* thus not only created future uncertainty but also showed that the executive and judicial branches could still act in some places of tension with the decision's stated purpose.

A sign of *Boumediene*'s potential reach came in litigation challenging U.S. detention. A district judge handed down a decision that was a dictatorial ruling in a Bagram habeas corpus case for four prisoners, at least three of whom were held in places as distant as Thailand. The judge imprisoned at Bagram as “enemy combatants.”

The district judge, John D. Bates, rejected the *Boumediene* to Guantánamo, finding that it had effectively rejected any bright-line test for determining when and other constitutional protections. *Boumediene*. Bates instead looked at the nature and extent of the adequacy of the process afforded by the military, obstacles, if any, to habeas review. He found that control over Bagram was not as complete as at Guantánamo and that Bagram was located in an area where the degree of U.S. control at Bagram was less than that at Guantánamo and was “practically” less than U.S. control over Lands End in World War II Germany, when the Supreme Court held that habeas review was available. Bates found that ongoing military operations in the area present a significant obstacle to habeas review. He found that such review were “largely of the Executive Branch” and that had been apprehended elsewhere and that the process used to determine the status of the prisoners was “short” of the process that the Supreme Court had found adequate in *Boumediene*.

was, by its nature, subjective and mal-
much process was enough? How much
prisoner was necessary? The prolonged
als at a U.S. enclave like Guantánamo
tribunal as deeply flawed as the CSRT
but other overseas detentions—when
s complete, when the detentions were
robust, and when the prison was in or
-might present a closer call. *Boumedi-*
tainty but also implied that the politi-
ces without legal constraint, a result in
ose.

as well as its potential limitations first
etentions at Bagram. In April 2009, a
a in *al-Maqaleh v. Gates*, the first juris-
corpus case.⁷³ The challenge involved
had been seized outside Afghanistan,
ailand and Dubai. All four had been
batants” for more than six years.

ected the government’s effort to limit
that the Supreme Court had defini-
etermining the reach of habeas corpus
Applying *Boumediene’s* functional test,
d degree of U.S. control over Bagram,
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rt decided *Eisentrager*.⁷⁴ In addition,
erations in Afghanistan did not pres-
view and that any practical barriers to
utive’s choosing” where the prisoners
d brought to Bagram.⁷⁵ He also found
e status of Bagram detainees fell “well
e Court had declared unconstitutional

at Guantánamo and failed to provide evidence, an opportunity to be heard,

Judge Bates therefore ruled that there was a constitutional entitlement to habeas rights for the fourth prisoner on the ground. Bates explained that for Afghan nationals apprehended in Afghanistan, the balance of interests focused on the possible friction with the United States, a significant concern if prisoners from Bagram were expected to be transferred to the United States. He said, if a U.S. court were to grant the habeas petition and reach a different result than the military by ordering the detainee's release.⁷⁷ Because the prisoner was apprehended inside Afghanistan, there was no right to habeas review because of the ongoing conflict.

On the one hand, *al-Maqaleh* showed the limits of categorical limits on habeas jurisdiction for "new Guantánamos" in other parts of the world. It is difficult to transport prisoners across geographical boundaries. On the other hand, *al-Maqaleh* highlighted the Supreme Court's application of the Supreme Court's habeas rights to only some Bagram prisoners. Under the ruling, prisoners brought to Bagram from Afghanistan for detention in U.S. courts (at least if they were apprehended inside Afghanistan—the overwhelming majority) could not, even though their detention was based on evidence, the same inadequate military definition of "enemy combatant." Further, the United States transfer any prisoner to another country, which could take years to be carried out. A prisoner had no access to Afghan or U.S. courts.

Boumediene's potential limitations on habeas rights. The government's appeal of Judge Bates's decision was denied. The three-judge panel—Judges Sotomayor, Tatel and Harry T. Edwards—ruled that there was no access to habeas corpus and ordered that the habeas petition. The Circuit panel acknowledged that the Supreme Court's line test for determining the application of habeas constitutional rights outside the United States was not clear.

meaningful access to the government's
or a neutral decision maker.⁷⁶

ree of the petitioners before him had
s review. However, he rejected habeas
round that he was an Afghan national.
onals, as well as for detainees appre-
f factors cut against habeas review. He
the Afghan government, since accord-
nt percentage of Afghan detainees at
ed to Afghan custody. Tensions could
entertain an Afghan detainee's habeas
an an Afghan court did, for example,
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Afghan custody, and until such trans-
ed out (if ever carried out at all), that
U.S. courts.

s became more apparent in the gov-
sion granting some Bagram detainees
which included liberal judges David S.
at none of the petitioners should have
at their cases be dismissed.⁷⁸ The D.C.
upreme Court had rejected any bright-
on of the Suspension Clause and other
ed States and had refused to limit its

decision in *Boumediene* to territories of de facto sovereignty, such as Guantánamo. Factored test, the panel also agreed with the process that the Bagram detainees had received. The process used for Guantánamo detainees was that Bagram's location in an active theater of war precluded habeas review over detentions there. ⁸⁰ Notably, the Court said it was not because the States had brought prisoners from other countries that habeas corpus review, even though it appeared to be. The Supreme Court's decision in *Rasul*, that habeas review applied to prisoners at Bagram rather than bringing habeas review to this reason. ⁸¹ The panel also pointed to the lack of friction with Afghanistan, even though the law of Afghanistan, which does not authorize habeas review, and which prohibits detention without trial.

The D.C. Circuit's decision in *al-Maqaleh* applied the *Boumediene* test was both a strengthening and a weakening of the possibility that extraterritorial detainees could be subject to habeas review, it by no means eliminated it. In fact, it gave judges wide discretion to exercise jurisdiction based on what they thought was appropriate. Without a reversal of *al-Maqaleh*, no matter how long a detainee has been subject to habeas corpus, no matter how long the process he had received, at least where the detainee has been brought to Bagram deliberately to

The same day that it issued *Boumediene*, the D.C. Circuit decided *Munaf v. Geren*, which involved habeas review for two American citizens detained in Iraq—*Munaf* and Shawqi Omar—had been seized by U.S. forces at run facilities there for more than two years. The court, thus grappled with the lurking issue of habeas review at Guantánamo. It also raised the question of whether U.S. detentions conducted as a part of a coalition, as part of the Multi-National Force-Iraq, were within the authority. While the Supreme Court refused to exercise jurisdiction to review the two petitions, it did not limit the scope and intensity of that review.

over which the United States exercised
Guantánamo. In applying *Boumediene*'s multi-
with Judge Bates that the military pro-
ceived was even more flawed than the
ees.⁷⁹ But the panel nevertheless held
ater of war and the practical obstacles
re trumped the factors favoring juris-
was only "speculation" that the United
er countries to Bagram to avoid habeas
ed that, at least from the time of the
the United States had been confining
ing them to Guantánamo for precisely
o a risk that habeas review might cause
gh U.S. detentions at Bagram violated
e indefinite detention without charge
t due process.⁸²

Alqaleh made clear that the malleability
length and a weakness: while it created
entions by the United States would be
eans ensured that review. To the con-
o balance various factors and decline
t they perceived as practical concerns.
o Bagram detainee would have access
g he had been held or how inadequate
without additional evidence that he had
o avoid habeas review.

Alne, the Supreme Court handed down
as corpus challenges filed on behalf of
Iraq.⁸³ Both men—Mohammad Munaf
by U.S. forces in Iraq and held at U.S.-
years. *Munaf*, like the Bagram litiga-
sue of U.S. overseas detentions beyond
on of whether habeas corpus reached
f an international force—in this case,
Iraq (MNF-I)—but answerable to U.S.
ruled that the federal courts had juris-
placed potentially significant limits on

In upholding habeas jurisdiction, the Court in *Arthur*, the World War II-era case in which the Supreme Court had ruled that the tribunal was “not a part of the United States” and that “the courts of the United States have no authority to review, to affirm, set aside or annul the proceedings of a government invoked *Hirota* in *Munaf*.”⁸⁵ The Court in *Munaf* Guantánamo detainee litigation: as a categorical matter, the government argued that the international character of the tribunal in *Hirota*, meant that the United States entity was not subject to habeas.⁸⁵ But *Hirota* was distinguished from *Munaf*. It involved enemy alien litigation, not habeas. The tribunal that convicted and sentenced the defendant was clearly subject to U.S. authority. *Munaf* distinguished *Hirota* because it could reach U.S. detentions overseas and was subject to judicial scrutiny simply by acting as part of the executive branch pursuant to an international source of authority, such as a United Nations Resolution.

The Supreme Court nevertheless also rejected the argument that habeas petitions should be dismissed because the defendant was not in U.S. custody. As framed by the Court, *Munaf* concerned habeas jurisdiction over individuals detained by the United States for the purpose of international prosecution under the laws of that country. The Court on the actual exercise of habeas review agreed that habeas jurisdiction of [a] nation within its own territory is exclusive and absolute.⁸⁷ A host country may cede jurisdiction to the United States, the Court reasoned, through measure of the United States. To give a foreign government primary jurisdiction over its troops stationed in the host country would be to give the host government jurisdiction to the foreign government. The Court’s absolute right to enforce its criminal law with respect to its citizens. In principle, the Court concluded that “prudence and the orderly administration of criminal justice require the United States to make its usual inquiry when the United States has jurisdiction over a person by the host state.⁸⁸

The Supreme Court also rejected the argument that the detainees’ threatened transfer to Iraqi jails constituted a violation of their rights and impermissibly exposed them to torture. The Court acknowledged that habeas corpus juris-

the Court distinguished *Hirota v. MacArthur*, involving war criminals convicted and sentenced by the War Relocation Authority Tribunal for the Far East. There, the Tribunal was “not a tribunal of the United States ha[d] no power or authority to review [its] judgments and sentences.”⁸⁴ The Court, just as it had invoked *Eisentrager* in the context of the categorical bar to habeas jurisdiction. It distinguished the case of the MNF–I, like the multinational force, from *Hirota*, the Supreme Court said, differed in that the MNF–I was “not a United States force.” As in *Hirota*, the Supreme Court said, differed in that the petitioners in *Hirota* were not U.S. citizens. More important, the Court found that the petitioners in *Hirota* was not a U.S. citizen, thus confirmed that habeas corpus jurisdiction was not available and that the executive could not evade habeas jurisdiction by being part of a multinational force or pursuant to an executive authority, such as a UN Security Council

authority. The Court also concluded in *Munaf* that the habeas jurisdiction of a U.S. judge could provide no relief.⁸⁶ The Court affirmed the exercise of habeas jurisdiction by a U.S. judge in another country for crimes committed in another country. The Court therefore evaluated the case against the long-standing rule that “the jurisdiction of a nation over territory is necessarily exclusive and that jurisdiction in certain instances, such as status-of-forces agreements that allocate jurisdiction over offenses committed by members of a multinational force, may be shared. But without such provisions allocating jurisdiction, the host nation retains an absolute jurisdiction over offenses committed within its territory. In light of these principles and the substantial concerns,” such as comity and justice, require a habeas court to forgo jurisdiction if the government is detaining a prisoner for prosecu-

tion. The Court rejected the petitioners’ alternative claim, that the government lacked the requisite legal authority to detain them to a risk of torture. The Court held that habeas jurisdiction can provide for review of a

prisoner's transfer from U.S. custody to a foreign country. In such cases, for example, such transfers require a hearing, and habeas courts routinely review the transfer for compliance with the treaty's terms and with applicable law. Even when the transfer occurs solely within the United States for purposes of criminal prosecution, the transfer is not necessary. To the contrary, without a hearing on the transfer, the executive is free to hand a detainee over to the government for prosecution under the host nation's laws.

The Court thus approved *Munaf's* transfer to Iraq without a hearing, even though both *Munaf* and *Al-Faraj* faced possible torture there. The Court's decision on transferring American citizens in Iraq to the custody of a foreign government "is not suited to second-guess such executive action, which would require federal courts to pass judgment on the wisdom of undermining the Government's ability to conduct foreign relations." The Court's decision, however, did not preclude habeas review of torture claims. It left open the possibility of habeas review against Torture through the Foreign Affairs and National Security Act. Congress had authorized the courts to review the transfer. Justice Souter suggested another important limitation on habeas. He insisted that a judge could prohibit a transfer if the possibility of torture is well documented, and the government cannot "edge it."⁹³

Munaf, together with *Boumediene*, established the scope of habeas corpus and its ability to reach non-citizens in the absence of American citizenship and habeas jurisdiction in *Boumediene*, and the fact that the operation did not preclude habeas review. The scope of habeas review was so circumscribed in *Munaf* that habeas review of prisoners were subject to criminal prosecution by a foreign nation (Iraq) where they had been transferred. If the prisoners were instead being held in the United States for continued detention by the United States for prosecution by the host nation, habeas review would be subject to this limitation.

But *Munaf* also suggested that the Court's decision on habeas restrictions on habeas corpus. The Court's decision could be dismissed without any factual inquiry into the merits of the claim.

to another government. In extradition there is no legal authorization, such as a treaty, to authorize the prisoner's transfer to ensure compliance with applicable statutory requirements.⁸⁹ But when a prisoner is transferred to the territory of a host government for military purposes, the Court stated, no specific authorization is required by a law, treaty, or agreement restricting the transfer of the prisoner over to the host government's laws.⁹⁰

In *Hamdan* and Omar's transfer to Iraqi custody, the government had presented evidence that they were being tortured. It pointed to a U.S. policy against transference to a country likely to torture. "The Judiciary," it said, "is not to make determinations—determinations that require judgment on foreign justice systems and to speak with one voice in this area."⁹¹ The Court did not foreclose all review of transfer-to-torture claims, but that in implementing the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Religious Intolerance, the Executive should consider such claims.⁹² Justice David Souter's qualification in a concurring opinion. "The Court will not consider a prisoner's transfer when 'the problem is not even if the Executive fails to acknowl-

ed,' it said, 'demonstrates the broad ambit of the problem in U.S. detentions overseas. Just as the lack of political sovereignty did not foreclose U.S. participation in a multinational effort to fight terrorism in *Munaf*. And the reason that this was not a habeas claim in *Munaf*, the Court explained, was that the prisoners were being prosecuted for violating the laws of the United States. They had been seized and were being detained. If they were being transferred for other purposes, such as for continuing to fight terrorism, their habeas review would not be subject to the same standard as in *Munaf*.'"

There might be other, more significant questions. The Court ordered that the habeas petitions be granted, and that a full inquiry into the basis for the prisoners' detention be conducted.

detention or the risk of torture following transfer to the United States avoided this scrutiny in the prisoners' cases as U.S. detention was not the host government whose criminal law would be enforced, and not continued U.S. detention in a territorial U.S. enclave. Yet this rationale was rejected in the case and underscored the risk that habeas corpus review by invoking the habeas process to shield its own detentions. In the cases, Iraqi criminal proceedings were not sought from a U.S. court. Further, the United States suggested that it could not be held liable if the prisoners were acquitted by Iraqi courts, based on the argument that a security detainee subject to criminal proceedings was an "enemy combatant" in America's global war on terrorism. The habeas detention interest was shielded, however, by the habeas review of Iraqi proceedings.

Munaf's impact was soon felt in prisoner transfers. Relying on *Munaf*, a circuit court of appeals subsequently held that a prisoner had no right to contest their transfer to another country. The executive could point to a policy forbidding transfers. As the appeals court said, a judge could not review the executive's decision to transfer a particular prisoner. Nor, could a judge examine a prisoner's claim that he was being transferred to further detention in the receiving country. Relying on the executive's laws, a U.S. court could not inquire whether the continued detention was justified. The dissent correctly noted, the panel's decision was problematic because it allowed transfers intended to avoid habeas review to reach by handing the prisoner over to another country. The Court, however, declined to hear the prisoner's claim, leaving that decision in place.⁹⁶

Boumediene and *Munaf* were the Supreme Court's "war on terrorism" decisions during Bush's presidential administration's effort to avoid habeas corpus review. The bright-line tests: political sovereignty and U.S. participation in a multinational effort to combat terrorism demonstrated that habeas corpus remained a

ving transfer to Iraqi authorities. The *Munaf* by successfully characterizing ns for the purpose of prosecution by l laws the United States was helping ention without charge in an extrater- le was in tension with the record in at the United States could simply cir- ne specter of another nation's criminal from review. In *Munaf*'s and *Omar*'s e initiated only after habeas relief had hermore, at least in *Omar*'s case, the still detain the petitioner even if he on the theory that he was not only a prosecution by Iraq but was also an al "war on terrorism." This U.S.-based ver, from habeas review by the specter

other habeas cases challenging pris- divided three-judge panel of the D.C. tly ruled that Guantánamo detainees to another country.⁹⁴ As long as the bidding transfers to likely torture, the second-guess the executive's decision the appeals court said, could a judge s being transferred for the purpose of ntry. If the prisoner was held pursuant irt could not question the decision or on was at the United States' behest. As s decision undermined habeas corpus to remove a prisoner from the court's to another sovereign.⁹⁵ The Supreme risoners' appeal of the panel decision,

Supreme Court's last two "war on ter- ency. Both decisions rejected the Bush as review by invoking formalistic or and citizenship status in *Boumediene* al force in *Munaf*. *Boumediene* further ained an important means of cutting

through sham proceedings like the CS, the determination of the basis for a prisoner's confinement.

The decisions, however, also pointed to the availability of habeas corpus: *Boumediene* employed the writ to leave left open the possibility that at least some prisoners could remain beyond judicial review; *Munaf* held that habeas review itself could be exceeded by a state. The United States successfully tied the prisoner's detention to the jurisdiction of another state. Moreover, habeas corpus did not determine the permissible scope of the president's authority. The availability of habeas thus did not resolve the question of whether the United States could imprison an individual and prosecute that person in a military court without the review of federal courts. Nor did it determine what legal questions a detainee might claim in challenging his confinement. Habeas a vehicle for courts to address these questions. The availability of jurisdiction over individual cases. But the writ's availability for review of important legal questions, such as the scope of military detention power, could be avoided by the executive through the transfer or non-transfer of prisoners. Those questions unresolved and the government could engage in unlawful conduct again in the future.

The availability of habeas corpus also pointed to the remedy a court could order if it found a prisoner's detention unlawful. The prisoner could not be safely returned to his home country or not be repatriated to a third country. In *Hamdi*, the Supreme Court in Washington, D.C., order the prisoner's detention. The question was what could the court do to remedy ill-treatment and other issues.

RT and providing a meaningful examination of confinement.

It is also worth noting some potential limitations on the use of a malleable and functional test that might be applied to some overseas U.S. detentions would be that, in contrast, served as a reminder that habeas relief is a very narrow, especially if the United States' detention to possible criminal prosecution. Habeas corpus review did not itself determine the president's detention authority. The availability of habeas relief depends on the circumstances under which the individual is detained indefinitely without charge or conviction rather than in the regular course of justice. That other constitutional or legal rights might be violated during his confinement. Habeas did provide a mechanism for questions through the exercise of their writ. As recent history has shown, habeas relief is not always granted, such as the scope of the president's military authority. Habeas relief is often granted by eleventh-hour machinations by the executive branch, thereby leaving the government free to engage in the same

It also did not answer the question of what would constitute the prisoner's detention unlawful but rather that the prisoner returned to his home country and could not be released. Could, for example, a habeas court in the United States release the prisoner into the United States? If not, would that constitute legal detention? Part 4 addresses these

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Toward a Better Understanding of Habeas Corpus

Individual Rights and the Role of the Judiciary during Wartime

Centuries ago, the king declared them traitors and locked them away in the Tower of London. In 2001, the president called them “enemies of the state” and held them at Guantánamo and other offshore prisons. Habeas corpus emerged as a critical check against executive power and judicial review.

Some people have claimed that habeas corpus is a barrier against terrorism and jeopardizes American security. Critics have even accused the detainees’ attorneys of treason for defending a person deprived of his liberty against the United States.¹ Those who support the detainees held in connection with terrorism are legislators, and the public should insist on transparency about whom to imprison and for how long. The treatment of prisoners, including the methods of interrogation, is solely for the executive to decide. But the pressures it can exert on even well-meaning officials to exceed legal limits in the name of security that have been the Supreme Court Justice Louis Brandeis’ warning: “The dangers to liberty lurk in insidious encroachments, not in blunders, but without understanding.”²

By rejecting bright-line categories such as territorial sovereignty as the basis for habeas corpus, the Court limited the possibility of detentions outside the United States. In *Hamdi v. Bush*, as Professor Gerald Neuman

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ared people enemies of the state and
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orneys of waging “lawfare,” as though
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o oppose extending habeas rights to
e “war on terror” argue that judges,
ead defer to the president’s decisions
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t make habeas corpus so important. As
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ide the law. Its decision in *Boumediene*
has explained, serves as an important

have been the innocent victims of . . . conceptions of sovereignty, territoriality,” as Professor David Cole has noted.⁴ That future overseas detentions will take federal court intervention. The mere possibility of *Boumediene* will likely have a disciplining effect on the executive branch, causing it to act in ways that give greater weight to habeas corpus and avoid more arbitrary detention in order to avoid more

enough to protect against unlawful executive rule of law. As we have seen, the very territorial test, which focuses on whether a detention is “impracticable” or “anomalous” under the law, would avoid assuming jurisdiction over future detentions that are too complicated or politically sensitive. The possibility of detentions beyond the law. The Court has made clear that habeas corpus is available for the United States, regardless of where the detention of the writ by Congress. The sole ground for habeas would be detention by, or at the direction of, the executive. The prisoner is held and the circumstances of the detention may affect the scope of a court’s review. The Court’s analysis, and the result it ultimately reaches, may determine the court’s power to consider

detentions, regardless of location, inevitably during wartime. What is the legal standard for habeas and how does it square with previous precedent? How would habeas review work in the context of a theater of military operations? What concern raised in prior wartime habeas cases? Would it cause courts to improperly micromanage wartime operations from the bench? Would courts be inundated by petitions filed by or on behalf of prisoners?

detained and held outside the United States from the writ’s reach. In *Boumediene*, the Court rejected the proposition that a prisoner’s citizenship determined the availability of habeas cor-

pus. Instead, the Court stated that of the factors to consider in determining whether the Suspension Clause guaranteed habeas review. The Court's ruling accorded with habeas and rejected any bright-line or categorical

Historically, habeas corpus was available to all citizens. It also had a broad territorial scope of reaching any jailer under the Crown. When the government occasionally sought to transport prisoners to other parts of the world, reforms were enacted to curb the practice. Habeas corpus was similarly understood as a vital remedy against executive confinement. Since 1789, the Constitution has granted writs of habeas corpus to any person "held in violation of the authority of the United States" in any "place" or "location"—a provision that remained in force through the Detainee Treatment Act of 2005 and the Military Commissions Act of 2006.⁷ Even more important, the Constitution provides for suspension of habeas corpus except in narrow circumstances: reference to a prisoner's citizenship or

Territorial and citizenship-based limitations are not the writ's purpose. Habeas corpus does not challenge the legality of confinement; it also helps ensure that confinement is lawful. Restricting habeas corpus based on citizenship or territoriality violates the principle of equal protection under law. If detentions are arbitrary and lawless, Congress cannot restrict habeas corpus. Courts have held that, in determining the government's authority to detain, the Immigration and Nationality Act, for example, may apply to foreign nationals pursuant to their removal. The Alien Enemies Act of 1798, with respect to enemy aliens, is a law of the government in time of war.⁹ But citizenship is not a bar to a person's detention is lawful, nor does it address that question. Thus, even when citizenship is a material element of a given detention, as in the cases cited in the texts, habeas review remains available under the Constitution.¹⁰

Conditioning habeas corpus on a prisoner's citizenship or territoriality is of the type of arbitrary and lawless executive action that the Constitution forbids. Terrorism today is global, and an effective response requires transnational action by law enforcement

citizenship and location were among
whether the Constitution's Suspension
over a particular detention abroad.
its history and purpose insofar as it
limits on its availability.

available to individuals regardless of their
tribal ambit under common law, capable
of the king's command. When the king's jailers
send prisoners overseas to avoid habeas review,
the practice. In the United States, habeas cor-
pus is a check against arbitrary and unlaw-
ful detention. Federal law had authorized judges to
release a person "in custody under or by color
of law without regard to citizenship status or
location in effect until Congress amended it in
1875 and the Military Commissions Act of
2006. The Constitution expressly prohibits the sus-
pension of the writ in narrowly defined circumstances, without
regard to location.⁸

Limitations similarly are at odds with the
purpose of the writ not just protect individuals against ille-
gal detention but also that the power of the state is exercised
in a way based on citizenship not only violates the
Constitution but also creates a perception that U.S.
Citizenship, to be sure, can be relevant
to the authority to detain in a particular situation.
The Constitution authorize the detention of certain for-
eigners removed from the United States. So may the
Constitution protect to citizens or subjects of an enemy
nation. Citizenship itself does not resolve whether
it determines the power of a court to
release a person's noncitizenship is an essen-
tial part of the immigration and alien enemy con-
stitution to ensure the detention comports with

A prisoner's location also increases the risk
of executive action that took place after 9/11.
The executive counterterrorism policy depends
on the cooperation of the executive, intelligence agencies, and the

military, sometimes in combination involves the seizure of terrorist suspects power overseas in ways not contemplated in prior military conflicts. An effective gathering information to prevent future corpus depends on where a prisoner for the government to find new locations to interrogate without a judicial check—precisely what the Bush administration to create a national habeas corpus to fulfill its checking law enforcement and military operations received than in the past. The global reach of terrorism, in short, begets a broader concern that this power is exercised lawfully—its historic purpose as a bulwark against war.

War poses a more difficult challenge. Relatively few precedents involve combatants who challenged their detention or military operations successfully or unsuccessfully. The United States judges on the sidelines conducting habeas for every person whom American forces capture during wartime risks injecting judges with expertise and competence and interference does not mean courts have no role to play. As the law drifts from clear and well-defined legal boundaries, the judicial role must be.

Take the supposed problem of national habeas rights after 9/11. Over 100,000 prisoners in total. Given the tens of thousands of habeas actions decided by the courts every year, many for murder and other violent crimes, habeas actions has always been relatively overwhelming the courts. The question that during this litigation was where else habeas were recognized at Guantánamo. What about the hundreds of U.S. detainees in Afghanistan, the United States held in Iraq, and a nation that might capture and detain abroad in future conflicts would habeas rights have extended to

a. Counterterrorism thus potentially
ects abroad and the projection of U.S.
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e counterterrorism policy also requires
re attacks. As long as access to habeas
is detained, there will be an incentive
ions where it can imprison and inter-
isely the dynamic that helped prompt
network of overseas prisons after 9/11.
ng function in an age of transnational
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ch of U.S. detention power to fight ter-
ception of habeas rights to help ensure
a conception that aligns with habeas's
wrongful imprisonment.

ge to the idea of global habeas corpus.
batants detained during wartime who
y trial by habeas corpus, whether suc-
ed States has never fought a war with
earings in federal court on behalf of
capture during combat. Habeas review
and lawyers into matters beyond their
ring with military operations. But that
play, and the further the United States
al boundaries, the more aggressive the

members. Guantánamo, the principal bat-
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nds of postconviction habeas petitions
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the number of Guantánamo detainee
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nat always loomed in the background
habeas rights might apply once they
uld, for example, the writ also reach
ghanistan, the thousands of prisoners
ll the others whom the United States
ture armed conflicts? Or looking back,
o the more than one million German,

Italian, and Japanese soldiers the United States in World War II, including the 400,000 prisoners of war. Where and how should the courts draw the line? If citizenship do not justify restricting a person's rights, the realities of war do.

A closely related concern is the impact of habeas corpus on the military. The government argued in the Guantánamo litigation that affording habeas corpus would jeopardize military operations and national security.¹² In *Boumediene*, the Supreme Court held that habeas petitions from enemy prisoners could be denied. In Germany, where the United States became an occupying power in an occupation zone encompassing a population of 18 million. The D.C. Circuit held that interfering with military operations in the form of denial of habeas petitions filed on behalf of prisoners in Afghanistan was not unconstitutional. The court held that Bagram was located in an area of active military operations.

In addition to these practical considerations, habeas corpus raises questions about maintaining the separation of powers between the branches of government. The Constitution grants the power shared between Congress and the executive branch, the power to declare war, to raise and support armies, to make rules concerning military captures.¹³ The Constitution states that the president shall be the commander in chief of the armed forces. The center of many of the debates over the constitutionality of military policies, from declaring prisoners of war to military commissions. The Bush administration argued that the chief clause to support far-reaching claims of executive power, giving the power to ignore laws that the president has discretion to define and to wage war as he sees fit. The administration lawyers argued, must yield to the president's military necessity and national security. The Supreme Court in chief exceeded his constitutionally proper scope of that power for future generations. The court's the judiciary's appropriate role in reviewing executive actions in time. Indeed, it is possible that courts should not review the excesses of one administration beyond their proper sphere and competence.

United States captured during World War II. How is the line to be drawn? If a prisoner's location and access to habeas corpus, then perhaps

the impact that so many habeas petitions on the government repeatedly argued during the war. The Supreme Court's habeas rights to "enemy combatants" and decision making in the "war on terrorism" noted the interference that habeas review would have caused in post-World War II operations. The government is responsible for maintaining order over more than 57,000 square miles with the military. The Ninth Circuit raised similar concerns about habeas review in *al-Maqaleh* when ordering the dismissal of habeas petitions for prisoners at Bagram in Afghanistan, located in an active theater of war.

In other considerations, wartime habeas review also raises the issue of the proper separation of powers among the branches of government. The Constitution envisions the war power as primarily executive. It grants to Congress, for example, the power to declare war and support armed forces, and to make rules for the government. The Constitution also stipulates that the president is the chief of the armed forces.¹⁴ The meaning of the commander-in-chief clause was at the center of the Supreme Court's decision in *Hamdi*. The Bush administration's post-9/11 detention of "enemy combatants" to trying them in military courts. The administration invoked the commander-in-chief clause as a basis of presidential authority, including the power to detain. The president said he encroached on his discretion when he saw fit. Even laws prohibiting torture, habeas review would yield before the president's assertions of executive authority. Yet merely because one commander-in-chief has delegated power neither resolves the issue for future presidents nor settles the question of how to review military detentions during war. Habeas review could overcompensate for the abuses by inserting themselves into matters that are the province of the executive.

These concerns, although understandable, are based on a misunderstanding about the nature of habeas corpus review. Habeas corpus review in modern transnational counterterrorism contexts does not interfere with executive functions. Instead, habeas review ensures that the government detains prisoners, those prisoners' rights, and other legal requirements. While this more expansive review may inevitably lead to greater judicial review in the past, that is a consequence of the military context, not terrorism, the different legal framework, and the traditional state-versus-state context, and not the use of national security detentions without habeas review.

The potential volume of wartime habeas review may mean that courts would be overwhelmed. However, the number of prisoners *could* seek habeas relief is limited, and especially once it became clear that the government was detaining them, if the courts were somehow flooded with habeas petitions from prisoners seized during wartime military operations, the volume would be manageable. The number of prisoners can vary significantly depending on the nature of the conflict and the breadth of the government's claims. The legal procedures and protections provided to the prisoners would be extremely limited, even *pro forma*, in some cases. However, it might be appropriately robust in others. The inquiry into legal and factual basis for detention would be limited.

In an armed conflict between two nations, the Geneva Conventions national armed conflict"—habeas review ensures that the government demonstrates that it is adhering to the Geneva Conventions and other applicable legal requirements. If the government fails to meet these requirements, it may miss a habeas petition. If the government fails to meet these requirements, however, a court could order that the process used to detain the prisoners be consistent with the Geneva Conventions. Thus, although habeas review has traditionally been used in the context of World War II, it has traditionally been used in the context of prisoners, it is precisely in this context that habeas review is most important.

The limited but important function of habeas review in conflicts is to demand that the government adhere to the legal requirements conducted under the proper legal framework. This includes, but is not limited to, with the required hearings and other

undable, are rooted in misconceptions
view and the importance of that review
terrorism operations. Properly understood,
with legitimate military operations or
helps ensure that to the extent the U.S.
detentions adhere to applicable legal
narrow conception of habeas rights will
review of military detentions than in the
military's increased role in combating ter-
rор-governing armed conflicts outside the
and the heightened risk of error posed
at criminal process.

habeas petitions does not necessar-
ly overwhelm. The mere fact that thousands
does not mean that they *would* do so,
there was no prospect of relief. But even
with lawsuits filed by or on behalf of
military operations, judges could still han-
dle the breadth and flexibility of habeas review, which
depend, for example, on the nature of the conflict,
the scope of detention power, and the proce-
dure for the prisoner. Thus that review might be
available in some circumstances. In others, how-
ever, with a court conducting a searching
review of a prisoner's detention.

for more nations—known as an “inter-
national” review is narrow as long as the govern-
ing strictly to the Geneva Conventions
rules.¹⁵ If it does, a court can promptly dis-
miss if the government fails to adhere to those well-estab-
lished rules. A court can remedy the failure, such as by
determine a prisoner's status comply with
the rules. In such international armed conflicts, such
as the Vietnam War, involved the greatest number of prison-
ers. In such cases, habeas review is most circumscribed.

of habeas in international armed con-
flicts show that its detentions are being
reviewed, that it is providing prisoners
with the same protections to prevent error, and that

it is complying with the rules mandating torture and other forms of abuse. The court would not have to present live testimony by a high-level official describing how the conflict and confirming that the same rules applied to the particular prisoner in question.

Some habeas petitioners might claim a violation in their particular case. For example, a detainee was improperly denied prisoner-of-war status under the Geneva Convention. Another might claim that he was transported to the enemy army and was imprisoned in violation of the Fourth Geneva Convention. But for international law to apply in an armed conflict and held in accordance with the Geneva Convention need not conduct an individualized inquiry. Instead, a court could defer to the findings of a military tribunal that assessed the detainee's status and found that he was not authorized (i.e., that the category of prisoner of war was not correctly defined as prisoner of war or that the Geneva Convention determination through the required process was not followed) (i.e., a hearing conducted in accordance with the Geneva Convention and applicable military law). The court would neither have to conduct a hearing nor court nor rebut the specific allegations. The court would always retain the power to probe the facts if confronted with egregious or widespread abuse, the ordinary rule would be summary review of the facts in international armed conflicts.

There are sound reasons for cabinining habeas review in these circumstances. The military detention of combatants from enemy nations is firmly rooted in both the Constitution and the War Powers Resolution, which grants Congress the power to declare war, to govern the capture of prisoners¹⁶ and to prosecute the war as commander in chief. The Constitution's framers understood war as a necessary part of states.¹⁸ War might vary in its magnitude and intensity, but it existed only between two or more governments. The Constitution after the country's founding. During the

ing humane treatment and prohibit-
To make this showing, the government
ny but could submit a sworn statement
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im that military officials made a mis-
mple, a petitioner might claim that he
ar status under Article 4 of the Third
argue that she never provided sup-
properly interned as a civilian under the
individuals captured in an international
with the Geneva Conventions, a court
inquiry into each detainee's allegations.
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status as long as that status was legally
persons who could be detained was
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process to minimize the risk of error
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nis or her detention. Although a court
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which gives the president the power
in chief.¹⁷ As an original matter, the
ar as existing only between sovereign
tude and intensity—hence, the differ-
ct” wars—but war, in the legal sense,
overnments.¹⁹ This view persisted long
ne Civil War, for example, when Presi-

dent Abraham Lincoln commissioned usages of war, he defined public war as between sovereign nations or governments.”²⁰ The administration leaned most heavily on the authority of *Ex parte Milligan* and *Quirin*—understood war as existing between nations. The Constitution recognizes broad executive power during the extraordinary power to detain enemy combatants; it also contemplates that power as operating within certain parameters.

In an international armed conflict, the law of war governs detention, both legally and factually. A detainee is either a combatant (i.e., prisoner of war or civilian), but the law of war requires a hearing conducted close to capture and a meaningful safeguard against mistaken detention. In international conflicts, in which combatant status is determined by a government’s armed forces and that status is often obscured because soldiers wear uniforms and carry arms, the Geneva Conventions’ more streamlined procedures are often sufficient to prevent error. At the same time, the limited temporal limits of such conflicts (which usually cease), the costs of mistaken detention, and the need for these circumstances is thus best understood as a temporary suspension of, rather than a permanent abrogation of, ordinary constitutional context, military procedures, implemented in accordance with the Geneva Conventions and U.S. military regulations. The Geneva Conventions are an adequate substitute for habeas corpus.

By contrast, military detention outside of international law lacks a constitutional foundation or pedigree. The law of war contains a number of examples in which state actors, such as pirates and slave traders, were held as prisoners of war. Operations against nonstate actors were often conducted under the law, not held as prisoners of war or otherwise. The law of war, from the ordinary requirement of capture to the exception—a civil war—is more a variation on the theme of war in opposition claims and exercises the same principles of governmental structure, organized armed forces, and the American Civil War.²² Thus, the very nature of military detention outside the strictures of an international

the first codification of the laws and
as a “state of armed hostility between
Similarly, the cases on which the Bush
after 9/11 to defend its indefinite mili-
as “enemy combatants”—*Eisentrager*
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Not only are the legal categories clear
the fact-finding process—a military sta-
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military force was used against non-
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a de facto state in a civil war raises serious questions. Can the United States can effectively treat the Taliban, al Qaeda, and other terrorist organizations any differently than it treats in a perpetual war, what are the limits? Can military operations without trial be employed against an individual? What government views, rightly or wrongly, justify the use of military detention in these circumstances? The issue is not only about but also raises concerns about military operations and criminal law enforcement.

Armed conflicts that are not between states are called noninternational armed conflicts. Since the Geneva Conventions developed to address conflicts that do not involve states. The rationale behind these developments was to limit a state's power or to avoid legal consequences. After 9/11 by selectively invoking and misapplying international law is to ensure that all individuals seized in the name of protection against arbitrary detention are treated humanely. In armed conflicts, however, there is a presumption that the state in which the detention occurs will prosecute those detained will be prosecuted under that state's laws. The fact that civilians who engage in hostilities (non-combatants) have no status in international law. The Geneva Conventions, which apply to conflicts between two or more sovereigns, and seeks to regulate the way states to treat insurrection, insurgency, or terrorism. The Geneva Conventions under its laws.²³ In noninternational armed conflicts, also requires adherence to the due process guarantees, including meaningful access to a court of law. In international conflicts, many of these guarantees are addressed.

In addition, the risk of mistaken detention in noninternational armed conflicts that is precisely because insurgents, guerrillas, and other non-state actors always wear uniforms, bear arms openly, and distinguish themselves from the civilian population. In international conflicts, those subject to detention in a noninternational armed conflict, whereas in international armed conflicts, there is a great deal of uncertainty about the enemy, in noninternational armed conflicts, some, if not a great deal, of factual uncertainty. When, as the United States did after 9/11, the United States launches a global "war on terrorism," people

battlefield, who never engaged in hostilities and have no connection to armed conflict at all.

At the same time, the cost of error is high. The potentially extended duration of a non-international conflict, involving insurgents, terrorists, or other nonstate actors, maintains that it is engaged in a conflict with “associated” terrorist organizations that is long-term and generational in duration. Both the risks and the costs of detention in such a conflict are thus far greater than in international armed conflicts, in which under the Geneva Conventions, prisoners are released and repatriated at the end of hostilities.

For these reasons, detention in non-international armed conflict requires broader habeas review. A court must determine whether the government is complying with the Geneva Conventions and treating detainees as prisoners of war, as it would do in an international armed conflict, in which the Geneva Conventions apply. On the basis for detention, a court must address the legality of detention without charge: that is, the category of persons subject to confinement or administrative detention is not subject to criminal courts. A court must also determine whether the detainee is himself detainable. In other words, even if a government is authorized to detain a limited category of persons (such as members of an organized military force of a nonstate actor or allied forces in a theater of war), a court must determine whether the detainee falls into that category as a factual matter. This requires a fact-finding inquiry itself or ensuring that the government has the process to make that determination. Any such inquiry must be conducted by an independent and impartial body and

Habeas review is especially critical in situations where the government fails to follow the laws of war and the Geneva Conventions, or where the detention of prisoners seized during armed conflict is extended beyond the bounds of armed conflict. This was the case that occurred after 9/11 in the United States.

These detentions, to be sure, trade off the rights of the enemy’s soldiers to prevent their capture in order to afford prisoner-of-war status to the enemy’s soldiers and units and do not adhere to the laws

hostilities, and who, in some instances, had a greater, given the uncertain and noninternational armed conflict against the groups. The United States, for example, in an armed conflict against al Qaeda and that is not only global in scope but also risks and the costs of erroneous detention rather than in an armed conflict between conventions prisoners must be promptly hostilities.²⁵

noninternational armed conflict warrants do more than simply confirm that the Geneva Conventions and holding combatants in an international armed conflict. In a which international law does not supply a persons who may properly be subject to detention of persons—if any—subject to military rather than prosecution in the regular determine whether the individual prisoner even if the government is properly authorizes persons militarily (such as members of an actor engaging in hostilities against U.S. court must determine that a prisoner actually matter—whether by conducting that that there is an adequate alternative process must contain the safeguards of international law, including access to a legal representative.²⁶

two circumstances: when the government other applicable rules in its treatment of conflict and when wartime detention power in armed conflict itself. Both circumstances concern the detention of “enemy combatants.” and on familiar concepts: incapacitating and “return to the battlefield” and refusing to release those who fight outside regular military operations of war.²⁷ The notion that individuals

could engage in hostile acts without the protection of the Geneva Conventions. Members of an enemy armed force who do not wear uniforms and do not carry arms openly wrote one of the first codifications of the laws of war during the American Civil War and helped lay the foundation for the Hague Conventions defining rights and responsibilities during war. The Geneva Conventions distinguish between combatants and non-combatants by giving combatants immunity from punishment for acts of war and providing for special treatment for spies, saboteurs, and deserters. The Geneva Conventions also prohibit the use of force to harden the security of an occupying power and prohibit the use of domestic law for taking up arms.²⁹

Modern developments have increased the complexity of international belligerency, with the traditional model of war between states and against one another in rank-and-file formations giving way to wide-ranging methods of warfare in which combatants are often disguised as partisans, spies, or saboteurs.³⁰ Terrorists do not wear uniforms or openly carry arms; instead they try to blend in with the ordinary population and deliberately target civilians.³¹

The Bush administration, however, argued that individuals who exercised executive power and avoid all legal constraints were just like the spies, saboteurs, and deserters. The administration stated, in warlike acts without adhering to the laws of war, they made them “unlawful combatants” whose involvement—even the mere provision of support to an organized group—could justify a person’s imprisonment and prosecution for war crimes before a military commission. The administration thus claimed the power to detain and prosecute indefinitely and in infinite duration against an enemy. The administration argued that such individuals could be treated as combatants in order to ensure the security of the United States but who had no privileges of combatants and whose otherwise lawful acts of war were a war crime, subject to prosecution, arbitrary detention and abuse.

This approach was deeply flawed. For the purpose of international armed conflict, individuals who are in a direct connection to an enemy nation’s armed forces are considered combatants. That is the approach of the ICRC, which monitors compliance with the laws of war.

the protected status afforded to regular as a long history. Francis Lieber, who of the laws of land warfare during the the groundwork for the 1899 and 1907 and duties during armed conflict, cited might apply to irregular bands of armed customs of warfare.²⁸ Likewise, the 1949 been privileged and unprivileged bellig- only to prisoners of war and singling eurs, and others whose activities jeop- wer and who can be prosecuted under

eased the challenges of unprivileged del of uniformed armies squaring off rmation giving way to amorphous and which individuals can act as guerrillas, orism presents additional challenges. openly acknowledge their identities but ary population. They also indiscrimi-

exploited these challenges to maximize constraints. It maintained that terror- and others before them who engaged the laws of war. This, the administra- combatants,” and meant that any level of n of support to al Qaeda or an “associ- indefinite military detention or trial for sion that failed to meet the standards ary courts-martial. The Bush admin- ight an armed conflict of global scope y whose members and affiliates could exempt them from regular due process ge of belligerency, rendering even oth- and no legal protections against arbi-

irst, combatant status developed in the ct and has long been tied to a person’s d forces. The prevailing view, including mpliance with the 1949 Geneva Con-

ventions, was that no wartime prisoners outside the category of combatants or civilians under the Fourth Geneva Convention were to be a prisoner of war. A prisoner of war, who, if they took a direct part in hostilities, and could be prosecuted criminally under the laws of the capturing power. In other words, no separate category of “unlawful combatants” was to be created. A person was a combatant in the first instance if they included taking up arms against the enemy or attacking military targets with legal impunity. That person would be subject to military or criminal sanctions for violating the laws of war. A person was a prisoner of war if they were a *horseshoe* *in* who committed perfidy by removing themselves from the battlefield and entering the United States to attack military targets. A person was a combatant if their belligerency was lawful. All other persons (including civilians) and did not have the combatant status of a prisoner of war in an armed conflict.³⁴

Civilians who engage in hostilities are accurately described as “unprivileged belligerents.” Although unprivileged belligerents when they are directly participating in hostilities are subject to the purposes of detention and trial. This does not mean they are subject to punishment. To the contrary, unprivileged belligerents are subject to punishment for murder or related offenses under domestic law. The Bush administration thus deviated from long-standing rules of international law to treat those who allegedly were connected to terrorist organizations as combatants. This was a departure from the tradition of detention or military prosecution as war crimes. The Bush administration’s move to criminal prosecution under domestic law was a departure from the tradition of international law.

The Bush administration also wanted to create a category of prisoners without the status of a prisoner of war, civilian or military, domestic or international, in custody during armed conflict, even if they were not entitled to protections against arbitrary detention under the provisions of the Geneva Conventions. The Bush administration’s move to noninternational armed conflicts, international law, and human rights law. Much of the post-World War II development of international law was intended to ensure that the rules of international law for armed conflict outside the traditional Geneva Conventions—is beyond the law.

er in international armed conflict fell under the Third Geneva Convention or Convention. To be a combatant under the prisoner of war; all others were civilians. Civilians, were “unprivileged belligerents” under domestic law.³² There was, in other words, no “unlawful combatant.”³³ Only a person who had the privilege of belligerency, which allowed him to kill the enemy’s soldiers and attacking its military targets, could expose himself to criminal liability. A person who did not have this privilege, as did the German soldiers in *Qui-Quis*, who were wearing their uniforms and surreptitiously attacking military targets, thereby rendering their status as combatants, however, were noncombatants (i.e., they did not have a combatant’s privileged status to engage in

hostilities—including terrorists—are thus more accurately described as “unprivileged belligerents” than as “unlawful combatants.” Unlawful combatants may be targeted with military force during international hostilities, they remain civilians for purposes of domestic law. This does not mean they are immune from prosecution. Unprivileged belligerents may be prosecuted under domestic law. The Bush administration has departed from treaty law and customary practice by seeking to treat individuals connected to or supported al Qaeda and its affiliates as individuals subject to indefinite military detention rather than as civilians subject to domestic law.

The Bush administration manipulated the “enemy combatant” label to deny individuals any legal protection under any body of law, international or domestic. All individuals taken into custody and denied prisoner-of-war status, are still subject to indefinite military detention and abuse under other laws, including domestic law, customary international law, and, in some cases, international human rights law.³⁵ Indeed, the development in international humanitarian law that there is no prisoner in armed conflict—even in a state-based framework of the 1949 Geneva Conventions. Nonetheless, the Bush administra-

tion sought to treat the fight against terrorism as a war, and to deny the prisoners that it captured the rights of courts by labeling them “enemy combatants.”

The administration thus extended the scope of the powers of a conflict against another nation to include any country or theater of operations worldwide. There was no material difference between the detainees seized during combat against U.S. forces and a student arrested at his home in Peoria, Illinois, for providing support to a terrorist organization.

The troubling implications of this expansion of the military to seize and detain citizens of the United States as part of the global “war on terrorism” in the United States was not just imprisonment of detainees in operations in Afghanistan and Iraq outside the bounds of rights law, and the Constitution. It also included the use of detention power inside the country, which was in direct violation of the prohibition against detention without charge or trial.

Finally, the Bush administration denied detainees the process to challenge their detention. During the war in Afghanistan (i.e., from the U.S.-led invasion in 2001 until the fall of the Taliban regime that was replaced by a new government in June 2002), the administration required the military process—Article 36 of the Geneva Conventions—to determine whether Taliban fighters and other individuals were entitled to prisoner-of-war status. The process given individuals the opportunity to testify, to call witnesses if reasonably available, to be heard by a judicial panel, while also prohibiting physical or other coercion, whether physical or psychological. The hearings would have been held closer to the time of the individual’s capture to maximize accuracy.³⁷ The administration’s failure to provide any meaningful process to those seized during the war in Afghanistan (i.e., when the United States was fighting the Afghan regime but assisting the Afghan government in the country), by detaining individuals without any review. In addition, the administration denied detainees the right to provide any meaningful process to those seized during the war in Afghanistan.

terrorism as a global armed conflict and any legal protections or access to the courts.”

The concept of war beyond the paramilitary and also beyond the confines of Afghanistan where U.S. forces were engaged in hostilities, it argued, between an armed soldier and a civilian on a battlefield near Kandahar and the arrest of a man by the FBI on suspicion that he was involved in terrorism or plotting a terrorist crime.

These arguments were highlighted by the *al-Qaida* case. President Bush claimed he could order the detention of non-citizens and legal residents inside the United States in the name of terrorism.” These cases made clear that the United States was treating people captured during military operations outside the Geneva Conventions, human beings, as if they were not. The United States was applying its unbridled military power, threatening fundamental safeguards of the law.”³⁶

The United States denied prisoners any meaningful procedural rights during the international armed conflict in Afghanistan that began in October 2001 and continued through December and the establishment of the Taliban government. The Bush administration failed to provide any meaningful hearings under the Geneva Conventions to soldiers and militia under their combatant status. These hearings would have allowed them to testify, to attend open sessions, and to challenge their detention before a neutral three-officer adjudicatory body. The use of evidence gained by torture and other inhumane and degrading treatment was prohibited. Although summary in nature, the hearings were to take place close in time and place to the prisoners. The United States also failed to follow the requirements of the Geneva Conventions for noninternational armed conflict in Afghanistan. The United States and allied forces were no longer fighting that regime against insurgents in Afghanistan. The United States failed to bring charges against or prosecute those seized outside Afghanistan and held in

connection with the global “war on terror” at Guantanamo and Bagram, where some prisoners were held in other countries. Instead, it compounded the use of torture and other coercive interrogation techniques based on the information it obtained as the basis for further action.

In short, the United States tried to wage war without limit. The costs of this approach were far-reaching. Individuals were swept up and imprisoned for years without a fair trial and without correcting errors. Stripped of any legal recourse to the courts, a system of unchecked detention took hold and festered.

Habeas corpus does not guarantee that military procedures will adhere to legal requirements and standards and procedures to an individual. The prospect of habeas review also means that courts must define the scope of its detention power to limit military confinement to appropriate circumstances and an adequate process of error correction without expansive judicial involvement later.

Federal habeas corpus jurisdiction over military detention locations, would undoubtedly lead to increased judicial action during wartime. But following *Hamdi* and *Hamdan* line limitations on the Constitution’s extension of habeas jurisdiction is inevitable. As long as the United States is engaged in counterterrorism operations overseas, such basic issues as who may be detained, for how long, and what procedures the government must follow to justify lawful imprisonment. But whereas jurisdiction over habeas petitions on all sides benefit from clear detention rules, it is not a court to adjudicate whether the standards set by the United States at Bagram meet applicable legal requirements. It is for a court to say it has no power to review military detention power to remedy potentially illegal detention. This power should not be in dispute: as long as the United States should have the power to review the lawfulness of military detention.

Habeas review also does not require a court to review the detention of every person captured by U.S. forces.

ror” at Guantánamo, CIA “black sites,” were rendered after having been seized. The problem was compounded by engaging in torture tactics and then relying on the fruits of those tortures for the detentions.

The damage to the rule of law by the wage war without rules and to extend the legal breakdown were profound and deep. Many were captured by mistake or sold for bounty and without any hearing and without any process for legal protections and without any clear prohibition against torture, arbitrary detention, and abuse.

That U.S. detention standards and procedures are being challenged is a good thing. But it does at least subject those standards to a more independent checking mechanism. The challenge is that the United States is more likely to act more carefully and responsibly, to take into account the special circumstances, and to institute an independent check up front to minimize the risk of more

abuse over all U.S. detentions, regardless of the extent of increased judicial review of military operations. The decision in *Boumediene* and its rejection of bright-line rules for extraterritorial application, more litigation, and the fact that the United States continues to detain prisoners overseas, courts will be called on to address the question of what rights they must be given, what procedures must be employed to protect against wrongful detentions, and what procedural litigation is a deadweight loss, and what rules. So, for example, it is better for a court to review the standards and procedures used by the United States against the standards and constitutional requirements than to have a court determine that detention and thus no rights are applicable to those detentions. Jurisdiction, in other words, that if a prisoner is in U.S. custody, a court has jurisdiction over the lawfulness of his confinement.

The challenge is to require an individualized judicial hearing for each detainee during military operations. In many

cases, it may not require any such hearing. Ordinarily require such a hearing in a court. If conducted in accordance with the Geneva Convention, in theory could have exercised habeas corpus. Individuals held as prisoners of war during the conflict have been summarily dismissed on the grounds that their detention was clearly lawful.

Under U.S. law, habeas also may not be available for prisoners seized in a noninternational conflict. The standard for detention is properly limited to whether the individual is facing an impartial and independent hearing and is subject to judicial review. As the Supreme Court has held, it is possible that a properly constituted military tribunal could determine a battlefield detainee's status. Similarly, the Court has held that when an adequate military process has determined wrongful detention, a habeas judge may not interfere. Provided that the military is acting within the bounds of the law, it is made clear that without a meaningful process, habeas corpus must be available.

Even when courts supply a fact-finding process, it does not mean that judges will necessarily conduct a hearing. The process itself has evolved over the centuries so that habeas (in its various terms) no longer has to produce the prisoner. Courts may not testify the prisoner's detention. Courts may not receive evidence, from admitting audio or video links. When necessary, courts may use special masters or magistrates to assist in the process.

In addition, this type of individual habeas is unnecessary if the United States provides a process in which the detention occurs. Thus at the time of the conflict, the United States provided prisoners seized in Afghanistan in accordance with international law—part of the International Security Assistance Force—transferring prisoners to Afghan custody rather than detaining them indefinitely. The process may be circumscribed because the detention is lawful.

Viewing increased litigation and national security as a sum game is a mistake. Guantánamo "detention sites" have undermined, not enhanced, national security.

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created a perception of lawlessness. Like the United States disregards them. For example, that the *U.S. Army–Marine Corps* highlights the harmful strategic impact of “use of power without authority,” including “punishment without trial.”⁴⁰ Successful military operations waged against insurgents or others who are not bound by the rule of law. As the Supreme Court has held, “freedom from arbitrary and unlawful imprisonment is secured by adherence to the separation of powers. The government promotes this fidelity by requiring a judicial review of the treatment of prisoners in his custody or control.”

Finally, greater judicial involvement in military and intelligence agencies increases the risk of abuse. Detention in a “war on terrorism” is indefinite. It also is not based on clear indications of a threat to the nation’s armed forces) or narrowly circumscribed (e.g., a battlefield or in a theater of operations during hostilities). Instead, it turns on an assessment of the individual based on his perceived dangerousness. The government might provide information about the individual’s activities, but detention jeopardizes both the presumption of innocence and the Constitution’s prohibition against imprisonment without trial. Increased litigation is unavoidable as the judiciary to fulfill its required role in protecting individuals against arbitrary and unlawful

The Elusive Custodian

Some Potential Limits of Habeas Corpus

The enduring strength of habeas corpus to justify a prisoner's detention before the executive power to find the detention illegal and to challenge that strength lies a weakness: the incentive for the government to avoid habeas corpus by its detention operations to avoid habeas corpus. The court's ability to grant an effective remedy is particularly strong in matters affecting national security.

Actions taken after the September 11 attacks, including the Bush administration's decision to detain prisoners in the early 2002 to Congress's twice enacting the Authorization for Use of Military Force, the habeas corpus and overturn Supreme Court decisions on detainees' right to the writ. The desire to challenge the Bush administration's decision to detain prisoners in secret offshore prisons, from military operations to "black sites."

Even though the Bush administration tried to avoid habeas corpus, it was not the first administration to try to escape accountability. The potential both to inflict death and detain prisoners without public officials to err on the side of security and transparency. This is why recognizing the rights of individuals in U.S. custody, regardless of the circumstances, is to preventing the creation of more prisoners without habeas corpus. But habeas corpus will always be circumvented. Future administrations will seek judicial review if they believe it is necessary. The responsibility is to claim that the prisoners are not another government. Another is to avoid

an

Habeas Corpus

Habeas corpus is that it requires the state to provide an independent court that has the authority to order the prisoner's release. But in the process it creates for the state to structure habeas corpus altogether or to curtail the remedy, an incentive that can be particularly dangerous to national security.

11 attacks illustrate this paradox, from the transfer of prisoners to Guantánamo in 2002 to legislation seeking to repeal habeas corpus and decisions recognizing the Guantánamo facility as a place to avoid habeas corpus also influenced the decision to detain people at other, more remote facilities like Bagram to CIA-oper-

ated facilities. The administration went to extraordinary lengths to avoid habeas corpus, and it will not be the last, administration. The nature of terrorism, with its emphasis on destruction and to instill fear, can lead to a focus on security and secrecy rather than liberty. Recognizing that habeas corpus applies to all prisoners, regardless of where they are detained, is essential to prevent the creation of "new Guantánamos" that may be vulnerable to those who want to avoid habeas corpus. One way of concealing a prisoner is in the custody and control of the facility. To avoid detaining the prisoner altogether

and rendering him to another country. Both were done after 9/11 and led into a shell game in which prisoners were able to escape judicial scrutiny.

For a federal court to exercise habeas corpus, the individual must be in the custody or control of the United States. The habeas corpus statute authorizes courts to issue a writ if an individual is “in custody under or by the authority of the United States” or “in violation of the Constitution or the laws of the United States.”¹ Habeas was not meant to address the actions of the government, and a U.S. judge has no power to force the government to release a prisoner, not even an American citizen. The statute does not make U.S. courts the world’s policeman. Instead, it is directed at imprisonment by state government officials, as the case of *Hamdi* illustrates.

Detentions in the “war on terrorism” present unique challenges to habeas corpus review, not only because they often occur outside the United States, but also because the government often conceals their role. In the CIA’s “black sites,” detainees were often held in secret. In the run-up to the war, CIA and military intelligence detained prisoners in secret facilities, such as Bagram in Afghanistan. The government hid the detainees’ existence, even from the public. In a more subtle way that the United States has used in the past, the United States does not exercise formal control over the detainees but instead exercises varying degrees of influence through an intermediary of a foreign state. In some cases, custody is shared by the United States and another country; in others, the United States may direct the detention without being named as the detainer at all. And in the closely related practice of extraordinary rendition, the United States “outsources” the detention to another country, typically one that has both a close relationship with the United States agencies and a record of torture.²

Secret detention and extraordinary rendition are among the worst practices of the United States after 9/11 and were central to a broader program of state-sanctioned torture. Practices such as extraordinary rendition, as well as prolonged detention, present significant challenges to habeas corpus.

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ment present a particularly compelling case. They are a deliberate and calculated attempt at a modern version of the age-old attempt to detain at sea—an abuse that prompted landmark Supreme Court decisions centuries ago.¹⁴ Preventing the government from exercising jurisdiction by moving prisoners around the world is the Court’s main justification for upholding the constitutionality of Guantánamo detentions. To deny jurisdiction over the detainees rather than actual custody would frustrate the purpose of the habeas statute and create a loophole for the United States to continue its indefinite detention.

A broad view of constructive custody is one that applies even in a noninternational context to other terrorist organizations. Human rights law prohibits detention without trial, and both of which lie at the heart of secret detention and extraordinary rendition. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) prohibits arbitrary arrest and detention without judicial review when an individual is detained. The ICCPR has been interpreted to contain a *non-refoulement* obligation when the risk of torture or other ill-treatment or punishment is significant.¹⁶ The Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT) contains an explicit and absolute prohibition on torture and applies even in a state of war or a time of public emergency.

Although the ICCPR has been interpreted to require that Congress must enact some mechanism to enforce its protections against arbitrary detention, some courts have suggested that the habeas corpus statute through the federal habeas corpus statute provides a mechanism to prisoners would raise serious problems with respect to the Suspension Clause.¹⁹ The ICCPR also can help inform the development of laws to avoid violating individual rights through legislation and regulations, although the ICCPR, whether its provisions may be enforced through the courts in the context of immigration removal proceedings. The *non-refoulement* obligation by requiring that “the representations made by a prisoner will not be tortured or abused

g case for habeas review because they t to circumvent the writ. They are the pt to transport prisoners beyond the ark habeas legislation more than four nment from being able to manipulate and was, after all, one of the Supreme ng habeas jurisdiction over the Guan- on because the custody is constructive e purpose of habeas corpus and cre- o continue a practice of extrajudicial

ly is reinforced by human rights norms e armed conflict against al Qaeda and rights treaties and customary interna- due process and transfers to torture— prisons, proxy detention, and extraor- Covenant on Civil and Political Rights d detention while mandating prompt eprived of his liberty.¹⁵ The ICCPR also -*refoulement* obligation barring trans- cruel, inhuman, and degrading treat- Furthermore, the Convention against e Degrading Treatment or Punishment te ban against transfers to torture that of public emergency.¹⁷

deemed “non-self-executing”—which eparate implementing legislation for affirmatively in domestic litigation¹⁸— e treaty’s protections can be invoked atute and that denying its protections ems under the Constitution’s Suspen- p inform the interpretation of federal ts.²⁰ The CAT has been implemented hough there is continuing debate over d directly by courts outside the limited edings.²¹ The CAT also strengthens the ng judicial review of “diplomatic assur- receiving country that the transferred ,²² and by prohibiting reliance on those

assurances when the receiving country is involved in torture.²³

Human rights bodies have interpreted the underlying purpose, rejecting the suggestion that the system for illegal actions taken outside a country does, however, take the contrary view (i.e., that U.S. action abroad.) The Human Rights Committee implements the ICCPR, has construed the right to apply extraterritorially to situations in which a state has effective control over the territory of the victim and personal control over the prisoner without exception. The CAT, which is responsible for the Convention Against Torture, has similarly applied that treaty to actions taken on territory under a state's effective control.²⁴ The CAT indicates that this obligation should apply to a person, *reason*, is in danger of being subjected to torture in a country . . . [and] cover *all measures* . . . referred to another State."²⁶

Regional human rights bodies have also interpreted, for instance, the European Court of Human Rights can be held responsible for violating the right to liberty or detain, even when those officials acted in the name of a mission on Human Rights likewise. The right to liberty inheres simply by virtue of a person's status as a human being, not on the presumed victim's nationality or location in a particular area, but on whether, under the specific circumstances, the rights of a person subject to its authority.

Thus, an important principle underlying customary norms is that a state must respect the rights of all persons in its custody or effective control. A person detained without due process or to be subjected to abuse. That principle covers an array of actions by a government in the "war on terrorism" era, including detention centers, like the CIA "black sites" and the abduction of individuals, like the kidnapping of the *Abu Ghraib* (effective control over a person) and the *Abu Ghraib* standing of habeas corpus: that a court can issue a writ against the jailer, regardless of where the person is held, in order to ensure that there is a lawful basis for the detention.

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The case of Ahmed Abu Ali illustrates how habeas corpus in custody can be applied to overseas cases. Abu Ali was a twenty-four-year-old American who had traveled to Saudi Arabia to study after completing high school and grown up. Saudi officials arrested Abu Ali after he failed his final exams at the university, and he was taken to counsel.²⁹ Approximately five days after his arrest, at the same time that FBI agents raided Abu Ali's home, he visited the Saudi prison where Abu Ali was held, and he was interrogated.³⁰ In the following months, FBI agents interrogated Abu Ali directly while he was held in Saudi Arabia's state security service, and he was told by Abu Ali later told his mother that the Saudi government treated Abu Ali an "enemy combatant" and sought to force him to cooperate.³¹ In the meantime, Abu Ali's mother sought government officials to help him.

In June 2004, more than a year after his arrest, his mother, as "next friend," filed a habeas corpus petition in the District Court in Washington, D.C. The petition argued that the Saudi government was violating Abu Ali's constitutional rights and demanded that he be returned to the United States, or released.³² The petition presented evidence that Saudi Arabia, and not Saudi Arabia, was directing the case. The petition included statements from Saudi government officials that they were not charging Abu Ali, that they were not charging Abu Ali, that the United States was "behind the case," and that they were not charging Abu Ali to American authorities if the case was not charging Abu Ali. The petition also presented evidence that a witness said Abu Ali was in so much of a state that he picked up a pen to sign documents, and a federal judge said that Abu Ali "doesn't have to worry about cooperating with the government did not produce any evidence that a federal judge was precluded from granting habeas corpus if Abu Ali was in the custody of a foreign government, and not of actual custody by a U.S. official present in Saudi Arabia."

The district judge rejected the government's arguments. District Judge John D. Bates said, all that matters is the right to be free from arbitrary detention, and that is within the heartland of habeas corpus.

rates how the concept of constructive counterterrorism detentions. Abu Ali was a U.S. citizen who traveled to a university in Saudi Arabia, high school in Virginia, where he had a friend. He was arrested in Saudi Arabia in June 2003, when he was taking a flight home. He was detained without charge or access to his family. After Abu Ali's arrest, and at about the same time, FBI agents visited Abu Ali's home in Virginia, FBI agents visited Abu Ali, who was being held and observed his interactions with FBI agents. FBI agents traveled to Saudi Arabia and interviewed Abu Ali, who was being detained by the Mubahith, a Saudi intelligence agency widely believed to engage in torture. FBI agents had threatened to declare Abu Ali an enemy combatant and send him to Guantánamo if he did not cooperate. Abu Ali's family began to press U.S. govern-

ment officials. After his arrest, Abu Ali's family, acting through a lawyer, filed a petition on his behalf in federal district court. The petition claimed that the United States violated Abu Ali's rights by detaining him without charge and without access to the United States and charged with a crime. The petition presented evidence that the United States, through its agents, engaged in Abu Ali's detention. That evidence included statements from government officials that they had no intention of releasing Abu Ali unless instructed to "stay away" because the Saudi officials would release him if the United States made a formal request.³³ The petition also claimed that Abu Ali had been tortured. One of the claims was that he was not even able to pick up his own mail. A federal prosecutor allegedly remarked that Abu Ali was "not clipping his fingernails anymore."³⁴ The petition argued to the contrary. Instead, it argued that the government was from inquiring into the matter because of the government's presence and because the absence of habeas corpus review.

The petition presented the government's argument. The petition, the government argued, alleged a violation of the constitutional rights of Abu Ali by the executive and therefore fell outside the scope of habeas corpus.³⁵ While Judge Bates did not deter-

mine that Abu Ali was in the custody petition presented sufficient evidence fact-finding demonstrated that Abu Bates said that he would exercise jurisdiction detention was unlawful and, if so, order

In the end, this inquiry—known took place. The U.S. government avoided detention by bringing criminal charges indictment, filed in the Eastern District plotted to assassinate President Bush Ali was subsequently convicted and serving the conviction, the government released Ali's interrogations in Saudi Arabia, where evidence after finding that the confession

At first glance, Judge Bates's decision Abu Ali's case might seem to have limited confined to American citizens. American the protection of habeas corpus when government, even when that detention occurred *Boumediene*, in which the Supreme Court's decision can also encompass foreign nationals. Read together, *Boumediene* and *Abu Ali* proxy detention and other forms of secret America's shores and in collusion with prisoner's citizenship.

In this context, the challenge to habeas corpus is as much practical as legal: how to pierce the veil of non-U.S. involvement and unusual. His family had managed to obtain evidence from U.S. and Saudi officials that the United States authorized his detention. This type of evidence is more difficult to obtain in other cases where courts have authorized some discovery and probe because of the nature of the United States' role. In some cases, the prisoner itself may be unknown, as with the detainees in other instances, the location may be known but the government may be more circumstantial, as with the detainees held in Pakistan after 9/11.³⁹ A district

of the United States, he ruled that the government had no warrant for further fact-finding. If that was the case, Abu Ali was in constructive U.S. custody, and the government had no jurisdiction to determine whether Abu Ali's detention was appropriate relief.³⁶

The court's ruling was as "jurisdictional discovery"—never to be used to demand further scrutiny of Abu Ali's proxy operations and returning him to America. The government of Virginia, alleged that Abu Ali had trained and hijack commercial airliners. Abu Ali was sentenced to life in prison.³⁷ In obtaining habeas relief on confessions elicited during Abu Ali's detention, which the district court allowed into evidence, the court ruled that the confessions were voluntary.³⁸

The court's decision to order jurisdictional discovery in Abu Ali's case was of limited relevance, since it was explicitly limited to U.S. citizens, Bates observed, and American citizens, Bates observed, can claim habeas relief when they are held by their own governments overseas. But this ruling predated the *Hamdi* decision. The court made clear that the same protections apply to Americans held outside the United States. The *Hamdi* and *Hamdan* cases suggest that habeas corpus can reach secret imprisonment carried out beyond the borders of other governments, regardless of the

method of accessing the courts through habeas corpus. The court's decision in discovering the existence of someone held in secret detention, obtaining the information necessary to challenge the detention. In many ways, Abu Ali's case was a landmark. It allowed to obtain extensive evidence from American and foreign sources. The United States was pulling the strings behind the scenes, as it has been—and will continue to be—behind the scenes, however, unless a court is willing to look beneath the surface to examine the true facts. In some instances, the location of the prisoners is known, but the evidence of U.S. involvement is not. In the case of Abu Ali, the district judge can—and should—conduct

the same kind of limited inquiry into detention whenever there is a good-faith effort to resolve the matter. However, courts may be reluctant to engage in such an inquiry when executive branch officials' objections are based on matters with the internal affairs of another sovereign state or on sensitive foreign policy concerns.

The transfer of detainees between governments is often the subject of habeas jurisdiction. Habeas review is typically provided for review of some international transfers, which typically taken place when custodial control is transferred. The best example is extradition cases. There, a foreign country requests the return of a fugitive, and the United States commencing a formal legal process that results in the return of the fugitive if the fugitive is located ordering the fugitive's return. Although habeas review in extradition cases is typically provided for judicial review of whether there is a basis for the transfer, review of prisoner transfers is compromised when the transfer is fluid, the transfer secret, and the process is non-judicial. Simply put, it is more difficult to challenge a transfer when prisoners are moved between countries. Ultimately, some of those prisoners may be released, while others did following their eventual transfer to a country where habeas review more feasible. But that review can be difficult, especially in the case of illegal detention, and after the worst abuses.

The fact that proxy detention is more common in the United States corpus makes it an attractive option for the United States, especially accountability, as the following case illustrates. In 2001, the United States launched two air strikes at suspected al-Qaeda targets. The strikes were not an isolated occurrence but part of a broader counterterrorism operations in the Horn of Africa. The strikes received wide publicity, leading to increased scrutiny of officials in the secret detention, in particular those who were seized following the renewed violence in the region. The violence there, only to become ensnared in the proxy detention. One was a twenty-four-year-old American citizen, Mohamed Meshal.⁴⁰

In late 2006, Meshal had traveled to Somalia for humanitarian purposes, drawn by the effort to create a stable government. Somalia was enjoying a period of relative stability.

the United States' role in an overseas
basis to support it. In practice, how-
even in preliminary fact-finding over
that any such inquiry would interfere
sovereign nation and encroach on sensi-

governments and countries also can hin-
a. Historically, habeas corpus has pro-
prisoner transfers. But that review has
control is officially acknowledged. The
e, habeas review is triggered when one
ve from another country, thereby com-
sults in a judge from the country where
itive's return to the requesting country.
cases is relatively narrow, it does provide
a legal basis for the transfer. But habeas
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nsfer to Guantánamo, making habeas
comes only after months, if not years, of
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more difficult to reach through habeas
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illustrates. In early 2007, the United
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interrogation, and rendition of civilians
in Somalia. One prisoner who fled the
ed in a U.S.-backed detention dragnet,
citizen from New Jersey named Amir

o Somalia for educational and religious
te an Islamic state there. At the time,
ative tranquillity after years of unrest.

But shortly after Meshal's arrival, fighting broke out between Ethiopian forces and al-Shabaab fighters. Seeking refuge for their safety, Meshal and other detainees fled to Kenya. In January 2007, Meshal was seized by Kenyan forces at the border, stripped of his possessions, and detained without charge. Although not officially identified as an American, he was repeatedly interrogated by American officials who identified themselves as FBI agents. For several weeks, he was held in a secret jail and took him to a small hotel in Nairobi. American officials grilled him for more than six hours a day. During the interrogations, agents threatened Meshal, warning him that if he did not cooperate and provide information, they would send him to Israel or to Egypt. In March 2007, while in Nairobi, a Kenyan human rights group filed a writ of habeas corpus on behalf of Meshal and other detainees, arguing that the courts could act, Meshal and other detainees were in Somalia, where they were detained in a secret facility. A number of other prisoners were then taken to Ethiopia.

In Ethiopia, Meshal was detained in a secret facility. Other prisoners at the jail came from Somalia and included women and children. Like Meshal, they were held in Somalia. For the next three months, Meshal was held in a secret jail by American officials. U.S. officials also kept Meshal in an Ethiopian secret jail. "I was kept in a secret jail, shackled ankle and feet, night and day, and I was not allowed to travel. I had traveled to Somalia to do charity work, but I was not allowed to for almost five months. "The Ethiopian officials would take me and drive to some apartment in Addis Ababa, where they would be there waiting behind a desk, and they would ask me about my terrorist connections."⁴²

During the months they were held in secret facilities, prisoners were never brought before a judge or a court to see evidence (if any) against them. Instead, they were taken before a secret military tribunal. The detainees had no rights because they had been declared "enemy combatants." "Africa's Guantánamo," as it became known, was a metaphorical. At least one of the detainees, Abdul Malik, was taken by the United States.

ting again erupted in the country and in the capital city of Mogadishu. Fears tried to flee Somalia by land. In late Kenyan soldiers near the Somalia-Kenya border and taken to Nairobi, where he was nominally in Kenyan custody, Meshal and other American officials, several of whom identified him over several days, the agents came to Meshal's residential neighborhood where they interrogated him at a time. During those interrogations, Meshal told them that he was in a "lawless country" and would confess to involvement with al Qaeda in Egypt, where he would disappear. Meanwhile, Meshal was protesting the treatment of those prisoners and had challenged their detention through legal petitions in Kenyan courts. But before the end of the year, prisoners were secretly rendered to makeshift camps. Meshal and a number of other prisoners were taken to Ethiopia.⁴¹

in a secret jail near Addis Ababa. The prisoners came from more than a dozen countries and Meshal, many had fled the violence in Somalia. Meshal was interrogated repeatedly and was also interrogated other prisoners at this time. He was held in solitary [confinement] for a month, Meshal said. "I was," said a South African accountant who had worked for the U.S. government in Somalia, "I was working and was imprisoned in Ethiopia. The Kenyans would come collect me, blindfolded, and take me to Addis [the capital]. And the Americans would be asking me over and over about my ter-

in Ethiopia, Meshal and his fellow prisoners were not permitted to see a lawyer or the court. Instead, they received only a cursory hearing. The tribunal told them that they had been classified as "enemy combatants"—prisoners in Somalia known locally. The link was not merely to the prisoners swept up in Somalia, Mohammed and other prisoners were taken to the United States to Guantánamo.⁴³

Meshal was eventually released in the United States in the face of mounting pressure, however, highlights some of the potential detentions through habeas corpus and extrajudicial discovery broadly. Meshal's detention was entirely secret. And even when a new habeas petition being held in Kenya and then in Ethiopia, the United States' role in it was denied. Did the United States directing or conspiring with Kenya to detain Meshal? Were U.S. officials hiding behind the fact that they could interrogate Meshal without habeas if they would have had to provide to habeas if Meshal were in U.S. custody? Did U.S. officials order Kenya to detain Meshal so that he could be further detained in Kenya despite the grave risk of harm to him? The fact that Meshal could have prompted a judicial inquiry into his detention, as Ali's case and assessed whether the United States was responsible for Meshal. But it also is possible that a habeas petition for failing to demonstrate U.S. involvement (or a habeas petition), leaving Meshal without a judicial review of his illegal detention.

The case of Naji Hamdan exemplifies the potential of habeas and proxy detentions, although its outcome is unclear. It affects those detentions even when a country is not the United States. Hamdan, a U.S. citizen and businessman, was detained in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) with his wife. Hamdan was interrogated at the U.S. Embassy in Abu Dhabi, who had flown from Los Angeles to Qatar. Hamdan was arrested by UAE police at his home in Abu Dhabi, in the hands of Emirati security forces, which were reportedly and tried to coerce a confession from him. In the absence of habeas, there was evidence that Hamdan's detention was a request, including a statement from an Emirati official that the United States was responsible for Hamdan's detention. Hamdan filed a habeas corpus petition on his behalf in the District of Columbia, D.C., Hamdan was transferred by the UAE to the United States in Abu Dhabi.⁴⁴ Hamdan's habeas petition was granted on the ground that he had been charged in the United States, but no longer in U.S. custody, if he had even

late May 2007 and returned to the public and political pressure. His case, potential obstacles to addressing proxy unless judges view their authority to readily. Initially, Meshal's detention was newspaper later reported that Meshal was Ethiopia, critical details about his detention remained unknown. Was the United Sudan and Ethiopian officials to detain behind the fiction of foreign custody so without affording him the guarantees him if they acknowledged that he was never or approve Meshal's rendition from detained and interrogated outside the law, right? It is possible that a habeas petition very similar to the inquiry ordered in Abu Dhabi United States was exercising custody over court would simply have dismissed the habeas. custody (whether actual or constructive) remedy for the United States' role in

confirms similar problems posed by secret detention outcome suggests that habeas can still succeed if court declines to exercise jurisdiction. Hamdan from California, was living in the United States with his wife and children. In August 2008, Hamdan was taken to the United States embassy in Abu Dhabi by FBI agents to question him. A few weeks later, Hamdan was taken home and then disappeared into the custody of the United States which held him virtually incommunicado and denied access to his family and lawyers. Although nominally in UAE custody, Hamdan was being held at the United States' discretion. An Emirati official stating that the United States was responsible for Hamdan's detention. But when Hamdan's wife filed a habeas petition in federal district court in Washington, DC, the court ordered the state security forces to face prosecution. The habeas petition was then dismissed on the grounds that Hamdan was in the UAE for a criminal offense and was not a detainee. Hamdan has never been.⁴⁵ Hamdan was later convicted

by a UAE court of terrorism charges in prison. Even though Hamdan's habeas petition was denied (leaving him in his legal limbo by prompting the filing of a writ of habeas corpus to overturn his conviction).

Another example of proxy detention is the influence over prisoners who have been in U.S. detention at Guantánamo and Baghlan and returned to Afghanistan. In 2005, the U.S. and Afghanistan signed a joint declaration providing for the transfer of prisoners to the exclusive custody and control of Afghanistan. Under the terms of the agreement, the United States supplied an Afghan prison block and help equipment. Accordingly, the United States spent millions on a new high-security Afghan National Detention Facility (ANDF) at Pul-i-Charki prison on the outskirts of Kabul. The U.S. sought to persuade Afghanistan to adopt a Guantánamo-style policy of the indefinite detention of "enemy combatants" at "Block D," as the ANDF is known. Under the terms of the two countries agreed that former Guantanamo prisoners would be detained and processed at the ANDF. As of April 2008, more than 250 Guantanamo prisoners had been transferred to Block D,⁵¹ which housed 350 prisoners in its 350 cells.⁵²

The transfer of prisoners from U.S. custody to Afghan detention at the ANDF, however, does not mean the U.S. has lost control or influence. The United States, for example, maintains a degree of "soft" control by requiring that Afghan prisoners maintain contact with U.S. officials, conduct surveillance, and report on their activities following their release.⁵³ The United States also maintains a degree of control, such as preventing Afghan prisoners from contacting their clients.⁵⁴ As the chairman of the House Select Committee on Intelligence commented in 2007 on the control of the ANDF, "The U.S. knows who's really in control. They just don't want to say so."⁵⁵

Habeas corpus is not the only remedy available to prisoners. Habeas suits also provide an opportunity for prisoners to seek compensation for the possibility of compensation for the wrongs done and mistreated. In addition, they provide a mechanism for putting officials on notice that they may be liable for human rights violations. But damages actions are not available to all prisoners.

and sentenced to eighteen months in prison. If the habeas petition failed, it may have helped end the prosecution of criminal charges (albeit leading to a conviction).

One major concern is the continued U.S. control and management of prisoners repatriated to other countries from Afghanistan. Take the case of Afghan prisoners at Bagram. The United States and Afghanistan signed an agreement for a “gradual transfer of Afghan detainees to the custody of the Afghan Government.”⁴⁶ As part of the agreement, the United States said it would finance the rebuilding of Bagram and train an Afghan guard force.⁴⁷ The United States spent more than \$30 million constructing the Afghan National Detention Facility (ANDF) located in the northern part of Kabul.⁴⁸ The United States also tried to implement a Guantánamo-like model that permitted “combatants” and military commission trials to be held locally.⁴⁹ When Afghanistan refused, the United States prosecuted under Afghan criminal law.⁵⁰ The United States also said that Guantánamo and Bagram detainees had the capacity to hold up to 700 pris-

oners. The transfer of detainees from Guantánamo and Bagram to Afghanistan, however, did not necessarily end U.S. control over the prisoners. For example, the United States implemented some forms of control over Afghanistan share intelligence information, restrict the prisoners’ travel, and restrict the prisoners’ access to defense attorneys from meeting with the United States. The United States also exerted more direct forms of control over the prisoners by denying the Afghanistan Human Rights Organization access to the prisoners. Continuing U.S. involvement, “Everyone knows that we won’t say it.”⁵⁵

There is a need for a remedy for illegal detention. Civil damages and compensation are a necessary redress. Most important, they hold out hope for the future. Those who have been unlawfully imprisoned can help deter abuses in the future by providing a model for how they may be held liable for human and civil rights abuses. Civil damages also face hurdles of their own even

when the plaintiff has solid evidence that the United States has invoked the “state secrets” defense to shield acts of torture and extraordinary renditions. Such a remedy would reveal sensitive national security information and other affirmative defenses like qualified immunity would shield officials from liability for violating constitutional rights. Any remedy established at the time they were committed. Habeas corpus has an inherent limitation: unlike habeas corpus, it does not remedy past wrongs, not to obtain release from custody.

Other safeguards can help decrease the number of extraordinary renditions. One possibility is legislative reform of the CIA or any other agency and prevention of proxy detention. Such legislation could prevent the United States from entering into a formal or informal agreement with a foreign government to detain a person on behalf of the United States. Restrictions on U.S. interrogations of individuals in custody in compliance with due process requirements could be implemented. From outsourcing detention to avoid liability, the government should make explicit that it was implementing the obligation in domestic law with respect to transfers made from outside the United States. The Convention Against Torture prohibits transfers to a country where there is a pattern of engaging in torture, regardless of whether the government might provide in an individual case.

In addition, federal agencies could improve oversight of transferring prisoners from U.S. custody to other countries. Accountable and to facilitate habeas corpus review, the promulgated regulations for extradition and the Department of Homeland Security has issued regulations for the review of decisions subject to review for *non-refoulement* obligations under the Convention. Implementing legislation.⁵⁸ Extradition cases that involve transfers from the United States to other countries. The relevant federal agencies has issued for the review of territorial prisoner transfers, the context in which the transfer usually occurs. The Defense Department has issued regulations for transfers from Guantánamo but has not issued regulations. It is not clear what policies govern prisoner transfers from Guantánamo while, the CIA, the agency principally

to support his claims: for example, the “secrets” privilege to bar lawsuits by vicarious liability on the ground that any litigation would disclose security information;⁵⁶ it also has asserted a right of self-defense that insulate government officials from constitutional rights that were not clearly violated.⁵⁷ Habeas actions, moreover, and writs of habeas petitions, they are intended to provide a means of release from continued detention.

There is also the risk of extrajudicial detention and the potential for an outlawing secret detention by the United States from engaging in such practices. Congress could, for example, prohibit the United States from entering into an informal agreement with a foreign government that would allow the United States as well as impose obligations on individuals in foreign custody to ensure compliance with human rights standards and to discourage U.S. officials from engaging in such practices. Congress could also require the United States’ *non-refoulement* obligation to any prisoner transfer (including to a foreign country) and that the Convention against Torture and other countries that have a demonstrated history of human rights abuses, regardless of any assurances those countries

might be required to issue formal rules for such transfers in order to make those agencies more accountable to review. The State Department has proposed such rules for cases, and the Department of Homeland Security has proposed immigration removal decisions, help-ful for compliance with the United States’ obligations under the Convention against Torture and other countries, and immigration removal, however, to be transferred to another government. None of the formal regulations governing extrajudicial transfers in which extraordinary rendition typically occurs has described its policies on prisoner transfers. Neither has issued any formal rules nor made any public statements regarding transfers outside Guantánamo. Meanwhile, the CIA is responsible for extraordinary rendi-

tion, has never disclosed what, if any, information is shared with other governments. Requiring agencies to provide more concrete and transparent procedures, assuming those agencies continued to facilitate pretransfer review through habeas, would ensure the United States is complying with its *non-refoulement* obligations. The secret handover of prisoners with a

This chapter has focused on some practical limitations of habeas when the detention is secret (CIA “black sites”), when the prisoner is held by another government (proxy detention), or when the prisoner’s impending transfer to another government is imminent. But another potential limitation of habeas is that federal courts exercise habeas jurisdiction by reviewing the executive’s habeas itself.

Habeas corpus requires that the judge review the executive’s habeas court. But the mere availability of habeas does not guarantee a correct outcome. Habeas does not, for example, require the judge to analyze various precedents, statutes, and executive orders, or the facts of the case before it. Nor does it allow the judge to determine the proper scope of the military’s detention authority, whether the detainee held as an “enemy combatant” or proxy detainee, or whether the detainee is liable for war crimes. Habeas instead provides a mechanism for the judiciary to supply its answer to those questions. Habeas provides a process for the detainee to challenge the executive’s actions. The availability of habeas also does not guarantee that the detainee, in any instance, when there is no lawful basis for detention, will be returned to his home country. As a result, many detainees have been held for years even after being declared “enemy combatants” because the United States has refused to repatriate them to another country and because the United States had the power to order their temporary detention.

The force of habeas corpus can thus be undermined if the executive misapplies the law, if the underlying law is arbitrary, if the executive or licenses arbitrary action, or if the executive has the ability to grant an effective remedy. Indeed, the very abuses that it is meant to prevent are often the result of a judicial stamp of approval. We need to ensure that habeas provisions upholding challenges to the int

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cans during World War II to realize the
ensure justice or vindicate constitutional

In the next chapter, therefore, we
a habeas corpus petition can ask but
answer—questions that go to the hear
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return to questions raised earlier that
that the law of habeas itself does not
t of current debates about U.S. deten-
whether suspected terrorists can be sub-
n and/or prosecuted before military
d should be charged and tried in the

Terrorism as Crime

Toward a Lawful and Sustained

As the Bush presidency neared its end, hundreds of detainees were still being held at Guantánamo, hundreds in Iraq, and an undefined number in Syria. One detainee was still being detained as an “enemy combatant.” For more than five and a half years, Ali al-Marri had been held out without criminal charge or trial at a navy base in Virginia. Al-Marri had been detained by the military, not under the traditional or legal definition of a combatant: he was not in the armed forces of an enemy state; he had not been in the hands of allied forces; and he was not seized on the basis of direct military activity. Instead, al-Marri had been seized in Illinois, by FBI agents and then prosecuted in federal court. The president declared him an “enemy combatant” on the eve of a hearing to suppress the evidence against him.

Could the president deprive al-Marri of a criminal trial based on the allegation that he was an enemy of the United States and imprison him indefinitely? The answer to that basic—but critical—question was unclear. In 2007, a three-judge panel of the U.S. Court of Appeals, which sits in Richmond, Virginia, had ruled that the detention was illegal.¹ The full appeals court had later affirmed the panel’s decision and then reversed the panel’s judgment. The full court ruled, by a five-to-four vote, that the president had legal authority to detain al-Marri as an enemy combatant. The government alleged, he had come to the United States on behalf of al Qaeda. The court’s decision was based on the President’s Authority for Use of Military Force (AUMF), enacted in 2001 in the aftermath of the September 11 attacks.

Detention Policy

At its end, approximately 250 prisoners and hundreds more in Bagram, thousands in secret or proxy detention. One person, an “enemy combatant” inside the United States. Ali al-Marri had been imprisoned without trial in Charleston, South Carolina. Al-Marri even though he did not meet any criteria for an enemy combatant: he was not a member of the armed forces and never taken up arms against U.S. or its allies on a battlefield or in connection with any military operation. He had been arrested at his home in Peoria, Illinois, and was not indicted in federal court until the president announced his “enemy combatant” status less than a month before trial and without any evidence against him.

Al-Marri of his constitutional right to a trial. He argued that he was plotting terrorist acts in Iraq and should not be held indefinitely in military custody? The question remained uncertain. In June 2002, the United States Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit, which had jurisdiction over al-Marri’s military detention, ruled that al-Marri’s military detention was unconstitutional. The court, however, agreed to rehear the case. The Supreme Court, in a narrowly divided and fractured 5-4 vote, ruled that the president had the authority to detain an “enemy combatant” if, as the government argued, the United States to engage in terrorist activities. The court’s decision rested on the Authorization for Use of Military Force enacted by Congress in the immediate aftermath of the September 11 attacks. The court also ruled, however, by a

different five-to-four majority, that actions than the district court had afforded and remanded the case to the district court.

Judge Diana Gribbon Motz wrote the majority opinion for the four judges who voted to remand. Judge Motz looked to the laws of war and military detention power the AUMF granted. According to the Supreme Court's decision in *Hamdi*, the definition of a "combatant" had always rested on membership in the regular armed forces of a regular arm of an enemy nation.⁴ In *Hamdi*, the Court cautioned against stretching the AUMF to include beyond long-standing law-of-war principles. The government argued that al-Marri was a combatant because he carried arms on a battlefield alongside enemy forces. The government also argued that al-Marri was a combatant because he reported treating al-Marri as a combatant. The government argued that al-Marri was a member of a terrorist group and thereby imprisoned without the Bill of Rights. Instead, Motz said, al-Marri was not a combatant. Instead, civilians must be charged and tried in ordinary courts as long as those courts are available. The principle embodied by Supreme Court decisions in *Hamdi* and *Hamdan* is that the government cannot detain a civilian without the Bill of Rights.

Judge Motz also observed that Congress intended the detention of domestic terrorism suspects to be governed by the AUMF. In the Patriot Act, Congress intended to investigate and prosecute suspected domestic terrorism. The attorney general's authority to detain alien terrorists in the United States. But Congress also cabined that authority. Congress intended that alien terrorists had to be charged with a crime. The Bush administration's request for the Supreme Court to relabel al-Marri an "enemy combatant" was thwarted not only the Constitution but also the AUMF.

Judge Motz underscored the broad definition of "enemy combatant" posed to the Constitution. The government argued that it could designate allegedly dangerous people as "enemy combatants" and deny them the right to a criminal trial. Today it was an alleged al Qaeda agent who merely associated with a terrorist group. It might be someone accused of other crimes. Eventually, it might be a politically disfavored person. The "enemy combatant" category was stretched beyond its original meaning and severed from membership in the armed forces of an enemy nation.

-Marri was entitled to greater protection than afforded him in challenging those allegations in federal court for further proceedings.²

Both the original panel decision and the dissent sought to invalidate al-Marri's military detention under the law of war to help determine what domestic law principles were granted and the Constitution allowed. Justice Sotomayor, in her dissenting opinion, explained, the legal definition of an enemy combatant is based on a person's affiliation with the military. Under *Ex parte Quirin*, moreover, the Court had expressly recognized the President's grant of military detention power under the law of war, such as soldiers who take up arms against government forces. No precedent supported al-Marri's detention in a global military conflict against al-Qaeda without the guarantees of the habeas corpus writ. al-Marri was a civilian, and under the Constitution, civilians are tried for their alleged crimes in the courts. The courts are open and functioning—a principle that has been violated by decisions such as *Ex parte Milligan*.

Congress had specifically addressed the issue of terrorism at virtually the same time it enacted the Patriot Act, which increased law enforcement's power to investigate and detain terrorists, and it enhanced the authority to detain terrorist suspects seized in the United States. The Supreme Court affirmed the President's detention power, stating that suspected terrorists must be brought within seven days of arrest and rejected the President's claim to the power to detain indefinitely.⁵ By upholding the President's authority, the administration had therefore acted in accordance with the intent of Congress as well.

The dissenting opinion warned that al-Marri's military detention was a precedent that the president could simply use to detain anyone he deemed as enemies of the state and thereby undermine the country's core principles. The dissenting opinion stated, "It is not just al-Marri, but tomorrow it might be someone from a different ethnic group or knew a terrorist; one day, someone who committed crimes such as drug trafficking; and one day, someone from a disfavored group. Once the 'enemy combatant' label is established, law-of-war principles and the protections afforded to the armed forces of an enemy nation or par-

ticipation in hostilities on a battlefield, the unprecedented expansion of military discretion to executive branch officials, the denial of the trial guarantees of the Constitution to those who did not actively engage in coercive activity or wanted to engage in coercive activity.

“To sanction such presidential authority to indefinitely detain civilians,” Judge Motz wrote, “is a grave consequence for the Constitution—a precedent to designate suspected criminal combatants” was a more radical step. “The military detention of civilians during an emergency, Motz said, is a permanent evisceration of not one constitutional guarantee embodied in the Bill of Rights.⁷ And, if convicted, should be punished. The military detention must cease.

The majority ruled, however, that the government’s suspected terrorist activity on behalf of a foreign power, the United States was at war, was sufficient to justify the United States of their constitutional rights. The majority could not agree on the meaning of “enemy combatant” and opinions in an effort to define the term. The majority itself highlighted the problems with trying to define it as a global armed conflict and to equate it with a global armed conflict and to equate it with a global armed conflict in settings in the United States with soldiers.

Judge J. Harvie Wilkinson III offered a dissenting opinion on presidential power. He recognized that the government’s use of military force fully in the United States “is a momentous step that raises serious constitutional concerns. He also acknowledged that the Constitution applies equally to citizens and noncitizens. He showed, citizens no less than aliens could be targeted. He maintained, however, that it was necessary to take this step into uncharted waters. Terrorist attacks are “thousands of human beings can be killed in a single large swaths of urban landscape . . . The government responded to this threat in the AUMF by using military force necessary and appropriate force” against the enemy. It was therefore incumbent on the court to develop an appropriate legal framework for implementing the president’s constitutional command to protect the nation.

d, there was no principled limit. This detention authority gave tremendous power, allowing them to circumvent the fair trial guarantee when they lacked evidence of criminal conduct, prolonged interrogations, or both.

The authority to order the military to seize and detain al-Marri, Motz warned, “would have disastrous consequences for the country.”⁶ Allowing the president—even suspected terrorists—“enemy combatant” status rather than temporarily suspending habeas corpus would be a permanent loss of a constitutional guarantee but the many guarantees of the Constitution. al-Marri was accused of serious crimes and sentenced severely. But, Motz added, al-Marri’s

the executive branch’s allegations of suspected al-Qaeda, an organization with which the president was sufficient to strip lawful residents of the right to a criminal trial. Yet the majority of the court, “enemy combatant,” issuing three separate opinions. If nothing else, the fractured ruling would be a warning to treat the fight against terrorism as a war. The suspected terrorists seized in civilian areas were captured on a battlefield.

Justice Alito gave the most elaborate defense of presidential authority over military detention of a person lawfully in the United States. “A momentous step” that raises serious constitutional questions. He argued that this detention power would be necessary for, as the Hamdi and Padilla cases held, “enemy combatants.”⁸ Wilkinson argued that it was necessary for the United States to take action against terrorism posed an unprecedented threat, “the slaughter of thousands by a single action and . . . lives were leveled in an instant.”⁹ Congress had authorized the president to use “all necessary and appropriate force” against those responsible for the 9/11 attacks. Justice Alito, Wilkinson argued, to develop an alternative to the president’s authority in implementing this broadly worded congressional authorization against future attacks.

In Wilkinson's view, the criminal justice system is ill-equipped to address terrorism. The president, he argued, has the ability to deviate from the normal legal process, including those arrested inside the United States, and military detention. Limiting military detention with an enemy nation or take up arms is not reflected in an outmoded view of war in the past. Qaeda and other terrorist groups. In the past, wars were waged against armies or on battlefields. Constitutional protections cannot fight this new and unconventional war. "The Marquess of Queensberry rules."¹⁰

One problem with the criminal justice system is its inability to prevent disclosure of classified information. While scrupulously protecting defendants' rights, the system jeopardizes national security. They also face the risk of violence and possible attack.¹² Given the difficulty to charge terrorism suspects in federal court, military detention is dangerous. Some cases, Wilkinson said, are better handled in the criminal justice system. Indefinite military detention provided an alternative.

But Wilkinson's opinion was flawed. He underestimated the success of the criminal system on one hand, and the problems with detention on the other. He also underestimated the danger of circumventing the criminal justice system. Those who supported or engaged in terrorist activities were often designated as an "enemy combatant" and could mean a life sentence. Although Wilkinson was part of the military justice corpus to prevent mistakes, he viewed the system as a barrier, excluding such important protections. He also excluded the government's evidence and to confront the accused.

Al-Marri appealed the Fourth Circuit's decision, arguing that the indefinite military detention of Al-Marri by the United States exceeded the president's authority. The appeal departed from more than two centuries of precedent. Al-Marri's appeal was supported by former top government officials as well as a range of nongovernmental organizations. The Bush administration opposed it, but the Supreme Court

justice system was not the only way to be maintained, must also have the flexibility to adapt its rules by treating terrorism suspects, in the United States, as combatants subject to military detention to persons who affiliate themselves on a battlefield, Wilkinson asserted, a system well suited to today's struggle against al Qaeda. In this new war, the struggle was not being fought in Iraq but was being fought everywhere and the rules had to give way. America, he insisted, was the global enemy with its "hands tied with

the criminal justice system, in Wilkinson's view, was its inability to handle classified or other sensitive information.¹¹ By the same token, he argued, terrorism trials could not expose jurors and judges to threats to their lives and the stakes, requiring the government to use a military court was impractical and potentially dangerous. Instead, he argued, terrorism cases had to be handled outside the criminal justice system, under a war paradigm pro-

posed, both legally and empirically. He discussed the dangers in handling terrorism cases, on the one hand, in detaining prisoners without trial, on the other, in the dangers of giving the executive license to detain individuals simply by alleging that a person had committed terrorism. This danger was particularly grave, he argued, because a "combatant" in the "war on terror" could be detained without trial. Wilkinson acknowledged the need for habeas corpus and the habeas process as highly circumvented. He argued for protections as the prisoner's right to see the government's case in front of its witnesses.

Wilkinson's ruling to the Supreme Court, arguing that the detention of legal residents arrested in the United States was without authority and represented a profound violation of precedent and tradition. Al-Marri's case was supported by high-level Justice Department and military officials, as well as governmental organizations and legal experts. Wilkinson argued, as it had in Jose Padilla's case, to

avoid review by the nation's highest court. The exercise of executive detention power—a power that is not shared by citizens alike. In December 2008, nearly two years after his initial arrest, the Court announced that, from now on, the decision whether to defend the government against a person arrested in the United States would be made by the courts.

The intense controversy over al-Marawi's case, discussed in the next chapter, shows that the right to habeas corpus is not the start, not the end, of the conversation about the power of the courts. The court has the power to consider a habeas petition, but it must then determine whether the detention is lawful. It encompasses a series of important questions: Is the person in military custody? And by what process? Can they be treated as criminals or combatants? Can they be held indefinitely? They share attributes of each but necessitate a different set of questions remain central to the continuing debate.

On July 27, 2005, Judge John C. Coughenour sentenced Ahmed Ressaam to twenty-two years in prison for detonate explosives at Los Angeles International Airport in the millennium. In handing down the sentence, Judge Coughenour explained why the criminal justice system should be used to try suspected terrorists: “Our country has a long tradition to the ideals that set our nation apart. We have national security without denying the rights of our citizens and the protections.” Even though Ressaam was charged with plotting to kill Americans, he “received a fair trial and the opportunity to have his guilt or innocence determined by a jury of his fellow citizens.” The accusations against Ressaam were made in a public trial. There were no secret proceedings, no denial of counsel.”¹³ U.S. Attorney John C. Coughenour, Ressaam, disagreed with the sentence and filed an appeal. The court of appeals agreed and subsequently reversed the sentence. McKay nonetheless shared Judge Coughenour's view that the criminal justice system could handle such cases. Ressaam's sentence “sent an important message to the world” that “in the United States a person who is found that terrorism was committed will be held accountable and a sentence imposed.”¹⁴

court of its most far-reaching claim of habeas corpus that extended both to citizens and non-citizens. It took nearly seven years to the date of al-Marri's habeas petition that it would hear his case. This time, however, the question of indefinite military detention of a person would fall to a new administration.

al-Marri's case, whose resolution is discussed below, is not a habeas corpus petition in some ways the same as the habeas petition about law and national security. Once a habeas petition is granted, detention is lawful. That inquiry, in turn, raises other legal questions. Who, for example, can be held in indefinite detention? Are suspected terrorists to be treated differently? Should they be placed in another category, one that would create a new set of rules? These and other questions are the subject of an ongoing debate over U.S. detention policy.

In 2008, a federal district judge in Seattle, sentenced a man to 30 years in prison for his role in a plot to attack the Seattle International Airport on the eve of the September 11 attacks. Judge Coughenour explained that habeas corpus would remain the legal mechanism for challenging the sentence. The courts have not abandoned our commitment to the rule of law. We can deal with threats to our national security without accused fundamental constitutional rights. As a foreign national accused of planning the September 11 attacks, an effective, vigorous defense, and the sentence determined by a jury of 12 ordinary citizens. If his habeas petition were tested "in the sunlight of a public trial, no indefinite detention, no habeas corpus." In McKay, whose office prosecuted Resendiz, the court demanded more jail time. (The court denied the habeas petition and demanded the case for resentencing.) But Judge Coughenour's assessment that the crime was not a terrorism case. In addition, McKay pointed out, the government's message to would-be terrorists around the world is that a fair trial will be given . . . and where the crime is not terrorism, a lengthy prison sentence will be

Terrorism, as Judge Coughenour's court held, is a crime. Terrorists are criminals who should be tried under established laws and procedures. The crime is of a grave scope and has the potential to inflict grave harm of a fundamental nature. Moreover, the fact that the United States may have "declared war" on the United Kingdom does not mean that its members and supporters remain outlaws, and that they should be treated as such.

Trying terrorists in federal courts is a just and necessary response to those who do not deserve them.¹⁵ But the utility and importance of treating terrorists in federal court system has proved time and again that the federal court system who plot or plan to commit terrorist acts and those who have committed such acts in the past. It is a far more capable and sustainable system than detaining them indefinitely and trying them for "war crimes" in military courts.

Treating terrorists as combatants also is the worst kind of criminality by account. Throughout history, terrorists of all stripes have sought to de-legitimize laws.¹⁶ Equating terrorists with soldiers as "combatant"—lends credence to their armed struggle with the United States, claiming legitimacy. It plays directly into the hands of those who want them to cast themselves in the heroic struggle against a larger and more powerful enemy. The murder of innocent civilians as the innocent. One example: treating the fight against terrorism as a "war" under the legal framework of armed conflict gave Osama bin Laden the proclaimed mastermind of the 9/11 attacks the status of a "combatant" with George Washington, who, he said, "would be a combatant" if he had been captured during the war.

Conversely, treating terrorists as criminals in federal court deprives them of the opportunity to justify their actions. Thus when Bin Laden announced he was "at war" with America by announcing he was "at war" with America,

comments underscore, is a crime, and should be prosecuted in civilian courts under the law. The fact that terrorism is international in scope and that it causes tremendous damage does not alter its nature. The fact that an organization like al Qaeda is based in the United States makes no difference: its members are not soldiers, and should be treated as such.

The system is sometimes criticized as giving rights to terrorists, but those criticisms fail to recognize the value of criminal justice. The criminal justice system is what it can effectively incapacitate those who commit acts in the future, as well as those who have committed acts in the past. If anything, that system has proved to be an effective mechanism of incapacitating terrorists, whether labeled as “enemy combatants” or prosecuted under the laws of the United States.

The system also has the perverse effect of dignifying terrorists by granting them the status of soldiers. Terrorists have tried to justify their actions against the forces of justice, while governments have tried to label them as criminals, bandits, and outlaws—even under the label of “unlawful combatants.” The fact that they are engaged in an armed conflict, a fight between opposing forces, each with its own moral claims, does not turn them into the hands of terrorists by allowing them to be treated as a mold of warriors engaged in a historic struggle against a powerful opponent and to minimize the inevitable casualties of war. To take but one example, Osama bin Laden, the leader of al Qaeda through the language and actions of the late Khalid Sheikh Mohammed, the self-proclaimed “messenger of Allah,” who carried out the 9/11 attacks, a platform to compare himself to George Washington, would have been labeled an “enemy combatant” during the American Revolution.¹⁷

Terrorists are criminals who must be prosecuted in civilian courts. The opportunity to invoke the rhetoric of war is not a justification. Richard Reid tried to justify attempting to blow up a plane with explosives hidden in his shoes. He was not a soldier in America, Massachusetts District Judge

William Young could credibly reject R
in prison:

You are not an enemy combatant. You
in any war. You are a terrorist. To g
soldier gives you far too much stature
ment who do it or your attorney wh
view, you are a terrorist.¹⁸

Labels have strategic consequences. “I
globe,” explained former NATO Supre
must do everything possible to deny le
gain legitimacy for ourselves.”¹⁹

To be sure, America’s criminal justiti
systems, it makes errors. It also for
that will hold up in the crucible of th
demanding task. The government thus
short run simply to label a suspect an
without charge, without a lawyer, and
this approach creates tremendous prob
ing to the prolonged detention of inn
macy of counterterrorism efforts, and
justice.

The United States’ use of military c
problems of trying to devise new, “alt
terrorists. The commissions have fallen f
standards of due process, failed to brin
for the 9/11 attacks, and tarnished A
administration, military commissions
first person convicted was David Hick
tralia who, at worst, had volunteered t
dier. The second was Salim Hamdan,
education who had worked as a driver
knowledge of any terrorist attacks an
rorism. The third, Ali Hamza al-Bahlu
victed and sentenced to life in prison
for America in open court and failing t
three cases, former chief military pros
United States had managed to convict

Reid's diatribe in sentencing him to life

you are a terrorist. You are not a soldier
give you that reference, to call you a
e. Whether it is the officers of govern-
o does it, or that happens to be your

f we are to defeat terrorists across the
me Commander Wesley K. Clark, "we
legitimacy to their aims and means, and

ce system is not perfect. Like all other
ces prosecutors to develop evidence
e adversarial process, which can be a
s might sometimes find it easier in the
"enemy combatant" and imprison him
without a prompt judicial hearing. But
blems in the long run, inevitably lead-
ocent people, undermining the legiti-
making it harder to bring the guilty to

commissions after 9/11 exemplifies the
ernative" systems for dealing with ter-
far short of internationally recognized
g to justice those allegedly responsible
merica's reputation. During the Bush
obtained only three convictions. The
s, a naïve kangaroo skinner from Aus-
o serve as a low-level Taliban foot sol-
a Yemeni citizen with a fourth-grade
for Osama bin Laden but who had no
d had not engaged in any acts of ter-
ul, an al Qaeda propagandist, was con-
after proclaiming his guilt and hatred
o offer any defense. Summarizing these
ecutor Morris Davis lamented that the
only "a dupe, a driver, and a default."²⁰

Even after several attempts at reform by flaws and engulfed in controversy. The MCA of 2006 (MCA) nominally banned the commissions' top legal adviser, Alberto J. Hartmann, continued to insist that enhanced and other "enhanced interrogation techniques" and other "enhanced interrogation techniques" program was admissible at commission proceedings. The commission also continued to take advantage of enhanced interrogation methods while allowing enhanced interrogation methods as evidence. For example, most of the evidence in the Hamdan case was based on statements that were obtained at Guantánamo after almost two years of enhanced interrogation and gross abuses. In pretrial proceedings against Hamdan and against Iqbal Khan and Iqbal Khan Omar Khadr, who was fifteen years old when he was captured in Afghanistan in 2002, the prosecution tried to introduce evidence of confessions coerced from Khadr while he was in custody by the United States at Bagram, before the commission.

Secrecy continued to pervade the commission's proceedings. The commission's records and other legal proceedings were classified as confidential information, but to hide the mistreatment of detainees, the mistreatment information was withheld from the public. The commission's information as basic as an agent's intent to interrogate a detainee under the harsh conditions under which a detainee is held.

Political influence still plagued the commission. The commission mandated that prosecutors be free from political influence to exercise their professional judgment in the commission's proceedings.²¹ But in practice, prosecutors had to make decisions that remained highly politicized. The commission's officials forced commission prosecutors to make decisions even though he was, at most, a marginal player in the commission. He negotiated an eleventh-hour plea agreement with the commission. The deal not only was negotiated by the commission but was the result of a request to Vice Prime Minister John Howard, who wanted to oppose Hicks's prosecution by a marginal player. The deal highlighted what many had long believed: that the commission had less to do with his alleged mistreatment than with the amount of pressure his government could exert on the United States.

n, the commissions remained plagued. While the Military Commissions Act prohibited the use of evidence gained by torture, Army Force Brigadier General Thomas W. Rife testified that evidence gained through waterboarding and other "enhanced techniques" from the CIA's secret detention facilities was used in military commission trials. The Defense Department relaxed rules designed to conceal abusive practices, allowing the fruits of those methods to be used in court. The government's evidence against Salim Hamdan, a detainee at Guantanamo, included evidence that he had given to FBI interrogators at the CIA's secret facility of incommunicado detention and other evidence obtained against another detainee, Canadian citizen Omar al-Bayoumi, who was old when he was seized in Afghanistan. The government's evidence was based on confessions that were severely wounded and detained at Guantanamo. His transfer to Guantánamo.

commissions. Important portions of trials were not disclosed to the public, not to protect sensitive information, but to protect the treatment of prisoners. Critical exculpatory evidence, including interrogation notes that could help reveal whether a detainee's statements were obtained.

the commissions. On paper, the MCA was designed to be free from command influence and able to handle a wide range of selecting cases and moving them forward. In reality, it had no such independence, and charging decisions were often influenced. For example, high-ranking military officials were reluctant to bring charges against David Hicks, a high-profile detainee. Those officials then negotiated a deal that resulted in Hicks's return to Australia. Hicks was released without the prosecutors' knowledge, and the deal was approved by Vice President Cheney from Australia's perspective. Hicks was facing increasing demands at home for a military commission. Hicks's plea high-profile case that a prisoner's release from Guantanamo was a more important terrorist or military activities than the government was capable of and willing to

The Convening Authority, the nominee of the MCA to oversee the commission process, wanted to bring charges for political purposes. He wanted prosecutors to bring “sexy” cases to increase support for the tribunals. According to military officials, including Deputy Defense Secretary William H. Taft IV, he wanted to bring charges against the more than 100 military personnel who were charged in the November 2006 midterm elections for their alleged involvement in the 2003 invasion of Iraq. The Department’s general counsel, William H. Taft IV, said that guilty verdicts were acceptable. “We can’t win if we say, ‘We’ve been holding these guys in the tribunals? We have to have convictions.’”²²

The military commissions also violated the principle that any trial be conducted by “a regular court of law with the judicial guarantees which are recognized by civilized peoples.” The commissions were not established by law; they were not “established and organized in accordance with procedures already in force in [the] country of the accused to punish ‘war crimes’ invented after the fact.”²³ The commissions deviated from the principles of constituted courts: federal trials and military courts by attempting to punish conduct that was not a crime at the time the commissions raised serious exposure to the law.

The commissions generated vigorous defense by military defense attorneys and prosecutors as well as military defense attorneys. In Hamdan’s commission trial proceedings, Judge Charles J. Henley, who presided over the trial, granted Keith J. Allred, a defense attorney, participation in the case based on his expertise in international law.²⁵ In another case, the judge, Army Judge Charles J. Henley, rejected evidence against Mohammed Jawad, a detainee, for throwing a hand grenade at a military service members and their Afghan interpreter. The government was relying on the evidence obtained through torture, obtained from him after he had been tortured with death.²⁶ Henley also rejected the government’s claim that Jawad could be convicted of a war crime based on his status as a combatant (i.e., based solely on Jawad’s status as a detainee “associated” with al Qaeda), without proving that he violated the law of war, as throwing a hand grenade

inally independent body established by process, continually forced prosecutors. Hartmann, for example, demanded to capture the public's imagination and according to Morris Davis, top Pentagon secretary Gordon England, encouraged notorious detainees before the November "strategic political value." The Defense m J. Haynes II, told Davis that only n't have acquittals," Haynes reportedly for years. How can we explain acquit-

ated Common Article 3's requirement regularly constituted court affording all recognized as indispensable by civilized "regularly constituted courts" because ized in accordance with the laws and country." Instead, they were created to e fact, and their rules were made up on om, rather than mirrored, the regularly military courts-martial.²⁴ Furthermore, was not necessarily illegal at the time, t fact problems.

us resistance from some military judges ense counsel. In May 2007, during pre- sion case, the military judge, Navy Cap- motion to bar Hartmann from further illegal efforts to influence the prosecu- Colonel Stephen R. Henley, suppressed an illiterate young teenager accused of vehicle in Kabul that injured two U.S. rpreter. Henley found that the "confes- to prosecute Jawad was the product of d been hooded, beaten, and threatened government's legal theory that Jawad sed solely on his status as an unlawful alleged affiliation with a group "associ- that Jawad's conduct itself violated the at a military target plainly did not.

In 2007, Morris Davis resigned as chief of the military command influence had corrupted the system, declaring that “full, fair and open trial is the only way for a system to be a system.”²⁷ The following year, Army Lt. Colonel Vandeveld became the fourth prosecutor to resign in connection with the Jawad case, in which he had seen the evidence, Vandeveld believed that the military had prosecuted in the first place and tried to cover up. He had allowed Jawad’s repatriation to Iraq, which he saw as the quickest way for Jawad to escape the military justice system and go home. Vandeveld also pointed to the use of techniques including severe sleep deprivation under which interrogators moved Jawad from a 14-day period to cause disorientation. When his superiors saw that Vandeveld had admitted his role to U.S. officials and argued for more leniency, they were angry and forced him to withdraw the admission. Vandeveld’s repeated refusal to disclose exculpatory information, including information that the government had a detainee in U.S. custody who had confessed to the crime, was a major factor in committing. “One would have thought that the military commissions had their fitful start, that a functioning system would be set up and procedures and policies not only explained in a sworn statement after hearing.”

The military commissions’ failure, however, was not a single flaw but to a larger effort to create a system of justice. In America, as one journalist noted, “In a commission proceeding, there are no witnesses, no one to see the witnesses and the evidence, and no one to see the spokesperson responded, oblivious to the truth.”

Even among those who criticize the military commissions, there remains significant disagreement. Some commentators and lawyers, for example, support the military in detaining and trying terrorist suspects. They sympathize with the Bush administration’s use of the military detention system for suspected terrorists but disagree with the direction that the military should take to preserve important elements of the Bush administration’s system of indefinite detention without charge, with

chief prosecutor, explaining that unlawful the integrity of the commissions and trials were not possible under the current system. Lieutenant Colonel Darrel Vandeveld resigned, citing the Pentagon's mishandling of the case and serving as lead prosecutor. After reviewing the case, Vandeveld stated that Jawad should never have been permitted to negotiate a plea deal that would have allowed him to return to Afghanistan, calculating that this was the corrupt military commission system that led to Jawad's abuse by U.S. officials, and that under the "frequent-flyer program," in which he was moved from cell to cell 112 times during a four-year period of isolation and despair. When Vandeveld's report was submitted to Jawad's abuse by Afghan and American officials, they reprimanded him and the commission. Vandeveld also cited the Pentagon's failure to provide necessary information to defense counsel, and that the government had information regarding another suspect in the same crime that Jawad was accused of, but that after six years since the commissioning law office would have been set up, it had not been fully put in effect, but refined," Vandeveld stated in his resignation.²⁸

However, the problem was not due ultimately to any single individual, but to an inferior, second-class system of justice. Vandeveld protested after observing a military commission where secret trials and reporters are allowed to attend. "This is not America," a Pentagon spokesman said, "but the irony."²⁹

The Bush administration's detention policy has been a point of contention over the solution. A number of critics, including human rights groups, have advocated other methods of dealing with terrorists outside the criminal justice system. The administration's effort to create an alternative system for dealing with terrorists outside the criminal justice system is what this effort took. They thus seek to reform the Bush administration's approach, such as the use of military commissions, while strengthening procedural protec-

tions and other limits on executive power at Guantánamo, rather than to end it.

Professors Robert Chesney and Jack Goldsmith, neither the criminal nor the military lawyer, do not easily meet the central legal challenge: how to prevent preventive incapacitation of uniformed soldiers who inflict mass casualties and enormous suffering, but be stopped before they act.”³⁰ The criminal law is on preventing error, a commitment to the principle that for some guilty persons to go free that is better than convicting the innocent. “The problem of modern terrorism is not the forms of liability, and may demand a system very different than the traditional criminal system would be able to contend.”³¹ In other words, government should be able to detain people before they do something wrong. The criminal law requires suspicions and evidence to the same type of standard as the military process requires. The military system has detention power. Its focus reflects the need to deal with the plates the short-term detention of combatants. It allows for detention based solely on membership in the enemy’s armed force), on the one hand, and on procedural protections, on the other (such as the Geneva Convention). Concerned with preventing error, Chesney and Goldsmith’s traditional military model goes too far in suggesting a hybrid that combines elements of both. A hybrid based on some form of membership in a group, with a membership organization while offering procedural safeguards, would be a military status tribunals but considered a criminal trial.

One hybrid proposal that has gained traction in legal circles is that of a separate national court, not unknown to the federal system. Such a court would hear cases, and specialized administrative cases, and specialized administrative cases, and specialized administrative cases. But national security courts differ from criminal courts in that they are not driven by a judge’s duty to do justice, but by a desire to evade more rigorous standards. National security courts, at bottom, seek to

power. In short, they propose to reform the criminal justice system. As Jack Goldsmith, for example, argue that the criminal justice model “in its traditional guise can be ill-suited to the needs of modern terrorism: the legitimate needs of law enforcement to identify and prosecute terrorists who have the capacity to cause significant economic harms and who thus must be treated as a criminal model, they say, is too focused on the protection of the innocent embodied in the idea that it is better to err on the side of innocence than for one innocent person to be convicted. Terrorism demands anticipatory or predictive justice, and a lower rate of erroneous acquittals than the criminal model could tolerate,” Chesney and Goldsmith argue that officials must be able to incarcerate terrorists without having to subject their cases to the rigors of adversarial testing that the criminal justice system, by contrast, provides too much protection for the rights of combatants and civilians on a mass scale. Chesney and Goldsmith argue that membership in a terrorist organization (typically, membership in a terrorist organization) is a crime in and of itself, and provides relatively few protections (such as the streamlined status hearings provided in the military commissions). If the criminal model is overly protective of the rights of the accused, Chesney and Goldsmith argue, the traditional model is too protective in the other direction. Their solution is to create a new model: allowing for prolonged detention of individuals suspected of membership in or association with a terrorist organization, but with legal safeguards more rigorous than traditional habeas corpus, but probably less demanding than a criminal trial.

This proposal has found traction in academic and policymaking circles, and has led to the creation of a federal terrorism court. Specialized courts are common in many legal systems. Some courts, for example, hear only tax cases, while others let administrative agencies decide cases affecting the environment, and various government programs. The idea of a terrorism court is similar to most other specialized tribunals in that it would rely on the expertise in a particular subject area to make decisions, but with less rigorous rules and due process protections. Chesney and Goldsmith seek to institutionalize a new system for

the long-term, preventive detention of individuals without the constitutional safeguards of a criminal trial.

Proposals for national security courts were advanced by Justice Brandeis and former Georgetown Law School professor general Neal Katyal would have featured habeas corpus review in specialized proceedings. Detainees would be represented by counsel drawn from a permanent staff of top-notch attorneys with extensive security clearances to handle classified information. There would be a prompt review of the initial decision to detain, and a right to habeas corpus for further appellate review of whether the government has the authority to hold people “years after” that decision. The system would avoid the plates long-term incarceration without the possibility of release, a form of indefinite detention that developed during the “war on terror” and incorporating habeas corpus.

Others recommend using national security courts to try terrorist suspects. Former federal judge and author of the book, for example, has called for prosecutions in national security courts. McCarthy contends that federal criminal courts would jeopardize national security by giving terrorists access to classified or other sensitive information to their attorneys. Michael B. Mukasey has voiced similar concerns. “Current institutions are ill-suited to even the limited task of supporting the prosecution of the September 11, 2001, principals, principally a military effort. The creation of new courts would dispense with key safeguards of the criminal justice system. They would have the right to see and confront the evidence against them. Instead, judges would make determinations based on secret evidence in secret, with the input of the government, and the defendant or his lawyer present.³⁶ The courts would be created by creating a new “forum for fairly detaining and prosecuting suspects long the war on terror ensues.”³⁷

Benjamin Wittes of the Brookings Institution has also argued for a national security court.³⁸ The political branches, he says, should create a sustainable legal architecture for the prosecution of terrorist suspects. Wittes asserts that some form of national security court for terrorist suspects—outside the criminal justice system—is the most defensible. The challenge is for Congress to create sufficient safeguards and guidelines to make the system legitimate. Although

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role in this new system, Wittes argues, cases under legislatively established standards rather than ad hoc judicial decision making.³⁹ While the current law of terrorism—that would provide the Bush administration afforded detainees the right of long-term detention based on less than criminal trials. Wittes recognizes that the current legal lens through which to view terrorism is not up to the task.⁴⁰ The new system, he believes, would create a more uniform process for detainees through the establishment of clear procedures.⁴¹

Despite their technocratic tone, most proposals do embrace the value judgment that noncitizens do. “Experience shows,” McCarty writes, “that if detainees are permitted access to our courts, . . . judges will effectively treat them as if they are citizens and provide them with the same constitutional and procedural protections.”⁴² Even the most restrictive proposals reinforce policy that America simply “owes” less to foreigners. Arguments based on citizenship-based arguments, however, are lost as morally suspect. A person’s citizenship is not a shield against danger or is responsible for committing crimes. Just as capable of committing grave crimes are the violent acts of homegrown terrorists like Timothy McVeigh, creating a permanent, second-class status for detainees also violates the principle of equal protection. The overwhelming majority of people suspected of terrorism are of Arab descent or Muslim background. Any proposal that is intentional, will further undermine the trust between the United States and Muslim world and encourage the rise of terrorism.

Proposals for national security courts have been developed. While they call for more relaxed rules, they generally fail to spell out what those rules would be. Many of important procedural questions such as the right to call and confront witnesses, and the right to see evidence. In addition, national security courts provide little guidance on perhaps the most important question: of people they would cover. Most proposals

that role should be limited to deciding standards, not devising policy through. The report envisions a hybrid model—a new system with greater procedural protections than the current system while continuing the practice of preventive detention. It sets more rigorous standards and rules than in the current system, but he argues that the criminal justice system, not war, is the more appropriate context for this hybrid system of preventive detention. It provides a secure legal architecture while helping to ensure the system is based on clear, legislatively approved rules and

most proposals for national security courts. He argues that citizens deserve less protection than non-citizens. He argues, “that once alien combatants are tried by judges, under the rubric of due process, they are as vested as citizens with substantive rights. The more nuanced and less openly discriminatory arguments with the suggestion of a national security court for foreign terrorist suspects.⁴⁴ These citizen-foreigner distinctions are legally and politically problematic, as well as constitutionally problematic. The fact that a person does not tell you whether he poses a national security threat is not a particular terrorist act. Citizens are treated as foreign nationals are, as the violations of the rights of Timothy McVeigh demonstrate. More important, the current detention system for foreign national security threats is not under law. If past is prologue, the current system will be of the same nature. This discriminatory impact, even if not intentional, will damage the United States’ reputation in the Arab world and the recruitment of terrorists.⁴⁵

Finally, the current rules are also astonishingly underdeveloped. If the current rules, they typically would be, leaving unanswered an array of questions such as the burden of proof, the ability to appeal, the standards governing the admission of evidence. The current proposals provide relatively little guidance on this important question of all: the category of individuals to be detained. The proposals recommend some combination

of membership in or association with coupled with some proof of future damage to the United States. How to determine membership in an amorphous, fluid organization like al Qaeda? What level of association with al Qaeda is sufficient to constitute a crime? And how does one determine “danger to the United States”? The proposals often fail to grapple with these questions.

National security court proposals, which would create a separate system for the government to detain and prosecute individuals without trial, create a precedent that is dangerous to the rule of law. The experience at Guantánamo is instructive. In eight years, thousands of prisoners have been held at Guantánamo, but only a handful have been tried. It is easier to detain them without trial. It is easier to act differently. When government officials inevitably gravitate toward a detention system that is more flexible and the evidentiary standards lower, the pressure on government officials to utilize watered-down procedures, rather than the strongest in those cases in which the evidence is most tenuous and its evidence weaker. Yet it is in these cases that the criminal justice system is most vital to the rule of law and to prevent wrongful imprisonment.

In addition, national security courts would exacerbate the problem of coercive interrogation. The government’s ability to incapacitate terrorist suspects is a key element of its counterterrorism strategy, which the desire to interrogate, rather than to prosecute, is a key element of its counterterrorism policy after 9/11. “Enemy combatant” status, which has less to do with any perceived threat to the United States than traditional law enforcement methods, has created a class of prisoners outside the law in order to use coercive interrogation methods to gain information. National security courts thus tend to see a problem where a problem exists. They also largely ignore the fact that the criminal justice system will inevitably be weakened by the use of coercive interrogation methods, whether by denying suspects the right to use evidence gained through torture or by allowing such evidence to be used.

Some, such as Georgetown Law School professor John Cole, have advocated continuing the military detention of terrorist suspects under a law-of-war framework rather than national security courts.⁴⁶ Cole argues that the

al Qaeda and Taliban “fighters” indefinitely without the procedural safeguards of a criminal trial, who do not participate in hostilities and have no intent to harm, if it is established that they belong to groups that are engaged in war with the United States. Cole recognizes that this practice raises serious concerns, including the potential for abuse by disfavored groups. But he believes that the benefits outweigh the shortcomings of the criminal process. He compares the treatment of al Qaeda, which he compares with enemy soldiers during World War II. Cole also argues that the process is mitigated by improving procedures and by ensuring that only those with al Qaeda or involvement in actual hostilities are subject to new detention power.⁴⁷

But Cole cannot avoid the problem of how to deal with al Qaeda and other terrorist organizations. The issue is not only a generation but also, indeed, potentially a century. Growing also is problematic on its own terms. The level of participation or association is so low that it is difficult. Moreover, that determination will initiate a process which can unilaterally strip individuals of their rights. The process based on the allegations it chooses to pursue, by funneling them into a shadow criminal justice system, and protections, is less accountable, and the military corps may ultimately help check the executive's power. But that checking function cannot be relied upon. Padilla, al-Marri, Hamdi, and Guantánamo are examples. It remains unclear as a practical matter how those placed in military detention would find a way to challenge. The government is freed from the criminal law model by not treating a prisoner before a judge for a hearing. The individual in military custody—potentially in secret—may not realize he is being held, files a habeas corpus petition, and a judge to order access to counsel and a hearing.

Furthermore, Cole invokes the military law model of detention to justify imprisoning terrorists. He argues that the criminal law model is inappropriate because the state is free from prosecuting enemy soldiers (and civilians because those soldiers may be obligated to follow the laws of war (and conscription laws)).⁴⁸ But neither is true.

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ers”: they may be prosecuted criminal (indeed, the United States has done so in many cases); and those who join al Qaeda and thus can be held accountable for the principles of criminal law.

Terrorist organizations, moreover, are constantly evolving. Thus, once terrorism became a national security issue, the rationale for detention without criminal process, the rationale for giving detention power to a single group, such as al Qaeda itself has mutated into other groups. The government’s expansive view of the principle of “associated” groups under the AUMF.) The government has extended its detention power to individuals who are not affiliated with al Qaeda at Guantánamo.

In the end, proponents of a “third way” of national security courts or the laws of war are sanding down the rougher edges of the current law rather than scrapping it altogether. They argue that the Bush administration went too far in engaging in torture and other gross violations of constraints on presidential power. But they argue that these should not be handled effectively through the current law (not in many cases) and that the United States needs a new legal framework for incapacitating and deterring terrorism. The premise is fundamentally flawed, however, and the value of treating terrorism as primarily a criminal matter prosecuting suspected terrorists through

A common criticism of the criminal law approach to terrorism is that it focuses on wrongdoing rather than preventing terrorism. In fact, focus, critics argue, makes criminal law a poor response to terrorism’s potential to inflict massive harm. But this underestimates the criminal justice system’s ability to prevent terrorism as well as to punish it.

Over time, Congress has cast an increasingly broad net over those who perpetrate terrorism as well as over those who support terrorist acts.⁵⁰ In enforcing those laws, the focus has shifted increasingly on prevention. After 9/11, federal

ly consistent with the laws of war (as, and continues to do in federal terrorism cases, are under no legal obligation to do so). Their actions, consistent with the prin-

are often loosely defined and continuous, becomes an acceptable basis for detention. The rationale for limiting the scope of that authority, such as al Qaeda, diminishes. After all, al Qaeda is a group and formation. (Hence the U.S. president's power to detain members of al Qaeda.) The government will inevitably try to detain individuals whom it thinks might be dangerous, such as those with al Qaeda, as it has already done at

“the way”—whether detentions based on the laws of war—believe that the answer lies in Guantanamo and the post-9/11 model. They acknowledge, to varying degrees, that the government has gone too far by circumventing judicial review, denying habeas corpus, and mistreating detainees. They nonetheless agree that terrorism cannot be handled by the criminal justice system (or at least the current one). The United States must develop an alternative to the current system of interrogating terrorism suspects. This system, however, fails to recognize the utility of the current system, which is principally a law enforcement problem and should be handled through the regular courts.

The current criminal justice system is that it punishes past crimes to prevent future harm. That backward-looking system is ill equipped to fight terrorism, given the scale of human and economic destruction.⁴⁹ The current criminal justice system's capacity to prevent terrorism is limited.

The current criminal justice system is an increasingly broad net over those who support it or plan future terrorism. The government has focused increasingly on terrorism, and prosecutors sought to use every avail-

able criminal statute to pursue suspects could be committed. The primary goal is deterring terrorist plots before they coalesce.

In implementing this preventive approach, Congress has provided a number of powerful tools at their disposal. Among them are laws that prohibit providing material support to terrorist organizations.⁵² The first material support law was passed after the bombing of the World Trade Center in 1993.⁵³ It prohibits providing property, services, expert advice, or personnel, including financial support, to terrorist activity.⁵⁴ Another law passed after the 9/11 attacks prohibits individuals from giving material support to a person designated a foreign terrorist organization if the person did not actually intend to incite terrorism. A necessary element is for the person to know the individual designated or has engaged in terrorist activity.⁵⁵ Additional provisions targeting more broadly the material support provisions so that they encompass travel and attendance at terrorist training camps.

Material support laws have become an important enforcement tool to stop terrorism before it starts. In a support case, a prosecutor does not have to prove that a terrorist act took place or even that there was an attempt to commit an act. Instead, prosecutors can convict individuals for providing material support to terrorist organizations, attempting to recruit would-be terrorists to obtain travel documents, or attending training camps.⁶⁰ Not surprisingly, these laws have been used against key players—a terrorist organization’s “front men”—because prosecutors do not have to prove that a specific act of terrorism occurred.⁶¹ In one high-profile case, the government indicted six men from Lackawanna, New York, that they had traveled to Afghanistan to train for terrorism. The government used material support laws to obtain convictions.⁶² While material support laws are important, their overbreadth—in particular, how they are applied without showing any connection between the individual and terrorism or any intent to further terrorist activity—has raised the government’s capacity to employ criminal statutes to prevent terrorism without committing any spe-

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Conspiracy laws provide another means by which they materialize. The seditious conspiracy statute, an agreement to conspire to overthrow or to obstruct the war against it, or interfere with the execution of the war was enacted in 1861—long before the advent of the “a vehicle for the government to make use of in a violent situation.”⁶⁴ More recently, it was used against Abdel Rahman and his codefendants for their tunnels and landmarks and for planning the overthrow of Hosni Mubarak.⁶⁵ Under principles of vicarious liability (“ability”), as long as one member of the conspiracy carries out the agreement, other members of the conspiracy are liable for crimes committed in furtherance of the conspiracy by the highest member.

Prosecutors have also used generally applicable laws to target terrorism, much as prosecutors prosecuted organized crime gangsters like Al Capone. Prosecutors have used these laws under laws prohibiting fraud, money laundering, and the destruction of property.⁶⁶ In addition, there are statutes involving more “minor” offenses such as fraud, making false statements to federal agencies, and so on. These statutes allow for immediate arrest without bail, cast a wide net over possible perpetrators, and allow prosecutors to reveal their suspicions. Most important, they allow for the detention of individuals if activity is suspected but there is not enough evidence for terrorism charges.⁶⁷ As the Department of Justice has noted, terrorism targets on alternative grounds, “because sometimes the only available method of detecting terrorist planning and support activities is the gathering of security information.”⁶⁸ And even though the penalties are ordinarily less severe than for terrorism, substantial jail terms still can be imposed.

The government, moreover, need not charge a crime to detain someone it believes presents a threat. It has ample authority to detain criminal suspects pending trial with a crime. While the Bail Reform Act of 1984 allows for the detention of defendants under the “least restrictive conditions” to prevent their continued detention pending trial.

means of disrupting terrorist plots before a conspiracy statute, for example, outlaws any act that would put down the U.S. government, levy taxes, or execute any U.S. law.⁶³ The statute is a response to the rise of modern terrorism—to provide a means for arrests before a conspiracy ripens into a crime. It was used to prosecute Sheikh Omar al-Bayh for plotting to bomb New York City and to assassinate Egyptian president Anwar Sadat. The statute creates conspiracy liability (or “Pinkerton liability”) when a conspiracy takes a step toward carrying out the conspiracy. The conspiracy can be held accountable for that conspiracy, from the lowest to the highest level.

The government has used applicable criminal statutes to convict terrorists. It has previously used the tax laws to convict terrorists. It has, for example, convicted terrorists for money laundering, racketeering, arms dealing, and other offenses. In addition, they have increasingly used offenses, such as financial or credit-card fraud, impersonating federal officials, or obtaining false documents, to prosecute terrorism. These offenses do not require proof of wider terrorist activity is afoot. They allow for the detention of individuals when terrorist activity is suspected. As the Justice Department has explained, the prosecution of these offenses “is often an effective method—and a necessary one—of deterring and disrupting potential terrorist activities without compromising national security. Although the punishment for such offenses is often less severe than for terrorism or other violent crimes, substan-

the government does not wait until it obtains a conviction to act. It can detain suspects once they have been charged with a crime. The Bail Reform Act of 1984 generally requires the release of a suspect on “reasonable conditions possible,” but it allows for the denial of bail if a judge determines that the defen-

dant poses a flight risk or that his pretense threatens the safety of the community. In terrorism cases, there is a presumption in favor of detention.⁶⁹ The rights of citizens pending immigration removal proceedings are limited, and such detention can be mandatory.

Critics of the criminal justice system argue that federal prosecutions risk disclosure of classified information through various requirements that prevent the admission of evidence and employ rules that hamstring prosecutors and investigators. While national security investigations are complex, such criticisms are misguided.

One of the main arguments for immigration reform is that immigrants are treated as “enemy combatants” instead of as individuals. The need to protect classified information is addressed by the Classified Information Procedures Act (CIPA) already addressed in this report. CIPA in 1980 to facilitate the prosecution of individuals possessing intelligence assets and information. CIPA in federal prosecutions of suspected terrorists. The government has been able to use information gained from intelligence sources without compromising the source. CIPA also enabled the government to prosecute individuals without the details of sensitive military and intelligence information.

CIPA does not change the government's ability to use the rules of evidence but instead regulates the disclosure of classified material. It authorizes a judge to order a closed hearing to determine whether the government can obtain that information at trial. If a judge finds that the government a chance to create an alternative version of the classified document (redacted or blacked out), an unclassified summary of the information sensitive material would prove.⁷³ Regulations require the government to provide the defendant with a summary of his defense” as would disclosure of the information if the government does not or cannot provide it. The government to withhold the information. But there is no requirement that the court impose an appropriate sanction to punish the government, but to ensure the integrity of the process. Sanctions can include barring the government from

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CIPA, to be sure, is not perfect, and the ability to obtain relevant information is often lost at trial. Under the act, judges reviewing potentially thousands of pages of law enforcement documents is relevant and helpful to the defendant during the pretrial discovery process. Some judges have ordered disclosure only to members of the judiciary clearance and barred the defendant from seeing it. This “cleared counsel” solution, however, is a poor perspective. It prevents a defendant from seeing the relevance of materials, thus impairing a defendant’s effective assistance of counsel. It also impairs a defendant’s right to self-representation, since the government clearance necessary to review classified information. Moreover, judges can evaluate the relevance of materials *ex parte*, considering arguments by the government and the defendant and his counsel from participating in the trial. This has helped enable terrorism cases to be tried without jeopardizing the disclosure of sensitive information. Rick Fitzgerald, the U.S. attorney who handled the 1993 bombings case, noted, “When you see the government involved in that case, and when you see the government pretty darn confident that the federal government will prosecute.”⁷⁸

Two examples are commonly cited. In one case, because the disclosure of sensitive information would have involved an alleged breach during the trial of a man, when the government handed over a list of individuals alleged to be unindicted co-conspirators of bin Laden. The list supposedly reached bin Laden, and that his connection to the case had been disclosed. The government had neglected to invoke its protective tool, such as a protective order, to prevent disclosure. Had the government done so, as it should have, sensitive information would not have been disclosed. The case involved the introduction of bin Laden

evidence necessary to effectively cross-examine the prosecution altogether if the government's case is so important to the defense.⁷⁵

and it can adversely affect a defendant's ability to prepare and challenge the government's evidence. Courts must determine what evidence among government law enforcement and intelligence documents is relevant to the defense and must therefore be disclosed to the defense. To help facilitate this review, courts should provide members of the defense team with a security clearance that prevents them from seeing the information. However, this presents a problem from a defense perspective because of the risk of helping his lawyer assess the relevance of the information to the defendant's constitutional right to the information. This can jeopardize a defendant's constitutional right to the information if the defendant typically lack the security clearance to see the information themselves.⁷⁶ Furthermore, the disclosure of materials requested in discovery from the government but excluding the defendant's materials is problematic.⁷⁷ But its shortcomings aside, CIPA can be prosecuted in federal court without the disclosure of national security information. As Pat Robertson helped prosecute the 1998 U.S. embassy bombings, how much classified information was disclosed to the defense? If you see that there weren't any leaks, you get the impression that courts are capable of handling these

cases. It is hard to show that criminal prosecutions are necessary to protect national security information. Neither has merit. The first example is the trial of Sheikh Omar Abdel Rahman. The government turned over to the defense a list of names of co-conspirators, including Osama bin Laden, who was in Khartoum, alerting him to the attack when it was uncovered.⁷⁹ The problem was that the government invoked CIPA or any other court-management statute to prevent disclosure of the information. As it has done in other cases, the sensitive information was disseminated.⁸⁰ The second example is the disclosure of the defendant's satellite phone records and other

evidence regarding a satellite phone used in the embassy bombings trial that supposed to stop him from using the phone.⁸¹ Bin Laden used the phone long before the material was discovered in his defense in discovery. The federal prosecutors face a real problem.⁸²

Another criticism of terrorism prosecutions is that the restrictive and hinder prosecutors from using evidence. The general rules of evidence often prevent the admission of evidence for public policy reasons that have no analog in the past. For example, former defense secretary Donald Rumsfeld and secretary Paul Wolfowitz told Congress that the current skeptics of the criminal justice system are not the only ones who suggest that soldiers in Desert Storm were not given warrants before capturing Iraqi soldiers. The military brushed attacks ignore the way that the courts have practiced. They also create a straw man argument about the connection to terrorism prosecutions.

One example is the authentication of evidence. The need to ensure that a document or recording is what it is to be. The Federal Rules of Evidence require authentication of a document. The rules establish categories of evidence (such as certified public records) that require authentication of what they appear to be.⁸⁵ They also govern the admission of other material, requiring authentication sufficient to support a finding that the evidence is what the proponent claims.⁸⁶ The government generated evidence in terrorism prosecutions that came from a theater of military operations. For example, the government successfully used a camp application with Padilla's fingerprints in Afghanistan. The government established the authenticity despite vigorous objection by the defense. The defense who described how he came into possession of the document before it was sent to a federal agent in Afghanistan. The chain of custody and the document's relevance are also important.

Courts have also applied evidentiary rules to cases with relevant testimony can present issues. For example, when the witness cannot testify in person, the court may

the battery pack during the 1998 U.S. raid that allegedly tipped off bin Laden and caused his death. Bin Laden, however, had ceased using the battery pack before it was presented at trial or disclosed to the public. The prosecution thus was not the source of the evidence.

One criticism of the prosecutions is that the rules are too strict regarding the presentation of evidence to a jury. “Federal rules of evidence prohibit the introduction of valid factual evidence in a trial of a foreign terrorist.”⁸³ Rumsfeld and former deputy defense counsel in December 2001.⁸³ Or as others have put it, “It would provoke laughter to think that the government should have obtained search or arrest warrants for bin Laden and his equipment.”⁸⁴ These broad rules of criminal procedure work in a way that is not ideal for a trial of “battlefield captures” that has little

independent corroboration of evidence. Judges understandably understand that recording is what one side represents it to be. To require the government to supplement this commonsense requirement with additional proof that they are authenticating documents (such as affidavits) would give a judge wide latitude to allow the government to introduce evidence only if the party provide “evidence that the document is authentic.” The matter in question is what its proper standard of proof is. Generally has not had problems authenticating documents, even when some of the evidence is hearsay. At Jose Padilla’s criminal trial, the government fully introduced an al Qaeda training manual with fingerprints on it that had been uncovered in Afghanistan. The government proved the authenticity of the document, through a confidential witness who testified to his possession of the document in Kandahar, Afghanistan, and his flight to Pakistan to allay concerns about the government’s reliability.⁸⁷

The rules are flexible to ensure that a witness can testify to the jury even in the unusual case of a battlefield capture. Judges, for example, have allowed

testimony of witnesses through video conferencing as long as a defendant can examine the witness and a jury can observe. The same is true for the rule against hearsay. Exceptions allowing out-of-court statements in terrorism cases have typically applied so that relevant evidence may be considered without compromising the fairness and integrity of the process.

At the same time, this flexibility is not absolute. It establishes certain baseline guarantees that a defendant, for example, has the right to a prompt trial, to the assistance of counsel, including at the government's expense if necessary. A defendant has the right to see and confront the evidence and witnesses, to compel the production of witnesses, to cross-examine, to disclose to the defendant any material evidence in the government's possession implicating the defendant's innocence, including evidence that can impeach a government witness. In addition, a defendant has the right to prove a defendant's guilt by proof beyond a reasonable doubt. Prosecutors and defense lawyers, however, all have different roles and parameters in terrorism prosecutions, and the process is often more complex than the case.

The Zacarias Moussaoui trial is somewhat of an outlier in prosecuting terrorism cases in federal court. It is a case site, highlighting the ability of federal courts to handle trying circumstances. The district judge found Moussaoui a mentally unstable defendant who fought his attorneys, refused to enter a plea, and made ideological rants against the United States. He challenged his constitutional right to represent himself, raising challenging legal questions because the case was so complex that Moussaoui could not see. The judge noted that the issues arose. For example, she provided a summary of classified information that Moussaoui's representation was not ideal, and burdened the court. But the same issue has come up in military courts. It shows that creating an alternative system is not a simple away but only channels them into a system that has less capacity, and less institutional capacity to address

video-taped depositions or two-way videoconferencing provides an adequate opportunity to cross-examine the witnesses' demeanor.⁸⁸ The Supreme Court's decision, which contains a number of exceptions, is to be considered.⁸⁹ Judges presiding over such proceedings applied the rules in a pragmatic fashion that was considered without undermining the fair-

ness of the trial is not boundless: the Constitution establishes certain rights that cannot be transgressed. A defendant, at a post-arrest judicial hearing following his arrest, has the right to have counsel appointed at the government's expense. A defendant must have the opportunity to confront the witnesses against him as well as the ability to cross-examine them in his favor. The government must also disclose to the defendant all evidence in its possession supporting its case, including any evidence that could be used to impeach or rebut any evidence that could be used to support the government's case. In addition, the government must establish its case beyond a reasonable doubt. Courts, prosecutors, and defense attorneys managed to operate within these fixed parameters, no matter the size or the complexity of the case.

It is sometimes cited to show the problems of self-representation in court.⁹⁰ But this trial shows the opposite: that courts can function under even the most difficult circumstances. In the case of Moussaoui, the defendant confronted a difficult and complex case, fought continually with the court and with the government, and sought to use the courtroom for his own purposes. Moussaoui also wanted to exercise his right to self-representation. Self-representation posed challenges that were never before involved classified information that the government nevertheless fashioned solutions as new precedents. The government had standby counsel with access to the information that Moussaoui was not permitted to see.⁹¹ This solution was a compromise of Moussaoui's right to self-representation.⁹² The Supreme Court's military commission prosecutions, which the Court has upheld, does not make tough questions go away. The system with less experience, less credibility, and less ability to address them.⁹³

Perhaps the most controversial issue in the effort to question several individuals based on their testimony, Moussaoui's attorneys believed the government's case for a death sentence by shooting him in the 9/11 attacks. The court of appeals even required the production of witness depositions in favor of the defendant. The receipt of summaries of the witnesses' testimony, which was modeled on CIPA, has been held to be a defendant's Sixth Amendment right to a fair trial. In favor, an important reminder of how the criminal justice system is compromised even when the criminal justice system should not obscure these two points: the government that sought to balance the respective interests of the parties there would never have been any problem with the witnesses in the first place had those individuals been lawfully today rather than illegally imprisoned and tortured.

Another frequent criticism of criminal justice is the constitutional requirements like *Miranda* and the waiver of terrorism suspects. Under *Miranda v. Arizona*, law enforcement agents must advise a suspect before questioning him, that he has the right to remain silent, he says can be used against him, and that he has the right to an attorney even if he cannot afford one. The purpose is to preserve an individual's constitutional rights against the inherently coercive pressures of custodial interrogation. Trainings also seek to prevent false confessions and wrongful convictions and lead law enforcement to be more careful. In violation of *Miranda* may be suppressed at trial. Once highly controversial, *Miranda* is now embedded in routine police practice and has become part of our national culture.⁹⁶

Criticisms of applying *Miranda* to terrorism suspects are based on these conceptions. First, *Miranda* applies only to those who are in custody; it does not limit the rights of those who are not. Officials, moreover, are required to do today without providing *Miranda* warnings. That is, what *Miranda* restricts is the use of evidence it obtains from custodial interrogation. The government may use evidence as long as the government has other evidence.

ue in Moussaoui's trial concerned his held at secret CIA "black sites" whose eived, would undermine the govern- nowing his lack of involvement in the tually rejected the district court's solu- of a process in which the jury would testimony.⁹⁴ The appeals court's solu- as rightly been criticized as limiting a o compel and examine witnesses in his constitutional protections can be com- ice system is used. But those criticisms first, that the court devised a solution interests of the parties, and second, that oblem in gaining access to the detainee- individuals been in lawful criminal cus- and tortured in a secret CIA jail.

iminal prosecutions is that they impose *Miranda* warnings that impede the inter- the Supreme Court's 1966 decision in agents must inform a suspect in custody, e right to remain silent, that anything hat he has the right to the presence of ne.⁹⁵ The purpose of the warnings is to right against self-incrimination amid stodial interrogations. *Miranda* warn- ons, which can both result in wrongful authorities astray. Statements obtained pressed and cannot be used against a overnal, *Miranda* rights have "become to the point where the warnings have

o terrorism cases rest on several mis- only to the questioning of individuals t the government's ability to question r, can still question individuals in cus- nings in order to gather information. e government's ability to use evidence ns against the defendant at trial. Thus, evidence untainted by those interroga-

tions, *Miranda* poses no impediment to popular belief, many terrorism suspects after *Miranda* warnings are provided.

Another criticism of *Miranda* in the warnings would be extended to military argument goes, should not have to soldiers captured on the battlefield. The with *Miranda* but with the failure to limit and with a conception of the battlefield limitless. In practice, *Miranda* has not investigations, including those conducted *Miranda* pragmatically in this context impede criminal prosecution in the suspect was captured and interrogated in a situation, a court might find that *Miranda* exigencies of the situation, thereby making as it was made voluntarily.⁹⁸ A court might “safety” exception applied to questioning time-sensitive intelligence.⁹⁹ But that is the argument made by John Yoo and others: that to interrogations conducted in the global

An example of the criminal justice terrorism cases is the prosecution of the Africa that killed more than two hundred. The defendants were convicted and sentenced in the plot. Three of the four defendants, an American citizen, claimed that the Amendment right to be free of unlawful agents raided his home in Kenya and conversations without a warrant. Two statements to U.S. and non-U.S. officials be suppressed because they were not because their statements were not voluntary under which they were held. The appeals affirmed the convictions.¹⁰⁰ The court the same constitutional protections as others they were foreign nationals arrested out to apply those protections to accommodate terrorism investigations without sacrificing

to prosecution. Furthermore, contrary to the argument that *Miranda* warnings do not stop but continue talking, the national security context is that the government conducts military operations. Military officials, the government, administer *Miranda* warnings to solve the terrorism problem with this argument lies not in the fact that it permits armed conflict to its proper sphere but that it is so elastic that it is effectively not an obstacle in counterterrorism operations conducted overseas, and courts have applied *Miranda* in that context.⁹⁷ Nor would *Miranda* necessarily apply in an unusual case in which a terrorism suspect is interrogated in a real battlefield setting. In that situation, *Miranda* did not apply, given the nature and purpose of the statement making a statement admissible as long as it is voluntary. The court might also find that *Miranda*'s "public safety" exception was urgently needed to secure evidence in a case very different from the radical argument that *Miranda* requirements do not apply in the context of a global "war on terror."

The government's ability to handle complex terrorism cases was demonstrated in the 1998 U.S. embassy bombings in East Africa, which killed over a hundred people and wounded thousands. The government prosecuted and sentenced to life in prison for their roles in the bombings. The defendants appealed. One defendant, who was a U.S. citizen, argued that the government had violated his Fourth Amendment rights against unlawful searches and seizures when FBI agents conducted surveillance of his telephone. Other defendants argued that their constitutional rights were violated after their arrest in Kenya should the government had provided valid *Miranda* warnings and that their statements were involuntary, given the coercive conditions of their arrest. The appeals court rejected these challenges and affirmed the convictions. It recognized that the defendants had the same constitutional rights as other criminal defendants, even though they were arrested outside the United States. It then sought to balance the government's need to update the demands of overseas terrorism against the government's fundamental trial rights. The appeals

court concluded, for example, that warrants are administered when the United States is in possession of a suspect in foreign custody, the same way that takes into account local conditions. Inside the United States, a suspect in custody can be taken right away or at the detaining government's discretion. That while the Fourth Amendment applies to the application could vary based on the circumstances, it would still need to demonstrate that the government is able to introduce evidence at trial, it would not be a warrant to search a person's home or list of contacts in a foreign country, as it would inside the United States.

Questions can—and should—be asked about whether the right result on all the issues and values of national security. But from the perspective of the Bush administration in the “war on terrorism” margins. The prisoners were not detainees, nor were they put before substantial military commissions, as were others in the same terrorist attack. Instead, they were given a time-tested system and given the same rights as those if those rights were interpreted in light of overseas counterterrorism operations.

Critics of using the criminal justice system to estimate its strengths in gaining valuable information-gathering tools often argue for lenient treatment in exchange for the cooperation of suspects with crimes often provide useful and important information. Suspects in order to avoid going to jail often cooperate in the prospect of a reduced jail term. Incentives are structured to obtain this cooperation from suspects who accept responsibility in pleading guilty. The government can threaten to seek even more severe penalties if they do not cooperate.¹⁰⁴ Defense lawyers typically emphasize the advantages of cooperating with the government and by facilitating negotiations with the prosecution.

Prosecutors have long used the prospect of a reduced jail term to bring down large and complex criminal

While *Miranda* warnings must still be actively participates in the interrogation warnings could be administered in a conditions, including the fact that outside might not be entitled to an attorney government's expense. The court also found applies to American citizens overseas, its circumstances. While the United States the search or surveillance was reasonable would not be required to obtain a warrant to his telephone calls in a foreign States.

asked about whether the court reached whether it erred too much on the side of the extraordinary measures taken by on terrorism," these debates are at the remained indefinitely as "enemy combat- standard tribunals like the Guantánamo individuals accused of involvement they were prosecuted in a legitimate, the trial rights as other defendants, even light of the particular circumstances of

system to fight terrorism also underes- intelligence. One of prosecutors' most is their ability to offer suspects more their cooperation.¹⁰¹ Individuals charged incriminating information about other or to lessen their own exposure through deed, the federal sentencing guidelines on by reducing sentences for defendants guilty¹⁰² and who provide substantial er criminal suspect.¹⁰³ At the same time, even longer jail terms against those who typically help, not hinder, this process by rating and the risks of not cooperating, e government when appropriate.

promise of more lenient treatment in tak- enterprises like organized crime and

drug cartels. More recently, they have cases against terrorist suspects.¹⁰⁵ By prison sentences to induce cooperation, the government has obtained “critical intelligence on groups, safe houses, training camps, and the United States, as well as the operation of those camps to do harm.”¹⁰⁶ In the “Lackawanna Six” case, the government received a reduced sentence for one of the defendants in exchange for Goba’s assistance. Goba, in turn, not only helped lead to the conviction of his codefendants but also provided money for the government in other terrorism cases.

By their nature, criminal investigations often lead to greater understanding of the crime and the related. ¹⁰⁸ Each investigation offers the opportunity for defendants to cooperate and provide valuable information. They yield search warrants, post-arrest statements, and other information for governments, all of which contribute to the prosecution’s edge. What may at first seem small and insignificant ultimately enable law enforcement to bring more prosecutions in court.¹⁰⁹ Those cases provide what some have called a “treasure trove” of new information.

The criminal justice system also helps in the process of gathering. Prosecutors must anticipate the challenges they will receive from an informant or a cooperating witness. Any cooperation will later be challenged by defense attorneys and jury if introduced in court. Prosecutors must ensure that the information is accurate and reliable. This examination and corroboration is a key part of judicial proceedings and yields more detailed information. A prosecutor explained, “When you have a witness, a judge to get a wiretap, or proof beyond a reasonable doubt, the information must be reliable and corroborated by other sources. Proceedings like the Combatant Status Review Boards at Guantánamo, the government had no other way to get the information, since it believed that the information would be by a judge or presented in court. In the past, we have encouraged shoddy intelligence gathering.”

Criminal prosecutions, moreover, are often used in military commissions, national security

used this tactic to infiltrate and build leverage from criminal charges and long sentences from defendants, the Justice Department's concern about al-Qaida and other terrorist recruitment, and tactics in the United States of the terrorists who mean to do Americans harm. For example, prosecutors agreed to plea deals with defendants, Yahya Goba, in exchange for information that helped the government, but also provided important testimony in terrorism cases.¹⁰⁷

These investigations also lead to both more information and information that has been accumulated over time that new defendants and information. Those investigations produce statements, and assistance from foreign sources to a growing storehouse of knowledge. Isolated pieces of information can be used to infiltrate terrorist activities and bring about what national security experts call "valuable information about terrorism."¹¹⁰

These investigations help foster reliable intelligence gathering that any information the government is gathering is being scrutinized by a judge or a prosecuting witness in a criminal investigation. The information is scrutinized by a judge or prosecutor and scrutinized by a judge or prosecutor. Prosecutors therefore have an incentive to ensure the integrity of the information by probing, analyzing, and verifying the information. This process helps ensure the integrity of the information. As one former prosecutor has said, "The government has an incentive to demonstrate probable cause to a jury beyond a reasonable doubt to a jury, informed by the government." By contrast, with sham proceedings, the information used to justify detentions at Guantanamo Bay has no incentive to ensure the accuracy of the information would never be reviewed by a court. In short, inferior adjudicatory systems are not the best way to ensure the integrity of the information.

The government will always have the legitimacy that comes from the courts, and other second-class mod-

els lack. Often, the most important leads come from voluntary statements by members of the public. Sometimes those tips come from the suspects themselves, as in the case of the attempted transportation system on July 21, 2005.¹¹² Even the information—the members of the same community as the would-be terrorists—arrives when they perceive their group has been singled out.

Of course, not every terrorist suspect cooperates. But there is no evidence that suspects cooperate more frequently than do defendants accused of other crimes. It is possible in some cases that the government might charge a suspect or that the government might have information that it cannot use at trial, for example, a source or risk disclosure of sensitive information, and the problem is not novel; it comes up in drug and organized-crime cases. In general, the use of force is effective not only at incapacitating suspects but also at gaining information from them. By contrast, creating alternatives to the use of force by the government to interrogate suspects without the fruits of those interrogations as a result of the enormous costs that far outweigh any benefits.

Most intelligence and counterterrorism practices, and other abusive interrogation practices, are counterproductive in the long run. As the CIA's former director, Robert Mueller III, director of the FBI since 2001, said, "The use of torture disrupted because of intelligence gained from the use of torture." ¹¹⁵ The "only thing torture guarantees is pain." ¹¹⁶ An extensive report by the intelligence agencies describes the use of torture as "outmoded, amateurish, and unreliable." The commander of the U.S. Central Command has stated that torture and other "expectations are not only wrong but useless and counterproductive."

Bush administration officials never claimed that their interrogation methods saved lives and prevented the loss of valuable information. They often

ads in uncovering terrorist plots come from members of the community and the general public, not from relatives of the perpetrators themselves. In the case of the 2005 London bombings, it was the people with the most valuable information—those who are religious, ethnic, or geographically connected to the perpetrators—who were less likely to offer their assistance if they were singled out for inferior treatment.

Subject who has information is willing to provide that information, but terrorist suspects cooperate less readily than those suspected of other serious crimes.¹¹³ It also is possible that the government may lack sufficient evidence to prosecute if the subject has come into possession of information. For example, because it would compromise the source of the intelligence. But such cases are rare. More commonly arises in large drug-trafficking cases. In such cases, criminal prosecutions have proved less effective than suspected terrorists before they engage in further activity. Information useful to prevent future terrorist attacks is often lost to criminal prosecutions to enable the government to act with fewer restrictions and then to use the information as a basis for imprisonment, imposing tremendous costs and benefits.

Terrorism experts agree that torture and harsh interrogation do not produce accurate information and are often a waste of money. Torture, according to one expert, "does not yield leading information."¹¹⁴ Robert S. Mueller, Jr., has stated that no attacks have been prevented through torture or other mistreatment. "If you want to guarantee you," insists a veteran FBI interrogator, "you need to get the information from a group of experts advising U.S. officials against the use of harsh interrogation methods as a means of gathering information."¹¹⁵ General David H. Petraeus, commander of the Joint Special Operations Command and formerly the top general in Iraq, has stated that "harsh interrogation methods" used to gain information were "often unnecessary."¹¹⁶

Nevertheless, some have claimed repeatedly that harsh interrogation has prevented future attacks by providing valuable information. One often-cited example is the CIA's interrogation of Abu

Zubaydah at a secret prison in Thailand, a catalyst for the initial Justice Department pressure of its “enhanced interrogation techniques” provided leads about a number of terrorists who was arrested soon after Zubaydah’s boarding, which the CIA inflicted on him. In a single month, CIA operatives stripped Zubaydah (previously suffered during a firefight) so much that he “seemed to turn to water.” He made him stand for hours at a time in the presence of Khaled Sheikh Mohammed to waterboard him. The former military psychologist, James Mitchell, and his team, announcing that Zubaydah had broken under his power to resist broken.¹²¹ There is no evidence that the techniques produced useful intelligence. It is suggested that the brutal treatment was not ruled by the CIA officials in headquarters but by the CIA officials in headquarters.¹²² By contrast, the FBI agents through standard interview techniques, however, came to a halt when the end of the interrogation process, and turned to representing the efficacy of its interrogations. The CIA overstated Zubaydah’s importance: the CIA officials had sought to justify Zubaydah’s treatment as a senior member of al Qaeda and a high-ranking al Qaeda member until it was revealed that Zubaydah was even a member of or for the end, not a single plot was thwarted. The CIA tortured Zubaydah through torture. As one former CIA official said, millions of dollars chasing false alarms.

The most successful U.S. interrogations were conducted through traditional law enforcement methods. In 2002, FBI Agent Ali Soufan of the FBI and Robert McFarland of the Air Force interrogated Abu Jandal, a high-ranking al Qaeda member, at a Yemeni prison where Jandal had been held for years.

and following his capture in 2002—the
ment torture memos. Under the pres-
techniques,” the CIA claimed, Zubaydah
orism suspects, including Jose Padilla,
n’s interrogation. In addition to water-
Zubaydah eighty-three times in a sin-
Zubaydah naked, exposing his injuries
in Pakistan); raised the air condition-
blue”; blasted rock music at him; and
a frigid cell.¹¹⁹ (The CIA later subjected
boarding 183 times in a single month.)¹²⁰
es Mitchell, led the CIA’s interrogation
to be treated “like a dog in a cage” and
no evidence, however, that those tech-
indeed, the interrogators on the ground
as “unnecessary,” but they were over-
rters who were monitoring the inter-
ts who initially questioned Zubaydah
s had far greater success.¹²³ Their prog-
e CIA team arrived, froze the FBI out
ed to torture.¹²⁴ In addition to misrep-
on methods, the CIA also profoundly
ne CIA and top Bush administration
lah’s treatment on the ground that he
a close associate of Osama bin Laden.
yadah was merely a low-level person-
o training camps in Afghanistan.¹²⁵ In
tment, government officials neverthe-
r years afterward that Zubaydah was a
eventually abandoning the claim that
ormally identified with al Qaeda.¹²⁶ In
d as a result of statements wrung from
mer intelligence official said, “We spent
s.”¹²⁷

gations since 9/11 instead have come
methods. In the weeks after the attacks,
adden of the Navy Criminal Investiga-
Osama bin Laden’s former bodyguard,
d been held for nearly a year. Jandal

refused to cooperate and insisted that Israel's Mossad. Rather than resorting up through a combination of guile and diabetic Jandal sugar-free cookies as a later provided reams of valuable information, boarding, sleep deprivation, or other methods, notwithstanding the fact that he was advised by the CIA, they advised Alexander, a former military intelligence officer, to track down al Qaeda leader Abu Mohammed al Libi through coaxing, cajoling, and tricking terrorists. Alexander, the right way to obtain valuable intelligence, is to use a combination of coaxing, cajoling, and tricking terrorists. Investigator, Eric Maddox, credits similar tactics to the capture of Saddam Hussein. Maddox, a former intelligence officer, ranked Baath Party leader with close access to Hussein's whereabouts by creating a false identity for Ibrahim that unless he volunteered to cooperate, he might move, and he could no longer be trusted. Substantial intelligence has been gleaned from the materials found on detainees after they were interrogated. From playing detainees against one another and coaxing information that they believed they would not be able to resist.

Torture is not only ineffective; it also has devastating consequences, as the case of Khalid bin Muhammad al-Libi illustrates. In late 2001, the United States captured al-Libi. He was interrogated—without torture—by FBI agents. Brian Cloonan, who says that he advised FBI agents to do this like it was being done right here, says that during interrogations, agents were able to determine al-Libi's cooperation for al-Libi's wife. Al-Libi cooperated about al Qaeda staff and training, and a plot to blow up a U.S. military base, the 9/11 attack.¹³³ Al-Libi also denied any connection to Hussein's regime in Iraq, even though he was a high-ranking official at this point.¹³⁴ The CIA, however, resisted al-Libi's cooperation as a potential prosecution witness and was not allowed to do so. So, several days into the FBI's interrogations, where the FBI was questioning al-Libi, he said, "You're going to Egypt! And while you're there, go to the airport and fuck her!"¹³⁵ Shortly thereafter, al-Libi

the attacks had been orchestrated by to torture, Soufan got Jandal to open craft, starting the process by giving the sign of friendship and respect. Jandal information about al Qaeda without water-marshal interrogation methods, and not-ised of his constitutional rights.¹²⁸ Mat-errogator in Iraq whose efforts helped usab al-Zarqawi, has pointed out that st suspects, and not torturing them, is gence.¹²⁹ Another professional interro-ics in yielding the information that led ddox got Mohammed Ibrahim, a mid-ties to Hussein, to provide directions a false sense of urgency: Maddox told he information immediately, Hussein help Ibrahim from going to prison.¹³⁰ ed in various other ways—from mate-re captured (known as “pocket litter”), other, and from detainees freely volun-their questioners already knew.¹³¹

also can produce misinformation with e of Ibn al-Shaykh al-Libi illustrates. ed al-Libi in Afghanistan. He initially by FBI counterterrorism expert Jack FBI agents in Afghanistan to “handle s, in my office in New York.”¹³² During ngle the possibility of favorable treat-rated, and provided detailed informa-g camps in Afghanistan and about a thus helping avert a potentially deadly ection between al Qaeda and Saddam FBI agents repeatedly pressed him on ed the FBI’s effort to treat al-Libi like wanted to use more aggressive tactics. gation, a CIA agent burst into the cell i and started shouting at the prisoner, re there, I’m going to find your mother Libi was strapped to a stretcher, bound

and gagged with duct tape, and rendered without approval.¹³⁶

In Egypt, al-Libi's interrogators pressed for a connection between al Qaeda and Saddam Hussein. When he denied such a connection, he was locked in a tiny box. Finally let out of the box, al-Libi was beaten and forced to "tell the truth." So al-Libi made up a story that he knew of going to Iraq to learn about weapons. His interrogators beat al-Libi again to find out more. The story about Iraq's helping al Qaeda obtain weapons was relayed to the United States and was used in the confession obtained. Secretary of State Colin Powell used the confession in his February 5, 2003, presentation to the United States' military intervention in Iraq. Al-Libi, a senior terrorist operative telling how Iraq had provided [chemical and biological] weapons to al Qaeda, is now a senior operative is now detained, and he has a story—which al-Libi later recanted and admitted was false, and the United States' decision to go to war was a confession gained by burying a prisoner. Al-Libi was taken to his interrogators what they had wanted. He was taken to a secret jail in Afghanistan and eventually released. He reportedly committed suicide.¹⁴⁰

Torture also can help fuel terrorism and violence.¹⁴¹ Al Qaeda leaders such as Ayman al-Zawahiri and abuse in Egyptian prisons as spark for more violence.¹⁴² In addition, torture can alienate Muslim communities, undermining the United States' relationship with those whom it needs in fighting terrorism. The actions of the world have been seriously undermined by the actions committed by U.S. officials at Guantanamo and CIA jails.¹⁴⁴ While some may gravitate toward the United States, how the United States treats prisoners, the hearts and minds of those who have been tortured.

Torture, like indefinite detention and the use of force by repressive regimes like Egypt, Sudan, and the United States to justify their own human rights abuses. The Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, an organization of forty-six nations, warned:

red to Egypt—with the White House’s
pressed him to admit knowing about ties
ein in Iraq. When al-Libi denied any
ny cage for eighty hours. After he was
aten before being given another chance
a story, accusing three al Qaeda figures
ut nuclear weapons.¹³⁷ When Egyptian
out more, al-Libi embellished his tale
eapons of mass destruction. The infor-
es, without a description of how it was
ell later relied on al-Libi’s coerced con-
tation to the United Nations justifying
n in Iraq.¹³⁸ “I can trace the story of a
raq provided training in these [chemi-
aeda,” Powell said. “Fortunately, this
s told his story.”¹³⁹ Unfortunately, that
d the CIA eventually repudiated—was
o invade Iraq rested in part on a false
er alive. Under torture, al-Libi had told
d to hear. Al-Libi was later transferred
ntually sent to a prison in Libya where

m by inculcating the desire for ven-
nan al-Zawahiri have cited their torture
king the desire to take revenge through
enate moderates from Arab and Mus-
ited States’ ability to gain support from
ism.¹⁴³ America’s image and standing in
nined by the brutal and dehumanizing
Abu Ghraib, Guantánamo, and secret
e toward terrorist groups regardless of
torture harms America’s ability to win
e not yet committed to that path.

nd sham military trials, also embold-
an, and Syria, which now point to the
an rights violations. As the Parliamen-
pe, an international government orga-

The commission of unlawful acts—abuse of other countries even though they are not part of detention centers beyond judicial review—erodes the moral authority of the United States. The power is becoming a negative role model that they may legitimately follow the

At the same time, torture makes it difficult to share information with other countries, a problem that is a source of frustration among countries. A German court, for example, had to disqualify an accomplice of the 9/11 hijackers when he refused to witness to testify at trial because that he had been interrogated in secret CIA custody.¹⁴⁷ “The trial is the center of our answer to terrorism,” explained a counterterrorism prosecutor who saw his efforts conducting disrupted by the rendition process. “In this situation, the trial is not important.”¹⁴⁸

The 9/11 Commission warned early on that the United States live up to its legal and moral obligations. It said that abused prisoners in its custody make it difficult to maintain cal, and military alliances the government. Members of the commission later reported that the United States’ mistreatment of “suspect” prisoners in secret detention centers abroad.¹⁵⁰ The commission also similarly highlighted “the complications that renditions pose to terrorism prosecution.”

Defenders of torture still cling to the idea that torture may be necessary in an emergency if a prisoner has information that could prevent a future attack, impossible to know in advance whether the information that would prevent some future attack, however remote or tenuous the threat. They argue that torture because it is always possible in the future to get information. So while torture might be justified in some situations, it will inevitably be used more often. Another problem is that torture does not just damage a country’s entire legal and political system, but also to hide or excuse it.

productions, the exporting of torture to
regarded as “rogue states,” the setting
ial supervision—has severely affected
ates. Worse still, the world’s greatest
model for other countries, which feel
same path and flout human rights.¹⁴⁵

the United States less willing to share
point of contention with key allies and
erterrorism officials in Europe.¹⁴⁶ One
dismiss the charges against a suspected
U.S. officials refused to produce a key
t witness was being held and interro-
ial and the legal investigation is at the
plains Armado Spataro, a senior Italian
a broad terrorism investigation he was
and torture of Abu Omar. “In the U.S.

r on about the United States’ failure to
ons. “Allegations that the United States
t harder to build the diplomatic, politi-
ment will need [to fight terrorism].”¹⁴⁹
eiterated those downsides, citing the
cted terrorists in military prisons and
e U.S. Senate Intelligence Committee
ns” secret detention and extraordinary
ns and to America’s image.¹⁵¹

he myth of the “ticking time bomb”—
emergency when authorities believe a
prevent an imminent attack. But it is
ner a person actually has information
t. As a result, the goal of saving lives—
—can always be invoked to justify tor-
theory that torture will yield valuable
be intended for only the most extreme
more widely once the door is opened.
s not occur in a vacuum but infects a
tem, which must continually find ways

Those who defend torture will always claim that torture yielded useful information. But the information could have been obtained without torture. For example, that the United States gained any information that could not have been obtained through other means. Of the evidence gained through torture, if we set the interrogations aside, torture remains a much less effective method than the more sophisticated and controlled methods of interrogation. Torture also carries tremendous harms inflicted on its victims. When a government tortures or legalizes torture, it undermines its own moral authority, affects affected communities, and weakens the rule of law.

The criminal justice system contains safeguards against torture, such as the privilege against self-incrimination, the right to counsel and a prompt judicial hearing, and the right to confront one's accusers at trial. But as the government has sought to detain terrorist suspects militarily and through other forms of preventive detention, it has moved away from criminal prosecution, habeas corpus, and other legal safeguards against torture and other abuse because it prevents the type of secret, extrajudicial detention that takes place on the ground. It is not simply enough to "take the law off the books" (as President George W. Bush, while occupying the White House): the checks and balances of the Constitution—its availability is more, and more important, in the face of international terrorism given the inevitable temptation to engage in torture and other abuse against legal boundaries and to engage in preventive detention.

By the end of the Bush administration, the rule of law was still largely intact, even if some of its safeguards were weakened. The United States continued to detain hundreds of people without charge. It also maintained the practice of engaging in torture and other abuse in the interrogations of detainees at Guantánamo had finally won the right to habeas corpus. More than two hundred men were still imprisoned in Guantánamo. The United States continued to resist access to the detainees at Bagram in Afghanistan.

The Bush administration had not only weakened the rule of law and institutions; it had also changed the nature of the nation. Despite the widespread criticism

ays claim there are situations in which one can never know if that same information is true or false. There is no evidence, for example, that information after 9/11 through torture was more accurate than information obtained through lawful means. Conversely, much of the information obtained through torture was false. Legal and moral considerations make torture an ineffective method of gaining information. The use of uncalibrated tools of criminal law enforcement, such as torture, has costs beyond the physical and mental harm to the individual. A democratic country seeks to sanction such practices, which undermine its own legitimacy, creates a backlash among its citizens, and undermines the rule of law at home and abroad.

There are other safeguards that help to deter such practices: the right of self-incrimination, the right of access to a lawyer, the right of hearing following arrest, and the right to habeas corpus. As long as the U.S. government continues to use torture, and as long as national security courts and executive orders are considered possible alternatives to the rule of law, habeas corpus will remain important to preventing such practices. Habeas corpus provides access to a court and thus helps to prevent the use of arbitrary detention that is torture's breeding ground. "The rule of law is the best trust" the executive (no matter who is in power) can have. The lack of an independent judiciary is essential to the rule of law. Not less, important in an age of international terrorism is the tendency of government officials to push the boundaries of the law in coercive interrogation practices.

In the post-9/11 detention regime, the worst excesses had been curbed. The use of torture was limited. Hundreds of individuals indefinitely withheld habeas corpus. The executive had the prerogative to operate secret prisons and to detain individuals in the name of national security. Detainees were denied the right to habeas corpus. But more important, the use of torture imprisoned them in legal limbo, and the lack of habeas corpus for prisoners held at Guantanamo Bay.

The use of torture not only altered and corroded America's national identity, it changed public consciousness and perception of the world. The use of torture at Guantanamo, many of its key fea-

tures had gained traction, particularly military commissions, and the broader. The Bush administration had also done what was not always possible: it had made torture a matter of public policy. It had won in the courts, abuses uncensored by Congress, and against executive and legislative assault. The administration would have to govern in a way that was different from any before it.

y indefinite detention without charge, er concept of a global “war on terror.” ne what before was virtually unthink- public debate. Important victories had overed, and habeas corpus defended t. But much had changed, and the next n a legal, political, and cultural climate

Continuity and Change

The Detention Policy of a New Administration

On his inauguration as the president of the United States on January 20, 2009, Barack Obama announced America's national security policy: "As a president, I reject as false the choice between our safety and our values. From one of his first official acts as president, Obama announced the closure of the detention facility at Guantánamo in one year. He also issued three executive orders banning harsh interrogation methods by confirming the prohibition in the *U.S. Army Field Manual* and the prohibition in Article 3 of the Geneva Convention. He also ordered the closure of any remaining secret CIA prisons and the creation of a task force to review existing individuals in detention. The third called for a comprehensive review of the current detention policy.⁴

However, important questions remained. Would some Guantánamo detainees would be transferred to third countries. But others would remain. How would they be treated. Would they be released and continue to be held indefinitely. Would detainees still be tried by military commissions at other U.S.-run facilities like Bagram Air Base prison—the Parwan Detention Facility at Bagram Air Base. But even the underlying question remained: would the Obama administration maintain key features of the Bush administration—maintain key features of the Guantánamo embodied?

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forty-fourth president of the United States, Barack Obama suggested a new direction for the war. “For our common defense, we reject the use of torture and our ideals.”¹ Two days later, in a State of the Union address, Obama issued a directive mandating the closure of the detention facility at Guantánamo Bay within 60 days. The first executive order that day banned the CIA from using techniques contained in the 2002 executive order mandating compliance with the Geneva Conventions while also directing the closure of the facility.² The second created a cabinet-level committee to review individual Guantánamo detainee cases.³ The third directed a review of U.S. detention and interroga-

tion practices. Under the president’s directive, detainees would presumably be returned home or repatriated if they were not deemed to be a threat. Would they be returned home or repatriated if they would not, and Obama did not address the issue? Would they simply be moved to the United States as “enemy combatants”? Would some detainees be released? And what about prisoners of war in Afghanistan? A new and larger detention facility—had been built on the outskirts of Guantánamo. Though conditions were improving, the question remained: Would the United States continue to hold detainees without access to any court? In short, would the United States close Guantánamo, would it—or a future president—close the larger detention system that

The first major test of the new administration came in the case of Ali al-Marri, which the Supreme Court heard before President Obama took office. The case was forced to decide almost immediately on the constitutionality of the extraordinary exercise of presidential detention and imprisonment without trial of a person lawfully seized on allegations of terrorism. In February 2006, a habeas petition had been filed, and just weeks before the case was argued, the Justice Department unsealed a two-page affidavit alleging that al-Marri was providing material support to terrorism and was being held in civilian custody.⁵ The solicitor general asked the Supreme Court to dismiss al-Marri's case as moot, but the Court refused. Al-Marri obtained the relief he sought in his habeas petition: he was released from prison and returned to his home in Maryland. Faced with a choice between a sweeping—and dubious—assertion of presidential power and a sweeping—and dubious—assertion of presidential power, the Court granted the government's motion to dismiss. Although the Court also vacated the Foreign Intelligence Surveillance Act's authorization of al-Marri's possible military detention, thereby preventing its use against others in the future, the Court did not resolve the important question about the presidential power to detain without trial presented by al-Marri's case. Al-Marri was later convicted guilty to one count of conspiring to provide material support to terrorism and was sentenced to eight years and four months in prison, leaving the criminal justice system to handle even the most serious terrorism suspects.

In ongoing litigation elsewhere, the Court has been attacked closely to the prior administration's policies on Guantánamo habeas cases, which had finally been resolved in district court following the Supreme Court's decision in *Boumediene v. Bush*, the administration's policy to detain terrorism suspects without charge. The Court held that support for terrorism must be "substantial" and that the suspect must be "unprivileged belligerent" for that of "unprivileged belligerent." The Obama administration's policy to detain individuals indefinitely without charge in the context of a global armed conflict against al Qaeda was upheld, even if those individuals were not seized in the context of a global armed conflict against the United States. The Court's decision signal a new direction, such as the Obama administration's policy to detain al-Marri rather than defend his military status.

like efforts to sidestep difficult cases limit its options in the future.

On May 21, 2009, Obama delivered a speech at the Gerald R. Ford Library Archives in Washington.⁹ Flanked by the Statue of Liberty and the American Independence, Obama reiterated his war on terror strategy and civil liberty policy. “My single most important responsibility as president
“is to keep the American people safe. . . . We also cannot keep this country safe unless we protect its most fundamental values.”¹⁰

Obama had sharp words for his predecessor. “On September 11, the United States entered a new era of uncertainty. . . . The world presented grave dangers and did not know how to respond to an uncertain threat, he said, the U.S. government had violated its principles. . . . Instead of strategically applying those principles, often we set those principles aside as luxury. . . . To restore those principles, Obama reiterated his commitment to civil liberties. Referring to his earlier decision to authorize “enhanced interrogation techniques,” Obama did not mince his words. “I am rejecting the notion that torture was necessary to protect the country. I also defended his decision to close Guantánamo. “The use of torture had tarnished America’s reputation and made it easier to recruit as a recruiting tool for terrorists. In addition, the use of executive power, asserting instead that the decision depended on action by all three branches of government. In short, the speech marked a sharp contrast to his September 2006 speech defending secret detentions.

But Obama’s speech also showed that the principles of the United States’ post-9/11 detention policy were not new. Obama stressed the importance of the rule of law and the authority of the federal courts to handle terrorism cases. “The federal prosecutions were just one of several steps we are taking to close Guantánamo and fighting terrorism. . . . We are also reviewing military commissions. While Obama said he would not provide a coherent explanation of the legal basis for the program used and ignored the harmful consequences of the program’s second-class justice system. In addition, he said he would continue to hold some Guantánamo detainees in custody. “The existence of a category of individuals who are held in custody for life, without ever being charged with a crime, is a violation of the principles of the United States.”

and avoid adverse rulings that might

an important speech from the National
the Constitution and the Declaration of
vision for the country's national secu-
at responsibility as President," he said,
" But, he cautioned, "in the long run
unless we enlist the power of our most

edecessor. After the attacks of Septem-
era, forced to confront an enemy that
abide by legal rules. Faced with this
ernment "made a series of hasty deci-
ving our power and our principles, too
luxuries that we could no longer afford."
terated his commitment to ending tor-
to ban "enhanced interrogation tech-
ords, denouncing those methods and
necessary to keep America safe. Obama
Guantánamo, charging that the prison
nd undermined its security by serving
dition, he rejected claims of unilateral
at an effective national security policy
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that key components of the United
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he would reform the commissions, he
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ion, Obama indicated that he would
etainees indefinitely, thus perpetuating
als who could be held, potentially for
crime.¹¹

Administration

Obama followed a similar approach embracing the language of change with policies of his predecessor. For example, transparency in government when he released memos from the Bush administration to legalize torture and other detainee practices previously classified August 1, 2002, to release photographs depicting the abuse, arguing that the photographs would be in the public interest. Instead, Obama sought (and subsequently won) a Supreme Court decision mandating the release of the photographs under the Freedom of Information Act.¹²

Obama also said that he intended to change the policy that the United States had previously used of not seeking damages for torture and illegal detention. He did announce changes designed to curb such practices, including imposing a higher standard for the use of force and opening internal Justice Department review to challenge and clarify the government's position in seeking damages for CIA's extraordinary rendition program.

In November 2009, Attorney General Eric Holder announced that the United States would bring criminal charges against Mohammed (KSM) and four other Guantanamo detainees for the 9/11 attacks.¹⁴ The decision to prosecute in federal court rather than in military commissions was a departure from previous policy. After years of torture and imprisonment, they would finally be tried in accordance with the rule of law. Holder said the trial would take place at the Pentagon, as close to where the 9/11 attacks on the World Trade Center as possible, giving the trial's symbolic importance. The decision was significant that even the most dangerous criminals would be tried in regular courts.

Holder, however, also stated that some detainees would be tried in military commissions. Congress has been improving the commissions, strengthening the rules, providing more resources to defense counsel, and ensuring that detainees are not treated through mistreatment.¹⁵ Notwithstanding these improvements, commissions still failed to meet the standards of the Uniformed Services for the Courts-martial. The commissions, for

ch on other national security issues, without deviating significantly from the people, he proclaimed the importance of the released redacted versions of four the President's Office of Legal Counsel that sought the mistreatment, including the second, torture memo. But Obama also refused to allow the abuse of prisoners by U.S. personnel, to endanger American service members. (The administration eventually obtained) reversal of an appeals court ruling that barred the release of the photos under the Freedom of Information Act.

Obama also sought to reform the “state secrets” privilege that had been used to shut down litigation by victims of military detention. And the administration sought to curb abuse of the state secrets privilege, but refused to invoke the privilege and strengthen it. ¹³ But Obama also refused to modify the law to dismiss lawsuits challenging the detention and gross mistreatment of detainees. Attorney General Eric H. Holder Jr. announced criminal charges against Khaled Sheikh Mohammed and other Guantánamo detainees for their role in the 9/11 attacks. The prosecutions of the suspected 9/11 plotters in federal court marked a sharp break with the previous administration's policy of indefinite and illegal detention, the prisoners' rights, and the Constitution. Moreover, Holder announced that the federal courthouse in New York City, where the 9/11 World Trade Center occurred, increased the number of federal prosecutors. The prosecution would send the message that all crimes could be brought to justice in the federal courts.

Some Guantánamo detainees would still be held in custody. Congress had recently enacted legislation strengthening evidentiary standards, promising to restrict the use of evidence gained from detainees. Despite these latest reforms, the commission's report of either the federal courts or military commissions, for example, contained fewer protections for detainees.

against the use of hearsay, which could be obtained through coercion, and were more precise than they had. They continued to be used in federal court for criminal offenses as material support for terrorism, but they lacked the legitimacy of the federal courts. The federal record of trying complex terrorism cases was still applied only to foreign nationals, which was not under law and reinforcing the perception of being targeted against noncitizens.

In addition, the Obama administration continued to hold some detainees without trial by using military detention power that treated them as enemy combatants against al Qaeda and those associated with it. It did not explain why one detainee might receive a trial and another no trial at all. Instead, the administration's policy, stated by Obama's executive order listed several reasons for this calculation, including "protection of information" and possible "legal or evidentiary problems." The reasons were based on expediency rather than law. This meant that when the government believed a detainee should be charged in federal court; when the government had sufficient evidence, it resorted to the more restrictive military detention and when the government's case was weak, it simply held the prisoners together and simply held the prisoners. This was a departure from unknown to American law: that the government could hold someone too dangerous to release. In short, while the administration had a preference for trying suspected terrorists in federal court, that—a preference, not a requirement. The use of military commissions and indefinite detention without trial in Guantánamo remained available whenever the government had a person in its custody the full protection of the law.

One thing, however, had changed: detainees were no longer deprived of habeas corpus. The government was taking away the right to habeas corpus because the Supreme Court ruled in *Hamdi* that the right to habeas corpus by the Constitution. Following the Court's decision, federal judges in Washington, D.C., were now required to hold habeas corpus hearings in individual Guantánamo detainees to determine whether the detentions were lawful. By

could be used to launder evidence gained in violation of the Geneva Convention to secrecy. The commissions also suffered from the error of treating as war crimes such offenses as terrorism and conspiracy. They also suffered from a lack of legal expertise and track records, as well as their expertise and track records. Furthermore, the commissions violated principles of equal protection and due process by indicating that the United States discrimination indicated that it would continue to do so by endorsing the same claim of sweepingly defined battlefield in a war fought with it. The administration also did not provide a full criminal trial and another report of the President's Detention Policy Task Force created a number of factors that went into the "intelligence sources and methods" and "intelligence sources." This raised the concern that decisions were made more on practicality than principle. As a practical matter, it was feared that if it could easily convict, it brought into question whether the government had some doubts about its relaxed rules of military commissions; if, at the weakest, it dispensed with a trial altogether indefinitely under a theory previously used for prisoners who were too difficult to try but who were not considered to be terrorists. While the Obama administration adopted habeas corpus in federal court, it remained only a legal fiction. The twin system of military commissions and habeas corpus that had developed at Guantanamo Bay, Cuba, in the United States did not want to afford the same protection of its laws.

Those detained at Guantánamo were at Guantanamo Bay, Cuba. Nor could Congress pass a statute that would allow habeas corpus, as it had tried to do twice before, in *Boumediene* that this right was protected by the Supreme Court's decision in *Boumediene*, district court was obligated to conduct prompt habeas corpus hearings in Guantanamo detainee cases and to examine the evidence. By the fall of 2008, these hearings had

started to move forward, and dozens took office. The results underscored what habeas corpus has been for so long: in most cases, it sits in court.

District judges generally accepted that some individuals at Guantánamo could be “combatants” under the 2001 Authorization for Use of Military Force (AUMF), even if they did not take up arms on a battlefield. The Supreme Court had upheld that standard, but some judges did, however, insist on a stronger connection with the Taliban, al Qaeda, or “associated forces.” A higher standard was required. Judge Reggie B. Walton, in a dissenting opinion, took the position that “substantial support” for al Qaeda or the Taliban was a basis for detention under the AUMF, not just membership or participation in actions taken within that organization. Judge John D. Bates, however, rejected the government’s position that “substantial support” of al Qaeda or an associated terrorist organization was a basis for detention, finding that an individual must be a member of the organization or to have committed a belligerent act. That determination was rejected by the majority. The government’s claim that support alone could be a basis for detention was rejected. The government’s appeals also suggested that courts could not interpret the AUMF, which contradicted the Supreme Court’s decision in *Hamdi* and well-settled rules of habeas corpus.

But the district judges also found in a number of cases that the government had failed to provide credible evidence of support; that is, that the government had failed to show that the prisoner fell within the definition of a combatant, however defined. By the one-year anniversary of the start of the habeas program, federal judges had ruled in twenty-six of the cases. In a number of cases they decided that there was no basis for detention. In a number of cases that number was thirty-two out of the thirty-three cases. In a number of cases the government had failed to justify the detention. In a number of cases of the time. The judges, moreover, were generally not hostile to, the government’s claim that the detainees were combatants.

The first habeas hearings were held in the same judge who four years earlier had ruled against the government’s position on the ground that the Guantánamo detainees could not be held through habeas corpus. The first case

s were underway by the time Obama
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r the Taliban or al Qaeda provided a
but he tethered "substantial support"
tion's "command structure."¹⁷ Another
ernment's claim that "substantial sup-
orist organization alone justified mili-
tial had to be "part of" that organiza-
t act to be detained under the AUMF.¹⁸
e court of appeals in a ruling that said
ention under the AUMF. The court of
uld not consider international law in
dicted both the Supreme Court's deci-
f statutory interpretation.¹⁹

a staggering percentage of cases that the
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legal category of "enemy combatant,"
ersary of *Boumediene* in June 2009, fed-
e thirty-one Guantánamo habeas cases
o hold the prisoners; by January 2010,
forty-one cases decided, meaning that
e prisoner's detention almost 80 percent
e often sharply critical of, if not openly
he evidence supported detention.

d before district judge Richard J. Leon,
had summarily dismissed several peti-
amo detainees had no rights to enforce
that Leon considered involved the six

Algerian prisoners who had been before Judge Leon conducted a weeklong hearing but was not permitted to participate by telephone. The hearing, that did not involve classified information, was held even from the detainees' lawyers' presence, withstanding, for the first time in military history, was forced to present evidence before Judge Leon. In an actual hearing, the government's case against the prisoners had even started, the government's case against the men had been planned to be held at the embassy in Sarajevo.²⁰ By the hearing's end, the government had failed to present any evidence against five of the six prisoners: the government's case against the sixth, an Afghan national, was that he had traveled to Afghanistan to fight against U.S. and allied forces. The government relied exclusively on information from an unnamed source without providing any evidence to evaluate the credibility and reliability of the source.

"To allow enemy combatancy to remain in his public ruling, Judge Leon would be inconsistent with the purpose of the habeas corpus to protect [the prisoners'] from the risk of indefinite detention. Judge Leon upheld the continued detention of the prisoners on the grounds that they were members of al Qaeda in Afghanistan (a ruling later overturned). Judge Leon ruled that the other five detainees be released. The government took the unusual step of imploring the government to grant a stay of execution, warning that "seven years of waiting for an answer to a question so important to the government did not appeal, and all five requests for habeas corpus granted by Judge Leon were eventually granted."

Another habeas decision by a different judge involved a citizen accused of traveling to Afghanistan to join a militant camp, and engaging in hostilities against U.S. forces. The broad-brush allegations routinely leveled against detainees. The detainee, Ali Ahmed, admitted that he had traveled to Afghanistan in the wake of the 9/11 attacks to attend a religious school. He admitted that he had attended a terrorist training camp, but denied that he had joined a terrorist group, or taken up arms against the United States. He acknowledged that he was staying at a location in Afghanistan that the government said was frequented by militants. He denied any connection to terrorism.

before the Supreme Court in *Boumediene*. Behind closed doors, with the detainees only in those portions of the hearing that were necessary for the government's presentation. Some of the evidence was hidden from the public. But this extraordinary secrecy notwithstanding, more than seven years, the government had not produced a judge. Faced with the prospect of a habeas corpus case no longer seemed so strong. Before the government dropped its most serious allegations, including a bomb attack on the American Embassy in London, Judge Leon found that the government had provided credible proof of its remaining allegations. He concluded that the men had planned to travel to Afghanistan to join allied forces there. The government had not provided sufficient information to adequately rebut the government's information.

"The government's case is as thin as a reed," Leon announced. "It is inconsistent with the Court's obligation . . . to protect against erroneous detention."²¹ Although he found the sixth prisoner for providing support to al Qaeda (later reversed on appeal), Leon ordered habeas corpus as soon as possible. In addition, Leon ordered the government not to appeal his decision. "It is a disservice to our legal system to give them a second chance . . . is more than plenty."²² The government's decision to repatriate the men whose habeas petitions had been denied.

A subsequent district judge involved a Yemeni national, training at an al Qaeda or Taliban camp in Pakistan against the United States—the type of training that led at many Guantánamo prisoners.²³ The defendant claimed that he had gone to Pakistan before the September 11 attacks to study the Qur'an and denied that he had been in a training camp, become a member of a terrorist organization, or the U.S. or its allies. While Ali Ahmed was in a guesthouse when he was arrested (one of the guesthouses owned by al Qaeda and Taliban fighters), he

The government relied on its “mosaic theory” of evidence. As the government said, its allegations must be taken together to determine whether the evidence supports the conclusion that the detainee should continue to be held. The government’s approach required the fact-finder to draw inferences from a myriad of allegations, connecting the dots. The government used for analysis in the intelligence community. The government imported wholesale into the detention of the detainee the indefinite imprisonment. The district court rejected the government’s requested inferences. The court held that the allegations be supported by reliable and

Even using the Government’s theory, the court acknowledged that the mosaic theory is flawed. The bricks which compose it and the glue which holds it together. The wall is only as strong as the individual bricks and the cement that keeps the bricks in place.

“Therefore,” Judge Kessler emphasized, “the mosaic theory is inherently flawed or do not fit together. The wall will just as the brick wall will collapse.”²⁵ Ali Ahmed

As Judge Kessler explained, the government’s theory that Ali Ahmed had fought against the United States. The government’s evidence, derived principally from the testimony of former or current Guantánamo detainees, was based on equivocation and speculation.²⁶ The judge found the government’s evidence was unreliable because it was based on the testimony of a detainee who was held at the Dark Prison in Afghanistan who was denied food and water, kept in total darkness for weeks at a time, and subjected to other mistreatment. The judge noted that Ali Ahmed had stayed briefly at the Dark Prison and Taliban members stayed during the same period. The government’s theory of guilt-by-association was “no solid evidence” that Ali Ahmed had fought against the United States or its allies. Judge Kessler found that an Arab man seeking to flee the violence and chaos of the Middle East can plausibly seek the company of or stay with a woman of the same religion, and culture, and she refused to be alone. The government’s conduct alone constituted evidence of torture.

osaic” theory. According to this theory, must be examined together, not in isolation as a whole supported the conclusion be held under the AUMF. The mosaic draw inferences from the government’s pots without hard evidence. Previously community, the mosaic approach was in context after 9/11 and used to justify judge, Gladys Kessler, refused to draw and instead demanded that each of its d credible evidence.

etical model of a mosaic, it must be ry is only as persuasive as the tiles a binds them together—just as a brick ual bricks which support it and the

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d, “if the individual pieces of a mosaic ither, then the mosaic will split apart, nd collapse it did.

overnment had failed to prove that Ali States or supported terrorism. The gov- y from the hearsay statements of other ees, was generic and “riddled . . . with dge further noted that some of the evi- btained from detainees at Bagram and had been chained to walls, deprived of with loud music or other sounds blaring er torture and abuse.²⁷ Kessler acknowl- y at a guesthouse where alleged al Qaeda he same time period. But she rejected ssociation and determined that there d engaged in or planned any hostilities dge Kessler also observed that a young and chaos of a war-torn country might with individuals who shared a language, o make the extraordinary leap that this terrorism or other violent activities.²⁸

In another case, Judge Leon ridiculed continued detention.²⁹ Abdulrahim Al-Janko, who had been taken into custody by U.S. forces in January 2002 and brought to Guantanamo, had traveled to Afghanistan to participate in al Qaeda operations and stayed for several days at a guesthouse in Kandahar, where he and other detainees and operatives in early 2000, where he had then briefly attended an al Qaeda training camp. It was claimed that Janko had been tortured by al Qaeda, that he was a U.S. spy and afterward had been imprisoned for eighteen months at the notorious Sarposa prison, where detainees were routinely abused and often died. The government maintained that Janko still remained part of al Qaeda. Janko was taken into custody after U.S. forces raided the prison, where Janko had been held with other Northern Alliance prisoners.³⁰ The government's position "defies common sense." "Five days at Sarposa and eighteen days at a training camp does not constitute brotherhood."³¹ Furthermore, any moderate Taliban that Janko may once have had, would have been subject to frequent torture and abuse by those groups.

The case of Afghan prisoner Mohammad Jawad is another example of ongoing judicial frustration over the government's handling of detentions. Jawad had been a young man who was captured in Afghanistan by the United States for allegedly driving a military vehicle, injuring two U.S. Special Forces soldiers and an interpreter. The government had tried to release him in a mission under the flawed theory that he was a Taliban operative, but it failed miserably. Although its case was weak, the government refused to release Jawad and argued that he was an "enemy combatant" even if it chose to release him. When mission proceedings stalled, Jawad sought habeas corpus in federal court. In seeking dismissal of the government's case, the judge had to rely on coerced evidence, including statements that the judge had already thrown out as the product of torture. The judge refused to suppress his prior statements to indicate that they were obtained through torture. Jawad's case is still pending in the United States: following his arrest

uled the government's arguments for Abdul Razak Janko was a Syrian citizen U.S. forces in Kandahar, Afghanistan, atánamo. The government argued that participate in jihad on behalf of the Taliban; used by Taliban and al Qaeda fighters he helped to clean some weapons; and ning camp. The government conceded eda into falsely confessing that he was risoned by the Taliban for more than usa Prison in Kandahar where detain- ed. Nonetheless, the government main- of the Taliban and al Qaeda when he es learned from a reporter of his pres- en left behind with thousands of other vernment's position, Judge Leon said, a guesthouse in Kabul combined with not add up to a long-standing bond of licum of sympathy for al Qaeda or the Leon noted, was vitiated by his subse- ps.³²

ammed Jawad highlighted the mount- nment's handling of the Guantánamo g teenager when he was taken from llededly throwing a hand grenade at a ecial Forces soldiers and their Afghan to prosecute Jawad in a military com- t he had committed a war crime and in shambles even in the military com- d heavily in its favor, the government at he could be detained indefinitely as e to forgo prosecution. With the com- ought relief through habeas corpus in he petition, the government continued g a false "confession" that the military product of torture. Jawad again moved nterrogators on the ground that they s motion detailed his mistreatment by t in Kabul, during his forty-nine days

at Bagram where he was beaten and Guantánamo where he was subjected to extreme other cruel treatment that drove him mad. In its response to the motion was due, the court, on Jawad's statements, effectively concluded he was mistreated. The Court in turn suppressed the evidence of torture. Yet the government still continued to prompt a scathing rebuke from the court. "The case has been gutted," Huvelle told the court, "to put too fine a point on it."³³ When the court delayed, Huvelle refused and scheduled a hearing, emphasizing how long Jawad had been in custody. "This case is riddled with holes," she said. "Before the hearing, the government filed a motion that was illegal. Judge Huvelle granted the motion, and he frequently returned home to Afghanistan."

Another judge, Colleen Kollar-Kotelly, criticized the government's evidence. In her opinion, it relied almost exclusively on "confessions" that al-Rabiah, had provided to U.S. interrogators. She noted that al-Rabiah had traveled to Afghanistan frequently and had met with Osama bin Laden four times at Kandahar (the site of a bin Laden complex) and other members in Afghanistan.³⁶ But Kollar-Kotelly found the confessions unsubstantiated; she also noted that the government to defend al-Rabiah's detention based on the government's own interrogators did not "attempt to credit confessions," Kollar-Kotelly concluded, "and could not even defend as believable."³⁷ Those who were taken through highly coercive methods, including threats to never return to Kuwait if he did not accept the deal, that "no one leaves Guantánamo innocent."

These and other cases demonstrated the lack of due process. Prisoners had been imprisoned at Guantánamo without the government's allegations that they were combatants or the worst." Until *Boumediene*, however, no one had a fair hearing, let alone been charged with a crime. The government had instead waged a relentless campaign to deny access to a lawyer and a judge, all the

threatened with death, and at Guantanamo isolation, sleep deprivation, and to attempt suicide. The day on which the government abandoned its reliance conceding that Jawad had been grossly misled the statements as the product of continued to argue for Jawad's detention, the district judge, Ellen S. Huvelle. "Your government's attorneys. "I don't need the government sought an additional a prompt hearing to decide the case, imprisoned already. "Seven years and d. "This case is an outrage."³⁴ Just days nally conceded that Jawad's detention habeas petition, and Jawad was subse-

a.³⁵ elly, issued a similarly blistering indictment that case, the government had relied that the prisoner, Fouad Mamoud al-ators. The government alleged that al-rom his home in Kuwait in 2001 and times, fought in the Tora Bora moun-), and had personal links to al Qaeda r-Kotelly not only found those allega- that the Justice Department had sought d on unreliable confessions that even id not accept. "The Court is unwilling explained, "that the Government can- e confessions, she noted, were wrung luding warnings that al-Rabiah could dmit to involvement in terrorism and cent."³⁸

ed the importance of habeas corpus. antánamo for years based on the gov- dangerous terrorists: "the worst of the ne had received anything approaching and tried in a court of law. The U.S. ntless campaign to deny the detainees while subjecting them to harsh inter-

rogations, prolonged isolation, and other given hearings, and judges had a chance to see clear that in many cases the government had put out any credible or reliable evidence.

The district court habeas decision was based on misrepresentations on which Guantánamo prisoners suffered from a shortcoming that threatened their effect. Release from imprisonment has been the case in many cases.³⁹ However, at Guantánamo, habeas typically did not end with an order mandating release. They concluded with language directing the government to take appropriate diplomatic steps to facilitate the release. This language represented a perceived limit on the government's power to order the release of a prisoner who was not a citizen but who could not be returned to his home country because of the risk of torture or other persecution. The government had yet been found where he could be returned.

In 2007, the United States was still holding prisoners at Guantánamo who, it conceded, were “no longer cleared for release.”⁴¹ The continued detention of those who have been released persisted even after the government's decision the following year, as some habeas decisions had been invalidated by courts in the United States. Behind bars because the government had not been able to return them to their home country or repatriate them to a third country, the detainees now had a right to a habeas corpus hearing. Whether the court could provide an effective remedy for such detention was illegal. Lakhdar Boumediene's landmark decision bearing his name held that habeas was available more than six months after Judge Leon ruled that the government's detention of him was illegal. He was finally resettled in France.⁴² Other detainees, under pressure to end such illegal imprisonment, were the cases of seventeen Uighurs, members of the Hanzi group in western China who had fled their homes.

In 2002, the Uighurs were seized by Chinese soldiers, sold to U.S. forces, and brought to the United States. The United States eventually admitted that the Uighurs were prisoners, it was unable to resettle them in a third country to anger China by accepting them and

her abuse. Once detainees finally were
ce to take a look at the facts, it became
nt had been imprisoning people with-

as helped expose the falsehoods and
namo had been built. But they also
reatened to deprive them of practical
s long been the remedy in habeas cor-
decisions finding the detentions illegal
ndating the prisoner's release. Instead,
g the government "to take all necessary
acilitate the [detainee's] release."⁴⁰ This
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as unlawfully detained at Guantánamo
home country (often because he faced
n there), and for whom no other coun-
l be safely resettled.

detaining eight-two people at Guan-
onger enemy combatants" or had been
detention of individuals who should
fter the Supreme Court's *Boumediene*
Guantánamo prisoners whose deten-
a habeas corpus proceedings remained
ad been unable to return them to their
hird country. In other words, although
court hearing, it remained uncertain
fective remedy when it found that their
diene, the lead petitioner in the Court's
, remained at Guantánamo for more
d that his detention was unlawful, until
thers remained in limbo much longer.
ments reached a boiling point in the
of a persecuted Muslim minority from
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by the Northern Alliance and bounty
ought to Guantánamo. Although the
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em, partly because no country wanted
d partly because the United States had

administration

branded them dangerous terrorists. When challenged in court, the Bush administration claimed they were “enemy combatants.” It claimed that the East Turkestan Islamic Movement was “affiliated” with al Qaeda, thus bringing to bear a particular interpretation of the AUMF. An appeals court found a lack of proof and suggested that the United States treat the ETIM a terrorist association based on information from the Internet.⁴³ The court held that the government’s detention of the prisoners was unlawful. Following the Supreme Court’s decision, Uighurs sought their release through habeas corpus.

In October 2008, district judge Ricardo Urbina ruled directing that the men be brought to the United States to be ordered by the court. By then, the prisoners had been in detention more than six years, and the government had failed to provide any credible or reliable evidence that they posed a security risk or were allies. Indefinite detention of the innocent is “incompatible with our system of government,” Urbina said, “and keeping with our system of government after a court had found there is no basis for their detention.” He granted habeas corpus and ordered the government to release the prisoners only gut habeas corpus and undermined the government’s authority. *mediene*, Urbina said, but would also be a violation of the Constitution’s

The Bush administration blocked the court’s order, arguing that no court could order the prisoners released, no matter how long the resettlement process took. The Court of Appeals reversed the district court’s decision, finding in *Kiyemba v. Bush* that the government could order the release of Guantánamo prisoners if they were found not to be a danger, and had been deemed eligible for resettlement by the U.S. government.⁴⁵ The appeals court affirmed the government’s power to control immigration, but found that those seeking admission to the United States were asking only for temporary protection in another country could be found for them. The court found that the only effective remedy for their incarceration was to get them off the table, *Kiyemba* threatened to get the government’s power for prisoners at Guantánamo who could not be resettled and whom the United States was unable to

When the Uighur detentions were first announced, the administration clung to the theory that they were necessary because that the Uighurs were connected with a terrorist group (ETIM), which it said was “associated with” them within the government’s elastic definition of terrorism. The appellate court ridiculed the government’s theory. The United States had originally designated ETIM as a terrorist group on Chinese propaganda posted on the Internet. There was no lawful basis for the prisoners’ detention. The Court’s decision in *Boumediene*, the landmark habeas corpus case.

Judge Ricardo M. Urbina granted their request, ordering their return to the United States and freed under terms that the Uighurs had been imprisoned for. The government still had failed to present any credible evidence that they posed a threat to the United States or its interests. In dissent, Judge Urbina ruled, “is not in doubt.”⁴⁴ The Uighurs’ continued imprisonment was no basis to hold them would not be released. The Supreme Court’s decision in *Boumediene* would not allow the executive to nullify the judicial branch’s separation of powers.

The Uighurs won their order by filing an emergency appeal, resulting in their prisoners’ release into the United States, a process that took time. A panel of the D.C. Circuit Court of Appeals overturned the court’s order in a divided, two-to-one decision. The court held that federal courts were powerless to order the release of prisoners into the United States, even when they were not to be “enemy combatants,” presented no credible evidence for release to another country by the executive branch. The court relied principally on the federal government’s argument, even though the Uighurs were not enemy combatants or legal status under U.S. immigration law. Temporary release from imprisonment until they could be repatriated. Given the circumstances, this was indefinite detention. By taking that remedy, the court failed to render habeas corpus a dead letter. The Uighurs would not be returned to their home nation if they were unable or unwilling to repatriate to a third

country. Taken to its logical conclusion, it would end the unlawful imprisonment of a detainee's objection or as long as the executive makes diplomatic efforts to secure the detainee's release, that process took. Prisoners at Guantánamo fought the battle by proving that their detention was unlawful. The judge said that he or she was powerless to do anything.

In April 2009, the Uighurs appealed the decision in *Kiyemba* to the Supreme Court. In its decision, the Obama administration adhered to the principle that the federal courts lacked the power to order the release and deportation of detainees. At the same time, the new administration stepped in to repatriate the prisoners and to avoid another habeas case by rendering the Uighurs' challenge moot. Some went to Bermuda; six went to Palau.⁴⁶ But the administration refused to repatriate all the petitioners in *Kiyemba*. The temporary release in the United States was a response to right-wing propaganda about the danger that the Uighurs could pose to America's security. The administration's measures to appropriate appropriations legislation that would allow the transfer of Guantánamo detainees to other countries from bringing Guantánamo detainees to court was other than trial.⁴⁷ Amid the cloud of habeas cases, the judges to provide actual habeas relief, the Supreme Court in *Kiyemba* in October 2009. But in March 2010, the Court dismissed the Uighurs' appeal. The Court provided new evidence that all of the remaining detainees had offers of repatriation and that some had been offered D.C. Circuit's decision and remanded the case to the D.C. Circuit to consider the implications of these new facts. In March of the year before, the Supreme Court did not review the case in *Kiyemba*, that meant the Court left unreviewed the federal courts to provide meaningful relief. The Court said they had jurisdiction.

In addition to opposing the release of the detainees from the United States, the Obama administration refused to review the transfer of Guantánamo detainees to other countries.

n, the ruling meant that no court could
Guantánamo detainee over the execu-
ive represented that it was engaging in
nee's repatriation, no matter how long
ánamo could thus continue to win the
was illegal, only to lose the war when
rless to order their freedom.

aled the D.C. Circuit's decision in
brief opposing Supreme Court review,
to the Bush administration's position
er to remedy the Uighurs' illegal deten-
ended the lower court's decision. At the
pped up diplomatic efforts to repatri-
er legal showdown over habeas rights
hoot. Four Uighur prisoners were sent
the Obama administration was unable
remba, and it refused to support their
tes. Congress, meanwhile, goaded by
ngers the temporary release of a few
ity, sought to limit the president's abil-
s to the United States. It added mea-
at imposed conditions on the transfer
untries and prohibited the government
s to the United States for any purpose
legal uncertainty over the authority of
the Supreme Court granted review in
ch, 2010, one month before oral argu-
rs' petition after the government pro-
naining Uighur detainees had received
d refused them. The Court vacated the
the case to the appeals court to con-
acts.⁴⁸ Thus, as in the al-Marri case the
ot rule on the critical issue before it. In
answered the question of the power of
relief in habeas corpus cases over which

se of any Guantánamo detainee into
stration maintained that courts could
no detainees to another country, even

administration

ment is using and no judicial examination even though some prisoners at Bagram and at Guantánamo. At the same time, the lack of the legal authority to bring detainees back to the United States, while adhering to the prior administration's policies, has prevented suspected terrorists anywhere in the world from being charged or access to a court by transiting through America's borders.⁵⁴

In addition to shaping future detention policies, the report will grapple with the past. The evidence is mounting that the tortured and mistreated prisoners in the past were abuses emanated from policies and directives of the U.S. government. One question is whether the evidence will be made public. Another is whether the individuals involved will be investigated and held accountable.

In August 2009, the Obama administration released a declassified 2004 report by the CIA's Office of Inspector General. The Bush administration's interrogation practices and the release of other formerly secret documents regarding CIA and interrogation practices—was forced into public domain by a lawsuit by the American Civil Liberties Union. The report focused on the treatment of detainees in the United States during 2002 and 2003. The report provided chilling new details about the CIA's interrogation program. It called the CIA's interrogation program "unlawful" and found that it had led to the use of "unauthorized and undocumented" techniques.⁵⁶ The report also described mock executions to convince detainees to cooperate, such as to punish a detainee's family by killing a family member's neck at his carotid artery until he bled to death. For example, how interrogators put a handkerchief over the neck of Abd al-Rahim al-Nashiri, and, to terrify him, they threatened while he stood naked and hooded.⁵⁸

The OIG report provided additional details about the techniques were not only legally suspect but also criminal. This fact was not lost on the CIA. The CIA warned that agency officers might one day be held accountable or appear before the World Court for war crimes.

tion of the factual basis for detention, men have been held for as long as those in the Obama administration still asserts to Bagram from other countries, thus in view that the executive may seize suspects and hold them indefinitely without transporting them to a U.S. enclave outside

in policy, the new administration must be so overwhelming that the United States can justify its custody after 9/11 and that these practices approved at the highest levels. The question is whether all evidence of these abuses and whether those responsible will be investi-

The administration released a partially declassified report of Inspector General (OIG) into the CIA's interrogation practices.⁵⁵ The report's release—like the documents describing post-9/11 detention practices—was prompted by a Freedom of Information Act request from Human Rights Watch and other groups. The OIG report detailed the CIA's use of secret prisons outside the United States. Although heavily redacted, the report described the Bush administration's torture regime. The report described an ad hoc and poorly supervised and unauthorized, improvised, inhumane, and brutal interrogation program that described interrogators' staging scenarios that they could be killed, threatening to kill his children, and squeezing a detainee until he began to pass out.⁵⁷ It also detailed, for example, the CIA's use of a handgun to the head of one CIA prisoner, and to further torture him, revved a power drill

The report provides some evidence that CIA interrogation practices were not as systematic as they appear to be, but, in some instances, patently so. Some of those involved at the time. One official described the CIA's day wind up on a "wanted list" to identify those responsible for crimes for methods used in secret

CIA jails.⁵⁹ Concern about the legality shroud its entire detention operation and seek approval from Justice Department to help avoid criminal liability—a step officials had already engaged in tactically at the time.⁶⁰

The day the OIG report was released, announced that the Justice Department's investigation into the treatment of prisoners in Afghanistan represented a first step toward accountability. President Obama's stated desire to look at this dark chapter of American history was limited, focusing on a very small number of named individuals. He announced that the Justice Department would investigate those who acted in good faith or within the bounds of law. He expressed concerns about the investigation's scope, suggesting that it would not include interrogators who exceeded Justice Department guidelines, the architects of the techniques themselves, senior administration officials who had authorized the program, and lawyers who had facilitated it. Thus, the investigation would not address the United States' torture and mistreatment of prisoners in Afghanistan. At worst, Holder's investigation could be seen as the result of a few low-level agents and perpetuating the result of a handful of bad apples. It was a limited policy created by high-level officials. Some might argue it was worse than no investigation at all, creating a false sense of security had come to grips with its descent into darkness.

President Obama, to be sure, had inherited a government that had engaged in government acts outside the law for eight years. He faced complex legal implications and practical problems that he had to navigate an increasingly treacherous path. He had to navigate the demands of members of the opposing party continually questioning his commitment to national security, often by distorting the facts. He had to navigate his own party resisting his efforts to bring terrorism suspects to trial in the United States. He had to navigate the resistance from some senior military and intelligence officials to maintain the status quo. These pressures on the new administration were willing to risk the continuation of the practices of its predecessor.

of these methods drove the CIA to
in secrecy. It also caused the agency to
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ceased, Attorney General Eric Holder
nt had opened a preliminary investiga-
n U.S. custody abroad.⁶¹ The investiga-
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k forward, not backward, and to leave
r in the past. But the investigation was
nber of cases.⁶² Holder, moreover, sig-
uld not prosecute those who had acted
legal guidance. This raised serious con-
suggesting that it would focus only on
epartment guidelines and not on the
s, including those high-ranking admin-
d torture and the Justice Department
those most responsible for the United
isoners would continue to evade scru-
ould result in a whitewash, targeting a
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uch a facade of accountability could be
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nherited a colossal mess. When a gov-
t years, it creates a host of legal com-
are difficult to overcome. Obama also
cherous political terrain, with mem-
y trying to make him appear weak on
the facts, and with some members of
close Guantánamo and bring terror-
tes. In addition, Obama faced internal
and intelligence officials determined to
es helped limit the extent to which the
k political capital by breaking from the

By the end of Obama's first year in Guantánamo. In the face of mounting attacks in federal court and return the indefinite detention of terrorism suspects re Obama had banned torture, the loopholes, such as those created by 2006 *Manual*, had not yet been closed.⁶⁴ If back, it still had a long way to go.

It would be a mistake, however, through the lens of individual presidential United States' continuation of center indefinite detention and military comm or "bad" choices of its leaders. Ultimately radical changes in law and policy can as mainstream. It is about how political inevitably gravitate toward tough-s even if the evidence shows that those ful, and even harmful to the country's unleashes impulses to find new ways without restriction, and avoid accountability. President Obama ordered the closure about the continued use of secret jails prisons like Bagram: new microspaces

The response to the Christmas Day 2001 just how much public perception and Nigerian Umar Farouk Abdulmutallab in his underwear while aboard a North he was arrested and charged with attempting mass destruction. Politicians and punishment for prosecuting Abdulmutallab tary commission, even though federal convictions in terrorism-related cases obtained only three, all of which were that the criminal justice system could not was behind bars under maximum security (to obtain conviction), critics pressed the execution would undermine the government because it prevented the use of harsh in

office, he had not only failed to close public pressure, Obama also indicated KSM and the other plotters of the 9/11 to a military commission.⁶³ Indefinite remained U.S. policy. And even though loopholes for abusive interrogation techniques amendments to the *U.S. Army Field* the pendulum was starting to swing

to view these developments simply presidents and their administrations. The pieces of the “war on terror,” such as commissions, is about more than the “good” tely, it is about how far-reaching, even become institutionalized and accepted al leaders, commentators, and the pub-ounding responses to security threats se responses are unnecessary, unlaw- safety. And it is about how terrorism to detain beyond the law, interrogate ntability. Thus, for example, even as of secret CIA prisons, reports emerged s within existing Defense Department for lawless government action.⁶⁵

009 attempted airplane bombing shows discourse have shifted since 9/11. After failed to detonate an explosive hidden nwest Airlines flight bound for Detroit, mpted murder and use of a weapon of lits then attacked the Obama adminis- in federal court rather than in a mili- prosecutors had obtained four hundred ince 9/11 and military commissions had mired in controversy.⁶⁶ Unable to claim ot incapacitate the failed bomber (who urity conditions and facing almost cer- ally spurious claim that a criminal pros- ment’s ability to gain useful intelligence terrogation methods and required that

administration

the defendant be afforded a lawyer. Irony of fate: the military commission for Richard Reid when he was charged with plotting to detonate a shoe bomb on an airplane. President Bush for prosecuting Reid in a military court proposed denying Reid access to a lawyer. Five years later, however, military commissions and their interrogations had become mainstream. The tension between the military commission and the Constitution had become a political issue that carried the political risk of being passed up.

The failed car bombing in New York City on May 27, 2004, similarly illustrates how the creation of a terrorism statute paves the way for overreaction and erosion of constitutional rights and values. The suspect, Umar Farouk Abdulmutallab, was arrested at John F. Kennedy International Airport and charged with plotting to flee the country and was charged with destruction and other crimes. Although he was interrogated with law enforcement officials, the Department of Justice decided to prosecute him in the civilian courts. The rights guaranteed by the Constitution were not given him *Miranda* warning before his interrogation. I would have instead declared the case a federal crime. Former New York City mayor and federal judge John E. Fuores. Two senators, Joe Lieberman (I-CT) and Chris Dodd (D-CT), introduced a bill, widely denounced as both senseless and unconstitutional, to empower the government to revoke the citizenship of anyone who joined a foreign terrorist group, with or without evidence of a crime.⁶⁷ The administration, bowing to public pressure, announced that it would seek legislative authority for a “national safety” exception to give the government the power to prosecute in terrorism cases without informing the defendant.

The dark cloud cast by U.S. detention of terrorism suspects without a silver lining from the standpoint of constitutional values. The Bush administration’s decision to create the detention center was based on its belief that the executive branch corpus and other legal protections as they apply to the United States. Guantánamo, as we have seen, was an idea, the product of a new system of terrorism. Guantánamo, in turn, gave rise to landmark cases. The proposition that the executive could

ically, no one had considered a military
e was arrested in Boston after attempt-
lane only months after 9/11 or criticized
n federal court. Nor had anyone pro-
r to interrogate him aggressively. Eight
ions, indefinite detention, and coercive
n, while criminal prosecutions in accor-
me merely an option—one, moreover,
ainted as weak on terrorism.

ork City's Times Square the following
tion of a "new normal" for addressing
on and for a continuing erosion of con-
ect, an American citizen named Faisal
edy International Airport as he tried
ith conspiring to use weapons of mass
gh Shahzad quickly began to cooper-
he Obama administration was criti-
ian justice system and providing him
tion to criminal defendants. "I would
s after just a couple of hours of ques-
him an enemy combatant," remarked
federal prosecutor Rudolph Giuliani.
and Scott Brown (R-MA), introduced
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e citizenship of anyone who supported
hout their even having been convicted
ing to political pressure, subsequently
ation expanding the *Miranda* "public
ent more leeway to interrogate suspects
hem of their rights."⁶⁸

tion policy after 9/11 is not, however,
point of human rights and constitutional
ision to use Guantánamo as a deten-
at individuals could be denied habeas
long as they were imprisoned outside
have seen, was not just a prison; it was
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uld avoid the Constitution simply by

moving prisoners across a geographic
tions and other legal safeguards a null
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tánamo triggered the Constitution’s
did more than galvanize the human
create alliances with international act
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government action regardless of wher
noncitizens lack even basic constituti
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to exploit international law, Guantána
importance of the Geneva Conventio
restrict the power of governments in ti

Above all, Guantánamo underscore
which proved to be the single most im
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commissions, and abusive interrogati
after finally awakening from its post-9/
ingness to ratify, if not expand on, th
asserted by President Bush and to dep
Although the press had played an imp
extraordinary rendition, and other ab
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branch in which law and facts matter
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or partisan gamesmanship, and in wh
at least some immunity from the fear,
thoroughly infected the public debate

Habeas corpus, to be sure, remains
curtailing illegal executive action. Cou
rights extend to the overseas detentio
tánamo. And even if they do, habeas
more secret forms of confinement: wh

line and render the Geneva Convention by labeling prisoners “enemy combatants” to limit the Constitution, Guantanamo reconceptualization and expansion. It was a civil liberties movement in the United States, not a military one, and build bridges between the military and intelligence officials who underpins keep America safe as well as free. It was a challenge to the idea of a transnational Convention of detention, torture, and other illegal practices that occur. Premised on the idea that international rights, Guantanamo affirmed the rights of not just American citizens. Designed to help demonstrate the continued relevance of international rules that apply in time of war.

It affirmed the enduring need for habeas corpus, an important check against executive overreach to extrajudicial detention, military operations came from the courts. Congress, after 9/11 slumber, repeatedly showed its will to curb the sweeping claims of executive power to deprive the courts of any meaningful role. An important part in helping expose torture, abuses, these exposés had done little to curb them, through the exercise of habeas corpus, limits on the government’s detention practices. The federal judiciary remained the one institution, even if they did not matter enough, that was not reduced to sloganeering. The decisions could be rendered with a sense of hysteria, and irrationality that had so often prevailed over national security.

Habeas corpus is both a limited and imperfect tool for courts ultimately may not find that habeas corpus for foreign nationals except at Guantanamo by its nature has difficulty reaching them when the prisoner’s location is unknown,

the U.S. role is hidden behind a foreigner transferred to another country for continued detention. Over, the mere availability of habeas does not provide a correct answer, to the issues presented by the “war on terror,” the courts have addressed the most basic question it raised: who is subject to military detention, that is, who is properly subject to military detention, the ordinary requirement of criminal law. Finally, as the Guantánamo litigation shows, a habeas petition does not itself ensure a prisoner’s release, particularly given the reluctance of judges to grant habeas and resettlement.

But if habeas is not the only component of national security policy, it is an indispensable one. Clearer since 9/11, both despite and because of executive and Congress to eliminate it. If the courts fail, there will be a risk that the United States will detain people without charge or prosecute them in military courts rather than in the regular federal courts. The courts’ decisions have helped ensure the possibility of indefinite military imprisonment outside the United States. New proposals for national security detention that threaten to institutionalize indefinite military imprisonment outside the United States and human rights. In the face of international law, dangerous people without charge, with habeas corpus will continue to be a vital part of individual liberty and safeguard against ill-treatment.

The government must protect the public interest. Massive damage means that the government must be vigilant in carrying out that duty. But in the face of its Constitution and values in the protection of individual liberties, habeas remains—as it has been—essential to arbitrary and unlawful detention and to the rule of law.

a proxy, or the prisoner is simply transferred to military detention and interrogation. More importantly, habeas does not ensure an answer, let alone the right one. Indeed, more than nine years into the war, many questions are still not definitively answered perhaps because the prisoner is a civilian and who is a combatant, or the prisoner is in military detention and thus exempt from habeas. The Supreme Court's charge and trial under the Constitution shows, even "winning" a habeas petition does not ensure prompt release from custody, particularly in the area of prisoner

protection. A component of a rights-respecting national security strategy is habeas. The vitality of habeas has become more important because of the sustained efforts by the executive branch. As long as terrorism remains a problem, the United States will continue to imprison people before second-class military tribunals, to deny them due process, and to use harsh methods of interrogation. Supreme Court decisions limiting the availability of habeas review over any U.S. citizen, regardless of citizenship or location. Those decisions create a disincentive and deterrent against the creation of a national security strategy. At the same time, not only does habeas ensure the laws of war continue, but there are also habeas courts and other forms of preventive detention that realize violations of basic constitutional rights. Habeas provides a countervailing pressure to detain allegedly dangerous individuals without a lawyer, and without access to a court. Habeas is the most important bulwark of individual rights against illegal executive action.

The government's capacity to inflict harm on the public, and terrorism's capacity to inflict harm on the government must be unflagging and hyper-effective. The United States also must not forgo habeas. Despite its limits and imperfections, habeas has been critical for centuries—critical to preventing the government from securing the government's adherence

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Notes

INTRODUCTION

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CHAPTER 1

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26. “FBI Apologizes to Lawyer Held in Mao,” *Washington Post*, Oct. 1, 2004; see also Steven T. Wax and Christopher J. Schatz, “A Multinational Perspective,” *The Champion* 6 (September/October 2004); *Id.*
27. *Al-Kidd v. Ashcroft*, 580 F.3d 949, 952–54 (9th Cir. 2009).
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29. I served as lead counsel to al-Marri in his habeas petition while he was in detention.
30. In May 2003, the indictment in New York was promptly refiled in Peoria, Illinois, where most of the evidence was located.
31. Order Declaring Ali Saleh Kahlah al-Marri an Enemy Combatant, 2004 WL 100410 (D.S.C.) (HFF).
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35. John Ashcroft, *Never Again: Securing America* (New York: HarperCollins, 2006), 168–69.
36. In another case, the government succeeded in pressuring its defendants by threatening to declare them “enemy combatants.” *See* *Al Qaeda in the United States: A History of Responses: Terror; U.S. Cites Al Qaeda in Court*, *New York Times*, June 20, 2003; Dan Herbeck, “2 Defendants Charged with Terrorism,” *New York News*, April 6, 2003.
37. Declaration of Vice Admiral Lowell E. J. Rumsfeld, Director of the Intelligence Agency, dated January 9, 2003, filed in *United States v. Al-Marri*, 2003 WL 100410 (S.D.N.Y. 2003).
38. Complaint, *Al-Marri v. Rumsfeld*, ¶¶ 68–70; Savage Certification of Andrew J. Savage III, ¶¶ 23–29, No. 2:03-cv-00410 (D.S.C.) (HFF); First Amended Complaint, *Padilla v. Rumsfeld*, 2004 WL 100410 (D.S.C.) (HFF).
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44. *Hamdi v. Rumsfeld*, 542 U.S. 507, 509–11 (2004).
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64. Eric M. Freedman, *Habeas Corpus: Rethinking the Writ* (New York University Press, 2001), 20–21; “Development of the Writ of Habeas Corpus,” 1265; Paschal, “The Constitution and Habeas Corpus,” 1265.
65. As Marshall explained, “If at any time the Executive should suspend the operation of the powers vested by this act in the legislature to say so.” *Ex parte Bollman*, 8 U.S. 75, 103 (1807). See also Story, *Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States* (New York: W. & Co., 1833).
66. Judiciary Act of 1789, ch. 20, § 14, 1 Stat. 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 194, 195, 196, 197, 198, 199, 200, 201, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206, 207, 208, 209, 210, 211, 212, 213, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218, 219, 220, 221, 222, 223, 224, 225, 226, 227, 228, 229, 230, 231, 232, 233, 234, 235, 236, 237, 238, 239, 240, 241, 242, 243, 244, 245, 246, 247, 248, 249, 250, 251, 252, 253, 254, 255, 256, 257, 258, 259, 260, 261, 262, 263, 264, 265, 266, 267, 268, 269, 270, 271, 272, 273, 274, 275, 276, 277, 278, 279, 280, 281, 282, 283, 284, 285, 286, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291, 292, 293, 294, 295, 296, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303, 304, 305, 306, 307, 308, 309, 310, 311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 319, 320, 321, 322, 323, 324, 325, 326, 327, 328, 329, 330, 331, 332, 333, 334, 335, 336, 337, 338, 339, 340, 341, 342, 343, 344, 345, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 353, 354, 355, 356, 357, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 364, 365, 366, 367, 368, 369, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374, 375, 376, 377, 378, 379, 380, 381, 382, 383, 384, 385, 386, 387, 388, 389, 390, 391, 392, 393, 394, 395, 396, 397, 398, 399, 400, 401, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 407, 408, 409, 410, 411, 412, 413, 414, 415, 416, 417, 418, 419, 420, 421, 422, 423, 424, 425, 426, 427, 428, 429, 430, 431, 432, 433, 434, 435, 436, 437, 438, 439, 440, 441, 442, 443, 444, 445, 446, 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, 453, 454, 455, 456, 457, 458, 459, 460, 461, 462, 463, 464, 465, 466, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471, 472, 473, 474, 475, 476, 477, 478, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486, 487, 488, 489, 490, 491, 492, 493, 494, 495, 496, 497, 498, 499, 500, 501, 502, 503, 504, 505, 506, 507, 508, 509, 510, 511, 512, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 519, 520, 521, 522, 523, 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536, 537, 538, 539, 540, 541, 542, 543, 544, 545, 546, 547, 548, 549, 550, 551, 552, 553, 554, 555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563, 564, 565, 566, 567, 568, 569, 570, 571, 572, 573, 574, 575, 576, 577, 578, 579, 580, 581, 582, 583, 584, 585, 586, 587, 588, 589, 590, 591, 592, 593, 594, 595, 596, 597, 598, 599, 600, 601, 602, 603, 604, 605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 614, 615, 616, 617, 618, 619, 620, 621, 622, 623, 624, 625, 626, 627, 628, 629, 630, 631, 632, 633, 634, 635, 636, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644, 645, 646, 647, 648, 649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663, 664, 665, 666, 667, 668, 669, 670, 671, 672, 673, 674, 675, 676, 677, 678, 679, 680, 681, 682, 683, 684, 685, 686, 687, 688, 689, 690, 691, 692, 693, 694, 695, 696, 697, 698, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705, 706, 707, 708, 709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 714, 715, 716, 717, 718, 719, 720, 721, 722, 723, 724, 725, 726, 727, 728, 729, 730, 731, 732, 733, 734, 735, 736, 737, 738, 739, 740, 741, 742, 743, 744, 745, 746, 747, 748, 749, 750, 751, 752, 753, 754, 755, 756, 757, 758, 759, 760, 761, 762, 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, 768, 769, 770, 771, 772, 773, 774, 775, 776, 777, 778, 779, 780, 781, 782, 783, 784, 785, 786, 787, 788, 789, 790, 791, 792, 793, 794, 795, 796, 797, 798, 799, 800, 801, 802, 803, 804, 805, 806, 807, 808, 809, 810, 811, 812, 813, 814, 815, 816, 817, 818, 819, 820, 821, 822, 823, 824, 825, 826, 827, 828, 829, 830, 831, 832, 833, 834, 835, 836, 837, 838, 839, 840, 841, 842, 843, 844, 845, 846, 847, 848, 849, 850, 851, 852, 853, 854, 855, 856, 857, 858, 859, 860, 861, 862, 863, 864, 865, 866, 867, 868, 869, 870, 871, 872, 873, 874, 875, 876, 877, 878, 879, 880, 881, 882, 883, 884, 885, 886, 887, 888, 889, 890, 891, 892, 893, 894, 895, 896, 897, 898, 899, 900, 901, 902, 903, 904, 905, 906, 907, 908, 909, 910, 911, 912, 913, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 920, 921, 922, 923, 924, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 930, 931, 932, 933, 934, 935, 936, 937, 938, 939, 940, 941, 942, 943, 944, 945, 946, 947, 948, 949, 950, 951, 952, 953, 954, 955, 956, 957, 958, 959, 960, 961, 962, 963, 964, 965, 966, 967, 968, 969, 970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 980, 981, 982, 983, 984, 985, 986, 987, 988, 989, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000.

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John Earl of Clarendon, Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain and Misdemeanors: 15 and 19 Charles II. A.D. 1668 (1668).

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12, 18 (1776).

See generally Halliday and White, "The

"Habeas Corpus," 608. See also Gerald L. Neuman, "Habeas Corpus after *INS v. St. Cyr*," 33 *Columbia Human Rights Law Review* 1, 12 (2002).

Constitution of 1787, vol. 2 (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 1965), 101–2.
A Constitutional History of Habeas Corpus,

the scope of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be extended to cases of War or Invasion the public Safety may require

"the most important Human Right in the Constitution," 32

"Suspension, and Detention: Another View," 59

Reinventing the Great Writ of Liberty (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002), 623–24.
developments in the Law—Federal Habeas Corpus and Habeas Corpus," 623–24.

the public safety should require the suspension of the Writ of Habeas Corpus, it is for the benefit of the public safety (4 Cranch) 75, 101 (1807). See also Joseph Story, *Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States* § 1342 (Boston: Hilliard, Gray, and Little, 1833), 101–2.

§. 73, 82. The present version of the act is

68. *Marbury v. Madison*, 5 U.S. (1 Cranch) 137 (1803). The Court struck down another section of the Judiciary Act of 1789 and then struck down that section of the Act that would have taken jurisdiction beyond the limits of Article III of the Constitution in the Supreme Court “in all cases affecting Ambassadors, Consuls, and those in which a state shall be party.” U.S. Const., art. III, § 2.

69. *Bollman*, 8 U.S. (4 Cranch) at 100–101. For a discussion of Marshall’s decisions in *Marbury* and *Bollman*, see Eric F. Freedman, “Habeas Corpus,” 626–28; Freedman, *Habeas Corpus: A History of the Writ*. For a discussion of “original” habeas petitions, see Eric F. Freedman, “Habeas Corpus in the Supreme Court,” *Supreme Court Review* 101 (1984).

70. *Bollman*, 8 U.S. (4 Cranch) at 125–37.

71. *Ibid.*, 95. The Suspension Clause is not to be construed as a grant of authority that rely on legislative action for their implementation. See Eric F. Freedman, “The Suspension Clause,” 581 (citing “Enumeration of the powers of the President, clause of articles II and III).

72. As Professor Eric Freedman explains, the writ of habeas corpus “is not the writ by doing nothing ‘would certainly have been suspended by the Suspension Clause.’” Freedman, *Habeas Corpus*, 626–28.

73. *St. Cyr*, 533 U.S. at 304 n. 24. See also *Johnson v. Eisentrainer*, 375 U.S. 666 (1964) (the habeas statute “implements the constitutional guarantee that habeas corpus be made available”).

74. Duker, *A Constitutional History of Habeas Corpus for Convicts—Constitutional Right of Habeas Corpus*, 33 *Harvard Law Review* 335, 340 (1952).

75. *Ableman v. Booth*, 62 U.S. (21 How.) 506 (1872).

76. Gerald L. Neuman, “Habeas Corpus, Ex Parte Merryman, and the Suspension Clause,” 98 *Columbia Law Review* 961, 975 (1988). See also Neuman, “Habeas Corpus,” 607.

77. The current version of the habeas statute is found in the Judiciary Act. See *Felker v. Turpin*, 518 U.S. 651, 655 (2006).

78. Act of March 2, 1833, ch. 57, §§ 3, 7, 4 Stat. 270.

79. Act of August 29, 1842, ch. 257, 5 Stat. 506.

80. Act of February 5, 1867, ch. 28, § 1, 14 Stat. 429.

81. See, for example, Antiterrorism and Eff. of the Habeas Corpus Act, 110 Stat. 1214 (1996).

82. *Hamdi v. Rumsfeld*, 542 U.S. 507, 525 (2004).

83. See David J. Barron and Martin S. Lederman, “The Suspension Clause at Its Lowest Ebb—A Constitutional History,” 121 *Harvard Law Review* 101 (2006).

84. Daniel Farber, *Lincoln’s Constitution* (Columbia University Press, 2003), 16–17.

85. *Ex parte Merryman*, 17 F. Cas. 144 (C.C. Md. 1861). See also D. Jackson, “The Power to Suspend Habeas Corpus,” 34 *University of Pennsylvania Law Review* 101 (1866).

articulated in the late nineteenth century to the terms and conditions under which aliens . . . See Stephen H. Legomsky, "Immigration Law Power," *Supreme Court Review* 255, 256 (1984).

case decided three days later, the Court held that the executive could detain foreign nationals who had been removed from the United States. *Zadvydas v. Davis*,

533 U.S. 314 (2001) (5 U.S. Ct. 1813).

Ex parte Izard, 30 F. Cas. 131 (C.C.D.N.Y. 1815) (No. 10,000) (holding that the detention of British subjects who had previously been removed from the United States was unconstitutional). See Professors of Constitutional Law and Fed-

Ex parte Adams, 15 (D.W. Tenn. December 31, 1827) (examining the constitutionality of a law that required a person to be wholly incapable of transacting business in order to be eligible for habeas corpus, thus invalidating the legal basis for the writ); *Ex parte Adams*, 28 F. Cas. 100 (C.C.D. Ga. May 8, 1815) (examining the constitutionality of a law that required parental consent), cited in Freedman, *Habeas Corpus*, 165, n. 55; *State v. Clark*, 2 Del. Cas. 100 (1815) (holding that a soldier was intoxicated at time of enlistment).

For a more expansive expression of this view, see *Dynes v. Hoover*, 61 U.S. 13 (1879).

Ex parte Adams, 28 F. Cas. 100 (1815); *Weiss v. United States*, 510 U.S. 163 (1994); *Ex parte Adams*, 28 F. Cas. 100 (1815) (plurality opinion) (noting the "peculiar" nature of the writ). See Neuman, "Habeas Corpus, Executive Deten-

tion," 100 *Harvard Law Review* 100 (1986). See also, for example, *McClaghry v. Deming*, 100 U.S. 191 (1879) (holding that regular army officers lacked jurisdiction over a volunteer army); *In re Grimley*, 137 U.S. 147 (1890) (holding that a person was not eligible for habeas corpus until the proper age when he enlisted).

For a more expansive expression of this view, see *Ex parte Adams*, 28 F. Cas. 100 (1815) (plurality opinion), which suggested this more expanded role for habeas corpus in determining whether a defendant's claims had received "fair consideration." *Ex parte Adams*, 28 F. Cas. 100 (1815) (plurality opinion) (noting the "peculiar" nature of the writ). See Neuman, "Habeas Corpus, Executive Deten-

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124. Edward S. Corwin, *Total War and the Constitution* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1952), 125.
125. At the time, a criminal conviction for espionage carried a death sentence. See Daniel J. Danelski, "The Saboteurs' Case," 61 *Journal of American History* 61, 65–66 (1996).
126. Executive Order No. 9185, 7 Fed. Reg. 10,100 (1942), reprinted in 61 *Statutes at Large* 1400 (1942), 1401 (1942), 1402 (1942), 1403 (1942), 1404 (1942), 1405 (1942), 1406 (1942), 1407 (1942), 1408 (1942), 1409 (1942), 1410 (1942), 1411 (1942), 1412 (1942), 1413 (1942), 1414 (1942), 1415 (1942), 1416 (1942), 1417 (1942), 1418 (1942), 1419 (1942), 1420 (1942), 1421 (1942), 1422 (1942), 1423 (1942), 1424 (1942), 1425 (1942), 1426 (1942), 1427 (1942), 1428 (1942), 1429 (1942), 1430 (1942), 1431 (1942), 1432 (1942), 1433 (1942), 1434 (1942), 1435 (1942), 1436 (1942), 1437 (1942), 1438 (1942), 1439 (1942), 1440 (1942), 1441 (1942), 1442 (1942), 1443 (1942), 1444 (1942), 1445 (1942), 1446 (1942), 1447 (1942), 1448 (1942), 1449 (1942), 1450 (1942), 1451 (1942), 1452 (1942), 1453 (1942), 1454 (1942), 1455 (1942), 1456 (1942), 1457 (1942), 1458 (1942), 1459 (1942), 1460 (1942), 1461 (1942), 1462 (1942), 1463 (1942), 1464 (1942), 1465 (1942), 1466 (1942), 1467 (1942), 1468 (1942), 1469 (1942), 1470 (1942), 1471 (1942), 1472 (1942), 1473 (1942), 1474 (1942), 1475 (1942), 1476 (1942), 1477 (1942), 1478 (1942), 1479 (1942), 1480 (1942), 1481 (1942), 1482 (1942), 1483 (1942), 1484 (1942), 1485 (1942), 1486 (1942), 1487 (1942), 1488 (1942), 1489 (1942), 1490 (1942), 1491 (1942), 1492 (1942), 1493 (1942), 1494 (1942), 1495 (1942), 1496 (1942), 1497 (1942), 1498 (1942), 1499 (1942), 1500 (1942).
127. Francis Biddle, *In Brief Authority* (New York: Basic Books, 1964), 128.
128. Danelski, "The Saboteurs' Case," 71.
129. *Ex parte Quirin*, 63 S. Ct. 1 (1942).
130. *Ex parte Quirin*, 317 U.S. 1 (1942); Danelski, "The Saboteurs' Case," 71.
131. *Yamashita v. Styer*, 327 U.S. 1 (1946).
132. Danelski, "The Saboteurs' Case," 80; Lael, *The Yamashita Precedent and American Law* (Lawrence: University of Kansas Press, 1982), 80. For another excellent account, see Pierce O'Donnell, *The Saboteurs: The Story of the Yamashita Case* (New York: New Press, 2005).
133. Danelski, "The Saboteurs' Case," 72–73.
134. Steven B. Ives Jr., "Vengeance Did Not Kill," 30 *Journal of American History* 30, 2001.
135. Richard L. Lael, *The Yamashita Precedent* (Wilmington, DE: Scholarly Resources, 1982), 80 (dissenting).
136. Lael, *The Yamashita Precedent*, 80–81; Ives, "Vengeance Did Not Kill," 30.
137. *Yamashita*, 327 U.S. at 27–28 (Murphy, dissenting).
138. *Ibid.*, 61 (Rutledge, J., dissenting).
139. *Quirin*, 317 U.S. at 19.
140. *Yamashita*, 327 U.S. at 9.
141. *Johnson v. Eisentrager*, 339 U.S. 763 (1950).
142. *Eisentrager v. Forrestal*, unpublished opinion, 174 F.2d 961, 962 (D.C. Cir. 1948), Transcript of Record at 16–17; *Johnson v. Eisentrager*, 339 U.S. 763 (1950).
143. *Ahrens v. Clark*, 335 U.S. 188 (1948).
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146. *Eisentrager v. Forrestal*, 174 F.2d 961, 962 (D.C. Cir. 1948).
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148. *Johnson v. Eisentrager*, 339 U.S. at 769.
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151. See Timothy Endicott, "Habeas Corpus Abroad," 54 *American Journal of Jurisprudence* 54, 55 (1999).
152. *Johnson v. Eisentrager*, 339 U.S. at 795 (1950).
153. *Ibid.*, 798.
154. *Ex parte Burford*, 7 U.S. (3 Cranch) 448 (1803).
155. For a general overview of the tribunal, see Robert J. Morgenthau, *The Untold Story of the Tokyo War Crimes Trial* (New York: Basic Books, 1978); and Robert J. Morgenthau, *Judgment at Tokyo: The Japanese War Crimes Trial* (Kentucky, 2001).

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156. Hirota was the only civilian sentenced. Vladeck, “Deconstructing *Hirota*: Habeas Corpus at *Georgetown Law Journal* 1497, 1499–1500 (2007).

157. The petition thus invoked the Supreme Court’s authority under the 1789 Judiciary Act. The Court had previously rejected a habeas corpus challenging action by military commissions. (*Ex parte Milligan*, 4 Wall.) 85 (1869).

158. When the Court denied the first habeas petition in *Ex parte Ahrens*—it noted that the prisoners could refile their petition. (*Ex parte Ahrens*, 329 U.S. 672 (1946)).

159. In May 1948, for example, the Court heard a habeas petition on behalf of seventy-four German soldiers convicted during World War II. (*Ex rel. Bersin v. Truman*, 334 U.S. 824 (1948)).

160. Vladeck, “Deconstructing *Hirota*,” 150.

161. *Hirota v. MacArthur*, 338 U.S. 197, 198 (1951).

162. Vladeck, “Deconstructing *Hirota*,” 1515.

163. Charles Fairman, “Some New Problems in the History of the Constitution,” *Stanford Law Review* 587, 597–600 (1949); Vladeck, “Deconstructing *Hirota*,” 1500.

CHAPTER 6

1. J. Andrew Kent, “A Textual and Historical Approach to the Alien Friends Act,” *Georgetown Law Journal* 463, 488–89 (2007).

2. Louis Henkin, *Constitutionalism, Democracy, and Disobedience* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1990), 99–100.

3. Joseph Gales, ed., *Annals of Congress*, vol. 8 (1798), 2008 (statement of Gales).

4. U.S. Constitution, 5th and 6th amends.

5. Sarah H. Cleveland, “Our International Obligations,” *Georgetown Law Journal* 1, 35 (2006).

6. Alien Friends Act, ch. 58, § 1, 1 Stat. 570, 571 (1798).

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11. Madison’s Report on the Virginia Resolutions, *Madison Papers*, 10 (1836), 556.

12. *Ibid.*

13. *Yick Wo v. Hopkins*, 118 U.S. 356 (1886).

14. *Wong Wing v. United States*, 163 U.S. 228 (1896).

15. See, for example, *Bridges v. Wixon*, 326 U.S. 135 (1945); *Lopez-Mendoza*, 468 U.S. 1032 (1984) (Fourth Circuit); *United States v. Wong*, 282 U.S. 481 (1931) (just compensation).

to death by the Tokyo tribunal. See Steven I. Crump, "Citizenship, and Article III," 95 *George-*

the Court's so-called original jurisdiction under
usually considered "original" habeas petitions
See, for example, *Ex parte Yerger*, 75 U.S. (8

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ple in the appropriate district court. See *Ex*

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16. Gerald L. Neuman, "Closing the Guant" (2004).

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18. *Loughborough v. Blake*, 18 U.S. (5 Wheat
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19. See, for example, *United States v. Dawson*
venue requirements of article 3, section 2); *W*
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20. *Loughborough*, 18 U.S. (5 Wheat.) at 319

21. 60 U.S. (19 How.) 393 (1857). Benjamin
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23. *Neely v. Henkel*, 180 U.S. 109, 122 (1901).

24. John Heffner, Note: "Between Assimila
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25. Julius W. Pratt, *America's Colonial Exper*
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26. *Downes v. Bidwell*, 182 U.S. 244 (1901).

27. *Ibid.*, 251.

28. *Ibid.*, 287.

29. *Ibid.*, 378, 380 (Harlan, J., dissenting).

30. *Ibid.*, 293 (White, J., concurring).

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32. See *Balzac v. Porto Rico*, 258 U.S. 298 (19
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33. Christina Duffy Burnett, "American Ex
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Curtis’s dissenting opinion agreed that the
the Court’s conclusion that due process
27 (Curtis, J., dissenting).

tion and Revolt: A Third Option for Hawaii
Texas International Law Journal 591, 595–96
of the Hawaiian Islands (Honolulu: Univer-

Experiment (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1950), 68;
tion of Empire (New Haven, CT: Yale Univer-

922) (Sixth Amendment right to jury trial
United States, 234 U.S. 91 (1914) (Fifth Amend-
Philippines); *Dorr v. United States*, 195 U.S. 138
Philippines); *Hawaii v. Mankichi*, 190 U.S. 197
inapplicable in Hawaii); see also *Downes v.*
inapplicable to Puerto Rico).

Expansion and Territorial Deannexation,” 72

on?” 100 *Yale Law Journal* 909, 965 (1991).

41. *Ibid.*, 74 (Harlan, J., concurring).
42. Neuman, *Strangers to the Constitution*, 9.
43. *Kinsella v. United States ex rel. Singleton*, 361 U.S. 218 (1960) (noncapital crimes); *Grisham v. Hagan*, 361 U.S. 271 (1960) (civilian employees of the armed forces); *Giuliano v. United States*, 361 U.S. 281 (1960) (civilian employee of the armed forces) (capital crimes).
44. See, for example, *Ramirez de Arellano v. United States*, 500 F.2d 1113 (1985) (citizen could bring claim against the military farm in Honduras to train Salvadorian soldiers); *Berlin Democratic Club v. Rumsfeld*, 500 F.2d 1113 (1985) (the First, Fourth, and Sixth Amendments apply to the CIA's allegedly illegal intelligence gathering).
45. Isthmian Canal Convention, November 18, 1914, T.I.A.S. No. 817.
46. *Ibid.*, art. 3.
47. Panama Canal Treaty of 1977, September 7, 1977, T.I.A.S. No. 10030.
48. Act of August 24, 1912, ch. 390, §§ 8–9, 37 Stat. 1024.
49. Neuman, “Closing the Guantanamo Loophole,” 96 *Harvard Law Review* 139–43, 153–55 (1994).
50. *Ibid.*, 18–19.
51. *Canal Zone v. Castillo L. (Lopez)*, 568 F.2d 566, 568 (5th Cir. 1977) (provision of the Canal Zone Code outlawing habeas corpus without a due process standard); *Raven v. Panama Canal Co.*, 568 F.2d 566, 568 (5th Cir. 1977) (rejecting the exclusion of Panamanian employees from the federal Privacy Act to review under the act); *Canal Zone v. Scott*, 502 F.2d 566, 568 (5th Cir. 1975) (rejection but rejecting the claim on the merits).
52. *Canal Zone v. Scott*, 502 F.2d 566, 568 (5th Cir. 1975).
53. Trusteeship Agreement for the Former Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, 3, T.I.A.S. No. 1665, 8 U.N.T.S. 189.
54. Neuman, “Closing the Guantanamo Loophole,” 96 *Harvard Law Review* 139–43, 153–55 (1994).
55. *Ibid.*, 24–25.
56. *Ralpho v. Bell*, 569 F.2d 607, 618–19 (D.C. Cir. 1977).
57. *Ibid.* (internal quotation marks omitted).
58. *Juda v. United States*, 6 Cl. Ct. 441 (1981).
59. See Harold Hongju Koh, “America’s Offshore Islands: A Review,” 139–43, 153–55 (1994); Brandt Goldstein, *Law Students Sued the President—And Won* (New York: Basic Books, 1994).
60. *Haitian Refugee Ctr. v. Baker*, 949 F.2d 1498 (11th Cir. 1992).
61. *Cuban-American Bar Ass’n v. Christopher*, 96 *Harvard Law Review* 139–43, 153–55 (1994).
62. *Haitian Ctrs. Council, Inc. v. McNary*, 96 *Harvard Law Review* 139–43, 153–55 (1994) (omitted), *vacated as moot*, 509 U.S. 918 (1993).
63. *Sale v. Haitian Ctrs. Council, Inc.*, 509 U.S. 918 (1993).
64. *Haitian Ctrs. Council, Inc. v. Sale*, 823 F.2d 1498 (11th Cir. 1992).
65. Compare *United States v. Toscanino*, 500 F.2d 491 (5th Cir. 1974) (Constitution’s protection against unreasonable searches and seizures applies to the CIA’s intelligence gathering).

93.

361 U.S. 234 (1960) (civilian dependents for S. 278 (1960) *Grisham v. Hagan*, 361 U.S. 278 (1960) (civilians accused of capital crimes); *McElroy v. Guadeloupe*, 361 U.S. 161 (1960) (members of the armed forces accused of noncapital crimes)).

Weinberger, 745 F.2d 1500 (ruling that a U.S. citizen's right to due process under the Due Process Clause for using his property in Germany was violated), *vacated and remanded as moot*, 471 U.S. 135 (1985); *Wong*, 410 F. Supp. 144 (D.D.C. 1976) (ruling that the Due Process Clause applied to U.S. citizens in Germany based on the Due Process Clause).

18, 1903, U.S.-Panama, art. 2, 33 Stat. 2235.

7, 1977, U.S.-Panama, 33 U.S.T. 39, T.I.A.S. No. 8007.

37 Stat. 560, 565-66 (1912).

"tunnel," 18.

405, 407-11 (5th Cir. 1978) (evaluating a claim of vagrancy under the federal Constitution's Equal Protection Clause); *United States v. Alcoa*, 583 F.2d 169, 171 (5th Cir. 1978) (substantive rights of the Canal Zone from the protections of the Equal Protection Clause of the U.S. Constitution).

11th Cir. 1974).

Japanese Mandated Islands, July 18, 1947, art. 1.

"tunnel," 23-24.

11th Cir. 1977).

).

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"Offshore Refugee Camps," 29 *Richmond Law Review* 101 (1995); *Storming the Court: How a Band of Yale Law Students Took on the Supreme Court* (New York: Scribner, 2005).

109 (11th Cir. 1991); *Haitian Refugee Ctr. v. IIR*, 109 F.3d 1412, 1430 (11th Cir. 1995).

109 F.3d 1412, 1430 (11th Cir. 1995).

109 F.2d 1326, 1342-43 (2d Cir. 1992) (italics added).

109 F.3d 1412, 1430 (11th Cir. 1995).

109 F.3d 1412, 1430 (11th Cir. 1995).

109 F.2d 267 (2d Cir. 1974) (ruling that the Fourth Amendment's guarantee of protection against

unreasonable searches and seizures and guarantee of

due process applied to the FBI's alleged abduction of a suspected drug smuggler in Uruguay), with Neuman, "Whose Law?," 100 Harv. L. Rev. 100 (1988). Also, two courts of appeals rejected challenges to the arrest of a Cuban national outside the United States after assuming, but not proving, a connection to the United States. See *Sami v. United States*, 617 F.2d 755 (5th Cir. 1979) (affirming the arrest by Germany based on information provided by a Cuban national); *Rubies*, 612 F.2d 397 (9th Cir. 1979) (finding that the arrest on the high seas was reasonable).

66. *United States v. Verdugo-Urquidez*, 494 U.S. 127 (1990).

67. *Ibid.*, 262–63.

68. Rehnquist also suggested that the Fourth Amendment does not protect the United States without a sufficient connection to the United States national community because the amendment requires a connection that Rehnquist said *Verdugo-Urquidez* did not have to the United States involuntarily. *Verdugo-Urquidez*, 494 U.S. 127 (1990). Kennedy, who provided the necessary fifth vote for the majority, rejected this suggestion.

69. *Verdugo-Urquidez*, 494 U.S. at 273.

70. *Ibid.*, 275 (citation and internal quotation omitted).

71. *Ibid.*

72. *Ibid.*, 282–84 (Brennan, J., dissenting).

73. *Ibid.*, 284.

74. *Ibid.*, 285–86. Justice Harry Blackmun authored a dissenting opinion in *Verdugo-Urquidez* but did not address the Fourth Amendment's extraterritorial protection of searches and seizures, "not the amendment's application to noncitizens (297–98), (Blackmun, J., dissenting)." *Verdugo-Urquidez*, 494 U.S. 127 (1990).

75. *Ibid.*, 275–78 (Kennedy, J., concurring).

76. For a discussion of Kennedy's approach, see *Verdugo-Urquidez*, 494 U.S. 127 (1990).

CHAPTER 7

1. *Rasul v. Bush*, 542 U.S. 466 (2004).

2. *Hamdi v. Rumsfeld*, 542 U.S. 507 (2004);

3. Transcript of Oral Argument, April 28, 2004, 2004 WL 1066082 at *41.

4. The United States released the two British detainees before the Supreme Court decided their case.

5. *Johnson v. Eisentrager*, 339 U.S. 763 (1950).

6. The point was made by Justice David Souter in *Rasul v. Bush*, 542 U.S. 466 (2004), 2004 WL 943637.

7. *Eisentrager*, 339 U.S. at 778.

8. *Ibid.*, 789–90.

9. *Ahrens v. Clark*, 335 U.S. 188 (1948).

10. *Braden v. 30th Judicial Circuit Court of Kentucky*, 406 U.S. 489 (1972).

11. *Ibid.*, 494–95.

tion and torture of a suspected Italian drug
e Constitution?” 970–71 (discussing cases).
es to arrests and seizure of foreign nationals
not actually deciding, that the Constitution
; (D.C. Cir. 1979) (rejecting claim of wrongful
vided by the United States); *United States v.*
at the search of alien’s vessel interdicted on
U.S. 259 (1990).

th Amendment did not apply to aliens inside
ion to the country to make them part of the
’s text referred to “the right of the people,”
rquidez lacked, since he had been brought
Arquidez, 494 U.S. at 271. But Justice Ken-
or the Court’s ruling, explicitly rejected that

on marks omitted).

adopted a similar approach in his separate
differed from Brennan in arguing that the
ions should be limited to “unreasonable
separate warrant requirement, at least with
J., dissenting).

, see Neuman, *Strangers to the Constitution*, 8.

Rumsfeld v. Padilla, 542 U.S. 426 (2004).

2004, *Hamdi v. Rumsfeld*, 542 U.S. 507 (2004),

sh citizens, Shafiq Rasul and Asif Iqbal,

).

uter. See Transcript of Oral Argument, *Rasul*
7, at *43.

Kentucky, 410 U.S. 484 (1973).

court-martial of U.S. soldiers in Guam); *United States v. ...* (court-martial of U.S. soldier arrested in ... and then taken to Korea to stand trial for ... service there).

... 535 (E.D. Va. 2002).
... r. 2003).

... h Cir. 2003) (Wilkinson, J., concurring in the
... denial of rehearing en banc).
... the denial of rehearing en banc).
... ality opinion) (internal quotation marks

... part, dissenting in part, and concurring in
... concurring in part, dissenting in part, and

... at his opinion might apply to noncitizens
... no did not fall within the narrow definition of
... dissenting).

... (Kennedy, J., concurring).
... 7th Cir.) *cert. denied*, 543 U.S. 809 (2004).
... enting).

... ould have decided the merits, it appears that
... ilitary detention. In a footnote in his dissent,
... y detention as an “enemy combatant” was

ices (Stevens, Scalia, Souter, and Ginsburg) illegal, even though Hamdi, on the facts, was more lawfully detained than Padilla, since Hamdi was captured during combat against U.S. and allied forces. Justice Souter's opinion in *Hamdi* accepting the proposition that Hamdi, like Hamdi's, he joined Stevens's dissent that the president could not subject to indefinite detention in a civilian setting in the United States. This dissent (Stevens, Scalia, Souter, Ginsburg, and Breyer) characterized Hamdi's detention as an "enemy combatant," even on

No. 2:02cv439 (E.D. Va. October 5, 2004) (12:00 pm EST); "Man held as enemy combatant," *Washington Post*, October 23, 2004.

Settlement Agreement, September 17, 2004; "Return by U.S., Saudi Goes Home," *International Herald Tribune*, "Hamdi Returned to Saudi Arabia; U.S. Official Marked Fierce Debate," *Washington Post*, Octo-

U.S. Navy, Order Establishing Combatant Status

Combatant Status Review Tribunal Proceedings at Guantanamo Bay Naval Base, Cuba," July 2007; "Lawyer's Take on Gtmo: Interview with a Guantanamo Lawyer," September 1, 2007.

No-Hearing Hearings: An Analysis of the Government's Treatment of Detainees at Guantánamo (Newark, NJ: Seton Hall Law Center, 2007).

"Families Reunite at Guantanamo," *Associated Press*, October 1, 2007.

Rules: DOJ Proposes New Limits on Lawyer Access to Guantanamo," November 3, 2006.

1985). See also *Rochin v. California*, 342 U.S. 18 (1953).

inadmissible in criminal trials, regardless of whether they were obtained under duress. *Mondak v. United States*, 365 U.S. 534, 540-41 (1961).

1966 (1964); *Spano v. New York*, 360 U.S. 315, 320 (1959).

Field Manual 34-52: Intelligence Interrogation

They had made statements under torture. Den-
tation, 4, 36.

The Road to Abu Ghraib 17 (2004).

June 12, 2005.

14. James Risen, *State of War: The Secret History of the War on Terror* (New York: Free Press, 2006), 33; Baher Azmy, “The New Common Law of Habeas,” 95 *Iowa Law Review* 101 (2009).
15. Brief of Respondents at 20–21, 27, *Hamdan v. Rumsfeld*, 542 U.S. 507 (2004).
16. CSRT Order, para. a.
17. “Prepared Remarks of Attorney General Alberto R. Gonzales at the National Academy regarding Civil Liberties and the War on Terror,” White House, “Press Gaggle with Scott McClure,” <http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/2005/03/29/032905a.htm>.
18. Mark Denbeaux et al., *The Empty Battlefield: A Report on the Treatment of Detainees* (NJ: Seton Hall Law School, 2007). This report refers to “detainees” transferred to Guantanamo from Cuba.
19. Mark Denbeaux et al., *The Meaning of ‘Battlefield’: A Report on the Representations of ‘Battlefield’ Capture and ‘Return to the Battlefield’* (ark, NJ: Seton Hall Law School, 2007), 9–10.
20. *Ibid.* In fact, only a small percentage of detainees the Department says have “returned to the battlefield.” See Denbeaux et al., *The Meaning of ‘Battlefield’*, 10–11.
21. *Parhat v. Gates*, 532 F.3d 834, 848–49 (D.C. 2008) (quoting *Hunting of the Snark* 3 [1876]).
22. Denbeaux and Denbeaux, *No-Hearing Detainees*, 10–11.
23. News transcript, Defense Department Status Review Boards, March 29, 2005.
24. *Ibid.*; Denbeaux and Denbeaux, *No-Hearing Detainees*, 10–11.
25. Order, Administrative Review Procedures, Department of Defense at Guantánamo Naval Station, 2005.
26. Farah Stockman, “Some Cleared Guantanamo Detainees,” *N.Y. Times*, November 19, 2007.
27. *Al Odah v. United States*, 346 F. Supp. 2d 834 (D.D.C. 2004).
28. *Ibid.*, 10.
29. Tim Golden, “Naming Names at Gtmo,” *N.Y. Times*, November 19, 2007.
30. *Al Odah*, 346 F. Supp. 2d at 6–7. See also *Al Odah v. United States*, 346 F. Supp. 2d 834 (D.D.C. 2004).
31. “Lawyer to Visit Guantanamo Pair,” *BBJ*, November 19, 2007. A handful of Guantánamo detainees designated as “privileged” are able to meet with a lawyer, and those detainees are provided with legal counsel.
32. For a collection of these accounts, see Mark Denbeaux et al., *The Guantánamo Lawyers: Inside a Prison Out of Control* (New York: University Press, 2009).
33. See Murat Kurnaz, *Five Years of My Life in Prison* (New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2008); Moazzam Begg, *My Year in Guantanamo, Bagram, and Kandahar* (New York: Basic Books, 2007).
34. See Carol Rosenberg, “U.N. Fact-finder to Visit Guantanamo,” *Miami Herald*, November 18, 2005. The reports were supposed to remain confidential, to be consistent with ICRC policy.
35. *In re Guantanamo Detainee Cases*, 344 F.3d 1146 (9th Cir. 2003).

History of the CIA and the Bush Administration
y, "Executive Detention, Boumediene, and the
Review 445, 478 (2010).

Hamdi v. Rumsfeld, 542 U.S. 507 (No. 03-6696).

Alberto R. Gonzales at the U.S. Air Force
"War on Terrorism," November 20, 2006;

Ellan and Faryar Shirzad," July 6, 2005.

Field and the Thirteenth Criterion (Newark,

It does not consider the fourteen "high-value
CIA "black sites" in September 2006.

Battlefield: An Analysis of the Government's

Indivism' of the Guantánamo Detainees (New-

of the former prisoners who the Defense

"battlefield" actually engaged in hostile activities

(2, 5, 18).

(C. Cir. 2008) (quoting Lewis Carroll, *The*

Hearings, 10–11.

Special Briefing on Combatant Status Review

aring Hearings 37–40.

res for Enemy Combatants in the Control of

Naval Base, Cuba, May 11, 2004, at 1–2.

Guantánamo Inmates Stay in Custody," *Boston*

1, 5, (D.D.C. 2004).

," *New York Times*, October 21, 2007.

o *Harris v. Nelson*, 394 U.S. 286, 298 (1969).

C News, August 31, 2004. Previously, only the

l for trial by military commission had been

es had met only with military, not civilian,

Mark Denbeaux and Jonathan Hafetz, eds.,

side the Law (New York: New York Univer-

: An Innocent Man in Guantanamo (New

Begg, *Enemy Combatant: My Imprisonment at*

ork: New Press, 2007).

s Reject Pentagon Offer to Tour Guantan-

ICRC visited the detainees, but its reports

shared only with the detaining power, pursu-

. Supp. 2d 174 (D.D.C. 2004).

36. *Ibid.*, 180. See also Brendan M. Driscoll, 30 *Fordham International Law Journal* 873 (2007).
37. *Khalid v. Bush*, 355 F. Supp. 2d 311, 320–21 (D.D.C. 2005).
38. *Ibid.*, 317–20.
39. Eleven early habeas cases, which had been consolidated for decision by Judge Greenwood of the CSRT. Those cases originally included Judge Leon subsequently exercised his prerogative and returned to him so he could decide all issues.
40. *In re Guantánamo Detainee Cases*, 355 F. Supp. 2d 457 (D.D.C. 2005).
41. *Ibid.*, 458 (quoting *Ralpho v. Bell*, 569 F. Supp. 2d 468 (D.D.C. 2005)).
42. *Ibid.*, 468–74.
43. *Ibid.*, 469.
44. *Ibid.*, 470–71.
45. Carol D. Leonnig, “Evidence of Innocence,” *Washington Post*, December 5, 2007, A1.
46. *In re Guantánamo Detainee Cases*, 355 F. Supp. 2d 182–88 (D.D.C. 2005).
47. See, for example, U.S. Department of State, “Practices 2003: Egypt” (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of State, 2003).
48. Raymond Bonner, “Australian’s Long Prison Sentence,” *New York Times*, January 29, 2005.
49. *In re Guantanamo Detainee Cases*, 355 F. Supp. 2d 457 (D.D.C. 2005).
50. Judges would, however, continue to continue to maintain the status quo, including requests to continue to afford limited protection to detainees (for example, *Al-Joudi v. Bush*, 406 F. Supp. 2d 13 (D.D.C. 2005) (notify detainees’ counsel within twenty-four hours as a result of a hunger strike and provide court records)).
51. Jonathan Mahler, “The Bush Administration,” *New York Times*, January 8, 2006.
52. *Ibid.*
53. Press release, “Department of Defense, Subject to His Military Order,” July 3, 2003.
54. Because Hamdan had been designated by the administration gave him access to an attorney who had not been charged or designated for the Court’s June 2004 decision in *Rasul*.
55. *Hamdan v. Rumsfeld*, 344 F. Supp. 2d 152 (D.D.C. 2004).
56. U.S. Department of Defense, “Military Order,” Ahmed Hamdan,” July 13, 2004.
57. Hamdan’s case was transferred to the United States Supreme Court’s decision in *Rasul*.

l, Note: “The Guantánamo Protective Order,” (2007).

27 (D.D.C. 2005).

been assigned to various district judges, had
n on common issues, including the validity
the habeas petitions before Judge Leon. But
negative to have the cases originally assigned to
issues, including the common ones.

. Supp. 2d 464 (D.D.C. 2005).

2d 607, 618–19 (1977)); *ibid.*, 463–64.

nce Rejected at Guantanamo,” *Washington*

. Supp. 2d at 473–74; Joseph Margulies,
Over (New York: Simon & Schuster, 2006),

ate, “Country Reports on Human Rights
. Government Printing Office, 2004).

ath in the U.S. Anti-Terrorism Maze,” *New*

. Supp. 2d 482 (D.D.C. 2005).

consider certain applications intended to
to maintain a detainee’s access to counsel
on life-threatening hunger strikes. See, for
D.D.C. 2005) (ordering that the government
hours if their clients were being forced-fed
counsel with access to those detainees’ medical

ation vs. Salim Hamdan,” *New York Times*,

President Determines Enemy Combatants

for trial by military commission, the Bush
y—access that other Guantánamo detainees
trial were denied until after the Supreme

2, 155–56 (D.D.C. 2004).

Commission List of Charges for Salim

.S. District Court for the District of Colum-
, where it was originally filed, following the

58. *Hamdan*, 344 F. Supp. 2d at 161–62. The requirements of a “competent tribunal” by the detainee’s status under the Geneva Convention. The detainee had been properly classified as an “enemy combatant” at the time of his detention.

59. *Ibid.*, 172.

60. *Hamdan v. Rumsfeld*, 415 F.3d 33 (D.C. Cir. 2009).

61. *Ibid.*, 44 (Williams, J., concurring).

62. *Hamdan v. Rumsfeld*, 546 U.S. 1002 (2005).

63. Pub. L. No. 109-148, 119 Stat. 2680 (2005).

64. *Ex parte McCardle*, 74 U.S. (7 Wall.) 506 (1868). The Court held that it had jurisdiction to hear a habeas challenge to the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus* through that very avenue. See *Ex parte McCardle*, 74 U.S. 506 (1868). More than a century later, the Supreme Court again held that the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus* was an absolute bar to the exercise of its appellate jurisdiction. See *Ex parte Turpin*, 518 U.S. 651, 661–62 (1996). See generally, “A Guide to *Ex parte McCardle*,” 15 *Arizona Law Review* 101 (1973).

65. DTA § 1005(e)(3).

66. See, for example, *Yamashita v. Styer*, 327 U.S. 1 (1946), 25 (1942).

67. DTA § 1005(e)(3).

68. 151 Cong. Rec. S12777-02, S12800 (November 15, 2005).

69. *Quirin*, 317 U.S. 1; *Ex parte Milligan*, 71 U.S. 300 (1862).

70. 151 Cong. Rec. S12777-02, S12803 (November 15, 2005); 151 Cong. Rec. S12777-02, S12799 (November 15, 2005); 151 Cong. Rec. S12752-01, S12755 (November 14, 2005) (2005).

71. Dan Eggen, “Senate Approves Plan to Limit Habeas Corpus,” *Washington Post*, December 11, 2005.

72. 151 Cong. Rec. S12777-02, S12802 (November 15, 2005).

73. DTA, § 1003(a).

74. *Ibid.*, § 1005(b)(1).

75. *Ibid.*, § 1003(d). The Fifth Amendment’s protection against unreasonable searches and seizures was overturned in *Rochin v. California*, 342 U.S. 185 (1952), where the police had a “strong stomach” to obtain narcotics.

76. Scott Shane et al., “Secret U.S. Endorses Torture,” *New York Times*, October 4, 2007.

77. George W. Bush, “President’s Statement on the War on Terror,” October 7, 2001.

78. For a discussion of Bush’s unprecedented use of executive power, see John Cooper, “George W. Bush, Edgar Allan Poe, and the Suspension of the Writ of *Habeas Corpus*,” 35 *Presidential Studies Quarterly* 101 (2005).

79. Petition for Writ of Habeas Corpus, *Padilla v. Hanft*, No. 05-10001, July 2, 2005.

80. *Padilla v. Hanft*, 389 F. Supp. 2d 678 (D. Minn. 2005).

81. *Padilla v. Hanft*, 423 F.3d 386, 389 (4th Cir. 2006).

82. *Ibid.*, 391–92.

CSRT, Judge Robertson said, did not satisfy because it was not established to address a ons but, rather, to determine whether the "enemy combatant" for purposes of continued

Cir. 2005).

05).

5) (DTA).

6 (1868). The following year, the Court ruled enge to a prospective trial by a military com-
te Yerger, 75 U.S. (8 Wall.) 85 (1869). More n declined to read a legislative restriction ate jurisdiction in habeas cases. See *Felker* erally William W. Van Alstyne, "A Critical *Review* 229 (1973).

7 U.S. 1, 9 (1946); *Ex parte Quirin*, 317 U.S. 1,

ember 14, 2005) (statement of Sen. Graham). U.S. (4 Wall.) 2 (1866).

ember 15, 2005) (statement of Sen. Kyle); 151 2005) (statement of Sen. Graham); 151 Cong. statement of Sen. Graham).

Limit Detainee Access to the Courts," *Wash-*

ember 15, 2005) (statement of Sen. Levin).

standard is derived from the Supreme U.S. 165 (1952), in which the Supreme Court ordered a doctor to forcibly pump a suspect's

ment of Severe Interrogations," *New York*

on Signing of H.R. 2863," December 30, 2005.

ed use of signing statements, see Phillip J.

and the Use and Abuse of Presidential Sign-

erly 515 (2005).

dilla v. Hanft, No. 04 Civ. 2221 (D.S.C.), *filed*

S.C. 2005).

Cir. 2005).

83. "Terror Suspect Charged," CNN.com, November 13, 2001.
84. Deborah Sontag, "In Padilla Wiretaps, a New Chapter," *New York Times*, January 4, 2007.
85. Douglas Jehl and Eric Lichtblau, "Shift in Strategy," *New York Times*, November 24, 2005.
86. *Padilla v. Hanft*, 432 F.3d 582 (4th Cir. 2007).
87. *Ibid.*, 584–87.
88. *Padilla v. Hanft*, 547 U.S. 1062 (2006).
89. Kirk Semple, "Padilla Sentenced to 17 Years," *New York Times*, February 1, 2008.
90. *Hamdan v. Rumsfeld*, 548 U.S. 557 (2006). Justice Stevens participated in the Supreme Court decision because he had participated in appeals that had decided the case before he was appointed to the Court.
91. *Hamdan v. Rumsfeld*, No. 05-184, Transcripts of Oral Argument (2006).
92. *Hamdan*, 548 U.S. at 613–25 (finding that the military's interpretation of article 36(b)'s requirement that their rules be consistent with the Geneva Convention violated the Geneva Convention).
93. *Ibid.*, 613–16, 623–24.
94. Geneva Convention [III] Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War, art. 3, § 1(d), August 12, 1949, 6 U.S.T. 3316, 75 U.N.T.S. 1353.
95. *Hamdan*, 548 U.S. at 630–33. Four justices dissented, arguing that article 3 contradicted Common Article 3 because they argued that the Geneva Convention, not Common Article 3, provided the standard for treatment at trial, a judicial guarantee "recognized and respected by all." *Ibid.* at 633–34 (plurality opinion of Stevens, J.).
96. *Ibid.*, 595–613 (plurality opinion of Stevens, J.).
97. *Ibid.*, 593, n. 23.
98. *Ibid.* 635.
99. Third Geneva Convention, art. 3, § 1(c).
100. 18 U.S.C. § 2441.
101. Tim Golden, "The Ruling on Tribunals at Cuba Prison," *New York Times*, June 30, 2006 (quoting Judge Harris).

CHAPTER 9

1. "President Discusses Creation of Military Tribunals," *New York Times*, September 6, 2006.
2. *Ibid.*
3. Memorandum for John A. Rizzo, Acting Director, Office of Inspector General, from Steven G. Bradbury, Acting Assistant Attorney General, "The Detainee Treatment Act to Conditions of Detention Facilities," August 31, 2006; letter from Bradbury to Rizzo, August 31, 2006.
4. Executive Order 13440, "Interpretation of the Detainee Treatment Act of 2002 as Applied to a Program of Detention and Intelligence Agency," July 20, 2007; Joby Warrick, "The Ruling on Tribunals at Cuba Prison," *New York Times*, June 30, 2006.

November 22, 2005.

Murky View of 'Jihad' Case," *New York*

on Suspect Is Linked to Role of Qaeda Fig-

005).

Years in Prison," *New York Times*, January 22,

6). Chief Justice John G. Roberts did not par-
se he had served on the panel of the court of
was appointed to the Supreme Court.

cript of Oral Argument 57–58 (March 28,

at the commissions failed to satisfy UCMJ
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CHAPTER 12

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