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WRITTEN OBLIGATIONS FROM THE 2ND/8TH TO THE 4TH/10TH CENTURY*

MICHAEL H THUNG

University of Amsterdam

Abstract

In this article, based on recent research undertaken in the collection of Arabic papyri of the Austrian National Library in Vienna (Papyrus Erzherzog Rainer), I discuss four unpublished documents discovered in Egypt, all written obligations (*adhkār huqūq*) dating from the second half of the 2nd/8th century to the first half of the 4th/10th century. These documents provide important documentary evidence for early Islamic legal practice. By comparing the legal content of the documents with the contract formularies used by the Hanafī jurist al-Taḥāwī (d. 321/933) in his *Kitāb adhkār al-huqūq*, I investigate the relationship between theory and practice in Islamic Law.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF Arabic papyrology to our knowledge of the early history of Islamic law has been modest, but valuable.¹ Among the texts investigated within this discipline, legal documents—mostly private contracts—constitute a rare source of documentary evidence from the first three centuries of Islam whose authenticity is beyond dispute. Although these texts cannot answer the question of how and when Islamic law, as a legal system based on the Qur’ān and Prophetic traditions, came into existence, they do provide some idea of the manner in which Islamic law operated during that period in daily matters such as marriage, sale, debts and payments. Moreover, a comparison of papyri and literary sources, especially works on *shurūt*, sheds light on the relationship between legal theory and notarial practice.

To this end, I focus my attention here on one specific contract—the *dhikr haqq*, or written obligation.² During a recent visit to the collection

* An earlier version of this essay was presented at the Joseph Schacht Conference on the Theory and Practice of Islamic Law held in Leiden and Amsterdam, October 6-10 1994.

¹ This contribution is treated in greater detail in Gladys Frantz-Murphy, “Arabic Papyrology and Middle Eastern Studies,” *MESA Bulletin* 19:1 (1985), 34-48.

² On the question of whether *dhikr* or *dhukr* is the correct vocalization, see Rāgib, *Marchands d’étoffes du Fayyūm au IIIe/IXe siècle I* (Le Caire, 1982), 8. In using the English term *written obligation* for this type of contract, I follow

of Arabic papyri of the Austrian National Library of Vienna (Papyrus Erzherzog Rainer) I found new material on this subject, eight hitherto unpublished *adhkār huqūq* of Egyptian origin, four of which are presented here as a basis for discussion. In this essay, I concentrate on the legal content of these documents, leaving aside other interesting features.³

The *dhikr haqq* belongs to the oldest kind of Arabic deed that has been preserved, its earliest specimen being a document of the Louvre collection from the year 42/662-663, mentioned by Rāḡib.⁴ With the exception of one 4th/10th century document edited by Dietrich, all published examples of *adhkār huqūq* date from the 3th/9th century, the earliest one being from the year 231/845.⁵ Two of the four documents discussed here are datable to the 2nd/8th century, thus representing older examples of this type of contract.

The purpose of a *dhikr haqq* is to give written evidence to a legal claim (*haqq*) held by one of the contracting parties against the other. Since the nature of this claim, as well as its origin, may vary (an issue to which I shall return), the *dhikr haqq* provided a convenient instrument for different legal transactions. During the first three centuries of Islam its use must have been widespread in Egypt. Judging from the Arabic papyri found in the Vienna collection, the *dhikr haqq* is the most frequently attested legal document from this period. The Egyptian Hanafī jurist al-Ṭahāwī (d. 321/933) devoted a lengthy chapter to *adhkār huqūq* in his major work on *shurūṭ, al-Jāmi‘ al-kabīr fī l-shurūṭ*. This *Kitāb adhkār al-huqūq*, edited by Joseph Schacht in the 1920s, serves here as my main reference.⁶

Grohmann, *Arabic Papyri in the Egyptian Library II* (Cairo, 1936), 115-20

³ A complete edition of the texts will appear at a later date in a volume of Arabic legal texts from the collection of Arabic Papyri of the Austrian National Library.

⁴ Rāḡib, *Marchands I*, 8

⁵ Text editions of *adhkār huqūq* can be found in the following: Margoliouth, *Catalogue of Arabic Papyri in the John Rylands Library Manchester* (Manchester, 1933), no. X 10; Grohmann, *Arabic Papyri in the Egyptian Library I* (Cairo, 1934) no. 48; *ibid II* (Cairo, 1936) no. 101-03; Dietrich, *Arabische Papyri aus der Hamburger Staats- und Universitäts-Bibliothek* (Leipzig, 1937), no. 4; Grohmann, "Einige arabische Ostraka und ein Ehevertrag aus der Oase Bahriya," *Studi in onore di Aristide Calderini e Roberto Paribeni* (Milano, 1957), no. 2a-b; Grohmann, *Papiri della R Università di Milano I* (Milano, 1966), no. 2; Levi Della Vida, *Arabic Papyri in the University Museum in Philadelphia (Pennsylvania)* (Roma, 1981), no. 31; Rāḡib, *Marchands I*, nos. II-IX; Khoury, *Chrestomathie de papyrologie arabe* (Leiden, 1993), nos. 14, 28-30, 44.

⁶ J. Schacht, *Das Kitāb adhkār al-huqūq wa l-ruhūn aus dem al-ḡāmi‘ al-kabīr fī l-shurūṭ des abū Ḡāfar Ahmad ibn Muhammad aṭ-Ṭahāwī* (Heidelberg, 1927), hereinafter: al-Ṭahāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*

For a more detailed treatment of the *dhikr haqq*, we turn to the individual documents, to be discussed in chronological order.⁷ The first document is a written obligation relating to a debt of one dinar. Because the month Rabi' II of the year 173/789 is mentioned in the text as the term of redemption, the document is datable to either this or the previous year.⁸ The phrasing of the document follows the standard formula of *adhkār huqūq*. After the *basmala*, the document opens with "*dhikr haqq*", followed by the name of the creditor, in the present instance probably a Turkish client (*mawlā*) of a man called Ṭulayb b Abī Ṣā'im, with the name Tikish.⁹ Then follows, preceded by the preposition 'alā ("to the debit of"), the name of the debtor, a woman called 'Aqīla bt Yūsuf. In the next sentence, the debt is specified: "To her debit ('*alayhā*) is a dinar of standard weight (*dīnār qā'im*) because of the price of wheat she has bought from Tikish." According to al-Ṭahāwī, it is better to begin such a phrase with *lahu* '*alayhā* instead of '*alayhā*. He claims that the use of the shorter phrase is a practice that goes back to early legal authorities such as Abū Hanifah, Abū Yūsuf and Muḥammad al-Shaybānī, while the addition of *lahu* ("due to him") was an improvement introduced by the 3th/9th century jurist Abū Zayd Aḥmad b Zayd.¹⁰ Indeed, in earlier *adhkār huqūq* we find only '*alayhi*, while *lahu* '*alayhi* is common in documents beginning from the second half of the 3th/9th century,¹¹ which seems to corroborate al-Ṭahāwī's point.

As noted, the document mentions not only the claim but also its origin as a sale on credit. This is not done in all *adhkār huqūq*, and al-Ṭahāwī apparently does not consider it a legal necessity. In cases such as the one under consideration here, however, it was probably a common practice.¹² The document's next phrase (*wa-qad qabaḍati l-qamha wa-raḍiyat*) confirms the buyer's taking possession of the object.

⁷ The Arabic texts may be found in the Appendix.

⁸ This document is described in von Karabacek, *Papyrus Erzherzog Rainer, Führer durch die Ausstellung* (Wien 1894), no. 617, where, however, the author has misread the text at several points.

⁹ From the Turkish, *tégish*; see Clauson, *An Etymological Dictionary of Pre-Thirteenth-Century Turkish* (Oxford, 1972), 487.

¹⁰ Al-Ṭahāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 3ff. On Abū Zayd Aḥmad b Zayd, known as al-Shurūṭī, see Jeanette Wakin, *The Function of Documents in Islamic Law* (Albany, 1972), 19ff.

¹¹ The earliest example I have found is Rāgib, *Marchands I*, no. V, from the year 256/870.

¹² Al-Ṭahāwī writes, "*wa-in kāna'l-haqqu min thamani bay'in fa-aradta an tubayyina dhālika fī kitābika*," apparently leaving the choice to the notary (*Adhkār al-huqūq*, 7).

of sale and her satisfaction. Al-Ṭahāwī considers the reference to taking possession (*qabd*) to be a legal necessity. Suppose, he argues, someone says “I owe you 1000 dirhams as the price of a slave that you have sold to me,” but the buyer subsequently contends not to have received the slave, while the seller says that he did. In that case, according to Abū Yūsuf and Muḥammad al-Shaybānī, the buyer’s contention is valid because both parties agree that a sale was concluded and thus an obligation on the part of the seller to deliver the object of sale has been established. Abū Hanīfah, on the other hand, held the opposite view, based on the ground that the buyer has acknowledged his debt to the seller.¹³ Statements of satisfaction are often included in sale contracts.¹⁴ In sale contracts, satisfaction clauses tend to emphasize the satisfaction of the seller, thus securing the rights of the buyer, whereas in the present document the clause is obviously intended to favor the rights of the seller, i.e., the creditor of the *dhikr haqq*. In his treatment of *adhkār huqūq* arising from sales on credit, al-Ṭahāwī includes a number of additional clauses, all derived from the contract of sale.¹⁵

Next, the document mentions the date of payment (*mahill*), implying that the debt was deferred (*māl ilā ajal*), instead of being due (*hāll*), as we find in other *adhkār huqūq*. Then follows a clause for *hawāla* (cession) “Whoever presents himself with this written obligation, may demand what is mentioned therein and she [viz., the debtor] will acknowledge the right of anyone to whom he [viz., the creditor] may transfer his claim, if God is willing (*wa-man qāma bi-dhikri’l-haqqi qtaḍā bihi wa-man ahāla ‘alayhā aqarrat lahu in shā’a llāhu*)” Such clauses, stipulating the right of the creditor to act as *muhil* and transfer the claim to another person (*al-muhtāl*) who subsequently may demand payment of the debt from the debtor (*al-muhtāl ‘alayhi*), occur frequently in *adhkār huqūq*. The first part of the clause guarantees payment of the debt to every bearer of the deed, thereby enabling the creditor to transfer the claim merely by handing over the document. According to Grohmann,¹⁶ similar stipulations are found in Demotic deeds, and it may well be that we are dealing here with a continuation of a pre-Islamic practice. Interestingly, al-Ṭahāwī omits this part of the

¹³ Al-Ṭahāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 8

¹⁴ For satisfaction clauses in contracts of sale, see Wakin, *Documents*, 58 and Gladys Frantz-Murphy, “A Comparison of Arabic and Earlier Egyptian Contract Formularies, Part III,” *Journal of Near Eastern Studies* 47 (1988), 106ff

¹⁵ Al-Ṭahāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 7

¹⁶ Grohmann, *Egyptian Library I*, 116

clause in his formulary, where he discusses a similar stipulation that he deems weak (*ḍaʿīf*) because it would allow the deed to be utilized by someone who is not entitled to do so (*ihtamala an yaqūma bihi man lā yajibu lahu l-qiyāmu bihi*)¹⁷ The second part of the *hawāla* clause, containing the debtor's acknowledgement (*iqrār*) of his obligation to pay to the *muhtāl*, is considered by al-Ṭaḥāwī to be necessary because of the opinion of some scholars that the debtor is not obligated to agree to the *hawāla* except in cases in which the creditor obliges him to do so by means of a stipulation in the contract (*lā yajibu li'l-muqirri qabūlu l-hawālati ʿalayhi () illā an yakūna'l-muqarru lahu qadi shtarāṭa dhālika ʿalayhi*)¹⁸ It is worth mentioning that, according to Islamic law, the debtor can act as *muhil* as well if another person owes him the same amount of money as he owes his creditor, he can transfer this claim to the creditor (becoming the *muhtāl*) and be discharged of his debt. Of this right, however, no mention is made in *adhkār huqūq*.

The last part of the contract, containing the names of the witnesses, is lost. Only the word *shahida* and a part of the name of the first witness are legible. The handwriting indicates that the witnesses did not sign the contract themselves, but were merely mentioned by the notary.

The second document is a *dhikr haqq* from the year 178/795 relating to the delivery of wheat. The date of the contract is mentioned in a sentence, part of which has been lost, located above the actual text, which probably contained a declaration of the notary confirming his writing of the deed. The year is written in Greek numerals (ρσθ). The beginning of the contract follows the standard pattern: the *basmala*, followed by *dhikr haqq*, and then, in succession, the name of the claimant, a man called Saʿīd b. Zakariyā, and that of the person against whom the claim is made, ʿAbdallāh b. ʿAbd al-Raḥmān (the two names are connected by the preposition *ʿalā*). The claim follows: 167 *ardeb* of excellent hulled wheat (*qamh naṣil jayyid*) to be delivered at the end of the month Rabiʿ II of the next year in the town of al-Fayyūm. Although the origin of the claim is not specified, we surmise that it must have been a sale with advance payment for future delivery (*bayʿ salam*). The use of *adhkār huqūq* for this type of transaction must have been common, for it is attested in several documents, particularly in connection with the sale of agricultural products, but also in contracts between merchants and manufacturers.¹⁹ It is interesting that al-Ṭaḥāwī does not mention

¹⁷ Al-Ṭaḥāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 4

¹⁸ Al-Ṭaḥāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 5

¹⁹ Among the *adhkār huqūq* that I found in the Vienna collection, there is a similar contract concerning the delivery of wheat (PER A P 10047), another

this practice, restricting the use of *adhkār huqūq* to monetary debts For *salam* contracts he uses a different formulary, included in his *Kitāb al-buyūʿ*, where his treatment of *salam* gives us some idea about the divergence of legal opinion on this subject²⁰ Indeed, the notion of *salam* in Islamic law is problematic, as it contradicts certain rules governing the contract of sale²¹ We need not treat this matter here in detail to understand that it was probably the main reason why *salam* transactions are usually concluded by means of a *dhikr haqq* in which no mention is made of *salam*, thereby avoiding legal pitfalls²²

The date of delivery is followed by a *hawāla* clause, here consisting of only the first part of the clause discussed in our first document, i e , the stipulation that any bearer of the deed can demand payment from the creditor Although the last part of the contract, containing the witnesses' declarations, is partly lost, what remains suggests that at least three witnesses signed the contract and affirmed that their testimony was written by themselves (*wa-kataba shahādatahu bi-yadihi*) This makes this papyrus the earliest extant example of an Arabic contract containing an autograph declaration of witnesses Two other examples from the end of the second century are known a deed of lease mentioned by Khan from the year 180/796 and a fragmentary papyrus dated 195/811, edited by Grohmann²³ In older deeds the names of witnesses are mentioned by the notary only in a witnessing clause at the end of contract²⁴ The appearance of autograph declarations in contracts during the last quarter of the 2nd century may be related to the institution of professional witnesses (*'udūl*) which, according to al-Kindī, was introduced in Egypt by the qāḍī Ibn Fuḍāla in 174/790²⁵

The third document is a *dhikr haqq* from the end of the 3d/beginning of the 10th century (Dhū al-Hijjah 290/October-November 903) relating to a debt of two dinars, owed by a certain Yusr b Yaḥyā to a

concerning wheat and barley (PER A P 10046), and a third concerning flax (PER A P 1722) Rāḡib, *Marchands I*, published nine *adhkār huqūq* for the delivery of linen by manufacturers to cloth-merchants (nos II-IX)

²⁰ Al-Ṭaḥāwī, *Kitāb al-buyūʿ*, ed Jeanette Wakin (Albany, 1972), 193ff

²¹ For a systematic treatment of this subject, see Saleh, *Unlawful Gain and Legitimate Profit in Islamic Law* (Cambridge, 1986), 71ff

²² For a similar observation, see Rāḡib, *Marchands I*, 7

²³ Khan, *Bills, Letters and Deeds Arabic Papyri of the 7th to 11th Centuries* (The Nasser D Khalili Collection of Islamic Art, vol V, Oxford, 1993), 173; Grohmann, *Egyptian Library I*, no 51

²⁴ E g , Khan, *Bills, Letters and Deeds*, no 97; David-Weill, Cahen et al , "Papyrus Arabes du Louvre III," *Journal of the Economic and Social History of the Orient*, 21 (1978), 146-64, no 24; PER A P 726v

²⁵ See Khan, *Bills, Letters and Deeds*, 173

woman with an unfamiliar Arabic name, perhaps ‘Adīn (?) bt ‘Abdallāh. The first part of the contract, containing the *basma* and the name of the creditor, is lost (the creditor’s name is repeated subsequently in contract). After mentioning the name of the debtor, the text continues “He owes her (*lahā ‘alayhi*) two dinars [] to be paid immediately at any time she wishes to take them from him (*dīnār[ayni] mu’ajjalayni ayya waqtin shā’at akhadhathum minhu*)” The use of the term *mu’ajjal* to indicate immediate payment is unusual in *adhkār huqūq*, whereas it is frequently attested in marriage contracts, where it is used to denote the part of the nuptial gift paid before the marriage (*mu’ajjal al-ṣadāq*). In cases of debts that are outstanding, the term *hāll* is usually used, as by al-Ṭahāwī.²⁶ Statements confirming the right of the creditor to demand payment at any time he wishes are often connected with this.²⁷ In the present document, such a phrase occurs three times. After a clause stipulating the right of every bearer of the deed to demand payment (*wa-man qāma bi-hādha’l-haqqi ‘alā Yusr akhadhahu*) the document reiterates that “whenever ‘Adīn (?) bt ‘Abdallāh wishes, she can take these two dinars from Yusr b Yaḥyā.” Here, the phrase seems to be a needless repetition, the creditor apparently being at pains to assert her rights. In order to cash the debt, she has appointed the son of her maternal aunt (*ibn khālatihā*), Hudayd b al-Hasan, as her proxy (*wakīl*). The contract continues “Whenever Hudayd b al-Hasan wishes, he may take these two dinars from Yusr b Yaḥyā without delay or respite (*bi-lā mudāfa’atin wa-lā ṣabrin*), if not, he may increase the sum (*hattā yazīda Hudayd b al-Hasan dhālika*)” Although clauses against delay of payment are not unusual in *adhkār huqūq*, this clause goes a step further, since the threat of increasing the amount owed obviously is intended as a means of exerting pressure on the debtor. Moreover, if the creditor actually executed such a stipulation, he would be violating the Qur’ānic prohibition against usury (*ribā*). If my reading of the document is correct,²⁸ such a stipulation is remarkable because it clearly contradicts a Qur’ānic verse, which should have been sufficient grounds to invalidate the entire contract. The contract ends with a witnessing clause, followed by the declarations of four witnesses, three written in the same hand, which suggests that at least two of the witnesses were illiterate.

²⁶ Al-Ṭahāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 3.

²⁷ See Khoury, *Chrestomathie*, no. 29; PER A P 5211; a similar phrase is mentioned in al-Ṭahāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 16.

²⁸ The only other possibility is to read *yū’ida* instead of *yazīda*, which, in the present context, does not make much sense.

The fourth and last document is a *dhikr haqq* written on paper from the first half of the 4th/10th century (Sha‘bān 331/April-May 943) relating to a debt of eight dinars.²⁹ To the best of my knowledge, only one other *dhikr haqq* from this period has been published to date,³⁰ and these two documents constitute the latest examples of this type of contract. During the 4th/10th century, *adhkār huqūq* became obsolete and were replaced by *iqrār* documents, that is, a formal acknowledgment by the debtor at the beginning of the contract. As Khan has observed, the same development took place with regard to deeds of quittance (*barā’a*), probably because in both the *dhikr haqq* and the *barā’a*, the formulation of the deed refers to the document itself rather than to the legal act connected with it. This implies that the written document was a constitutive element, whereas in an *iqrār* the document functions as a declarative instrument, recording the fact that the acknowledgement has taken place, which is legally more secure.³¹

The present document, which is much longer than the preceding ones, conforms to the rules of *shurūṭ* and uses a sophisticated juridical language (many of its phrases are found in al-Ṭahāwī’s treatise). Some of these characteristics appear at the beginning of the document, where the contracting parties are mentioned not only by name and patronymic, but also by profession (the profession of the father of the female creditor is specified), place of residence and, in the case of the debtor, *nisba*.³² We learn that the creditor was a woman bearing a Coptic name (either Tūsāfah or Tūsāqah),³³ that she was the daughter of a tailor by the name of Papostolos,³⁴ and that she lived in the town of Ushmūn, and that the debtor was a man of Nubian origin by the name of Abū Hudayd al-Aṣfar b Abī’l-Aswad, that he too was a tailor, and that, although from al-Fuṣṭāt, he was living in Ushmūn at the time that the deed was formulated.

²⁹ This deed is also mentioned in von Karabacek, *Führer* (no 962), although his description is incorrect on several points.

³⁰ Dietrich, *Arabische Papyri*, no 4.

³¹ See Khan, *Bills, Letters and Deeds*, 174; Schacht, *An Introduction to Islamic Law* (Oxford, 1964), 151.

³² This was done in order to prevent confusion between people carrying the same names; see Tyan, *Le notariat et le régime de la preuve par écrit dans la pratique du droit musulman* (Lyon, 1945), 54; al-Ṭahāwī, *Kitāb al-buyū’*, 7ff.

³³ Abbott, *The Monasteries of the Fayyūm* (Chicago, 1937), 12 read a name with similar *rasm* as Tūsānah. If, as seems likely, we are dealing with the same name, her interpretation is wrong, for here the second last letter must be either *qāf* or *fā’*.

³⁴ Derived from the Greek name, Ἀπόστολος, to which the Coptic article has been added.

The debt—eight gold dinars of *mithqāl*-weight—is specified as *qīṭaʿ*, that is, the sum was to be paid in fractions of coins. Although the use of clippings in financial transactions was not admitted by legal doctrine, it must have been a common practice, for we find it mentioned in several other papyri.³⁵ The debt is said to be “a binding, valid obligation (*daynan thābitan lāziman lahu*), in his debt, from his money, during his life or after his death (*fi dhimmatihī wa-mālihi wa-mahyāhu wa-mamātihi*)” Similar phrases frequently are found in works on *shurūṭ*, and documentary evidence.³⁶ It is stipulated that the debt will be paid in monthly installments (*munajjama*) of a quarter dinar, a stipulation that resembles one used by al-Ṭahāwī.³⁷ Next there occurs a clause that often is used in both *adhkār huqūq* and *iqrār* documents, forbidding the debtor to delay payment or to raise any objections (*lā yudāfiʿu bi-dhālika wa-lā yahtajju bi-hujjatin min jamīʿi l-wujūhi waʿl-asbābi kullihā*)³⁸ The contract then states that this (*wa-dhālika*, meaning the obligation to pay the debt) is based on a binding obligatory legal claim (*bi-amri haqqin wājibin lāzimin*), known to the debtor (*ʿarafahu*) and incumbent upon him because of his *iqrār* made to the creditor (*walazimahu ʿl-iqrāru lahā*), thus insuring formal acknowledgement of the claim.³⁹ Another *iqrār* is made by the debtor confirming his solvency (*wa-aqarra annahu malīʿun walīyun bi-hādhihiʿl-danāniri* () *wa-aḍʿāfiḥā*) Although this clause is not mentioned by al-Ṭahāwī, we find it in later Shāfiʿī works on *shurūṭ*.⁴⁰ A final clause in the contract confirms that the debtor made his *iqrār* while sound of body and mind (*fi ṣiḥhati ʿaqlihi wa-badanihi*), being legally competent (*jawāzi amrihi*), acting of his own volition (*tāʿiʿun ghayru mukrahin*) and being known personally (*ʿalā maʿrifatihī bi-ʿaynihi*, meaning that he was physically recognizable), by name and by descent (*ismihi wa-nasabihi*)⁴¹ At the end of the contract, the date is specified, followed by the witnesses’ declarations

³⁵ See Grohmann, *Egyptian Library IV*, 226; David-Weill, “Papyrus Arabes du Louvre I,” *Journal of the Economic and Social History of the Orient*, 8(1965), 281; Wakin, *Documents*, 87

³⁶ E.g., al-Ṭahāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 3; Grohmann, *Egyptian Library I*, nos 65, 66, 68; *ibid II*, nos 98, 105-111; Dietrich, *Arabische Papyri*, no 4

³⁷ Al-Ṭahāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 13

³⁸ See Grohmann, *Egyptian Library II*, nos 99-103, 105-111; Khoury, *Chrestomathie*, nos 27, 33, 34; Dietrich, *Arabische Papyri*, no 4

³⁹ See al-Ṭahāwī, *Adhkār al-huqūq*, 6

⁴⁰ Al-Asyūṭī, *Jawāhir al-ʿuqūd wa-muʿīn al-qudāt waʿl-muwaqqiʿin waʿl-shuhūd*, 2 vols (Cairo, 1955), vol I, 27; al-Nuwayri, *Nihāyat al-ʿArab fi funūn al-adab*, 9 vols (Cairo 1933), vol IX, 11

⁴¹ See al-Ṭahāwī, *Kitāb al-buyūʿ*, 29; Wakin, *Documents*, 93ff

Some general observations can be made by way of conclusion. As is well-known, Islamic law does not regard written documents as legal evidence. For practical reasons, however, written documents were widely used in many legal transactions already in the first century of Islam. This practice gave rise to a special branch of legal science, the *'ilm al-shurūṭ*, which, by the end of the 3th/9th century, was fully developed as indicated by the works of al-Ṭaḥāwī. But already in documents emanating from the 2nd/8th century, we find formulae typical of *shurūṭ*, as in *adhkār huqūq*. It remains to be determined whether or not these early examples of *shurūṭ* should be considered as genuinely Islamic, or, rather, as a continuation of earlier practices, as may be the case with *hawāla* clauses. Some initial attempts to explore this question have been made by Hoenerbach and, more recently, by Frantz-Murphy, whose findings suggest that Arabic contract formulae are heavily influenced by Greco-Egyptian legal practice.⁴² Thus, Islamic jurists, such as al-Ṭaḥāwī and his predecessors, contributed to the process of adapting established legal conventions to the precepts of Islamic law, an ongoing process that is reflected in early legal documents. Conversely, some documents seem to have been written in a deliberate attempt to circumvent certain Islamic prescriptions, as in the case of *bay' salam*. The *dhikr haqq* proved to be a convenient instrument in this regard, because it specifies the claim without necessarily referring to its origin, and because its stipulations tend to be unilaterally in favor of the claimant, sometimes in violation of the letter of Islamic law.

⁴² Hoenerbach, "Some Notes on the Legal Language of Christian and Arabic Deeds," *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, 81 (1961), 34-38; Gladys Frantz-Murphy, "A Comparison of Arabic and Earlier Egyptian Contract Formularies, Part I-IV," *Journal of Near Eastern Studies*, 40:3 (1981), 203-25; 44:2 (1985), 99-114; 47:2 (1988), 105-12; 47:4 (1988), 269-80.

APPENDIX

Texts

1

PER A P 893

173 A H /789 A D

(١) بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم (٢) ذكرحق تكيش (٣) مولى طليب بن ابى صايم على عقيلـة] (٣) ابنت يوسف عليها دينر قايم من ثمن قمح [اشـترته من تكيش (٤) وقد قبضت القمح ورضيت ومحل الدينر] لـيال تمضى (٥) من شهر ربيع الآخر من سنة ثلث وسبعين ومايـة ومن قام بـذكر (٦) الحق اقتضا به ومن احال عليها اقرت/له ان شـا الله شـهد عبد الرحمن (٧)

2

PER A P 1682r

Dhū l-Qa'da 178 A H /January-February 795 A D

(١) [] في ذى القعدة سنة (٢) [بسم الله] الرحمن الرحيم (٣) [ذكر حق] سعيد بن زكريا على عبد الله بن عبد الرحمن (٤) عدـليه ما[ية اردب وستة وسبعين اردب (٥) [قمـ]ح نصيل جيد يوفيه ذلك بمدينة الفيوم في سلخ (٦) [زيـ]ح الآخر سنة تسع وسبعين وماية ومن قام (٧) [بذكر الحق اقتضاه] ان شا الله وقد قبض الثمن (٨) [] وكتب شهادته بيده (٩) [] وكتب شـهـادته بيده (١٠) [] وكتب شهادته بيده

3

PER A P 1102

Dhu l-Hijja 290 A H /October-November 903 A D

(١) [بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم] (٢) [ذكر حق عدلين (٣) ابنت] عبد [الله] على يسر بن يحيى له عليه دينار (٣) [ين] [] مال معجلين اى وقت شات اخذتهم منه ومن قام بهذا الحق (٤) [على] يسـر [اخذته متاشات عدلين (٥)] [بندـ]ت عبد الله اخذت هاذين الدينارين (٥) من يسر بن يحيى وقد وكلت بن خالتها حديد متا شا حديد بن الحس (٦) اخذ هاذين الدينارين من يسر بن يحيى بلا مدافعة ولا صبر حتا يزيد (٧) حديد بن الحس ذلك وذلك في شهر ذى الحجة من سنة تسعين ومايتين (٨) شهد عليهم بجميع ما في هذا الكتاب من اوله الى اخره وذلك في ذى الحجة (٩) وشهد على [على] اقرار يسر بهـ [بذـ] اذين الدينارين شهد احمد بن محمد القعدى (١٠) [بـ] في هذا الكتاب وكتب بخطه شهد سعيد بن ميمون الحبال بجميع (١١) ما في هذا الكتاب وذلك في ذى الحجة من سنة تسعين ومايتين (١٢) شهد غليس بن vacat الحبال بجميع ما في هذا الكتاب (١٣) شهد حسن بن ابى (٣) بجميع ما في هذا الكتاب وذلك في (١٤) شهر ذى الحجة من سنة تسعين ومايتين

(١) بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم (٢) ذكر حق توسافة (؟) ابنت ببسطلس الخياط الساكنة مدينة اسمون على المعروف بابى الحديد (٣) الأصفر النوبى بن ابى الاسود الخياط الفسطاطى ومسكنه يومئذ مدينة اسمون لها عليه (٤) ثمانية دنانير مئاقيل ذهباً قطع جياذ دينا ثابتا لازما له في ذمته وماله ومجياه ومماته منجمة لها (٥) عليه اثنين وثلاثين شهرا متو الية لكل شهر منها ربع دينار واول شهر يحل عليه فيه دفع اول ربع دينار (٦) سلخ الشهر المعروف ببشنس من شهور القبط من سنة احدى وثلاثين وثلاثمائة وفي سلخ كل شهر (٧) يلى هذا الشهر يدفع اليها ربع دينار حتى يوفىها هذه الثانية الدنانير المذكورة في هذا الكتاب لايدافع بذلك (٨) ولا يحتج عليها بحجة من جميع الوجوه والاسباب كلها وذلك بامر حق واجب لازم عرفه المعروف بابى الحديد (٩) [لاصفر النوبى بن ابى الاسودفاقر به لتوسافة (؟) ابنت ببسطلس ولزمه الاقرار لها واقر انه ملى (١٠) [و]لى بهذه الثانية الدنانير المذكور امرها ونجومها في هذا الكتاب واضعافها بمخاطبة منه اياها (١١) [على ذلك وكان اقراره بكل ما سمي ووصف في هذا الكتاب في صحة عقله وبدنه وجواز امره طابع غير (١٢) [مكره] على معرفته بعينه واسمه ونسبه وذلك في برموده وهو من شعبان من سنة احدى وثلاثين وثلاثمائة (١٣) [شهد] عبد الله بن محمد بن عبد العزيز على اقرار المعروف بابى الحديد الاصفر بن ابى الاسود الخياط الفسطاطى (١٤ - right) [] في شعبان من سنة احدى وثلاثين وثلاثمائة (١٤) - left) شهد ابرهيم بن خدر (؟) بن احمد بن رجا على اقرار المعروف (١٥ - left) بابى الحديد الاصفر [(١٥ - right) شهد [بن محمد بن بشر البصرى على اقرار (١٦)] []