# THE BABYLONIAN EXPEDITION 

OF

THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

## SERIES A: CUNEIFORM TEXTS

EDITED BY
H. V. Hilprecht

VOLUME $X \times$, PART I

BY
H. V. HILPRECHT
"ECKLEY BRINTON COXE, JUNIOR, FUND"

# MATHEMATICAL, METROLOGICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL TABLETS 

# Orinule 「(ifrarty nt Ripurr 

BY

H. V. HILPRECHT

Thirty Plates of Autograph Texts and Fifteen Plates of Photolype Illustrations

MacCalla \& Co. Inc., Printers
C. H. James, Lithographer
E. Mombius, Phototypes, Camden, N. J.

## Co the Memory

of

## Dís Vigbness

## Cbe Duke friedrich of Anbalt

Whose numerous acts of grace encouraged the author in bis explorations and cunciform researches
in
Reverence, Love and Gratitude

## PREFACE.

The cuneiform texts here published form a very small part of a large collection of' tablets and fragments once constituting the Temple Library of Nippur. In order not to allow of any doubt as to the real meaning of my words, I emphatically state once more, I do not mean the Temple Archive (on which cf. Vols. XIV, XV and other volumes to follow), or the Temple School (on which cf. Vol. XIX, Part 1, in press, and subsequent parts), or anything else but the Temple Library of Nippur. Enough of the crude and unsolicited advice received during the last two years in signed and unsigned American newspaper articles, journals, etc., as to what should constitute an Old-Babylonian temple library, and what I should call the epoch-making discoveries of the University of Pennsylvania's expeditions to Nippur. I must resent it the more, as I happen to be the only Assyriologist who (however hastily in many cases) has examined all the (more than 50,000 ) cuneiform inscriptions thus far excavated there, and who from its inception to the present day has been connected with this great scientific undertaking. What a Babylonian temple library looks like according to the facts furnished by the spade, and not according to more or less confused theories, I have attempted to set forth in Chapter I of Vol. XIX, Part 1 (in press) : "Model Texts and Exercises from the Temple School of Nippur.", This chapter was written to form part of the present book; but finding that the new mathematical and chronological tablets here edited required a fuller discussion than originally planned, I was obliged to reserve it for the next volume, in which the Temple:School and Temple Archive are treated in their relation to the Temple Library.

It is a very natural desire on the part of scholars to see published as early as possible what is left of the scientific and literary activity at the oldest and most renowned Babylonian sanctuary and seat of learning. At the same time, it is not my nor any one's fault that the various results of our excavations could not have been submitted more rapidly to Assyriologists. All the members of the Babylonian Section of the University of Pennsylvania are taxed to the utmost with constant work on the material to appear in our expedition series. At the best a cuneiform volume is no novel which may be written from day to day. Before the rather pleasant task of "book-making" can begin, the
numerous fragments preserved in two museums, separated by more than 5000 miles, must be cleaned, minutely examined, catalogued, divided into groups and subdivisions, and as far as possible joined to other pieces of the same tablet (often excavated at different times by different expeditions), ${ }^{1}$ that the scholar entrusted with the editing of a volume may receive his material properly prepared. This exceedingly difficult and fatiguing preliminary work has occupied the writer's best time during the past years, when both in Philadelphia and Constantinople he deciphered and catalogued cuneiform material found in the most lamentable condition, ${ }^{2}$ in order, first of all, to bring order into a perfect chaos of larger, smaller and smallest fragments of unbaked and mostly halfeffaced, crumbling, nitre-covered and otherwise damaged tablets generally written in Old-Babylonian characters.

On the whole, the tablets from the smaller temple library of the Cassite period are much better preserved-being sometimes even baked, cf. No. 20—than those from the time of the first dynasty of $I \sin$ (third millennium B.C.). The fragments published as Nos. $21-24,27,29,34-35,39$, are fair representatives of the average condition in which the remains of the older library have come down to us, while Nos. $32,33,36,37,41-43$, are far above the average condition.

Peculiar circumstances arose which made my task even more exasperating. Toward the end of May, 1900, the antiquities excavated by the fourth expedition and packed at Hilla under Haynes' personal supervision, were sealed and delivered to the representatives of the Ottoman Government at that place for shipment to Constantinople. The way around Arabia is long; numerous delays were unavoidable, and frequent transfers of the precious material necessary. The boxes were often exposed to the inclemencies of the weather and roughly handled by inexperienced native workmen. Their Excellencies Hamdy and Halil Bey (to whom again I express my warmest appreciation of their continued interest and loyal support of our work) did everything in their power to secure the early arrival of the antiquities at the Imperial Museum; but more than a year elapsed before they were landed at their place of destination.

In 1901 I went twice to Constantinople, personally unpacking, examining and repacking more than 20,000 inscribed tablets and fragments within four months. A large portion of the Temple Library was presented by His Majesty the Sultan to the writer for his past services in connection with the organization of the Imperial Ottoman Museum. It happened that large masses of antiquities from other excavations arrived in Constantinople that very year, while the magnificent third building of the Sultan's
${ }^{1}$ Cf. e.g., Pls. 17-19 and Pls. XI and XII, partly restored from C. B. M. 10, 990 (excavated by the second expedition) and C.B. M. 19,815 + 19,757 (excavated by the fourth expedition).
${ }^{2}$ Cf, my remarks in B. E., Series D, VoI. I, pp. 513 and 515 ; Vortrag, p. 55 ( ('Lecture,' 'p. 49)

Museum was still in course of construction. It was impossible to provide proper storage for all the boxes in the spacious cellars and vaults at the disposal of the authorities. Wooden sheds had to be erected in the courtyard of the museum, to give temporary shelter to whatsoever could not find a place behind stone walls. The fall and winter rains of 1901 to 1902 were extremely severe, and these sheds proved a very insufficient protection for our own antiquities. Thoroughly wet and partly rotting, the boxes given to the writer arrived in Philadelphia in the summer of 1902, when he was absent in Germany. ${ }^{1}$

Upon my return to Philadelphia, end of September, 1902, the antiquities received were presented to the Board of Trustees of the University of Pennsylvania and a series of public lectures delivered, in which for the first time a summary of the history and scientific results achieved by all the Babylonian expeditions of the University were submitted to the numerous friends and supporters of this great undertaking. At my earliest opportunity I also opened some of the boxes from Constantinople. They were still so wet that their contents of unbaked inscribed clay threatened to be lost to science forever. Energetic measures were necessary to save the broken remains of the Temple Library destroyed by the Elamites and 4000 years later brought to light again by so much personal sacrifice on the part of the Committee and the members of the expedition. Accordingly strict orders were given not to move or touch any of the tablet boxes (stored in a moderately heated large room of the museum), until the writer was satisfied that their contents had become hard enough to be handled with safety.

About two and a half months after my arrival I had to leave Philadelphia again (December 16, 1902) for Constantinople, where I spent over five months in 1903 (February and March; September to December) in cataloguing cuneiform texts and assisting in the arranging of antiquities for the opening of the new museum building. On December 24, 1903, I was back in Philadelphia, examining at once into the condition of the tablets left wet and soft in the previous year. Having convinced myself that the antiquities had been saved by the precaution taken, I commenced to catalogue the large number of tablets remaining from the previous expeditions; for until the present new archaeological museum of the University had been opened (end of 1899, when the writer was en route for Babylonia), there was no suitable place for cataloguing and storing the thousands of antiquities already obtained, after the limited space temporarily assigned to the Babylonian section in the Library building had been used. Many of the boxes then in our possession could not be opened at all ; others, after a hasty examination of their contents, were repacked and stored with the rest in the cellar of the Library building.

[^0]About 6000-7000 tablets and fragments have been catalogued by the writer in Philadelphia since January, 1904; several other thousands of cuneiform texts in Constantinople during the same time. My impatient critics must not forget that, with all the well-known energy and enthusiasm displayed by the authorities of the British Museum, Sir Henry Rawlinson and his intelligent and hard-working assistants, nearly fifty years elapsed before Assyriologists could obtain a tolerably accurate idea of the contents of the beautifully inscribed baked fragments of the infinitely better preserved Library of Ashurbânapal. I plead for only ten years for my associates and myself to demonstrate the rich contents of the badly preserved fragments of the Temple Library of Nippur. Apart from the mathematical, metrological and chronological specimens submitted in the following pages and the first part on the Temple School, already in press, four more volumes on hymns and other religious Sumerian texts, syllabaries and lexicographical tablets, and the official correspondence between the Temple officers and the Babylonian kings are already in the course of preparation; to say nothing of four other volumes on dated documents, including the series on the Temple Archive recently successfully opened by Prof. Clay.

The writer is only human and cannot do more than devote his entire life and the strength left to him (after eighteen years of continuous hard work and frequent deprivations of the ordinary comforts of life in behalf of a scientific undertaking) to the resurrection of ancient Nippur. The power of every man has its limits set by nature, even when he is ably supported, as the editor finally is, by half a dozen of enthusiastic pupils and associates in the great work of deciphering and publishing the results of the University of Pennsylvania's Babylonian expeditions.

Many questions, which came up in connection with the study of the texts here submitted, could only be touched upon, if the introduction was to be confined to its proper limits. The writer, therefore, has excluded a discussion of the real meaning of a class of tablets represented by Nos. 20, 24, 37 of his autograph plates and by Plates IV, V, XIII and XIV of the phototype illustrations, for which he refers to the Introduction of Vol. XIX. For the present it may suffice to state that they are text-books prepared by the teachers in the classroom and afterwards deposited in the Temple Library. They afford us a welcome glimpse of one of the ways in which scientific and literary works of Babylonian temple libraries were supplemented and increased. Specimens of this kind are known to me from Nuffar, Jôkha ${ }^{1}$ and Abû Habba. ${ }^{2}$. On the Obverse of Nos. 20, 24, 37 (cf. Pls. IV and XIII) the priest in charge of the class wrote the left column with his own hand as a model for the pupil, who copied the text in the right

[^1]column. When the exercise was satisfactory, the teacher removed the pupil's writing by scraping the upper layer of clay off the right column. Frequently, however, before destroying the pupil's exercise, the teacher turned the tablet over and inscribed the Reverse with a similar or an entirely different text, sometimes writing his model twice or three times, after the manner of our own Schulvorschriften. On some of the tablets examined the right column has been inscribed and scraped off so frequently that it is considerably thinner than the left column. There are even specimens where the right column has been cut off entirely. ${ }^{1}$ In other cases the pupil's exercise has been removed so superficially that, like a Greek palimpsest, the traces left aid in deciphering the contents of the preserved but frequently damaged left column. Through a fortunate acciden ${ }^{t}$ the pupil's awkward attempts are almost entirely preserved on the fragmentary Obverse of No. 20 (cf. also Pl. IV of the phototype reproductions).

If the teacher was young and inexperienced or careless, his writings were as little free from mistakes as the books of modern "professors," or as many legal documents of ancient Babylonia, where, if anywhere, we should expect a careful wording and writing. I lay stress upon this fact, as it has become rather fashionable in certain quarters to regard everything as a school exercise, due to an unmistakable tendency to measure Babylonian cuneiform works with another standard than the "literary" and "scientific" productions of to-day. As illustrated also by Vol. XIX, there are, of course, a limited number of school exercises, which have come down to us, more by accident than with the purpose of their preservation. At the same time it should be kept in mind that, as a rule, in ancient Babylonia such exercises were destroyed immediately after they had been written. This is amply testified by the very numerous scraps of inscribed clay tablets intentionally pressed out of shape, which we gathered from the floor of the Temple School at Nippur.

In this first publication on the Temple Library of Nippur, it was the intention of the writer to give Assyriologists as objective an insight as possible into the real condition of the material at his disposal and the manner in which the texts here submitted are inscribed and arranged on the originals. He, therefore, has copied even inscriptions, like the Obverse of Nos. 23 (cf. Pls. VIII and VI), 24, 37, the Reverse of No. 38, the texts given as Nos. 44, 45, 46 and Pl. XIII, which with the same right could be classified as syllabaries and lexicographical tablets. For a proper discussion of this kind of cuneiform texts the reader is referred to Vol. XXI, which is in the course of preparation, and to Chapter V of the present volume (" Description of Tablets and Ruins," pp. 61ff.). A few observations may be added to elucidate some of these inscriptions.

[^2]No．24，Obverse，contains Sumerian and Assyrian synonyms for＂food．＂The left column gives the sign $P A D$ with its Sumerian values to the left of it，the right column offers the corresponding Semitic words：ku－ru－ma－tum（well known），ka－sa－pu－u，${ }^{1} p u-u z-$ $z u-z u,{ }^{2}$＂something crushed＂or＂ground，＂i．e．，＂flour，＂＂meal＂or＂pap，＂sa－al－tum，${ }^{3}$ ＂something baked，＂＂broiled，＂＂fried＂or＂roasted，＂the last three words being known only from this little Nippur text．

The Obverse of No． 37 is a Sumerian syllabary，containing some values of the signs $K U L\left(=l u-u l\right.$ and $\left.n u-m u-u n^{4}\right), L A\left(=l a-a\right.$ and $\left.s h i-k a^{5}\right), S I\left(=s i-i\right.$ and $\left.s h i-i^{6}\right), S I-g u n \hat{u}$ （＝sú［cf．Sa 24］－u），UM（二u－um），TUB（二 tu－ub）．

Pl．VI（ef．No．23，Obverse，and Pl．VIII）contains Sumerian and Assyrian synonyms for＂evil doer，＂＂enemy，＂etc．The left column gives the ideographic writings preceded by the determinative amelu，the right column the corresponding Assyrian words－a fragment of the greatest importance for the Assyrian dictionaries．As an autograph copy of this text will be found in another volume，I confine myself to the right column．Li． $1:$ si－e－rum（ $=$ sêrum $=$ serrum $=$ sarrum，＂oppressor，＂on which cf．the dictionaries）．Li．2：shá li－ib－ba－shu si－ru［三sirru，form fill］ut－pa－ash－shá ${ }^{7}$ （＂he who in his heart contrives enmity＂）．Li． $3:$ na－an－si－rum（ $=$ nassirum $=$ nassarum， ＂the lurker＂［change of＂$a$＂into＂$e$ ，＂resp．＂$i$＂before＂$r$ ，＂form $f a$＂$a l$ ］from naṣâru $\mathrm{II}^{8}$ ）．Li．4：ra－aq－qu＝râqu，＂loafer，＂＂frivolous，＂＂good－for－nothing fellow＂（corresponding to $N E-R U=$ erim in the left column，i．e．，the ideogram generally

[^3]explained by raggu," " bad, evil," from which raqqu = râqu is to be separated). Li. 5: $a i^{2}$-bu-um, "enemy." Li. 6: la-si-mu-um, " runner," "Landstreicher," or $=l a \hat{+}+\hat{a} s i m u m$, "indecent," "worthless "? Li. 7 : sha- $\alpha-n u-\bar{u}=$ Hebr. "iוֹנ, " hater," "enemy." Li. 8: ga-pir(shir?) ${ }^{4}$ bi-ir-ki, "strong of knee," ${ }^{\text {, }}$ i.e., " pursuer" or "fugitive" "(?). Lines 9-11: mutilated (li. $10:$ ending in . . nu-um). Li. 12: ra $[-a s h]-s h u-\hat{u}$, " the formidable one." Li. 13 : na-'-du, " the terrible one." Li. 14 : ug-gu-qu (evidently different from uggugu, " enraged," and uqququ, "dumb," " mute)."

While preparing this volume, I was repeatedly absent from my library in consequence of unavoidable visits to Constantinople. This compelled me to rely frequently upon the friendly assistance of European colleagues. With warm gratitude I acknowledge the help received from Messrs. Heuzey, Hommel, King, Kugler, Martin, Scheil, Thureau-Dangin and Zimmern, who not only provided me with duplicate copies of important contributions made by them to Assyriology, but at all times most generously placed their time at my disposal for the purpose of examining cuneiform passages temporarily not accessible to me or comparing references required in connection with my researches. To Dr. Budge and Dr. King, of London, I am under special obligation for their liberality in making certain unpublished material of the British Museum accessible to me, and for doing all in their power to render my brief stay in England as pleasant and profitable as possible.
${ }^{1}$ Cf. $H U L$-GIG, in li. 1 explained by sêrum $=$ serrum, from şarâru (7) צ), while V R. 25, 3a, b it is used for the
 employed" (cf. Johns, "Assyrian Doomsday Book," p. 59, and Muss-Arnolt, "A Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language," p. 981), or "loafing," "frivolous," "good-for-nothing" (cf. II Samuel 6, 20), as in the passage above. As to raggu cf. Jensen in Schrader's $K . B$., Vol. VI, p. 380.
${ }^{2}$ Through disregarding the historical development of Assyrian grammar, Ranke ( $B . E$., Series D, Vol. III, p. 197, note 2) and others (cf. Delitzsch, Assyrische Grammatik, second edition, \$§ 20ff.) have recently endeavored to assign to the sign group $a-a(=a i)$ values which they never have in Assyrian. dAi, Ailatum (called a "Spielerei" by Ranke!), Airu, aibu, dainu, tairu, ete., are perfectly correct Assyrian forms, historically arisen through syncope of the second $a$ or $a$ (cf. Delitzsch, l.c., §45) and vocalizing of " $j$," from the older forms dAja, Ajalatum, Ajjaru (which became N in Hebrew), $a j a b u$, dajanu, tajaru, etc. It goes without saying that the earlier and the later forms may occur dialectically side by side, together with a third form arisen by dropping the first consonant and vowel, if $\boldsymbol{\kappa}$, cf. $a j a b u$ and $a u b u$ alongside of $j a b u$, "enemy"'; ajaumma and aiumma, "anybody," alongside of the shortened ja-um-ma, etc.
${ }^{3}$ Cf. Weissbach, Babyl. Miscellen, p.29, li. 19, and Meissner, Supplem. zu den Assyr. Wörtenbüchern, p. 54.
${ }^{4}$ The sign in question seems to be identical with an unidentified sign frequently occurring in early Babylonian personal names (cf. Ranke, B. E., Series D, Vol. III, pp. 235f., note 9, and Series A, Vol. VI, Part 1, "List of Signs," No. 99), which probably had the meaning bîru or bûru, "child" (Delitzsch, Assyrisches Handwörterbuch, p. 169), and the syllabic values bir, pir or (resp. and) bur, pur.
${ }^{5}$ Cf. V R. 65, 341: sha lá innubû birkâshun, etc.
${ }^{\text {B }}$ Left column: SHA-TUK. Cf. râsh $\hat{u}(T U K)="$ creditor," and rushsh $\hat{a}$, Delitzsch, A ssyrisches Handwörterbuch, pp. 627 f .
${ }^{7}$ Cf. Jensen in Schrader's K. B., Vol. VI, pp. 8 f., li. 38 and p. 315.

The character of the tablets here treated and the difficulty of the Greek text in which the famous number of Plato appears (cf. Chapter II, pp. 29-34, below) made it necessary for me to appeal to my friends and colleagues in the University of Pennsylvania. For the chemical and microscopical analysis of the clay of certain tablets Vice-Provost Dr. Edgar F. Smith and Prof. Dr. Amos P. Brown deserve my heartiest thanks ; while Prof. Dr. E. S. Crawley was always ready to lend a hand in solving mathematical problems, and Prof. Dr. W. A. Lamberton spent an entire evening, not easily forgotten, with the writer expounding the meaning of technical terms in Plato's writings and enabling him to profit otherwise from his profound knowledge of Greek language and literature.

With a view of relieving the Publication Committee of additional expense, a Philadelphia lady, who in other ways has manifested a deep interest in the Babylonian Section of the University of Pennsylvania, has enabled the writer to procure the handsome phototype illustrations found at the end of this volume, which he feels sure will be appreciated by the specialist, and for which he himself is truly grateful. The Editor desires also to express his warm appreciation to Mr. H. C. Mercer, of Doylestown, Pa., for his many successful efforts in baking cuneiform tablets of our Babylonian collections in his kiln and thus helping to preserve them, and to Dr. Talcott Williams, member of the Board of Managers of the University Museum, who for twenty years has taken a cordial interest in our Babylonian researches.

With lasting gratitude I remember the loyal support received for so many years from Mr. Eckley Brinton Coxe, Jr., Vice-President of the Department of Archaeology, unwavering as a man and as a friend, who not only continued generously to provide the means for the publication of the expedition work, but together with Provost Dr. C. C. Harrison, Mr. Samuel F. Houston, President of the University Museum, and Mr. J. Levering Jones-all members of the Publication Committee-and many other members of the University, believed in the writer's science, protecting his honor, and comforting and encouraging him in the darkest hours of his life.

H. V. Hilprecht.

# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS. 


J. A. O.S...................................."Journal of the American Oriental Society," edited by E. Washburn Hopkins and
Charles C. Torrey.

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## I.

## ON THE AGE OF BABYLONIAN LITERATURE.

According to Berosus, a Babylonian priest who lived some time between 330 and 250 B.C., the origin of all human knowledge goes back to divine revelation in primeval times. "In the first year there made its appearance from a part of the Erythraean sea which bordered upon Babylonia a living being endowed with reason, ${ }^{1}$ who was called Oannes. ${ }^{2}$ According to this tradition, confirmed by Apollodorus, the whole body of this creature was like that of a fish, and it had under a fish's head another (or 'a human') ${ }^{3}$ head, and feet similar to those of a man but subjoined to the fish's tail, and it also had a human voice; and a representation of him is preserved even to this day. This being, it is said, in the daytime used to converse with men, without however taking any food; he instructed men in the knowledge of writing, of sciences and every kind of art; he taught them how to settle towns, to construct temples, to introduce laws and to apply the principles of geometrical knowledge; ${ }^{4}$ he showed them how to sow and how to gather fruit; in short, he instructed men in everything pertaining to the culture of life. From that time [so universal were his instructions] nothing else has been added by way of improvement. But when the sun set, this being Oannes used to plunge again into the sea and abide all night in the deep; for he was amphibious." ${ }^{5}$

[^4]1

Berosus' statements with regard to the mythology and history of his own people have been so amply confirmed by cuneiform documents, ${ }^{1}$ that at the outset we may assume with safety, there was a general Babylonian tradition, according to which the beginnings of agriculture and architecture, religion and legislation, writing and reading, mathematics and astronomy and other sciences, and of the various handicrafts and arts practiced by the inhabitants of lower Mesopotamia were lost in the remotest antiquity. The general correctness of this view of the extraordinary age of Babylonian civilization has for some time been inferred from the remarkable discoveries made in the deepest strata of Nuffar, Tellô, Fâra, Bismâya, and Abû Habba, which at a moderate estimate lead us back into the third and fourth pre-Christian millenniums. In studying those early remains of Babylonian art and literature, certain natural conclusions and comparisons with well-established facts force themselves inevitably upon us. We know for certain that the comparatively high state of civilization revealed by such monuments as, e.g., the pre-Sargonic arches, wells and drains, ${ }^{2}$ the stele of victory commonly known as "the stele of vultures," erected by Eannatum, ${ }^{3}$ the still older bas-relief representing, the solemn meeting of two great chiefs and their retinues of warriors, ${ }^{4}$ the remarkable heads of bulls and goats in copper with inlaid eyes from the time of Ur-Nina, ${ }^{5}$ the silver vase of Entemena ${ }^{6}$ and the numerous inscriptions of that early period-even preceded by those archaic tablets on which writing in part is still pictorial"-cannot have sprung into
${ }^{1}$ Cf. on this whole question Zimmern's recent observations in Schrader's K. A. T. ${ }^{3}$, pp, 490, 530f., 543ff.
${ }^{2}$ As to the ruins of Nuffar cf. Peters, "The Nippur Arch," in "The American Journal of Archaeology," Vol. X, pp. 368ff.; Hilprecht; B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Pl. XXVIII, and pp. 25f.; aiso Series D. Vol. I, pp. 396ff., 542ff.; Vortrag, pp. 64ff. (= "Lecture," pp. 54ff.). Concerning similar discoveries made at Tellô cf. De Sarzec-Heuzey, Découvertes, Pl. $57 b i \mathrm{~s}$, No. 1, and Pl. 57, No. 2; Une Ville Roynle Chaldéenne, pp. 69ff.; at Fâra cf. Hilprecht, B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 539, Koldewey in Mitteilungen, No. 15, p. 10, Andrae in Mitteilungen, No. 17, pp. 8ff., Banks, 'Report,'" pp. 23f.; at Bismâya cf. Banks, ''Report,'' pp. 16, 27.
${ }^{s}$ Cf. De Sarzec-Heuzey, Découvertes, Pls. $3,3 h i s, 4,4 b i s, 4 t e r$, and for the literature concerning this monument of. Heuzey, Catalogue, p. 117.
${ }^{4}$ Cf. De Sarzec-Heuzey, Découvertes, Pl. 1bis, No. 2; 1ter, Nos. $1 a$ and 1b, and also Heuzey, Catalogue, pp. 86-9. To the same period belongs the limestone fragment from Nippur published by Hilprecht, B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 487.
${ }^{5}$ Cf. De Sarzec-Heuzey, Décowvertes, Pl. 5ter, Nos. $2 a$ and $2 b$, and also Heuzey, Catalogue, pp. 318-321; Helm and Hilprecht in Verhandlungen der Berliner anthropologischen Gesellschaft, February 16, 1901, pp. 162ff.; Hilprecht, B. E., Series D, Vol. I, pp. 539 f .
${ }^{8}$ Cf. De Surzec-Heuzey, Découvertes, Pls. 43 and $43 b i s$, and as to the literature referring to it cf. Heuzey, Catalogue, p. 380 .
${ }^{7}$ A. The two monuments Blau (now in the British Museum, London, where they are labeled as forgeries-a view which the writer after a recent personal inspection of the originals cannot share), published by Ward in the "Proceedings of the American Oriental Society,' 'October, 1885, p. LVII, and in J. A. O. S., First Series, IV (1888), Pls. IV and V, and repubished and translated by Barton in J. A. O. S., Vol. XXII, pp. 118ff., and collated by the same scholar in J.A.O.S., Vol. XXIV, pp. 388f. B. The stone tablet from Jôkha, published by Scheil in Mémoires de la Délégaiion en Perse, Vol. II, pp. 129f. (cf. Vol. VI, p.61, note 1), and in Recueil, Vol. XXII, pp. 149ff., and republished and translated by Barton in J. A. O. S., Vol. XXII, pp. 126ff. C. A similar tablet of the E. A. Hoffman Collection in New York,
existence like a deus ex machina, but must have been the result of a gradual development of many years. ${ }^{1}$

On the basis of this and other arguments drawn also from a certain Semitic influence and the evident decay of the Sumerian language, noticeable even in the earliest inscriptions at our disposal, and with due regard to the enormous accumulation of débris below the ancient arch of Nippur, I had, some time ago, reached the general conclusion that the first settlements of this city cannot have been later than c. 7000 or 6000 B.C. ${ }^{2}$ My discussion of the new chronological fragment published on Pl. 30 (cf. Chapter IV) will furnish material to show that the Babylonians had facilities to follow their political history far beyond the time of Sargon I and Narâm-Sin (c. 2700 B.C., cf. Chapter IV, below), by means of ancient lists containing the names and reigns of at least as many pre-UrEnguric rulers as we know to have lived from Ur-Engur (c. some time between 2500 and 2300 B.C.) to the fall of Babylon (539 B.C.). In other words, at a moderate estimate, the Babylonian scholars of the later period were able to trace the history of their country chronologically as far back as the fourth millennium before our era. ${ }^{3}$

This does not need to surprise us, considering the startling but well-founded results obtained by Hommel and Winckler through their examination of the names of certain Babylonian months. As early as 1891, Hommel had drawn the conclusion from the designation of Tammuz and Elul, as the month of sowing and the month when the grain is in the ear, that these two months must have fallen much earlier than in historical times, when they correspond to our June-July and August-September respectively. He wrote as follows :" "Ja einige derselben [scil. der Monatsnamen] müssen sogar als Ueberbleibsel einer noch früheren Zeit [cf. his Aufsätze und Abhandlungen, pp. 355 and 459] bezeichnet werden. Denn wenn der sumerische Name des vierten, bezw. vor 2500 v. Chr. dritten, Monats den Namen "Aussaat," der sechste (bezw. fünfte) aber "Aehre der Göttin Istar," was auf die Ernte und das Dreschen weist, heisst, so passt hier den Landesverhältnissen nach weder der Juli (bezw. Juni) fürs erstere, noch der September bezw. August
on which cf. Radau, "Early Babylonian History," p.12, note 1, and p. 321; Barton, "A Sketch of Semitic Origins," p. 213, note 5; "American Journal of Archaeology," Vol. VI, pp. 35f.; J. A. O. S., Vol. XX1II, pp. 21ff. The text of this tablet was published by Ellen Seton Ogden in J.A.O.S., Vol. XXIII, pp. 19f. D. An unpublished stone tablet of the Babylonian Museum of the University of Pennsyivania, to appear in Hilprecht, B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 3.
${ }^{1}$ Of. my remarks in B. E., Series D, Vol. I, pp. 251ff.; Vorirag, pp. 62ff. ( $=$ "Lecture," pp. 54ff.), and Wincklex in Schrader's K. A. T. ${ }^{3}$, p. 9.
${ }^{2}$ (f. Hilprecht, B. E., Series A, Vol. I, p. 24 (cf. Series D, Vol. I, p. 254), and Vortrag, pp. 67f. ( $=$ "Lecture," p. 57); also Peters in "The American Journal of Archaeology," Vol. X, pp. 45f.; King, "Babylonian Religion and Mythology,''p. 2; and recently Ginzel, Handbuch der Mathem. und Techn. Chronologie, pp. 107 and 113.
${ }^{3}$ It will be wise to keep these facts in mind when examining into the value of certain ancient dates furnished by Nabonidos, which Winckler continues to regard as entirely without value. Cf, his A. F., Zweite Reihe (XIII), p. 369 and Schrader's K. A. T. ${ }^{3}$, pp. 17f. For my present attitude towards this chronological question, cf. Chapter TV, below
${ }^{4}$ In $A$ usland 1893, Nos. 13 and 14 (literally reproduced in his Aufsätze und Abhandlungen, pp. 350-433),
fürs zweite. Die Sonne muss mindestens noch zu Frühlingsanfang im Zeichen des Krebses oder gar des Löwen gestanden haben, wenn die alten Namen für den Tammuz und Elul irgend welchen Sinn haben sollen; damit sind wir aber im 7. oder gar 8. vorchristlichen Jahrtausend; denn nach Littrow nahm die Mitte des Krebses im Jahre 67ro v. Chr. den Frühlingspunct ein." ${ }^{1}$

Winckler arrived at similar results in his discussion of the significance of IV $R .^{2} 33$ (a list of the Babylonian months, with the corresponding gods placed alongside). Some of his more important sentences may be reproduced here literally:" " Die Monatsliste zeigt deutlich, dass die Verteilung der Monate an die einzelnen Götter eine Zeit voraussetzt, wo das.Jahr im Sivan begann, d. h. wo die Sonne in den Zwillingen aufging, also zwischen 5700 und 2500." . . . "Die Monate Nisan und Airu sind also erst später vom Ende des Jahres an die Spitze gesetzt worden, als man den Ausgleich mit dem Weiterrücken der Sonne in Stier und Widder vornahm." . . . "Wenn die Aussaat in den Februar [= Tammuz] und die Ernte in Mai-Juni [三Elul] fällt, so führt das auf einen Frühlingsanfang im Zeichen des Krebses oder sogar des Löwen, also vor 7000, denn um 6770 v. Chr. stand die Sonne in der Mitte des Krebses." . . . "Der Monat Sins, der Sivan, wird also hier [Sargon Cyl. 57-60] als der Monat des Jahresanfangs, des Frühjahrsaequinoctiums, behandelt, wie es im 7. Jahrtausend der Fall war. Die Mythologie und Weissagekunst rechnet demnach noch mit den damaligen Bedeutungen der Monate und nicht mit denen ihrer Zeit."
"Jas Gleiche gilt von der sich sogleich an die obige anschliessenden Bezeichnung des Monats Ab, als arah arad Gibil, der Monat des Herabsteigens des Gibil (Feuergott), denn dieser steigt belanntlich 50 Tage nach dem Frühjahrsfeste, nach dem Wiedererstehen der Frühjahrssonne (Marduk-Tammuz) herab. Also auch hier entspricht die mythologische Bedeutung des $A b$ den Verhältnissen des 7. Jahrtausends."

Winckler, in adducing new proof that Babylonian mythology rests largely upon astronomy, shows at the same time that the period reflected by many of the calendar myths is the time between the sixth and the fourth pre-Christian millenniums, and that, moreover, this period in which the Semitic Babylonian civilization grew and developed, gradually superseding the Sumerian and everywhere influenced by the latter, was the fundamental period for the entire following civilization generally designated as Babylonian. In later times the ancient learning was regarded as the true one. ${ }^{3}$ The art of soothsaying and divination, according to a cuneiform inscription, originated with Enme-Duranki,

[^5]the seventh mythical king of Berosus (Evedoranchos); in fact, science in general went back to antediluvian times, when "the ancient sages". (abkallê labirûti sha lam abûbi) lived and committed their sayings to writing. ${ }^{2}$

Our knowledge of Babylonian science and literature, however, has thus far been derived chiefly from the library of Ashurbânapal (668-626 B.C.), ${ }^{3}$ which, according to the colophons often found on the tablets; consisted largely of copies of Babylonian originals preserved in the cities of Akkad, Babylon, Cuthah and Nippur. ${ }^{4}$ But it was generally maintained by Assyriologists that many of the scientific and literary texts from the Kuyunjuk collections were not for the first time fixed in writing in the seventh century before Christ, but existed in some form or other at a considerably earlier period. This view rested principally on internal evidence and was the result of a critical examination of the writing, language and contents of the tablets. It will be sufficient for my purpose to quote a few examples from a constantly growing number. Compare, e.g., the fragmentary lists of archaic signs and picture characters (to many of which the Assyrian scribe added the later cuneiform equivalent) published by Houghton in "Transactions of the Society of Biblical Archaeology," Vol. VI, pp. 454ff., and King in "Cuneiform Texts," Vol. V (cf. also Bezold, "Catalogue"). Or the hymn of thanksgiving by Nebuchadrezzar I (towards the end of the twelfth century), known from $K 2660, K 3444$, D.T. $71,{ }^{5}$ and the same king's song of lamentation preserved through $K 3426 .{ }^{6}$ Or the two fragments of royal letters, $K 3045$ and $K 2641$, which from their mentioning of earlier Babylonian and Assyrian kings and the use of the characteristic OldBabylonian letter-formula were shown to be copies of originals written some time in the second pre-Christian millennium. ${ }^{7}$ Or the inscription of the Cassite king (Agum)Kakrime (c. 1600 B.C.) known only from a copy of the royal library in Nineve. ${ }^{8}$ Or

[^6]the collections of laws written on $K 4223, R m .277$, and other tablets, ${ }^{1}$ and the numerous fragments of the granmmatico-legal series called ana ittishu, which on account of certain peculiar spellings and the occurrence of words, phrases, measures, etc., characteristic of the Old-Babylonian contracts, points to the third millennium before Christ as the probable time of its compilation. ${ }^{2}$ Or, the legend of Sargon of Agade (K3401 $+S m$. 2118, $K 4470$ ), ${ }^{3}$ who is said to have lived about 3000 years before Ashurbânapal, or the tablet of omens referring to the same Sargon and his son Narâm-Sin and evidently containing historical facts based upon ancient lists of dates. ${ }^{4}$ Or the legends of Hammurabi, Libit-Ishtar of Isin, Dungi of Ur, Narâm-Sin and other early kings puklished by King in "Cuneiform Texts," Vol. XIII, Pls. 44-47, 49-50.5 Compare also $K 8805+10,238+10,888$ and $K 11,596$ with Johns in "American Journal of Semitic Languages," Vol. XVIII, No. 3 ("A new patêsi of Ashur"), and Bezold's remarks in Z.A., Vol. XVI, p. 417 f .

In quite a number of cases the internal evidence could be supported by subsequent discoveries and excavations. Thus, e.g., the legend of Adapa, known from $K 8214$ and a few other fragments, ${ }^{6}$ was shown to have found its way even into Egypt as early as c. 1400 B.C., through Berlin, V.A., Th. 348, edited by Winckler and Abel, Thontafelfund von El-Amarna, p. 166, a and b. The legend of Etana (cf. especially $K 2606$ and $K 8563$ ) was committed to writing (in part even literally identical with the later version) at least at the time of Hammurabi (cf. the fragment published by Scheil in Recueil, Vol. XXIII, No. LV of his Notes d'épigraphie et d'archéologie assyriennes). ${ }^{7}$ Portions of the Gilgamesh epics, for the greater part edited by Haupt in Das Babylonische Nimrodepos, ${ }^{8}$ were proved by Meissner in Mitteilungen der Vorderasiatischen Gesellschaft, 1902, pp. 1ff. (cf. Pinches in P. S. B. A., 1903, Pls. 8 and 9), to have existed in a different version at the time of the first dynasty of Babylon (Berlin, V.A., Th. 4105). The legend attached to the name of an ancient king of Cuthah ( $K 5418, K 5640, K 8582$ ) can now be studied from a much earlier fragment (c. 2000 B.C.) published by Scheil in Recueil,

[^7]Vol. XX, pp. 65f., Note XXXV. ${ }^{1}$ The story of the Deluge, familiar to us from numerous fragments of the royal library in Nineve, can be traced back to the time of King Ammîzaduga by the aid of a fragment of the second tablet of a composition called enuma sallu awilum, also published by Scheil in Recueil, Vol. XX, Note XXX; ${ }^{2}$ while the story of a creation of men by the goddess Mami, referred to on $K 3399$ and $K 3934$ (with which cf. $K 8522$, the seventh tablet of the creation, containing the hymn to Marduk), has been recognized by Zimmern on the badly preserved fragment Bu. 91-5-9, 269, belonging to the period of Hammurabi. ${ }^{3}$ In this connection we may also refer to the numerous tablets of forecasts known from Ashurbânapal's collections, remembering that similar texts existed towards the end of the third millennium before Christ. Cf. e.g., King, "Cuneiform Texts," Vol. V, Nos. 22,446 and 22,447, compared with Zimmern, Religion, p. 85, and Hunger, Becherwahrsagung bei den Babyloniern, pp. 6ff.

We are therefore justified in ascribing the origin of entire branches, not to say the bulk, of Assyrian literature dealing with ancient writing, mythology and history, hymns and incantations, ${ }^{4}$ laws, astronomy and astrology, etc. (and for the greater part first known from the library of Ashurbânapal), to at least the period of the first dynasty of Babylon. Cf. on this question, e.g., Zimmern, Babylonische Hymnen und Gebete in Auswahl, p. 4 (also p. 28): : "Bei der uns bis jetzt vorliegenden babylonisch-assyrischen Hymnen: und Gebets=literatur kann von einsr allmählichen geschichllichen Entwickelung, die wir bei ihr verfolgen könnten, kaum die Rede sein. Die Hymnen und Gebete an die Götter werden vom dritten Jahrtausend v. Chr. bis zu den letzten Zeiten, da noch babylonische Literatur aufyezeichnet wurde, d. h. bis kurz vor Beginn unserer christlichen Aera, fast unverändert weiter tradiert. So stellen sich z. B. Hymnen und Litaneien an den Mondgott Sin, an den Gott Tammus, die wir aus dem zweiten Jahrhundert v. Chr. besitzen, als direkte Duplikate dar nicht etwa nur zu Texten aus der Bibliothek Assurbanipal's (siebentes Jahrhundert v. Chr.), sondern sogar auch zu solchen aus der Zeit Hammurabi's (Ende des dritten Jahrtausends v. Chr.). Nun ist aber doch nicht anzunehmen, dass sich die babylonische Religion innerhalb dieser zwei Jahrtausende nicht stark verändert und weiter entwickelt hätte; vielmehr haben wir anderweitige direkte Zeugnisse, die beweisen, dass solche Weiterentwicklung, wie ja auch selbstverständlich, in der Tat statt gefunden hat. Die uns vorliegenden Hymnen und Gebete gewähren darum im allgemeinen nicht
${ }^{1}$ Cf. Zimmern in Z. A., Vol. XII, pp. $317 \mathrm{ff} .$, and Jensen in Schrader's K. B., Vol. VI, pp. 290 ff.
${ }^{2}$ Cf. Jensen in Schrader's $K . B .$, Vol. VI, pp. 230ff., 288ff., and Zimmern in Schrader's $K . A . T{ }^{3}$, pp. $543 f f$.
s Published by Pinches in "Cuneiform Texts,' Part VI.
*Cf. e.g., Pinches, "The Hymns to Tammuz in the Manchester Museum, Owens College," Manchester, 1904 (Reprint from Vol. 48, Part III, of "Memoirs and Proceedings of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society," Sessions 1903-1904) ; also " Guide to the Babyl. and Assyr. Antiquities," Brit. Mus., pp. 151ff.
${ }^{5}$ Cf. also Meissner in B. A., Vol. III, p. 94; Hommel, Grundriss, pp. 18f.; King, "Babylonian Religion and Mythology,' 'pp. 4f., 97 ff., 124ff.
sowohl einen Einblick in das Wesen der babylonischen Religion der späteren Zeit, als vielmehr einen solchen in die religiöse Gedankenwelt der altbabylonischen Zeit."

Winckler, as already indicated above (p. 4), after reviewing the essential features of the entire civilization of the ancient Babylonians as revealed by their religion, astronomy and astrology, their calendar, their system of numbering and measuring and by their other attainments, comes to the result that "bereits am Anfange der ätesten geschichtlichen Kenntniss alle diese Dinge in jenes wissenschaftliche System gebracht waren, und von diesem aus auif uns gekommen sind. ${ }^{1}$ Many facts could be gathered, and many inevitable conclusions might be drawn from the earliest inscriptions known to us in support of Winckler's theory, with which the present writer agrees entirely. ${ }^{2}$ But in order to overcome old prejudices, it may seem preferable not to rely upon internal evidence exclusively, but to support it by more ancient literary and scientific documents. For we must confess frankly, many gaps are to be filled out, before the evidence is complete.

The discovery of the famous "Code of Hammurabi," rightly styled "one of the most important documents of the entire human history," ${ }^{3}$ proved beyond any doubt that the fragments of legal literature from Ashurbânapal's library above referred to (pp. 5f.) and the laws in use at the time of the Neo-Babylonian empire existed already at the end of the third millennium. And furthermore, a comparison of their contents with the legal and commercial documents of the period of the dynasty of $\mathrm{Isin}^{4}$ and the second dynasty of Ur preceding it ${ }^{5}$ proves conclusively that Hammurabi did not invent these laws, but codified only what, for the greater part, had existed a long time before him. ${ }^{6}$

A similar statement can be made with regard to Babylonian chronology and metrology. For early chronological lists compare Chapter IV of this Introduction. The metrological facts gathered by Reisner, ${ }^{7}$ Thureau-Dangin ${ }^{8}$ and others from dated docu-

[^8]ments of the second dynasty of Ur, and even of a considerably older period, reveal the same system of measuring we find in use at the time of Hammurabi. The Old-Babylonian scale of weights known from Berlin V. A. Th. 1155, and the list of measures of capacity preserved on the Berlin cylinder V. A. Th. 2596, ${ }^{1}$ would therefore seem to stand in practically the same relation to the earlier commercial, etc., tablets as the Code of Hammurabi to the preceding legal documents. It will, however, be shown in the following pages that such metrological tables or classified lists of early Babylonian measures, and also chronological lists, existed already at the time of the kings of the dynasty of Isin and even before.

Thus far we have examined only single scientific and literary products of the second and third millenniums, from which-in addition to other texts not quoted above-Assyriologists felt justified to draw important conclusions as to the existence of certain branches of literature at this early period. Our knowledge of the literary activity and scientific method towards the end of the third millennium before Christ was considerably advanced by King's The Letters and Inscriptions of Hammurabi, 3 volumes, London, 1898-1900, ${ }^{2}$ and Scheil's Uné Saison de Fouilles à Sippar, Cairo, 1902, in which for the first time entire collections of ancient tablets other than the ordinary temple records and votive inscriptions were made known to the public. The first mentioned Letters claim our interest both as literary compositions and as official documents containing important historical facts, and at the same time illustrating the king's relation to his vassals and provinces and the administration of justice by the monarch and his officers. On the other hand, the numerous literary and scientific texts published by Scheil-such as fragments of epical literature (cf. pp. 6f., above), hymns, incantations, exorcisms, proverbs, astronomical and astrological, mathematical and metrological tablets, plans of fields ${ }^{3}$ and other drawings, sign lists and syllabaries, rationally arranged collections of grammatical and lexicographical material, lists of proper names and name elements, ${ }^{4}$ analyses of legal documents, letters, etc., demonstrated that practically all the branches of Babylonian literature known from Ashurbânapal's library were cultivated at the time of Hammurabi.

My former investigations in connection with the earliest inscribed tablets and artistic remains from Tellô and Nuffar were summed up thus: "Ancient Sumerian art and science have gradually degenerated under the Semitic invaders. It is true in certain epochs of national importance a laudable renaissance took place, and much that is worthy of recog-

[^9]2
nition was accomplished in many departments in the days of the kings of Ur, of a Hammurabi, of the PA-SHE [=Isin] ${ }^{1}$ dynasty, of an Ashurbânapal and a Nebuchadrezzar ; but compared with that highly developed civilization on the threshold of the fifth and fourth millenniums, the new shoots are only miserable aftergrowths of a great period of independent creation long past." ${ }^{2}$ In order to understand and appreciate this ancient fundamental period more fully than is possible at present, we need an increased number of literary and scientific tablets older than the seventh century, which will enable us to trace the various branches of Assyro-Babylonian literature and the contents of certain representative texts step by step through the centuries even farther back than we can do with the material already published, and which may even help us to determine the place, time and circumstances of their original composition and the changes they naturally must have undergone in the course of millenniums under different political and religious conditions and many other influences. The final result will doubtless prove the correctness of the view of the extraordinary age of the entire Babylonian civilization maintained by Berosus, and in very essential features already corroborated by modern Assyriological research. The texts from the Temple Library of Nippur published in this and other volumes of Series A will, it is hoped, contribute their share towards the solution of the problem by enabling us to trace the different branches of Babylonian literature known from the library of Ashurbânapal (c. 650 B.C.) to the middle of the second and to the middle of the third millennium, and in some cases even beyond it.

In the first chapter devoted to this subject-Chapter II of the present volume-the writer will endeavor to show, how a certain class of tablets correctly designated by Bezold as mathematical in his Literatur and "Catalogue," but represented only by a few specimens in the royal library of Nineve, can be studied for the first time methodically with the aid of the important new material made available through the discovery of the Temple Library of Nippur. As far as unearthed and studied, this library consists of two large collections of tablets and fragments, like the library of Ashurbânapal (cf. p. 5, note 3), discovered in two different buildings at two different parts of the mound. The one, excavated in the long ridge to the west of the Shatt en-Nul, ${ }^{3}$ was written at the time of the Cassite rulers (c. 1350 B.C.), the other, found in the large triangular mound opposite it, ${ }^{4}$ dates from the period of the first dynasty of Isin (c. 2200 B.C.). For further details as to the age and contents of the Temple Library of. Vol. XIX, Chapter I (in press). Specimens from both collections are submitted to Assyriologists in the following pages.

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## II.

## MULTIPLICATION AND DIVISION TABLES.

The mathematical and metrological texts thus far published are not very numerous. Bezold, in his Literatur (1886),pp. 225f., enumerated only six inscriptions, three of which are rather lexicographical in character. ${ }^{1}$ Since then a few more tablets have been added by Pinches ${ }^{2}$ and King ${ }^{3}$ from the collections of the British Museum, by Meissner ${ }^{4}$ and others ${ }^{5}$ from those of the Berlin Museums, and by Scheil from the results of his excavations at Abû Habba. The new texts which we owe to the last mentioned French Assyriologist are ten metrological texts (including variants and duplicates, cf. Sippar, pp. 49-54) and three mathematical texts, No. 289 (a multiplication table : $25 \times 1$ ), ${ }^{6}$ No. $428,{ }^{7}$ and No. 639 (a table of square roots, known already from IV R. ${ }^{2} 37$ ). ${ }^{8}$ Besides there have been published a number of topographical plans, ${ }^{9}$ which may be grouped under the general

[^11]class of mathematical tablets, and certain lexicographical fragments, which are important for our knowledge of the Babylonian numbers. ${ }^{1}$ In the fifth volume of his Catalogue, Bezold quotes only four tablets from the royal library of Nineve as " mathematical calculations," three of which are known to us in part or completely, ${ }^{2}$ while the fourth ( $K 9010$ ) consisting of ten lines (Bezold, l.c., p. 978: "Line 1 of reverse contains a sum total") is still unpublished. ${ }^{3}$ It may be that some of the c. 30 unpublished tablets of the Kuyunjuk collections, referred to by Bezold in his Index under "Geometrical Figures," "Amulets" and "Astrolabes," belong to the class of mathematical tablets; but being described in the catalogue proper as "omens," "forecasts," "incantations," "a letter from the king" ( $K 13,154$ ), "part of a religious text" ( $K 8111$ ), "portions of a spheroid," etc., they are better excluded from our present discussion. An opinion as to the possible meaning of the "geometrical(?) figures" found on a number of these tablets was recently expressed by Bezold himself in Z. A., Vol. XVII, pp. 95f.

With regard to their contents, the real mathematical tablets above referred to do not offer a great variety. Omitting Br. Mus., Nos. 85,194 and 85,210 , which present certain difficulties, and Sippar, No. 428, which is too fragmentary to be deciphered with any degree of certainty (cf. however p. 25, note, below), we thus far possess only a table of

199, 427 (cf. Recueil, Vol. XVII, p. 33), 718; Thureau-Dangin in Revue d'Assyriologie et d'Archéologie orientale, Vol. IV, pp. 13-27 (also Oppert, Un cadastre chaldéen in Comptes Rendus, August 21, 1896, pp. 331, 348, and Eisenlohr, Ein altbabylonischer Felderplan, Jeipzig, 1896), Recueil de Tablettes Chaldéennes, pp. 65-68, 101, 149, 150; Hilprecht, B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Pl. 62, Nos. 144 (cf. Scheil in Recueil, Vol. XVI, pp. 36f.) and 145, and B. E., Series D, Vol. J, p. 518 ; King,
"The Letters and Inscriptions of Hammurabi,"' Vol. II, Pl. 242, No. 7, III, pp. 255ff.; Clay in "Transactions of the Department of Archaeology," University of Pennsylvania, Vol. I, pp. 223ff. Sometimes similar plans of fields are found on the so-called boundary stones; e.g., on an unpublished boundary stone from the time of Nebuchadrezzar I (ef. Hinke in B. $A$. , Series D, Vol. IV). Cf. also the Neo-Babylonian maps and plans recently published by Thompson and King in "Cuneiform Texts," Vol. XXII, Pls. 48-50 (cf. Peiser in Z. A., Vol. IV, pp. 361ff.; Hommel, Grundriss, pp. 253ff.).
${ }^{1}$ Cf. e.g., Hilprecht, Assyriaca, pp. 67-72 (cf. Pl. 28. No. 44 of the present volume, and Scheil in Recueil, Vol. XIX, Note XXVII, pp. 61f.), and Pinches in ''Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archaeology,'" Vol. XXVI, pp $51-56$, and the plate attached to that paper (cf. Zimmern in Z. D. M. G., Vol. IVIII, pp. 199ff., 458ff.); Scheil in Z. A. Vol. IX, p. 219 ( = Sippar, p. 135, No. 485 : ' Petit syllabuire des chiffres fractionnaires'") ; Brit. Mus., No. 92,693, etc.
${ }^{2} K 3168$ ( $=$ IV R. ${ }^{2} 37$ ) ; K 8527 (described by Bezold, l.c., p. 935, as "Babylonian; not from Kouyunjik(?). Mathematical calculations, similar to those of $K 3168$. . Cf. also $81-2-1,72$ ''), and $K 2069$ (four lines of which were published by Bezold, l.c., p. 400. For my interpretation of this text cf. pp. 25ff., below). K 8527 was determined by King some six years ago as a multiplication table ( $45 \times 1$ ). Cf. "A Guide to the Babylonian and Assyrian Antiquities," British Museum, 1900, p. 202, No. 15 (Case I), where the text is referred to under its exhibition number, 92,703 ( I owe this information to a personal communication from King, as from the description given by Bezold in his "Catalogue"' I naturally could not have recognized $K 8527$ in No. 92,703). Cf. also p. 13, note 3, below.
${ }^{3}$ At my request King lindly examined $K 2069$ and $K 9010$ for me. K 2069 will be discussed on pp. 25 ff. K 9010 ; according to King's copy, is too fragmentary to determine its contents absolutely. I am, however, inclined to regard it as a mere tabular statement concerning certain objects registered and counted; in other words, I do not believe that it. is a mathematical tablet, but a business or administrative record somewhat similar to those recently published in large numbers by Clay in B. E., Series A, Vols. XIV and XV.
squares from 1 to 60 , a table of square roots in several copies, ${ }^{1}$ a table of cube roots, and two multiplication tables, the one $(25 \times 1)$ from $\operatorname{Sippar}^{2}($ No. 289$)$, and the other $(45 \times 1)$ known as $K 8527$, but evidently not Assyrian but Babylonian. ${ }^{3}$ Through the discovery of the Temple Library of Nippur our knowledge of the mathematical and metrological texts is about to be increased considerably. ${ }^{4}$ More than half of the tablets submitted in the present volume are mathematical, ${ }^{5}$ while sixteen texts are metrological. Their number could have been doubled or tripled without difficulty from the material already examined. But for the time being it seemed wiser to exercise a certain restraint, in order to make the title and contents of this volume as comprehensive as possible, without interfering with the general plan and subdivisions of Series A. Besides, some of the mathematical tablets excluded from these pages are so badly preserved or so fragmentary that they had to be reserved for other parts of this volume, in the hope that the unopened boxes may contain fragments belonging to them, or similar texts, which will help us to determine their contents more exactly.

The mathematical texts here published may be classified as multiplication tables, division tables (previously not recognized and generally found in connection with the former on the same tablet), tables of squares, tables of square roots, a geometrical progression (Pl. 15 , No. 25 ; cf. Pl. IX), and the fragment of a class of texts (Pl. 15, No. 25a) which will receive proper attention in Part 2 of this volume. For another class of mathematical texts see, for the present, Vortrag, p. 60, Abb. 43 (= "Lecture," p. 51, No. 44). The tables of squares and square roots on Pls. 16 and X , though previously known from other sources, have been published as an illustration of the variety of the mathematical texts excavated at Nuffar, and at the same time to enable Assyriologists to control my statements with regard to the contents and age of the tablets in question. Moreover,

[^12]the tables of squáres given on Pls. 16 and X differ somewhat from IV $R .{ }^{2} 37$, in so far as $A-D U(R \dot{A})$ is not used in the two Nippur texts, and the writing of the number 19 is peculiar on Pl. 16, No. 26. As indicated above, p. 10, and stated in detail in the "Description of Tablets and Ruins" (Chapter V), the mathematical and metrological tablets here published belong to the second (c. 1350 B.C.) and third (c. 2200 B.C.) preChristian millenniums; they were taken from two collections of tablets written at the time of the Cassite rulers and the kings of the first ${ }^{1}$ dynasty of Isin respectively. The geometrical progression Pl. 15, No. 25, characterized by the peculiar form of its tablet, ${ }^{2}$ and the fragment ${ }^{3}$ published on Pl. 15, No. 25a belong, however, to an earlier period, not later than the second dynasty of Ur.

All the multiplication tables submitted were excavated by our expeditions at Nippur, except " $9 \times 1$ " (cf. Pl. 2, No. 3, and "Table of Contents"), which was purchased (with another mathematical tablet) by Noorian, a member of our first and second campaigns, from Arabs, who informed him that both came from Abû Habba. ${ }^{4}$ Arab veracity is too well known among Semitists to require any illustration on my part. We may take it for all that it is worth, but we must surely be permitted to disregard an Arab statement altogether if contrary to all sound reasoning and internal evidence. After a careful examination of the whole question, I had reached the conclusion some time ago that the multiplication table obtained by Noorian for the University Museum did not come from Abû Habba, but from Nippur, where evidently it had been stolen from our trenches or secretly been excavated by some $\operatorname{Arab}(\mathrm{s})$. For this reason a photograph of this tablet was already used in my German Vortrag, p. $60, A b b .45$, as an illustration of the contents of the temple library, from which at the time the lecture was delivered and printed I was thousands of miles away. The other mathematical tablet just referred to will appear in Part 2 of the present volume. My reasons for assigning the purchased multiplication table, $9 \times 1$, to the ruins of Nuffar, as its place of origin, are briefly summed up as follows:

1. Stealing and secret digging was carried on by the Arabs at Nuffar long before our arrival there in 1889, and has been continued ever since. This is proved by the upper part of a large boundary stone in the Royal Museums of Berlin, described as coming " from Nippur" in Verzeichnis der Vorderasiatischen Altertümer und Gipsabyüsse,
[^13]1889, p. 66, No. $213 ;^{1}$ by a door-socket of Engur, for many years in the possession of Hajji Tarfâ, which according to its inscription belonged to the temple of Bêl, but afterwards had been carried away by the Arabs from Bint el-Amîr (cf. Peters, Nippur, Vol. II, p. 269) ; by the ancient beads and other ornaments worn by the 'Afetsh women around Nuffar, which they declare to have taken out of the coffins and burial urns of this mound excavated by them in a very primitive manner; and lastly by our own repeated experience at Nuffar, and by numerous dated and undated Cassite tablets frequently offered for sale in the bazaars of Constantinople. Cf. Peters, Nippur, Vol. I, pp. 276ff., Vol. II, p. 52 ; Hilprecht in Z. A., Vol. IV, pp. 282ff., VII, p. 318; Clay, B. $E$., Series A, Vol. XIV, p. 2.
2. As this and the following parts of Vol. XX will show, the multiplication tables are a characteristic feature of the Temple Library of Nippur-c. 45 tables being published here (cf. p. 20, below)-while the excavations at Abû Habba thus far have yielded but one multiplication table, which, moreover, has very peculiar features of its own.
3. The multiplication table $9 \times 1$ has certain features in common with other Nippur multiplication tables of the Cassite period: its color of clay, palaeography and general appearance, its not using $A-D U(R \dot{A})$, "times" (cf. Nos. 2, 8, 12, 15, 17, 19, also 26), its not being ruled (cf. Nos. 2 and 12), its not being dated (a feature in common with all the multiplication tables of Nippur thus far excavated), ${ }^{2}$ its use of the cuneiform sign $\sqrt{\square}$ (for " 4 "). There cannot be any doubt that the tablet in question belongs to the Cassite period, which is represented by more than 18,000 tablets and fragments from Nippur, while thus far, according to my knowledge, not one clay tablet of the same period has been excavated at Abû Habba. But more than this, the only multiplication table $(25 \times 1)$ discovered at Sippar differs essentially from similar Nippur tables in its use of the ligature 樋舍 for $A-D U(R \dot{A})$, never occurring on any Nippur tablet but known also from other Sippar tablets (cf. Part 2 of this volume) ; in its use of the cuneiform sign Tr for "4," found sometimes on the earlier mathematical, metrological, chronological, etc., tablets from Nippur (cf. Nos. 7, 29, 47); and in being dated in the year of a king of the first dynasty of Babylon. For though the cuneiform signs following ${ }^{\text {arbu }} S H U-K U L-A(=D \hat{A} u)$ йmu $I^{k a m} M U U S H-S A$ are not quite certain, ${ }^{3}$ the mode of dating according to a " year following that in which" such and such a thing happened, and the ideographic writing of the fourth month with $A$ as the last sign, instead of the

[^14]regular $N A$ (exclusively in use at the time of the Cassite period), ${ }^{1}$ are sufficient to show that the Sippar tablet was not written during the time of the Cassite rulers, but must belong to an earlier period, probably the time of the Hammurabi dynasty. ${ }^{2}$
4. Upon my request Prof. Amos P. Brown, of the University of Pennsylvania, kindly subjected the clay of a number of tablets from Nippur, Babylon and Sippar, including the multiplication table $9 \times 1$ and the Nippur tablet $6 \times 1$ (excavated by Peters in the course of his second campaign), to a microscopical examination and a chemical analysis. Without having any knowledge as to their places of origin, he at once separated these two multiplication tables, as forming a distinct group by themselves, from the rest of the tablets, declaring their clay to be practically identical and apparently taken from the same bed.

All the multiplication tables, including $K 8527$ and Sippar, No. 289, are arranged in the following manner: The figures 1 to 20, 30, 40 and 50 are given in their consecutive order, together with the amounts obtained by multiplying each figure by a certain number. According to the use or omission of the ideogram $A-D U(R \dot{A})$ representing our sign of multiplication ( $X=$ "times"), we distinguish three different ways in which these tables are written :

## I.

$$
2 \times 1=2(\text { cf. Pl. 1, No. 1). } \quad 540 \times 1=540(\text { cf. Pl. } 7, \text { No. 15) }
$$

III.
$25 \times 1=25$ (unpublished). ${ }^{3}$

| 25 | 1 | 25 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 25 | 2 | 50 |
| 25 | 3 | 75 |
| 25 | 4 | 100 |
| 25 | 5 | 125 |
| 25 | 6 | 150 |
| 25 | 7 | 175 |
| 25 | 8 | 200 |
| 25 | 9 | 225 |
| 25 | 10 | 250 |
| 25 | 11 | 275 |
| 25 | 12 | 300 |

[^15]| I. |  |  | II. |  | III. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2 \times 1=2($ cf. Pl. 1, No. 1) |  |  | $540 \times 1=540$ (cf. Pl. 7, No. 15) |  | $25 \times 1=25$ (unpublished). ${ }^{1}$ |  |  |
| $A-R A$ | 13 | 26 | 13 | 7020 | 25 | 13 | 325 |
| $A-R A$ | 14 | 28 | 14 | 7560 | 25 | 14 | 350 |
| $A-R A$ | 15 | 30 | 15 | 8100 | 25 | 15 | 375 |
| $A-R A$ | 16 | 32 | 16 | 8640 | 25 | 16 | 400 |
| $A-R A$ | 17 | 34 | 17 | 9180 | 25 | 17 | 425 |
| $A-R A$ | 18 | 36 | 18 | 9720 | 25 | 18 | 450 |
| $A-R A$ | 19 | 38 | 19 | 10,260 | 25 | 19 | 475 |
| $A-R A$ | 20 | 40 | 20 | 10,800 | 25 | 20 | 500 |
| $A-R A$ | 30 | 60 | 30 | 16,200 | 25 | 30 | 750 |
| $A-R A$ | 40 | 80 | 40 | 21,600 | 25 | 40 | 1000 |
| $A-R A$ | 50 | 100 | 50 | 27,000 | 25 | 50 | 1250 |

On Pl. 3, No. 5, which offers the same contents $(18 \times 1)$ as Pl. 2, No. $4,{ }^{2}$ the scribe, evidently through a mistake, ${ }^{3}$ omitted "times $50=900$," writing "times $60=1080$ ( $=18$ soss)" instead. This is the only case known to me in which the multiplication is carried to $60(=1 \mathrm{soss})$. Sometimes, however, one or more additional lines, unfortunately generally mutilated, follow the multiplication table proper. Cf. Nos. 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 12, 15,16 (probably also No. 17, Rev., Col. IV). It is not possible to state with certainty what in each case stood there. The closing lines of No. 2 possibly contained a date. ${ }^{4}$ In No. 4 the last four signs read: ". . . DA- ${ }^{d}$ Kar-gal," which (with due consideration of the traces left at the beginning of this line) may be restored to "[ ${ }^{h}$ tup-shar $\left.{ }^{5}\right]$ Ile' $i_{-}{ }^{d} K a r-g a l, "$ " the

[^16]3
seribe Ile'i-Kargal." ${ }^{1}$ No. 7, 24 offers ${ }^{d}$ Nidaba, which possibly was preceded originally by another sign, with which it formed the proper name of the scribe. At the end of other tablets we find a number, the meaning of which is not always clear (cf. No. 3, 24; No. 8,24 ; No. 12, 26). ${ }^{2}$ In some cases we have a colophon indicating the next lowest multiplication table of the whole series, ${ }^{3}$ sometimes preceded by the square of the number multiplied on the tablet (cf. e.g., No. 12, 24f., which reads: " $432 \times 432=186,624$," also No. 16 , 24 , and No. 19, R., Col. II, 11, which originally read: " $144 \times 144=20,736$ "). Sometimes these colophons are of importance for the correct understanding of the multiplication table itself. Thus, e.g., No. 15 can be read either " $9 \times 1=1$," or " 9 soss $\times 1=540$," etc. The colophon, however, reading " $500 \times 1=500$," the first mentioned interpretation is

[^17]out of question. No. 16 closes with " $750 \times 750=562,500$," followed by the colophon " $720 \times 1=720$ " (the next lowest number of the series).

Besides such single multiplication tables as published on Pls. 1-7, the Babylonians had tablets on which different multiplication tables were given together. Cf. Nos. 17, 18, 19, 22 (Rev.), 23 (Rev.) and Pl. VII, Rev. It is to be observed that this class of multiplication tables begins always with the highest number to be multiplied, and ends with the lowest. Thus No. 17, which can be easily restored (except the fifth number, which must remain doubtful), contained the following nine tables: $1080 \times 1,1000 \times 1$, $960 \times 1,900 \times 1$, [probably $810 \times 1$ ], $720 \times 1,600 \times 1,540 \times 1,500 \times 1$. Though very fragmentary, No. 18 has preserved remains of $2160 \times 1,1500 \times 1$ (Obv.) and $1000 \times 1$ (Rev., Col. II) ; No. 19, portions of $300 \times 1,240 \times 1$ (Obv.), $180 \times 1$, $150 \times 1,144 \times 1^{1}$ and $120 \times 1$ (Rev.) ; No. 22 , Rev., portions of $1350 \times 1,1080 \times 1$, $960 \times 1$; No. 23 , Rev. ${ }^{2}$, portions of $1350 \times 1$ (Col. I), $1080 \times 1,1000 \times 1$ (Col. II), $900 \times 1(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{III}), 720 \times 1,600 \times 1(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{IV}), 500 \times 1,480 \times 1(\mathrm{Col} \mathrm{~V}),. 432 \times 1$ (Col. VI). An autograph copy of Pl. VII, Rev., which contains the multiplication tables of very high numbers (among them $180,000 \times 1,162,000 \times 1$ and $160,000 \times 1$ ) will be published in Part 2 of this volume. For our present purpose it is sufficient to state that it is arranged like all the other tablets containing more than one multiplication table.

Including the Sippar tablet $(25 \times 1)$ and $K 8527(45 \times 1)$-both being also represented in the Nuffar collections ${ }^{3}$-and the colophons on Nos. 8,15 and $16,{ }^{4}$ the following 44-46 multiplication tables are thus far known to me from the Temple Scchool and Temple Library of Nippur (cf. B. E., Series D, Vol. I, pp. 531f.) :

[^18]| $2 \times 1$ | $50 \times 1$ (No. 20, Rev., No. 21) | $540 \times 1$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $3 \times 1$ | $60 \times 1$ | $600 \times 1$ |
| $4 \times 1$ | $72 \times 1$ | $720 \times 1$ |
| $5 \times 1$ | $90 \times 1$ | $750 \times 1$ |
| $6 \times 1$ | $100 \times 1$ | [810 $\times 1$ ?] (No 17 Co. IV broken off) |
| $8 \times 1$ | $120 \times 1$ | $900 \times 1$ |
| $9 \times 1$ | $144 \times 1$ | $960 \times 1$ |
| $12 \times 1$ | $150 \times 1$ | $1000 \times 1$ |
| $18 \times 1$ | $180 \times 1$ | $1080 \times 1$ |
| $24 \times 1$ | $240 \times 1$ | $1350 \times 1$ |
| $25 \times 1$ | $300 \times 1$ | $1500 \times 1$ |
| $30 \times 1$ | $432 \times 1$ | $2160 \times 1$ |
| $36 \times 1$ | $450 \times 1$ | $3000 \times 1\left(\mathrm{No} 22, \mathrm{Obv},. \mathrm{Col}. \mathrm{II}^{2}\right.$ ) |
| $40 \times 1$ (No. 24, Rev., ${ }^{\text {Col. }}$ [ $\mathrm{V}^{1}$ ) | $480 \times 1$ | $160,000 \times 1$ |
| $45 \times 1$ | $500 \times 1$ | $162,000 \times 1$ |
|  | $180,000 \times 1$ |  |

In examining this series, we naturally ask the question, whether such multiplication tables are confined to certain numbers, or whether we may expect to find any number between 1 and 180,000 (or even higher) thus multiplied. In $B$. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 531, I inclined to the latter view, since abandoned. An attempt will now be made to show that a certain principle underlies these multiplication tables, the recognition of which will help us to determine their real purpose. Our attention is directed at once to three remarkable features: 1 . Whenever several multiplication tables are written together, the highest number begins the series. 2. The numbers multiplied are not consecutive, but are often separated from each other by comparatively large intervals. 3. Besides 3 and 5 , no undividable number or its multiple is multiplied (note the absence of $7,11,13,14,17,19,21,22,23,26,28,29,31,33,34,35$, etc.).

Since the quotient of a number dividable by more than one number becomes smaller the larger the divisor grows, the supposition forces itself upon us that the series of numbers multiplied on the same tablet may represent a descending series of quotients of an unknown high ${ }^{3}$ number ${ }^{4}$ divided by an increasing series of numbers contained in it. As, however, the divisors of a number are the same as the quotients in inverted order, it would be doubtful whether the single multiplication tables (cf. Nos. 1-16, No. 20,

[^19]Obv. and Rev., No. 21, Obv. and Rev., No. 22, Obv.) are to be regarded as multiplied divisors or quotients. In view of the circumstance that the forty odd multiplication tables given above most probably do not represent all the numbers that used to be multiplied, and furthermore that we do not know whether the latter are divisors (or quotients) of one or more unknown high numbers, the solution of the problem seems to be most difficult. Fortunately, however, there are a number of mathematical tablets known from Nippur (four of which are published here, cf. No. 20, Rev., No. 21, Rev., No. 22, Obv., and No. 24, Rev.) which throw considerable light on the whole question.

These tablets are all fragmentary and otherwise mutilated, but a study and comparison of the cuneiform signs preserved on them enable us to restore a part of their original text completely. It is alike on all of them and reads transliterated as follows:

|  | . .8,640,000 A-AN |  | ..518,000 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. | ..6,480,000 | 27. | .480,000 |
| 3... | ..4,320,000 | 30. | .432,000 |
| 4. | ..3,240,000 | 32. | .405,000 |
| 5. | ..2,592,000 | 36. | . 360,000 |
| $6 .$. | ..2,160,000 | 40. | 324,000 |
| $8 .$. | ..1,620,000 | 45. | 288,000 |
| $9 .$. | ...1,440,000 | 48. | 270,000 |
| 10. | ...1,296,000 | 50. | ..259,000 |
| 12. | ...1,080,000 | 54. | ..240,000 |
| 15. | .... 864,000 | 60. | ..216,000 |
| 16.. | .... 810,000 | 64. | ..202,500 |
| 18.. | ... 720,000 | 72. | . 180,000 |
| 20. | .... 648,000 | [80.. | . 162,000] |
| 24. | .... 540,000 | [81.. | ..160,000] |

According to No. 20, Rev., which is better preserved than any of the other three fragments, this text (being written three times alternately with $50 \times 1$ ) closed with " 72 180,000." Observing at once that the first eighteen multiplication tables of the list published above ( p .20 ) are among the numbers standing at the beginning of the lines of this restored text, and that the last number of this text $(180,000)$ is also one of the highest multiplication tables thus far known (Pl. VII), I continued the calculation to 81, thereby ascertaining that the other two high multiplication tables quoted from Pl . VII on p. 20, above ( $162,000 \times 1$ and $160,000 \times 1$ ), are identical with the closing numbers of the next two lines of our restored text.

This interesting text may be described as a division table, containing the divisors of
$12,960,000\left(=60^{4}\right.$ or $\left.3600^{2}\right)$ to 72 in an increasing series (the left numbers), together with their corresponding quotients in a descending series (the right numbers). If we continued the calculation still further, we would obtain all the numbers found in our list of multiplication tables and many additional numbers, which doubtless also formed part of the complete series of multiplication tables. For it is a fact that all the numbers multiplied on p. 20 are divisors or quotients of $12,960,000$.

No. 22, Obv., Col. I, is especially important, because the divisors and quotients are not simply placed side by side, as on the three other fragments, but are separated by the cuneiform signs $G A L-B I$. A glance at No. 25 and Reisner's observations in Z. A., Vol. XI, p. 423, enables us to restore the beginning of this tablet as follows:

| Line | 1. | $I G I-1-G A L-B I$ (i.e., its two-thirds) | $=8,640,000 A-A N$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $"$ | 2. | $I G I-2-G A L-B I$ (its half) | $=6,480,000$ |
| $"$ | 3. | $I G I-3-G A L-B I$ (its third part) | $=4,320,000$ |
| $"$ | 4. | $I G I-4-G A L-B I$ (its fourth part) | $=3,240,000$ |
| $"$ | 5. | $I G I-5-G A L-B I$ (its fifth part) | $=2,592,000$ |
| etc. | etc. | etc. |  |
| $"$ | 13. | $I G I-18-G A L-B I$ (its eighteenth part) | $=720,000$ |

I may add that on some of the division tables examined by me a third (evidently abbreviated) expression is found, e.g., "IGI $34,320,000$ "; "IGI $43,240,000$," etc.

The number meant by $B I$, "its," is $12,960,000$. The divisor (IGI-GAL, "having an eye," evidently thus designated as "the decider" (ershu) or " determinator" (i.e., the denominator) of a fraction, and perhaps to be read igigallu or ershu (syn. of mudû)) is expressed in each case by the number standing between $I G I$ and $G A L$, while the quotient is characterized by $A-A N$ (i.e., Sumerian am, or Assyrian ma, V R. 22, Obv. 30 a-d) attached to the last number, ${ }^{1}$ which thereby becomes distributive. ${ }^{2}$ Like the ideogram IGI-GAL, expressing our sign of division (:) or our fraction line (/), the sign of

[^20]multiplication ( $X$ ), as we saw above (p. 16), can either be omitted, or it is rendered by the ideogram $A-D U$, resp. $A-G^{\prime} U R$ (cf. Nos. 9 and 11). I regard the latter only as a variant or an abbreviated form of $A-D U$. This explanation suggests itself in view of the ligature (cf. p. 15, above) used for $A-D U$ on certain Sippar tablets, in view of the fact that $A-D U$ and $A-G U R$ occur in the same text (cf. No. 9, 1: $A-D U$, while all the other lines offer $A-G U R$ ), and also in view of other variants occurring in the mathematical tablets from Nippur, notably the numerous variants of "19,"1 some of which may be merely scribal errors :


They evidently all go back to the form $\langle\underset{\langle/ \bar{Y}}{ }$ or $\langle\overline{\langle\sqrt{\Gamma}}(20-1=19)$. The intermediate sign between $D U(\square)$ ) and the so-called $G U R(\square \nabla)$ is probably preserved in the form (No. 13, 21) ${ }^{2}$ or (No. 7, 23), from which the form can easily be derived.

The ideogram $A-D U(=\times)$, "times" (doubtless to be read $a-r u ́ a$ in Sumerian), is not an artificial ideogram derived from Semitic $a d \hat{u}$, "time," as I was inclined to regard it in B. $E$., Series D, Vol. I, p. 532, but is of Sumerian origin, like all the other mathematical terms known to us, including the $A-A N(=" j e$," rendering a number dis= tributive) and $I G I-G A L$ ( $=$ "denominator," used to express a fraction) in the division tables; LAL (= -), "minus"' (cf. Jensen, Die Kosmologie der Babylonier, p. 106, note 2; King in Z.A., Vol. X, p. 396 ; Reisner in Sitzungsberichte der Königlich Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Berlin, 1896, p. 425), SI-A (= +), "plus" (Reisner, l.c.), $\grave{I} B-D I$, "square," ${ }^{3}$ and $B A-D I-E$, "cube"" (the latter two expressions

[^21]being regarded erroneously by Hommel as Semitic verbal forms $=$ "ibdi, badî," "(das u. das) kommt heraus" (cf. Grundriss, p. 287, note 1). ${ }^{1}$
on p. 13, note 1, above. For the sake of convenience I have distinguished throughout the above discussion between Babylonian "tables of squares" and " tables of square roots," retaining the title assigned to the latter class by Sir Henry Rawlinson (cf. IV $R^{1} 40$ ), who first recognized the true character of these "tables" (in "Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society," Vol. XV, p. 218). Strictly taken, however, both classes are "tables of squares" differently expressed and differently arranged. Cf. IV. $\mathrm{R}^{2} 37(=B r . M u s$. No. 12,136), which offers the following three columns:
\[

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
1 a-r a 1 & 1 & 1-e 1 i b-d i & 1-e 1 b a-d i-e \\
2 a-r a 2 & 4, \text { etc. } & 4-e 2 i b-d i \text {, etc. } & 8-e 2 b a \text {-di-e, etc. }
\end{array}
$$
\]

Tables arranged according to the manner of Col. I $(1 \times 1=1 ; 2 \times 2=4$, etc., cf. Pl. 16 , No. 26, and Pl. X, Nos. 11f. of the present volume), i.e., tables in which the idea of "square" is expressed by repeating the number to be squared, with or without $a-r a$, " times," placed between them, are only a special kind of multiplication tables. Tables arranged according to the manner of Col. II $\left(1=1^{2} ; 4=2^{2}\right.$, cf. Pl. 16, Nos. 27 and 28, Pl. X, Nos. 13 and 14), i.e., tables in which the idea of "square" is expressed by a technical term (İB-DI, "square," cf. e.g., Oppert in Z. A., Vol. XVII, pp. 60f.) placed after the number to be squared (or the root of the square) correspond more to our modern tables. The meaning of " $E$ " standing between the square and its root in the latter class of texts is not yet quite clear. Lenormant's explanation offered in his Essai sur un Document Mathématique Chaldéen, p. 7, and closely connected with his erroneous view of the Babylonian system of numbering, is untenable. But $I$ am also unable to accept Hommel's interpretation (to be inferred from his Grundriss, p. 287, note 1, and confirmed by him in a letter to the writer), according to which " $E$ " is a technical term used to express both "square" and "cube," i.e., "power" (Oppert, L'étalon des mesures assyriennes, p. 23), e.g., " 9 als Quadrat von 3 kam heraus," or " 27 als Cubus von 3 kommt heraus," while $i b d i$ and $b a d \hat{\imath}$ are Semitic verbal forms. For apart from the fact that all the other terms used in our mathematical texts are to be explained as Sumerian and, therefore, $\bar{I} B-D I$ and $B A-D I-E$ most naturally also, it would be hard to understand, why the praeterite " $i b-d i$ " (lam heraus) is used in the tables of squares, while ba-di-e ( $=b a d \hat{e}$, evidently regarded by Hommel as a permansive, which however can read only $b \check{a} d \bar{r}$ ) is confined to the table of cubes. Besides this " $E$ " does not seem to have been essential for a correct understanding of the tables of squares and cubes; for it is omitted altogether in Scheil, Sippar, p. 48 ("Autre tablette"). Moreover from Pl. 16, No. 28 (cf. Pl. X, No. 14), where the inscription is arranged in two columns, we learn that " $E$ " is not to be connected with the following, but the preceding number. The most natural explanation of this " $E$," therefore, seems to be, to regard it merely as the so-called "Verlängerungsvocal" of the first number (like the " $E$ " often found after lugal in the dates of early Babylonian documents), which, according to Haupt, A.S.K.T., p. 135, can be used or omitted without any apparent modification of the meaning of the preceding word. Evidently this " $E$ " was more frequently employed than omitted in this class of texts, because it separated two numbers (square and root) very effectively, thereby considerably facilitating their reading in closely written lines. The Sippar text just quoted is remarkable in still another way, the ideogram $A-A N(=$ Sum. am, Assyr. ma), rendering a number distributive, being placed after the number to be
 easily to be explained in view of what has been stated above ( $p .22$, note 2 ), for $1 \frac{1566}{34}=34 A-A N$.

As over against Th. 253 ( ${ }^{F}$ erzeichnis der Vorderas. Altertümer, Königl. Museen zu Berlin, p. 65), which containing the second half of a table of squares from $1^{2}$ to $60^{2}$, appropriately begins with " $961=\mathbf{3 1}$ "," the Nippur tablet published on Pl. 16, No. 28, begins with " $900=\mathbf{3 0}^{2}$," i.e., with the line forming the closing line of the first tablet of the Berlin table of squares. The reason for this seemingly strange beginning is readily understood. Thirty ( $=\frac{1}{2}$ soss) and $30^{2}\left(=\left(\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{soss}\right)^{2}=\frac{1}{4}\right.$ shâr $=900=15$ soss $)$ being round numbers easily kept in mind, they evidently were used as a means of finding rapidly the squares of the following numbers from 31 to 59 by applying the binomial theorem $(\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b})^{2}$ $=\mathbf{a}^{2}+\mathbf{2} \mathbf{a b}+\mathbf{b}^{2}$, which for this very reason must have been known to the Babylonians in some form or other. Cf. e.g. $37^{2}=\left(\frac{1}{2} \text { soss }+7\right)^{2}=\left(\frac{1}{2} \text { soss }\right)^{2}\left(\right.$ or 15 soss) $+2 \times \frac{5}{2}$ soss (or 7 soss) $+7^{2}$ (or 49$)=22$ soss +49 .
${ }^{1}$ The ideogr. IB-DI, "square," occurs also in the interesting text Pl. 15, No. 25a, Col. I, 4 f.e. and last line, Col. II, 13 f.e., which will be discussed in part 2 of the present volume. Cf. likewise the fifth and sixth lines of Scheil, Sippar,

A word must be said with regard to the first line of the division tables here published. They all read: "1 8,640,000 A-AN." The quotient $8,640,000$ being $\frac{2}{3}$ of $12,960,000$, we should rather expect " $1_{\frac{1}{2}}$ " instead of " 1 " as its divisor, for $12,960,000$ divided by $\frac{3}{2}$ is $=12,960,000 \times \frac{2}{3}$. I am unable to explain this strange phenomenon. Possibly we have to regard it as an abbreviated expression well understood by the Babylonians.

Besides the division tables from the temple library of Nippur, which are all based upon $12,960,000\left(=60^{4}=3600^{2}\right)$ as their dividend, I know of only one other division table, which once belonged to the library of Ashurbânapal in Nineve. Four lines of this fragment, marked $K$ 2069, were published by Bezold, who describes it as "probably containing mathematical calculations" ("Catalogue," Vol. I, p. 400). This tablet indicates the fraction by $I G I$ alone (the abbreviated term referred to above, p. 22).
No. 428 (p. 48), li.5, " . . . . . 409 mi-nam İB-DI',; li. 6, ". . 53 IB-DI"" Since ". . $53^{2 \prime \prime}$ contains " 09 '' (li. 5) as its last 2 numbers, it is evident that the number preceding $\bar{I} B-D I$ in li. 6 was the square root of the number which stood in li.5. Incorporating the result of my examination of the original, I translate these two lines accordingly: "[Total: $\ldots+] 6(\times 216,000)+5(\times 3600)+6(\times 60)+40+9=\ldots \ldots 409$, with regard to what [Accusative $(\min \hat{a} m)$, Oppert, therefore, correctly" wovon"? "of what"?] is it the square? It is the square of . . 53." Oppert in Z.A., Vol. XVII, p. 61, restored the two numbers contained in lines 5 and 6 as follows: li. 5, "' 426,409 '" and li. 6, " 653 ." But the two numbers must have been much higher. Oppert's treatment of the entire inscription is most arbitrary. In order to prove his theory, he was obliged to make very radical changes in the cuneiform text offered by Scheil. Examining Oppert's transliteration, I found it difficult to believe that an ancient Babylonian scribe or a modern Assyriologist could have made all the mistakes imputed to the one or the other by Oppert. Profiting from my annual visit to the Imperial Ottoman Museum, I copied Sippar, No. 428, September 24, 1906. The results of my recent examination may be summed up briefly as follows:

The fragmentary text published by Scheil consists of seven lines written on the Obverse of a lens-shaped clay tablet. The upper part of the Reverse also bears traces of an inscription of three lines (apparently numbers), for the greater part badly effaced and otherwise damaged. The first line given by Scheil is the first line of the tablet. Li. I: The second wedge of the first number (" 2 ") is somewhat effaced. The fifth number of this line is scarcely " 4 " (Scheil) but " 5 "; for though only the two lower wedges and the lower end of the right upper wedge are preserved, the " 5 " is certain, because everywhere in our text the " 4 " is written with the sign sha (i.e., with one lower wedge), never with the sign $z a$ (i.e., with two lower wedges). Li. 2 and 3: The numbers given by Scheil are surely correct. Li. 4: In the first sign I recognized two more wedges below the three given by Scheil. To judge from their position I would regard this first number to be a " 5 ," like the second number of the same line. Immediately after the latter there is a small break in the tablet, by which possibly a small number was destroyed. Li. 5 and 6 : The cuneiform signs given by Scheil are correct, except the first character seen in li. 5 , which I regard as a " 6 " rather than a " 5 ," because the two right lower wedges stand exactly under the corresponding upper wedges. The first lower wedge is broken away. As Scheil did not endeavor to give a palæographically exact copy of the original, he did not place the single numbers of the second and following lines exactly where they stand on the original with regard to the characters of the first line. We consequently gain the impression from his copy that only one sign is broken away at the beginning of li. 5 and 6 , while, as a matter of fact, $2-3$ signs are wanting at the beginning of li. 5 (the first sign given by Scheil stands in reality almost entirely below the " 30 " of li. 4), and 3-4 signs at the beginning of li. 6, and about as many at the beginning of the last line. Li. 7: Before the " 30 " (given by Scheil as the first sign after the break) two small perpendicular wedges (the one written above the other) are visible, representing the last wedges of either a " 5 " or a " 6 ." The sign omitted by Scheil before " $a b$ " is clearly the sign " $u r(l i k)$," evidently regarded by Scheil as " $t u=s h i q l u, "$ to judge from his translation " sicles" (?).

On the basis of the few lines given by Bezold, the dividend seemed to be $15,120,000$ $(=12,960,000[母]+2,160,000[<]) .^{1}$ But remembering my experience with the Nippur tablets, the dividend of which had to be increased as often as a new fragment was added, until the complete text had been restored, I asked King for a copy of the entire fragment, which he kindly placed at my disposal. It confirms Bezold's statement that the line designated by him as Obv., li. 13, is the last line of the Obverse. The beginning of this line, as sufficiently indicated by the remaining horizontal stroke (used by the scribe exclusively to fill out the empty space of a line with only one large number at the beginning), and supported by my calculation, must have read "IGI 4." Apart from the restoration of these two characters, the end of the Obverse and the beginning of the Reverse are entirely preserved, so that the twenty-eight lines or portions of lines inscribed on the fragment form a continuous inscription. This is of importance for our deciphering. For owing to the absence of a zero in Babylonian, every $\gamma$ or $\ll$, as illustrated by the following scale (which may be continued indefinitely),

can be read in many different ways, unless determined by the context and a sufficient number of smaller figures following. Each line of the left column of $K 2069$ beginning with either a " 2 ," " 3 " or " 4 ," and of the right with a " 10 ," it is easy to ascertain the actual values of these first numbers by determining their position in the longest number preserved in each column. The longest number in the left column having six figures and ending in " 20 " (Obv., li. 11), the value of the first figure (a " 2 ," " 3 " or " 4 ") in each line of this column is obtained by multiplying this figure with 216,000 . The longest number in the right column consisting of nine figures and ending in " 40 " (Rev., li. 24), the first figure (a " 10 ") in each line of this column has the value 129,600,000.

The third line given by Bezold, l.c., is therefore to be transliterated as follows: $I G I 3 \times 216,000(=648,000) \mid 23 \times 12,960,000(=298,080,000)+2 \times 2,160,000$ $(=4,320,000)$; in other words $\frac{x}{648,000}=302,400,000$, or $x=302,400,000 \times 648,000=$ $195,955,200,000,000$, i.e., $12,960,000^{2}(=167,961,600,000,000$, expressed by $\gamma)+$ $\left(2,160,000^{2} \times 6\right)$, i.e., the next lowest unit $(<)$ in the scale of numbers $(=27,-$

[^22]$993,600,000,000)$. $K .2069$, therefore, is a division table, containing a number ${ }^{1}$ of divisors of $195,955,200,000,000(=\mathbb{R})$ in an increasing series (in the left column), with their corresponding quotients in a descending series (in the right column). In all probability the text, to which this tablet belongs, began :
 "the 216,000 th part of $195,955,200,000,000=907,200,000$."

If we would take the time and trouble to find all the other divisors contained in $195,955,200,000,000$, we could easily restore the entire text. For our present purpose it will be sufficient to fill out the lacunce in the thirteen lines preserved on the Obverse and in the first ten lines of the Reverse. These twenty-three lines restored read as follows:

| $K 2069$, Obv. $1:$ | $I G I$ | $540,000=362,880,000^{2}$ |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2: I G I$ | $576,000=340,200,000^{3}$ |  |
| $3: I G I$ | $600,000=326,592,000$ |  |
| $4: I G I$ | $648,000=302,400,000$ |  |
| $5: I G I$ | $675,000=290,304,000$ |  |
| $6: I G I$ | $691,200=283,500,000$ |  |
| $7: I G I$ | $720,000=272,160,000$ |  |
| $8: I G I$ | $729,000=268,800,000$ |  |
| $9: I G I$ | $768,000=255,150,000$ |  |
| $10: I G I$ | $777,600=252,000,000$ |  |
| $11: I G I$ | $800,000=244,944,000^{4}$ |  |
| $12: I G I$ | $810,000=241,920,000$ |  |
| $13:[I G I$ | $864,000]^{5}=226,800,000$ |  |
| Rev. $14: I G I$ | $874,800=224,000,000$ |  |
| $15: I G I$ | $900,000=217,728,000$ |  |
| $16: I G I$ | $911,250=215,040,000$ |  |
| $17: I G I$ | $921,600=212,625,000$ |  |

[^23]\[

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\text { Rev. } 18: I G I & 933,120 & =210,000,000 \\
19: I G I & 937,500 & =209,018,000 \\
20: I G I & 960,000 & =204,120,000 \\
21: I G I & 972,000 & =201,000,000 \\
22: I[G I & 1,036,800]^{1} & =189,000,000 \\
23:[I G I & 1,080,000]^{2} & =181,440,000
\end{array}
$$
\]

In connection with the multiplication and division tables just treated a word should be said about the interesting text, No. 25, which I transliterate as follows:

| Li. 1: 125 | 720 | Li. 9 : | 2000 | 18 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2: IGI-GAL-BI | 103,680 | 10 : | $I G I-G A L-B I$ | 6480 |
| Li. 3: 250 | 360 | Li. 11 : | 4000 | 9 |
| 4: IGI-GAL-BI | 51,840 | 12 : | IGI-GAL-BI | 3240 |
| Li. 5: 500 | 180 | Li. 13 : | 8000 | 18 |
| 6: IGI-GAL-BI | 25,920 | 14: | IGl-GAL-BI | 1620 |
| Li. 7: 1000 | 90 | Li. 15 : | 16,000 | 9 |
| 8: IGI-GAL-BI | 12,960 | 16 : | $I G I-G A L-B I$ | 810 |

We observe ( $\alpha$ ) that the first numbers of all the odd lines $(1,3,5,7,9,11,13,15$ ) form an increasing, and all the numbers of the even lines (preceded by $I G I-G A L-B I=$ "its denominator") a descending geometrical progression; (b) that the first number of every odd line can be expressed by a fraction which has $12,960,000$ as its numerator and the closing number of the corresponding even line as its denominator, in other words $125=$ $\frac{12,960,000}{103,680} ; 250=\frac{12,980,000}{51,840} ; 500=\frac{12,960,000}{25,920} ; 1000=\frac{12,950,000}{12,960} ; 2000=\frac{12,960,000}{6,480} ; 4000=$ $\frac{12,960,000}{3,240} ; 8000=\frac{12,960,000}{1,620} ; 16,000=\frac{12,960,000}{810}$. But the closing numbers of all the odd lines $(720,360,180,90,18,9,18,9)$ are still obscure to me. Notwithstanding all my efforts to find a law in them or to solve the problem by the aid of competent American and European mathematicians, I have failed to get at their meaning. Suffice it to state that there seems to exist a certain relation between the first and the second number in each odd line. For if we write 125 (li. 1 ) $=2$ soss $+5,250=4$ soss $+10,500=8$ soss $+20,1000=1 n e ̂ r+6$ soss $+40,2000=3 n e ̂ r+200,4000=1$ shâr $+400,8000=$ $2 s h a ̂ r+1$ nêr $+200,16,000=4$ shâr +2 nêr +400 , and divide 3600 by the last figure

[^24]thus obtained $(5,10,20,40,200,400,200,400)$, we obtain the last number of every odd line $\left(\frac{3600}{5}=720, \frac{3600}{10}=360, \frac{3600}{20}=180, \frac{3600}{40}=90, \frac{3600}{200}=18, \frac{3600}{400}=9, \frac{3600}{200}=18, \frac{3600}{400}=\right.$ $9)$.

The question arises, what is the meaning of all this? What in particular is the meaning of the number $12,960,000\left(=60^{4}\right.$ or $\left.3600^{2}\right)$, which underlies all the mathematical texts here treated, including the Sippar tablet and $K 2069$ and $K 8527$ ? The answer, as it seems to me, is partly given by Plato in his "Republic," Book VIII, 546, B-D, which contains the famous "Number of Plato," " notoriously the most difficult passage in his writings." According to James Adam, to whom we owe the latest thorough discussion of the entire passage, ${ }^{2}$ accompanied by the necessary references to the immense literature written on the subject, "the difficulty lies in the Greek, and not in the calculations." The number occurs in the following context: There are four leading varieties of States and individuals (1. Timarchy, or the Cretan and Laconian State; 2. Oligarchy ; 3. Democracy ; 4. Tyranny) in addition to the perfect polity and perfect man. Inasmuch as the specific character of States is determined by that of individuals, there will be five leading types of individual character, embodied respectively in 1. the aristocratic, 2. the timarchical, 3. the oligarchical, 4. the democratical, 5. the tyrannical man. The commonwealths will be examined first and afterwards the individuals. How does Timarchy arise out of Aristocracy? It may be laid down as a universal rule that constitutional change is originated by dissension within the governing class. The Muses are invoked to tell "how first sedition entered." Everything that has a beginning has also an end. Even the ideal city, therefore, will in time perish and come to dissolution. But the cause of decay, not being contained in the ideal city itself, must come from without. What is this cause? How does this degeneration start? By wrong or inopportune marriages and births ( $\gamma \varepsilon \nu \nu$ ńбovo兀 $\pi \alpha i ̛ \delta \alpha ́ s ~ \pi o \tau \varepsilon ~ o v ̉ ~ \delta e ́ o v) . ~$ Having indicated this cause and described the manner in which degeneration begins to take place, Plato proceeds to construct a " geometrical number" ( $\left.\gamma \varepsilon \omega \mu \varepsilon \tau \rho \iota x \dot{s}_{\varsigma} \dot{\alpha} \rho \iota \partial \mu \dot{\rho} \varsigma\right)$ out of the elements of the number which expresses the shortest period of gestation in the human kind ( 216 days). This " geometrical number" $(12,960,000)$, which he calls "the

[^25]lord of better and worse births," is the arithmetical expression of a great law controlling the Universe. According to Adam this law is "the Law of Change, that law of inevitable degeneration to which the Universe and all its parts are subject,"-an interpretation from which I am obliged to differ. On the contrary, it is the Law of Uniformity or Harmony, i.e., that fundamental law which governs the Universe and all its parts, and which cannot be ignored or violated without causing an anomaly, i.e., without resulting in a degeneration of the race.









 order) has a period comprehended by a final number (i.e., the period which its creation occupies), whereas the human [creature has a period (of gestation) comprehended by a number] which is the first number (after the unit) in which root-and-square increases (i.e., processes of multiplication) comprehending three distances (i.e., the three dimensions, length, breadth and thickness) and four limits (i.e., the points by which these dimensions are determined) ${ }^{1}$ of (some) numbers (i.e., the numbers to be cubed) that make both like (i.e., square numbers) and unlike (i.e., oblong numbers) and wax and wane (a description of the sides of the Pythagorean triangle), render all things conversable and rational with one another (i.e., $3 \times 3^{2}\left(=3^{3}=27\right)+4 \times 4^{2}\left(=4^{3}=64\right)+5 \times 5^{2}\left(=5^{3}=125\right)=$ 216) ; two of which (numbers to be cubed, namely) 4, 3 (forming two of the three sides of the Pythagorean triangle), coupled with 5 (by multiplication, i.e., $4 \times 3 \times 5=60$ ) furnish two harmonies when thrice increased (i.e., three times multiplied by itself, therefore $60 \times 60 \times 60 \times 60=12,960,000$ )-the one equal an equal number of times (i.e., a square number), so many (i.e., 36) times $100\left(\right.$ i.e., $3600^{2}$ ), the other of equal length one way, but oblong: on the one side, of one hundred squares of rational diameters of five (i.e., the nearest rational number to the real diameter of a square whose side is five, i.e., to $\sqrt{\overline{50}}=7$; for $\sqrt{49}=7$ ), diminished by one each (i.e., $\left(49\left[=7^{2}\right] \times 100\right)$

[^26]$-(1 \times 100)=4900-100=4800)$, or if from irrational diameters (of five), diminished by two (each) (i.e., $\left.(\sqrt{50})^{2} \times 100-(2 \times 100)=5000-200=4800\right)$, on the other hand, of 100 cubes of 3 (i.e., $100 \times 3^{3}=2700$; the second harmony is therefore $4800 \times 2700$ ). This total number, a geometrical number (Adam: "a number measuring the earth"), is lord of better and worse births; and whenever our guardians in ignorance (of these underlying principles) promote marriages inopportunely, the offspring (of such unions) cannot be well endowed nor even favored of fortune."

According to Adam the two harmonies of Plato furnished by $60 \times 60 \times 60 \times 60$ (i.e., $3600^{2}$ and $480 \times 2700$, both $=12,960,000$ ) "represent two recurrent aeons in the life of the Universe, in which the World waxes and wanes alternately, the harmony $3600^{2}$ measuring the cycle of Uniformity, and the harmony $4800 \times 2700$ the cycle of Dissimilarity described by Plato in the Politicus. Be this as it may (cf. also p 34, note 1, below), it goes without saying that the number 3600 rests upon the Babylonian sexagesimal system. From the fact that Plato constructs his number $(12,960,000)$ out of the elements of the number expressing the shortest period of human gestation (216), it may be inferred that, according to Plato, both stand in a certain mathematical relation to one another. The smaller number (216) referring to days, it is safe to interpret $12,960,000$ also as days. Now $12,960,000$ days, expressed in years ( 360 days counted in the year), are equal to 36,000 years. And we know from Berosus, whose accuracy in all matters connected with the mythology and history of his people has been sufficiently tested (cf. Chapter I, above), that a period of 36,000 years (called "the great Platonic year," magnus Platonicus annus, in early astronomical treatises) was actually the duration of a Babylonian cycle. We also have shown above that all the multiplication and division tables from the temple libraries of Nippur and Sippar and from the library of Ashurbânapal are based upon $12,960,000$. This coincidence can scarcely be accidental. We must necessarily come to the conclusion that Plato, or rather Pythagoras, whom he closely followed, borrowed his famous number and the whole idea of a decisive influence exercised by it upon the life of man directly from Babylonia. The very expression "lord of better and worse births," as a designation for something inanimate, points to Babylonian origin. Cf. the similar use of bélu, "lord," in bêlể qarâbi, V R. 6, 17, literally " the lords of war," a designation for " war weapons," evidently thus styled because weapons are the supreme rulers in war, determining its final issue. Like divine beings or human allies endowed with reason, they, therefore, are "called upon" by the warriors to decide the battle (usha'alî kakkêshunu, Creation Story, IV, 92 ; Sanh. II, 77, etc.).

[^27]The Platonic number, $12,960,000$, measuring a period in the lifetime of the Earth, and therefore (as Adam points out) called $\gamma^{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\mu} \varepsilon \tau \rho \iota x$ о́s in the ordinary sense of the term as well as in the symbolic, is "the lord of better and worse births." In what sense this number, i.e., the square of the highest Babylonian number designated by a special name (shar), determines good and bad births has been explained in various ways. Adam believes the explanation of Plato's words to be simply this: that in the early stages of our cycle of 36,000 years, before disintegration and dissimilarity had gone far, Nature produced better children than later, because the Universe is growing worse. But this interpretation is scarcely sufficient. Evidently the Greek philosopher wants to bring out the double idea (a) that through the ignoring of a fundamental law of the Universe at some early time "strife was kindled," i.e., disagreement arose, followed by a subsequent degeneration of the whole human race; (b) that the same fundamental law still governs the Universe, and that its violation at any time is accompanied by the same result. Though, then, it is true that all the births occurring at a later stage of our cycle of 36,000 years are comparatively worse than those at an earlier period, the former are by no means of equal value. On the contrary, Plato's words: "Whenever our guardians in ignorance (of these underlying principles) promote marriages inopportunely, the offspring cannot be well endowed nor even favored of fortune," necessarily imply that whenever the guardians do observe these principles, the children born will be well-formed and prosperous in life. Hence it follows that good births are not confined to an earlier stage of the life of the Universe and bad ones to a later one, but that good and bad births may occur at all times in our cycle. Whether a birth is good or bad is determined by the number $12,960,000$, which for this very reason is called "the lord of better and worse births." The meaning of Plato's words, therefore, can be but this : In order to be a good birth, the birth of a child-i.e., the consummation of its period of gestation, marked by its entrance into life-must stand in a certain relation to 12,960,000, as the arithmetical expression of a fundamental law of the Universe, which Adam called the "Law of Change," and the writer the "Law of Harmony."

But what is this law? How can this number influence or determine the birth and future of a child? The correct solution of the problem is closely connected with the Babylonian conception of the world, ${ }^{1}$ which stands in the centre of the Babylonian religion. The Universe and everything within, whether great or small, are created and sustained by the same fundamental laws. The same powers and principles, there-

[^28]fore, which rule in the world at large, the macrocosm, are valid in the life of man, the microcosm. It is the task of astronomy, which forms the foundation of the entire system, to prove this uniformity and harmony, and to determine those invariable laws which permeate the Universe in all its parts and subdivisions. For the starry firmament through which the gods principally reveal themselves is the great book, the shitir shame (" the writing of heaven "), in which they have written the whole story of heaven and earth, its past, present and future. The astronomer studies and deciphers this divine writing, the astrologer interprets its meaning with regard to the life and affairs of man.

According to this conception, all institutions on earth, including the State ${ }^{1}$ and fàmily and even the different temples and cities scattered through the Babylonian plain, are fashioned after heavenly patterns; and all human knowledge and science, including mathematics and astronomy, even the number itself, the division of the circle into 360 degrees, the calendar, the system of measures and weights, are of divine origin (cf. Chapter I, p. 1). Everything existing in heaven is found in a lesser degree on earth, and whatsoever affects the life of the Universe affects the smaller circle of the life of man. The number $12,960,000$ governs the Universe, for $12,960,000$ days, as stated above, are equal to 36,000 years, which form a Babylonian cycle or constitute an aeon in the life of the Universe. As man is controlled by the same mathematical laws as the Universe, of which he forms a part or fraction, the same number $12,960,000$ or one of its fractions (expressed by its divisors) must control the life of man. Now we know from another passage of the "Republic" (Book X, 615 B ) that Plato reckened the duration of human life as 100 years, or $100 \times 360=36,000$ days. Hence it follows that a day in the life of man corresponds to a year in the life of the Universe; in other words, the duration of a human lifetime forms the 360 th part of an aeon of the Universe (or the 360th degree of a corresponding circle). Everything else in man's life from his birth to his death is governed by the same number or by one of its divisors, especially the period of ges-tation-i.e., the time the child is in the womb of its mother-which must stand in a certain relation to $12,960,000$ that the birth may be good and the subsequent life normal. The number assigned to the period of gestation by Plato in the passage translated above is 216 , which " was known to the Pythagoreans as the 廿uxorovxós xú $\beta_{5}$, because it expresses the period of the seven months' child counted in days." ${ }^{2} 270$ is the Pytha-

[^29]gorean period of gestation for a nine months' child. ${ }^{1}$ Each of these two periods must have inaugurated a lucky birth, for both numbers are divisors of $12,960,000$. Likewise every other period will be regarded as lucky for the child's birth, if the number of days represented by it is a divisor of $12,960,000$. In this sense the Platonic number is "the lord of better and worse births." 7,11 and 13 are no divisors of $12,960,000$, therefore they have continued even to the present to be regarded as unlucky numbers in the life and history of man. In this light examine the Babyl. sabbath question.

Future researches in the great mass of unpublished mathematical texts, omens and astrological forecasts, forming one of the most important branches of Babylonian literature, will doubtless throw more light upon the full significance of the Platonic number. For the present it must suffice by means of the Nippur tablets to have traced its origin to Babylonia and to have connected it with the fundamental Babylonian doctrine, according to which the same divine power manifests itself harmoniously in all parts of the Universe. In view of the importance attributed to this number by the Greek philosopher the tablets here published will receive an additional significance. They are not mere multiplication and division tables in our sense of the word, but have an astrological bearing. They evidently served as works of reference and as text-books to introduce students into mathematics as a means of astronomical and astrological calculations. For, as Bezold correctly stated (Literatur, p. 225), "die Mathematik stand bei den BabyloniernAssyrern, so viel wir bis jetzt wissen, vornehmlich im Dienste der Astronomie und letztere wiederum in dem einer Pseudo-wissenschaft, der Astrologie, die wahrscheinlich in Mesopotamien entstand, sich von dort aus verbreitete und bis hinein in die gnostischen Schriften und aufs Mittelalter vererbte, ohne dass wir aber bis jetzt im Stande sind, die Kette dieser ganzen Ueberlieferung, deren Glieder vielfach zerstücht sind, wiederherzustellen."

We close this chapter about the first mathematical texts from the temple library of Nippur, crystallized in the Platonic number 12,960,000, with the words of Adam (p. 208): "I know not what others will think, but to me it seems that the extraordinary range and elevation of its central ideas make the Platonic number worthy even of a writer who is full of 'thoughts that wander through eternity.' The connection between the Human Child and the Divine, the Microcosm and the Macrocosm, has played no small part in the history of human thought, and the story of a Great Year, with the hope which it affords of the $\dot{\alpha} \pi \sigma \alpha \alpha \tau \dot{\alpha} \sigma \tau \alpha \sigma \iota \varsigma$ of all things (Acts iii, 21), has been and is, in its religious setting, the solace and support of many a 'human child.'"

[^30]
## III.

## ASHLU, ṢUBBÂN, NIUM, AGARINNU, ṢILLU.

The metrological texts here submitted will be discussed in Part 2 of the present volume, where I expect to complete the series of this class of tablets excavated at Nuffar. At the same time an effort will be made to restore the different tables of measures and weights with their corresponding equivalents from all the fragments at my disposal, according to the method adopted in Series A, Vol. I, Part 2, Pls. 38-42. For the present it may suffice to call attention to the fact that the existence of an ammatu of different standards, previously inferred by Lehmann ${ }^{1}$ and others, is fully corroborated by the new tablets published on Pls. 20 and 27. They make us acquainted with two different kinds of ammatu, the one $=30$ ubanu (Nos. 41 and 42 ; No. 30, Cols. I and II), the other $=24 u b \hat{a} n u$ (No. 30, Cols. III and IV). We also see that $u b \hat{a} n u$ was not the lowest unit known, but that an ubânu could be subdivided again. For the one standard cf. $1 u b a n u=2 x$ (No. 41, and No. 30, Col. II), from which it follows that $\frac{1}{2} u b a n u$ was designated by a special name ; and 1 ubânu $=10 x$ (No. 42, and No. 30, Col. I). For the other standard cf. $1 u b \hat{a} n u=150 x$ (No. 30, Col. III, upper half), or 1 ubânu $=$ $90 x$ (No. 30, Cols. III and IV), or 1 ubânu $=? x$ (No. 30, Col. IV, lower half).

From No. 30 we learn besides that a suibbân was equal to $5 G A R$, and that an ashlu was equal to two şubbân. ${ }^{2}$ For the text of Col . I, lines 16 ff , should be restored as follows (keeping in mind that the scribe erroneously took $\frac{1}{2} G A R$ as unit in lines 8 ff .) :
Li. 16-17: $\quad 5(\times 3600=18,000 x)=10 G A R s u-u b-b a ̂ n$ (or rather $\frac{10}{2}=5 G A R$, which are called a şubbân $)_{i}$
18: $[10(\times 3600=36,000 x)]=$ ash-lu GAR $\left(=\frac{20}{2}=10 G A R=2 s u b b a ̂ n\right)$ 19-20: $[15(\times 3600=54,000 x)]=$ ash-lu $[s] u-u b-b a n$ (i.e., 1 ashlu and 1 ssubbân $=15 G A R)$

[^31]Li. $\quad 21:[20(\times 3600=72,000 x)=$ shi-ni- $] t a \operatorname{ash}-l u(i . e ., 2$ ashlu $=20 G A R)$
$22-23:\left[25(\times 3600=90,000 x)=\operatorname{shi}-n i-t\left[a^{1}\right.\right.$ ash-lu $s[u-u b-b a n]$ (i.e., 2 ashlu and 1 ṣubbàn = $25 G A R)$
24: $30(\times 3600)=108,000 x)=$ sha-la-ash ash-l[ $u]($ i.e., 3 ashlu $=30 G A R)$
25-26: $35(\times 3600)=126,000 x)=$ sha-la-ash ash-lu su-ub-ban (i.e., 3 ashhu and $1 s(u b b a d n=35 G A R)$
27: $40(\times 3600)=144,000 x)=a r-b a$ ash-lu (i.e., 4 ashlu $=40 G A R)$
evidently continued to
$$
\text { Col. II, li. } 6:[60(\times 3600)=216,000 \times=6 \text { ash-lu }](=60 G A R=1 \text { USH }) .
$$

At the rate of $30 u b a n u$ to an ammatu we accordingly obtain the following scale for the Cassite period from No. 30, Cols. I and II (upper half), and Nos. 41 and 42:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1 K A S-G I D=30 . U S H \quad(=1800 G A R) \\
& 1 \text { USH }=6 \text { ashlu }(=60 G A R) \\
& 1 \text { ashlu }=2 \operatorname{subbân}(=10 G A R) \\
& 1 \text { subbân }=5 G A R \\
& { }^{1} 1 G A R=2 \text { qunu }=12 \text { ammatu } \\
& 1 \text { ammatu }=30 \mathrm{ubanu} \\
& 1 \text { ubânu }=2(\operatorname{resp} .10) x
\end{aligned}
$$

No less interesting are the three descriptive paragraphs occurring in No. 30, Cols. II, III and IV. The first may be transliterated and translated in this connection :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Col. II, li. 10: an-ni-ti ubânu sha } 30 \text { ubânê } \\
& \text { 11: } 1 \text { ammatu am-mat sheeêru } 10 \text { GI-MESH } \\
& \text { 12: sha } 1 \text { adapu } \\
& \text { 13: am-mat ni-um } \breve{\text { ü agarinnu }} \\
& \text { 14: } \breve{u} 1 \text { ammat }{ }^{\text {isu }} \text { sillu }
\end{aligned}
$$

i.e., " this is the ubânu at the rate of $30 u b \hat{a} n e \hat{e}$ to 1 cubit (ammatu), namely the cubit of a piece of land under cultivation, 10 qanî long and 1 qanû broad (cf. Johns, l.c., p. 221), which (requires seed equal to) ${ }^{2}$ a vessel called adapu, 1 cubit wide at its narrowest ( = nium) and widest ( = agarinnu) parts and 1 cubit high ( $=$ sillu $)$.

If my interpretation of the three technical terms mentioned be correct, it necessarily follows that in the middle of the second pre-Christian millennium the Babylonians

[^32]were able to determine the contents or volume of a certain vessel, called adapu, from its three dimensions. ${ }^{1}$

The more exact determination of ni'um and agarinnu depends upon our understanding of the shape of this vessel. The earliest Babylonian copper vessels ( $A-D A-P A$ is generally determined by erû, " copper") excavated by
 me have the form of a frustum of a right circular cone. Cf. Illustr. A, and Helm and Hilprecht in Verhandlungen der Berliner anthropologischen Gesellschaft, Feb. 16,1901, p. 161 (No. 3). When applied to this class of vessels, ni'um (cf. Delitzsch, Assyr. Handwörterbuch, pp. 438 b and 460 , doubtless originally meaning "narrowness," like nîtu, cf. nîtu or nîtish lamû, "eng umschliessen") must designate its narrowest part at the top, i.e., the diameter of its circular opening ( $\alpha$ ), while agarinnu (as indicated by its ideogram, whose first compound means rapâshu, "to be wide," and its derivatives) must refer to the widest part of such a vessel at the bottom, i.e., the diameter of its circular base (b). Sillu, "shadow," has here the meaning "altitude" ${ }^{2}$ (c), evidently because the height of an object was frequently determined by ancient peoples from the length of the shadow it threw at a certain time of the day. As the two diameters of the vessel described are to be equal, the vessel in question must be a right circular cylinder

If, however, it could be proved that the vessel in question was not circular but rectangular (cf. Illustr. B), ni"um would designate "the smaller" ( $a$ ) and agarinnu" the larger side" (b) of its base, while sillu naturally would refer to its lateral edge or "altitude" (c).

As these three dimensions are to be equal, the vessel in question would be a rectangular parallelopiped whose faces are all squares, in other words a cube, [1. Which of the two vessels is meant in the
 inscription cannot yet be settled. The fact that early Babylonian vessels, whether made of stone, copper or terra-cotta, generally are circular, speaks in favor of a cylindrical vessel ; but the circumstance that it is easier to

[^33]find the volume of a cube than of a cylindrical vessel is in favor of the quadrangular vessel. The formula for calculating the volume of a cube is $V=a^{3}$. Its practical application in the second millennium before Christ would presuppose on the part of the Babylonians the knowledge of how to find the area of a square and of a rectangle in general. This, however, can be proved from ancient plans of fields accompanied by certain measures of length and surface, especially from a tablet of the period of the second dynasty of Ur, now in the Imperial Ottoman Museum of Constantinople, which was thoroughly discussed by several scholars. ${ }^{1}$ As the Babylonian scribe of this important document calculated, as accurately as we do, the area of a right triangle from the length of its two legs, of a rectangle from its base and altitude, of a trapezoid from its two bases and altitude, it follows with certainty that at this early period the Babylonians must have been familiar with the following theorems: 1 . The area of a rectangle is equal to the product of its base and altitude. 2. The area of a square is equal to the square of its side. 3. The area of a right triangle is equal to one-half the product of its base and altitude. 4. The area of a trapezoid is equal to one-half the sum of its bases multiplied by its altitude. And, furthermore, if the vessel described above was a cube, that (5) the volume of a rectangular parallelopiped is equal to the product of its base and altitude; (6) the volume of a cube is equal to the cube of its edge.

If, however, the vessel referred to was a circular cylinder, whose volume is expressed by $\pi r^{2} h$ or $\frac{\pi}{4} d^{2} h$, or, as its altitude is to be equal to its diameter, by $\frac{\pi}{4} d^{3}$, we necessarily would have to assume that the Babylonians of the second pre-Christian millennium, by practical experience or by mathematical calculation, had found out (1) that the circumference of a circle bears a constant ratio to its diameter, and (2) that they were familiar with the approximate value of this ratio $(\pi)$, which, according to the calculation of Archimedes (De Dimensione Circuli), we generally express by $\pi=\frac{22}{7}=3,14159$, but which, strictly speaking, is incommensurable. In view of the close connection between the Babylonian measures of length and time ${ }^{2}$-the former being practically a sub-divided circle unrolled-and in view of the importance which the circle plays in Babylonian astronomy, it is almost impossible to believe that the Babylonians should not have discovered this constant ratio and been familiar with its value, though they may have expressed it less accurately than Archimedes, simply by $\pi=3$.
${ }^{1}$ Cf. Thureau-Dangin in Revue $d^{\prime}$ Assyriologie, Vol. IV, pp. 16ff., and the additional literature quoted p. 12, note (continued from p. 11), above.
${ }^{2}$ Cf. Lehmann in Wochenschrift für Klassische Philologie, 1895, Cols. 127ff., and Verhandlungen der Berliner anthropologischen Gesellschaft, 1895, pp. 433f., and Zimmern, l.c. (cf. p. 35, note 1, above), pp. 56ff.
IV.

## A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL LIST.

The new chronological list which I have published as the last text of this volume (cf. Pls. XV and 30) is in more than one way of interest and importance. Since the discovery at Nippur of date lists of kings of the second dynasty of Ur (cf. B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Nos. 125 and 127), ${ }^{1}$ it was almost certain that sooner or later we would find chronological lists arranged after the manner of the lists of kings known as A and B, or Chronicle S, and at the same time giving us better information concerning the earliest history of Babylonia than the few fragmentary lines preserved on the Obverse of the last-mentioned chronicle (cf. Winckler, Untersuchungen zur Altorientalischen Geschichte, p. 153, upper fragment). For, though for some time familiar with quite a number of rulers earlier than the Hammurabi dynasty, and in some cases even able to catch a glimpse of their lives and deeds, we have thus far not succeeded in assigning to most of them their exact place in history.

Through the unearthing of documents dated in the reigns of some of the earliest rulers hitherto known-including such names as Entemena, Lugalanda, Urukagina, Sargon of Akkad, Narâm-Sin, ${ }^{2}$ Ur-Bau, Nammahani, Gudea, Ur-Ningirsu, and others ${ }^{3}$ we obtained positive proof that the system of dating was practically the same in the fourth millennium as it was at the time of Hammurabi, and furthermore that the tablet of omens concerning Sargon and his son, as had been asserted before, contained historical facts based upon ancient lists of dates. ${ }^{4}$ Considering this in connection with the fragmentary lines of Chronicle S, Cols. I and II (referred to above), and with the numerous copies of earlier inscriptions known from the library of Ashurbânapal ${ }^{5}$ and from squeezes and copies of Neo-Babylonian scribes, ${ }^{6}$ it became evident that a period not long

[^34]ago regarded as mythical, from which hundreds of dated documents are already known to us, must have been far from obscure to King Nabonidos, who refers to it, stating even the number of years lying between his own time and that of certain ancient rulers.

The new chronological fragment, written towards the end of the third millennium, ${ }^{1}$ furnishes us another link in the chain of arguments, showing that chronological lists with the names of dynasties, the number of rulers belonging to each, and their respective years of government actually existed nearly 2000 years before King Nabonidos, whose statements have been subjected to a very severe criticism. Unfortunately what is left of this precious tablet is in such a deplorable condition, that for the present its Reverse alone could be published in an autograph copy. The Obverse, largely covered with crystals and other deposits, will have to be treated chemically before it can be deciphered. As it was impossible to clean it sufficiently without endangering the Reverse, which begins to scale off, it seemed wiser to leave the Obverse untouched, until all the questions which may come up in connection with my following discussion of the Reverse have been settled (as far as this is possible) by a repeated examination of every trace of a cuneiform sign preserved.

The phototype reproduction on $\mathrm{Pl} . \mathrm{XV}$, which may serve as an illustration of the real condition of the fragment, shows that both sides of the tablet were ruled and arranged in the same way. Effaced or indistinct as most of the characters on the Obverse are at present, we can state positively that it also contained the names of rulers arranged chronologically and followed by $m u$, "year," and a number. From the remains of a perpendicular dividing line, clearly visible near the upper right edge of the Reverse, and from the fact that the fragment reaches its greatest thickness at the right lower corner of Reverse, it follows that the tablet, when complete, was about double as wide and long as the preserved portion. Its inscription consisted of four columns of writing-two on the Obverse, and two on the Reverse-each numbering about forty-five to fifty lines, altogether containing the names of about 180 early Babylonian rulers. As the inscription discussed in the following pages forms the upper half of Col. IV, beginning with King Ur-Engur of Ur, whom I place about 2500-2200 B.C., there must have been known to the Babylonians of the time of Hammurabi about 135 pre-Enguric rulers-in other words about as many as we know at present to have lived between Ur-Engur and the fall of Babylon under Nabonidos (539 B.C.). If,

[^35]therefore, such chronological lists as the one here published were preserved in the temple archives and libraries of the Neo-Babylonian empire, which appears to me certain, the priests and scholars of Nabonidos were able not only to trace the history of their country to Sargon I, but to a considerably earlier period. The question arises, what is the age represented by this early period?

The chronological references gathered from Nabonidos' inscriptions with regard to the age of Sargon I (and of other early Babylonian rulers) will always remain of great value, as a means of checking our own results, unless it can be proved that the king or his scholars, as often has been asserted, "manufactured" this high date, in order to attribute a greater importance to their own archæological researches. This proof, however, has never been furnished, notwithstanding the partly successful efforts of prominent scholars to show the impossibility of Nabonidos' assertions. We acknowledge, there are very serious difficulties connected with our accepting the king's statements. Lehmann, therefore, endeavored to reduce the 3200 years given by Nabonidos as the interval between Narâm-Sin, son of Sargon I, and his own government, by assuming a scribal error in the figure of the cuneiform texts ( 2200 years instead of 3200 ); ; Winckler, by taking it for granted that the Neo-Babylonian scholars had "keine Königsverzeichnisse mehr, welche bis auf Sargon's Zeit hinaufgereicht hätten." ${ }^{2}$ For various reasons neither theory, however ably defended, met with much favor among Assyriologists and historians. It seems to me that the problem may be approached and solved in still another manner.

After a very careful re-examination of the entire material from which we usually construct the framework of Babylonian history, and with due consideration of the two sides of the chronological fragment under discussion, which at a first glance would appear rather to support Nabonidö́s claims, I have felt it necessary to revise and modify my former conclusions. As sufficiently indicated in Chapter I and pp. 40f., above, I more than ever believe in the great age of Babylonian literature, and I have positive reasons for asserting that the Neo-Babylonian scholars had chronological lists, by means of which they could study the history of their country far beyond the time of Sargon I. At the same time, I find it no longer possible to reconcile Nabonidos' statements with certain well-known facts established by Assyriological research, not the least by Winckler's and Lehmann's own writings.

The results at which I have arrived may be summed up briefly as follows:

1. The c. 3200 years claimed by Nabonidos as the approximate age of Narâm-Sin rep-
[^36]6
resent a round sum. ${ }^{1}$ This sum was found by the royal scholars through actual honest calculations, based upon authentic chronological material at their disposal.
2. These calculations, however, are erroneous, like certain other chronological statements with regard to the age of early Babylonian rulers found in Nabonidos' texts and in other inscriptions, ${ }^{2}$ because based upon an erroneous conception of the meaning of ancient Babylonian chronological lists. But the mistake made by the king and his scholars is no worse than the mistakes constantly made by us in our own search for truth. Nabonidos' erroneous view is the more pardonable, because at one time or other it was shared by practically every Assyriologist and, I dare say, is maintained even to-day by quite a number of scholars.
3. In all probability Nabonidos obtained his dates by adding the years of the different dynasties found in his lists, believing, with his scholars and other (Babylonian and modern) chronologists, that these chronological lists contained, in successive order, the names of all the rulers occupying the throne of Babylonia from the earliest times accessible down to his own government.
4. In examining these chronological lists we must, however, distinguish between kings of a certain city or district and kings or emperors (to use this more significant title) of Babylonia. For not all the members of the various dynasties recorded could lay claim to the more significant of these two titles. The chronological lists, then, instruct us only concerning certain cities and districts having a temporary hegemony over other Babylonian cities and states, by giving us the names of these cities or districts, together with the names and reigns of their local rulers constituting certain dynasties; but they do not give us any information as to how many of these local rulers were emperors of Babylonia at the same time.
5. The chronological lists, therefore, are of only relative value for the reconstruction of early Babylonian chronology. The names of those local kings who also were emperors of Babylonia, the duration of their reigns as emperors and their succession, must be established from other sources, notably by means of their titles assumed in their own inscriptions, through certain events referred to in documents dated in their reigns, and by other direct or indirect evidence drawn from their own and contemporaneous inscriptions or from certain historical references made by subsequent rulers.

[^37]6. As already assumed by Hommel, Winckler, Niebuhr, Lindl, etc., the dynasties known from the chronological lists sometimes overlap each other. In referring my readers to the well-known literature on this subject, I state it as my own conviction, based upon acknowledged facts and new arguments, (a) that about the last 100 years of the first dynasty of Isin (for which compare my list below) are contemporaneous with the first 100 years of the Hammurabi dynasty (cf. p. 49, note 5, below), and that the dynasties of Erech (represented by Sin-gâshid, etc.) and Larsam (known from Nûr-Immer, etc.) must be placed in the same general period; ${ }^{( }(b)$ that the dynasty of $\operatorname{SHESH}(U R U)$ $A Z A G(\underline{H} A)$, which, according to all evidence, arose in the "Sea-Land," mât tâmdim, for a great part is contemporaneous with the Hammurabi dynasty (cf. pp. 55 ff ., below); ${ }^{2}$ (c) that at least the first 80-100 years of the Cassite dynasty run parallel with the corresponding closing years of the preceding dynasties; ${ }^{3}$ (d) that the first c. 35-40 years of the
${ }^{1}$ For the present cf. Winckler in Schrader's $K . A . T .,{ }^{3}$ p. 19, and my remarks, pp. 55f., below.
${ }^{2}$ The mere fact that, according to our present knowledge, as early as the ninth year of Samsu-iluna the Cassites knocked at the gates of Babylonia (cf. King, "The Letters and Inscriptions of Hammurabi," Vol. III, p. 242), coupled with the other no less remarkable fact that until the present day not a single inscription can be assigned with absolute certainty to a king of the so-called second dynasty (cf., however, my additional remarks, pp. 55ff., below), renders it almost impossible to believe that the Cassite invaders should have conquered Babylonia only about 500 years after their first appearance in this country (cf. also Ranke, B. E., Series A, Vol. VI, Part 1, p. 8), or that this second dynasty could have originated in Babylonia proper. In Assyriaca, pp. 20ff., especially pp. 24, 29ff., I pointed out that Gulkishar, "king of the Sea-Land"' (B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 1, Pl: 30, li. 6; Gir either to be read Gul, or to be explained in the same way as Lagamar alongside of La-gamal (Sayce in P.B.S. A., Vol. XXVIII, p. 196), irdud ( $=i s h d u d$ ) alongside of ildud, Ungnad, Babyl.-Assyr. Gram., p. 10; martakal alongside of maltakal (and mashtakal, Delitzsch, Assyr. Gram., 2nd ed., p. 129), but in either case a proof for the Sumerian pronunciation of the king's name, possibly adopted after his destruction of the (sharrut) Fishshati), and the Gulkishar of the second dynasty are identical. For it is impossible to assume that two persons with the same rare name (never occurring again in the Babyl. literature) should have been kings of two different countries at precisely the same time, namely 696 years before Nebuchadrezzar I, whose exact position in Babylonian history can now be ascertained from a new boundary stone from Nippur (ct. p. 44, note 1). If then the two Gulkishars are the same person, it necessarily follows that the SHESH(URU)-AZAG (HA) of the chronological list must be either identical with mat tamdim or have formed a part of it. Only the first sign seems to be certain $(S H E S H)$. The second sign is given as $A Z A G$ or $\mathscr{H} A$ (both $=K U$ ). Is it possible that $S H E S H$ $A Z A G(H A)$ is an ideogram of the same meaning as $S H E S H(-A)=$ Marratu (cf. K. 246, Col. I, 37)? In this case, like the latter, it would be an ideogram for Marratuki, designating the Babylonian district adjoining the nârMarratu (cf. the map in Delitzsch, Wo lag das Paradies?), in other words the mat tâdim. Cf. also Hommel in P. S. B. A., November, 1893, p. 15. For a brief summary of the principal events connected with "the Sea-Land" in Baby-lonian-Assyrian history, cf. Weissbach, Babylonische Miscellen, p.8. A city or town aluBit-dSin-ma-gir is mentioned in P.96, li. $4(=$ Peiser, Urkunden aus der Zeit der dritten babylonischen Dynastie, pp. 6 and 7). [While visiting London in October, 1906, I communicated my theory as to the origin of the second dynasty to King, who informed me that he had reached a similar conclusion with the help of new material to be published in his fortheoming work, "Chronicles concerning Early Babylonian Kings," being volumes II and III of his "Studies in Eastern History,' to which I refer Assyriologists for a full discussion of an important question, upon which I can merely touch here.]
${ }^{3}$ The first Cassite ruler who was in complete control of Babylonia seems to have been (Agum-) Kakrime (on whom cf. p. 5 , note 8 , above), to judge from his titles and achievements. He probably occupied the seventh place in the list of Cassite rulers. Cf. especially his title mukin ishid kussî abishu (Col. I, 1i. 28-29) and Winckler, A. F., pp. 517 ff .

PA-SIIE (i.e., the second Isin) dynasty are contemporaneous with the last $35-40$ years of the Cassite dynasty, and that Nebuchadrezzar I, the third or fourth king of this second dynasty of Isin, was the founder of the supremacy maintained by its members as emperors of Babylonia. ${ }^{1}$
7. According to my interpretation of Nabonidos' method, the dates assigned by him to certain periods of Babylonian history would have been about as follows: We begin our calculation with the first year of Nebuchadrezzar I as emperor of Babylonia (which not necessarily was the first year of his reign as king of Isin; on the contrary, strong reasons speak against it), i.e., the first year after his overthrow and expulsion of the Cassite dynasty (the last year of Bêl-shum-iddina, last king of the Cassite dynasty, being the shat rêsh sharrâti of Nebuchadrezzar; for we know from the dated Cassite tablets that at this early period the year of accession to the throne was already distinguished from the following years of a king's reign, according to the well-known method prevailing in Neo-Babylonian times). At the same time we allow a reasonable time for the unknown periods of the dynasties of Erech and Larsam, which, if separately enumerated in Nabonidos' chronological list, must have covered at least c. 150 years. If only the dynasty of Larsam was given, an allowance of c .100 years will be moderate. The first year of Nebuchadrezzar I as emperor of Babylonia may be given approximately as 1140 B.C., ${ }^{2}$ to which we must add about 10 to 15 years, when he was only king of Isin (=1150-55 B.C.), + the 23 years of his predecessors known from the chronological list (=c. 1173-78 B.C.) $+576 \frac{3}{4}$ years of the Cassite dynasty ( $=$ c. $1750-1755$ B.C., the 9 months counted as a full year) +368 years of the second dynasty ( $=$ c. 2118-23

[^38]B.C.) +304 (resp. 305) years of the Hammurabi dynasty ( $=$ c. 2422(8) B.C.) + c. 100150 years of the dynasties of Larsam and Erech ( $=$ c. $2552-2572(8)$ B.C.) $+225 \frac{1}{2}$ years of the first dynasty of Isin (cf. the new chronological fragment below $=\mathrm{c} .2748$ $2798(2804)$ B.C. $)+117$ years of the dynasty of Ur (cf. the new chronological fragment below $=2865-2915(21)$ B.C.). In other words, at a moderate estimate, we would obtain c. 2865 or 2915 B.C. as the beginning of the reign of Ur-Engur, c. 2655 or 2705 B.C. as that of Ur-d ${ }^{d}$ IN-IB, c. 2322 or 2371 as that of Hammurabi, c. 2123 B.C. for the first king of the 2nd dynasty, c. 1756 B.C. as the first year of the Cassite dynasty, i.e., practically the chronology hitherto more or less adopted by Assyriologists, who generally reduced it by about 100 years, because it was unknown that the first dynasty of Isin ruled as long as 225 years, represented as it is by 16 kings, only half of whom were previously known to us. Considering the fact that, according to all evidence (cf. p. 40, above) when complete, the new chronological list published on Pl. 30 must have contained about 135 pre-Enguric rulers, and, furthermore, that the "Babylonische Kleinstaaterei" was a much more pronounced feature in the period preceding Ur-Engur than afterwards, I do not hesitate to assume that the c. $835-885$ years required to fill out the gap between c. 3750 B.C. (Narâm-Sin's age according to Nabonidos) and c. 2865-2915 B.C. (Ur-Engur) could easily have been obtained on the part of Nabonidos by simply adding the reigns of the different rulers of the largely contemporaneous dynasties in successive order recorded between Narâm-Sin and Ur-Engur in his evidently better preserved chronological lists.
8. According to my own view of Babylonian chronology, these traditional high dates from Ur-Engur to Nebuchadrezzar I are impossible and must be reduced by about $3-400$ and in some cases even 500 years. Accordingly, I assign c. 1140 B.C. to Nebuchadrezzar I as emperor of Babylonia and successor to Bêl-shum-iddina, last member of the Cassite dynasty (ceasing to reign c. 1141 B.C.) ; c. 1717 to Gandash, as ruler of the Cassite hordes, or c. 1625 to (Agum-) Kakrime, as probably the first Cassite emperor of Babylonia. According to our conception of the extent of the contemporaneous reigns of members of the so-called second and the Cassite dynasties with the first dynasty of Babylon, the dates to be assigned to Hammurabi must vary considerably. At the lowest estimate he ruled c. 1830 B.C., at the highest he cannot be placed beyond 2000 B.C. $\mathrm{Ur}^{-}{ }^{d}$ NIN-IB, accordingly, would have ruled some time between 2300 and 2000 B.C., Ur-Engur some time between 2500 and 2200 B.C., Sargon I between 3000 and 2700 B.C.

I lay stress only upon the principle set forth above. The dates themselves must be understood as mere possibilities. They cannot be fixed more accurately without a much better knowledge of Babylonian history than, I frankly confess, we have at present.

After this brief digression from our principal subject, we return to an examination of the new chronological fragment.

The Reverse of this important fragment reads as follows:

1. Urum ${ }^{k i}$-ma Ur- ${ }^{d}$ Engur-ra lugal-àm
2. Dun-gi
3. Bûr-d ${ }^{-} \dot{S i n-n a}$
4. Gimil-dSin
5. $I-b i{ }^{d}{ }^{d} S i n$
dumu Ur- ${ }^{d}$ Engur-ge
dumu Dun-gi-ge
dити Bû-dSin-na-ge
dumu Gimil- ${ }^{\text {Sinin}}$-na-ge

ти 18 in- $a[g]$
ти 58 in-ag
ти 9 in-ag
mu $\quad 7$ in- $\alpha g$
mu 25 in-ag
6. 5 lugal-e-ne
[mu] 117 in-ag-esh
7. Urum ${ }^{k i}$ bal(?)-bi ba-bal nam-lugal-bi $\grave{I}-s i-i n^{k i}$ shí-ba-t[i]
8. ذ̇-si-in ${ }^{k i}-n a$ Ish-bi- ${ }^{d} \grave{U}_{r-r} a$ lugal-àm
mu 32 in-ag
9. Gimil-ili-shu
10. I-din- ${ }^{d} D a-g a n$
11. Ish-me- ${ }^{d}$ Da-gan
12. $L[i]-b[i]-i t-\grave{s} h-t a r$
dити $I s h-b i-{ }^{d}$ Ùr-ra-ge
mu 10 in-ag
dumu Gimil-ili-shú-ge mu 21 in-ag
duти I-din- ${ }^{d} D a-g a n-g e \quad$ mu 20 in-a $[g]$
dити Ish-me-d Da-gan-ge mи 11 in- $a[g]$
13. Ur-[d $N I N-I] B$
14. $\left[B u r-{ }^{d} S i\right] n$
dити $U_{\imath}{ }^{d}$ NTN-IB-ge
ти 28 in- $\alpha[g]$
15. $I[-t e-i v-K] A-[s h] a$
dumu Bur- ${ }^{d} \operatorname{Sin}$
shesh
17. ${ }^{d} \operatorname{Sin}(?)-. .-. .-.$.
18. ${ }^{d} B e \hat{e}[l]-b a-n[i]$
19. Za-me(?)-..-e(?)
20. ..-..-..
21. ${ }^{a} E a$ (DISH?)-.--.
22. ${ }^{d} \operatorname{Sin}-m a-[g i] r$.
23. $\operatorname{Da-m[i]-iq-ili-sh\hat {u}\quad \text {dитии}{}^{d}\operatorname {Sin}-ma-gir~}$
24. $\quad[16$ lugal-e-n]e

Translation :

1. Ur : Ur-Engur became king,
2. Dungi,
son of Ur-Engur,
son of Dungi,
son of Bûr-Sin,
son of Gimil-Sin,
3. Ur, its reign(?) was overthrown, Isin took its kingdom.
ruled 18 years.
ruled 58 years.
ruled 9 years.
ruled 7 years.
ruled 25 years.
ruled 117 years.
4. Ibi-Sin,
5. 5 kings,
6. Isin : Ishbi-Ura became king,
7. Bûr-Sin,
8. Gimil-Sin,
ruled 32 years.
9. Gimil-ilishu,
10. Idin-Dagân,
11. Ishme-Dagân,
12. Libit-Ishtar,
13. Ur-Ninib,
14. Bûr-Sin,
15. Itêr-KA-sha,
16. ?
17. $\operatorname{Sin}(?)-. .-.$, ,
18. Bêl-bâni,
19. Za-me(?)-..-e(?),
20.?
20. $\mathrm{Ea}(?)-. .-.$.
21. Sin-mâgir,
22. Dâmiq-ilishu,
23. 16 kings,
son of Ishbi-Ura, ruled 10 years.
son of Gimil-ilishu, ruled 21 years.
son of Idin-Dagân,
son of Ishme-Dagân,
son of Ur-Ninib,
son of Bûr-Sin,
brother (of the preceding),
ruled 20 years.
ruled 11 years.
ruled 28 years.
ruled 21 years.
ruled 5 years.
ruled 7 years.
ruled 6 months.
ruled 24 years.
ruled 3 years.
ruled 5 years.
ruled 4 years.
ruled 11 years.
ruled 23 years.
ruled 225 years 6 months.
The Sumerian does not offer any difficulty. Most of the lines close with in-ag, " he ruled," two lines ( 6 and 24) with in-ag-esh, "they ruled," phrases well known from Chronicle $S$ (Winckler, Untersuchungen, p. 153). For ag = bêlu, "to rule," cf. V $R .13,50 \mathrm{a}$. All the names preceded by dumu, "son of," have the genitive sign ge, except Bur-dSin (li. 15) and "Sin-mâgir (li. 23). Observe the Verlängerungssilbe "ra" after $U r_{-}^{d}$ Engur (li. 1, but, strangely enough, omitted in li. 2 before ge), which proves that the royal name ended in $r$. For the reading "engzr" cf. Thureau-Dangin, in Revue d'Assyriologie, Vol. V, p. 70, note 2, and Les Inscriptions de Sumer et d'Alkad, p. 263, note 9 . No less unusual is the Verlängerungssilbe " $n a$ " after ${ }^{d} \operatorname{Sin}$ in lines $3-5$. This use of the Verlängerungssilben "ra" and "na" (especially the latter, assuring the Semitic reading of ${ }^{d} E N-Z U={ }^{d} \mathrm{Sin}$ ), in connection with the omission of the Verlängerungssilben " ma" after Urum ${ }^{k i}$ and "na" after Isin" (li. 7)—generally omitted only in the Semitic inscriptions of the kings of Ur and Isin and of their period, while the Sumerian texts have them-proves that the Sumerian was written by a Semitic scribe, which for other reasons we anyhow would have assumed.

Lugal-A-AN (lines 1 and 8) = lugal-àm (cf. Z. K., Vol. I, p. 300), " he was " or " he became king" (cf. dingir-ra-àm, "he was a god," Prince, "Materials for a Sumerian Lexicon," p. 11), while lugal-e, often occurring in the dates of the 1. dynasty of Babylon and elsewhere, means simply "the king" (not "he became king" (Lindl and King) nor "king of E," i.e., Babylon, as I formerly translated), cf. Delitzsch in B. A.,

Vol. IV, p. 404, Daiches, A.R., p. 71, Ranke, B.E., Series A, VI, 1, p. 11, note 1. In li. 6 by mistake the scribe omitted $m u$, distinct traces of which are preserved in li. 24. But the omission of the sign $Z U$ after ${ }^{d} E N$ (cf. Pl. XV) in the name of Gimil-d Sin (li.5) is due to an error on the part of the editor. Urum ${ }^{k i}$ ma (li. 1) and $\sin ^{k i}-n a$ (li. 8), marking the beginning of a new dynasty, are placed emphatically at the beginning of the line, without any grammatical connection with the words following. The end of li. 7 is very probably to be read shit-ba-ti, "it took, seized," a phrase well known from the business records ( $=$ "he received " = imhur or malirr) of the third millennium. The writing $I$-bi- ${ }^{d} \operatorname{Sin}$ (li. 5 ) definitely settles the reading of the name of the last king of the dynasty of Ur, generally written $I$-NE-d $\operatorname{Sin}$, in favor of Delitzsch's proposition $=I-6 \iota^{d} \operatorname{Sin}$ (in B. A., Vol. II, p. 626), accepted by Ranke, Dissertation, p. 28, B. E., Series D, Vol. III, p. 229, note 5, Thureau-Dangin, Recueil de Tablettes Chaldéennes, p. I, note 2, and Les Inscriptions de Sumer et d'Akkad, p. 289, note 6, and others-a transliteration which Delitzsch himself, however, lately abandoned again in his Babylonische und assyrische Herrscherlisten.

For the identity of the names Bûr (written ideographically, cf. Brünnow, "A Classified List," No. 9068) ${ }^{-}$Sin and $\operatorname{Bur}$ (written syllabically, cf. Brünnow, l.c., No. 6971)-Sin, cf. Delitzsch, in B. A., Vol. II, pp. 622ff. The name of King $L i-b i-i t-I \sinh (=U)$-tár ( = DAR, cf. Thureau-Dangin, Les Inscriptions de Sumer et d'Akkad, p. 290), known already from his two cone inscriptions (King, "Cuneiform Texts," Vol. XXI, Pls. 18 and 19), is written Li-bit- ${ }^{d} I_{s h-t a r}$ in $K 2973$ (King, "Cuneiform Texts," Vol. XIII, Pl. 45, Obv., li. 4). I am inclined to regard the name Dun-gi as an abbreviated Semitic name written syllabically $=$ Dumqi. The verb damâqu is commonly used in the earlier Semitic proper names, cf. li. 23 of our chronological list and the names Dâmiq-Marduk, Damqi-Bêl, Damqija, Damqi-ilishu, Damqi-Sin, Ilu-dâmiq, Ina-în-bêl-ilề-dâmiq, Eu-mudamiq, and especially the two instructive feminine names, $D u$-mu-uq-be-el-lim and $\operatorname{Ili}-d u m(T U M)-q i^{1}$ (which, however, can also be read $I i-i b-q i$; for $i b i q$ and $i b-k u$ likewise are common elements in early proper names).

The preserved portion of the Reverse is divided into two sections (a) lines 1-6: the kings of the dynasty of Ur, beginning with: "Ur: Ur-Engur became king, he ruled 18 years" (li. 1), and closing with: " 5 kings ruled 117 years" (li. 6). (b) lines 7-24: the kings of the dynasty of Isin, beginning with : "Ur, its reign(?) ceased" (literally " broke," "tore," "perished," "was destroyed," or the like), "Isin seized its kinghood" (li. 7). "Isin : Ishbi-Ura became king, he ruled 32 years" (li. 8), and closing with : " 16 kings ruled 225 years."

Mutilated as some of the names at the lower end of the fragment are, the number

[^39]of rulers composing the two dynasties and their respective reigns are absolutely certain. Besides, two of the royal names (lines 15 and 18) can be restored with great probability from several unpublished Nippur tablets containing the names of two otherwise unknown kings, who for various reasons must have been members of the dynasty of Isin, These two royal names are ${ }^{d} I-t e-i r-K A-s h a ́$, and ${ }^{d} B e ̂ l-b a-n i$. The last mentioned king. already referred to by Scheil (in Recueil, Vol. XIX, Note XXVII, Reprint, p. 23), who found him on M. I. O., Ni. 353, is known to me from three other dated Nippur tablets, among them C. B. M. 11,564 and M. I. O., Ni. 1898. King ${ }^{d} I$-te-ir-KA-shá (on KA-shá, cf. Ranke, B. E., Series D, Vol. III, pp. 235f., note 9) appears on three dated tablets. The one-the interior of a case-tablet, covered repeatedly with the seal impression of a certain $A w i l^{d} N I N-I B$, son of $K A(=A w a t-\text { or } B \hat{\imath}-)^{d} N I N-I B$, prominently mentioned in the transaction-is dated "argu $A B-U D-D U(i . e ., T e b e t u m) m u{ }^{d} I$-te-ir$K A$-shá lugal-e." The second is a fragment closing with "arbu $A P I N-G A B-A$ (i.e., Aralh-samna) mu ${ }^{d} I$-te-ir-KA-shá lugal," followed by three not very distinct lines (continuing the date and mentioning Bêl and Nippur). The third is among the unclassified tablets which I examined only once very hastily. There occurs another king by the name of $A M-S H U(?)-i l i-b(m) \alpha-A N$ on the unpublished tablet C.B.M.11,013, who, however, cannot belong to this dynasty (cf. p. 55, note 4). In l. 16 of the new chronological list we find the sign $S H E S H$ after the traces of $a n($ ?), which I do not regard as part of the name, but as an apposition to X , designating the latter as the brother of the preceding King ${ }^{d} l-t e-i r-K A$-shá, and, therefore, as a second son of Bûr-Sin of Isin. Cf. the same sign SHESH placed after Shushi of the dynasty of SHESH(URU)-KU ${ }^{k i}$ (on the larger list of kings, known as A), who thereby is designated as the brother. ${ }^{2}$ of Ishkibal.

With the exception of one contract tablet excavated by Scheil at Abû Habba ${ }^{3}$ and dated "in the year after that in which King [DÂ]miq-ilishu built the wall of Isin," documents dated according to kings of the dynasty of Isin, to the best of my knowledge, have thus far been discovered only at Nuffar. Besides the tablets just treated, I have seen one dated "in the year when ${ }^{d} U r-{ }^{d} N I N I B^{4}$. ." (rest mutilated, M. I. O., Ni. 1912), three in the reign of ${ }^{d} D a-m i-i q-i l i-s h u$ lugal (cf. C. B. $M .11,662$ ), ${ }^{5}$ and one or two in the reign

[^40]of ${ }^{d}$ Bur- ${ }^{d} \mathrm{Sin} .^{1} \quad$ Altogether, therefore, five kings of this dynasty are represented by dated tablets. I have no doubt a good number of the insufficiently dated Nippur documents (i.e., dated after an important event but omitting the name of the ruler) will turn out to belong to the same period. Dadmiq-ilishu is also known from two fragmentary terracotta cones with identical inscriptions, excavated at Nuffar in 1893 and 1895 respectively, ${ }^{2}$ and probably also from Chronicle S. (large fragm., li. 3) and $K .3992$, li. 10 (cf. Winckler, $A . F$., pp. 515ff.). Sin-mâgir is represented by two fragments of a terra-cotta cone (of the same general type as those of Dâmiq-ilishu from Nippur) excavated by the German expedition in the temple E-PA-TU-TI-LA of Babylon and published by Weissbach in his Babylonische Miscellen, Pl. 1, No. 1 and p.1. A much mutilated inscription of ${ }^{d}$ Idin-Dagân ${ }^{3}$ of Isin was excavated by Scheil at Abû Habba and published in Recueil,
 is mentioned in li. 9 of another mutilated text published in IV R. ${ }^{2} 35$, No. $7 .{ }^{6}$ His son Gimil-ilishu ${ }^{7}$ is not yet known outside of the chronological list here published. ${ }^{d}$ Ishme-
temple E-ditar-kalama of Shamash" (rest broken off). Cf. also the next footnote. The temple referred to in this date is evidently identical with the temple of the same name in Babylon restored by Nebuchadrezzar II, East India House Inscr., Col. IV, 29-34. It then would follow that at this time Dâmiq-ilishu was in possession of Babylon, like his father Sin-mâgir, whose fragmentary building inscription was discovered by the German expedition in the ruins of the temple E-PA-TU-TI-LA (cf. Weissbach, Babylonische Miscellen, Pl. 1 and p.1). If my theory concerning the contemporaneous reigns of rulers of the dynasty of $I \sin$ and the first dynasty of Babylon is correct, the 17 th year of Sin-mubalit, when Isin was conquered, would be identical with the 23d year of Dâmiq-ilishu of Isin, and the second year of Apil-Sin i dentical with the first year of Sin-mâgir. It is a remarkable fact that in the list of dates of the first dynasty of Babylon published by King ("The Letters and Inscriptions of Hammurabi," Vol. III, pp. 213ff.) important building operations are reported to have been in progress in Babylon during the rule of Apil-Sin, whom I regard as the vassal of the last two kings of Isin. The first year of Sumu-abu would have coincided with about the sixth year of Bûr-Sin II of Isin.
${ }^{1}$ I find in my notebook the following entry: arhuKIN-d[Ninni] mu dBur-dSin lugal-e bad Mi-gir-dNIN-IN$S I-N A$ mu-ru, "in the month of Elûlu, when King Bûr-Sin built the wall Migir-dNIN-IN-SI-NA"-perhaps the same wall afterwards called Dâmiq-ilishu-migir-dNIN-IB (cf. Hilprecht, B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 414) and referred to in two dates of this king, namely arhuGUD-SI-DI mu dDa-mi-iq-ili-shu bad gal $\bar{I}-\operatorname{si}-i n k i-n a \quad m u-u n-m i-a$, "in the month of Airu, when Dâmiq-ilishu built the great wall of Isin," and arhuNE-NE-GAR mu ush-sa dDa-mi-iq-ili-shú lugal-e bad gal İ-si-inki-na mu-ru, " the year after that in which D. built the great wall of Isin."
${ }^{2}$ Cf. Hilprecht, B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 418. The complete text will be found in B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 3.
${ }^{3}$ Another person of the same name is mentioned by Ranke, B. $E$., Series D, Vol. III, p. 95.
${ }^{4}$ Already classified with the kings of Isin by Radau ("Early Babylonian History,' pp. 231ff.) and the present writer ( $B . E$., Series D, Vol. I, p. 382, note 2). I wrote (l.c.): "It (i.e., the dynasty of Isin) comprised at least seven kings, Ishbigirra, Ur-Ninib, Libit-Ishtar, Bûr-Sin II, Dâmiq-ilishu, Idin-Dagân and Ishme-Dagân,'' regarding it even then as possible that Bêl-bani and Rîm-Anum also belonged to the same dynasty.
${ }^{5}$ Scheil (in Recueil, Vol. XIX, p. 48), protesting against the reading $1 s h-b i$, substitutes $I s h$-gash, which however is impossible (cf. Radau, l.c., p. 229). For the reading of the second element Ür-re, generally rendered Gir-ra, from which the former is a later developmeni, cf. Ranke, B. E., Series D, Vol. III, p. 208 (compared with Pinches in "Babylonian and Oriental Record,"'Vol. I, p. 208; Jensen in Z. A., Vol. III, p. 207, and Kosmologie, p. 145, note 1).
${ }^{8}$ Cl. Winckler in Schrader's K. B., Vol. III, p. 86.
${ }^{7}$ This name, however, is frequently found on documents of that general period, of Ranke, B. E., Series D. Vol.
III, p. 84.
${ }^{d}$ Dagân, ${ }^{d}$ Ur- $^{d}$ NIN-IB and ${ }^{d}$ Bûr- ${ }^{d}$ Sin left numerous bricks inscribed with their names and titles at Nuffar. ${ }^{1}$ For the inscriptions of Libit-Ishtar cf. p. 48, above.

The result of our examination is that ten of the sixteen kings forming the dynasty of Isin are already familiar to us from their own inscriptions or from documents dated in their reigns. An eleventh name is obtained from li. 9 of the new chronological list (Gimil-ilishu). It is very probable that the remaining five members, whose identification is facilitated by the traces of cuneiform characters left in li. 16-17, 19-21, will be found on some of the unclassified tablets from Nuffar. Hommel recently called my attention to a king Nûr-d Dagân, mentioned in "Cuneiform Texts," as possibly one of these missing kings. ${ }^{d}$ Sin-i-ri-ba-am (Scheil in Recueil, Vol. XXIV, Note LXII, and in O. L. Z., 1905, Col. 350) may have been another, unless the one or both belonged to the Larsa dynasty. As to the so-called "Usurpatoren" of the first dynasty cf. pp. 56 ff .

We observe that apart from Bêl-bâni and Sin-mâgir, whose names begin with a deity and, therefore, with the sign for "god," the names of all the known kings of this dynasty are determined by $i l u$ in their own inscriptions and in those written during their government, while they naturally appear without any determinative in the chronological list. We have known for some time that the rise of the dynasty of Isin was closely connected with the possession of the great sanctuary at Nippur; for its members place the title sib nig-nam-il Niburni, or sib shag Nibur ${ }^{k i} d u g-d u g$, or sib B ÚR-na-Niburri, or sib $u-a \ldots{ }^{d}$ Enlila, or $u-a$ Nibur ${ }^{k i}$, by which they designate themselves as the sublime or pious shepherds who have the interest of the temple of Bêl at heart, before all their other titles. And we also know that the significant title: lugal an-ub-da tab-tab-ba= shar kibrat arba'im, "king of the four quarters of the world," was bestowed by the high-priest of Bêl at Nippur (cf. my remarks in B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 2, pp. 53ff., and Series D, Vol. I, pp. 481f., where the wall of Nippur is called by King Samsu-iluna: Markas-mâtâtim, " the link of the lands," i.e., " the wall which unites all the lands," in other words, "the centre of the world"). These kings then evidently enjoyed divine honors, like Sargon I, Narâm-Sin, Dungi, Bûr-Sin I, Gimil-Sin, Ibi-Sin before them, because by reason of this title they were the human representatives of Bêl on earth. The custom of deification seems to have sprung up with Sargon I, been revived by Dungi ${ }^{2}$ and his

[^41]successors (including Nûr-Immer and Rîm-Sin), and after a lapse of many centuries adopted again by Kurigalzu, Nazi-Maruttash, Kadashman-Turgu, Kadashman-Bêl, ${ }^{1}$ Kudur-Bêl and Shagarakti-Shuriash, who made Nippur their stronghold ${ }^{2}$ and evidently gained the support of its priesthood by endeavoring to restore the former glory of Ekur and by stepping forward as the champions of the sacred rights of "the father of the gods," who in return for their loyalty and devotion raised them to the rank of gods while still living. ${ }^{3}$ The neglect of the Nippur cult, i.e., the diminution of the temple income, seems to have commenced with Bitiliâshu. On the new boundary stone of Nebuchadrezzar I. from Nippur (cf. p. 44, note 1, above) this is given as the cause of the anger of Bêl, resulting in the downfall of the Cassite dynasty.

On the basis of the two Nippur lists containing dates of Dungi, Bûr-Sin and Gimil-

[^42]Sin in chronological order, ${ }^{1}$ and certain additional material gathered by several Assyriologists from dated tablets, seal impressions and other cuneiform texts, Thureau-Dangin had previously established the order of succession of the five kings of Ur, at the same time stating that Ur-Engur ruled at least four, Dungi at least forty-six, and Ibi-Sin at least three years, while Bûr-Sin and Gimil-Sin must have ruled nine years each. ${ }^{2}$ With the exception of the last mentioned king, the French Assyriologist was correct. But the nine years ascribed by him to Gimil-Sin are evidently due to a mistake somewhere (perhaps two of the years of this king's reign were known by two different dates, as e.g., several years of Dungi ${ }^{3}$ ), for the list of dates edited by me in B. E., Series A, Vol. I, No. 127 (in accordance with Thureau-Dangin's own calculations, Les inscriptions de Sumer et d'Akkad, pp. 336f.), assigns only seven years to Gimil-Sin, in entire accord with the new chronological list discussed above. The unclassified dates given by Scheil, Recueil, Vol. XIX, pp. 54ff., and Thureau-Dangin, l.c., pp. 336ff., as we may now safely assume, belong to Ur-Engur, Dungi, Ibi-Sin of Ur, and perhaps also to kings of Isin and Larsa.

The information conveyed by the new chronological tablet is of extraordinary importance for our better understanding of a very obscure chapter of Babylonian history, and surely we are grateful for what we have received. But at the same time one cannot help wishing that at least one more line was preserved on the fragment to serve as a first guide through the period which separates the reign of the last king of Isin from the time of Hammurabi. Considering all the evidence before us, I must adhere to my previously expressed conviction (B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 382), that the dynasty of Isin was supplanted by the dynasty of Larsa. For not only are the tablets dated in the reign of Rîm-Sin found practically in the same stratum at Nippur, but the few remains of cuneiform signs left in li. 25 of the new chronological list seem to favor this view. For assuming that li. 25 was phrased as li. 7 -which, however, is nothing but a mere hypothesis-the traces under " 6 in-ag" of li. 24 would contain part of the name of the city which succeeded Isin, i.e., UD (part of the head of the perpendicular wedge of the sign preserved) $+U N U$ (the two upper horizontal wedges preserved) $+K I$ (two horizontal wedges preserved?) = Larsa. Disregarding the trace of the first sign (which however cannot be the remains of $b i$ ), we obtain the group $U N U-K I=$ Uruk, which of course would fit another theory, according to which the dynasty of Erech, known to us from the names of Sin-gâshid and Sin-gâmil, supplanted the dynasty of Isin. But to

[^43]judge from their titles in their own inscriptions ("king of Uruk, king of Amnanum ") and from the utter absence of their inscriptions at Nippur, these kings of Erech (unless $=$ $S H E S H(U R U)-K U)$ did not play an important political rôle in the history of Babylonia.

In $B . E$., Series D, Vol. I, pp. 378 ff . and 512 ff ., I had reached the conclusion that the breaking and seattering of so many vases, statues, slabs, etc., in the temple court of Nippur (prior to Ur- ${ }^{d} N I N-I B$ 's accession to the throne), and of thousands of literary documents in the Temple Library and School to the south of it, "not only indicates a period of great political disturbance in Babylonia but points unmistakably to a foreign invasion," which I called the first Elamitic invasion, occurring about 125 years before the second, from which Hammurabi finally freed Babylonia. The question arises whether or not these two invasions are only two known phases of that great political movement and migration of nations taking place in Western Asia at that period and first felt in Babylonia as an invasion by the Elamites, ${ }^{1}$ who only gradually were able to conquer the fertile plain, perhaps at one time and in one district victorions, while at another time and in another province repulsed by a Babylonian prince or general, who in consequence of his temporary success acquired a certain influence for himself and his city. At any rate a period of great political unrest is also reflected in the second half of the new chronological list.

After the family of Ishbi-Ura, founder of the dynasty of Isin, had occupied the throne of Babylonia for 94 years or less, Ur- ${ }^{d} N I N-I B$, "the son of a nobody" (to quote a Neo-Babylonian phrase), usurped the throne. About the same time we find Enanatum, another son of Ishme-Daginn, and therefore the legitimate successor of Libit-Ishtar, his brother, as high-priest in the temple of Sin at Ur, ${ }^{2}$ which then stood under the control of a certain Gungunu, "king of Ur," who, however, in his own inscription calls himself "king of Larsa, king of Shumer and Akkad." Considered in the light of the devastation of the temple of Bêl referred to above, the historical situation seems to have been this: Towards the end of Libit-Ishtar's government a foreign army had invaded Babylonia, succeeding even in conquering Nippur, desecrating and pillaging its famous sanctuary and overthrowing the old line of the dynasty of Isin. Ishme-Dagân's second son, unless invested by his own father with the high office he held at Ur, sought refuge with Gungunu, a Southern prince, who in the general turmoil had established a city kingdom in Larsa ${ }^{3}$ and Ur, assuming even the proud title "king of Shumer and Akkad." But

[^44]Gungunu's influence in Babylonia did not last very long. Ur- ${ }^{d} N I N-I B$ of Isin restored order in the country evidently by repulsing the foreigners and winning the "kingdom of the four quarters of the world" for himself and his descendants. After about half a century a new disaster befell his dynasty. No less than six usurpers ascended the throne within the 36 or 37 years following the death of Bûr-Sin's unknown second son. It is safe to assert that with the exception of Bêl-bâni, who ruled 24 years and was in possession of Nippur, they had enough to do at Isin to hold and strengthen their position.

We may take it for granted that some of the old renowned centres, like Ur, Erech, Larsa and Sippar, profited from the political weakness manifested by these nominal Babylonian rulers of the dynasty of Isin. For various reasons ${ }^{1}$ it seems to me almost certain that we have to place Sumu-ilu, "king of Ur," the unknown successors of king Gungunu of Ur and Larsa referred to above (and including Nûr-Immer [generally read Nûr-Adad] Sin-iddinam, ${ }^{3}$ etc., and possibly Rîm-Anum, unless he belonged to the dynasty of Erech), ${ }^{4}$ Sin-gâshid and Sin-gâmil, "kings of

[^45]Erech " ${ }^{1}$ (the former of the last mentioned two rulers also styling himself "king of Amnanu ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ ), and also the beginning of the city kingdom of Babylon under Sumu-abu(i), founder of the first dynasty of Babylon, in this period of Babylonisches Faustrecht. Once more Isin regained its political influence under Sin-mâgir and his son Dâmiq-ilishu, who both have the title "king of Shumer and Akkad" and otherwise left their traces in Babylonian history. ${ }^{3}$ Upon the death of the latter the dynasty of Larsa, temporarily represented by Rìm-Sin, son of Kudur-Mabuk, the Elamite, who seems to have overthrown Sin-iddinam, son of Nûr-Immer, of the native dynasty of that city, took the leading rôle in the shaping of Babylonian politics; but only for a short period (c. 30 years), for the kings of Babylon made themselves more and more felt in the North, until finally Hammurabi defeated the Elamite army and united the various Babylonian cities and states under his powerful sceptre.

A word remains to be said with regard to Immerum and Ilu-ma- ${ }^{d} I-l a,{ }^{4}$ so-called " Usurpatoren," who were contemporaneous ${ }^{5}$ with Sumu-la-ilu of the first dynasty of
$N I-N I(=i l i)+m a+A N(=i l u)$, therefore to be transliterated as Bil-ili-ma-ilu=Bel-ilê(cf. Ranke, Series D, Vol. III, p. 224)-ma-ilu, "The lord of gods (an epithet of Ae, Shamash, Sin, etc.) is god," or better (the sign "bil" frequently having the value " $b \grave{\imath}$ " at this period, cf. p. 48, above) as Bi-ili-ma-ilu = Bêli-ma-ilu, "The lord is god," an abbreviated name, as indicated by the ma after $B \hat{\imath} l i$ (probably standing for Bêl-ilê, cf. my remarks in B. E., Series D, Vol. III, p. 186, note 1, and B. E., Series A, Vol. X, pp. Xff.). The question may be asked whether or not this king is identical with the first king of the so-called second dynasty, AN-ma (-ilu), generally read $I l u$-ma-ilu; for the sign $A N$ is also ideogram for "bêlu" (V R., 21, 17g) and sharru (V R. 30, 8a). The tablet was found at Nippur by the first expedition together with a number of tablets dated in the reign of Samsu-iluna. It, therefore, belongs to that general period. My pupil, Dr. Arno Poebel, who has a volume on the tablets of the Hammurabi dynasty excavated at Nippur in the course of preparation ( $=$ Series A, Vol. VI, Part 2), informs me that certain names occurring in the Bi-ili-ma-ilu tablet are found also on Samsu-iluna tablets. Hence Bêli-ma-ilu must belong to the dynasty of a city which under Samsu-iluna or soon after him (cf. King, "Letters," Vol. III, p. LXIX) obtained a signal success, even occupying Nippur (as tablets were dated there according to this king's reign). Unless, as just stated, he was the first king himself, he probably was a prince of the second dynasty. At any rate, as already indicated by the absence of the determinative $i l u$ before his name, he cannot be regarded as a member of the Isin dynasty. As to the king Gir-Ma-Ma or Arad-Shá(g)-Shá(g) (made known by Scheil in Recueil, Vol. XXIV, Note LXII, and O. L. Z., 1905, Col. 351) cf. Thureau-Dangin, Les Inscriptions de Sumer et d'Alkad, pp. 344f. For the king $A N-A-A N$ see the references given pp. 56a, f., below.
${ }^{1}$ For the literature concerning their inscriptions of. Thureau-Dangin, l.c., pp. 294f., 316 f ., also pp. 344 f .
${ }^{2}$ Cf. Winckler, Sumer und Akkad, p. 13, and Untersuchungen zur altorientalischen Geschichte, pp. 40f.
${ }^{3}$ Cf. pp. 49f. I regard the one as the founder of Bât-Sin-mâgir shá mât tâmdi (cf. B. E., Series A., Vol. I, Part I, Pls. 30-31 and pp. 38ff., and Weissbach, Babylonische Miscellen, p.1), and the other as the ancestor of ShimmashShipak, son of Erbc-Sin, of the fifth dynasty (or the "Sea-Land"), saib pal̂̀ Damiq-ilishu, i.e., "man of the dynasty of Dâmiq-iuishu" (Chronicle S, published by Winckler, Untersuchungen zur altbabylonischen Geschichte, p. 153).
${ }^{4}$ Generally read Anman or Anmanila, cf. Daiches, A. R., pp. 31ff., Thureau-Dangin, Les Inscriptions de Sumer et d'Akkad, pp. 340f., note 3; but cf. Ranke; B. E., Series A, Vol. VI, Part 1, p. 8.
${ }^{5}$ Cf. Daiches, A. R., pp. 22ff., 34ff., and the literature quoted there; Ranke, B. E., Series A, Vol. VI, Part 1, pp. 8 f .

Babylon. I cannot enter here into a full discussion of a most interesting and difficult problem, but must confine myself to a brief statement of my own view.

Thureau-Dangin has recently shown ${ }^{1}$ that Im-me-rum (variant: I-im-me-ir and I-im-me-rum) is an abbreviated name containing the name of the god Immer, whom I regard as identical with the god Im-ra or Mir-ra. ${ }^{2}$ In the passages given by the French scholar Immerum is abbreviated from $N a-r a-a m-{ }^{d} I M$, but it goes without saying that any other name having the same god as second element could also be shortened to Immerum. Thureau-Dangin concludes correctly that the name of King Nur- ${ }^{d} I M$ of Larsa (father of Sin-iddinam), generally read Nûr-Rammân or Nûr-Adad, must be transliterated as Nur-Immer. ${ }^{3}$ We draw still another conclusion. As indicated above (p.54), at the time of Libit-Ishtar and Ur-d ${ }^{d}$ NIN-IB the city of Larsa began to make itself felt in Babylonian affairs through Gungunu, "king of Ur," and "king of Larsa, king of Shumer and Akkad." It, therefore, is certain that a dynasty of Larsa actually existed about $30-40$ years before the time of Sumu-la-ilu, whose reign of 36 years commenced about the 19th or 20th year of Bûr-Sin II of Isin (cf. pp. 49f., note 5). From other passages we infer that Larsa's influence gradually extended far into Northern Babylonia, including Sippar, ${ }^{4}$ where the same cult of Shamash flourished; and, furthermore, that Nûr-Immer, king of Larsa, who in his inscription from $\mathrm{Ur}^{5}$ has the determinative ilu before his name, and, therefore (cf. pp. 51f.), at some time must also have possessed Nippur, is identical with Immerum, ${ }^{6}$ the contemporary of Sumu-la-ilu.

Repeated attempts have been made to identify $A N-A-A N$ ( generally read Ilu-ma, "secretary," son of Bêl-shemea, identified by me ${ }^{8}$ with $A N-A-A N$, " the $a b-b a$ of the people of Erech") with $A N-A-A N$, lugal, occurring in two dated tablets published by Scheil and Thureau-Dangin (cf. pp. 55f., note 4, above), and $A N-m a(-A N)$ (generally read Ilu-ma, resp. Ilu-ma-ilu), the first king of the so-called second dynasty, with

[^46]AN-ma-NI-la (read Ilu-ma-I-la by Ranke, cf. p. 55, note 4, above), or $A N-m a-{ }^{d} I-l a$, contemporary of Sumu-la-ilu of the first dynasty of Babylon, or to regard them all as the same person. The political situation seems to favor these identifications. For it can be shown that both Uruk and the "Sea-Land," where the second dynasty doubtless arose (cf. p. 43, above), began to influence Babylonian politics at that very time. If we allow this identity, we would obtain as contemporaries Bûr-Sin II (or his two sons) of the Isin dynasty, Sumu-la-ilu of the Hammurabi dynasty, ${ }^{1}$ Nur-Immer (or Immerum) of the Larsa dynasty, and $A N-m a-i l u(a)$, founder of the so-called second dynasty. It then would follow with great probability that Dâmiq-ilishu, last king of the Isin dynasty, and Damki-ilishu, third king of the so-called second dynasty, are identical, since the interval between the unclassified $A N-m a-{ }^{d} I l a$ (contemporaneous with Sumu-la-ilu and Bûr-Sin II, resp. his two sons) and Dâmiq-ilishu of Isin is practically the same as the interval between the second half of the reign of AN-ma-ilu and Damkiilishu of the second dynasty. And it would also follow, that Sin-mâgir, father of Dâmiq-ilishu of Isin, was a prince of the ancestral home of the second dynasty, i.e., the "Sea-Land" (cf. p. 43, above), and, therefore, apparently identical with Sin-mâgir, the founder of Bît-Sin-mâgir, a province of the "Sea-Land." In this case Gulkishar, king of the "Sea-Land," would have been a contemporary of Samsu-iluna and Abiêshuh. This seems to be a plausible theory, which may be supported by additional combinations, but which cannot yet be proved definitely with the material available, and with the other candidate Bi-ili-ma-ilu (pp. 55f., note 4, the contemporary of Samsuilunu) to be disposed of. ${ }^{2}$

[^47]
## V.

## DESCRIPTION OF TABLETS AND RUINS


#### Abstract

Abbreviations. c., circa; C.B.M., Catalogue of the Babylonian Museum, University of Pennsylvania (prepared by the Editor) ; cf., confer; col(s)., column(s); Exp., Expedition; f., following page; ff., following pages; f. e., from (the) end; fr:, fragment(ary); frgs., fragments ; inscr., inscription; L. E., Left Edge; li., line(s); Lo. E., Lower Edge; M.l.O., Musée Impérial Ottoman, Constantinople; Ni., Nippur; Ni. V, IX, refers to the corresponding numbers in Vol. I, Part I, P1. XV; No(s)., Number(s); O., Obverse; orig., originally; p., page; pp., pages; R., Reverse; R. E., Right Edge; U. E., Upper Edge; Vol., Volume.

Measurements are given in centimetres, length (height) $\times$ width $\times$ thickness. Whenever the tablet (or fragment) varies in size, the largest measurement is given.

Texts drawn by hand and at the same time reproduced in phototype are indicated by a bold number in the first column. Tablets quoted without a number are not yet catalogued.


## A. Autograph Reproductions.

| Text. | Plate. | Agm. | Contents. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 | c. 1350 B.c. | $2 \times 1$ |

## Description.

Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Small pieces of lower part of R. chipped off. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $6.2 \times 4.3 \times 2.5$. Inscr. 11 $(\mathrm{O})+$.12 (R.) $=23 \mathrm{li}$. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp.
Baked. Reddish brown. Greater part of lower half of R. chipped off. Ruled. $7 \times 4.3 \times 2.5$. Inscr. 13 ( 0 .) +12 (R.) $=25 \mathrm{li}$. Ni. IX. Second Exp. C.B.M. 3335. For half-tone illustration cf. Hilprecht, B.E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 531; Vortrag, p. 60; "Lecture," p. 51.
Baked. Reddish brown. Partly chipped off. Li. indicating end of multiplication table. $5.8 \times 4 \times 2.3$. Inscr. 16 (O.) +1 (Lo. E.) +7 (R.) $=24 \mathrm{li}$. Purchased by D. Noorian, interpreter and superintendent of workmen during the first two expeditions, and reported to
$150 \times 1$

Description.
have come from Abû Habba, but according to all evidence (cf. pp. 14ff.) doubtless from Nippur, probably IX. C.B.M. 8535. For half-tone illustration ef. Hilprecht, Vortrag, p. 60.
Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Three frags. joined. Somewhat cracked, and small pieces of O . and R. chipped off. Ruled, double li. indicating end of multiplication table. $7.2 \times$ $4.8 \times 1.9$. Inscr. 13 ( 0. .) +11 (R.) $=$ 24 li. Ni. IX. Third Exp. C.B.M. 6063.

Unbaked. Brown with occasional black spots. R. somewhat rubbed off, tablet otherwise well preserved. Ruled, double li. indicating end. Round impressions made with the upper end of the stylus in li. $5,15,17$ and $19 . \quad 5.5 \times 3.8$ $\times 2$. Inscr. $11(0)+.12($ R. $)=23$ li. Ni. IX. Second Exp. C.B.M. 10221. Cf. PI. II, No. 3.
Fr. (lower part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Brown. Small piece of R. chipped off. Ruled. 3.7 (orig. c. 6.2 ) $\times 3.3 \times 2$. Inscr. 7 (orig. 12, 0.) +6 (orig. 11, R.) $=13$ (orig. 23) li. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp.
Fr. (upper part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Brown. Small pieces chipped off. Ruled. 4.5 (orig. c. 6.5 ) $\times 4.4 \times 1.8$ (orig. c. 2.1). Inscr. 7 (orig. 11, O.) + 6 (orig. 11, R.) +2 (Lo. E.) $=15$ (orig. 24) li. Ni. V. Second Exp. C.B.M. 8537. Cf. Pl. II, No. 4.

Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Small pieces chipped off, otherwise well preserved. Ruled, double li. after li. $8 . \quad 5.2 \times 3.6 \times 2.4$. Inser. 12 (O.) +12 (R.) $=24$ li. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp.
Fr. (left part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Light brown. Somewhat rubbed off. Ruled. $5.8 \times 3.5$ (orig. c. 3.8) $\times 1.9$. Inscr. 10 (O.) +13 (R.) $=23$ li. Ni. IX. Third Exp. M.I.O., Ni. 1143.

Unbaked. Brown. The upper corners and the left lower one slightly damaged.

Tex'r.
$1080 \times 1,1000 \times 1$, $960 \times 1, \quad 900 \times 1$, $[810 \quad(?) \times 1]$,

## Description.

Somewhat rubbed off. Ruled. On U., L. and Lo. E. traces of cuneiform wedges insufficiently erased (apparently remains of the scribe's calculations). $6.2 \times 4.1$ $\times$ 1.8.Inscr. 11 (O.) +12 (R.) $=23$ li. Ni. IX. Third Exp. M.I.O., Ni. 927.
Unbaked. Brown with occasional black spots. Somewhat rubbed off, parts of R. broken away. Ruled. $6 \times 4 \times 2.1$. Inscr. 11 (O.) +12 (R.) $=23$ li. Ni. IX. Second Exp. C.B.M. 10190. Cf. Pl. II, No. 5.
Unbaked. Dark brown with occasional black spots. Lower left corner entirely broken away. Somewhat rubbed off Li. indicating end of multiplication table $(432 \times 432) .8 \times 5.5 \times 3.4$. Inser. 14 (O.) +12 (R.) $=26$ li. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp. M.I.O., Ni. 1871.

Fr. (central part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Brown with occasional black spots. Ruled, double li. indicating end. 4.9 (fr.) $\times 4.4 \times 2.2$. Inscr. 10 (O.) +3 (R.) $=13$ (orig. 23) li. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp. (Cf. M.I.O., Ni. 1911, a duplicate of the same period. Three frgs. joined. Unbaked. Brown. 6.3 (fr.) $\times 4.5$ (fr.) $\times$ 2.5. Ni. IX. Third Exp.).

Baked. Brown. Greater part of O. and uninscribed portion of lower right side of R. broken away. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $7.2 \times 3.9 \times 2$. Inser. 15 (O.) +7 (R.) $=22$ li. Ni. IX. Third Exp. M.I.O., Ni. 894.
Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. In a fine state of preservation. Ruled, double li. indicating end (catch li.: $500 \times 1$ ). $\quad 5.3 \times 3.4 \times 2.2$. Inser. 14 (O.) +10 (R.) $=24$ li. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp.
Unbaked. Brown. Several cracks, small pieces chipped off on both sides. Ruled (catch li.: $720 \times 1$,preceded by $750 \times 750$ ). $5.7 \times 4.2 \times 2.5$. Inser. 13 (O.) +12 $($ R. $)=25$ li. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp.
Fr. (upper part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Light brown with numerous black spots: Ruled, double li. indicating end of

each section (by mistake of scribe also R., Col. II, 4 f. e.). 6.6 (orig. c. 12) $\times$ $9 \times 2.5$. Inscr. O.: 8 (orig. 25, Col. I) +12 (orig. 27 , Col. II) +12 (orig. 28 , Col. III) +11 (orig. 27 or 28 , Col. IV) + R.: 14 (orig. 22 or $21, \mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{I}$ ) +10 (orig. 30 , $\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II}$ ) +10 (orig. 27 , Col. III) +1 (orig. c. 22, Col. IV) $=78$ (orig. c. 208) li. Ni. IX. Second Exp. C.B.M. 10219. Cf. Pl. III, No. 6.

Fr. (central part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Brown with black spots. Ruled. 5.7 (fr.) $\times 6.5$ (fr.) $\times$ 3.6. Inscr. O.: 3 $(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{I})+9(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II})+11(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{III})+$ R.: $8(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{I})+8(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II})=39 \mathrm{li} . \quad \mathrm{Col}$. III formed the last col. of O.; the complete tablet therefore had 6 cols. Ni. V. Fourth Exp. M.I.O., Ni. 1868.
Fr. (upper right part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Ruled, double li. indicating end of each section. 6.9 (orig. c. 15) $\times 5.2$ (orig. c. 12.5) $\times 2.6$ (orig. c. 3). Inscr. ○.: 20 (Col. III) +18 (Col. IV) + R. $18(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{I})+16(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II})=72 \mathrm{li} . \mathrm{Ni}$ IX. Fourth Exp. (Cf. C.B.M. 19841, a duplicate of the same period Fr. Unbaked. Brown with black spots. 6 (fr.) $\times 3.4$ (fr.) $\times 2.5$ (fr.). Inscr. 2 fr. cols. on O. (Cols. III and IV, the latter beginning with $240 \times 1$ ) and one on R. (Col. I, ending with $180 \times 50$ ). Ni. IX. Fourth Exp.).
Seven frgs. of a clay tablet joined. Unbaked. Light brown with occasional black spots. Ruled. 13 (orig. 17.3) $\times$ $11 \times$ 3.3. After these frgs. had been copied, an eighth fr. (C.B.M. 11402, also excavated at Ni. V by the First Exp.) was found to belong to the same tablet (joined on Pl. IV). Its O. being uninscribed, this fr. was disregarded in the autograph copy on Pl. 10. Inscr. on O.: 17 (orig. 23, Col. I) +7 (orig. 10, Col. II) $=24$ (orig. 33) li. Ni. V. First Exp. C.B.M. 11340. Cf. Pl. IV, No. 7, 0 .
The same, but not ruled. Li. indicating end

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Text. \& Plate. \& Agr.

c. 2200 B.C. \& Contents. from $1 \frac{1}{2}$ to 81 with their quotients, and $50 \times 1$, written alternately 3 times,

\[
50 \times 1

\] \& | Description. |
| :--- |
| of each section. Inscr. on R.: 28 (orig. probably 38 , Col. I) +28 (orig. probably 37, Col. II) +21 (orig. probably 29 , Col. III) +25 (orig. probably 32 , Col. IV) $=102$ (orig. probably 136) li. C.B.M. $11340+11402$. Cf. Pl. V, No. 7, R. (Cf. M.I.O., Ni. 1960, a duplicate of the same period. Fr. Unbaked. Brown. 7.8 (fr.) $\times 4.2$ (fr.) $\times 2.7$ (fr.). R., last col. Preserved portion of O. uninscribed. Ni. V. Fourth Exp.). |
| Fr. (left lower part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Light brown. Much rubbed off and otherwise damaged. Ruled. 7 (fr.) $\times 7$ (fr.) $\times 2.8$ (fr.). Inscr. on O.: 9 (orig. 22 ) +1 (Lo. E.) $=10$ (orig. 23) li. Ni. V. First Exp. C.B.M. 11368. | <br>

\hline 21, R. \& 10 \& $\therefore$ The same. \& Divisors of $12,960,000$ and $50 \times 1$, written alternately: \& The same. Inscr. on R. 9 (Col. III) +9 $($ Col. IV) $=18 \mathrm{li} . \quad$ Col. III, 1-9, contains the divisors 27 to 54 with their quotients, Col. IV: $50 \times 30,50 \times 40,50$ $\times 50$, and the divisors 1 (resp. $1 \frac{1}{2}$ ) to 9 with their quotients. <br>

\hline 22, 0. \& 12 \& c. 2200 B.C. \& | Divisors of $12,960,000$ (Col. |
| :--- |
| I) and $50 \times 1$ (Col. II). | \& Fr. (central part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Light brown. O. somewhat, R. much rubbed off, a small hole running half way through tablet from $O$. towards $R$. Ruled. 9 (fr.) $\times 9.1$ (orig. c. 15) $\times$ 3.9. Inscr. on O.: 11 (Col. I) +13 (Col. II) +3 (Col. III, last col.) $=27 \mathrm{li}$. Ni. V. Second Exp. C.B.M. 11902. <br>

\hline 22, R . \& 12 \& The same. \& $$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Portions of } 1350 \times 1, \\
1080 \times 1,960 \times 1
\end{gathered}
$$ \& The same. Inscr. on R. 15 (Col. II) +19 $($ Col. III $)+17($ Col. IV, last col. $)=$ 51 li. <br>

\hline 23, 0. \& 13 \& c. 2200 B.C. \& Ideograms determined by amelu, and their Sem.Babyl. equivalents. \& Fr. (central part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Light brown. Cracked and somewhat rubbed off. Ruled. 7.1 (fr.) $\times 9.9$ (fr.) $\times 4.2$. Inscr. on O.: 5 (Col. I, doubtless orig. preceded by another col. $)+6$ (Col. II) $=11$ li. Ni. V. Fourth Exp. C.B.M. 19790. Cf. Pl. VIII, No. 9, O. (also Pl. VI, No. 8, O.). <br>
\hline 23, R. \& 13 \& The same. \& Portions of

$$
\begin{array}{r}
1350 \times 1,1080 \times 1 \\
1000 \times 1,900 \times 1 \\
720 \times 1,600 \times 1 \\
500 \times 1,480 \times 1 \\
432 \times 1
\end{array}
$$ \& The same, but not ruled. Line indicating end of each section. Inscr. on R. (to be read from left to right, cf. p. 19, note 2): 9 (Col. I) +13 (Col. II) +14 (Col. III) $+20(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{IV})+17(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{V})+12$ $($ Col. VI $)=85$ li. Cf. Pl. VIII, No. 9, R. <br>

\hline
\end{tabular}

| Text. $24,0 .$ | Plate. 14 | $\begin{gathered} \text { AGE. } \\ \text { c. } 2200 \text { B.C. } \end{gathered}$ | Contents. <br> Syllabary ( $P A D$ with its Sum. and Sem.-Babyl. values). | Description. <br> Two frgs. of a clay tablet joined. Unbaked. Light brown. O. somewhat, R. much rubbed off. Right part of $O$. cut away by scribe. Ruled. 7.7 (fr.) $\times 9.2$ (fr.) $\times$ 3.3. Inscr. on $\mathrm{O} .: 4(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{I})+5(\mathrm{Col}$. II $=9$ li. Ni. V. Second Exp. C.B.M. 11097. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 24, R. | 14 | The same. | The first 30 divisors of $12,960,000$ and portions of $45 \times 1,40 \times 1,30 \times 1$. | The same, but not ruled. Inscr. on R. (to be read from left to right, cf. pp. 19, note 2, and 23, note 1): 15 (Col. I, left hand!) $+14(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II})+16(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{III})+16(\mathrm{Col}$. IV $)+10(\mathrm{Col}, \mathrm{V})=71 \mathrm{li}$. |
| 25 | 15 | c. 2400 B.C. | Divisors of $12,960,000$ and their quotients in geometrical progression. | Unbaked. Brownish gray. O. somewhat rubbed off, otherwise well preserved. Ruled with double lines. $8.2 \times 6 \times$ 2.1. Inscr. 7 (O.) +8 (R.) $+\mathbf{1}$ (U. E.) $=16$ li. Ni. V. Second Exp. C.B.M. 10201. Cf. Pl. IX, No. 10. |
| 25 a | 15 | c. 2350 B.C. | Arithmetical calculations. | Three frgs. of a clay tablet joined. Unbaked. Dark brown. O. considerably chipped off. R. almost entirely broken away, a few cuneiform characters (beginnings of 15 li .) preserved, sufficient to show that the contents of $R$. was similar to that of O. Ruled. 10.9 (fr.) $\times 7.15$ (fr.) $\times 2$. Inser. on O.: $20(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{I})+16(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II})=36$ Ii. Ni. V. Second Exp. C.B.M. 12648. |
| 26 | 16 | c. 1350 B.C. | Squares of 1 to 50. | Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Right upper corner broken away, small pieces chipped off. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $6.5 \times 4.4 \times$ 2.7. Inscr. 13 (O.) +10 (R.) $=23$ li. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp. Cf. Pl. X, No. 12, O., also No. 11., O. and R. ( $=$ C.B.M. 19836, a duplicate referred to as Fr. b on Pl. 16), and IV R. ${ }^{2}, 37$, Fr. 12136 (additions: 81-2-1, 72), R., Col. III. |
| 27 | 16 | c. 2200 B.C. | Square roots 1 to 12. | Fr. (right lower part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Light brown. O. erased, traces of a few cuneiform signs left. R. considerably rubbed off. Ruled. 8.1 (fr.) $\times 5.6$ (fr.) $\times 2.9$ (fr.). Inser. on R. : 12 li. (Col. I). Ni. V. Fourth Exp. C.B.M. 19813. Cf. Pl. X, No. 13, also IV R. ${ }^{2}$, 37, Fr. 12136 (additions: 81-2-1, 72), R., Col. II, and K. 3168, R. Cf.likewise Scheil,Sippar, p. 48 (autretablette, i.e., No. 639). See p. 23, note 3. |



Unbaked. Brown with occasional black spots. Lo. E. broken away, small piece of $O$. chipped off. R. uninscribed. 6.4 (fr.) $\times 5.2 \times 1.8$. Inscr. 11li. (2 cols.). Ni. V. Fourth Exp. Cf. Pl. X, No. 14, also IV R. ${ }^{2}$, 37, Fr. 12136 (additions: 81-2-1, 72), R., Col. II, and K. 3168, R. Cf. likewise Verzeichnis der Vorderasiatischen Altertümer und Gipsabgüsse in den Königl. Museen zu Berlin, 1889, p. 65, Th. 253. See p. 23, note 3, above.
Three frgs. of a clay tablet (joined on Pl. XI). Unbaked. Light brown. Much rubbed off, small pieces broken away, partly crumbling. Ruled. $19.3 \times 16.3$ (fr.) $\times 3.5$ (fr.). Long after PI. 17 had been prepared, the 2 frgs. joined and published on P1. 18, which belong to the same tablet, were discovered. Inscr. on O.: 19 (Col. II) +17 (Col. III) +33 (orig. 39, Col. IV) $+28(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{V})+23$ $(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{VI})=120 \mathrm{li}$. The complete tablet had 12 cols., 6 on O., and 6 on R. Ni. V. Second and Fourth Exps. C.B.M. 10990 (II. Exp.) +19815 (IV. Exp.) + 19757 (IV. Exp.). Cf. Pl. XI, No. 15, O., also Pl. XIV, No. 16, R. Cf. likewise Meissner, Beiträge zum altbabylonischen Privatrecht, Pls. 58 ( $=$ V. A. 2596) and 56-57 (=V.A.1155), and Scheil, Sippar, pp. 52 f . and 49 ff .
The same. Inscr. on R.: 18 (Col. I) +18 $(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II})+24(\mathrm{Col}$. III) $+17(\mathrm{Col}$. IV $)$ $+14(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{V})+4$ (Col. VI) $=95 \mathrm{li}$. Cf. Pl. XII, No. 15, R., also Scheil, Sippar, p. 54.
Nine frgs. of a clay tablet joined. Baked. Brown. Writing very distinct. To facilitate reading, cuneiform signs in tabular statements are connected by heavy shallow lines drawn with the upper (round) end of the stylus. A heavy li. made in the same manner indicates the end of each section. 10 (fr.) $\times 9 \times 3$. Inscr. on O.: $26(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{I})+26(\mathrm{Col}$. II $)+$ $25(\mathrm{Col}$. III) $=77 \mathrm{li}$. Ni. IX. Third Exp. C.B.M. 8539.

| Text. $30, R .$ | Plate. <br> 20 | Age. <br> The same. | Contents. <br> Measures of length continued, weights and measures of capacity, with their corresponding values. | Description. <br> The same. Inscr. on R. 26 (Col. IV) +19 $(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{V})+32(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{VI})=77 \mathrm{li}$. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 31 | 21 | c. 1350 B.C. | Measures of capacity (or weights?) to 1 GIN, with their corresponding values. | Fr. (lower part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Light brown with numerous black spots. Cracked. R. considerably chipped off. Ruled. 4 (fr.) $\times 5.6 \times 2.4$. Inscr. 10 (orig. $25, \mathrm{O}$.) +8 (orig. probably $14, \mathrm{R}$.) $=18$ (orig. probably 39) li. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp. (Cf. M.I.O., Ni. 1903, a duplicate of an earlier period (c. 2200 B.C.) Fr. Unbaked. Brown. Inscr. 5 li. on O. (identical with li. 15-20 of our text). Ni. V. Fourth Exp.). |
| 32 | 21 | c. 2200 B.C. | Measures of capacity (or weights?) from 20 SHE to 1 GIN, and their corresponding values. | Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Cracked. Small piece broken out from the middle of U. E., otherwise well preserved. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $8.5 \times 6.5 \times 2.8$. Inser. $14(\mathrm{O})+.5(\mathrm{R})=.19 \mathrm{li}$. On the lower part of R. and on the 4 edges numerous wedges insufficiently erased. Ni. V. Fourth Exp. |
| 33 | 22 | c. 2200 B.C. | Measures of capacity (or weights?) from 1 to 19 GIN, with their corresponding values. | Unbaked. Dark brown. Small pieces chipped off. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $8.9 \times 5.2 \times 2.8$. Inscr. 14 (O.) +9 (R.) $=23$ li. Ni. V. Second Exp. C.B.M. 4505. |
| 34, R. | 22 | c. 2200 B.C. | Measures of capacity (or weights?) with their corresponding values. Portions of 1 to 20 GIN preserved. | Two frgs. of a clay tablet joined. Unbaked. Light brown with numerous black spots. Ruled. 7.4 (fr.) $\times 5.9$ (fr.) $\times 3$ (fr.). The preserved portion of O. uninscribed. Inscr. on R.: $12(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{I})+4(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II})=$ 16 li. Ni. V. Fourth Exp. C.B.M. 19820. |
| 35, R. | 22 | c. 2200 B.C. | Measures of capacity with their corresponding values. Portions of 2 GIN to $9 Q A$ preserved. | Two frgs. of a clay tablet joined. Unbaked. Light brown with large black spots near upper part of R., $O$. entirely broken away. Ruled. 10.2 (fr.) $\times 6.8$ (fr.) $\times$ 2.8 (fr.). Inscr. on R.: 12 (Col. I) +12 $(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II})=24 \mathrm{li} . \quad \mathrm{C} .1 \mathrm{~cm}$. of the uninscribed upper and lower parts of the tablet disregarded in the autograph copy. Ni. V. Fourth Exp. C.B.M. 19814. (Cf. M.I.O., Ni. 1913, a duplicate of the same period. Fr. Unbaked. |


| Text. | Plate. | Age. | Contents. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 36 | 23 | c. 2200 B.C. | Measures of capacity, from |

37. O. 24 e. 2200 B.C.
c. 2200 B.C.

The same.
c. 2200 B.C.

25
$\square$
The same. c. 2200 B.C.

## Descriphion.

Brown. 6.7 (fr.) $\times 4.3$ (fr.) $\times 2.5$ (fr.) Probably R. Ni. V. Fourth Exp.).
Four frgs. of a clay tablet joined. Unbaked. Brown. Several cracks. Small pieces broken away, much rubbed off. About $\frac{2}{7}$ of original length of tablet wanting. Ruled, double li. indicating end. 11.5 (orig. c. 15.5 ) $\times 6 \times 3.2$. Inscr. 41 (orig. c. $60,0$. ) +32 (orig. c. 52, R.) $=73$ (orig. probably 112) li. The 2 numbers (not erased) below the double line indicate that the scribe intended to continue his table beyond 120 GUR. Ni. V. Fourth Exp.
Fr. (lower part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Small pieces broken off. Right part of O. cut away by scribe. Ruled. 8.5. (orig. c. 16.2) $\times 11.17 \times 3.3$. Inser. on O.: 10 li. Ni. V. Fourth Exp.

The same. Inser. on R. 11 (orig. 22, Col. I) +11 (orig. $22, \mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{II})+11$ (orig. 25 , Col. III) +13 (orig. possibly $23(=10$ $G U R$ ), Col. IV) $=46$ (orig. c. 92) li.
Fr. (right central part) of a large clay tablet. Unbaked. Dark brown. Ruled. 7.5 (fr.) $\times 8.5$ (fr.) $\times 3.8$ (fr.). Inscr. on O.: $7(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{III})+6(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{IV})=13 \mathrm{li}$. Ni. V. Second Exp. C.B.M. 10207.
The same. Inscr. on R.: $3(\mathrm{Col} . \mathrm{I})+3(\mathrm{Col}$. II, identical with Col. I) $=6$ li.

Five frgs. of a clay tablet joined. Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Cracked and small pieces chipped off. Right upper and the two lower corners of O . wanting, about half of R. entirely broken away. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $9.3 \times 5.6 \times 2.8$. Inscr. 17 (O.) + (orig. 1, Lo. E.) +13 (R.) $=$ 30 (orig. 31) li. O. arranged in 3 cols. Ni. V. Fourth Exp.
Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Small pieces chipped off. Left upper and lower corners of O.wanting. R. cracked and otherwise damaged. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $8.9 \times$ $6.5 \times 2.5$. Inscr. 13 (O.) +4 (R.) $=$


## Description.

17 li. On the lower part of R. numerous wedges insufficiently erased. Ni. V. Fourth Exp. (There is a fr. duplicate of the same period (upper part). Unbaked. Brown. Ruled. 4 (fr.) $\times$ $7 \times 2.3$ (fr.). Inscr. 6 li. on O. (1GAN $=100,1 \frac{1}{2} G A N=150,2 G A N=200$, to $5(G A N)$. Ni. V. Fourth Exp.)
Unbaked. Brown with numerous black spots. Small pieces chipped off. Upper half of R. E. broken away. The greater part of R. destroyed. Ruled. $5.5 \times 4.3 \times 1.9$. Inscr. 13 (O.) +10 (orig. 12) li. $=23$ (orig. 25) li. Besides U. E., L. E. and R. E. contain 1 li. each. Ni. V. Fourth Exp.
Unbaked. Light brown with numerous black spots. Small pieces chipped off. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $8.2 \times$ $4.5 \times 3$. Inscr. 13 (O.) +4 (R.) $=17$ li. On lower part of R. numerous wedges insufficiently erased. Ni. V. Fourth Exp.
Two trgs. of a clay tablet joined. Unbaked. Light brown. Small pieces chipped off, a considerable portion of R. E. broken away. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $10.5 \times 6.3 \times 2.2$. Inser. 12 (O.) +9 $($ R. $)=21 \mathrm{li}$. Ni. V. Fourth Exp.
Fr. (right upper part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Brown. 6.65 (fr.) $\times 3.5$ (fr.) $\times 2$ (fr.). Inscr. 12 li. (written in double cols.) on O. Ni. IX. Second Exp. M.I.O., Ni. 1893. Cf. Hilprecht, Assyriaca, 1894, pp. 67-72, and Scheil in Recueil, Vol. XIX (1896), Note XXVII, pp. 61f. A more complete duplicate of this text (cI.III $R$. 56 , No. 4, restored from K. $6012+K$. 10684, with completions from Babylonian duplicates, 81-8-30, 739; 82-3-23, 4504, 4605 ; 82-7-14, 3756, and others) was published and translated by Pinches in "Proceedings of the Society of Biblical Archæology," Vol. XXVI (Feb. 1904),pp. 51-56 and the plate appended to his paper. Cf. besides Zimmern (who first recognized the true character of the Nippur text and its relation to those published by Pinches)

| Text. Plate. | Age. | Contents. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 44, R. | 28 | The same. | Bilingual (too fr., each sec- <br> tion closes with rêsheshu). |
| 45 | 29 | c. 1350 B.C. <br> (or later). | Names of the months in <br> Sumerian and Semitic- <br> Babylonian, followed by <br> short bilingual sentences. |

4630 c. 2200 B.C. The Babyl. ideograms of the months.

47, R.
30
c. 2000 B.C.

## Description.

in Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. LVIII (1904), pp. 199-202 and pp. 458-460, and Delitzsch in Zeitgeist (supplement to Berliner Tageblatt), No. 16 (April 18, 1904).
The same. Inscr. on R.: 8 li. (arranged in 4 sections).
Fr. (left upper part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Light brown with numerous. black spots on O. and edges. Pieces of O. chipped off. R. ruled. 7 (fr.) $\times 7.6$ (fr.) $\times 3.4$ (fr.). Three cols. of writing, separated from each other by 3 perpendicular li., on O.: $8+10+4=22$ li., and 4 li. on R. $=26$ li. Ni. IX. Second Exp. C.B.M. 11063. The tablet is a duplicate of $\oplus 116+S p$. II + K. $4158+K .2033(=\oplus 257)+R m$. $607+K .4322+K .4170+K .4317,0$. (Bezold, Babylonisch-Assyrische Literatur, pp. 212 f.). Cf. Haupt, Akkadische und Sumerische Keilschrifttexte, pp. 44, 64ff. (II R.18, No. 2, and V R.29, No. 1), and Meissner in Z. A., Vol. VII, pp. 16 ff .
Unbaked. Light brown. Lower part of R. E. wanting. Small pieces of O. chipped off, about half of $R$. broken away. Ruled, double li. indicating end. $4.8 \times$ $4 \times 1.9$. Inscr. 6 (O.) +1 (Lo. E.) +6 $($ R. $)+1$ (L. E.) $=14$ li. Ni. V. Fourth Exp. C.B.M. 19782.
Fr. (left lower part) of a clay tablet. Baked. Reddish brown. Crumbling. Considerably rubbed off. Small pieces broken out. Writing scaling off. 8.4 (fr.) $\times$ 7.3 (fr.) $\times 2.7$. O: badly effaced and partly covered with crystals. For the autograph copy of its inscription of. Vol. XX, Part 2. Inscr. on R.: 25 li. (Col.IV). Probably Ni. V. Fourth (or First?) ${ }^{1}$ Fxp. C.B.M. 19797. Cf. Pl. XV: No. 17.
${ }^{1}$ Certain fragments of the first expedition (laid aside in the hope that fragments of the other expeditions might be joined with them, or at least be shown to belong to the same tablets) and similar fragments of the fourth expedition had been placed on the same shelf in the basement of the Muscum, with a slip of paper between them. Some time when the room was cleaned and dusted, this paper was blown away. Consequentiy in the case of a few fragments there is a certain doubt as to which of the two expeditions they belong.

## B. Phototype Reproductions.

| $\begin{gathered} \text { Illustr. } \\ 1 \end{gathered}$ | Plate. I | Age. <br> c. 2200 B.C. | Contents. <br> Northeast section of the earlier temple school and library at Nippur. Southeast view. | Description. <br> Extensive group of ruined rooms and galleries excavated by the Fourth Exp. in the northeast section of Ni. V. Southeast view. The floor of these building remains was reached at an average depth of 6 to 7.30 m . below the surface. The cuneiform tablets here discovered occurred in a stratum from c. 0.30 to 1.20 m . thick. An especially large number of tablets was found in the room to the extreme right in the foreground of the picture, and also in the large room to the left of the centre of the picture. In the background the ruins of the temple of Bêl, its stage-tower being covered by a modern building of the Exp. erected by Haynes. Photograph taken by Haynes, Feb. 20, 1900. Cf. Geere's survey and drawing of the ground-plan of this section of the ruins in Hilprecht, B. E., Series D, Vol, I, p. 523. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | I | The same. | The same. Northeast view. | Cf. Pl. 1 I. Northeast view. In the background the 'Afetsh swamps. Photograph taken by Haynes Feb. 20, 1900. The illustration published in Hilprecht, $B$. $E$., Series D, Vol. I, p. 509, was prepared from another negative. |
| 3 | II | c. 1350 B.C. | $18 \times 1$ | Unbaked clay tablet, O. and R. Ni. IX. Cf. Pl. 3, No. 5. |
| 4 | II | c. 2200 B.C. | $36 \times 1$ | Fr. of an unbaked clay tablet, O. and R. Ni. V. Cf. Pl. 3, No. 7. |
| 5 | II | c. 1350 B.C | $150 \times 1$ | Unbaked clay tablet, O. and R. Ni. LX. Cf. PI. 5, No. 11. |
| 6 | III | c. 1350 B.C. | $\begin{gathered} 1080 \times 1,1000 \times 1 \\ 960 \times 1, \quad 900 \times 1, \\ {[810(?) \times 1]} \\ 720 \times 1, \quad 600 \times 1 \\ 540 \times 1, \quad 500 \times 1 \end{gathered}$ | Fr. of an unbaked clay tablet, O. and R. Ni. IX. Cf. Pl. 8, No. 17. |
| 7, 0. | IV | c. 2200 B.C. | $45 \times 1$ (left column written by teacher, right by pupil). | Fr. unbaked clay tablet, O. Ni. V. Cf. PI. 10, No. 20, O. |
| 7, R. | V | c. 2200 B.C. | Divisors of $12,960,000$ and $50 \times 1$, written alternately 3 times. | The same, R. Cf. Pl. 11, No. 20, R. |
| 8,0, | II | c. 2200 B.C. | Ideograms-determined by | Six frgs. of a clay tablet joined. Unbalked. |


| Illustri. | Plate. | Age. | Contents. amelu, and their SemiticBabylonian equivalents (written twice). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8, R | VII | The same. | Multiplication table. The last column contains $\begin{aligned} & 180,000 \times 1,162,000 \times \\ & 1 ; 160,000 \times 1 \end{aligned}$ |
| 9, 0. | VIII | c. 2200 B.C. | Ideograms determined by amelu, and their SemiticBabylonian equivalents. |
| 9, R. | VIII | The same. | Portions of $\begin{array}{r} 1350 \times 1,1080 \times 1, \\ 1000 \times 1, \\ 720 \times 1, \\ \times 00 \times 1, \\ 500 \times 1, \\ 432 \times 1, \end{array}$ |
| 10 | IX | c. 2400 B.C. | Divisors of $12,960,000$ and their quotients in geometrical progression. |
| 11 | X | c. 1350 B.C. | Squares of 1 to 50. |
| 12 | X | c. 1350 B.C. | Squares of 1 to 50. |
| 13 | X | c. 2200 B.C. | Square roots 1 to 12. |
| 14 | X | c. 2200 B.C. | Square roots 30 to 40 . |
| 15, 0 | XI | c. 2200 B.C. | Measures of capacity and weights. |
| 15, R. | XII | The same. | Weights continued, measures of surface and length. |
| 16, O . | XIII | c. 2200 B.C. | Ideogrs. with occasional glosses containing their Sumerian pronunciation. |

Light brown. O. somewhat rubbed off, R. much damaged, writing in part illegible. Ruled. 16.9 (fr.) $\times 10$ (fr.) $\times$ 4.4. Inscr. on O.: 16 (Cols. I and II) +12 $($ Col. IIII $)=28$ li. Ni. V. First Exp. C.B.M. 11397. For the autograph reproduction of the inscr. cf. Vol. XX, Part 2.
The same, but not ruled. Inser. on R.: 7 (orig. probably 10) cols., li. indicating end of each section. For further details and the autograph reproduction of the inscr. cf. Vol. XX, Part 2.
Fr. of an unbaked clay tablet, O. Ni. V. Cf. Pl. 13, No. 23, O.

The same, R. Cf. Pl. 13, No. 23, R.

Unbaked clay tablet, O. and R. Ni. V. Cf. Pl. 15, No. 25.

Fr. (upper part) of a clay tablet. Unbaked. Brown. Ruled, double li. indicating end. 2.9 (fr.) $\times 3.8 \times 2.3$. Insce. 5 (O.) $+4($ R. $)=9$ li. Ni. IX. Fourth Exp. C.B.M. 19836. Cf. PI. 16, No. 26.

Unbaked clay tablet, O. Ni. IX. Cf. Pl. 16, No. 26.
Fr. of an unbaked clay tablet, R. Ni. V. Cf. Pl. 16, No. 27.
Fr. unbaked clay tablet, O. Ni. V. Cf. Pl. 16, No. 28.
Three frgs. of an unbaked clay tablet joined, O. Reduced. Ni. V. Cf. Pls. 17 and 18, No. 29, O.; also Pl. XIV, No. 16, R.
The same, R. Reduced. Cf. Pls. 17 and 19, No. 29, R.
Unbaked clay tablet (in 1905 baked by Mr. C. H. Mercer in his kiln at Doylestown, Pa.). Brown. Cracked, small pieces broken away, considerably rubbed off. Right half of $O$. cut away by scribe. Ruled. $15.9 \times 11 \times 2.8$. Inscr. on 0 .:

Illustr. Plate.
$16, \mathbf{R}$

17

XV

Age.
Contents.

The same. Measures of capacity from 1 GIN upward, followed by weights (end of Col. IV).

Chronological list of early Babylonian kings (R.: the Dynasties of Ur and Isin).

## Description.

16 li. Ni. V. Second Exp. C.B.M. 10745. For the autograph reproduction of the inscr. cf. Vol. XX, Part 2.
The same. Inscr. on R.: 4 cols. For further details and the autograph reproduction of the inscr. cf. Vol. XX, Part 2. Cf. also PI. XI, No. 15, O .
Fr. of a baked clay tablet, O. and R. Cf. Pl. 30, No. 47.

## ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS.

## Introduction.

Page 8, note 4: Remove "Amshu-ili-ban" (ef. p. 49).

## Autograph Plates.

Pl. 2, No. 4, li. 19: Add marginal note: "After $A-R A(=$ Sem. $a d i$ ) insert a 'ten,' reading '20-1' (instead of '10-1,' which is a mistake of the scribe)."
Pl. 7, No. 14, li. 18: Add marginal note: "Read ' 30 ' instead of ' 20 ' (last figure of the line), the last ' 10 ' (written on the edge) evidently being broken away."
Pl. 14, No. 24, Rev.: Change the numbers indicating the columns; for the Reverse ought to be read from left to right (cf. pp. 19, note 2, and 23, note 1). Read, therefore, Col. I (instead of Col. VI), Col. II (instead of Col. V), Col. III (instead of Col. IV), Col. IV (instead of Col. III), Col. V (instead of Col. II).
Pl. 20, No. 30, Obv., Col. I, li. 25: The figure '" 25 '' printed to the left of Col. I, to indicate the corresponding line in the cuneiform text of this column, should be moved up one line. Cf. p. 36, note 1.
P1. 29, No. 45, Rev.: Write "Last Column" below "Reverse."
Pl. 30, No. 47, Rev., li. 5: Insert " $Z U$ '" between the second $d E N$ and na, correctly given on the original. Cf. p. 48.

## CUNEIFORM TEXTS

1


2

Obverse.
Reverse.


15



4



Obverse.


Reverse.


7

Obverse.


20


Lo. E.

8


9

Obverse.
Reverse.

U. $E$.

Obverse.


11
L. $E$.

Reverse.
20



Lo. E.


Reverse.


Obverse.

$\times$
Erasure.
Erasure.
25
15

20

25


13


Reverse.



Obverse.


Reverse.
Col.IV. Col.III. Col.II. Col.I.
$10 f . e$

5 f.e


Pl. 9

## 18

Obverse:



## 20 Reverse





## 24

Obverse.
Col. I.
Col. II.
Col. III.

5


Reverse.
Col. VI. Col. V. Col.IV. Col. III. Col.II.



Col. I.

Reverse.


Col. II.

15 f.e.

10 f.e.


15 f.e.

10 f. e.

5 f.e.


27

Reverse.


Col. II.
Col. III.
Col. IV.
Col. V.


## 29 Obverse.

Continued





Obverse.


Reverse.


32

Obverse.


- Erasure of scribe.

Reverse.

15


Obverse.


34 Reverse.



Obverse.


Reverse.


Col. IV, 10 : Erasure of scribe.

Obverse.
Col. III.
Col. IV,


Reverse.
Col. II.
Col. I


Obverse.


Obverse.


Reverse.



- This and other small wedges seen on the tablet are remains of the scribe's calculations insufficiently erased or carelessly left by him.

41

L. $E$.


42

Obverse.



Obverse.


Obverse.


44
Reverse.



Reverse.




SCHOOL AND LIERARY OF THE BEL TEMPLE, EAST SECTION

1. SOUTHEAST VIEW 2. NORTHWEST VIEW


MULTIPLICATION TABLES
$318 \times 1436 \times 15150 \times 1$


6 REVERSE

MULTIPLICATION TABLE
$1080 \times 11000 \times 1960 \times 1900 \times 1[810(?) \times 1] 720 \times 1600 \times 1$
$540 \times 1500 \times 1$

MULTIPLICATION TABLE
LE $\times 1$
LEFT COLUMN WRITTEN BY TEACMER, RIGHT BY PUPIL


DIVISION AND MULTIPLICATION TABLE
THE DIVISORS OF 12.960000 , FROM I (RESP. $11 / 2$ ) TO 81, WITH THEIR QUOTIENTS, AND $50 \times 1$
WRITTEN ALTERNATELY THREE TIMES


LINGU\|STIC-MATHEMATICAL TABLET


MULTIPLICATION TABLE

THE LAST COLUMN CONTAINS: $180.000 \times 1 \quad 162.000 \times 1 \quad 160.000 \times 1$


- REVERSE

LINGUISTIC-MATHEMATICAL TABLET


MATHEMATICAL TABLET


TABLES OF SQUARES AND SQUARE ROOTS


15 OBVERSE (REDUCED)

METROLOGICAL TABLE

THE BABYLONIAN MEASURES OF CAPACITY AND WEIGHTS


METROLOGICAL TABLE

WEIGHTS CONTINUED, MEASURES OF SURFACE AND LENGTH



METROLOGICAL TABLE


17 OEVERSE



[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ It may suffice to refer my readers to B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 318, note 1, and to the preface (pp. VIf.) of my "Explorations in Bible Lands."

[^1]:    Cf. B. E., Series A, Part 1, PI. VIII, Nos. 18 and 19.
    Cf. Scheil, Sippar, pp. 33f., especially the first 8 lines of p. 34.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the present cf. the specimens from Jôkha referred to $\mathrm{p} . \mathrm{x}$, note 1 , above, which were even baked in the kiln, before they were incorporated in the temple library.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ A form like $n i n d a b a \hat{a}$（on which cf．Jensen in Schrader＇s $K . B .$, Vol．VI，p．380）．Cf．also＂Cuneiform Texts，＂ Vol．XII，Pl．32，the sixth fragment，lines 4－5（the mutilated last sign of li． 5 to be restored to＂$p u$＂$=k u s a \hat{p} u$ ），and Behrens on lusapu in Assyrisch－Babylonische Briefe Kultischen Inhalts aus der Sargonidenzeit，p． 81.
    ${ }^{2}$ From pazatzu，＂to crush，＂＂to reduce to small pieces．＂Cf．Zimmern in Göttinger Gelehrten Anzeigen，1898，p． 823.
    ${ }^{3}$ From silu，＂to bake，＂＂to roast，＂etc．，Hebr．（cf．also Meissner，Supplement zu den Assyr．Wörterbüchern， p．81a）．As to its formation ef．șaltu，＂hostility，＂from șilu I，＂to be hostile．＂
    ${ }^{4}$ For this value cf．already Delitzsch，Assyrische Lesestücke，4th edition，p．8，No．47，e．
    ${ }^{5}$ Cf．＂Cuneiform Texts，＂Vol．XII，Pl．8，b，li．1，and Fossey，Contribution au Dictionnaïre Sumérien－Assyrien， No． 525.
    ＂The value＂shi－i＂thus far known only from this Nippur text．
    ${ }^{7} \mathrm{Cf}$. ．Utpashshu＝utappashshu，cf．utnen＝utannen，and Hilprecht，Assyriaca，pp．44ff．Epêshv，＂to meditate，＂ ＂to plan＂（utpashshu corresponding to Sumerian AB－HU－SI－A，cf．Meissner，Seltene Assyr．Ideogramme，p．61）， root im，＂to dig，＂＂to fathom，＂＂to explore，＂＂to search，＂＂to plan，＂etc．，from which eppeshu and etpêshu， ＂wise．＂Cf．Tell－el－A marna，Berlin 104，42f．；Zimrida aluLakisi ig－gi－u－shu（from egu［cf．103，7］，＂sie versündigen sich an
     or＂planning＂］ana dâki（？）［＂to kill him＂］．
    ${ }^{8}$ Namṣaru and nasssaru，＂sword＂＇（cf．Zimmern，Beiträge zur Kenntnis der Babylonischen Religion，p．59，li．198）， are naf＇al forms from the same verb naṣâru II，probably identical with naṣâru I，＂to guard，＂i．e．，either＂to protect＂ （nam（s）s stru，＂the instrument of protection，＂＂sword＂）or＂to lurk，＂＂to lie in wait for＂（nansirum，＂the lurker，＂ cf．Job 7，20：נצ゙ הארם）．

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $a \not \phi \rho \varepsilon v o v$ of the Cod., according to A. v. Gutschmid, is a later Christian interpolation for original $\varepsilon \mu \phi \rho o v$.
    ${ }^{2}$ According to Jensen's very plausible theory (in Schrader's K. B., Vol. VI, p. 302) $=$ Ummanu, i.e., the. artisan par excellence, evidently one of the epithets of the god $A e$ (generally read Ea), who frequently bears the title bêl nîmeqi, "the lord of wisdom" ( = the All-wise), and bân kâla (e.g., B. E., Series A, Vol. I, PI. 31, 17) or bân kullati (IV R.' 56 , $9 b$ ), "the creator of everything," and therefore including all sciences and arts, as the divine patron of which he was worshipped everywhere in Babylonia (cf. II R. 58, No. 5; Jastrow, Die Religion Babyloniens und Assyriens, pp. 61ff., 125ff.; and Zimmern in Schrader's K. A. T'. ${ }^{3}$, pp. 358ff., 535).
    ${ }^{3} a \check{a} \lambda \lambda \eta \nu$, according to A. v. Gutschmid, corrupted from $\overline{\alpha \nu \eta \nu}=\dot{a} \nu \vartheta \rho \omega \pi i v n \nu$.
    
    
    ${ }^{5}$ For the Greek text with the Latin version cf. Alfred Schoene, Eusebi Chronicorum liber prior, cols. 13 and 14. For English and German translations cf. "Cory's Ancient Fragments," new and enlarged edition by E. Richmond Hodges, London, 1876, p. 57; George Smith's Chaldäische Genesis, translated and edited by Hermann and Friedrich Delitzsch, Lejpzig, 1876, pp. 39f.; A. Jeremias, Oannes-Ea, in Roscher's Lexicon der Griechischen und Römischen Mythologie, Vol. III, cols. 577f.; and Zimmern in Schrader's K. A. T. ${ }^{3}$, p. 535.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. also his Aufsätze und Abhandlungen, p. 412, where Hommel calls attention to the fact that the Thierkreis von Dendera and the so-called Dekanlisten commence with Cancer, apparently in view of an ancient tradition.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Winckler, A. F., Zweite Reihe (XIII), pp. 367-372; Geschichte Israels, Vol. I1, pp. 276ff.; Die babylonische Kultur in ïhren Beziehungen zur unsrigen, pp. 14f., 29; Schrader's K. A. T. ${ }^{3}$, pp. 13, 332f.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. Winckler in Schrader's K. A. T. ${ }^{3}$, p. 13.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Zimmern in Schrader's K. A. T. ${ }^{3}$, pp. 533ff., and Beiträge zur Kenntnis der Babylonischen Religion, pp. 116ff.; Craig, "Religious Texts," pp. 64f.; II R. 58, No. 3. On Duranki cf. Jensen, Die Kosmologie der Babylonier, p. 485; Hilprecht, B. E., Series D, Vol. I, pp. 462 ff ; and Hommel, Grundriss, p. 351, note 2.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Jensen, in Z. A., Vol. XI, pp. 90f., and Zimmern in Schrader's K. A. T. ${ }^{3}$, p. 537 f .
    ${ }^{3}$ Like the temple library of Nippur, this royal library of Nineve was originally stored in two large buildings, where it was discovered and excavated by both Layard (Southwest palace) and Rassam (North palace) in the years 1849-54. Cf. Hilprecht, B. E., Series A, Vol. I, p. 121, note 1 ( $=$ German edition, p. 115, note 1).
    ${ }^{4} \mathrm{Cf}$. Bezold, "Catalogue of the Cuneiform Tablets in the Kouyunjik Collection of the British Museum," Vol. V, p. XXIX.
    ${ }^{5}$ Cf. Winckler, A. F., Vol. I, pp. 534ff.; Hehn in B. A., Vol. V, pp. 326ff.; Zimmern, Babylonische Hymnen und Gebete, p. 7.
    ${ }^{6}$ Cf. King, "Cuneiform Texts,' Part XIII, Pl. 48; Winckler, A. F., Vol. I, pp. 542 ff .
    ${ }^{7}$ Cf. Winckler, Untersuchungen zur Altorientalischen Geschichte, pp. 24, note 1, 133f.; King, "Letters and Inscriptions of Hammurabi,' p. XXIII, note 2.
    ${ }^{8}$ As to the earlier literature referring to this document, cf. Bezold, Literatur, p.57. See also Jensen in Schrader's K. B , Vol. III, pp. 134ff.; WinckIer, Geschichte Babyloniens und Assyriens, pp. 79ff. ; A. F., Vol. I, pp. 517ff.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ For further details cf. Bezold, "Catalogue," and Meissner in B. A., Vol. III, pp. 493ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Peiser, Jurisprudentic Babylonica que supersunt; Meissner in Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, Vol. IV, pp. 301ff.; Z. A., Vol. VII, pp. 16ff.; B. A., Vol. III, pp. 493ff.; Delitzsch in B. A., Vol. IV, pp. 78ff.; Winckler in O. L., 1903, cols. 28 ff .
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. Bezold, Literatur, pp. 36f., and King, "Cuneiform Texts,' Part XIII, Pls. 42-43.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cf. Hilprecht, B. E., Series A, Vol. I, pp. 21, especially 24ff.; Thureau-Dangin in Comptes Rendus de l'Academie des Inscriptions et Belles-Letters, 28 Août, 1906; Winckler, A.F., Vol. I, pp. 549 f .; Die Euphratländer und das Mittelmeer, pp. 8 ff . ${ }^{5}$ Cf. also King, "Babylonian Religion and My thology,' pp .198 f.
    ${ }^{6}$ One of them published by Scheil in Recueil, Vol. XX, on the plate accompanying his Note XXXVIII. Cf. also Jensen in Schrader's K. B., Vol. VI, pp. XVIIf., 92ff., and Zimmern in Schrader's K. A. T., ${ }^{3}$, pp. 520 ff .
    ${ }^{7}$ Cf. Jensen in Schrader's K. B., Vol. VI, pp. 101 ff ., 581 ff ., and Zimmern in Schrader's K. A.T.3, pp. 564 ff ,
    ${ }^{8}$ Cf. also Jensen in Schrader's K. B., Vol. VI, pp. XVII and 116-273; Das Gilgamesh Epos, pp. 1ff.; and Zimmern in Schrader's K. A. T' ${ }^{3}$, pp. 566ff. (also Hilprecht in B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Pl. 15, No. 26).

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Winckler, Die babylonische Kultur in ihren Beziehungen zur unsrigen, p. 23.
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{Cf}$. the result of the writer's examination of the lowest strata of Nippur, referred to above, pp. 2f.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. Winckler, Die Gesetze Hammurabis, pp. 6f.
    ${ }^{4}$ My statement concerning the legal expressions in use at the time of the dynasty of Isin rests upon unpublished material from Nippur dated in the reigus of the kings Ur-Ninib, Bur-Sin, I-ter-KA-sha, Amshu-ili-bân, Bêl-bani and Dâmig-ilishu. Cf. Chapter IV, below.
    ${ }^{5}$ For the literature on this subject cf. Johns, "Babylonian and Assyrian Laws, Contracts and Letters," pp. 15ff., to which may be added William R. Arnold, "Ancient Babylonian Temple Records in the Columbia University Library,'" New York, 1896, and the more important recent publications by Thureau-Dangin (Recueil de Tablettes Chaldéenes, Paris, 1903, which contains tablets from the earliest period to the rulers of the second dynasty of Ur), Virolleaud (Comptabilité chaldéenne, Part I, Poitiers, 1903; Di-tilla, textes juridiques Chaldéens de la secondc dynastie d'Our, Poitiers, 1903; Textes relatufs au culte des divinités de Lagash, in Revue Sémitique, Vol. XI, pp. 76-81); Delaporte (in Z. A., Vol. XVIII, pp. 245ff.) ; and Barton ("The Haverford Library Collection of Cuneiform Tablets," Part I, Philadelphia, Pa., 1905).

    - Cf. Meissner, Aus dem altbabylonischen Privatrecht, p. 4.
    ${ }^{7}$ In Sitzungsb. der Kön. Preuss. Ak. der Wiss. zu Berlin, 1896, pp. 417-426, and Tempelurkunden aus Telloh, p. 155.
    ${ }^{8}$ In Recherches sur l'Origine de l'Ecriture Cunéforme, pp. 81-90.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Mẹissner, B. A.P., Pls. $56-58$ (pp. 98ff.) ; Lehmann in Z. A., Vol. IV, pp. 290ff.; Oppert, ib., pp. 371 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Five royal and some thirty private letters of this period were known previously, cf. King, i.c., Vol. I, pp. XXIff.
    ${ }^{2}$ By the fragments published on Pls. 65-68 of his Recueil de Tablettes Chaldeennes Thureau-Dangin has shown that plans of houses, fields, canals, etc., were already drawn on clay tablets at the time of Sargon I of Agade.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cf. also the corrections and suggestions offered with regard to pp. 40-44 of Scheil's book by Ranke, B. E., Series D, Vol. III, pp. 38ff.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Jensen in Z. A., Vol. XI, p. 90, and W. J. Hinke, in B. E., Series D, Vol. IV (MS. ready for the press).
    ${ }^{2}$ Hilprecht, "In the Temple of Bêl at Nippur,'' p. 60 ( $=$ Vortrag, p. 71).
    ${ }^{3}$ Designated as "Mound IX" on the plan of the ruins published in B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 1, Pl. XV.
    ${ }^{4}$ Designated as "Mound $V$ " on the plan referred to in the previous note, and as "Mound IV" in B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 305.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ The inscription quoted by Bezold under No. 6 of his list (l.c., p. 226) is written on a fragmentary ivory parallelopipedon from Nimrûd. According to Lenormant, Choix de textes cunéiformes inédits ou incomplétement publiés, No. 86, pp. 224f., it contains "règles d'un jeu," or "une partie des combinaisons d'un jeu à pièces ou à cases noires et blanches, sortes de damier ou de trictac." Face A contains, resp. contained, the numbers [830], 820, 810 (text offers 820 again, by mistake), 800; Face B: [780], 770, 760, 750 (Col. I), 740, 730, 720, 710 (Col. II). Face C and Face D are not quite clear to me. I doubt whether the object had anything to do with games.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. IV R. ${ }^{2} 37$ (No. 12,136 and K 3168, Rev.), with additions from 81-2-1, 72.
    ${ }^{3}$ "Cuneiform Texts," Part IX, Nos. 85,194 and 85,210.
    ${ }^{4}$ B. A. P., Pls. 56-58, cf. p. 9, above.
    ${ }^{5}$ Cf. Verzeichnis der Vorderasiatischen Altertümer und Gipsabgüsse, Berlin, 1889, p. 65, V. A., Th. 253 (Table of Square Roots from 31 to 60 , known from IV R. ${ }^{2} 37$ ).
    ${ }^{\circ}$ Cf. Scheil, Sippar, p. 132, where it is described in a very general way as "Liste de a-du "fois" suivi de chiffres." I examined, photographed and copied this tablet in Constantinople, June 14, 1905 (cf. pp. 15f.).
    ${ }^{7}$ Described by Scheil as ' Exercise de calcul"' (Sippar, p. 134) or "une addition' (l.c., p. 48, where the cuneiform text is published). Oppert made this little tablet the subject of a special treatise entitled "Six cent cinquante-trois: Les carrés mystiques chaldéens' ${ }^{\prime}$ in Comptes Rendus, 1902, pp. 457ff.), which also appeared in German under the title "Sechshundert drei und fünfzig. Eine babylonische magische Quadrattafel" (in Z. A., Vol, XVII, pp. 60ff.). Cf. also. Bezold's Assyriologische Randbemerkungen in Z. A., Vol. XVII, pp. 95f.; and my own remarks, p. 25, below.
    ${ }^{8}$ Regarded by Scheil as an "Exercise de calcul"' (Sippar, pp. 48 and 137). Cf. Oppert in Comptes Rendus, 1902, p. 457, and in Z. A., Vol. XVII, pp. 60f. Also my own remarks on p. 24, note, below.
    ${ }^{9}$ Generally accompanied by numbers. Cf.e.g., the plan of a large building on V.A.Th. 413 (Verzeichris der Vorderas. Altertümer, p. 64); Scheil in Recueil, Vol. XVII, pp. 33f. (with which comp. Oppert, Un relevement de terrain Chaldeen, in Comptes Rendus, September 7, 1896, pp. 388-397), and Sippar, Nos. 143 (unpublished), 169 (unpublished), 178, 180, 181,

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ At least two (cf. also 81-2-1, 72?) in the British Museum, $K$ 3168, Obverse (cf. IV R. ${ }^{1} 40$ ) and $B r$. Mus. No. 12,136, Reverse, Col. II (ef. IV R. ${ }^{2} 37$ ); one in the Royal Museums of Berlin, V. A. Th. 253 (cf. Verzeichnis der Vorderasiatischen Altertümer, p. 65), and one in the Imperial Ottoman Museum at Constantinople, Sippar, 639. Cf. p. 23, note 3.
    ${ }^{2}$ After reading Peters' statement in J. A. O. S., Vol. XXVI, 1905, p. 155 ('‘The Nippur Library'"): . . . . "Abu Habba, where Scheil in his excavation later discovered a considerable number of multiplication tablets of the same general character,' I wondered whether I had overlooked any publication, from which Peters could have gathered his information. Though familiar with the results of Scheil's excavations in the Imperial Ottoman Museum at Constantinople, I thought it best to address a letter to the French scholar, inquiring whether he had discovered any other mathematical tablets at Abû Habba than the three reported by him in his Sippar-only one of which is a multiplication table. The immediate answer was: "Ausserdem kenne ich nichts" ("I know of nothing else").
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. Bezold, "Catalogue,' p. 935, under K 8527: "Babylonian; not from Kouyunjik(?)." After an examination of the four lines (the first three and the last) of the cuneiform text copied for me by King, I entirely agree with Bezold's view, also shared by King (according to information by letter), that the tablet is Babylonian, not Assyrian. It is, however, considerably older than assumed in "Guide," Brit. Mus., p. 201. Of. also p. 12, note 2, above.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cf. my remarks in B. E., Series A. Vol. I, pp. 531f.; Vortrag, pp. 59 ff. ( = "Lecture,' pp. 51f)
    ${ }^{5}$ Thirty-one tablets, excluding a number of duplicates.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ I designate the dynasty represented by Ishbi-Girra and his successors (ce. Chapter IV, below) as the first, and the inembers of the PA-SHE ( $=I$ sin, cf. p. 10, note 1, above) dynasty as the second dynasty of Isin.
    ${ }^{2}$ The rounded corners and the convex surface of the Obverse (without a knowledge of its inscription scarcely to be distinguished from the Reverse of the tablet) is a peculiar feature of the earliest clay tablets (cf. Thureau-Dangin, Recueil de Tablettes Chaldéennes), which, however, occurs occasionally as late as the second dynasty of Ur.
    ${ }^{3}$ In color and writing this fragment shows the peculiarities of the Nippur and Jôkha tablets dated in the reigns of the kings of the second dynasty of Ur.

    - Cf. also Peters in J. A. O. S., Vol. XXVI, p. 155.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ This stone therefore was published by the writer with the permission of Prof. Erman in $B . M$., Series A, Vol. I, Part 2, Pls. 68 and XXV, No. 69 (cf. also pp. 12 and 66 of that volume).
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf., however, p. 17 , note 4 , below.
    ${ }^{3}$ A photographic reproduction of the Sippar multiplication table, $25 \times 1$, will be found as an illustration of the results of Scheil's excavations at Abu Habba in Part 2 of the German edition of my "Excavations in Assyria and Babylonia."

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. the constant writing $S H U-K U L-N A$ on the tablets published by Clay in B. E., Series A, Vols. XIV and XV, also No. 162 of his "List of Signs" (Vol. XIV). Though I catalogued thousands of other tablets of the same period, I never found $S H U-K U L-A$. The writing $S H U-K U L$ on P (eiser) 100 is an abbreviation or a scribal error.
    ${ }^{2}$ For the writing of the names of the months in use at this early period cf. King, "The Letters and Inscriptions of Hammurabi," Vol. III, pp. XXXVff., note 3, and the present volume, No. 46 (dynasty of Isin) and Chapter IV.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 532. I have not come across this multiplication table again since I copied it in Constantinople, November, 1901. It is thus far the only one arranged in this manner besides the table of squares published on Pl.16, No.26. For a still other way cf. the table of squares IV $R .^{2} 37(1 A-R A 1=1 ; 2 A-R A 2=4 ; 3 A-R A B=9$, etc.),

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ See footnote 3 on previous page.
    ${ }^{2}$ The two copies have been prepared because the " 19 " is made differently on both, because the one tablet has "times $50=900$," the other "times $60=1080$," and finally because No. 4 has an additional line at the end.
    ${ }^{3}$ Observe that " 60 " is expressed by 6 tens instead of one perpendicular wedge.
    "What is left of li. 24 I read: ". . -an-Tar-gu," which either forms part of an unknown scribe's name or is to be read "[Ka-da-ash-ma]-an-Targu," and regarded as a variant of the Cassite king's name Kadashman-Turgu, according to whose reign the tablet possibly was dated. For as the god Turgu thus far never has the determinative ilu in Babyl. transliterations of Cassite names, it seems preferable to read the corresponding sign phonetically (an), connecting it with the preceding mutilated signs. As to the writing $K a-d a-a s h-m a-a n$ instead of the common $K a-d a s h-m a n, \mathrm{cf}$. B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 1, Nos. 59,$3 ; 63,6 ; 65,3 ; 68,14$. The spelling with " $a$ " (Targu) instead of the common Turgu can be easily explained through the influence of the following " r," cf. iluKargal and Kuri(e)gal (cf. p. 18, note 1, below). Murutiash, Maruttash and Marattash (cf. a similar influence exercised by " $l$ " in Elalu and Ulalu). Besides cf. the name Tar-ku-a-bu (not Tar (Kud, Hash)-ku(ma)-a-bu, Clay), "Tarku is father" (and perhaps Silli-dTar-ku, though the traces point to $d K U D-D A$, or to $d K U D-Z U(?)$, as the name of the god has been rendered by Clay, B. $E$. , Series A, Vol. XV, pp. 44 and 43), on the one hand, and Turku (K 2100, Obv. 13, a) on the other. For the identity of Targu or Turgu with Tarku (Тарко) or Turku, Tarqu and I'arbu, cf. Hilprecht, Assyriaca, p.119, and the literature quoted there.
    ${ }^{5}$ Instead of the ordinary transliteration dupsharru or tupsharru, I prefer tupsharru, in view of Hebrew טפם and Sabean ทט. Cf. $D U ́ B(d u-u b)=t u-u p-p u(S c .38)$ and $t u-u p-s h i-k a m$ and $t u-u p-s h i-k a-\alpha-t e(B . E$., Series A, Vol. I, Part I, No. 84, Cols. II, 58; III, 5, 22), also Zimmern in Schrader's K. A. T.3, p. 400, note 5.

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ I read $d K a r-g a l$. For the reading $d E-G A L$, which in view of "Cun. Texts,"'Vol. II, $37(=B u .91-5-9,381)$, li.4, and $\dot{B} . E .$, Series A,Vol. X, p. $40($ Ardi-dE-GAL-MAH), suggests itself, is excluded because of the oblique wedges in the sign after ilu (cf. Clay, B.E., Series A, Vol. XIV, "List of Signs," No. 220, compared with No. 116). The reading dKar-gal (not Gangal) seems assured by a variant $d K a ́ r-g a l$ (most naturally read $d U N-G A L$ by Clay, $B . E$., Series A, Vol. XV, p. 56), if we may regard the first sign (UN, cf. Clav, l.c., Vol. XIV, "List of Signs," No. 143) at the same time as a variant of PISH, KIR, KĀR (ib., No. 171). But however this may be, in Vol. XV, No. 34, 2, we evidently have to read bit $d G u-l a$ ŭ (instead of the KI of Clay's copy) dKár-gal Nippurki", 'the house of Gula and Kargal in Nippur'). This deity Kargal, which was worshiped in Nippur at the time of the Cassite dynasty, cannot be compared with the wellknown ideogram dKUR-GAL, i.e., dBêl, dAmmurru (cf. Clay, B. E., Series A, Vol. X, pp. 7f.; Peiser, Urkunden aus der Zeit der dritten babylonischen Dynastie, p. VIII). In all probability it was a Cassite deity, also contained in the name $m K u$-ur-gal-zu (V R. 44, 23ab), generally written $d K u-r i$ (or $d K u r-e$ )-gal-zu (of. Clay, B. $E$., Series A, Vol. XIV, p. 47). For the interchange of $a$ and $u$ before $r$ in Cassite words cf. p. 17, note 4, above. In this case we would
     $k u r g a l=r \hat{e} i$ and $z u=b i s h i$. For the present, however, it may seem equally possible to regard Kur(i)galzu as a Babylonian, not as a Cassite name. The element galzu, which erroneously was thought to be an Elamite or Cassite god (Scheil, Délégation en Perse, Vol. II, p. 8; Jastrow, Die Religion Babyloniens und Assyriens, p. 162; Clay, B. E., Series A, Vol. XV, pp. 3 (note 3) and 54), is contained in quite a number of Babylonian names. Cf.e.g., A-ta-mar-GAL$z u(=A t a m a r-r a b u z u(=r a b \hat{u t s u})$ ) and A-ta-mar-ra-bu-sa (=rabutsa), quoted by Clay, l.c., from the time of the Cassite rulers, or $d D a-m u-G A L-z u$ and $d E-a-G A L-z u$ from the time of Hammurabi, or dShamash-GAL-zu and Shar-ru-GAL-zu (kindly communicated to me by Hommel) from the period of Sargon of Agade. Unless we regard GAL-ZU in these names as an ideogr. with an unknown meaning (c. however Lugal-gal-su, Reissner, Tempelurkunden aus Telloh, 98, VII, 4), the most natural interpretation is to read $G A L-z u(s u)=r a b u z u=r a b \hat{u} t s u$, and in view of such names as $R a-b u-u t$, Ra-bu-ut-dShamash, Ra-bu-ut-dSirn (Ranke, B. E., Series D, Vol. III, p. 137), to regard GAI-zu (in Manishtusu, A, Col. IV, 2, read "Rabûzu, the judge," not Galzu-dajânu), dDamu-rabuzu, etc., as abbrer. Semitic names, in which $z u=s u=s h u$, "his," refers to a deity. For a possible deity Kur (in Kurigalzu, if interpreted as Babylonian) ef. Daiches, Altbabyl. Rechtsurkunden, p. 19, and the names Kur-halum, Kur-kudum and Kuri-ili (Ranke, l.c., p. 216).
    ${ }^{2}$ No. 8,24 , is perhaps to be changed into " 1.72 ' $(=$ " $1 \times 72=72$ ") and to be regarded as a colophon indicating that the next lowest number of the series, to which this multiplication table (" $1 \times 90=90$ ') belonged, was not " $1 \times 81$," as we should expect, but " $1 \times 72$." Cf. also p. 27 , note 1 .

    In view of No. 16, 25, we also should expect the last line of No. 12 to indicate the next lowest multiplication table of the whole series, which would be " 1405 " $(=$ " $1 \times 405=405$ "). If the next highest number of the series was given, the closing line should read " $1 \quad 450$ " $(=1 \times 450=450)$. As however the last sign of this line is not clear, and the next highest number of a series is never given as a colophon, the real significance of this number remains obscure to me.
    ${ }^{3}$ The whole question as to the meaning of the multiplication tables will be discussed below.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ This table, as stated above, p. 18 , closed with " $[144 \times 144=20] 736$. .' Supplement, therefore, " 5 shâr 4 nêr". before " 336. ."
    ${ }^{2}$ Contrary to the custom, according to which the Reverse of a tablet arranged in perpendicular columns is to be read from right to left, this Reverse (like the Reverse of other Nippur tablets) must be read from left to right. This follows from the mere observation that, if read as proposed, the multiplication tables here given follow the general principle (the highest number beginning and the lowest ending), while, if read from right to left, they would appcar to have been written without any order. A comparison of No. 24 , Rev., with No. 20 , Rev., shows that the columns of the former also ought to be read from left to right. The printed headlines of my copy should be corrected accordingly: What is called there Col. VI should be changed into Col. I, and what is called Col. V should become Col. II, etc. Another peculiarity of some Nippur tablets (e.g., C. B. M. 11,392 and 19,790, cf. also Bezold, "Catalogue," Vol. IV, p. 1392, note $\dagger$ ) is that "before writing the text on the Reverse the scribe turned the tablet over from the right to the left hand, and not upside down as usual."
    ${ }^{3}$ For " $25 \times 1$ " cf. p. 16, above, and for " $45 \times 1$ " cf. No. 20, Obv., and No. 24, Rev., Col. V (to be changed into Col. II, as stated in the previous note).
    ${ }^{4}$ No. $8=" 72 \times 1$ " (?, cf. p. 18, note 2, above) ; No. $15=$ " $500 \times 1$ " (known also from No. 17, Rev., Col. III, 6 from end, and No 23, Rev., Col. V, $1-7$ ); No. $16=$ " $720 \times 1$ " (known also from No. 17, Rev., Col. 1, and No. 23, Rev.. Col. IV, 1-5).

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ To be changed into Col. III (cf. p. 19, note 2, above).
    ${ }^{2}$ Unless to be read " $50 \times 1$."
    ${ }^{3}$ For 180,000, 162,000 and 160,000 must also be contained in this number.
    ${ }^{4}$ Which itself, however, must not be dividable by 7, 11 nor any other higher undividable number or its multiple.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1} A-A N$ is generally written only once (after the first quotient), on some tablets examined by me (cf. No. 24, Rev.) twice (also after the second quotient). It is doubtless to be supplemented after every quotient.
    ${ }^{2}$ We therefore should translate more exactly: " $12,960,000$ divided by 2 is $6,480,000$ each" ( $=j e 6,480,000$ ), ' $12,960,000$ divided by 3 is $4,320,000$ each"' ( $=j e 4,320,000$ ), etc. That $-A-A N$ (or -ta-A-AN) placed after a number was originally not regarded as a mere determinative, but actually pronounced by the Babylonians, who thereby rendered a number distributive, was already supposed by Jensen in Schrader's K. B., Vol. VI, p. 346. An especially instructive example is furnished by Strassmaier, Cambyses 124, which is to be translated: " 3 oxen, 6 q $\alpha$ each ( $==A-A N$ ) [per day], i.e., 3 gur (here correctly without $A-A N I$ ) barley, feed for the month of [Kislivu]; 6 oxen, 3 qa each ( $=$ ' $a$ ) [per day], i.e., 3 gur barley, feed for the month of [Kislivu]. Total: 6 gur barley, f[eed] for 9 oxen, from the eighth day [of the month of Tashrîtu]," followed by the date. No less instructive is the frequent phrase known from the late Baby'onian contract literature, ishtên(-eu)ätāma shaṭari il(te)k̀, which cannot be translated "ein Schriftstück nahmen sie"' (Meissner, Supplement zu den Assyrischen Wörterbüchern, p. 20), but" sie nahmen je ein Schriftstück" ( $=$ "they have each taken a document,' cf. Kohler and Peiser, Aus dem Babylonischen Rechtsleben, III, p. 44). This ishtênä-

[^21]:    lāma (or ishtênäma, of. Strassmaier, Cambyses 419, 8) is written either ishtôn-co-ta-ma (Camb. 117, 21), or ishtên-na-ta-ma (proof passage mislaid), or ishtên-ta-A-AN (=ma, Darius 534, 11), or ishtêr-a-ta-A-AN (=ma, Camb. 257, 12; 279, 10), or ishtên-na-ta-'a $(=w a=m a, C y r .211,8)$, or ishtên-na- $a-t a(=i s h t e ̂ n a ̄ t \hat{\alpha}=$ ishtênāta' $a=$ ishtênātāwa= ishtênätäma, Darius, 257, 12), or ishten-ni-ta-'a (Camb. 253, 20). Cf. also the interchange of arha-a-ta-'a (Nabon. 282,6 ) and arba-ta-A-AN (B.E., Series A, Vol. IX, 66, 6), "monallich," "each month." Finally I call attention to the peculiar fact that, like $K A N$ and $K A M, A-A N$ is used as a determinative after ordinal numbers (thus far always preceded by shattu) in certain documents from the time of the Cassite rulers. Cf. Peiser, Urkunden aus der Zeit der dritten babylonischen Dynastie, Nos. 89,$28 ; 102,19 ; 111,17 ; 116,2$ and $22 ; 125,9 ; 135,22 ; 138,23$.
    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. No. 1, $19 \mid$ No. 17, Rev., Col. II, 7 f. e. $\mid$ No. 11, $19 \mid$ No. 17 , Obv., Col. IV, 8 ; No. 19, Rev., Col. I, $6 \mid$ No. 10, $19 \mid$ No. 4, 19; No. 16, 19 ; No. 20, Rev., Col. III, 5 f. e.; No. 21, Obv., 19; No. 23, Rev., Col. III (to be changed into Col. IV), 12, and Col. V (to be changed into Col. II), $3 \mid$ No. $9,19 \mid$ No. $5,19 \mid$ No. $15,19 \mid$ No. 19, Obv., Col. IV, 17. Cf. also IV $R .^{2} 37$, variants.
    ${ }^{2}$ Known also from other inscriptions, cf. the sign lists published by Clay in B. E., Vol. XIV (No. 76), and Vol. X (No. 64).
    ${ }^{3}$ The references to the mathematical tables in which $\bar{I} B-D I$, "square," and BA-DI-E ," cube," occur, are given

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ These four lines would read accordingly, li. 2: IGI. $9600 \mid 1575$; li. 3: $I G I 10,000 \mid 1512 ;$ li. 4: IGI $10,800 \mid 1400$; li, 5: $I G I$ 11,250| 1344.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ Even the list of divisors given by the scribe in the preserved 24 lines is not complete. For, to quote only one example, 750,000 (omitted by the scribe) also is a divisor (with the corresponding quotient $261,273,600$ ). The same incompleteness is frequently found on the Nippur division tables. Cf. p. 18, note 2, and Pl. 11, Col. I, 29, Col. IV, $28,29$.
    ${ }^{2}$ There are traces enough preserved in this line to prove the correctness of my restoration: two perpendicular wedges (each $=216,000$ ) and three angular hooks (each $=36,000$ ) in the left column. The horizontal stroke following 8 ( $\times 12,960,000$ ) in the right column shows that the mutilated end of this line coutained no other number.
    ${ }^{8}$ For lines $2-5$ see the text published by Bezold. In the lacuna of li. 2 (at the extreme right) must have stood a " 15 "' (each unit $=216,000$ ).
    "The traces of the last number seem to point to " 5 ." King adds: "Partly erased by the scribe." The calculation settles the question, the number required being " 4 " ( $\times 216,000$ ).
    ${ }^{5}$ For the restoration of the first number in the left column, " $4(\times 216,000), "$ cf. p. 26, above.

[^24]:    ${ }^{2}$ The left column is to be restored thus: $4(\times 216,000)+4(\times 36,000)+8(\times 3600)$.
    ${ }^{2}$ The entire left column is broken off. The number which stood there was " 5 ( $\times 216,000$ )," followed by a horizontal stroke.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ In "The Laws," Book V, 737, E, Plato mentions another number, viz., 5040, as the number containing the greatest number of factors. This knowledge also probably goes back to Babylonian sources. For according to the Neo-Platonists, Pythagoras, whose method and calculations are closely followed by Plato in the famous number passage treated above, derived his mathematical science and doctrines from the East. Cf. also Winckler, Die babylonische Kultur, pp. 21f.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. James Adam, "The Republic of Plato, edited with critical notes, commentary and appendices," Vol. II, pp. 201-209 and pp. 264-306. My translation and interpretation of the number passage rests entirely on Adam's work and on a literal translation and a thorough oral interpretation of the difficult, terms by my friend, Dr. W. A. Lamberton, Professor of Greek in the University of Pennsylvania, who in several important details differs from Adam. To both scholars I express my warmest thanks for all the benefit derived from their researches.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Adam, the whole expression aú乡fost - $\lambda a \beta o v ̃ \sigma a \ell$ "means cubings and nothing more." "The period of the human creature" is accordingly the first number in which cubinge make everything conversable and rational with itself. The numbers to be cubed are 3,4 and 5.

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ While frequently differing from Adam in his interpretation of the Greek text, Hultsch also makes the two numbers referred to by Plato, 216 and 12,960,000. Cf. Zeitschrift für Mathemalik und Physik, Vol. XXVII, Histor.-liter. Abth., pp. 41-60. Observe that 216 also occurs in the of number $K 2069$ (p. 26, above).

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Winckler's numerous writings devoted to the explanation of the entire system. Even non-Assyriologists will read with great profiv a summary of his researehes in his Himmels- und Weltenbild der Babylonier als Grundlage der Weltanschauung und Mythologie aller Volker, Leipzig, 1901; Die babylonische Kultur in ihren Beziehungen zur unsrigen, Leipzig, 1902; and Religionsgeschichtler und geschichtlicher Orient, Leipzig, 1906.

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ Observe that the number 60, with its multiples and divisors, is also the governing number throughout Plato's "Laws."
    ${ }^{2}$ As seen on p. 30, 216 is the first number in which the cubes of $3,4,5$ occur. Adam calls attention to the fact that "it is also the cube of the number 6, which the Pythagoreans called the marriage number, owing, as we are told, to the fact that 6 represents the union of the first male number 3 and the first female number $2(3 \times 2=6)$. In other respects also the number 216 maintains its character as a matrimonial and generative force: for it is the cube of the area of the zoogonic triangle and the product of the cubes of the first male and female numbers ( $2^{3} \times 3^{2}=216$ ) etc,"

    5

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ Adam : "And 480, which $=210[7 \times 30]+270[9 \times 30]$, is the sum of the usually recognized periods of gestation for children born after seven and after nine months. The Great Year of the Universe may therefore be denoted by a rectangle whose sides are respectively the longer period [270] and the sum of the longer and shorter periods of gestation [480] in the race of man, after it has been multiplied by the square of the Pythagorean perfect number 10 [representing the lifetime of man?,"

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Actes du huitième"congrès international des Orientalists, Vol. II, pp. 167 ff .; Zeitschrift für Ethnologie, Vol. 21 (1889), pp. 245ff. Cf. also Johns, "Assyrian Deeds and Documents," Vol. II, pp. 196-218, and Zimmern, "Das Princip unserer Zeit- und Raumeinteilung," in "Berichte der phil.-histor. Classe der Königl. Sächs. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Leipzig," November 14, 1901, pp. 57 ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ As to ashlu and subban ef. Meissner-Rost in B. A., Vol. III, p. 358, and the Assyrian dictionaries.

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ The excavating Arabs who(?) joined the preserved portions of this tablet (evidently found together) with a kind of date paste, placed the small fragment forming the left lower corner of the tablet a little too high. The printed number 25 (indicating the corresponding line of Col . I) should therefore be moved up one line. I
    ${ }^{2}$ For this interpretaton cf. also Thureau-Dangin in Revue $d^{\prime} A$ ssyriologie, Vol. IV, pp. 18f.

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ In another connection already inferred by Lehmann in Zeitschrift für Ethnologie, Vol. IV, pp. 305ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. also sillum elippum, $K 4378$, Col. VI, 34 .

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ Containing dates from the reigns of Dungi, Bur-Sin I, and Gimil-Sin in chronological order.
    ${ }^{2}$ Documents dated according to the reigns of Sargon I and Narâm-Sin have also been discovered at Nippur.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. Thureau-Dangin, Les Inscriptions de Sumer et d'Alkad, pp. 318ff.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cf. p. 6, note 4, above.
    ${ }^{5} \mathrm{Cf} . \mathrm{pp} .5 f f .$, above.
    ${ }^{6}$ Cf. e.g., Hilprecht, B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 517 (Sargon I); King in "Cuneiform Texts,'" Vol. IX, Br. Mus. 35,389 (Dungi), and Br. Mus. 22,457 (Kurigalzu, copied in the 8 th year of Nabonidos); King, "The Letters and Inscriptions of Hammurabi,'' Vol. II, pp. 207 (Ammi-ditâna), etc.

[^35]:    ${ }^{1}$ The age of the inscription can be obtained approximately from palaeographical reasons and the consideration that Col . IV cannot have had more than 48 to 50 lines, 25 of which are partly preserved. Since the fragment closes with the first dynasty of Isin (li. 24), the 23 to 25 lines following, if indeed the entire column was inscribed, cannot have contained much more than the dynasty of Larsa and the first dynasty of Babylon. In this connection we call attention to the fact that the last column of the larger fragment of Chronicle S. (Winckler, Untersuchungen zur Altorien$t_{\text {alischen }}$ Geschichte, pp. 144 and 153) was, in part at least, uninscribed.

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Lehmann, Zwei Hauptprobleme der altorientalischen Chronologie und ihre Lösung, Leipzig, 1898, pp. 186ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Winckler in Schrader's K. A. T. ${ }^{3}$, pp. 17f.; also A. F., Zweite Reihe (XIII), p. 369 ; Untersuchungen zur Altorientalischen Geschichte, pp. 44f., with which compare Lehmann, l.c., pp. 172 ff .

[^37]:    ${ }^{1}$ As formerly maintained by me; cf. Assyriaca, p. 95, note 2.
    ${ }^{2}$ Comp., e.g., the statement concerning the 696 years (in B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 1, Pl. 30, li. 6-8) said to have elapsed between Gulkishar (i.e., from his death) and Nebuchadrezzar I (i.e., to the beginning of his government as emperor of Babylonia). These 696 years were obtained by the scribe simply by adding the $576 \frac{3}{4}$ years ascribed to the Cassite dynasty on the larger chronological list (A) + the last 120 years $(=9+7+26+28+50)$ of the last five kings of the dynasty of $S H E S H(U R U)-A Z A G(H A) k i=696 \frac{3}{4}$ years, the scribe omitting only the fraction of a year, to round off hiṣ sum, Cf, Hilprecht, Assyriaca, pp. 20ff,

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. B. $E$. , Series A, Vol. I, Part 1, pp. 41ff. Through a recent examination of a portion of the original tablet on which the chronological List $A$ is inscribed, $I$ have been convinced that the objections raised by Winckler and others against my placing Nebudadrezzar $I$ at the head of the second dynasty of Isin $(=P A-S H E)$ are justified. But while it is true that this king occupied only the third or fourth place among the members of his dynasty, it is likewise true that, as I always claimed; he was the real founder of his dynasty as to the throne of Babylonia. His predecessors were merely kings of Isin, at a time when the Iast Cassite kings were still in possession of Nippur, retaining a nominal supremacy over Babylonia, until their dynasty was overthrown by Nebuchadrezzar. In my previous writings I inferred this from the king's proud titles (cf. especially shâlilu Kashsh $\hat{\imath}$ ) and remarkable victories. This theory can now be proved beyond any doubt by the new boundary stone referred to on $p$. 43, note 2, above, where Nebuchadrezzar has the significant titles (Col. II, 23f.), shar kishshati, mukîn ishid mâti, illustrated by the words that Bêl (who had looked favorably upon him because of his care for the god's sanctuaries) "broke the weapon of his enemy and placed the scepter of his enemy in his own hand, that he might pasture (ana r $\hat{\epsilon} \hat{u} t$ ) Shumer and Akkad, renew the sanctuaries of the city of dwellings (or mankind? malbaz dadmê [=tadmê, from $a d \hat{a} m u ?]$ ) and regulate the tithes of Ekur and Nippur (ana sadâr satuk Ekur u Nippur), Col. I, 22-II, 5. This important document is dated in the sixteenth year of Nebuchadrezzar (Col. V, 26). The text will be published in B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 3, while its transliteration and translation with commentary by my pupil Dr. W. J. Hincke will appear in B. E., Series B, Vol. IV.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Hilprecht, B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 1, pp. 38 and 44, and Winckler, A. F., p. 132 (Nebuchadrezzar I, c. 1151-33). Winckler's additional 10 years are assigned by me to Nebuchadrezzar as king of Isin before his accession to the Babylonian throne.

[^39]:    ${ }^{1}$ For all these names cf. Ranke, B. E., Series D, Vol. III.

[^40]:    ${ }^{1}$ The name of the month arkiaKIN-dNinni forming part of its date. The ideograms of the different months found on the tablets dated in the reigns of kings of Isin correspond with those known from the tablets of the period of Hammurabi. Cf. Pl. 30, No. 46. From documents dated in the reigns of kings of the dynasty of Isin I have gathered the following ideographic writings: arhuGUD-SI-DI (=Airu), arhuNE-NE-GAR(=Abu), arhuKINdNinni (=Elûlu), arhu iṣuAPIN-GAB-A (=Arah-samna), arhuGAN-GAN-UD-DU(=Kisil̄̄vu), arhuAB-UD-DU (三T? $=$ ēetu).
    ${ }^{2}$ Thus correctly interpreted by Lehmann, Delitzsch and others.
    ${ }^{5}$ Cf. Recueil, Vol. XXIII, pp. 93f., and Sippar, p. 140.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cf. Hilprecht, B. E., Series D, Vol. I, p. 381, note 4.
    ${ }^{5}$ Dated "Month of arhu isuAPIN-GAB-A (=Aralisamna), in the year when Dâmiq-ilishu, the king, [built] the 9

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Hilprecht, B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Nos. 18 and 19, and pp. 27f. The brick legends of Tshme-Dagân, who also left fragments of a large inscribed slab in diorite (cf. B. E., Series I, Vol. I, No. 17), will be published in Vol. I, Part 3. Inscribed bricks of Ishme-Dagân were also discovered at Muqayyar, cf. I R. ${ }^{2}$, No. V, 1 and 2, republished by King in "Cuneiform Texts," Part XXI, Pls. 20 and 21. A seal of Bûr-Sin (Berlin, V. A. 2720) was published by Lehmann in B. A., Vol. II, pp. 589ff. Cf. the translations of the inscriptions of members of the dynasty of Isin by Winckler in Schrader's K. B., Vol. III, pp. 84ff.; Radau, "Early Babylonian History," pp. 228ff.; and Thureau-Dangin, Les Inscriptions de Sumer et d'Akkad, pp. 290ff.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Thureau-Dangin in Recueil, Vol. XIX, pp. 185f., and Revue d'Assyriologie, Vol. III, pp. 71 ff .

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ As previously stated by me ( $Z . A ., V o l$. VII, pp. 308f.), Cassite kings never have any determinative before their names and comparatively rarely any title after their names in the numerous votive inscriptions preserved to us. The determinative ilu, on the other hand, while never occurring in any dated document of Burna-Buriash and Bitiliâshu, is often placed before the names of the six Cassite kings mentioned above on the numerous tablets dated in their reigns. For the published material cf. Hilprecht in Z. A., Vols. VII, pp. 308ff., and VIII, pp. 386f.; Peiser, Urkunden aus der Zeit der dritten babylonischen Dynastie, and Clay, B. E., Series A, Vol. XIV (by an oversight Clay forgot to indicate the determinative ilu before the name of Kadashman-Turgu in his useful "Concordance of Proper Names."' It appears, however, in Nos. 99: 6, 106a: 7, 106b:5, 106c: 8, 107:7, 108a: 5, and on a number of unpublished tablets). After Clay, on the basis of certain proper names, made it very probable (l.c., pp. 4f.) that the name of Kadashman-Turgu's successor, whom I read Kadashman-Buriash, was Kadashman-Bêl (formerly regarded by me as identical with Kadashman-Turgu), the names of the seven Cassite rulers preceding Bitiliâshu in the larger List A (which on October 13, 1906, King and I examined anew in the British Museum, in the light of the fresh material furnished by the Nippur tablets, presenting the results of our combined collation in this note) can be restored as follows (with due consideration of the fact that the Cassite votive objects and dated documents form one group, which cannot be dismembered to fit theories): Burna-Buriash (latest Nippur tablet dated in his 25th year), Kurigalzu (his son, but possibly not his immediate successor; doübtless 25 years according to the traces preserved in List A, beginning of Col. II, latest Nippur document dated in his 23d year), Nazi=Maruttash (his son, 26 years according to List A, latest Nippur document dated in his 24th year), Kadashman=Turgu (his son, 17 years according to List 1 , latest Nippur document dated in his 16th year), Kadashman-Bêl (beginning of his name (Ka-di(a)sh- . .) and traces of the number of years of his reign preserved in List $A$ (in all probability 11 or 12; or if we do not allow the "ten,". only 1 or 2), latest Nippur document dated in his 6 th year), Kudur=Bêl (possibly his son, formerly read Is-am-me- . . . in List A, where the partly effaced number of his years seems to have been a 6-a discrepancy between List A and the Nippur documentslatest Nippur document dated in his 9 th year), Shagaraktimshuriash (second(?) son of Kadashman-Bêl (cf. B. F., Series A, Vol. I, No. 68, Coi. I, lines 5 and 14-15), 13 years according to List A, latest Nippur document dated in his 12 th year (cf. B. E., Series A, Vol. XIV, No. 138, li. 2; the number 22 given by Ciay, l.c., pp. 3 and 72, is a mistake, for No. 139 cleally offers shattu 2 kam )), Bitiliâshu (his son, 8 years according to List A, latest Nippur document dated in his 6th year). Cf. my first tentative list in B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part I, pp. 37f.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. B. E., Series A, Vol. I, pp. 30f. More than 18,000 tablets and fragments dated in the reigns of Cassite kings have been excavated at Nuffar.
    ${ }^{3}$ The deification of living rulers, incicated by the determinative ilu placed before their names, as stated above, seems confined to the persons quoted. The more natural deification of dead persons is known from several other examples, cf. e.g., Gudea, $\mathrm{Sa}(\mathrm{u}) \mathrm{mu}$-abu, Hammurabi (cf. also King, "Letters," Vol. III, note), Samsu-iluna, Zabium, etc. Cf. Radau, " Early Babylonian History," pp. 307ff., Rauke, B. E., Series D, Vol. III, p. 212, and others.

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Hilprecht, B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Nos. 125 and 127.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Thureau-Dangin in Revue Semitique, 1897, pp. 72ff.; O. L. Z., 1898, pp. 161ff. ; Z. A., pp. 406ff., and Revue $d^{\prime}$ Assyriologie, Vols. III, pp. 141ff., V, p. 77.
    ${ }^{3}$ Or several years dated according to events occurring during the period of the first dynasty of Babylon. Cf. Lindl in B. A., Vol. IV, p. 363, lines 31ff., and King, "The Letters and Inseriptions of Hammurabi," Vol. III, pp. LVII, and 220 ff .

[^44]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. already Winckler, Untersuchungen zur altbabylonischen Geschichte, pp. 37f.; Geschichte Babyloniens und Assyriens, p. 48, etc.
    ${ }^{2}$ En-sal-NUNUZ-ZI dNannar, en dNannar, thus called in two inscriptions from Muqayyar (cf. ThureauDangin, Les Inscriptions de Sumer at d'Akkad, pp. 294f.), the one inscribed on bricks from the temple of Sin at Ur, which by their very existence testify to the high position Enanatum occupied there.
    ${ }^{3} \mathrm{Cf}$. also the fact that he restored "the large wall of Larsa," calling it "Shamash is the conqueror of the enemical land." Cf. the similar (abbreviated?) name Ishkibal (4th king of the 2nd dynasty).

[^45]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf.pp. 49 ., note 5 , and p. 53. Not my least reason is the fact that the form and color of the dated clay tablets of the dynasty of Isin, Larsa and Babylon, the stratum in which they are found, the writing, phraseology and technical terms and proper names of their inscriptions, the names of the months, etc., are practically the same. The tablets resemble each other so much that without a thorough knowledge of their contents they cannot be distinguished from each other. The overthrow of Isin in the seventeenth year of Sin-mubalit ( $=$ the last year of Dâmiq-ilishu) seems to have been accomplished by the united forces of this king and Rim-Sin, whom we find in possession of Nippur, making the fall of Isin the beginning of a new era (tablets of his government dated even as high as the "thirtieth year after the fall of Isin" have been discovered at Nippur). We are therefore justified in regarding Rîm-Sin as the immediate successor of Dâmiqilishu of Isin.
    ${ }^{2}$ Known from a votive dog in steatite offered to Nin-Isinki, i.e., "the lady of Isin" for the life of Sumu-ilu, "king of Ur," by a high dignitary of Lagash. We infer from this dedication that this goddess must have been regarded as specially powerful at the time the subject was inscribed. This leads us to the period when the dynasty of Isin played a leading part in the shaping of Babylonian affairs; in other words, about the time of Ishme-Dagan-nearly the same result reached by Thureau-Dangin from palaeographical considerations (Revue d'Assyriologie, Vol. VI, p. 70). Whether Sumu-ilu lived before Gungunu or after him cannot be decided at present.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. also Thureau-Dangin, Revue d'Assyriologie, Vol. VI, p. 70, note 7.
    ${ }^{4}$ There are a number of other "kings'" (cf. also p. 51, above), who up to the present time cannot be placed in any of the known dynasties. Cf. Bu-nu-tah-tu-un-i-la (C.B.M. 1629, Ranke, B. E., Series D, Vol. III, pp. IXf., and Series A, Vol. VI, Part 1, No. 6) or corrupted Bu-un-tab-un-i-la (Bu.91-5-9, 2184, and King, 'The Letters and Inscriptions of Hammurabi,'" Vol. III, p. 220, note 16; Daiches, A. R., p. 27, note 2, and Ranke, l.c.), a contemporary of Sumu-la-ilu apparently to be analyzed as Bûn(u)-tahtûn-ila, i.e., "The child is the protégé of the god" or "of dlla"' (tahtun [form taf' $u l$ from ḩatânu, "to protect"] has a double meaning, 1. "protection," 2. "protégé," cf. the similar use of migru). Possibly he also belongs to the dynasty of Larsa, being a predecessor of Nûr-Immer. To the same dynasty and general period I assign King Ma-na-ma-an-te-el (for the formation of his name cf. Su-mu-en-te-il, Bu. 91-5-9, $2378=$ " 'Cuneiform Texts," Vol. VIII, Pl. 38, li. 11), unless indeed the two kings mentioned are representatives of another dynasty (Erech, "Sea Land"?) temporarily gaining some influence in a certain part of Babylonia. Concerning Nûr= Dagân and Sin-îribam cf. p. 51, above. As to Immerum and Ilu-ma-(d)I-la, two other contemporaries of Sumu-lailu, cf. pp. 56ff., below. In discussing several Nippur tablets dated in the reigns of members of the dynasty of Isin (p. 49, above), I mentioned a new king, occurring on C.B.M. 11,013 and on a fragmentary case belonging to it. The name begins with a sign resembling $A M+S H U$ ' (which I explain as a variant of the sign ' bil',', followed by

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Les Inscriptions de Sumer et d'Akkad, p. 296, note 2.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. the names quoted by Ranke, B. E., Series D, Vol. III, p. 202.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. also the interchange of $d I m$-ra and $d I m$ ( $d I m$ is abbreviated from dIm-ra?) in the date formula of Hammurabi's 18 th year (quoted by Lindl), Ranke, $B . E$. , Series D, Vol. III, p. 202, note 2.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cf. already Niebuhr in Mitteilungen der Vorderasiatischen Gesellschaft, 1897, pp. 293f.: "vielleicht war er [Immerum] gelegentlich von Larsa aus über Sippar gesetzt, um diese Stadt dem babylonischen Geschlecht zu entziehen und so dessen Macht zu schwächen.',
    ${ }^{5}$ Cf. "Cuneiform Texts," Vol. XXI, Pl. 29, No. 30070, li. 3.
    "This will explain to Daiches (A. R., p. 26) why "the king of Larsa" is not mentioned in connection with Immerum and Sumu-la-ilu in the oath-formulas of dated tablets-Immerum himself being that king of Larsa.
    ${ }^{7}$ For this reading (=tupsharru) cf. Ranke, B. E., Series A, Vol. VI, Part 1, p. 8, note 1.
    ${ }^{8}$ Cf. B. E., Series A, Vol. I, Part 1, No. 26 (and Part 2, p. 48, note 3); Assyriaca, pp. 101ff. Cf. also Hommel (who first analyzed the inscription correctly) in P.S. B. A., Nov., 1893, pp. 13ff.; Winckler, A. F., First Series, pp. 274f.; Radau, "Early Babylonian History,'’ p. 226, note 2; Jensen in Schrader's K. B., Vol. VI, pp. 268ff.; also Ranke, l.c., (cf. previous note).

[^47]:    ${ }^{1}$ The 19 th or 20 th year of Bur-Sin II, as we saw above, is identical with the first year of Sumu-la-ilu $A N$-ma-ila of the second dynasty, who ruled 60 years, therefore, would have been contemporaneous also with $U r-d N I N-I B$ of $I_{\sin }$ and Sumu-abu, founder of the so-called first dynasty.
    ${ }^{2}$ In order to have this book appear as early as possible, Chapter V, pp. 57 ff . (being written first), was printed and paged first. Afterwards it was found that the space allowed for the preceding material was underestimated a little. I consequently introduced pp. 56 a and 56 b .

