

In der abendländischen Rezeption bleibt sie über die christliche Universalgeschichte als aktive Herrscherin des ersten Weltreiches wie als Bauherrin in Babylon präsent. Seit der frühen Neuzeit wird sie auch mit den „Hängenden Gärten“ in Verbindung gebracht (Brodersen 1996, 57; Rollinger 1999, 377–380; Bichler/Rollinger 2005, 158).

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R. Rollinger

Semiten, Semitisch (Semites, Semitic).

§ 1. Name. – § 2. The extralinguistic irrelevance of the terms. – § 3. The Semitic languages.

§ 1. Name. The name “Semites” derives from Sem, Noah’s oldest son. The table of nations in Gen. 10, 21–31 and 11, 10–26, records as his descendants, among others, Hebrews, Aramaeans, Assyrians and Old South Arabians, for whose languages the name “Semitic” has been adopted, following A. L. Schlözer apud Eichhorn 1781, 161. Also included among the descendants of Sem, however, are speakers of the linguistically non-Semitic Lydian and Elamite.

§ 2. The extralinguistic irrelevance of the terms. Today, the terms “Semites” and „Semitic“ are mostly confined to their linguistic sense in the humanities and sciences for two reasons:

Firstly, the abuse of the terms by racist ideologies has partly put their use under a taboo.

Secondly, no common anthropological, historical or cultural heritage of the speakers of Semitic languages can be recon-

structed: there is no Semitic race; the question of an original homeland is unanswered; the old wave theory, according to which Semites from the heart of the Arabian peninsula periodically infiltrated the Fertile Crescent, is only rarely held today, though it has also not been replaced by any other theory; the cultural identities of the Semitic speaking peoples appear to have mainly developed only after the divergence from the supposed common Proto-Semitic ancestor. Therefore, further questions, e.g. about an original Semitic religion, are largely meaningless.

§ 3. The Semitic languages. The Semitic languages, together with Ancient Egyptian, the Lybico-Berber, Cushitic and Chadic language families, belong to the Afroasiatic (Semito-Hamitic or Hamito-Semitic) language phylum. They are attested from about 2600 BC until today and constitute the dominant language family in the Near East throughout this period.

A generally accepted division of the Semitic languages doesn't exist. Most widespread is the family tree model that, although it employs geographical terminology, reflects significant linguistic realities.

According to one variant of this model (Hetzron 1974), the Semitic languages fall into two principal branches, East and West Semitic.

East Semitic mainly consists of one language only, Akkadian, the pre-eminent language spoken in Mesopotamia for most of its ancient history, serving as the *lingua franca* of the Near East in the 2nd and the first half of the 1st mill. and written in cuneiform (Keilschrift*). Within Akkadian, the dialects of Babylonian in the south are distinguished from the dialects of Assyrian in the north. The language of Ebla (Ibla*) in northern Syria is either a dialect of (Old) Akkadian (Krebernik 1996) or a separate subbranch of East Semitic closely related to Akkadian.

West Semitic comprises two subbranches, Central and South Semitic. Central Semitic falls into Northwest Semitic and North Arabic. Northwest Semitic consists of Amorite, Ugaritic (Ugaritisch*),

the Canaanite languages (Phoenician, Hebrew and others) and Aramaic. Whereas Amorite is only attested in a large number of personal names (Name*, Namengebung. E) and some hundred loan words in Akkadian texts, Ugaritic, Phoenician (Phönizien* § 4), Hebrew and Aramaic (Aramäische* Inschriften aus Assur und Hatra) are also known from texts written in different variants of the alphabet, all of which are already attested during the Ancient Near Eastern period. For Aramaic, Phoenician, Hebrew, Moabite and Edomite names in cuneiform texts see Name*, Namengebung. F. §§ 3–7. Still debated is the affiliation of the almost unknown language of the Chaldeans (Kaldu* § 1); most scholars classify it as Aramaic.

North Arabic consists of early inscrip-tional dialects, Classical Arabic and modern Arabic dialects. Early dialects are attested by a couple of loanwords and names in Akkadian texts of the 1st mill. (Name*, Namengebung. F. § 8).

South Semitic comprises two subbranches, South Arabic and Ethiopic. South Arabic consists of Old South Arabic (Sabaic and others; Südarabien*) and Modern South Arabic languages (Mehri etc.). Very few Sabaic names occur in Akkadian texts of the 1st mill. (Name*, Namengebung. F. § 9). Ethiopic consists of Old Ethiopic and Modern Ethiopic languages (Amharic and others).

Basically the same division of the Semitic languages is achieved by another model using a chronological terminology (Oelsner 1994): Again Akkadian is opposed as Old Semitic to all other Semitic languages, labeled Young Semitic. Young Semitic in turn is divided into Early Young Semitic (corresponding to South Semitic) and Late Young Semitic (corresponding to Central Semitic).

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M. P. Streck

ŠĚmĭtum „Die Erhörende“. (Bei-)Name einer in altbab. Zeit in Uruk (BagM 18, 155f. Nr. 36: 3) und Larsa (VS 1386: 9; TCL 10, 115: 25f.) verehrten Göttin, s. Richter, Panthea (2004²) 329 bzw. 401.

M. Krebbernik

ŠĚmšārā s. Šušarrā.

ŠĚmti-šĭlhak. Father of Kudurmabuk* of Yamutbal (Jamutbal*). Š.'s name is only known as patronymic in inscriptions by Kudurmabuk (Frayne, RIME 4, 267–269) and in inscriptions commissioned by Kudurmabuk on behalf of Š.'s grandsons, Warad-Šĭn* and Rĭm-Šĭn* I of Larsa (ibid. 205–216, 219–222, 272–275). His name, like that of his son Kudurmabuk and his

daughter Manzi-wartaš (R. Zadok, Iran 25 [1987] 6, 25 n. 31), is Elamite and may be interpreted as “Lord-Mighty” (*Temti-šĭlhak; cf. Zadok, AION Suppl. 40 [1984] nos. 22ob, 246). These names, and the notable increase in Elamite personal names in general during the reigns of Š.'s grandsons and shortly afterwards (Zadok, Iran 25 [1987] 6–10; A. J. Marchant, Old Babylonian tablets from Larsa [1990] 234–244) suggests an Elamite influence or even presence at Larsa. (Rĭm-Šĭn did *not*, however, build a temple for “Ninlil of Elam” but for “Ninenimma*”). Altogether, it remains difficult to decide whether Š. himself was an Amorite sheikh of the Yamutbal, who had strong cultural and political ties to Elam (as most commentators assume), or was in fact himself Elamite or of Elamite descent (cf., most recently, Steinkeller 2004, 30f.; M. Van De Mierop, A history of the Ancient Near East [2007²] 101).

A king or local leader with the name of Š. has not been securely identified in texts from Iran: König's (in Elam* 328–330) and Cameron's proposal to identify Š. as Šĭlhaha*, son of Eparti, mentioned as dynastic founder by a number of Elamite kings, based on the resemblance of the two names, implies very long reigns for Šĭlhaha and Kudurmabuk. It has been argued, however, that the parallel between Šĭlhaha's epithet, ad-da ka[lam], “father of the land² (of Anšan and Susa)”, and those of Kudurmabuk, ad-da *E-mu-ut-ba-la*, “father of Yamutbal”, and ad-da kur mar-tu, “father of the Amorite land” has a historical significance (Elam* 329; P. Koschaker, Or. 4 [1935] 78f.; W. W. Hallo, AOS 43 [1957] 108–112; id., AnSt. 30 [1980] 194; F. Vallat, NABU 1989/101).

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