

AUSTRALIAN NUMISMATIST



2012

Publication of the
NUMISMATIC ASSOCIATION OF VICTORIA
(Incorporating the Numismatic Society of Victoria, founded 1914)

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Cover: French 5 centimes struck during the 5th year of the French Republic (1793) at the Lille Mint

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MUSIC IN NUMISMATICS

By Len Henderson, NAV 409¹

INTRODUCTION

In the words of a character in that famous *Goon Show*, “before I begin to speak I would like to say a few words”.

STARS AND PLANETS

For centuries the world was told that our world was the centre of everything or more correctly, nay “wrongly”, Jerusalem was the centre of everything, and apart from Venus and Mercury which circled the sun, all the other planets rotated around us. The planets were considered “wandering stars” and the true stars were fixed in their places on crystal spheres.²

Sometimes the “wandering stars” turned back on themselves in a process called “retrogression” and then went forward again. We lived in a perfect, well organised world – it was also a “Demon-haunted” world.³

It was known that Venus had a year of 225 of our days and Mars had a year of 687 days – each, and everything, travelling in perfect circles.⁴

It was Nicolai Copernicus who first went into print by doubting “the wisdom of the ancients” by asking what if there is another reason. He postulated the theory that we lived in a helio-centred system and that the planets travelled in ellipses. He was threatened for holding these ideas but his thoughts were out in book form.

In 1608 a Dutch eyeglass maker named Hans Lippershey ground two lenses and placed them in a tube and found that he could magnify things thirty times. This was handy for seeing distant trade ships approaching harbour. It was Galileo who thought of using the device for studying the moon and the planets. Galileo’s major discovery was four objects circling the planet Jupiter. He then saw black spots on the surface of the sun; this most important of heavenly bodies could not have blemishes! Galileo was tried

¹ This paper was presented at NAV meeting 993 on 17 August 2012

² McEvoy, p63

³ Sagan

⁴ McEvoy, p85

in 1633 and was found guilty of being “vehemently suspected of heresy” and spent the rest of his life under house arrest and his books ordered not to be published – he was not excommunicated. He was gradually rehabilitated by the Roman Catholic Church and appears to have been finally cleared in 1992.

Johannes Kepler was shown a celestial telescope by Baron Waekher von Wackenfels who was taking it to the Emperor Rudolph. When the Emperor looked at the moon, he said “I appear to see valleys and mountains just like on Earth, but Aristotle and the Scriptures tell us the Moon is a perfectly smooth sphere like a mirror so I must be seeing a reflection of the Earth”.⁵

Kepler said Jupiter, like a king, had courtiers and satellites surrounding him and named the moons “satellites” – the first to use this term which has stuck.

The Emperor Rudolph, by following the accepted beliefs was not censured even though the Lutherans, Arabs, Jews, Greeks, and Gypsies were allowed to live in his realms.

MUSICIANS AND THE PLANETS

It was thought by some scientists that if life existed on other planets perhaps attempts were being made to contact us. They coined the phrase “the music of the spheres”. Jumping forward a few centuries we come to the Strauss family which means that I am getting close to the subject of this theme – music.

One of the Strauss’ approached another of the family to tell him a new piece of music was needed in a hurry and could he dash one off. Joseph Strauss who was asked was an engineer who was busy planning a new sewerage system for Vienna but using mathematics and logic of what chords should follow one another he turned out a piece (1868) which he called “the music of the spheres” from Kepler's term

At last I am getting close to the subject of the theme of these talks – music in relation to numismatics.

Beethoven wrote a piece called “The Planets”, so too did Holtz.

⁵ McEvoy, p97

MUSIC IN NUMISMATICS

Much later Harold Munro wrote a short poem beginning:

“The stars must make an awful noise
in whirling round the sky,
Yet somehow I can’t even hear
Their loudest song or sigh.”⁶

It was felt that sounds were coming from the stars and that life on other planets existed.

With the introduction of radio astronomy these intellectual sounds were finally heard. One of the sources was an area designated L.G.M.1 and it was a group at Cambridge who first used the term “little green men”. Because the radio-type sounds were pulsating, a man called them “pulsars”.⁷

Even without hearing anything Galileo had written “Message from the Stars” in 1610 – a book which received much opposition.

It became obvious that that these pulsations were not radio messages being sent to us; as because of the speed of light some of the noise must have been travelling for thousands of years and that this “music” was natural electrical sounds.

MUSIC IN NUMISMATICS

If we seek for music in numismatics we can find in commemorative banknotes, coins and medals for Copernicus, Beethoven, Chopin, and others, issued from various countries.

In militaria we find a hunting horn as part of the hat-badge on the Lancashire Light Infantry, the Durham Light Infantry (where some of my ancestors served), and a further six on more British Regiments. Here in Australia in the Colonial days the Victorian Rifle Corps had two versions of a hunting horn. As well as that, the Burmese Police had a cap badge with a coiled bugle.

Military bandsmen wear a musical instrument as a sleeve badge; this can be either a harp, trumpet, drums or a lyre.

⁶ Munro; he also wrote as Saki

⁷ McEvoy, p284

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To end my talk with a further quotation as a collector I find “there is music in my madness”.

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HEITOR VILLA-LOBOS

By Frank Robinson, NAV 713¹

Who watched the Closing Ceremony for the London Olympic Games? In the hand-over from London to Rio de Janeiro, there was a lady singing atop a “mountain” of blue and white umbrellas [Figure 1]; this was the soprano Marisa Monte singing the Aria from *Bachianas Brasileiras* #5, one of the many compositions of Heitor Villa-Lobos.



Figure 1 Marisa Monte singing at London Olympic Games Closing Ceremony 2012

Heitor Villa-Lobos was born on 5 March 1887 in Rio de Janeiro and died 17 November 1959 in Rio de Janeiro. His father, Raul, was a civil servant of Spanish extraction who enjoyed regular musical evenings at his home. Young Heitor loved to secretly watch these from the top of the stairs and learnt music this way. He learned to play the cello, the guitar and the clarinet. When his father died in 1899, Heitor played in cinema and theatre orchestras to earn a living for his family.

¹ This paper was presented at NAV meeting 993 on 17 August 2012

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From about 1905 to 1912, he explored Brazil's interior and absorbed the influences of the country's own cultures (Portuguese, African, and indigenous peoples).

Married in 1912 to the pianist Lucília Guimarães, he began his career as a serious musician and he began publishing compositions the following year. He initially had an identity crisis as to whether Brazilian or European music would dominate his style; by 1916, Brazilian music had won out.

He took part in a festival of modern art in 1922 in São Paulo with performances of his own works, but they didn't go down well.

In 1923, he went to Paris for about a year, and again from 1927 to 1930 where concerts of his music made a strong impression.

As a result of the Vargas revolution of 1930, he was unable to take any money out of Brazil, so was forced to stay in Brazil. In 1932, he became Director of the Superintendência de Educação Musical e Artística (SEMA). As a result, he composed mainly patriotic and propagandist works. His series of *Bachianas Brasileiras* (nine pieces) were a notable exception.

After Vargas lost power in 1945 (and after World War II), Villa-Lobos returned to Paris, as well as to USA, Great Britain, and Israel. He received a huge number of commissions, fulfilling many of them despite failing health.

When touring Europe with his music he said, "I don't use folklore, I am the folklore." and "I have not come to learn, I have come to show what I have made up to now." This showed that he was quite aware of his unique position among classical composers, and he made good use of his origins to publicise his own works.

Villa-Lobos is shown on the 500 cruzados note issued from 1986 to 1988 to commemorate the centenary of his birth. There are four varieties, all being different signature combinations.

HEITOR VILLA-LOBOS



Figure 2 *Brazil, 500 cruzados, 1986 (shown at 60%)*



REVOLUTIONARY BRONZE COINAGE OF FRANCE

By Bill Xynos, NAV 1112

PREFACE

With another invitation for contributing to our *Australian Numismatist*, the chance to recollect more numismatic adventures could not be passed by.

Being a coin collector for about fifteen years, I have fallen into the common traps an everyday collector may experience: no collecting focus, accumulating coins, having incomplete records and, of course, disorganised storage. Sounds familiar? Perhaps all this could have been avoided by maintaining a collection regularly.

This is relevant as you'll read very soon. Some years ago, in a couple of instances, material was needed for sourcing numismatic exhibits. Locating it was quite difficult; but since then and with some self-encouragement, inventory work had positive outcomes with pleasant findings of apparently lost coins. So, *disaster* turned into *discipline*, and I would recommend you to start a basic inventory list of coins for reference and for preventing duplications. Appropriate storage for access is also essential.

INVITATION, ACCEPTANCE AND SEARCHING

Since I fell in love with the French language thirty three years ago, I've always had a warm heart for French numismatics. After a couple of articles covering Greek numismatics in the *Australian Numismatist*, a French subject based on my recent presentation¹ seemed to be suitable and the editor's invitation was accepted. Jumping into the next question (that should have been the first one before the decision), was how to source the right material from my collection. "Fine..." in recollecting some early copper coins, "...let's delve into some Revolutionary coins".

Well, they should be located through my sorted coins, shouldn't they; but they've escaped! So, *panic* flashed into my mind, and *pain*. Thankfully, searching through my scattered small boxes and coin bags, a bag containing

¹ This article is based on the presentation at the Numismatic Association of Victoria's General Meeting No 992 on 20 July 2012.

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ten of the five centimes and four of the one décime coins was found. Grouped together, I instantly knew that something was planned about them. This is a true case for backing up my comments in the preface: while my memory was fine, there was no inventory record for these coins and no proper storage. Such conditions could be toxic for your collection.

Moving along to the next question, is the accumulation of coins appropriate in collecting? Why not select a country, a topic or a theme and start from there? My beginnings as a coin collector were instinctive and followed no specific method.

Now-days, my opinion is that a study of coins in some quantities allow comparisons for distinct characteristics and numismatic differences (mintmarks, dates, flaws, etc), and conclusions to be reached. In 2008, my study on the *Silver Coins of Peru (1863-1935)*² was entirely based on my accumulated 44 coins. So, the usefulness of accumulations cannot be dismissed. For scarce coins, reference to literature, catalogues and internet-based images and resources *may* be recommended.

Revolutionary coins are quite interesting as Figure 1 shows a lovely coin with portraiture of Marianne. In a condition such as that shown on Figure 1, these copper coins are worth admiration.



Figure 1 – A lovely example of the French 5 centimes issued during the 5th year of the Republic (1793) at the Lille Mint (KM.640.11).

Sadly, my coins were well-circulated, quite flat and visually unappealing, but carrying so much history... If only coins could talk!

² This article was published in the NAV's *Australian Numismatist* 2008 edition.

MARIANNE AND FRANCE

Marianne is a national emblem of France and her popularity exceeds of the culturally popular and sporting symbol, the Gallic Rooster. One can only visit so many places in this country to understand her recognition. Her place of honour can be seen in many places including town halls, law courts and city squares.



Figure 2 – One of the numerous dedicated statues of Marianne, the Statue of Republic by Léopold Morice (1880), on the Place de la République, Paris. (source Wikipedia)

Marianne is the allegory of Liberty and Reason, representing the state and values of the country, and the prominent symbol and personification of the Republic. While her profile stands out on the official seal of the country, the flag of France, as named and described in Article 2 of the French Constitution, is the only official emblem.

DESIGN ELEMENTS AND ORIGINS OF NAME

Marianne's appearance and personification reflected the mood and times of the country. As these varied, so did Marianne's appearance. With no definitive design, various elements have appeared during certain periods, but the *soft conical cap* (Phrygian cap) remained a constant symbol. Other main elements were the *spear* and the *shield*. Shown in Figure 3, the conical cap was associated in antiquity with Phrygia (central Anatolia in modern Turkey) and examples of these conical caps have been illustrated on ancient Greek vases dated as far back as the mid-6th century BC. Their

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style influenced Macedonian and Thracian military helmets too. In late Republican Rome, the slaves were wearing the cap during festivities.

The origins of the name are uncertain but these details provide some strong clues. Some believe that it came from the name of the Jesuit Juan de Mariana, a 16th century monarch-mach (see Figure 4). In one of his writings, he discussed the legality of overthrowing tyrants.



Figures 3 & 4 – One example from antiquity of the Phrygian cap (left) and a portrait (right) of Jesuit Juan de Mariana (source Wikipedia)

In 1775, Jean-Michel Moreau painted the "Goddess of Liberty" showing a young woman dressed in Roman style clothing with a Phrygian cap and a pike held in one hand. Others think of Marianne's image of that of the wife of the politician Jean Reubell³. According to a 1797 story by Barras⁴, during an evening spent at Reubell's, he asked the hostess for her name. "Marie-Anne," she replied. "Perfect..." Barras exclaimed, "...it is a short and simple name, which befits the Republic just as much as it does yourself, Madame."

³ Reubell (Rewbell) was one of the five elected members of the Executive Directory (after 26/10/1795) and a Republican politician.

⁴ Barras, one of the members of the Executive Directory. The Royalist majority after the 1797 legislature election, the election of General Pichegru as President of the Council of Five Hundred and, by rotation, monarchist Barthelemy's entry into the Directory allowed Bourbon influence with counter-revolutionary thoughts. Hence, Barras was forced to support a coup d'etat in September 1797, allowing Napoleon Bonaparte's entry into politics.

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A recent discovery establishes that the first written mention of the name appeared around the late 1780s near Toulouse in a local song of "La garisou de Marianno".

Marie-Anne was a very popular first name and perhaps, it was chosen to identify the regime itself, and by extension, the popular revolt against French monarchy. Indeed, she has been transformed as a French woman with ideals and emotions identical to those of the public, reflecting the mood of the country. Risen from stagnant, poor and miserable conditions and, by wearing a Phrygian cap, her desperation was elevated to higher morals: rebellion against inequality and slavery. Marianne's interpretation was complete, as shown in Delacroix's painting titled "Liberty Leading the People".



Figures 5 & 6 – The famous Liberty painting by Eugene Delacroix. Located at the Louvre Museum (image Wikipedia). Below, the French 100 franc banknote from the Bank of France, showing a modern interpretation of the painting and its creator (Pick No 88) (image eBay).

JULY 1830 – REKINDLING THE REVOLUTION

Delacroix's painting relates to the July Revolution of 1830 against King Charles X. Prior to this event, the King alienated his protection of the French Constitutional Charter by introducing two main measures: the imposition of the death penalty for anyone profaning the Host of the Catholic Church (a violation to the guarantees of equality of religious belief as specified in the Charter); and the provisions for financial indemnities for properties confiscated by the 1789 Revolution and the First Empire of Napoleon (to be paid to any one who had been declared "enemies of the Revolution").

By adding censorship on newspapers, the King's popularity declined dramatically. The Chamber's resistance to those acts by a motion of no-confidence (against monarchy and government) forced the dissolution of the parliament and the delay of elections for two months. The Liberal-controlled Chamber consolidated its strength further by winning the elections but, on 30 April 1830, Charles X dissolved the National Guard.

Concerned about the new government's radicalism, on 25 July, he signed the July Ordinances. A King by right of birth, Charles felt that his primary duty was the guarantee of order and happiness. Under Article 14 of the Charter, he would now govern by these decrees:

- Suspension of the liberty of the press;
- Appointment of new Councillors of the state;
- Dissolution of the newly-elected Chamber of Deputies;
- Withdrawal of the Deputies' right of amendment; and
- Weakening of the Chamber by numbers.

These were the catalyst for the July Revolution and within a few days, the people were victorious, with Charles X escaping to Great Britain. So, Delacroix must have expressed all those populous emotions on the Parisian streets onto his painting, also travelling back about half a century ago.

HISTORY OF FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XVI

Historians and scholars have acclaimed the significance of the 1789 French Revolution in political, social and cultural terms not only within France, but throughout the European continent and beyond. What were the reasons for this revolt to take place?

Since the accession of Louis XVI on 23 August 1754, influenced by his young and lovely Queen, Marie Antoinette, and noblemen of key positions, internal struggles for personal benefits degraded the governance of the country's finances. In one of his first acts, the King appointed Turgot to oversee the finances, who aimed to balance the economic burden across the nation by imposing a moderate land tax on the nobles and clergy and by abolishing the *corvée*⁵. With firm controls on expenditures and taxes, Turgot was able to save about 100 million francs⁶ from the state's liabilities. With the edict for free circulation of grain, Turgot's measures and reforms were endangered by the selfishness of numerous classes. Riots and hostilities forced the King to dismiss Turgot in May 1776, who was replaced by Necker, a wealthy banker of Geneva in June 1777. Administrative reforms, abolitions of at least 600 offices and renegotiations on existing loans improved the finances.

REVERSAL OF FORTUNES, WAR AND PEACE

The unwise intervention of France in the quarrel between Great Britain and her North American colonies was to be an economic disaster.

Following the American declaration of Independence, signed on 4 July 1776, the visit of the three deputies (Benjamin Franklin, Arthur Lee and Silas Deane) seeking aid tested France's avoidance of a conflict with Great Britain. Still, the popularity of this visit was such that France signed a treaty of commerce and alliance on 8 February 1778, but expressed her neutrality until the event of a rupture.

When this was found out, the British ambassador was recalled and orders were given for the seizure of vessels found in the ports of the two countries. The undecided naval battle of Ushant between France and Great Britain (27 July 1778) was a prelude to the hostilities, followed by French naval aid off the American coast and later, off the West Indies. Then Spain was

⁵ The *corvée* was the compulsory repair of the high roads by the peasantry of the district.

⁶ Until 1794, the major currency unit of France was the "livre" not the "franc". References to "francs" here and on the succeeding pages (until 1794) have been taken from *A History of France* (published in 1868). It is assumed that the actual "franc" amounts in the text must have been converted from livres to francs in 1868. The book does not have a comment about livres for these amounts and I assume that in 1868, the franc was used to enable equal comparison on the economy at the time of publication.

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summoned to take part in the contest with Great Britain, in accordance with the Family Compact; and so, war was declared. In approaching the shores of Great Britain, the Franco-Spanish fleet suffered from epidemic sickness off Plymouth and retired with considerable losses. An attempt to siege and capture Gibraltar failed too.

Then, the 1780 Armed Neutrality between Russia, Prussia, Denmark, Sweden and Holland created a rupture between Great Britain and the States of Holland, with France coming to the latter's aid. The French-American fleet blockaded Lord Cornwallis at York Town who eventually capitulated and surrendered on 19 October 1781.

In general, naval engagements around the West Indies were undecisive. Tobago was captured, the Dutch island of St Eustratius was recaptured, while St Christopher, Nevis and Montserrat islands were neutralised. The overtaking of Jamaica on 12 April 1782 failed and, with Admiral de Grasse being captured, most of the fleet was disabled – a fatal blow to the maritime power of France and Spain in the West Indies.

In the meantime, in March 1782, the ministry of Lord North was succeeded by that of Lord Rockingham and communications with the French were commenced for ending the war. For France, this was a much-needed development as the cost of the war was over 1400 million francs and the treasury was exhausted. France obtained honourable and advantageous terms at the Treaty of Versailles on 3 September 1783.

In the meantime, Necker's report of a budget surplus of 10 million francs in 1781 was met by scepticism, and following more reforms such as the creation of provincial representative assemblies, the parliament forced his resignation on 25 May 1781. Calonne, recommended by Marie Antoinette, succeeded to the office in October 1783.

RECKLESS ADMINISTRATION & THE QUESTION OF THE COMMONS

Within four years, Calonne administered the finances in a reckless way and entered into borrowings of 800 million francs on behalf of the nation. As the crisis approached, Calonne convinced the King to present a plan of economic reforms before the Assembly of Notables at Versailles on 22 February 1787. Calonne's address was brilliant and while he acknowledged the deficit of 112 million francs, he blamed Necker for the situation. Then, he unfolded his propositions which were rejected and was

left with no option but to resign. Soon, de Brienne was appointed and presented to the Assembly a set of reforms, including some of Calonne's.

The plan was eventually approved by the Assembly and the King dissolved the Assembly on 25 May 1787. De Brienne was soon in conflict with the parliament that was again protecting the Nobles' privileges. The Minister of Finances convinced Louis to issue and register edicts. Riots followed and de Brienne compromised with the parliament, but soon, he was seeking approval for a 420 million francs loan to be raised in five years. The King called a "royal sitting" asking for obedience but the parliament refused to consent to the loan. Arrests of key parliamentarians did not help, even after the presentation of a statement of grievances to Louis in January 1788. Finally, with exhausted funds in the treasury, de Brienne convinced the King to announce the summoning of the Estates-General in May 1789 but on 25 August, de Brienne left France for Italy.

Louis recalled Necker, perhaps the only wise course open to him. His return was popular with public funds rising instantly and with the government receiving voluntary offers of loans. To restore order, Necker reinstated the parliament, liberated a number of political prisoners and tried to assist starved rural districts. As the meeting of the Estates-General was approaching for deciding the destiny of the nation, its composition was questioned: should the representatives of the people⁷ equal those of the other two Orders combined (the nobles and the clergy)? Then, in voting, should the Estates-General form one united body instead of three separate chambers? Finally, should the possession of land be a qualification for the deputies of the Commons?

Necker approached the Notables for advice who answered in the negative for the last question. Louis XVI prescribed that the total number of deputies should be at least 1000, that the principles of election should be those of the population, and that the representatives of the commons should be equal to those of the other two orders conjointly.

The winter preceding the meeting was extremely harsh and with a failed harvest, prices for provisions rose to extraordinary levels, with the impoverished population suffering. Realising the agitation, discontent and gloom, Necker generously sacrificed a large part of his private fortune to provide food for the poor people of Paris.

⁷ The representatives of the people were also called the Commoners or Commons.

REVOLUTIONARY BRONZE COINAGE OF FRANCE

The Estates-General met at Versailles on 5 May 1789. Many considered this date to mark the end of French Monarchy and the beginning of Revolutionary France. This Assembly had not met since 1614. On the day, the King had a procession from the church of Notre Dame to the hall of the meeting. After the opening of the session by Louis, his speech was generous, conciliating and benevolent which was favourably received. Finance Minister Necker followed with a financial statement and his proposed reforms. Then, the Chambers verified the returning votes for the Estates-General elections that took place from January to April 1789. The assembly consisted of 1145 members, of who 291 belonged to the Clergy, 270 to the Nobility and 584 to the Commons. Added to this problem in inequality, the proposal of voting as a whole assembly was rejected by the Nobility and Clergy and their attempts for reconciliation were fruitless.

ASSEMBLY'S BREAKOUT, REVOLT, STORMING OF BASTILLE AND DECLARATION OF RIGHTS

On 10 June, the Commons proceeded to the verification of powers for the whole body of representatives, whether present or absent. They were joined now by a few members of the Clergy and on the 17th, the Commons rejected the title of Estates-General by assuming that of the *National Assembly*, and proclaimed that this assembly is now recognised as the sole legitimate representative of the French people. On the 18th, the Clergy determined to unite with the Assembly.

In defiance of the King, the disapproved meeting took place at the neighbouring Tennis Court and swore never to dissolve until France was given a new constitution. The Royal sitting on the 23rd saw the King condemning the proceedings of the Commons, followed by a series of concessions under threatening conditions to separate the deputies of each Estate.

The Queen and her advisors were determined to support Louis's intentions militarily and an army of forty thousand men was called to Paris. Necker was dismissed from office and upon finding this, the Parisians were mobilised to arms. The royal troops remained inactive and on 14 July, attempted a desperate attack on the Bastille, guarded by a garrison of 200 Swiss. After five hours, this detested stronghold of despotism was stormed and captured.

Louis, assured of the remaining deputies' safety and after promising to recall Necker and dismiss the foreign troops, proceeded from Versailles to

the city with part of the mob. Symbolically, he showed his recognition of the sovereignty of the people by wearing the tricolour cockade.

But the fury of the people was uncontrollable and now spread to many provinces. To ensure stability and restore order, personal sacrifices were declared openly to the Assembly and most were eager to follow this for the good of the nation.



Figure 7 – A superb painting capturing the arrest of the Governor of the Bastille fortress, de Launay, by Jean-Baptiste Lallemand, painted in 1790 (image Wikipedia)

Thus, the National Assembly decreed the abolition of all feudal rights and exclusive privileges on the night of 4 August 1789. The King was compelled to accept all decrees and he was saluted as the “Restorer of French Liberty”. The example of the Assembly inspired many citizens to make sacrifices for the benefit of the state and for supporting the poor.

The next step for the Assembly was the drawing up of a “Declaration of the Rights of Man” Citizen (26 August 1789). The National Constituent Assembly immediately went to work on a new constitution. This Act proclaimed liberty, equality, the inviolability of property and the right to resist oppression.

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While the population was starving, a banquet was prepared at Versailles on 3 October with entertainment and extravagant provisions. On hearing this, Parisians marched to Versailles on the 5th and, following a brief but bloody attack, the royal family was rescued and taken back to Paris under protection the next day, under the watchful eyes of the rioters and revolutionary leaders.



Figure 8 – A painting of that period that contains the Articles of the Declaration of Rights (image Wikipedia)

NEW REGIME, NEW ACTIONS, NEW CURRENCY

Nearly a year of tranquillity and order has now passed away. The National Constituent Assembly abolished feudalism, suppressed the old “orders,” established civil equality (at least in metropolitan France, since slavery was retained in the colonies), and assured equality of rights insofar as eligibility to public office was concerned. All religious persuasions were declared equal before the law. The liberty of the press was proclaimed.

The complicated administrative system of the *Ancien Régime* was swept away and was substituted with a rational system based on the division of the country into departments, districts, cantons, and communes, which were

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administered by elected assemblies. The principles of administering justice were radically changed with elected judges and the system was adapted to the new administrative divisions.

The subject of finances was of major concern, and Necker's proposal for two loans of 30 million and 80 million francs was sanctioned. Despite some additional reforms, the treasury was inadequate to meet its obligations and it was then resolved to confiscate the entire possessions of the Church.

The lands of the Church were nationalised for paying off the public debt, leading to a widespread redistribution of property. The bourgeoisie and the peasant landowners were the chief beneficiaries, but some farm workers also were able to buy land. The decree estimated to raise about 400 million francs could be raised but purchases were extremely hard to find.

In the absence of specie, the rise of promissory notes or *assignats* (issued from 19 December 1789) dependable on the backing of the nationalised properties resolved the absence of coinage. But the rapid requirements of the Revolution was met with the temporary solution of re-issuing more *assignats* in immense quantities, making them almost worthless as their total value far exceeded the whole value of the property which they represented. Necker lost his influence with the King and the Assembly and resigned from his office and retired into Switzerland in September 1790.

REPUBLICANS ARISE, ESCAPE AND CAPTURE OF LOUIS XVI

In January 1791, Mirabeau was appointed President of the Assembly and planned to secure the royal family to safety, reinforce the Monarchy's absolutism and arrest the democratic anarchy. Louis was reluctant in accepting these plans immediately, and Mirabeau died of serious illness on 2 April 1791. Now, the Assembly was controlled by republicans and the only solution for Louis was to escape to the frontiers for securing his safety towards loyal army formations. The King quitted Tuileries (the royal residential palace) in disguise at midnight on 20 June with his family but was recognised on the way. His instructions to direct the carriage to Varennes were overheard and the municipality authorities took measures for his arrest. Regarded as a prisoner, Louis reached Paris on 25 June 1791 and was suspended provisionally from his royal functions.

The Assembly assumed executive power for governing the nation and demands were put for his trial and for proclaiming the nation as a republic. After some debate, the Assembly determined that there was no ground to

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try the King and that he should be restored to the throne under the condition of supporting the new constitution. However, should he retract his oath of fidelity, attempt to leave the country, place himself as the head of foreign troops or permit the invasion of France to be made on his behalf, this will automatically force his abdication to the throne, and he will be treated as a private citizen. The Republicans were enraged and planned for a public demonstration for 17 July. On preserving the tranquillity, the Assembly firmed its control; the mayor proclaimed martial law and the demonstration was stopped after some considerable losses of lives.

The remodelled constitution presented was accepted by the King who took the oath to maintain and execute it faithfully. Louis was reinstated and the President of the assembly announced that the Constituent National Assembly has ended its mission and was dissolved on 30 September 1791.

The Legislative Assembly commenced its sittings on 1 October with 745 members, chosen exclusively from the middle class. One of the first issues to be resolved was the emigrants' counter-revolutionary activities near the banks of the Rhine. The decree of instructing them to surrender their arms after 31 December 1791 was vetoed by the King who later issued a similar declaration to reverse Assembly's threats. Then, the refusal of the Priests to take an oath of fidelity to the new constitution was met with the Assembly's decree to remove their remaining provisions. The decree was also vetoed by the King.

FOREIGN INTERVENTION AND ULTIMATUM

The fate of Louis was of paramount importance to Austria and Prussia and following their declaration of supporting the French Monarchy in August 1791 at Pilnitz, angry diplomatic communications between Vienna, Berlin and Paris resulted in an ultimatum for France to re-establish the monarchy based on the royal declaration of 23 June 1789, return Alsace and Lorraine to the dispossessed princes, and return Venaissin to the Pope. The foreign intervention jeopardised the constitutional ministers who, unsupported by Louis, resigned and were replaced in March 1792 by a part of Girondists (members of the department of Gironde) with strong republican motives.

Hence, the control of the Assembly by the Girondists was the signal for an immediate declaration of war against France, announced by Louis to the Assembly on 20 April 1792.

FAILURES ON THE FRONTIER, PANIC AND REIGN OF TERROR

The war operations at the borders with Austrian Netherlands saw the reverses of French units in a panic, forcing the Assembly to issue three decrees; the first one to banish enemy priests from France, the second one to disband the King's household troops and send their commandant for trial before the court, and the third one to establish a camp of twenty thousand troops near Paris. Louis consented to the second one only and vetoed the other two proposals. His cabinet ministers rebelled against Louis, who dismissed and replaced them by powerless politicians. At the same time, Louis sent a secret envoy to the emigrants and the princes of the Prussic-Austrian coalition for support.

Motivated by the Girondists, an angry and armed mob approached the bar of the Assembly on 20 June and following scenes of confusion, marched to the Tuileries, entered the premises and in meeting with the King, asked for retracting his veto on the two decrees. Louis refused stating that it was not the time and place to do so, and that he will do what's prescribed by the constitution. The palace was then cleared.

Following this event, support for the monarchy strengthened as seen by the Assembly's interpretation of the event. General Lafayette returned from his camp to Paris to demand that the leaders of the riot be found and punished, but his genuine demand was clouded by his request to assemble an armed force to overpower a republican movement (the Jacobins). This was rejected and a last chance to convince the King to escape from Paris proved unsuccessful. Lafayette returned to his headquarters on the frontier.

By now, the rebellion and anarchy reached an uncontrollable level. With the prospect of an approaching invasion of eighty thousand foreign troops, a disastrous civil war was imminent. The Legislative Body proclaimed on 11 July that the country was in danger. This was the signal for a general armed rising throughout France. A formidable army of volunteers was devoted to the revolutionary cause and the offensive proclamation by the Duke of Brunswick (commander-in-chief of the Allied forces) to restore the monarchy or expect the complete demolition of Paris was the perfect motive to depose the King and abolish the monarchy.

From 3 August 1792, demands to the Assembly for the deposition of the King were made and after some hesitation, the majority resolved to not arrest the King. The patience of the insurgents was exhausted and, on the 10th, marched towards the Tuileries, which was protected by a Swiss

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regiment and two battalions of National Guards. As the insurgents approached the palace, part of the defending guards defected and the King decided to take his family to the hall of the Legislative Assembly for safety. While the attack on the palace was successfully repelled by the Swiss Guards, an order by the King seeking their assistance split the regiment. This was taken advantage of by the insurgents and a secondary attack on the palace resulted in their slaughter. Then, they arrived at the Assembly and demanded the suspension of the executive power, now overtaken by the Jacobins. A special criminal court was made up of nine judges and soon, the royal family was imprisoned to the gloomy fortress of the Temple.

In the meantime, an army of 110 000 led by the King of Prussia entered French territory on 30 July. The capture of Longwy and the surrender of Verdun alarmed the central government and it was at this point of division that Danton declared that in order to save the country, the royalists must be struck with terror. On the night of 30 August, known royalists and suspected persons were arrested. It was estimated that over 3000 were arrested. Then, on 2 September, a rumour of royalists attacking the prisons, and in fear of the city being betrayed to the Prussians, raised hired bands of assassins murdered hundreds of priests and unprotected citizens. In Paris alone, it's estimated that over 2000 citizens were put to death.

As the Prussian forces advanced deeper, they distributed their forces in segments, allowing for the joining French forces to counterattack but with considerable losses on both sides. With erroneous moves by the defenders, the road to Paris remained open but the Prussians decided to attack the defenders again. Kellermann repelled the Prussians at Valmy on 20 September after much gallantry. The Prussians realised their weak position and called for negotiations, to which the French demanded that the foreign forces vacate all French territories. In the meantime, the French successfully occupied Belgium, Rhineland, Savoy and Nice.

MONARCHY ABOLISHED AND REPUBLIC ESTABLISHED

On 20 September 1792, a new Assembly – the National Convention – met and, next day, it proclaimed the abolition of the monarchy and the establishment of the Republic. The question about if the deposed King should be tried divided the Assembly but upon presentation of a royal chest containing Louis's correspondence with the emigrants and the Allied

Coalition forced his trial to proceed. Judged by the Convention, Louis XVI was condemned to death for treason and executed on 20 January 1793.

The date of 21 September was resolved as the first day of the Republic (L'an 1).

MARIANNE'S PORTRAITURE CHANGES THROUGH TIMES

The selection of a female figure was an antithesis of the conventional values of the pre-revolutionary France – the *Ancien Régime*. Also, in French, the word 'Republique' is a feminine noun, as are the nouns for the French words of 'Liberty' and 'Reason'.

Marianne made her first major appearance in the French spotlight on a medal in July 1789, celebrating the storming of the Bastille and other early events of the Revolution. From this time, the image of Marianne was overshadowed by other figures such as Mercury and Minerva. By September 1792, the new Republic sought a new image to represent the State and Marianne, the female allegory of Liberty, was chosen to represent the new regime of the French Republic.

The imagery of Marianne was also chosen as the seal of the First French Republic, depicting her as standing, young and a determined woman. Marianne is dressed in a classical gown. In her right hand, she wields the pike of revolution with the Phrygian cap resting on it, which represents the liberation of France. Although she is standing and holding a pike, this depiction is not "aggressive", as the conservative Girondins in the National Convention tried to move away from the "frantic violence" of the revolutionary days.

Despite the relatively conservative pose, the revolutionaries were quick to abandon that figure when it no longer suited them. By 1793, the conservative figure had been replaced by a more violent image; that of a woman, bare-breasted and fierce of visage, often leading men into battle. The reason behind this switch stems from the shifting priorities of the Republic. Although the Marianne symbol was initially neutral in tone, the shift to radical action was in response to the beginning of the Terror, which called for militant revolutionary action against foreigners and counter-revolutionaries. The intention was to raise the French people to action.

Even this change, however, was seen to be insufficiently radical by the republicans. After the arrest of the Girondin deputies in October 1793, the

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Convention chose the symbol of Hercules⁸ to radicalise the Republic further. The use of increasingly radical images to symbolise the Republic was in direct parallel to the beginning of the violence under the Reign of Terror.

After the Reign, the impact to the population was evident. There was a need for another change in the imagery, to show the Directory's transition to a more civil and non-violent nature. In the Official Vignette of the Executive Directory, 1798, Marianne made a return, still depicted wearing the Phrygian cap, but now surrounded by different symbols. In contrast to the Marianne of 1792, this Marianne "holds no pike or lance", and leans "languorously" on the tablet of the Constitution of Year III. Instead of looking straight at the observer, she casts her gaze towards the side, thus appearing less confrontational. Similar imagery was used in the poster of the Republic's new calendar.



*Figure 9 –Bust of Marianne, displayed in the corridors of the Luxembourg Palace, seat of the French Senate.
(Anonymous artist, Image Wikipedia)*

The symbol of Marianne continued to evolve in response to the needs of the State long after the Directory was dissolved in 1799 following the coup engineered by Sieyès and Napoleon Bonaparte. Whereas Mercury and Minerva and other symbolic figures diminished in prominence over the course of French history, Marianne endured because of her abstraction and impersonality.

Moving into the Period of the Second Republic (from 1848 to 1852), the Ministry of the Interior decided to create a new official representation. Thus, on 17 March 1848, it launched a competition to create a symbol of the new Republic on paintings, sculptures, medals, money and seals. The result was the creation of two “Mariannes”.

The first one is fighting and emerges as victorious, with elements from representations of the Greek goddess Athena. She is bare-breasted, wearing the Phrygian cap and a red corsage, and rebelliously, raises her arm. The second one is quite conservative. There are sunrays around her

⁸ The Five Francs silver coin of Dupre was issued from L'An 4 of the Revolution (from 23 September 1795 to 21 September 1796).

head and this signifies the transfer of royal symbols to the Republic. She is wearing clothes in the style of Antiquity and is accompanied by symbols such as a plough and wheat. Marianne reappeared on the French postage stamp in 1849.



Figure 10 – First postage stamp of France, Second Republic, Ceres series, 20 centimes of 1849 (Stanley Gibbons No 32)



Figure 11 – Obverse of the 1000 francs issue from the Central Treasury of the Republic. A modern interpretation of Marianne in a medallion style. (Pick No 32, printed by the ABNC)

The use of Marianne became more official during the term of the Third Republic (from 1870 to 1940).

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Switching back to my small sample of coins, it would be immoral to exclude a simplified overview of these copper / bronze coins struck during the Revolution.

The dwindling coinage of specie during 1793 and the futility of maintaining it was recognised as the production of the assignats grew. The

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Law of 14 February 1794 abolished the coinage of specie, and all mints were closed apart with the intention to concentrate minting at Paris. Attempts to stabilise the monetary system based on the continually depreciating paper Assignats (down to two-hundredths of its nominal value) failed and the introduction of mandats territoriaux was soon discredited. Then, steps were initiated to restore a sound currency and the Law of 15 August 1795 created the new unit of currency, the franc, and defined standards based in the decimal system.

The currency was based on the silver franc, divided into 10 décimes, and each décime is subdivided into 10 centimes. We need to keep in mind that the dating of the coin is based on the Revolutionary Calendar. The inscription of “L’An” means “The Year”, followed by a digit. For example, “L’An 2” means that the coin was issued during the second year of the Republic. The significance of the date of 22 September 1792 is important in French history (establishment of the National Convention). On that date, the monarchy of Louis XVI was abolished and, effectively, the First Republic commenced. According to the publication by Les Cheveau-Legers, the Gregorian calendar’s number of days is not consistent from year to year, but its deep analysis into French coinage convinces us of its accuracy.

| Rep. Year | Gregorian Calendar | Rep. Year | Gregorian Calendar |
|------------------|---------------------------|------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 | 22-9-1792 to 21-9-1793 | 6 | 22-9-1797 to 21-9-1798 |
| 2 | 22-9-1793 to 21-9-1794 | 7 | 22-9-1798 to 22-9-1799 |
| 3 | 22-9-1794 to 22-9-1795 | 8 | 23-9-1799 to 22-9-1800 |
| 4 | 23-9-1795 to 21-9-1796 | 9 | 23-9-1800 to 22-9-1801 |
| 5 | 22-9-1796 to 21-9-1797 | 10 | 23-9-1801 to 22-9-1802 |

The following tables illustrate each copper or bronze coin struck, separated into two main issues. The first one covered Years 4 and 5 (from late September 1795 to late September 1797) and the second one covered Years 5 to 9 of the Republic. Both issues are distinguished by minor design changes on Marianne’s portraiture and the text / design styles on the coins.

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Small Design – First Issue

Large Design – Second Issue

FIRST ISSUE

The denominations struck were the three centimes, the five centimes, the 1 décime and the 2 décimes coins. The starting date for releasing these coins was the 15 August 1795 but its circulation lasted until 24 October 1796 (withdrawal date), just over 14 months.

For the three centimes coin, issue and withdrawal dates are unknown, but given its design similarity with the other coins of the issue, these dates would probably apply also. Its issuance is perhaps an anomaly to the neat subdivision of the new currency and given the uncertainty of the quantities struck, further study is needed for this coin. The catalogue number preceded by the letter F is in reference to the “Le Franc” publication. As for the images, these were sourced from the website www.cgb.fr.

| | | | |
|--|---|--|--|
| 3 centimes F.112 | Commencement and Withdrawal dates are unknown |  <small>© http://www.cgb.fr © Fonds MONNAIE DE PARIS</small> | |
| Diameter = 23mm Weight = 5g | Metal = Bronze Total quantity = unknown | | Dates = An 4 - 5 Mintmarks = A, I |
| 5 centimes (Small design) F.113 | Minted from 15-8-1795 Withdrawn on 24-10-1796 | |  |
| Diameter = 23mm Weight = 5g | Metal = Copper Total quantity = 13,088,670 | | Dates = An 4 - 5 Mintmarks = A, I, L, T, W |

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| | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| 1 décime (Small design) F.126 | Minted from 15-8-1795 Withdrawn on 24-10-1796 |  | |
| Diameter = 28mm Weight = 10g | Metal = Copper Total quantity = 4,554,903 | Dates = An 4 - 5 Mintmarks = A, D, I, K | |
| 2 décimes F.145 | Minted from 15-8-1795 Withdrawn on 24-10-1796 |  | |
| Diameter = 31mm Weight = 20g | Metal = Copper Total quantity = 16,377,141 | Dates = An 4 - 5 Mintmarks = A, D, I, K | |

INTERMEDIATE ISSUE FOR THE ONE DECIME COIN?

One of the unusual coins of the Revolutionary period is the modified two décimes coin for (possibly) being the ‘intermediate’ one décime coin for the second issue. In modifying the coin, the digit ‘2’ was obliterated and the denomination of ‘One’ (‘Un’) was over-stamped. Also, to correct the word of ‘décimes’ (plural), the letter ‘s’ was also obliterated. The modified coin is of the same weight, diameter, and shows Years 4 or 5.

| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
| 1 décime (Modification of 2 Decimes) F.127 | Minted from 24-10-1796 Withdrawn on 12-3-1856 |  | |
| Diameter = 31mm Weight = 20g | Metal = Copper Total quantity = unknown | Dates = An 4 – 5 Mintmarks = A, I | |

Based on the publication by Les Cheveau-Legers, the modified coin carries also the mintmarks of A and I. It's quite possible that as the second issue was released for circulation, withdrawn coins with A and I mintmarks only were modified (Paris and Limoges Mints correspondingly); obliterated, punch-marked, and released for circulation again. More research is needed to explain why this modification was required for making the *new* one

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décime coins, when for the first year of the second series (Year 5), almost 34 million *fresh* one décime coins were struck at the Paris Mint!

I would class this coin as an intermediate issue, but it's likely that it was done for the second issue given the commencement date of their release.

Then, for the following years (5 to 8), a new design for the one décime coin was created (second issue). To obtain planchets for striking them, the earlier two décimes coins were utilised. This task would have alleviated the manual modification of the two décimes coins. While the diameter was 31mm, it's possible that after striking, the coin would have gained the additional millimetre for conforming to the standardised diameter of 32mm of the normal one décime. The weight of 20 grams remained the same.

As we'll see further on, over 15.7 million of such coins were over-struck with the new design (Large Design) progressively. In parallel, over 97.7 million one décime coins were also struck as new currency and continued into Year 9. Further research is needed on this subject.

SECOND ISSUE

This issue started from late September 1796 (Year 5) with the release of the five centimes and one décime, followed by the one centime coin. These coins were withdrawn from circulation on 12 March 1856.

| | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| 1 centime F.100 | Minted from 24-10-1796 Withdrawn on 12-3-1856 |  | |
| Diameter = 18mm Weight = 2g | Metal = Bronze Total quantity = 100,083,259 | | Dates = An 6 - 8 Mintmarks = A |
| 5 centimes (Large design) F.115 | Minted from 24-10-1796 Withdrawn on 12-3-1856 |  | |
| Diameter = 28mm Weight = 10g | Metal = Copper Total quantity = 139,693,784 | | Dates = An 5 - 9 Mintmarks = A, AA, B, BB, D, G, I, K, R, W, A/R |

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| | | | |
|---|--|--|--|
| 5 centimes Restrike over One décime (Large design) F.114 | Minted from 24-10-1796 Withdrawn on 12-3-1856 |  | |
| Diameter = 28mm Weight = 10g | Metal = Copper Total quantity = 1,917,679 | Dates = An 5 - 8 Mintmarks = A, AA, B, BB, D, I, R, T, W | |
| 1 décime (Large design) F.129 | Minted from 24-10-1796 Withdrawn on 12-3-1856 |  | |
| Diameter = 32mm Weight = 20g | Metal = Bronze Total quantity = 97,732,094 | Dates = An 5 - 9 Mintmarks = A, AA, B, BB, D, I, K, R, T, W | |
| 1 décime Restrike of Two décimes (Large design) F.128 | Minted from 24-10-1796 Withdrawn on 12-3-1856 |  | |
| Diameter = 32mm Weight = 20g | Metal = Bronze Total quantity = 15,767,716 | Dates = An 5 - 8 Mintmarks = A, AA, B, BB, D, I, R, T, W | |

The restriking of almost 2 million of the one décime coin for making the Five centimes coins is another mystery but perhaps this was a supplementary task when on demand. The diameter of 28 mm and its weight of 10 g is the same as those for the normally-struck five centimes coin. For all coins illustrated above, the engraver was Augustin Dupré.

AUGUSTIN DUPRE

Augustin Dupré was born in Saint-Étienne on (6 October 1748 and died in Armentières-en-Brie on 30 January 1833. He was an engraver of French currency and medals, the 14th Graveur-Général des Monnaies (Engraver General of Currency). He began his career as an engraver at the royal

factory for weapons and towards 1770, he was based at Paris and became the student of the sculptor David, engraving his first medals.

The French Revolution gave him the opportunity to develop his art and the monetary reform required a full change of monetary types. A competition, initiated by the painter Louis David, was opened in April 1791 by the Convention Nationale. Dupré's design won and was adopted for the new currency, the "Louis conventionnel". Following this success, Dupré was named Graveur Général des Monnaies by decree of the Assemblée Nationale on 11 July 1791. When the Republic was proclaimed, Dupré engraved the bulk of the new revolutionary decimal currency. He introduced the five franc silver piece stamped with the image of Hercules (Union et Force) which marked the renaissance of the franc, and the coins of one centime, five centimes, one décime and two décimes with the head of the republic wearing the Phrygian cap.

He occupied his official position until 1803 (Decree of the First Consul of 12 March 1803) and was replaced by Pierre-Joseph Tiolier. In 1996 the Fifth Republic honoured him by issuing a five franc commemorative coin.

FRENCH NUMISMATIC EXAMPLES OF MARIANNE



Figures 12 & 13 – At left, the bronze coin of 10 centimes dated 1912 (design by Daniel-Dupuis) [KM 843]. At right, the nickel coin of 1 franc dated 1972 (design of Roty) [KM 925.1].

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Figures 14 & 15 – At left, the bronze coin of 1 centime dated 1848 (design by Dupre) [KM754]. At right, the reverse of an early 20th century Transportation Award medal in silver (design by Roty).



Figures 16 & 17 – At left, the aluminium-bronze coin of 20 centimes dated 1978 (design by Lagriffoul/Dieudonne) [KM 930]. At right, the copper-nickel coin of 100 Francs dated 1955 (design by Cochet) [KM 191.1].

WORLD NUMISMATIC EXAMPLES OF MARIANNE

Marianne's image was identified worldwide with many social struggles against oligarchy. Elements such as the Phrygian cap were used and, apart from shield, the spear and the revolutionary axe were used to warn to others of strong defence.

LATIN AMERICA

Marianne's image and meaning was identified worldwide with many social struggles against colonization, oligarchies and autocracies, aiming for independence, freedom and civil rights. The influenced countries were in their majority from Latin America and here is the table with each country's independence date:

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- Haiti (1 January 1804)
- Colombia (20 July / 7 August 1810)
- Mexico (16 September 1810)
- Paraguay (14 March 1811)
- Argentina (9 July 1816)
- Peru (28 July 1821)
- Nicaragua and El Salvador (15 September 1821)
- Brazil (7 September 1822)
- Bolivia (6 August 1825)
- Cuba (20 May 1910).

The influence of Napoleonic France on the Spanish monarchy, followed by the turmoil and occupation by the French forces allowed Latin American revolts to emerge.

ARGENTINA

Discovered in 1516 by the Spanish navigator Juan de Solis, a permanent Spanish colony was established at Buenos Aires in 1580 but the colony developed slowly. When Napoleon conquered Spain, the Argentines set up their own government on 25 May 1810. Independence was formally declared on 9 July 1816. Argentina's first national coinage has the basic Coat of Arms with two shaking hands holding a stick with a Phrygian cap. These were struck in 1813.



Figures 18 & 19 – Argentina: at left, the obverse of the aluminium-bronze coin of 5 centavos dated 1943 [KM 15]. At right, the obverse of the nickel-clad steel coin of 20 centavos dated 1957 [KM 30]. These show the modest and stoic expressions of Marianne.

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BRAZIL

Discovered and claimed for Portugal by Admiral Pedro Alvarez Cabral in 1500, Portugal established a settlement in 1532 and proclaimed the area a royal colony in 1549. During the Napoleonic Wars, Dom Joao VI established the seat of Portuguese government in Rio de Janeiro. When he returned to Portugal, his son Dom Pedro I declared Brazil's independence on 7 September 1822 and became Emperor of Brazil. The Empire was maintained until 1889 when the federal republic was established. Brazilian coinage adopted Marianne's portraiture on the 500, 1000, 10000 and 20000 reis of 1889. Since then, the Phrygian cap appeared on coins from the early 1910s. One of the common banknotes of the country showing the Phrygian cap is that of the one cruzeiro shown in Figure 20.



Figure 20 – Obverse of the 1 cruzeiro of the Central Bank of Brazil, issued in 1972. A second print of the same note has the colour of the medallion-like portraiture changed to green. (Pick No 191A, printed by the Brazilian Mint)

COLOMBIA

Colombia's northern coast was visited by Spanish navigators. Known as New Granada until 1861, a first European settlement was established in 1510 and it became a Spanish colony in 1549. Independence was declared in 1813 and secured in 1819. Simon Bolivar united Colombia, Venezuela, Panama and Ecuador as the Republic of Gran Colombia but in 1829, Venezuela withdrew, followed by Ecuador in 1830 and Panama in 1903.



Figures 21 & 22 – At left, the obverse of the copper-nickel coin of 1 Centavo dated 1938 [KM 275], portraying a modest and elegant Marianne. At right, the obverse of the copper-clad steel coin of 5 Centavos dated 1967 [KM 206a].

Elements of French Revolution appeared on the Real coin of the Republic of Colombia dated 1827 showing the “Roman Republic” axe. The Republic of New Granada coin of 8 Reales dated 1837 shows the Phrygian cap within the Coat-of-Arms. Colombia’s first decimal coinage from 1847 shows the Phrygian cap within a modified Coat-of-Arms. Since then, Lady Liberty’s Phrygian cap appeared in a variety of coinage struck for the country.

MEXICO

Mexico was the site of highly advanced Indian civilizations 1500 years before conquistador Hernando Cortez conquered the wealthy Aztec empire (1519-21) and founded a Spanish colony which lasted for nearly 300 years. During the Spanish period, Mexico (New Spain) stretched from Guatemala to the present USA states of Wyoming and California, its present northern boundary having been established by the secession of Texas (1836) and the 1846-48 war with the United States.

Independence from Spain was declared by Father Miguel Hidalgo on 15 September 1810 (Mexican Independence Day) and was achieved by General Agustin de Iturbide in 1821. Iturbide became Emperor in 1822 but was deposed when a republic was established a year later. For more than half a century following the birth of the republic, Mexico was in political turmoil. The land, social, economic and labour reforms promulgated by the Reform Constitution of 1917 established the basis for a sustained economic development and political democratic stability.

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Figure 23 – Reverse of one of the popular world coins ever struck, the Mexican 8 Reales silver coin. The main design at the centre is the Phrygian cap with the inscription of “LIBERTAD” surrounded by the rays of the sun. The mintmark is Mo (Mexico City). [KM 377.10].

With Mexican coinage, state and federal issues used elements of Marianne’s portraiture. The seated Lady with a spear and a Phrygian cap on its top appears on the Department of Jalisco’s $\frac{1}{8}$ real coin of 1828, the Esto. Sobo de Sonora’s $\frac{1}{4}$ real coin of 1859; while the radiated Phrygian cap appears on Estado de Occidente’s $\frac{1}{8}$ real coin of 1829, Estado de Durango’s $\frac{1}{2}$ real coin of 1858, Fed .de Zacatecas $\frac{1}{8}$ real coin of 1825 and Estade de Guanajuato’s $\frac{1}{4}$ real coin of 1828. Obviously, the most famous coinage from Mexico (half, one, two, four and eight reales) showing the famous radiated Phrygian cap, struck from various mints from 1824 to 1897. The gold coins of that series used the Phrygian cap with the book of the Constitution.

PARAGUAY

Paraguay was first visited by Alejo Garcia, a shipwrecked Spaniard, in 1520. The interior was explored by Sebastian Cabot in 1527 and 1528, when he sailed up the Parana and Paraguay rivers. Asuncion, which would become the centre of a province embracing much of southern South America, was established by the Spanish explorer Juan de Salazar on 15 August 1537. For a century and a half, the history of Paraguay was largely of the agricultural colonies established by the Jesuits to Christianise the Indians. In 1811, following the outbreak of the South American wars of independence, Paraguayan patriots overthrew the local Spanish authorities and proclaimed their country’s independence.

Paraguayan coinage appeared in 1845 (1/12 Real) and has the design of a lion. Behind the lion there is an upright spear and at its top, a radiant Phrygian cap.



Figure 24 – The Obverse of the very popular 5 pesos banknote from the Bank of the Republic of Paraguay, issued by the Law of 26/12/1907, with a portrait of a lady wearing a Liberty cap (Pick No 156, printed by Waterlow & Sons-London)

PERU

Peru was once part of the great Inca Empire that reached from northern Ecuador to central Chile. Peru was conquered in 1531-1533 by Francisco Pizarro. Found out as one of the richest Spanish possessions, internal warfare between the conquerors ended upon the arrival of Francisco de Toledo, who initiated efficient administration for over two centuries. Jose de San Martin of Argentina proclaimed Peru's independence on 28 July 1821 and Simon Bolivar of Venezuela secured it in December 1824 when he defeated the last Spanish army in South America. Following several unsuccessful attempts to re-establish control, Spain recognised Peru's independence in 1879.

Following some provisional issues in 1822, regular coinage appeared in 1825/26 showing Lady Liberty wearing a Phrygian cap and holding a spear with a Phrygian cap at its top end. The transitional coinage (1858) and the decimal coinage (1863) show Lady Liberty not wearing the cap but the spear's cap is still on its top.

With the banknotes, one of the common banknotes of Peru is shown here with the design almost copied from decimal coinage.

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Figure 25 – Obverse of the 10 soles de oro banknote from the Central Reserve Bank of Peru, issued on 12/7/1951, with seated Liberty holding shield (Pick No 71, printed by Thomas De La Rue & Co)



Figure 26 – Obverse of the silver coin of 8 reales dated 1835 [KM 142.3].

URUGUAY

Uruguay was discovered in 1516 by Juan Diaz de Solis, a Spaniard, but settled by the Portuguese who founded Colonia in 1680. Spain contested the Portuguese possession and, after a long struggle, gained control of the country in 1778. During the general South American struggle for independence, Uruguay cast off the Spanish bond, only to be reconquered by the Portuguese from Brazil in the struggle of 1816-1820. After a new revolt in 1825, independence was reasserted in 1828 with the help of Argentina. The Republic was established in 1830.

Independent coinage appeared in 1844 (one peso). On the Centenary of Independence (1930), Marianne's portraiture appears on the aluminium-bronze coin of 10 centesimos.

With banknotes, one of the most representative issues with themes of Liberty is the following note, showing Lady Liberty at left, wearing a Phrygian cap.



Figure 27 – Obverse of the 50 national pesos banknote from the Bank of London and Rio de la Plata, issued in 1872, with Liberty standing with sword, shield and flag (Pick No S238r, printed by Bradbury Wilkinson Company)

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA



Figure 28 – Obverse of the silver coin of 50 cents from the United States dated 1831. Struck from 1807 to 1839, the style of her portraiture is pronounced by the exposure of her breast, the dropped curly hair and Phrygian cap with its edge inscribed with the word “LIBERTY”.

In many American states, the Liberty cap was adopted in the design of their seals. Independence was declared on 4 July 1776 and the appearance of the Phrygian cap on the country’s 1793 coinage shows influence of French origins, perhaps from Moreau’s 1775 painting. The coin shown in Figure 28 is defined as the “turban head” type designed by John Reich.

REVOLUTIONARY BRONZE COINAGE OF FRANCE

The head of Liberty facing left was used on all USA coin denominations for the next 32 years.

OTHER COUNTRIES

Other examples of the portraiture of Marianne and elements from the Revolutionary coinage can be seen in various nation's flags, coat of arms and currency issues. The following is a preliminary list of locating such examples, dated as early as can be observed though my referenced catalogues.

- Bolivia: Phrygian cap on Coat of Arms / National Flag
- Chile: escudos of 1839, decimal coinage of 1871
- Cuba: Phrygian cap on Coat of Arms, regular coinage of 1915
- Ecuador: ¼ real coin of 1842 - Lady Liberty with Phrygian cap
- El Salvador: Phrygian cap on Coat of Arms / National Flag, Liberty cap on ½ real coin of 1835.
- French Colonies and Dependencies: Cameroon, Comoros, French Equatorial Africa, French Indochina, French Oceania, French Polynesia, French West Africa, Madagascar, New Caledonia, Reunion, St Pierre et Miquelon, Togo, New Hebrides.
- Haiti: Phrygian cap on 1828 coinage, on Coat of Arms / National Flag
- Honduras peso coin of 1883 – Liberty lady with cap
- Indonesia / Netherlands East Indies 1786 issues
- Italian States (Genoa, Neapolitan Republic, Piedmont Republic)
- Liberia – coinage of 1847
- Nicaragua – Phrygian cap on Coat of Arms / National Flag
- Portugal
- Portuguese Colonies: Angola, Portuguese Guinea, St. Thomas e Principe
- Spain – Civil war
- Venezuela

SUMMARY

The influence of the French Revolution in 1789 across Europe has been strong throughout the European continent, but met with a fierce resistance from established monarchies. This event realigned European policies to resist such progressive ideas and movements and under numerous secret treaties, France faced armed opposition and invasion which she overcame. The Napoleonic Wars were a result of expanding the Revolutionary movement beyond the country's natural borders, promising radical and efficient administrative and social reforms.

But monarchical Europe wasn't ready and armed resistance reformed the country towards autocratic rule that enforced strict economic control for financing the Empire's expansion. Despite many attempts to convince Napoleon of everlasting peace in Europe, he turned against Imperial Russia with the disastrous consequences that followed.

The instability of the Spanish monarchy by Napoleon's plans enabled its colonies to revolt and, unquestionably, elements of Marianne's portraiture and associated items used are evidence of the French Revolution's influence.

This article has given us a brief but concise overview of the French Revolution and related history, explored its personification through Marianne's portraiture and presented key details on the French Republican bronze coinage.

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AUSTRALIAN DECIMAL PAPER NOTES

By Frank Robinson, NAV #713

This is a subject that most of you probably know already, but here goes!

I will confine this paper to only those notes which were printed for circulation.

INTRODUCTION

Prior to the introduction of decimal currency, Australia's currency was based on the sterling system with 1 pound equal to 20 shillings and 1 shilling equal to 12 pence.

On 7 April 1963 it was announced that Australia would change its currency to a decimal system in February 1966.

While many names were suggested for the major unit, public opinion won out and the name "dollar" was announced on 19 September 1963. The name "cent" for the minor unit was generally agreed to.

Changeover occurred on Monday 14 February 1966. One dollar was equivalent to ten shillings.

The notes of the first issue were all designed by Gordon Andrews, whose initials (GA) appear on each of the notes.

FIRST ISSUE – "COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA"

Four notes only were initially printed and issued – these were the exact equivalents of the pre-decimal notes then in circulation (this was to help the public with the changeover). A five dollar note was to be added the following year.

ONE DOLLAR

The one dollar note replaced the ten shillings note.

The front of this note has a portrait of Queen Elizabeth II in the regalia of the Order of the Garter, and the Australian coat of arms.

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The back has an aboriginal bark painting by David Malangi, as well as other aboriginal bark paintings and carvings.



Figure 3 1 dollar, first issue (shown at 60%)

TWO DOLLARS

The other notes each have portraits of a famous person from Australia's history and motifs relating to their work.

The two dollar note replaced the one pound note.

The front has a portrait of John Macarthur (1767 - 1834) and a ram. Macarthur was the person most responsible for the establishment of the sheep industry in Australia.

The back has a portrait of William Farrer (1845 - 1906) and 11 ears of wheat. Farrer pioneered scientific wheat breeding in Australia and, over a 20 year period, developed many new disease-resistant strains.



Figure 4 2 dollar, first issue (shown at 60%)

TEN DOLLARS

The ten dollar note replaced the five pound note.

The front has a portrait of Francis Greenway (1777 - 1837) and a selection of his architectural works. Greenway had trained as an architect and after being convicted of forgery, was transported to New South Wales for 14 years. In Sydney, Governor Macquarie appointed him Civil Architect and he was responsible for a number of buildings, some of which still stand.

It is ironic that this note, which portrays a convicted forger, was the first Australian decimal note to be forged (in late 1966)!

The back has a portrait of Henry Lawson (1867 - 1922) with a montage of photographs of his time and some of his writings. Lawson was one of Australia's greatest writers of short stories and poetry.

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Figure 5 10 dollar, first issue (shown at 60%)

TWENTY DOLLARS

The twenty dollar note replaced the ten pound note.

The front has a portrait of Sir Charles Kingsford Smith (1897 - 1937) and geometric lathe tracings symbolic of wings. He set many flying records during the 1920s and 1930s, including being the first to fly across the Pacific Ocean and fly around the world.

The back has a portrait of Lawrence Hargrave (1850 - 1915) and eight of his models for flying machines. He devoted much of his life to research work, particularly related to the problems associated with powered flight. He constructed many models and also box kites on which the first aeroplanes were based.



Figure 6 20 dollar, first issue (shown at 60%)

FIVE DOLLARS

The five dollar note was added on 29 May 1967.

The front has a portrait of Sir Joseph Banks (1743 - 1820) and an assemblage of 18 different Australian flora. Banks joined Lt James Cook on his first expedition and investigated the botany of the various places they visited, including the east coast of Australia.

The back has a portrait of Caroline Chisholm (1808 - 1877) and illustrations of women and children of her time and Sydney streets and ships of the period. Chisholm came to Australia in 1838 and worked to assist the large numbers of homeless young female immigrants in Sydney.

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Figure 7 5 dollar, first issue (shown at 60%)

SIGNATORIES

There were four different signature combinations on the first issue of the decimal notes. The signatories are the Governor of the Reserve Bank of Australia and the Secretary to the Treasury. Those on the first issue were:

Governors

- Dr Herbert Cole (“Nugget”) Coombs
- Sir John Grant Phillips

Secretaries

- Sir Roland Wilson
- Sir Richard John Randall
- Sir Frederick Henry Wheeler

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Table 1
First Issue Signatories

| Year | Governor, Reserve Bank of Australia | Secretary to the Treasury | Abbrev |
|------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|--------|
| 1966 | H C Coombs | Roland Wilson | C / W |
| 1966 | H C Coombs | R J Randall | C / R |
| 1968 | J G Phillips | R J Randall | P / R |
| 1971 | J G Phillips | F H Wheeler | P / W |



Figure 8 first issue signatories (from top): Coombs / Wilson, Coombs / Randall, Phillips / Randall, Phillips / Wheeler

Table 2 shows the serial number prefixes for the various signature combinations of the first issue. (In this and similar charts, the dark shaded cell indicates that this denomination was not issued with that signature combination.)

Table 2
Serial Number Prefixes for First Issue Signatories

| Denom | C / W | C / R | P / R | P / W |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 1 dollar | AAA – AGE | AGE – AHY | AHY – BBE | BBF – BLG |
| 2 dollars | FAA – FKD | FKD – FPS | FPT – GRF | GRG – HBQ |
| 5 dollars | | NAA – NCS | NCS – NGS | NGT – NKG |
| 10 dollars | SAA – SDR | SDR – SFR | SFR – STG | STH – TBB |
| 20 dollars | XAA – XBP | XBQ – XBS | XBS – XEU | XEV – XGY |

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REPLACEMENT NOTES

Replacement notes were printed so that a section of 100 notes would go from 001 to 100, 101 to 200, etc – this was to assist bank tellers.

For Australia's decimal replacement notes, the serial number prefix commenced with "Z" and was followed by the first letter assigned to that denomination; an asterisk (*) replaced the last numeral. This meant that instead of the usual 1 000 000 notes per prefix, there were only 100 000 notes per replacement prefix.

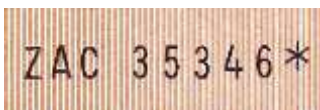


Figure 9 Serial number on 1 dollar replacement note

Initially replacement notes were only used in the denominations up to 10 dollars. Any spoilt 20 dollar notes were replaced by a note with the same serial number as the spoilt note. By late 1970, this was considered to be too time consuming and expensive, so "Z" replacement notes were introduced for the 20 dollar notes.

By 1972, it was considered that the whole system of replacement notes was too costly and was scrapped.

Table 3 shows the serial number prefixes for the various signature combinations of replacement notes. (The light shaded cells indicate that replacement notes of this denomination were not issued with those signature combinations.)

Table 3
Serial Number Prefixes for Replacement Notes

| Denom | C / W | C / R | P / R | P / W |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-------|
| 1 dollar | ZAA – ZAF | ZAF – ZAH | ZAH – ZAQ | |
| 2 dollars | ZFA – ZFH | ZFH – ZFK | ZFK – ZFS | |
| 5 dollars | | ZNA – ZNC | ZNC – ZND | |
| 10 dollars | ZSA – ZSD | ZSD – ZSE | ZSF – ZSJ | |
| 20 dollars | | | ZXA | |

SECOND ISSUE – “AUSTRALIA”

In December 1972, the Australian Labor Party, under Gough Whitlam, was elected to government in Canberra. One of the ALP's policies was to do away with the term “Commonwealth of Australia”. On the paper money, this resulted in a change to both the heading and the legal tender clause on all the notes; these new notes became the second issue. Some people who did not agree with this change referred to the new notes as the “Whitlam forgeries”.



Figure 10 Title and legal tender clause, first issue



Figure 11 Title and legal tender clause, second issue

FIFTY DOLLARS

The first of note of the second issue was the fifty dollar note which was introduced on 9 October 1973.

The front has a portrait of Lord Howard Florey (1898 - 1968) and motifs depicting laboratory research and academic life. Florey and his colleagues developed penicillin into a useable antibiotic with world-wide application.

The back has a portrait of Sir Ian Clunies-Ross (1899 - 1959) and motifs depicting research into the environments of earth and outer space. He conducted research in parasitology and was later Chairman of the CSIRO¹ from 1949 until his death.

¹ Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation.

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Figure 12 50 dollar, second issue (shown at 60%)

ONE TO TWENTY DOLLARS

The design of the notes from one to twenty dollars remained the same except for the title changes on both sides and the new legal tender clause.

The second issue one dollar note was issued from 11 June 1974 until it was discontinued on 11 May 1984 (when it was replaced by a coin).

The second issue two dollar note was issued from 19 June 1974 until it was discontinued on 17 June 1988 (when it was replaced by a coin).

The second issue five dollar note was issued from 27 September 1974.

The second issue ten dollar note was issued from 19 September 1974.

The second issue twenty dollar note was issued from 20 August 1974.

ONE HUNDRED DOLLARS

The one hundred dollar note was added on 26 March 1984 and was designed by Harry Williamson.

The front has a portrait of Sir Douglas Mawson (1882 - 1958) and geological cross-sections. Mawson was a geologist, however he is perhaps better remembered as the leader of the Australasian Antarctic Expedition of 1911-14.

The back has a portrait of John Tebbutt (1834 - 1916) and two of his observatories. Tebbutt was a pioneer in Australian astronomy.



Figure 13 100 dollar, second issue (shown at 60%)

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SIGNATORIES

The initial signatories on the second issue were:

Governors

- Sir John Grant Phillips
- Harold Murray Knight
- Robert Alan Johnston

Secretaries

- Sir Frederick Henry Wheeler
- John Owen Stone
- Bernie William Fraser

Robert Johnson's successor as Governor was Bernie Fraser; however as Fraser's term as Secretary didn't finish until two months after Johnson's, and new notes were being printed, the Deputy Governor (Mervyn John Phillips) became the only Deputy Governor to be an Australian note signatory.

The remaining signatories on the second issue were:

Governors

- Mervyn John Phillips (only Deputy Governor to sign)
- Bernie William Fraser

Secretaries

- Dr Christopher Ian Higgins (collapsed and died, aged 47, after completing a veterans' 3000 m race on 6 December 1990)
- Anthony Stuart Cole (removed from office by Prime Minister Paul Keating)
- Edward Alfred Evans

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Table 4
Second Issue Signatories

| Year | Governor, Reserve Bank of Australia | Secretary to the Treasury | Abbrev |
|------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|--------|
| 1974 | J G Phillips | F H Wheeler | P / W |
| 1975 | H M Knight | F H Wheeler | K / W |
| 1979 | H M Knight | John Stone | K / S |
| 1982 | R A Johnston | John Stone | J / S |
| 1984 | R A Johnston | B W Fraser | J / F |
| 1989 | M J Phillips (Deputy) | B W Fraser | P / F |
| 1989 | B W Fraser | C I Higgins | F / H |
| 1991 | B W Fraser | A S Cole | F / C |
| 1993 | B W Fraser | E A Evans | F / E |



Figure 14 Second issue signatories (from top): Phillips / Wheeler, Knight / Wheeler, Knight / Stone, Johnston / Stone, Johnston / Fraser, Phillips / Fraser, Fraser / Higgins, Fraser / Cole, Fraser / Evans

Tables 5a and 5b show the serial number prefixes for the various signature combinations of the second issue.

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Table 5a
Serial Number Prefixes for Second Issue Signatories

| Denom | P / W | K / W | K / S | J / S |
|--------------|--------------|------------------|------------------------|--------------|
| 1 dollar | BLG – BYB | BYC – CPJ DBP | CPK – DGH | DGJ – DPS |
| 2 dollars | HBQ – HLP | HLQ – JDV | JDX – KAJ | JZH – KRP |
| 5 dollars | NKG – NQT | NQU – NYG | NXF – PDT | PDU – PLG |
| 10 dollars | TBC – TEL | TEN – TPC | TPD – TXT | TXU – UCC |
| 20 dollars | XJY – XLH | XLJ – XUZ | XVA – XZZ VAA – VGX | VFV – VQK |
| 50 dollars | YAA – YAU | YAV – YCZ | YDA – YHH | YHJ – YNS |
| 100 dollars | | | | ZAA – ZCD |

Table 5b
Serial Number Prefixes for Second Issue Signatories (cont)

| Denom | J / F | P / F | F / H | F / C | F / E |
|--------------|------------------------|--------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 dollar | | | | | |
| 2 dollars | KRQ – LQG | | | | |
| 5 dollars | PKF – QFA | | QDF – QJR | QGX – QPG | |
| 10 dollars | UCD – UZZ MAA – MAC | | UYH – UZZ MAA – MHJ | MFQ – MRR | |
| 20 dollars | VQL – VZZ EAA – EYD | EVJ – EYD | EYE – EZZ RAA – RKB | RHG – RZZ AAA – ABQ | RZV – RZZ AAA – ADK |
| 50 dollars | YNT – YXH | YXJ – YYU | YYV – YZZ WAA – WDD | WBT – WQH | WNY – WZZ FAA – FAB |
| 100 dollars | ZBC – ZFU | | ZEJ – ZJS | ZHG – ZLD | |

SECOND ISSUE – VARIETIES

The second issue had a number of varieties (other than changing signature combinations).

- DBP Test Paper
- Metallic thread positions
- Serial number types

DBP TEST PAPER

In 1976 an experiment was conducted with 500 000 notes printed on the normal “single fold” paper and 500 000 printed on a stronger “double fold” paper; they were given a prefix which was well in advance of the notes then being printed). Some were sent to Brisbane and a similar number to Perth and later some went to Hobart. It has been suggested that the prefix letters “DBP” were chosen for the first two of these cities. This may have been a factor, however when the 35 prefixes per sheet is taken into consideration, DBP would have been the first prefix in a new sheet, thus its use in this manner would mean that it was not in the middle of a sheet of later normal notes.



Figure 15 1 dollar, DBP test paper (1976) (shown at 60%)

METALLIC THREAD POSITIONS

The initial position of the metallic thread in the notes was near the centre. As the notes were folded and unfolded many times in use, this became a weak point and caused the notes to tear in circulation.

Commencing in 1976, notes were printed on paper with the metallic thread approximately 55 mm from the edge in all denominations; these notes are referred to as “side thread” notes.

The actual position of the metallic thread in all the notes does vary by a few millimetres so that the bulge (from the extra thickness) is minimised.

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Figure 16 2 dollar, centre thread (top) and side thread (below) (shown at 60%)
(These views were scanned using a transparency scanner.)



Figure 17 Weakened 2 dollar torn at centre thread (shown at 60%)

Figure 15 shows an example of a weakened “centre thread” note that I removed from circulation in the mid 1970s. This two dollar note is almost torn in half along the line of the metallic thread; at the time I obtained it, there were two staples holding together!! The metallic thread is exposed in the tear (below the ribbon under the sheep).

SERIAL NUMBER TYPES

Initially all serial numbers were printed in a type face known as “Gothic No 18”.

In 1976, notes commenced being numbered with a new high speed press which used a font known as “OCR-B II”; this was an abbreviation of Optical Character Recognition; B is the class of numeric character set. As the name suggests, the numbers could be machine read.



Figure 18 Gothic No 18 serial number (left) and OCR-B II serial number (right)

Notes with OCR-B numbers first appeared in the two dollar denomination; as more machines became available, the other denominations progressively changed. High demands for \$5 and \$20 notes during the Johnson / Fraser period required some notes to be numbered with the old machines (ie Gothic No 18).

The one dollar notes were all printed with Gothic No 18 serials.

WATERMARKS

The lower denominations (\$1 to \$20) all have a watermark with a single head of Captain James Cook.

The two higher denominations (\$50 and \$100) have a watermark showing two complete heads plus a half head above and below the other heads.



Figure 19 Watermarks of Captain Cook – single (left) and multiple (right)

SERIAL NUMBER PRINTING ORDER

During the first issue, and also the \$50 Phillips / Wheeler notes, the notes were numbered one prefix at a time and with the numbers starting at 000001 and working up to 1000000. When a signature change occurred, an overlap could occur but only in one prefix and the earlier signature combination would have the lower number.

From almost the beginning of the second issue, the sheets of notes were numbered starting at 1000000 and working down to 000001 with the same number on every note in the sheet, but with different prefixes. Thus when a signature changed, an overlap could occur in multiple prefixes and the earlier signature combination would have the higher number.

PLATE IDENTIFICATION LETTERS

Plate identification letters occur on most of the second issue notes. They are hidden in the design and can be used to identify the position of a note in the sheet and are yet another security device. This is a subject in itself which I won't go into here.

CHANGE TO POLYMER

The paper notes were gradually replaced by polymer notes over a four year period which commenced two decades ago.

- \$5 7 July 1992
- \$10 1 November 1993
- \$20 31 October 1994
- \$50 4 October 1995
- \$100 15 May 1996

NOTE DIMENSIONS AND SUMMARY

The dimensions of the notes increased with an increase in denomination. With the exception of the 100 dollar note, each denomination note was 5 mm longer and 2.5 mm wider than the next lower denomination. By the time the 100 dollar note was being designed, it was felt that another increase in the width of the notes would have made it too difficult to

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properly fit into wallets and purses; thus the width was left the same as for the 50 dollar note, but the length was increased by 7 mm instead of 5 mm.

Table 6
Summary

| Denom | Size (mm) | Notes per Sheet | | Issued | Withdrawn |
|-------------|--------------|-----------------|-------|-----------|-----------|
| | | Standard | Super | | |
| 1 dollar | 140 x 70 | 35 | | 14/2/1966 | 11/5/1984 |
| 2 dollars | 145 x 72.5 | 24 | 45 | 14/2/1966 | 17/6/1988 |
| 5 dollars | 150 x 75 | 24 | 40 | 29/5/1967 | Jul 1992 |
| 10 dollars | 155 x 77.5 | 24 | 40 | 14/2/1966 | Nov 1993 |
| 20 dollars | 160 x 80 | 24 | 40 | 14/2/1966 | Oct 1994 |
| 50 dollars | 165 x 82.5 | 24 | 32 | 9/10/1973 | Oct 1995 |
| 100 dollars | 172 x 82.5 | 24 | 32 | 26/3/1984 | May 1996 |

The Australian decimal paper notes may be summed up as follows:

- 7 denominations;
- 2 issues (types);
- 13 signatories;
- 12 signature combinations;
- 2 watermarks;
- 2 serial number fonts;
- 2 metallic thread positions;
- giving a total of 90 varieties.

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| H P HIGSON | 1958 – 1960 |
| E PHILPOTTS | 1960 – 1962 |
| W E CURRAN, ED, FRNS | 1962 – 1964 |
| R T N JEWELL, FRNS | 1964 – 1965 |
| R G STEWART | 1965 – 1967 |
| P SIMON, FRNS | 1968 – 1969 |
| F H HEARD | 1970 – 1972 |
| W E PURNELL | 1973 – 1974 |
| H J PRANGE | 1975 – 1976 |
| P J DOWNIE | 1977 – 1978 |
| R L HENDERSON, FRNS | 1979 – 1980 |
| H J PRANGE | 1981 – 1982 |
| L T PEPPERELL | 1983 – 1984 |
| J M FARINGDON-DAVIS | 1985 – 1986 |
| G M FARINGDON-DAVIS | 1987 – 1988 |
| H J PRANGE | 1989 – 1990 |
| Dr J M CHAPMAN, FRNS | 1991 – 1992 |
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