AUSTRALIAN NUMISMATIST

1997

Publication of the
NUMISMATIC ASSOCIATION OF VICTORIA
(incorporating the Numismatic Society of Victoria, founded 1914,
and the Association of Australian Numismatists (Melb.), 1939)

NUMISMATIC ASSOCIATION OF VICTORIA

Founded 1946

*****

Office Bearers for 1997

President:	Mr. John O'RILEY
Vice Presidents:	Mr. Frank ROBINSON
	Mr. Pat SHIELDS
Secretary:	Mr. Frank ROBINSON
Treasurer:	Mr. Peter HAMILTON

Councillors

Mr. Bob DONALDSON
Mr. Len HENDERSON

Archivist:	Mr. Len HENDERSON
"Australian Numismatist" Editor:	Mr. Marc BÉOUTIS MBA
Newsletter Editor:	Mr. Len HENDERSON
	Mr. Marc BÉOUTIS MBA
Librarian:	Mr. Bob DONALDSON

Recipients of the N.A.V. "Award of Merit"

1969	Mr. H. J. JENKIN
1971	Mr. E. PHILPOTTS
1973	Mr. R. T. N. JEWELL, FRNS
1979	Mrs. J. SIMON, BEM
1986	Mrs. B. TURVEY
1989	Mr. L. T. PEPPERELL
1992	Mr. H. J. PRANGE
1994	Mr. D. WICKS
1995	Dr. J. CHAPMAN
1996	Mr. L. HENDERSON

AUSTRALIAN NUMISMATIST

1997

Publication of the
NUMISMATIC ASSOCIATION OF VICTORIA
(incorporating the Numismatic Society of Victoria, founded 1914,
and the Association of Australian Numismatists (Melb.), 1939)

Registered by Australia Post
Publication Nº VBH 2254
Print Post Approved 342975/00002

NUMISMATIC ASSOCIATION OF VICTORIA
P.O. Box 615D, G.P.O. Melbourne

Australian Numismatist, 1997

Contents

HEALTH AND MEDICINE IN NUMISMATICS

by Gillian F. Davis, NAV 913

Without the art of healing and its practitioners where would we be? If we were here at all, we would be a poor, badly fed, unhealthy people, without most of the great inventions which improve daily life because no one would have lived long enough to develop them. No wonder that healers have always been respected or even revered among us, and as an important part of life, they feature in numismatics. This is only reasonable because without good health, no one would have had the energy to get around to designing medallions, which while not entirely useless, are not immediately necessary to everyone's physical well being.

Ignoring prehistoric shamans and any herbal remedies used by Neolithic peoples, a Greek healer named Aesculapius is accepted as the father of formal medicine, although his methods were a mixture of what would today be several disciplines - psychiatry, hypnotism, naturopathy, public hygiene, and good nursing, combined with religion. To tell the truth, Aesculapius would have been an alternative healer if there had been anyone else to be alternative to.

The cult of Aesculapius was important in Greece from the 5th century BC, and spread around the Mediterranean, both Greeks and Romans issuing coins showing his figure or that of the personification Salus or Hygiea, which both meant public health, and from which we get words such as 'hygienic', and 'salutary'.

Some of the Roman examples were issued by Commodus' wife Crispina in AD 177, by Caracalla, Macrinus and Valerian, covering between them a period of 200 years. The usual convention was to show the personification of health seated, feeding a serpent, which was coiled, round the altar, or held by the god who fed it from a patera. In addition there is sometimes the small helping figure of Telesphorus, who could be the god's son, and whose name means the 'end of the episode', that is, the end of the illness.

Only one Roman coin bears the actual name of Aesculapius: a very rare medallion issued under Antoninus Pius. The reverse shows a serpent

leaving a galley, under an arch of two bridges; next to it is the Tiber, personified; and the word Aesculapius is in the exergue.

This refers to a story, based rather precariously on very few facts, illustrating the importance of the cult of Aesculapius. In BC 291, Rome was ravaged by plague, and the oracles decided that the only way to restore the city to health was to induce Aesculapius to come from Epidauros in Greece: not the man himself, who was long dead, but the resident serpent which was reputed to have inherited his powers, and of course his title and the franchise for the district. So a deputation of citizens from Rome went to Greece to persuade the serpent to travel; and while they were there, the snake left its grotto and worked its way slowly round town.

After showing itself to the people there for three days, it slithered down to the harbour and established itself on the Roman galley, coiling up in the cabin of the deputation's leader (I do not know if he got back into his own cabin). They sailed for Antium, near Rome; the serpent left the vessel and proceeded to the local temple of Aesculapius where he spent three days, then (one hopes that people were not still dying like flies) re-entered the ship for the last leg of the voyage, to Rome. There, it swam across the Tiber to an island, and according to Roman historians the plague disappeared and the grateful Romans built a temple to Aesculapius on the island. This episode gave them the right to 'own' the cult of Aesculapius and decorate its coins with his attributes.

Aesculapius is usually shown as a middle-aged man holding in his right hand a staff, around which the serpent twines - an image which has always denoted the medical profession, and is still used by our own Medical Association, the Army Medical Corps, and healing organisations all around the world: an image which has persisted unchanged for thousands of years, regardless of the influence of major world religions which in Aesculapius' time did not exist.

As with most myths, every silver lining has a cloud. Aesculapius was so successful that it was even alleged he raised people from the dead, with the result that Zeus was afraid he might make all men immortal and killed him with a thunderbolt.

So, with that background, we can now look for other references in numismatics. Jesus Christ, known as the Great Healer, does not often feature on modern coins but his image was used by some of the Byzantine

Emperors. Linking the Roman and Byzantine eras, Olybrius, who was briefly emperor in 472, issued a gold solidus bearing a cross and the words 'Salus Mundi' (the well-being of the world). Later, Justinian's gold solidus of 692 - 5 showed the bearded figure of Christ; a coin of Romanus III, 1028 - 32, illustrated the Virgin with the infant in her arms, pointing to him as a way of life, and Alexius I, 1081 - 1118, issued a coin with the seated figure of Jesus and the words, 'May the Lord help'. The Byzantine style of depicting Christ continued, little changed, into the comparatively modern era of Russian icons. However, healing is only one of Christ's aspects and we cannot seriously consider a depiction of him as boosting doctors.

After that, numismatic references to health disappear, and it took me some time to work out why. I believe the answer lies in the difference between ancient and medieval ways of seeing the world. In Greece and Rome, the deities were intricately involved with government. Emperors became gods or claimed descent from gods, religion was led by official functionaries, and health became something that the state and its religion were expected to provide and for which the people were duly thankful. The coinage reminded people to be grateful for any measures to improve public health, like drains. It would be similar if our governments, which promote Medicare, put a copy of the Medicare card on banknotes, but I fear modern man's habit of thinking he deserves everything good has spoilt him for these official expressions of gratitude.

In contrast, the medieval period was the age of the individual. Kings no longer claimed godly ancestors, relying simply on the power of the sword. Nobody did anything at all about public health, least of all the public. More bad things than good things happened in the medical area, and as no one was able to cure the plague, no one claimed responsibility for dealing with it. For hundreds of years, no doctors, healers, or medicinal plants appeared on coins, and it was not until the Renaissance and the introduction of medallions, at the same time as the development of scientific theories, that doctors were granted any recognition.

Most medallions connected with health or medicine fall into one of three groups: those showing prominent individuals, or institutions such as hospitals, and those issued by medical organisations. Occasionally an item illustrates all three. In addition, there are medals including gallantry awards to individual doctors, scientists or nurses. In this area, there is a strong Australian flavour, for medical people came here with the First Fleet

to care for both servicemen and convicts, and have continued to form a high proportion of those who are officially honoured.

As an example of the institutional group, the handsome silver medallion showing Charing Cross Hospital, founded in London in 1818, honours both a well known hospital and the students who received it, and also shows the staff of Aesculapius. This one was given to Charles Woodd in 1847 for chemistry. He became a surgeon and his son too went into medicine.

In the early days of white settlement in Australia, public interest in health existed to the extent that the authorities were prepared to pay for doctors to attend both convicts and free men. A surgeon was placed on every government ship, and some of the documents preserved at the NSW State Library concern the cost of drugs. Apothecary Hall in London sent medicines and hospital equipment for the Botany Bay settlement, from the stores at Deptford. There was not a whole lot of 'hospital furniture' - one pewter bedpan and one bathing tub were allowed for each 100 convicts but they could hardly expect to be in hospital having bedpans brought. However, those involved, although they dealt with desperate convicts, hardened soldiers, hostile aborigines, and the tyranny of distance, were not rewarded in any special way because they were simply doing their duty.

Since then, many doctors have received campaign medals or orders of the British Empire, the Order of Australia, and others, and a substantial number have also been decorated for feats of gallantry or at least service beyond the call of duty, plus those scientists and administrators who have used their abilities for the benefit of the community in general rather than only their own patients. Such people may be recognised by the government, by prestigious but non-government bodies such as the Nobel Prize judges, or by their peers; and in this last group fall the honours awarded by the British, Australian and other Medical Associations.

An individual doctor whose work has long been recognised is Richard Carmichael, who was bound apprentice in 1794 to an Irish surgeon and who, after caring for an entire regiment of militia, became a prominent doctor and a researcher, publishing articles in the medical press early last century. Carmichael was a fighter for what he believed to be right, and had no problems about opposing many of his colleagues. In later life he came out forcefully against the apprenticeship system for doctors, which caused much grief to certain vested interests. He made a legacy to the College of Surgeons in Ireland to finance activities directed at education, including a

regular essay competition on methods of examining candidates for medical disciplines. If we go to hospital knowing that our surgeon has been thoroughly trained, we have to thank Carmichael for a good deal of that confidence. A medal bearing his portrait was given to prizewinners - I have one, awarded by the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland in 1897 to G. Levis for practical chemistry.

Examples of medals issued by medical institutions are not always easy to obtain, so it is a pleasure to show a few.

For instance, the gold medal of the British Medical Association for 'Distinguished Merit'. My example, being a specimen, was not awarded to an individual, but the medal is for service to organised medicine through the BMA rather than to individual patients. This is an oval, with the usual staff of Aesculapius (in this case a fairly hefty log) and serpent, wreathed with laurels and the words 'Respice, Prospice' or 'Look behind, look forward'.

I have also the gold medal of the Australian Medical Association, which is given to retiring Presidents for 'Distinguished Service'. This one belonged to Dr. Angus Johnston Murray, who was President of the AMA from 1963 to 1966 and before that was President of the New South Wales Branch. It shows the badge of the AMA which was then a traditional coat of arms with two lions supporting a shield bearing the usual medical symbols and the motto 'Pro Genere Humano Concordes' - loosely translated as 'working together for the good of mankind'.

In spite of doctors' high IQs and dedication to duty, their organisations are no more efficient at making decisions than anyone else's - perhaps even less so, because their very best people always have a genuinely good

reason for dashing off to something else. So it happens that before they make any really gigantic decisions such as awarding a new medallion, there is a tortuous process of deciding what to actually do, and this is made worse by the medallic designers and manufacturers who think doctors are rich and can afford these things, and have been known to come up with quite unsolicited samples and suggestions.

So I found a few trial attempts, like the plaster cast of 'Magnus Cosmus Medices PPP'. I cannot discover whether this was actually struck and what for; more likely, it died quietly in a committee file. The back is marked 'II' in pencil, which suggests that there was a 'I' and maybe even a 'III'. There is also a plaster cast of a proposed BHA medal with sprays of wattle, and a sample of one for the Henry Simpson Newland Prize, to be given by the Australian Federal Council of the BMA (the AMA was a local branch of the BMA until 1961). At one time there was a suggestion for a dual purpose medal to be struck in silver or bronze, the silver going to individuals who had served the profession or the Association well without being on its elected bodies, the bronze to go to non-doctors in recognition of service to health care - perhaps a dedicated country nurse - but nothing happened.

The AMA did for a number of years give a large bronze medal to the student with the highest marks in the finals examinations of each of the two Victorian medical schools, Melbourne and Monash. This came about because around 1979 the Association decided to give $1000 to the top students, and the universities asked for a small permanent memento to be included, so one of my first tasks with the AMA was to design the medallion. They gave me one, too, when I retired! The medallions are now no longer given, the memento being something more practical such as an engraved goblet.

There were also medals presented to the speakers at certain endowed lectures. These were extremely prestigious events at which prominent specialists presented their research, but I believe they have now all been discontinued partly because the original bequests which funded the prizes have lost their value, partly because there is a great deal of public money going into research while in the 1930's when most of such bequests were made, this was not the case.

One such medal was presented by the Geelong Subdivision of the BMA to Dr. Robert Croll on the occasion of his Thomson Memorial Lecture, which was established to coincide with the Geelong branch's centenary in 1938. Also, the Embley Medal honouring a famous Australian anaesthetist (there was an article about this in our journal in the early 80's) and several more.

The British universities and Colleges used to present some attractive medallions, such as the silver 'Breadalbane medal', engraved on both sides, surrounded by a raised, elaborate wreath of thistles, by the Marischal College and University in Aberdeen. Fraser Robb topped the class in anatomy in 1844 to get this.

A high relief in bronze shows the bust of, simply, 'Brodie', on the obverse, with the reverse displaying a number of medical symbols including the usual, and Latin mottoes about bringing light into the darkness, and the gratitude of the teachers and students, dated 1841, but there is nothing to show if this example was ever awarded to anyone or if it was one of the many British medallions distributed to private subscribers. The style is similar to the Art Union series.

Another example is the bust of William Harvey, the 17th century English physician who demonstrated the circulation of the blood. This comes from the International Physiological Congress held in Edinburgh in 1923. And again from Edinburgh, one from the School of Medicine showing the serpent coiled round not so much a staff as a stone column, with Greek words meaning 'In union is strength'. On the reverse, if we have done Latin (as all doctors did at this time) we learn that Alexander Cochran won it for his answers to questions put to the whole school, answers superior to all others, in 1846.

Finally, in the medical profession area, we have the 135 mm uniface plaque depicting the head of Harold R. Dew, F.R.C.S., 1941. I know that Dew worked at the Walter & Eliza Hall Research Institute, was an honorary surgeon at the Royal Melbourne Hospital, served in the RAMC and published papers on subjects one prefers not to mention; but I don't know why the plaque was produced, or for whom. It is very heavy. It is just THERE, like Mt Everest.

Not strictly in the area of awards, but for interest, are the Olympic medals and badges given to doctors who worked in a voluntary capacity. Here I have a medallion issued for the Melbourne Olympic Games with the city's

badge on one side and an Olympic motif on the other, also the identifying badge worn by the doctor while working.

Some of the medallic items I have mentioned are my own, but some are on permanent loan from the AMA, to whom I am grateful for the opportunity of displaying them.

A prominent doctor who served in an unglamorous area was Frank Scholes, who became a Commander of the Order of St Michael and St George (CMG) for his work as medical superintendent of the Infectious Diseases Hospital at Fairfield, for 38 years ending with his retirement in 1948. During that time, he not only cared for people with infectious diseases in those pre-penicillin days (almost single-handedly during the first world war) but published a number of research papers, and most of all, he was active in the great polio epidemic of 1937. His wise judgement and pragmatic decisions on the Poliomyelitis Consultative Council played a large part in the successful management of this epidemic. The CMG was awarded chiefly for this task.

In his youth, and despite considerable opposition, Scholes was one of the first people to use massive doses of diphtheria antitoxin serum in the treatment of severe diphtheria. He was accused of killing patients because

a number of them died of heart failure in the second week of the disease, but he stood up to the critics and was able to show that such deaths were due to delayed action of the toxins and not to the anti-toxin. The virtual absence of diphtheria deaths in Victoria today is due to Scholes as much as to anybody.

Scholes is a typical example of the healer who is recognised by a government for services to the general public, without the pressure of war, the advancement of a private career, or the desire to impress.

Colonel Henry Hewetson was also a doctor who worked in the public health area, but performed his duties as a soldier. Before the First World War, he was a sanitary officer in the Straits Settlements (now Malaysia) which must have been one of the dirtiest, smelliest and most unrewarding tasks in the whole British Army. It could have been quite a relief when World War I broke out and he was transferred to the European front, where he served mainly with infantry brigades from 1914 to 1919, was mentioned in despatches, three times, and awarded the Distinguished Service order, all quite unusual for a medico. He also received the Order of St Anne of Russia and the Order of St Maurice and St Lazarus of Italy.

Dr John Hunter was another example. He qualified as a doctor in Edinburgh in 1913 and the following year was sent to the western front in France as a Royal Army Medical Corps lieutenant. Invalided home from France, after recovering from his wounds he served in Italy, then Mesopotamia, India in the early 1920's, and in 1927 became a surgeon in the Specialist General Hospital at Shanghai. From there, he held a similar position on the North West Frontier of India, returning to a military hospital in England only in 1932.

But Hunter's military career was not over. Once World War II broke out, he was off to India again to a base hospital caring for the men sent back from the various Asian fronts, stayed out there until 1946, was posted to East Africa and then Greece, before finishing his career as a Brigadier in a military hospital in England in 1957 after 44 years as an Army doctor, an amazing record which was marked by the WWI Trio, the GSM clasp Iraq, the IGS medal 1908-35 with clasp North West Frontier, then the two Second World War medals and two coronation medals.

Dr Hunter's wife, a nurse, was awarded the Médaille de la Reconnaissance Française, and a Red Cross medallion for services in the floods of 1910.

Another doctor and nurse couple who shared wartime medical service is Dr and Mrs Torrance, and their family group is enhanced by their daughter Mary who was a nurse in the Second World War. In fact, Mary won more medals than either of her parents, and they are an interesting family.

Dr Torrance served in WWI, in the RAMC, ending up as a Major. He received the usual trio and was mentioned in despatches. His wife Winifred also volunteered, but they were separated for a time, and part of her war career was at a hospital in Egypt. Winifred was a member of the Red Cross in the family's home country of Nottinghamshire, and served in it almost all her life. It was from there that she enrolled in 1914, and there that she returned to civilian Red Cross service and became commandant of the county VAD in 1929.

When the second war broke out, she served as county director of the British Red Cross Society and continued in that position until 1962. She was also active in committees looking after the welfare of the physically handicapped, and in social service generally. For her lifelong service (mostly unpaid) she received campaign medals from both wars plus the Order of the British Empire, and the Voluntary Medical Services Long Service and Good Conduct Medal with no less than eight clasps.

After demobilisation, the couple returned to Nottingham where Dr Torrance set up in medical practice, his career including time as a pathologist in the Birmingham Mental Hospital. He had a flourishing practice that expanded to take in three partners. Torrance did not retire until 1957 when he must have been at least 70.

Meanwhile, the Torrance's daughter Mary qualified as a nurse, and in WWII received the 1939-45 Star, Africa Star, Italy Star, France and Germany Star, Defence and War Medals, and Voluntary Medical Services, Long Service, and Good Conduct - a group of seven, unusual for a woman.

I was fortunate enough to be given this wonderful family group as a retirement gift by my employers.

The Serbian and Macedonian wars between 1912 and 1918 were a field where over 400 Australians worked, including probably 33 doctors, plus many Australian Army nurses, and several who were with the Scottish Women's Hospitals. Some of them were recognised by the local authorities with awards like the Greek Order of the Redeemer. A nurse, Sister Annabella Nicoll, had an interesting group including the Royal Red Cross

and the Serbian Medal for the Balkan War of 1912, a very cheap piece of brass, but it is the thought and the bravery that counts - after all, the VC has no intrinsic value either. She also had the Territorial War Medal for voluntary service overseas, and was mentioned in despatches.

That overview will perhaps give a rough idea of the type of material available in the field of health and medicine, even if research is confined to our own corner of the world. It is an area full of variety and interest, with the advantage that many recipients of awards are fully documented and the researcher will be constantly encouraged by the amount of material available, much of it worth uncovering in its own right rather than simply as a matter of numismatic interest. May you all be as fortunate in the area as I have been; and in return, I would ask that nobody else around here bid for medical items at local auctions. Please!!!

SYRIAN ARCHAEOLOGY

by Chris Haymes, NAV 452

[This paper was delivered at our November 1996 meeting. Chris Haymes subsequently won the Max Stern Trophy for 1996]

JEBEL KHALID

Jebel Khalid is a large Hellenistic site (3rd to 1st Century BC) situated on a limestone outcrop on the West Bank of the Euphrates, about 80 km east of Aleppo in Syria. At the foot of the jebel (mountain) is the village of Khirbit Khalid whose inhabitants, settled Bedouin, provide the labour force for the excavations.

Jebel Khalid was founded about 300 BC by the Hellenistic Seleucid dynasty which controlled Syria and lands to the East after the death of Alexander the Great. The first Seleucid rulers embarked on large civic building programs to cement their control over Syria. They protected their river highways with military colonies called KATOIKIA, which were designed in a Greek manner by Greek immigrants. After the collapse of the Seleucid empire and the subsequent direct Roman control of the East by Pompey in 62 BC, the site was no longer needed and was abandoned.

During the Roman period of expansion in the East, new buildings were continually being superimposed on earlier ones. The Romans kept many features of the Hellenistic town plan but in most of the other KATOIKIA, such as Dura Eltropos further down the Euphrates and in all of the historically great cities of the Roman East such as Antioch, Apamea, Jerash, Aleppo and Damascus, the Hellenistic architecture has all but disappeared due to the rebuilding. However the site at Jebel Khalid has not been overlaid by buildings of the later Roman period, and for this reason, is one of the most archaeologically important Hellenistic sites in the Levant.

Jebel Khalid is 50 hectares in size and has physical remains scattered over three-fifths of this area. The site is extremely well preserved; excavations to date have concentrated on three main areas - the defence system, the domestic quarter and the acropolis - but there was also a river port, a theatre and a temple.

A four kilometre wall encircles the site on three sides, with twenty-eight towers and a massive main gate. Excavations at the gateway have unearthed the original paving stones of the road that passed through the gateway. The wall, towers and gateways are all indicative of an early 3rd century BC construction date. On the eastern side the riverine cliff face was considered to provide enough defence.

At the most elevated point on the Jebel is the acropolis, almost 450 m above river level. Excavations have revealed a number of large public buildings and a possible governor's residence. This building has a central courtyard surrounded by a Doric-order colonnade. Many of the buildings, it seems, were richly decorated with masonry-style wall paintings; overall the architecture is undoubtedly Hellenistic in design and execution.

On the north point of the Jebel, on the slope which looks towards the acropolis, lies the domestic quarter. The residential areas of towns founded in the Hellenistic period were laid out on a planned grid. The grid was always adapted to local conditions, but in itself is unmistakable. The key elements of the Hellenistic town plan are two longitudinal streets, one of which leads to the agora or main market place. These main streets are crossed at right angles and paralleled by numerous other smaller streets. Subsequently this network divided the whole layout of the town into rectangular blocks or insulae of equal size (typically about 100 m x 60 m), giving a well-built and planned appearance to the town.

At Jebel Khalid, an entire block between four streets has been partially exposed, revealing several large houses, complete with large storage jars, cooking areas and pot stands, all found in remarkable condition in situ. The abundance of material recovered from these rooms is at times astonishing, including stamped amphora handles and numerous coins from the Seleucid period, as well as imported and local pottery. Some of the rooms held wonderfully preserved cosmetic implements of bone and bronze. One trench produced a large piece of egg and dart wall painting and the first child burial found on the site.

A most unusual rectangular area, in the centre of the insula, and cut directly into the rock in of the Jebel, may have been a meeting area or a workshop.

During the 1994 Season, some 2 kilometres downstream from the settlement, a most exciting discovery in the form of a tomb was excavated.

The tomb is situated on a high limestone cliff face overlooking the Euphrates, near the small village of Shash Hamdan. It was brought to our attention by the local people who had discovered it some years before, but had not reported it to the Department of Antiquities.

The tomb consists of a huge chamber (10 meters square) which held the most spectacular examples of orientalised Graeco-Roman statuary. These statues had been carved from the limestone rock in a double register on both the northern and southern walls. Each figure was standing between two columns and dressed in sweeping drapery and fluted underskirts. In one large cavity the carved statue of a bull was uncovered, although its head had been destroyed. A woman sitting with what might have been a child was situated immediately above the bull. The figures of the top register, further out of reach from erosion and would be vandals, are better preserved than those of the bottom register.

At the back of the main room, three large burial chambers carved out of the rock contained the remains of stone sarcophagi. Much of this area was still covered with rubble from parts of the roof that had collapsed. The main room also contained the bases of six Greek-style columns, and what appeared to be an altar.

To our dismay, we discovered that tomb robbers had preceded us, and two statues in the top register had been carefully cut away and removed. Once we had cleared all the rubble from the floor, we were excited to find pieces of a mosaic floor, but again the majority of the floor had been removed by thieves and carried away. The method of removal was apparent as we recovered among the rubble several pieces of tesserae glued to cloth.

Who carved out this tomb is currently unknown. Further investigation has been authorised in the near future and the answer to this and other questions may then become clearer. On stylistic analysis and construction technique, it would appear the tomb probably belonged to a wealthy Roman family who lived in the 3rd century AD. The style is close to the popular tradition of the time, using familiar Greek technique with an orientalising art style.

TELL NEBI MEND

Tell Nebi Mend represents a completely different type of archaeological site to what is found at Jebel Khalid. Firstly, it is a multi-period site with

habitation levels stretching back to the very beginnings of settled urban life in the Neolithic (ca 4,500 BC). In addition, it is a Tell - that is to say, a man made hill formed by continued re-building and decay of mud-brick houses.

The site of Tell Nebi Mend is best known as the Bronze Age city of Kadesh on the Orontes, scene of the famous battle which Ramses II and Muwatallis fought inconclusively ca 1280 BC. Archaeology has confirmed that the site was occupied, although not necessarily continuously, for a long period of time, from the Neolithic to the early Byzantine era. During much of this time, Tell Nebi Mend has been a site of some historical importance due to its geographic location near to the crossing of the Orontes valley by the East-West route from central inland Syria to the Mediterranean. Within this inland region ran one of the most important trade routes of the ancient world, linking Palestine and Egypt with Anatolia and Mesopotamia. This route, through the Homs-Tripoli Gap, also forms the natural boundary between the northern and southern portions of the Levant, and was the scene of numerous military campaigns between the great powers of the ancient world aiming to seek control of the commercial activities conducted along its path.

The site was obviously chosen for its location among the extremely fertile soils along the Orontes River and for its defensive capabilities. It is possible, judging from the Egyptian representations, that at the time of Ramses II's visit, the city was entirely surrounded by water, as the result of the construction of an artificial joining of two streams running south of the Orontes

The main tell is approximately 32 m high and is about 10 hectare in extent at its base. There is also a secondary tell below containing material from the Classical Period. A modern Arab village sits on the top of the main tell, but gradually the local folk are rebuilding on the lower tell.

A number of widely separated areas have been selected for excavation to ensure adequate sampling of the site. On the N-E side of the tell, in trenches I and VIII, the Neolithic, Early and Middle Bronze Age are being investigated. Higher up in Trench II, the Late Bronze Age is being studied, and in Trench V the Hellenistic and Iron Age periods are being unearthed. On the other side of the tell, in Trench III, a complete sequence from the Middle and Late Bronze Age has been uncovered.

Kadesh was one of the most important city-states in Syria in the Late Bronze Age, figuring prominently in the accounts of the struggle of the rival empires. It is recorded that a Prince of Kadesh led the coalition of Asiatic rulers that was defeated by Thutmosis III in ca 1482 BC at the battle of Megiddo; that the town was captured by the same pharaoh in ca 1474 BC, passed into the hands of the Hittites just over a century later, and was occupied again, at least temporarily, by the Egyptians under Seti I in ca 1317 BC. A fragmentary boundary stela of Seti I excavated at the site confirms this fact.

The battle that Ramses II and Muwatallis fought brilliantly but inconclusively outside Kadesh's western walls at the beginning of 13th century BC owes its fame less to its historical importance than to the very detailed descriptions of the encounter, both verbal and pictorial, left by the Egyptians at Abu Simbel, Karnak and elsewhere, and also by the fact that the Hittites left a written record of their side of the battle - the first battle where this occurs.

What happened at the end of the second millennium at Tell Nebi Mend is less clear, as it is at most other Levantine sites, and the Late Bronze - Iron Age transition is one of the major historical problems being investigated by the excavations. It is probable that Kadesh was overshadowed by the neighbouring cities of Hama and Ribla, and particularly by Emesa (Modem Homs).

A minor revival of fortune came at the beginning of the Hellenistic period when, in about 300 BC, a town was re-established at the site by Seleucus I and named by him Laodiceia after his mother. It was known as Laodiceia-ad-Libanum, to distinguish it from the many other foundations of the same name, or as Laodiceia Scabiosa, which may refer to malarial conditions in the Orontes Valley at that time. The site was probably abandoned before the Muslim invasions of the 7th century AD.

The earliest remains found so far are from Trench VIII containing Neolithic shards, including some with textured and cord-impressed surface decoration, giving evidence for settlement at Tell Nebi Mend in the first part of the 6th millennium BC. Neolithic burials have also been excavated here.

My attentions have been directed to the excavations of Trench V, on the N-E crest of the tell. The uppermost levels contain badly eroded mud brick

dwellings of the Hellenistic and early Roman period. We excavated part of a narrow street with a stone lined and capped central drain, finding much Hellenistic pottery and small objects such as lamps, coins and figurines that had fallen in.

Extensive clearing of the Hellenistic dwellings was required to gain access to the preceding Iron-Age level, the main object of our attention.

So far we have revealed part of a large, well preserved, two-storied mud-brick and timber frame building dating to the ninth century BC. The main features of its floor plan revealed thus far are a cobbled courtyard surrounded by rooms, also with cobbled floors, and a staircase leading to the upper story. The staircase consisted of wooden steps set into mud brick. Other features include several ovens built next to the walls in the courtyard. This building was destroyed by an intense fire that has left its imprint on the mud-brick walls and the masses of broken pottery on the floors. Preliminary analysis of the pottery suggests a date in the 8th century BC for the destruction, but a radiocarbon date obtained from one of the burnt staircase timbers indicates that the burning occurred early in the 9th century BC. Clearly the problem of chronology needs further resolution - possibly old timbers were re-used in the staircase construction.

On the evidence of dating and the arrowheads found amongst the ruins, it is very likely that an invading Assyrian army was responsible for the conflagration. A text from Nimrud confirms that an Assyrian military post was established at Kadesh in the ninth century BC.

The destroyed building was soon replaced by a similar one, also with cobbled floors, but on a differing orientation. This building was also in turn demolished and its ruins left to decay. From the small area excavated, this marks the end of Kadesh, and there does not seem to have been any Persian occupation of the Tell - at least none has been revealed as yet. During the Hellenistic foundation of Laodiceia-ad-Libanum in the 4th century BC, the ruins were levelled and a street of houses constructed.

Pottery is represented by an abundance of generic cooking wares and rope-impressed storage vessels. Also many characteristic Iron Age Fine Wares are present such as the attractive red-shaped burnished bowls, cups and fruit stands with shallow bowl and pedestal foot. There are also some interesting painted wares and special pottery vessels such as lamps and spindle whorls. Other important finds include bone, ivory and metal

objects, and part of an Egyptian alabaster bowl. The most important small finds found in the last season of work were two cylinder seals and a scarab possible of Persian origin.

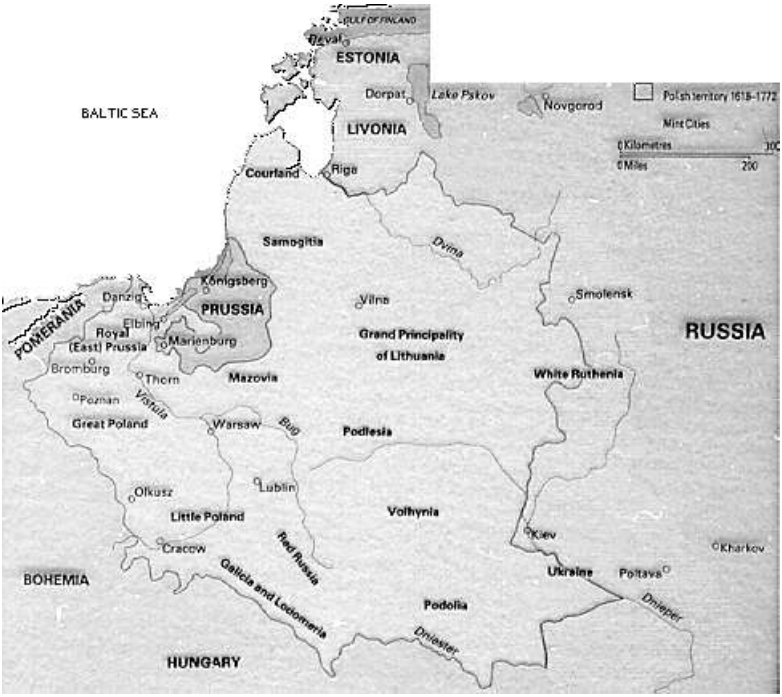
COINS OF SWEDISH RIGA

by Roger Mitchell, NAV 1062

Three coins from the XVIIth century, minted for the Swedish occupation of the city of Riga.

In 1621 Sweden, under Gustav II Adolf, conquered Livonia, the area now occupied by parts of Estonia and Latvia, and at the Armistice of Altmark in 1629, Poland was forced to formally hand over Livonia and important ports such as Elbing and Riga to the victorious Swedes.

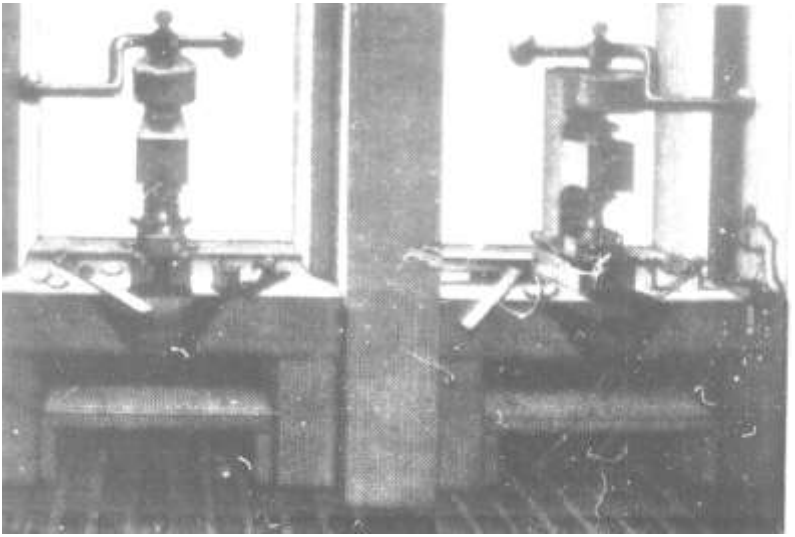
After the death of Gustav at the battle of Lutzen in Saxony in 1632 the throne was taken by his 6-year-old daughter Christina who reigned for 22 years before converting to Catholicism and abdicating in favour of her cousin Karl X Gustav.



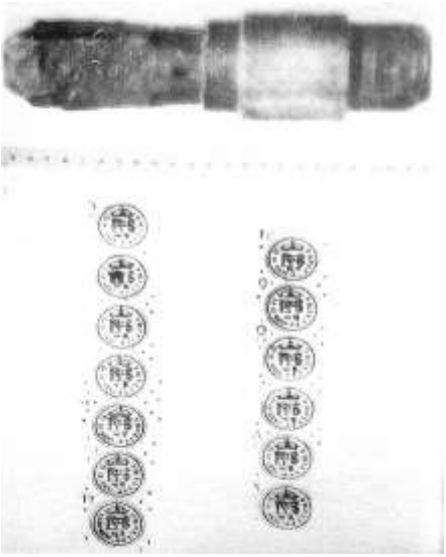
The coins in question are from the reigns of Christina and Karl X and are denars, but totally debased, and are in fact copper with a very thin plating of silver. Because of the very poor standard of minting, these coins give us a number of clues as to how they were struck.

1. The slight angle to the edge and the burr on the reverse indicate the coins were struck on a sheet or strip then punched out.

2. One coin flan has a flat edge and another one has an edge that is very thin, again suggesting that they were cut from a strip or possibly a sheet.
3. One coin has a crescent-shaped cut-out the exact diameter of the coin and approximately at right angles to the thin edge of the coin, indicating they were being punched out parallel to the edge of the strip.

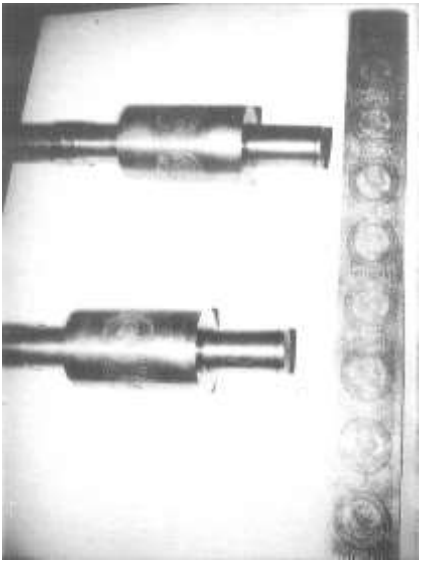


4. With the coins silver-plated all over, including the burr on the edge of the coin, it indicates they were plated after they had been punched out.
5. Two coins have the obverse and reverse fairly central on the flan, but the third coin has the obverse and reverse off-centre. The obverse shows the outer border of the next coin and a pellet between the two coins, and the reverse, even more off-centre, shows the border and part of the lettering of the next coin as well as a number of pellets between the coins. This more than anything else gives us a clear indication of how the coins were minted.



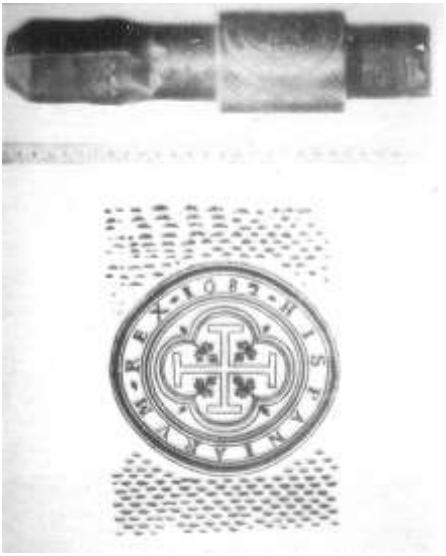
6. The obverse is always closer to the centre of the flan than the reverse, indicating the coins were punched out from the obverse, confirmed by the burr on the edge of the reverse.
7. At all times the obverse/reverse axis remains exactly the same so that although the two faces might not correspond, they all remain aligned in one direction. This tells us that there was some mechanical arrangement that kept the dies aligned.
8. The alignment of the dies is parallel to what appears to be the edge of the strip or sheet of metal.

All these clues together show that we are looking at one of the early attempts at machine minting by the method known as the Walzenwerke, or "turning-work" machine. This consisted of 2 rollers linked together by simple gears; on one roller was engraved the obverse die, and on the other the reverse die. Depending on the diameter of the coins, there could be as many as 10 dies engraved on each roller.



The rollers were set so that when the strips of metal, in this case copper, were fed between them as they turned, the engraved designs were embossed on both sides of the strip. But because of the simple cut of the gears, the difficulty of accurately cutting the square ends of the rollers to take the gears and a certain amount of end-float in the rollers, it obviously proved too difficult or, in this case, uneconomical, to align the obverse and reverse designs.

The dots between the dies are thought to have been put there to provide a grip on the metal as it moved from one die to the next, but it would also have evened the pressure applied by the rollers by giving the metal somewhere to flow to as is was being compressed.



This would reduce the stress on them and thereby increase their life, a very important factor when considering how much skilled labour went into engraving each set of rollers. It would be interesting to see from a die study of these coins whether individual rollers were changed as they wore out, increasing the problem of keeping the obverse and reverse in alignment, or whether they were changed as a pair. From the very poor quality of these coins, I suggest the overriding factor was cost, with very little concern for the quality, not surprising when you remember that these were the low denomination coins produced for use in a conquered province.

ROYAL FARTHING TOKENS

by Frank Robinson, NAV 713

Until 1279[1], the only coins issued in England since the Norman Conquest had been silver pennies. Halfpennies and farthings[2] were obtained by breaking the pennies. From 1279, there were occasional strikings of silver halfpennies and farthings. However these issues were usually only small and did not really alleviate the considerable lack of small change[3].

During the thirteenth century, foreign base-silver coins were imported into England where they were passed as pence and also as small change. Reckoning counters (or jettons) first appeared in England about 1280 and continued until the end of the fourteenth century. It is possible that some of these jettons were used as small change. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, inferior copies of French counters were imported from the Low Countries.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, the first lead and pewter tokens appeared. They continued to be issued until about the early years of the reign of Charles II[4]. These tokens were issued by various merchants, tradesmen, craftsmen and also by several of the London Livery Companies. They were all of similar size and probably intended to pass as farthings.

With the rise in price of silver, especially during the sixteenth century, it became impracticable to strike sterling silver farthings. An experiment during the reign of Elizabeth I[5] with silver three farthing and silver three halfpence coins was a failure. An alternative to silver was therefore necessary.

Elizabeth I gave royal support to suggestions of copper half penny and farthing "pledges", but the project was abandoned with only the patterns having been struck.

---

1 During the reign of Edward I (1272 - 1307).

2 Farthing was originally a "fourth-thing", ie a quarter of a penny.

3 The term "small change" is used to denote coins of denominations less than one penny.

4 Charles II (1660 - 1685).

5 Elizabeth I (1558 - 1602/3)

JAMES I (1602/3 - 1625)

Elizabeth I was succeeded by King James VI of Scotland who became King James I of England. Scotland had used base metal coinage for many years and this seemed the obvious answer to England's small change problems. However there was opposition to an official base metal coinage as many people felt that it was beneath the dignity of the monarchy for the King's bust to appear on base metal.

Thus it was decided to issue a licence, or patent, to allow the private striking and issue of copper farthing tokens. These pieces were "tokens" because their metal content was below their face value and as they had Royal approval, they have become known as "Royal Farthing Tokens".

In a proclamation dated 19 May 1613, James I granted Lord Harington a patent to issue copper farthing tokens for use in England, Ireland and Wales[6].

Lord Harington died on 27 February 1613 (old system[7]) and the patent passed first to his son and then to his widow. Lady Harington gave up the patent on 28 June 1614 and it passed to the Duke of Lennox[8]. In 1622 an oval shaped issue was made. It is believed that this (and later oval shaped issues) were for circulation in Ireland[9]. It is known that the Patentees were able to distinguish between the tokens, which were for circulation in Ireland and those that were for circulation in England and Wales.

In August 1623, Lennox was created Duke of Richmond and Lennox, but he died the following February. The patent then passed to his widow, the Dowager Duchess of Richmond, and Sir Francis Crane. It would be more accurate to describe the tokens issued between August 1623 and the death of James I in March 1625 as "Richmonds", but for convenience all the issues from June 1614 to March 1625 are classified as "Lennox".

---

6 Scotland is not mentioned as it was still a separate kingdom (although with the same Monarch) and had its own coinage until the Act of Union in 1707.

7 In the "old system" (os), or Julian Calendar, the year began on 25 March and finished 12 months later on 24 March.

8 The Duke of Lennox appears to have been anxious to obtain the patent from the beginning.

9 Royal Farthing Tokens effectively became legal tender in Ireland when they were confirmed as such by the Irish Parliament in 1622.

CHARLES I (1625 - 1648/9)

After the accession of Charles I, the patent was confirmed to the Duchess of Richmond and Sir Francis Crane. Round and oval shaped Richmond tokens were issued between 1625 and 1634.

In a proclamation dated 20 June 1634, the patent passed to Lord Maltravers and Sir Francis Crane. Round and oval shaped Maltravers tokens were issued between 1634 and 1636.

COUNTERFEITS

All these issues, except the Haringtons, were extensively counterfeited. As the issue of the Harington farthing tokens was short-lived and very unpopular, the lack of counterfeits is not surprising. It was only when the Lennox farthing tokens became generally accepted by the public that counterfeiting became widespread.

Due to the large profits that could be made (which will be detailed later), the forger could afford to make his pieces at the correct weight. Generally, the genuine tokens were well struck and the counterfeit pieces are poorly designed and struck. The best forgeries closely resemble the poorer genuine tokens[10].

ROSE FARTHINGS

In an attempt to combat the problem of counterfeiting, it was decided to put an insert of brass in the flans. At the same time, a rose replaced the harp in the reverse design. This was set out in a proclamation dated 1 March 1635 (os). The resulting tokens are now known as "Rose Farthings", although they are part of the original series and were issued under the patent of Lord Maltravers.

The quality of these tokens gradually declined, especially during the early years of the Civil War (which began in September 1642). The series eventually petered out with the wretched specimens of Type 3 (as detailed later) in December 1644. It is believed that this last issue was probably

[10] In the opinion of the author, forgeries are often sold on the numismatic market by dealers who are unaware that the piece in question may even be a forgery! It would appear that counterfeits of the Richmond tokens are the most common forgeries of this series.

struck at Bristol by the King to pay his army and the pieces were passed into general circulation by the soldiers.

MANUFACTURE

Unfortunately virtually no Tokenhouse[11] records are known, and as a result the method of manufacture and chronological sequence of the various types and sub-types has to be worked out from the tokens themselves.

It seems certain that the tokens were made by passing a strip of copper (of approximately correct thickness) between two rollers containing dies. There were probably nine dies on each roller. Between each obverse die there was a small pellet engraved in the roller, and in one position there were three pellets in a row, one above the other. These pellets were a guide to the positioning of the punch that was used to cut the tokens from the strips. This method was also used in France, Spain and Austria during the seventeenth century.

The Rose Farthings were probably made from a rod of copper (of about the required diameter). This rod was grooved and a thinner rod of brass was inserted in the groove and hammered into place. The rod was then sliced and the resultant flans struck, probably by the hammered method.

It is probable that the majority of the counterfeit tokens were hammered. Very few appear to have been cast. The use of hinged dies would have speeded up production and enabled good centring. These pieces may have been struck and then punched out of strips or sheets of copper, or they may have been struck on circular copper flans. However many counterfeit tokens are badly off centre. As some of these are off centre on one side, but well centred on the other, it is probable that a fixed bottom die and a hand-held top die were used to strike some pieces from a strip or sheet of copper.

DESCRIPTION OF ISSUES

The proclamation of 19 May 1613 required the design of the tokens to be two sceptres crossed through a crown on one side (obverse) and a crowned

[11] The place of manufacture of these tokens was known as the "Tokenhouse". They were not produced at the Royal Mint, as they were a private issue.

harp on the other side (reverse) with a privy mark[12] which was to be periodically changed. The King's name and titles[13] were to be placed around these designs. It was also required that the tokens were to weigh not less than six grains[14].

The first issue by Lord Harington was a small (12 mm) token whose weight averaged five grains[15], but varied over the range 3.0 to 7.6 grains[16]; they were also tinned (this was probably to make them look more acceptable to the public who were used to a silver coinage). The low weight of these farthings is probably due to attempts to make them as close as possible to six grains (with an eye on the profits). A constant weight was not possible due to the crude method of manufacture (mainly due to variation in thickness of the metal strip).

These small farthings were extremely unpopular and probably only circulated for about two or three months before being replaced by the second Harington issue which was of a larger (15 mm) diameter and had an average weight of nine grains[17]. This weight continued to be used for all issues up until 1636.

The legends on all issues are in an abbreviated form, beginning on the obverse and continuing on the reverse. Both the Harington issues have the King's name (abbreviated as "IACO") between the sceptre heads on the obverse.

The Lennox farthings (diameter 16 mm) have "IACO" starting close to the right sceptre head. The Lennox sub-type with the large crowns was possibly issued when the Duke became Duke of Richmond and Lennox or after his death; if so, then this sub-type would belong to the Richmond series. The legends of the oval-shaped issues begin at the bottom left.

---

12 A total of 71 privy marks were used; these occur on the obverse, the reverse or both.

13 "JACOBVS DEI GRATIA MAGNÆ BRITANNIÆ FRANCIÆ ET HIBERNIÆ REX" (James, by the Grace of God, King of Great Britain, France and Ireland). This legend (as well as that on the Royal Farthing Tokens of Charles I) is the longest on the copper series until the 19th century, however these tokens are physically the smallest in the series!

14 ie 0.39 gram

15 0.32 gram

16 0.19 to 0.49 gram

17 0.58 gram

Like the Harington and Lennox issues, the Richmond farthings have single-arched crowns on both obverse and reverse. The oval-shaped tokens again have the legends starting at the bottom left and have single-arched crowns.

The Maltravers farthings have double-arched crowns on both sides and also an inner beaded circle between the legends and designs. This second circle led to their contemporary name of "double-rings". The pieces with a double arched crown on both sides but without the inner beaded circle, are considered to be an initial transitional issue by Lord Maltravers. The oval-shaped (18 mm x 16 mm) tokens again have the legends starting at the bottom left, but this time have double-arched crowns; however they do not have the inner beaded circles.

The Richmond and Maltravers round farthings are all 17 mm diameter. The Lennox and Maltravers oval farthings are 18 mm x 16 mm, while the Richmond oval farthings are 17 mm x 16 mm.

As mentioned previously, the "Rose Farthings" have a rose instead of the harp on the reverse. An insert of brass was intended to be in the flan, but was frequently omitted. The weight of these tokens ranged form 9 to 17 grains[18] with an average of 13 grains[19] and had diameters from 13 to 14 mm.

There were three main types of these "rose farthings":

Type 1 With **double**-arched crowns and sceptres **through** the crown
Type 2 With **single**-arched crowns and sceptres **through** the crown
Type 3 With **single**-arched crowns and sceptres **below** the crown

A transitional issue muling the last sub-type of Type 1 with Type 2 also exists.

ABUSES

The tokens were never popular with the public, partly because of their low intrinsic value (with resultant large profits for the makers - both patentees and forgers) and also because of various abuses by the patentees and certain members of the public.

[18] 0.58 to 1.10 gram
[19] 0.84 gram

An idea of the profits to be gained by the patentees is given in the following table which shows the quantities of tokens that could be made from one pound[20] of copper costing 1s 0d. (The cost of labour has not been taken into account.)

	Tokens	Each weighing (grain)	Total face value
	1166	6	24s 3½d
or	778	9	16s 2½d
or	538	13	11s 2½d

For a time the patentees issued 21 shillings in farthings for 20 shillings sterling and re-changed them at the same rate. In 1631, forgers were selling their counterfeit tokens at 24 to 26 shillings in farthings for 20 shillings sterling. As the purchase rate favoured the buyer of the farthings, large quantities were being used for commodities and as wages to workmen. In 1634, it was ordered that farthings should only be legal tender upto twopence[21].

When the patentees changed the design of the tokens, they generally declared that all except their new issue were not theirs and therefore they would not re-change them. The official reason for the various changes in design was to prevent counterfeiting.

COMMONWEALTH AND PROTECTORATE (1648/9 - 1660)

After the last issue of rose farthings in 1644, there were no further issues of royal farthing tokens during the reign of Charles I. Neither were any struck or issued during the period of the Commonwealth and the Protectorate (1648/9 - 1660). From 1648, various merchants and corporations issued tokens similar to the royal farthing tokens but with their own designs and legends and usually struck in copper or brass.

CHARLES II (1660 - 1684/5)

With the Restoration of King Charles II in May 1660, various proposals were put forward for reforming the currency. One such petition in November 1660 was from Henry Howard, son of Lord Maltravers, who requested a patent for 18 years for the manufacture and issue of royal

[20] 454 gram
[21] eight farthing tokens

farthing tokens as compensation for the loss of his father's patent; this petition was rejected.

In December 1660, Charles II granted a patent to Sir Thomas Armstrong for a term of 21 years to coin farthings for use in Ireland only. However strong opposition from the Duke of Ormond, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, meant that few, if any, circulated. These farthings had a diameter of 17 mm and were probably made to the 9 grain standard. Their design is similar to the Maltravers round farthings.

There were no further issues of royal farthing tokens. The next issue of English farthings was in 1672; this was a regal issue, struck by the Royal Mint, and contained close to their intrinsic value of copper.

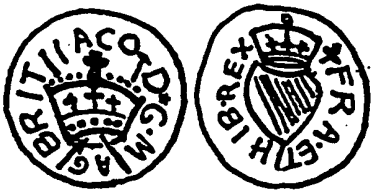
CATALOGUE

The following is a catalogue of the main types. The number of sub-types, and varieties, for each type are given, as well as the scarcity rating of the commonest variety of each type.

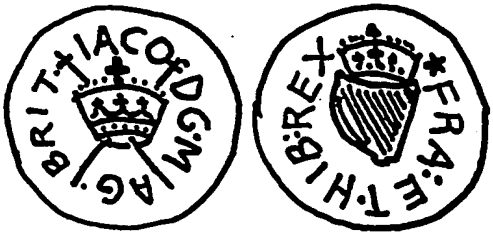
(table next page)

King	Type		Size (mm)	Nº of Sub-Types	Varieties	Scarcity[22]
James I	Harington (Small)		12	2	18	R
	Harington (Large)		15	1	9	S
	Lennox (Round)		16	4	57	C
	Lennox (Oval)		18 x 16	1	3	VS
Charles I	Richmond (Round)		17	7	112	C
	Transitional		17	1	2	VS
	Maltravers (Round)		17	3	38	C
	Richmond (Oval)		17 x 16	3	18	C
	Maltravers (Oval)		18 x 16	1	2	S
	Rose	Type 1		4	31	S
		Transitional		6	8	C
		Type 2		8	21	VC
		Type 3	13 - 14	5	7	S
Charles II	Armstrong		17	1	1	VR
(Total)	14			47	327	

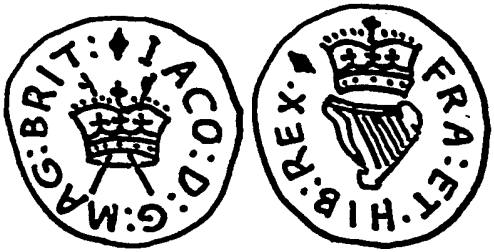
All drawings are hand-traced from illustrations in Pick (except for the Armstrong farthing of Charles II, which is taken from both Seaby and Spink) and are shown approximately twice actual size.



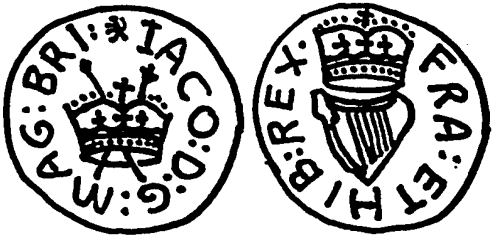
JAMES I : Harington small size (issued 1613); legend commences with "IACO" between sceptre heads [12 mm diameter, 5 grain (average)]



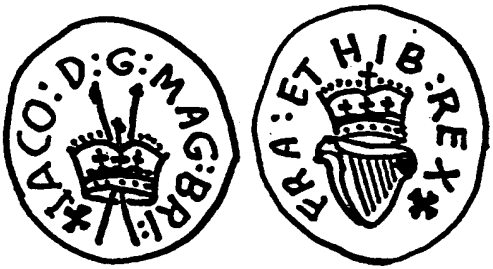
JAMES I : Harington large size (issued 1613 - 1614); legend commences with "IACO" between sceptre heads [15 mm diameter, 9 grain (average)]



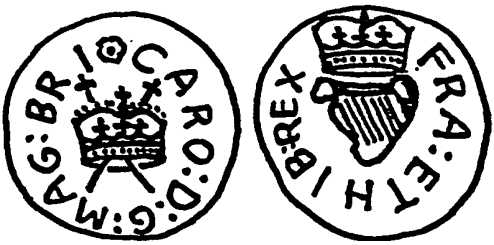
JAMES I : Lennox first type (issued 1614 - 1625); legend commences with "IACO" at right sceptre head; small crowns (5 jewels)



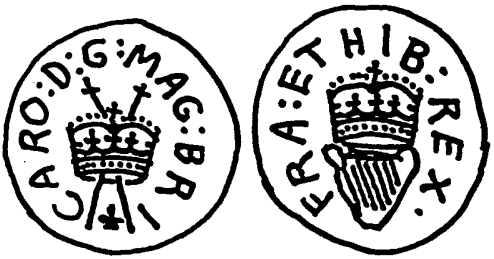
JAMES I : Lennox second type (issued 1625); legend commences with "IACO" at right sceptre head; large crowns (9 jewels)



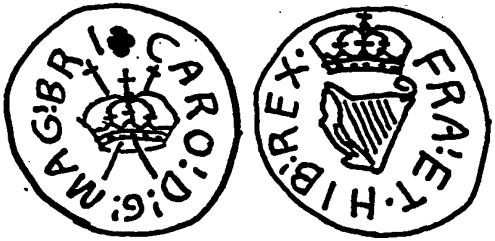
JAMES I : Lennox Oval Farthing (issued 1614 - 1625); legend commences with “IACO” at lower left; small crowns (5 jewels)



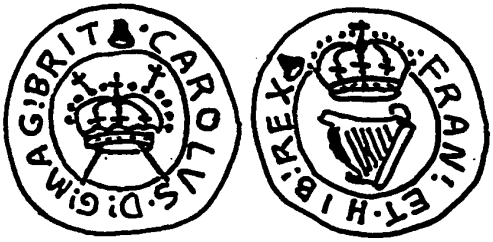
CHARLES I : Richmond round farthing (issued 1625 - 1634); legend commences with “CARO” at right sceptre head; large single arched crowns (9 jewels)



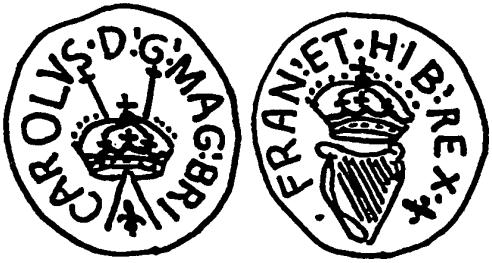
CHARLES I : Richmond Oval Farthing (issued 1625 - 1634); legend commences with “CARO” at lower left; large single arched crowns (9 jewels)



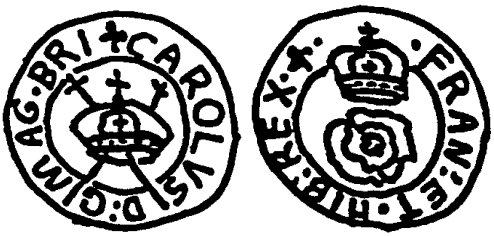
CHARLES I : Transitional Issue (*c.* 1634); legend commences with "CARO" at right sceptre head; double arched crowns but no inner circles



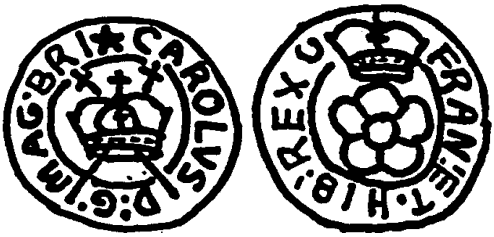
CHARLES I : Maltravers round farthing (issued 1634 - 1636); legend commences with "CAROLVS" at right sceptre head; double arched crowns and inner circles ("double rings")



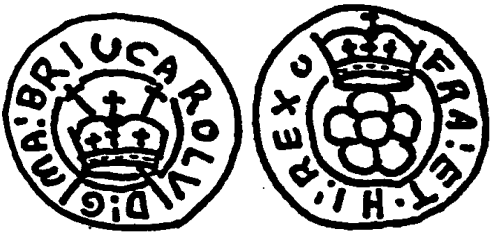
CHARLES I : Maltravers Oval Farthing (1634 - 1636); legend commences with "CAROLVS" at lower left; double arched crowns but no inner circles



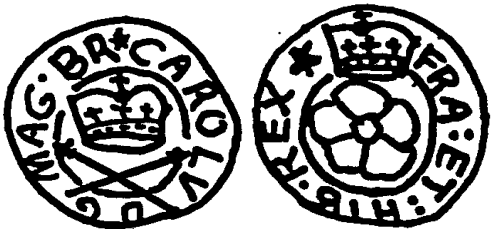
CHARLES I : Maltravers Rose Farthings Type 1 (issued 1636 - 1644); double arched crowns with sceptres through crown (obverse), double rose (reverse)



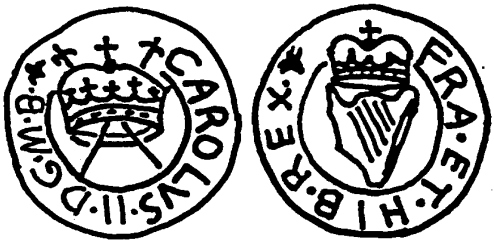
CHARLES I : Maltravers Rose Farthings Transitional Type (issued 1636 - 1644); double arched crown with sceptres through crown (obverse), single arched crown and single rose (reverse)



CHARLES I : Maltravers Rose Farthings Type 2 (issued 1636 - 1644); single arched crowns with sceptres through crown (obverse) and single rose (reverse)



CHARLES I : Maltravers Rose Farthings Type 3 (issued 1644); single arched crowns with sceptres crossed below crown (obverse) and single rose (reverse)



CHARLES II : Armstrong (issued 1660); single arched crowns, legend commences with "CAROLVS II" at right sceptre head.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Dowle, A & Finn, P - *"The Guide Book to the Coinage of Ireland"*, 1969

Montagu, H - *"Copper, Tin & Bronze Coinage of England"*, 2nd Ed, 1893

Peck, C W - *"English Copper, Tin and Bronze Coins in the British Museum, 1558 - 1958"*, 1960

Seaby, P - *"Seaby's Standard Catalogue, Part 3 Coins & Tokens of Ireland"*, 1970

Seaby, P & Bussell, M - *"British Tokens and Their Values"*, 1970

A SMALL MEDAL FOR THE BATTLE OF LA HOGUE

by Tom May, NAV 803

This attractive little medal (22mm diameter), not much larger than our old 2c piece, shows a remarkable degree of detail for its period. It was struck by screw-press to commemorate the sea Battle of La Hogue, between the combined English-Dutch Fleets of William III and that of Louis XIV off Holland on 29 May 1692.

The Obverse depicts the official portrait of William III surrounded by his titles. A pattern die intended for the farthing was used to produce this.

The Reverse depicts the French Flagship, Le Soleil Royal, in flames after the battle surrounded by the legend "Ignibus Impar" (unequal to fire). The left edge shows evidence of a die chip, not unusual in those early days of screw-press use.

This medal is attributed to Norbert Roettier, then employed by the Royal Mint. He did not sign the work, but sometimes engraved a small rock below his work as a "rebus". The Dutch word for rock approximates his surname - "Roettier".

Louis XIV reigned in France between 1643 and 1715, the longest of any European Monarch. He built up the power of France to make her paramount in Europe on land and sea. However his revocation of the Edict

of Nantes (1685) which formerly guaranteed religious freedom in France, heightened conflict with Protestant countries thereafter.

With the displacement of Catholic James II from the English throne in 1688 by Protestants William III & Mary (James' daughter), Louis committed France to reverse the situation. He was determined to use his considerable sea power to effect this aim.

In the naval battle off Beachy Head, Louis' fleet under Admiral de Tourville defeated an inferior number of English ships under Admiral Torrington in 1690. Meanwhile, James was fighting a losing battle in Ireland against William's forces, in a vain attempt to regain his throne. He was finally defeated at the Battle of the Boyne (1691) and fled to France.

The following year, Louis used his control of the channel to sponsor an invasion of England by a re-equipped army of James II. He ordered his navy to fend off any interference with the troop transports by the combined English and Dutch fleets.

The French Admiral de Tourville accordingly was ordered to engage an English/Dutch Fleet under Admiral Russel off the port of Barfleur, even though he was outnumbered 44 to 90. The French at first did surprisingly well against these unfavourable odds and held off the opposing fleet until nightfall, though heavy casualties were sustained on both sides.

The next day however saw the British fleet gain ascendancy off Cape La Hogue, trapping 15 of the best French ships-of-the line against the shore. The rest of them escaped in a badly battered condition. Among the casualties was Admiral de Tourville's Flagship "Le Soleil Royal", which was burnt and sunk.

This point in the battle is depicted on the reverse of the little medal. The inscription thereon - "Ignibus Impar" (unequal to fire) is a satirical version of Louis XIV's motto on the stern of the Flagship - "Nec Pluribus Impar" (equal to many). The great flagship is shown with a pall of smoke around the stern that is adorned with a huge sun - Louis' emblem.

Though the Battle of La Hogue was not so decisive a victory as British and Dutch contemporary propaganda proclaimed, it signalled the end of French naval supremacy in the Channel. This ultimately put paid to James' hopes of invading England. His hope of a mass desertion by English sailors to

him was not realised during the battle. Thereafter he left further attempts at Stuart restoration to his descendants.

The allied victors of this sea battle issued several "La Hogue" medals as part of the celebration of what they saw as a major victory against their mutual enemy, France. This is the smallest of the medals, and the only one attributed to Norbert Roettier.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Carson, R.A.G. (Ed) - *"Mints Dies & Currency"*

Hawkins, E. - *"Medallic Illustrations of British History"*

Miller, J. - *"William & Mary"*

MEDALETS OF COUNTRY VICTORIA

by Peter Wall, NAV 323

[This paper, delivered at the NAV June 1997 meeting on 20 June 1997, is based on Peter Wall's exhibit by the same title at the VCNS Convention held in March 1997 in Camperdown]

There have not been many talks at the NAV on the subject of medalets, and none on those specifically issued for country Victoria. The delivery of this paper in June 1997 coincided with the date of the Centenary of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee, or 60 years of reign, on 22 June 1897. Interestingly, her Golden Jubilee had been celebrated on 21 June 1887. For both occasions, medalets were issued for places in country Victoria.

The issue of medalets, usually for an occasion celebrated on a particular day or for some event of limited duration, can be divided into three broad categories (1) Australia wide, (2) State capital and suburban, and (3) Country town/shire/borough (a borough, I believe, covers only the area about one mile radius from a Town Hall. But what exactly constituted a Shire in the past, or indeed now since the recent amalgamations, I am unable to say). The book "Australian Commemorative Medals & Medalets from 1788" by Mr. Les Carlisle, has proved extremely useful to me in gathering information for this paper. The book came out in 1983. I thought I would wait for the second edition, but alas, I am still waiting. Even so, the book makes a landmark contribution to the study of that area of Australian numismatics.

Firstly, a medalet is a small medal, generally around 31 mm (penny size) in diameter, or less. Prior to 1901, medalets were often pierced near the edge with a small ring inserted allowing them to be worn suspended by a ribbon. Some had a plain or ornamental loop soldered to the edge. A modification occurred in 1901 when the flan of the medalet was designed with a protruding lug that could be pierced for ring and ribbon suspension. By 1911, this became a standard form of the medalet, and it was mainly struck in gilded bronze for presentation to school children, but it also is found in copper, silvered bronze, brass, white metal, aluminium, silver, and occasionally gold.

Medalets came into vogue in Australia with International Exhibitions of the period 1879 to 1881, held in Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide and Perth. The earliest Victorian country medalet in the exhibit is dated 1886. It was issued for the Bendigo Juvenile & Industrial Exhibition (Carlisle 1886/7). The year of Queen Victoria's Golden Jubilee, 1887, saw the medalet become a popular and distinctive numismatic item. In that year, many shires, municipalities, and cities issued commemorative medalets, most of which were struck by Stokes & Martin, the Melbourne medallists, 1873-1893 (Thomas Stokes was the maker of tradesmen's tokens, from 1857 to 1873, and medalets from 1893 to 1962 under the name Stokes & Sons). These frequently have the names of civic dignitaries, and often a depiction of the Town Hall or Shire Hall on the reverse side (see Ararat (Carlisle 1887/?)). The Geelong Jubilee Juvenile & Industrial Exhibition of 1887 oval silver medalet, was struck by E. A. Altmann, jeweller and engraver of Melbourne. The 1887 Portland medalet (Carlisle 1887/86) bears a representation of the Town Hall and has the name of the Mayor W. T. Pile Esq. This gentleman was a forebear of Mr. Len Pile, a late member of this Association. I remember Len Pile proudly pointing out a paining of the Portland Town Hall to me in his home in Ballarat when I visited him on a number of occasions.

In the early 1890s, it was not uncommon to find a threepence or sixpence coin of the realm used as the planchet for a small medalet. This was the case for the Ballarat Juvenile & Industrial Exhibition of 1890-91, where a sixpence coin has been overstruck (Carlisle 1890-1/4). Note the miniature railway in the foreground, on the reverse of this 20 mm diameter medalet. Due to the kind assistance of the President of the Warrnambool & District Historical Society, I have been able to find out additional details concerning the medalet issued for the Warrnambool Industrial & Arts Exhibition of 1896 (Carlisle 1896/4).

The Society's President, Mr. Les O'Callaghan, informs me that the Exhibition was held from 17 December 1896 to 3 March 1897, and was situated in a very central portion of the town, at the corner of Timor and Liebig streets, and embraced a large area, of which the assembly room of the Mechanic's Institute, the Art Gallery, and the public portion of the Town Hall, with its fine stage, and a large meeting room formed highly useful adjuncts. The Exhibition's principal façade faced Timor Street, fronting the Town Council offices, and the side of the Town Hall, the main entrance then being in Liebig Street. The frontage extended 194 feet. In 1897, the Diamond Jubilee year of Queen Victoria's reign, we see the next popular outpouring of medalets, especially in the colony of Victoria (see for example Charlton (Carlisle 1897/20), and Cranbourne (Carlisle 1897/51)). Unholed pieces were mainly intended for presentation to officials, including some in gold and silver (see Eaglehawk (Carlisle 1897/31)). Australia's participation in the British Boer War of 1899-1900 resulted in a large issue of mainly 23 mm diameter patriotic medalets. These are mostly of a general nature, but the issue for Warracknabeal (Carlisle 1900/5) in country Victoria, is a rare exception. The obverse has the portrait of Colonel Baden Powell, defender of Mafeking, and later the founder of the Boy Scouts Association. Mafeking was relieved on 16 May 1900, after a siege of 215 days.

The nationalistic fervour generated by the Federation of the Australian colonies on 1 January 1901, led to a large issue of both round and shield-shaped medalets in that year. In 1902, hart-shaped medalets were issued for the Coronation of King Edward VII and Alexandra (see Ballarat (Carlisle 1902/2)).

This event was overshadowed by the illness of the King, causing the date of the Coronation intended for 26 June to be postponed until 9 August. Churches in Victoria around this time were beginning to celebrate their Jubilees. One of these was St Paul', Church of England, Geelong, which struck a small brass medalet (Carlisle 1904/6) to mark the Jubilee, 1854-1904, in May of that year.

The Coronation of King George V and Mary in 1911 saw another extensive issue of celebratory medalets, most being Commonwealth or State initiatives. A few Shires in country Victoria issued distinctive medalets for the occasion, to be presented locally. One of these was the Shire of Karkarooc in far Northwest, Hopetoun being its principal town. The name of the Shire President is recorded for posterity (Carlisle 1911/10). Under the Acts of Parliament that established new councils in Victoria recently, the Shire of Karkarooc, for example, was abolished. As published in the Government Gazette on 20 January 1995, the Yarriambiack Shire Council became the successor in law to it. It is interesting perhaps to note that there was a railway station named Turriff, 419 kilometres from Melbourne on the Mildura line. It was the stop before Speed.

During the Great War of 1914-1918, many medalets were again struck, largely for distribution to schoolchildren. Some of course were struck to raise funds for the war effort. One of these was issued by the town of Camperdown in the Western district for the occasion of "Our Heroes Day, 1 September 1917". These bronze medalets are cruciform in shape (Carlisle 1917/?). Mrs Norma Wynd of the Camperdown and District Historical Society has been most helpful in supplying me with details of this event which occurred 80 years ago, one detail being that the event raised over £2,000. If considered in term of 2000 gold sovereigns, the amount raised in 1917 would equate to approximately $230,000 in today's

money when a sovereign is worth about $115 for its gold content. Eight weeks later, on 2 November 1917, Geelong held a similar event but called it Gala Day. A medalet was issued for the occasion (Carlisle 1917/3). I was interested to learn that Gala Day is still held in Geelong each year on the first Friday in November. It would be nice to know how much money the 1917 Geelong Gala Day raised!

The visit of HRH the Prince of Wales (the future King Edward VIII) to Australia in 1920 was the occasion for more civic and medallic commemoration. Some Western district towns, namely Geelong (Carlisle 1920/6) and Colac (Carlisle 1920/8) issued distinctive medalets in June 1920, for distribution to schoolchildren and for sale to the general public. As well, Bendigo issued a medalet for the visit by the Prince of Wales to that city (Carlisle 1920/9).

In 1934, the Centenary of the first permanent white settlement in Victoria, at Portland, was marked by the issue of a medalet featuring pioneer Edward Henty on the obverse (Carlisle 1920/6). The last big occasion of the issuing of the traditional medalet in Victoria, was for the Coronation of HM Queen Elizabeth II in June 1953. Regional authorities throughout the State, such as cities, shires and boroughs all participated. Interestingly, many of these issues for regional and metropolitan Victoria were struck by the Sydney firm of Amor. These include the example for distribution to schoolchildren within the Shire of Kara Kara (see St Arnaud (Carlisle 1953/23)).

The Lord Mayor's Country (Mallee) Children's Holiday Camp at Portsea had, since 1948, been considered an occasion for the striking of an attractive medalet to be given to each child as a worthy memento of their participation. The standard reverse features the steam locomotive that hauled the famous "Spirit of Progress" train.

The name of the incumbent Lord Mayor of Melbourne is in bold letters above. This year marks the 60th anniversary of the introduction of Victoria's most famous steam hauled express, the "Spirit of Progress". Only four of the named S-class locomotives were built, with the "Edward Henty" making its streamlined trial run on 17 November 1937. The blue painted locos were the talk of their day. Only a few carriages and luggage vans remain today.

Alas, the era of the traditional, generally attractive medalet has ended, as few have been issued since 1970. The medalet was an attractive and tangible record of its time. A time capsule in miniature evoking the whole atmosphere and essence of the people and events its designers chose, and the subject matter that attracted them. It is true that some people regarded the medalets as no more than a cheap gift to educate the masses, or as a low-cost token to induce loyalty to God, King and Country. But to others, it is a reminder of a bygone era, of a simpler time, of a time of civic pride and of sharing, and of community celebration. That is how the humble medalet is now regarded by many, and by me especially!

Now for some concluding (and hopefully thought-provoking) observations:

- We are fortunate to have had such world-class makers of medalets in Australia, names such as Stokes, Amor, K. G. Luke, Altmann, Brim, Hafner.
- It is an unfortunate fact that many of the medalets seem prone to oxidisation (indeed, this is a problem also with a lot of tradesmen's tokens struck by Thomas Stokes). Perhaps because they were distributed gratis, lots were not properly cared for and have become spotted and tarnished.
- The entire series of medalets offer an insight into the method of die-engraving and minting method that one rarely sees on officially sanctioned coins. Whilst the standard is generally quite high, one is often able to observe considerable die variation within the same type, and short cuts taken by a medallist, particularly Amor's 1953 Coronation issues for places in Victoria.
- There are many secrets yet to be unlocked concerning medalets issued in Australia. Gradually uncovering those secrets, particularly in relation to those medalets issued for country Victoria, could well throw light on another area of Victorian numismatics, namely the tradesmen's tokens and their issuers, an area with many "black holes".
- I hope this paper will stimulate others to give talks (or write papers) on some events for which medals and medalets were struck. For example, the Centenaries of the Boer War and of the Australian Federation are not far off; Even the Prince of Wales' visit to Australia in 1920, to name a few. This Association could even consider commissioning papers on specific Australian-related subjects of general interest.
- As I said earlier, June 1997 marks the centenary of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee, and I have prepared a small memento for tonight's occasion (20 June 1997). This is taken from the words on a marble tablet erected exactly 100 years ago, and placed beside the front door of the Dunolly Town Hall. The wording is quaint and the Town Hall is a gem.

THE AUTOMOBILE DOLLAR - KWEICHOW PROVINCE COINAGE

by Ray Jewell, NAV 267

[This paper was taken from a talk delivered by the late Ray Jewell about 1968. Len Henderson has added a few lines to it to bring it up to date]

Although Kweichow had no mint of its own prior to 1939, at least one coin is attributed to that Province. (it should be noted that part of the Central Mint was shifted to Kweichow as a war time emergency measure.)

The coin in question is one of the most popular and sought after of all modern coins, the seldom seen Automobile Dollar.

Illustration courtesy of Australian Coin Auctions (Downie's)

It is particularly interesting to note that this was the only coin issued to that date that bore as its central motif a car, this in itself being most interesting considering that we live in an automobile age.

The denomination of the coin is One Dollar.

The coin was struck by order of Governor Chow Hsi-Chen. And one of the peculiarities of the coin must be noticed. The blades of grass beneath the car are so arranged as to inconspicuously spell out the Chinese characters which translated are "Si Chen", this being the Governor's name.

The coin was struck to commemorate the opening of the first motor road in the Province of Kweichow, and remember this was the year 1928. The date on the coin is the 17th year. (This being the 17th year of the Republic - the second republic started in 1911).

Although inscribed Kweichow the coin was almost certainly struck at Chentu as in the centre it bears the crest displayed on most issues of that origin.

Around this centre crest are four characters which translated mean Kweichow Silver Coin. The inner circle layout is surrounded by a knotted circle. Above appear the Chinese characters that translated mean... 17th Year of the Republic of China. Below ... One Yuan.

The reverse depicts a closed motor car of the early twenties. This is surrounded by a pearled ring. Above, in Chinese - Made by the Kweichow Government. To the right and left are the same rosettes as found on the obverse. In the outer circle below are the characters meaning... 7 Mace, 2 Candareens.

For the specialist collector there are variations to be found. One finds variety in the shape of the radiator, the spare tyre, the fenders, the Chinese characters and the grass.

For the average collector I have only one word of advice... If you do obtain a copy be well satisfied and do not look for variations.

Since those days Macau and the Isle of Man have issued coins featuring motor cars; these have been for racing events.

The Chinese dollar (Yuan) for Kweichow (also known as Kneichon) at the time of issue of the piece had no roads nor did it even have railways. It was also beyond the navigable limits of the rivers, being encircled by high mountain ranges. Nonetheless the area was rich in coal and minerals lying dormant. The 800 mile trade route known as the Burma Road extended from Yunnan-Fir to Bhamo and terminated in the adjoining province of Yunnan. The building of a new road linking the Burma Road with the wartime capital of Chunking was necessary for political and economic reasons. It was considered a great feat of engineering in the war against Japan. The 'omnibuses' travelling the Burma Road at this time were really converted Chevrolet trucks adapted for the purpose and it is possible that the motor car shown on the 1928 Piece was a car of this make.

COMMEMORATIVES FOR THE WORLD FLIGHT OF THE GRAF ZEPPELIN

by Tom May, NAV 803

There were only two denominations issued during a single year - 1930:

3 Reichsmarks - 15 gms, .500 Ag - mintage 1,000,000
5 Reichsmarks - 25 gms, .500 Ag - mintage 400,000

Both were produced at five mints - Berlin, Munich, Muldenhutten, Stuttgart and Hamburg.

Obverse: The Graf Zeppelin superimposed on the Globe.
Reverse: The stylised German Eagle.

Obverse and Reverse of 5 Reichsmarks Commemorative (3 Reichsmarks are the same)

In spite of the comparatively small mintage, a disproportionate number should have survived as keepsakes. However the lean depression years that followed, combined with the patriotic "meltings" of silver during WWII, have no doubt limited coin survival.

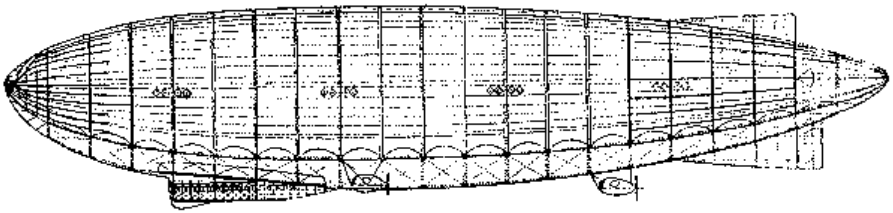
After German defeat in WWI, disastrous inflation by 1923 brought ruin to many. Effective action by the Weimar Republic, however, gradually brought the economy back into some sort of order. The worthless German Mark was replaced with a solidly based Reichsmark. The larger denominations reappeared in .500 silver, a series of commemoratives for

historical events and people. Air Transport was represented by depicting the Airship Graf Zeppelin's world circumnavigation - a high point in this form of commercial air travel.

The Zeppelin name alone evokes the memory of the man most responsible for developing the lighter-than-air craft.

Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin (1838-1917) was a German professional soldier who fought in both the American Civil War and the Franco-Prussian war. It was the use of observation balloons in these conflicts that inspired him to develop the idea into an "airship" on his retirement from the army in 1891. He was greatly assisted in his endeavours by an enthusiastic German public subscribing 6 million Marks for a company to build and operate commercial airships.

After much refinement, a typical "Zeppelin" was a cigar-shaped vessel some 200 metres long with a frame of wood or aluminium covered with fabric. Giant gasbags containing hydrogen were suspended within, with a control car positioned forward and below for the crew. As development proceeded, more elaborate passenger and cargo compartments were positioned aft of this. Power was provided by petrol or diesel engines set out in pods.



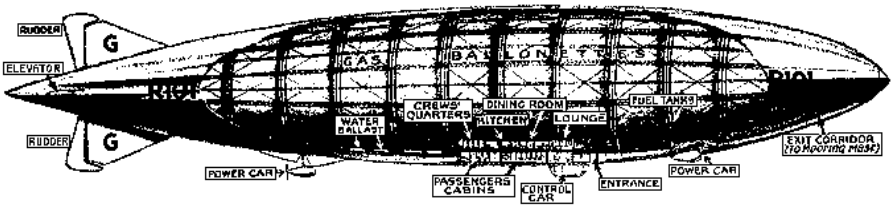
Schematic view of typical developed airship

By 1912 regular passenger and freight Airship flights extended throughout Europe, at a time when the aeroplane was hard-pressed to carry two people into the air. By the time WWI caused the cession of civil operations, not a single passenger was lost out of the thousands carried by then - a remarkable record.

However development was not without problems. Even by 1914, numerous setbacks caused by the construction and size of the airship had to be overcome. Overshadowing all else was the effect of weather conditions on such a large air vehicle - this indeed was the key to its future.

WWI gave the Count's name an evil ring with Zeppelin raids on London and Paris - heralding a new weapon of war. However, apart for the initial "scare" value, the Zeppelin proved to be more a danger to its crew than to its intended victims. When the art of setting fire to the hydrogen contents of the raider was perfected by fighters and anti-aircraft guns, its days were numbered as a war weapon.

After WWI, Britain, France, America, and later a slowly recovering Germany, showed much enthusiasm for the long-range airship. It promised more chance of success in times of post war austerity, than the relatively short-ranged aircraft. By the late 20's airships were regularly carrying loads better than 10 tons at 80 mph on the Atlantic route from Europe to the Americas.



Schematic view of R101, typical Airship of the late 20's

One of the most successful of these was the German LZ127, appropriately named Graf Zeppelin. It was 775 ft (255 m) long, 100 ft (35 m) wide, carrying a load of 12 tons at an average of 80 mph. Size can be judged when it is realised these dimensions are not far short of the liner QE II. Completed in July 1928, the first trial Atlantic crossing was made in October 1928 - It took 112 hrs over and 71 hrs back (with a tailwind).

Enlargement of Obverse of coin to show detail of the Graf Zeppelin

After further proving flights, the American publishing tycoon William Randolph Hearst sponsored the airship's circumnavigation of the globe, starting from America. The Graf Zeppelin departed Lakehurst, NJ under the command of the veteran Capt Ekner in August 1929. On board were 20 passengers, including William R. Hearst and the Australian-born explorer

Sir H. Wilkins. The route followed took it to Frederickshafen, Tokyo, and completed the journey at Los Angeles - a distance of 21,150 miles with a flying time of 12 days 13 hrs.

Accommodation, while not up to ocean liner standard, was quite comfortable. Passengers could eat meals in a compact dining-room, and promenade around the "gallery" to view passing countryside below before retiring to a snug cabin.

Many commemorative "souvenirs" appeared for this landmark in world travel - postage stamps and the 3 and 5 RM coins among them. This proved to be a high point in airship history, however, as there were soon ominous signs for the future.

Shortly after this world trip the British R101 crashed in a thunderstorm on its way to India, with heavy loss of life. The Americans lost three large military airships mainly as a result of bad weather, before completing plans for a regular passenger service. The final blow was the loss of the giant German "Hindenburg" on 6 May 1937. This dramatic event was captured on the famous Newsreel, so epitomises what most people remember about the airship era. This disaster, coupled with the competition from the aeroplane as a means of long-distance travel at last, pushed the large commercial airship from the scene thereafter.

Numerous, largely unsuccessful attempts have been made to reintroduce transport airships. So far only small "Blimps" (a miniature form of airship) have continued in limited use for reconnaissance and advertising purposes.

After the glamorous world tour, Graf Zeppelin settled down on its most successful route - across the Atlantic to South America, averaging four days for a crossing. Finally decommissioned only when the Hindenburg's loss gave the Germans doubts about further economical operations, 9,543 passengers and 40,000 tons of freight were safely carried during its service. One of the last long unscheduled flights was to the Chicago World Fair, in 1933.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Deighton, L. - *"Airshipwreck"*

Hartcup, G. - *"Achievement of the Airship"*

Rimell, R. L. - *"Zeppelin"*

Articles in contemporary Magazines - *"The Aeroplane"* & *"Flight"* (U.K.)

COOL, CALM, AND NOT OFTEN COLLECTED

by Gillian F. Davis, NAV 913

That means Iceland, of course. Where else?

From the collector's point of view, Iceland is one of those neat, manageable units where it is not impossible to acquire everything there is, except for one or two of the higher value notes. Also, the currency is well made and designed, can usually be found in good condition, and the country's unique history adds to the interest.

Something needs to be said about this history because its symbols appear on the currency. The first mention of what could have been Iceland came between 400 and 300 BC when the Roman traveller Pytheas claimed there was land out there in the northern oceans, and he named the half-imaginary place Ultima Thule, which for many centuries meant the most northerly land in the world; but as Pytheas said the corn did not ripen very well, he may have only found the Orkneys, as there was no corn in Iceland then.

Some Irish monks found the place and wrote of it about 700 AD, but did not stay. The country was eventually settled from approximately the year 800 AD by a mixed bunch of independent Vikings and/or farmers, mostly from the western coast of Norway, plus a few Celts from the north of Ireland and Scotland. In addition, a number of Irish monks shared the southern part of the country in the early days but, one assumes, did not contribute to the largely Scandinavian genetic inheritance. These early settlers reported favourably about the country, where the climate was warmer than it is today, so more people came, official settlement dating from 874.

Iceland was an independent republic from the start, owing allegiance to no one. Perhaps the settlers were driven from their homes because of food shortages, perhaps because of fights and feuds back in Norway, but once in Iceland they were forced to devote themselves full time to scratching a living. After a couple of generations all the choicest areas of the island had been settled by self-sufficient little clans, ruled in a rough and ready kind of patriarchy by family chieftains, who decided that the time had come to make the arrangement formal.

The chieftains prepared for the formation of a national assembly by sending a man named Ulfljotur, already skilled in law, to Norway to discover more detail about how things actually worked. He studied there for three years, and upon his return his brother was appointed to find a suitable place for the assembly to meet. He picked the spot now known as Thingvellir, one of the main tourist attractions in Iceland as it is not too far from the capital Reykjavik. But in those days there were no villages, and the place was chosen because everyone could (eventually) reach it; there was a natural amphitheatre of volcanic rock so that speakers could stand on a rocky ledge and be heard across the valley; and there were flat areas and running water for camping.

So the 'Thing', or Parliament, met annually. It was named the Althing, meaning the Thing for all - the general assembly. Family clans assembled in late summer, new laws were announced (the ministers, having learned the rules by heart, declaimed them from their rocky outposts) and all the heads of clans voted. Legal disputes were settled, marriages were planned, and everyone had a good time for about a fortnight. This is the oldest parliament in the world.

The people met on the same meadows until 1798 when the Thing moved to Reykjavik, its illustrious history now hidden in a large building, like everyone else's.

One of the most famous laws passed at Thingvellir ('Thing Valley') was, in 1000, the adoption of Christianity by public vote. It is true that the King of Norway, Olav, was leaning on them more than somewhat, but at least the decision was taken before Olav actually did anything. One of the law givers owned land around a huge waterfall, or Foss. When he returned home after the historic session he took all the family idols and threw them down the waterfall, which is still called Godafoss.

In 1262 the island came under Norwegian sovereignty. There was no real war, they simply got an offer they could not refuse. Then in 1384 Norway and Denmark were united so it became nominally Danish, an arrangement which continued until 1918 when Iceland was declared a virtually independent kingdom in union with Denmark, and in 1944 it became totally independent.

Iceland has issued its own coins since 1926 (before that, Danish currency circulated). The monetary system is simple: 100 aurar = 1 krona.

Originally there was some parity with the Danish krone, but now an Icelandic krona equals two cents Australian, about a tenth of the Danish level. Revaluation in 1981 made 100 old kronor equal to one new krona. Theoretically, coins are for 5, 10 and 50 aurar, and 1, 5, 10 and 50 krona, but in fact the lower values seem to have disappeared - not surprisingly when you consider that even 50 aurar is only one cent Australian. Minting has been undertaken by London, Copenhagen, sometimes Ottawa, and on one occasion (the beautiful 1000 years commemoration of the Althing in 1930) the State Mint of Dresden. Commemorative coins, which are few, have celebrated events such as 1000 years of the Althing, the 1000th and 1100th anniversaries of the first settlement, and the sesquicentennial of Jon Sigurdsson. The modern copper-nickel issues feature the fish, which are Iceland's main livelihood (I am not aware of any plans to depict tourists, the second source of income).

Paper money was first issued in 1885, bearing the portrait of the Danish king. Since independence, portraits of famous Icelanders have replaced royalty, and most of the notes include vignettes or backgrounds showing the life or the scenery of the country (fig. 1 and 2).

Figure 1: Obverse of current 500 Kronur note (P 51) depicting J. Sigurdsson

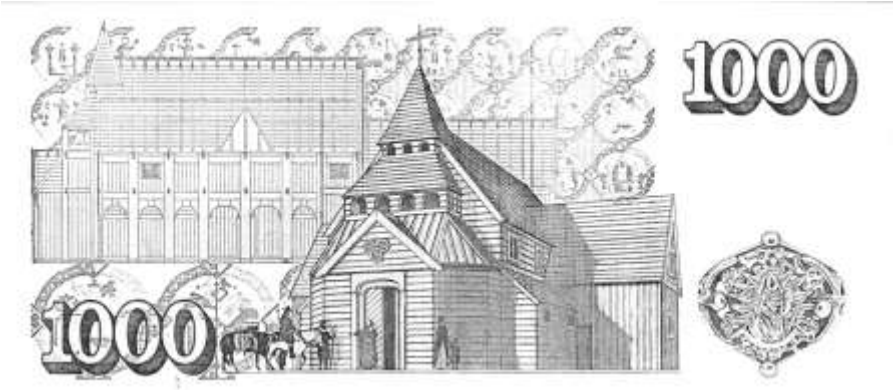


Figure 2: Reverse of current 1000 Kronur note (P 52)

They are both charming and dignified, like the Icelanders themselves.

In the early days of settlement, currency was rarely needed, as the farms were reasonably self-supporting and local trade was mainly through bartering. However, it was necessary to import items such as timber for building, or fabric. The early inhabitants swooped with cries of joy on driftwood, and good pieces were used and re-used, for native timber was almost absent; but they did need a certain amount of currency, and like many European peoples at the time, used whatever came to hand - English, German, or Scandinavian. At the beginning of this century, three Roman antoniniani dating from 270 - 305 were found in south east Iceland: two were in ruins from the settlement period (800 - 1000) and the third was out in the open country. Later, a long way off, a fourth coin was found. All were barely worn and easily identifiable, the only puzzle being their provenance.

They would not have been used as currency by the early settlers, yet two were from a building. Maybe someone found them when he was exploring the country and kept them as a curiosity? Nobody knows. It could be that the Romans did find the place, and accounts do exist of people being driven onto Iceland on the way from Scotland to Norway - but in the third century? We will probably never know.

Much of our knowledge of hammered coins in Europe has come from hoards, but in Iceland only one actual hoard has been found to date - 360 pennies from the XIth century (figure 1) which are on display in the National Museum in Reykjavik. Exactly half of them are English, in

reasonably good condition, and it is easy to identify issues of Aethelred II (978 - 1016) small cross type and crux type, which seem to be in the majority of the English portion of the hoard. The others are from Germany, France, and several other European countries, and most of these are hard to identify and very poor in quality compared with the English issues, so it could well be that the depositor was a Viking from England, probably a trader who lost it, and his life too, in one of the numerous volcanic eruptions.

Figure 3: Hoard of English Pennies in the National Museum in Reykjavik

Unfortunately it is unlikely that there will be any more hoards, for there were never any rich merchants or warlords who might have had a reason to hide large amounts of money, and the volcanic nature of the country would tend to bury hoards rather than expose them - the country is growing by about 1 cm annually, not counting new islands like Surtsey. Iceland has a major eruption every five years on the average, and minor ones all the time. The country straddles the American and European tectonic plates, and although the SW to NE axis is the mobile one (technically half the country is in America, half in Europe) steam, lava, fiery red stones or whatever can shoot out of anything at any time. They do not even need a mountain to have a volcanic eruption, as the majority of them comes from fissures which simply open up and breathe fire. One fifth of the country is lava

fields, another fifth is glaciers, and very often the two extremes nestle cosily together. No wonder they call it the Land of Fire and Ice!

As a place to visit, I recommend Iceland wholeheartedly. The summer is very short, but beautiful; the air and the water are clear, pure, bracing; there is something new and unique to see and do every day; the food is excellent. And most of all - the people. They tend to be tall, slim and fair, quietly spoken and friendly. Their fascinating but difficult language has been untouched since early settlement, and is in fact what we of British extraction would still be speaking if it were not for the Norman Conquest and a few centuries of mixing with other Europeans. Their tongue-twisting words are spoken softly, lispingly, with a lilt like that of the Scottish; however, almost everyone speaks English and is only too pleased to do so.

Go if you can; and have a think about collecting the coins anyway.

SIGNATURES ON AUSTRALIAN BANKNOTES

by Gary Patten, Morwell Numismatic Society

[This paper was delivered at the Morwell Numismatic Society Christmas 1996 meeting]

1. PRE DECIMAL

We are about to see a new signature on Australian notes, that of I. J. MacFarlane signing as Governor of the Reserve Bank, and as such perhaps it is timely to reflect on some of the more interesting changes that have occurred on our notes over the years.

Since the first Commonwealth notes were introduced in 1913, there have been 25 different signatures with 23 different combinations and varying titles, which today consist of reproductions of the signatures of the Governor, Reserve Bank of Australia and the Secretary to the Treasury. This equates to a change of signature approximately once every three and a half years.

Retirement is the natural cause of a change of one of the signatories but other factors have influenced unexpected change such as political decisions, temporary positions, changes of title, and death in office. A further important part of the signature/title/legal tender clause panel is the printing methods used.

Even in these enlightened times, the Reserve Bank does not give away all its secrets and we are still sometimes left wondering why some things are done the way they are. Mick Vort Ronald's excellent books "Australian Banknotes"[22] and "Australian Decimal Banknotes"[23] provide many of the answers but still we are let guessing at some of them.

The first signature combination of Collins-Allen type was printed in the same manner (intaglio) and colour as the main design elements of the notes. This method was continued with the first change (Cerutty-Collins).

---

[22] Vort Ronald, M.P. Australian Banknotes, Second Edition, Adelaide, 1983

[23] Vort Ronald, M.P. Australian Decimal Banknotes, First Edition, Adelaide 1985

Not until the first major design change in 1924/25 do we see something interesting happening. The signature panel on the 10/-, £1 and some of the £5 are printed in the main colour of the note but some of those of the £5 and £10 are printed in black. No explanation is offered for these differences.

Then of course there was the economy of plate making around 1927/28 that saw £5 notes with two different titles for James Kell signing as Chairman of Directors, Note Issue Department, Commonwealth Bank of Australia or as Governor, Commonwealth Bank of Australia.

When the George VI series appeared in the late 1930's, once again the signature panel was produced the same colour as the respective note's main intaglio print (including the £10 this time). Then with the first signature change in the early 1940's the signature panels on all denominations changed to black. This black print was probably produced at the same time as the serial numbers as pre-decimal error notes exist with missing serials *and* signatures.

Why, you might ask, did the note issuing authorities engrave the signatures for the first issue of a new series of notes and then revert to using the letterpress method for subsequent changes? In the early days of note printing, it took many months and considerable expense to generate new intaglio plates. Whilst it was practicable to include signatures in the original intaglio plates, subsequent changes were quicker and cheaper by using the following means. The intaglio signatures were removed from the plates and that section left blank. The signatures (and title panel if necessary) could then be printed separately using a cheaper and easier to alter printing method. This is no longer a problem and will be discussed later.

By the time Elizabeth II series were needed in 1953, the issuers had tired of using two systems of producing signature reproductions and started at the outset using good old letterpress for the signatures. They thought they were pretty safe by still using intaglio for the titles but even this was not to be the case! The Reserve Bank came into being in 1959, which necessitated a change to Dr. Coombs' title. This time they got it right by changing the printing method of the titles to letterpress as well so that future changes to either titles or signatures would be as quick and simple as possible. Oddly enough there were to be no changes of signatures for the entire pre-decimal QEII issue.

2. Decimal

With the advent of decimal currency in 1966 the Reserve bank reverted to using fully engraved signature and title/legal tender panels. A curious move considering that Sir Ronald Wilson was to retire at the end of that year necessitating the new series first signature change in 1967. Perhaps the bank decided intaglio looked better overall and did not present any problems with alignment that could occur with separate printing processes; in addition, perhaps the Super Numerota numbering presses were not suited to including anything other than serial numbers,

Whatever the reason, we now see a period of great stability in terms of signature printing. Also when the $50 was introduced in 1973, we even got a small unprecedented bonus. If you look closely at the signature/legal tender clause, you will notice that while the signature and titles are printed in the usual black intaglio, the legal tender clause is printed in dark green intaglio.

Then the $100 was introduced in 1984 and now the entire signature panel is printed in blue by the dry offset method as used for the note's background colours. It is yet to be revealed as to why this curious departure. Indeed this whole section seems to be almost a last minute addition squeezed into the bottom left hand corner.

No surprises with the 1988 Bicentennial $10 polymer note - all signatures etc. in good old black intaglio.

Then in 1989 something unprecedented happened. The Secretary to the Treasury, Bernie Fraser, took over as Governor of the Reserve Bank. This would of course mean, in time, new notes to reflect the change but Mr. Fraser did not take over his new position for some two month. In the mean meantime it was necessary to print $20 and $50 notes. These notes showed Mr. Fraser as Secretary to the Treasury but required showing M.J. Phillips as *DEPUTY* Governor of the Reserve Bank.

Now here was a real problem. How to fit that one little word, "DEPUTY", in front of "GOVERNOR OF THE RESERVE BANK"? Of course it meant that not only did the signatures have to be altered but also the title for Mr. Phillips had to be re-engraved. This time the bank decided to print the entire signature panel in black offset. A throw back to the old days. Eventually this method was used for the remaining denominations at that time still using line engraving for the signature panel, viz. $5 and $10. As

a small aside, this now meant that the panel on the $50 note was all black instead of black and dark green.

I feel this system which probably would have meant an extra pass through the printing presses was considered only temporary. After all, the new polymer notes were due to be released in September 1990 weren't they? September came and went, and in November a very small piece appeared in the Melbourne Sun newspaper[24] to the effect that the new plastic $5 was to be delayed until "Easter" because of "production delays". Easter 91 came and went and still no new notes. Then again in May[25], another tiny news release stating that there was a further delay because the printing presses kept "chewing them up". I can attest to this because at the time, members of the Morwell Numismatic Society happened to be touring the Note Printing Works in Craigieburn whilst the first issue $5 polymer notes were being printed. The printers were clearly having problems getting the plastic sheets to pass through the intaglio presses without them becoming stuck.

Anyhow what all this meant was that the old paper notes went through three more changes of signatory (in the case of the $20 and $50) before they were all replaced by plastic versions. Finally the new, "all dancing, all singing" plastic notes arrived and then things got really interesting!

Finally on 7th July 1992, the new $5 plastic note appeared and *voila* something not seen since pre-decimal days. The actual signature reproductions were flat printed but the titles and legal tender clause were engraved. Once again life would be simple for when there was a change of signature, Note Printing Australia would only have to change the signatures by using the relatively easy to change dry-offset method. This was indeed the case in the following year when politics intervened and Mr. Evans replaced Mr. Cole.

Then something strange happened when the new $10 note was released in late 1993. This time the entire signature, title and legal tender clause was flat printed; the explanation was simple. The $5 note required accurate alignment of signature and titles using two entirely different printing methods on different machines. A not impossible but more involved procedure which caused an increase in printing errors over time. The

[24] Sun, 07/11/90

[25] Sun, 17/05/91

solution of course was to revert to the tried and true system of one printing method or the other instead of two.

Now we come to another of life's great mysteries. In 1994, Note Printing Australia released the first of its dated matched serial number collector packs, which included the $5, and $10 denominations (the $20 was yet to be issued). We see yet another change. This time, the $5 note was produced with the entire signature panel printed using the intaglio method. This system was only utilised for the notes included in the year folders as no 1994 dated $5 went into circulation. Why then you may well ask, did the issuing authorities go to all this trouble and expense for a comparatively handful of notes that were to be a one-off? (The following year saw the release of the re-coloured note). The explanation eludes me on this one but I strongly advise all serious collectors to obtain a 1994 $5 not even if you usually ignore the dated year sets as this note is unique.

The revamped $5 note in 1995 also utilises full intaglio printing for the signature panel as did the $20 when it was issued in October that year. A senior staff member of Note Printing Australia advised on a visit to the printing works last year that the new technology meant that it only took approximately one month to re-engrave new intaglio plates when there necessitated a change whereas in times gone by it took some three month. Thus it is no longer a problem to use line engraving for signature panels.

At the time of writing (early 1997), I believe that when the $10 appears with the new signature combination it will also be printed in intaglio to bring it into line with other denominations. If this is not the case, it will only add to the mystery of it all. *[Ed Note: having found a 1997 $10 note bearing the new Evans/ MacFarlane signature combination, I can confirm that the signatures, titles and legal tender clause are FLAT printed, NOT printed in intaglio]*

PEOPLE OF NOTE

by Frank Robinson, NAV 713

When people use paper (or plastic) money, do they take note of the people depicted on the notes? I am not confining my comments to Australia, but looking at notes of the world.

The first issues of paper currency were relatively simple and mainly consisted of a promise to pay. In various endeavours to prevent counterfeiting, many security features have been incorporated into the notes. One of the most prominent has been a large portrait. Symbolic people, usually models a few of whom have been identified, have also been shown on notes. Watermarks, which are a security feature, sometimes portray people. Signatures of people guaranteeing the note issue.

Many, but not all, notes issued during the 20th century have featured portraits of various people who have had some significance, past or present, in that country's history. Amongst others, the people portrayed have included monarchs and other heads of state, artists, aviators and astronauts, clergymen and religious leaders, explorers, merchants, military leaders, musicians, revolutionaries (including liberators), scientists.

Probably the person who has appeared on the most issues has been Queen Elizabeth II. Other reigning monarchs include Queen Wilhelmina (Netherlands), King Rama X (Thailand) and Sultan Hassanal Bolkiah I (Brunei). Some historical monarchs depicted are Pharaoh Ramses (Egypt), Alexander III 'The Great' (Greece) and Robert the Bruce (Scotland). Other heads of state (current and historical) include President George Washington (USA), President Bandaranaike (Sri Lanka), President Ataturk (Turkey), and Chiang Kai-Shek and Mao Tse-Tung (China).

A strange mixture occurred in the 1943 - 1966 series of notes issued by Brazil. Amongst others, this series included the last king of Portugal (the mother country) to rule colonial Brazil, his son and grandson who were the two emperors of an independent Brazil, the first president of the Republic of Brazil, the then current dictator, and a revolutionary against the mother country!

A sample of each of the other categories (and the countries whose notes they are depicted on) are:

Artists	-	Michelangelo (Italy), Candido Portinari (Brazil)
Aviators & Astronauts	-	Charles Kingsford-Smith (Australia), Alberto Santos-Dumont (Brazil), Edward White (USA)
Explorers	-	Hamilton Hume & Sir Charles Sturt (Australia); James Cook (Australia and New Zealand), Christopher Columbus (El Salvador)
Merchants	-	Mary Reibey (Australia), Imhof (Germany)
Military Leaders	-	José de San Martin (Argentina), Bernardo O'Higgins (Chile), the Duke of Wellington (UK)
Musicians	-	Carlos Gomes (Brazil), Hector Villa-Lobos (Brazil), Giuseppe Verdi (Italy)
Poets & Authors	-	Sir Walter Scott (UK), Henry Lawson (Australia)
Religious Leaders	-	Moses (Germany), Gandhi (India)
Revolutionaries	-	Vladimir Lenin (USSR), Simon Bolivar (Bolivia, Ecuador, Venezuela), John Macarthur (Australia), Lajos Kossuth (Hungary), Sun Yat-Set (China)
Scientists	-	Sir Isaac Newton (England), Nicholas Copernicus (Poland), Albert Einstein (Israel), Marie Curie (France)

LAJOS KOSSUTH

Lajos Kossuth was born in 1802 in Hungary. His brilliant political oratory and writings led his involvement in the Hungarian Diet (parliament) of 1847. His strong nationalistic views led to his demand for Hungarian independence from Austria during the "year of rebellions" in 1848. He was appointed Finance Minister and in September he became the virtual dictator of Hungary. After Russian troops invaded in August 1849 and crushed the rebellion, he went into exile, initially to Turkey and then to Great Britain and the United States of America. While in exile, he issued several series of notes to raise money to fund another revolution; however it never successfully occurred. Kossuth died in exile in Italy in 1894, but is remembered as a champion of liberty and a hero of the 1848 revolution. Since Hungary was re-established as independent country after World War I, Kossuth's portrait has appeared on a number of issues.

Some notes issued during the 1848 revolution bear his signature as Finance Minister (*Penzjegy-Minister*). Both his portrait and his signature appear on the first issue of his exile notes.

LEADERS OF CHINA

Sun Yat-Set (1867 - 1925) was the leader of the revolution in 1912 which overthrew China's Ch'ing dynasty; he was elected provisional president of the new republic, but resigned three weeks later in favour of a military regime (which he believed was the only form of government which could hold China together).

However he soon became disillusioned with the various warlords and thus led to his co-operation with the growing Chinese communist movement in the 1920's. After his death in 1925, a mausoleum was built in his honour - this was depicted on the reverse of notes of the Japanese puppet Central Reserve Bank of China.

Chiang Kai-Shek (1887 - 1975) was a soldier and became the leader of the *Kuomintang* (Nationalist Party) in 1925. He unsuccessfully tried to crush the Chinese Communists (his chief rivals), but after the Japanese invasion of China, he was forced to make an alliance with them. This alliance broke down after the second World War ended, and the Nationalists were forced from the mainland to Taiwan in 1949.

Chiang set up a government-in-exile, which he controlled until his death in 1975.

Mao Tse-Tung (1893 - 1976) was the son of a peasant farmer from Hunan Province. He took part in the overthrow of the Ch'ing dynasty in 1912. He became a communist while a librarian at Peking University and helped to found the Chinese Communist Party in 1921 of which he became its chairman in 1935.

In 1927, as a result of conflict with Chiang, he was forced to retreat with his forces to Kiangsi Province where he proclaimed the Chinese Soviet Republic in 1931. He was forced to fall back further in 1934 on the Long March to Yenan, from where he fought the Japanese and then defeated Chiang during the Civil War (1945 - 1949). As ruler from 1949, Mao was responsible for China's differences with the USSR, mainly because of the Soviet policy of peaceful co-existence with the West, but he secured a working relationship with the USA in the 1970's.

KEMAL ATATÜRK

Mustafa Kemal was born in 1881 and after graduating from the military academy, he served as an officer in the Turkish Army. He commanded the forces that successfully defended the Gallipoli Peninsula when the Allies (including Australia) invaded in 1915. He was the only Turkish general to win any victories over the Russians on the Eastern Front. During the Allied occupation of Turkey in 1919, he was sent to restore civil order in central Anatolia, but instead he preached a message of nationalism. The result was a series of congresses and the establishment of the Grand National Assembly (GNA) in Ankara that elected Mustafa Kemal as its president. After the defeat of the invading Greek army in 1922, the GNA voted to abolish the sultanate.

The following year a peace treaty was signed with the Allies and the Turkish Republic was proclaimed. Kemal then set about reforming his country - he basically westernised Turkey: changing education and the style of clothing, abolishing Islamic law, outlawing religious brotherhoods, emancipating women. Probably the most radical change was to replace Arabic script with the Latin alphabet in 1928. In 1934 he introduced a requirement that everyone must take a surname; the GNA honoured Mustafa Kemal by giving him the name Atatürk ("Father of the Turks"). He died in 1938 and was given a state funeral; years later, a mausoleum was built in Ankara.

THE EXPLORERS

Hamilton Hume (1797 - 1873) was born at Parramatta. As a boy, he explored the Blue Mountains with an aboriginal companion. His main contribution to Australian exploration was his journey to Corio Bay with

Captain William Hovell. Although the two disagreed over a number of things, Hovell named Australia's greatest river (which they crossed near the present site of Albury - Wodonga) the "Hume". They also sited and named Mt Buffalo. However, their navigation was hopeless: they thought they had reached Westernport Bay, not Port Philip Bay (and Corio Bay)! The Hume Highway between Melbourne and Sydney is named after him.

Capt Sir Charles Sturt (1795 - 1869) was born in England and arrived in Australia in 1827. Although a naval officer, he was quite at home on land in the Australian bush. He led a number of expeditions into the interior of NSW in attempts to solve the riddle of "The Inland Sea". One of these involved following the Murrumbidgee River by wagon, and then by boat to a larger river that he named the "Murray" - unaware that it was the "Hume"! He then rowed down the Murray to the sea at Lake Alexandrina, followed by the nightmare return trip against the current back to his starting point. This trip has a personal interest for me as my home town of Mildura has a cairn on the riverbank commemorating his "passing this spot" in 1830. His last expedition from Adelaide in 1844-46 through western NSW into the "Corner Country" and Sturt's Stony Desert in a blazing drought, carrying a boat, looking for "The Inland Sea" has to be one of the greatest feats of endurance. The Sturt Highway between Adelaide and Gundagai (NSW) is named after him.

James Cook (1752 - 1779) was born in England and, as a lad, worked as a farmhand, stable boy and grocer's apprentice. At 18, he went to sea in a collier as an apprentice. In 1755, he volunteered for service in the Royal

Navy. Eventually, in 1768 he was commissioned as a Lieutenant and joined the *Endeavour*. Cook had two sets of instructions for his voyage on the *Endeavour*: the first was to observe the transit of Venus from Tahiti, the second to explore the South Pacific. After success in Tahiti, he circumnavigated (and charted) both the North and South Islands of New Zealand in 1769 (he was the first European to sail through the strait that now bears his name).

Sailing eastwards, his Australian landfall was Point Hicks near the eastern tip of Victoria. Cook followed the Australian coast north, landing at Botany Bay (but bypassing Port Jackson - probably one of the greatest harbours in the world) and Endeavour River (now Cooktown) in 1770. He returned to England in 1771. Cook made two more voyages to the Pacific, both in the *Resolution*. From late 1772, throughout 1773 and early 1774, Cook penetrated the Antarctic Circle a number of times until turned back by pack ice and became the first man to circumnavigate Antarctica in such southern waters. His third voyage to the Pacific had as its goal the search for the Northwest Passage. After penetrating the Bering Strait and the Arctic Circle, Cook returned south to Hawaii where he was initially received as a god, but later killed as a result of a misunderstanding. Cook was probably the greatest navigator of his time, but he had the distinct advantage of a reliable chronometer (clock) which was essential for accurately determining longitude. He was also successful in preventing scurvy on his ships by having everyone eat fresh vegetables and fruit.

NUMISMATIC ASSOCIATION OF VICTORIA

Founded 1946

*****

PAST PRESIDENTS

Rev. F. C. BREMER, E.D.	1946 - 1948
W. E. CURRAN, E.D., F.R.N.S.	1948 - 1950
N. W. ADAMS	1950 - 1953
R. W. FARMAN	1953 - 1955
E. KENNEDY	1955 - 1957
J. GARTNER	1957 - 1958
H. P. HIGSON	1958 - 1960
E. PHILPOTTS	1960 - 1962
W. E. CURRAN, E.D., F.R.N.S.	1962 - 1964
R. T. N. JEWELL, F.R.N.S.	1964 - 1965
R. G. STEWART	1965 - 1967
P. SIMON, F.R.N.S.	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, F.R.N.S.	1979 - 1980
H. J. PRANGE	1981 - 1982
L. T. PEPPERELL	1983 - 1984
J. FARINGDON-DAVIS	1985 - 1986
G. FARINGDON-DAVIS	1987 - 1988
H. J. PRANGE	1989 - 1990
Dr. J. M. CHAPMAN, F.R.N.S.	1991 - 1992
P. SHIELDS	1993 - 1994
T. DAVIES	1995 - 1996

NUMISMATIC ASSOCIATION OF VICTORIA

Founded 1946

OBJECTS:

To encourage the study of Numismatics in all its branches

To represent generally the views and interests of all Numismatists

To provide education in the field of Numismatics

To encourage sound and methodical collecting practice

ACTIVITIES:

Discussion at monthly meetings

Reading of papers

Assisting members in the study and acquisition of numismatic specimens

An annual publication containing articles of interest to all Numismatists

A quarterly Newsletter

Stimulating research into the currency of Australia

Meetings are held on the third Friday each month

at the

The Celtic Club

320 Queen Street, Melbourne

(corner of Latrobe Street)