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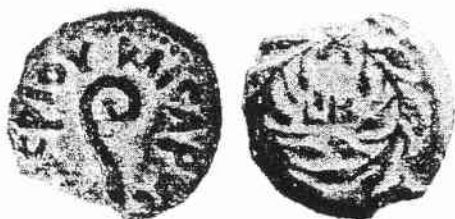
NEW ZEALAND NUMISMATIC JOURNAL



The coin of year 29 ("LIS")



The coin of year 30 ("LIZ")



The coin of year 31 ("LIH")

The Coins of Pontius Pilate -
feature article, page 15

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CONTENTS

| | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|
| Our new Patron | 2 |
| Currency in NZ in the 1930s | R.P. Hargreaves 4 |
| The Samoan Overprints | A. Sadd 10 |
| Legionary Denarii | D. Carian 11 |
| Spending Money in China | C.T.H.R. Ehrhardt 12 |
| The Coins of Pontius Pilate | J.P. Fontanille 15 |
| Otago Branch Activities | R.P. Hargreaves 27 |
| Levin Inter-Club Meeting 2001 | A. Kidd 28 |
| Officers of the Society | 29 |
| Annual Report 2001 | 30 |
| Annual Accounts 2000-2001 | 32 |

OUR NEW PATRON





GOVERNMENT HOUSE
New Zealand

**Her Excellency the Honourable Dame Silvia Cartwright, PCNZM, DBE
Governor-General of New Zealand**

Dame Silvia Cartwright has had a distinguished career as a lawyer and jurist, and as an advocate for women and women's rights. She has also achieved several 'firsts' in the New Zealand legal profession.

Dame Silvia was educated in Dunedin, gaining her LLB from Otago University in 1967. After several years in private practice, she became one of New Zealand's first female judges in 1981. In 1989, she was appointed Chief District Court Judge, the first woman to hold the position, and in 1993, she became the first woman to be appointed to the High Court. In addition to her judicial role, Dame Silvia chaired or served on several significant national committees. Between 1977 and 1981, she was a member of the Commission for the Future. In 1986/87, she chaired a committee investigating the funding of social science research, and in 1987 and 1988, was Chair of the Commission of Inquiry into the Treatment of Cervical Cancer and Other Related Matters at National Women's Hospital, customarily known as the Cartwright Inquiry. Since 1993, she has been a member of the United Nations committee monitoring compliance with the United Nations Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), contributing particularly to the drafting of one of the Convention's optional protocols, which defines a complaint mechanism. In 1995, Dame Silvia chaired a Gender Equity Education Programme for all New Zealand judges with the then Chief Justice.

She was made a Dame Commander of the Order of the British Empire in 1989, and is married (1969) to Mr Peter Cartwright, a barrister who chairs the Broadcasting Standards Authority and the Accident Compensation Appeal Authority.

Dame Silvia was sworn in as New Zealand's 18th Governor-General on 4 April 2001 and is the second woman to hold the office in New Zealand.

CURRENCY IN NEW ZEALAND IN THE 1930s

Ray Hargreaves, FRNSNZ

THE 1930s are arguably the most significant decade in the history of currency in New Zealand. Some might suggest the 1960s are more important, as it was in that decade that the country abandoned the old imperial system of £sd and embraced the decimal system instead. But in the 1930s New Zealand:

- 1) Dropped British coins and adopted distinctive New Zealand coins;
- 2) Issued a second series of coins on which the effigy of George V was replaced with that of George VI;
- 3) Set up a central [Reserve] Bank which became the sole issuer of banknotes, so that the variety of trading bank notes used at the beginning of the decade disappeared;
- 4) The decade ended with the issue of a second series of Reserve Bank notes.

In 1930 British coins were the sole legal currency in New Zealand. Although the farthing was a part of the Imperial series, I have never found evidence it was actually used in New Zealand to any extent. Gold sovereigns and half-sovereigns were still legal tender, but since the First World War when banknotes were made legal tender they had replaced the gold coins in everyday business. Besides British coins, Australian coins (first minted in 1910) also circulated, although they had no legal status.

Possibly the first suggestion for some distinctive New Zealand coins was made in 1901, but the first New Zealander that I can find who actively pushed for a distinctive New Zealand coinage was the independent MP for Egmont, Charles Wilkinson, who introduced a Bill to provide for an indigenous New Zealand silver and copper currency in 1931.

Wilkinson made three assumptions: 1) That £1.5 million worth of silver coinage was circulating in New Zealand. 2) That the Government could obtain new coins of a distinctive New Zealand pattern at a cost no greater than the intrinsic value of the materials plus actual cost of minting. This would be very much cheaper than the existing purchase of British coins, especially if the coins were actually minted in New Zealand. There was an estimate at the time that with silver at 1/1d per ounce, New Zealand could provide herself with £1 worth of silver coins at a cost of approximately 3/-, compared with the 19/6d which was the cost of Imperial coinage of same face value. 3) New Zealand could dispose to the issuing countries at face value British and Australian coins then in circulation within the country.

The Otago Daily Times (3 July 1931) welcomed the idea, stating that "as has been proved by the experience of Australia, there is more in establishing a distinctive coinage from the baser metals than exaltation of national pride. There is an actual solid profit to be made." [The forecast was correct - the profit from introducing New Zealand coins was later estimated to be £65,000.]

Wilkinson's Bill was not proceeded with as it involved an appropriation. In 1932 Wilkinson again introduced his Bill for a distinctive New Zealand coinage, but again it was ruled out as it involved an appropriation.

Coin Smuggling

But no matter what the thoughts of the Government were, they were eventually forced by circumstances to adopt Wilkinson's proposals for a distinctive New Zealand currency. In 1931, 1932 and

1933, large-scale smuggling of silver coins into and out of New Zealand occurred, so that many, perhaps a majority, of the passenger vessels sailing to and from Australia or direct to the UK were searched by police and Customs officials. Many tricks were used in smuggling - suitcases with false bottoms, special money belts, coins scattered through clothing in numerous suitcases, using crew members to carry coins on or off the ships, etc.

The smuggling occurred because of the differing exchange rates. In 1930 Australia had devalued its pound against the British pound, and this resulted in a greater inflow of Australian coins into New Zealand. New Zealand also devalued against the British pound, and did so again in 1933. In early 1933 the exchange rate was against New Zealand, with 120 New Zealand pounds valued at £100 sterling. No wonder there was a flight of English currency out of the country.

Regulations in early 1931 stated that only £5 of silver coins could be exported or imported from Australia, and £10 elsewhere; in mid-year the amounts were lowered to £2 of silver coin to people coming into New Zealand, while those leaving New Zealand could take £5 unless sailing to the UK by direct steamer, when the amount was raised to £10.

Numerous people were caught smuggling. For example, in July 1931 there was a report of Customs officials watching passengers board the *Ulimaroa* for Australia. Robert Maxwell Stewart, who was struggling with a heavy-looking bag, was stopped, and in the bag Customs found £430 in British silver coins. Stewart said he knew the regulations, but had taken "a sporting chance". He was fined £25, the minimum, but as in all such cases the silver he was attempting to smuggle was confiscated.

Also in July 1931, one of the most flagrant attempts to smuggle Australian coins into New Zealand was made by a 35-year old woman, Irene Dobson. Acting on information, two Auckland detectives went to a city hotel where she was staying, burst open a wardrobe in her room, and found 10 large bags of Australian coins. Apparently she had been caught in Wellington earlier in the year with £650 in smuggled silver, but this was not confiscated as she told the police she was going to live permanently in Hamilton and was merely transferring her money from Australia to her new home country. But in fact this was not the case and she continued to make trans-Tasman crossings, using a variety of names, for the purpose of smuggling coins. But in the July prosecution Dobson was convicted, ordered to pay £131 6s in fines and costs, and the smuggled coins to the value of £1157 were confiscated. That was a lot of money in 1931.

Australian coins, never legal tender in this country, were a significant part of our circulating currency in the early 1930s. A banker in New Plymouth in August 1931 stated that in practically every £1 worth of florins paid into his bank, three or four of the ten were Australian. It appears that Australian coins were more prevalent in the North Island than the South because of the more frequent sea communications of the former with Australia.

[As a footnote it is interesting to record that in July 1933 £50,000 worth of Australian coins were imported into New Zealand by the government because of the major shortage of silver coins within the country. even though the coins were not legal tender, and could be refused by anyone if they wished.]

As mentioned, the Government was forced to look at the question of a distinctive New Zealand coinage seriously, and the decision was made to proceed. When this was announced, supporters of the decimal system had high hopes that the imperial system would be replaced. But the coinage committee which was set up by the Government recommended against any change on the ground of cost. The Committee also suggested that the introduction of distinctive pennies and halfpennies was not urgent.

Where to be Manufactured

Once the decision was made to mint distinctive New Zealand coins, the question was where was it to be carried out. Naturally New Zealand manufacturing interests wanted it done in this country, and in this they had the support of other bodies such as the Wellington Chamber of Commerce.

A Dunedin firm of engravers said there was no problem in producing coins of the required standard, but suggested no New Zealand firm had the capacity to produce the huge number of coins required, and if any New Zealand company were given the task there would be a considerable delay in importing and setting up the necessary machinery. This upset a Wellington engineering firm who claimed that they had already turned out "some three-quarters of a million coins ... for the [Wellington] City Milk Department." But in the event the Royal Mint was given the contract.

It should be emphasised that whilst the final detailed designs of the New Zealand coins were by British medallist Kruger Gray, the designs were actually chosen by New Zealand.

The coins, all dated 1933, were not all circulated in that year, in fact only the half-crown was issued. The other denominations were issued from early 1934, so many books and articles are wrong in stating that all New Zealand coins were first *issued* in 1933.

The Treasury estimated that more than 41,000,000 new silver coins with a face value of £2 million would have to be circulated to replace the British and Australian coins in circulation in New Zealand. It estimated that of every £100 in circulation half-crowns made up £35, florins £30, shillings £15, sixpences £10 and threepences £10. This meant that the coin numbers were: 5,600,000 half crowns; 6 million florins, 6 million shillings, 8 million sixpences, and 16 million threepences, the total thus being 41,600,000 new coins. To jump ahead a little: to 30 June 1937 New Zealand coins with a face value of £2,010,000 coins had been received from the Royal Mint, totalling in number 41,847,000. The denominations were not too far out in each instance. As rounded percentages of numbers they were: half-crowns 13%; florins 14%; shillings 17%; sixpences 21% and threepences 35%.

The designs of the New Zealand coins were generally accepted by the bulk of the New Zealand population, though a meeting of the Numismatic Society in Wellington criticised the attitude of the Maori warrior on the shilling as being "too warlike". And there were claims that the crossed patas on the 3d suggested ginger beer bottles! But the major criticism was against the change in wording, for the new New Zealand coins no longer carried D.G. (*Dei Gratia*, By the Grace of God) nor *Fid. Def.* (*Fidei Defensor*, Defender of the Faith) on the obverse along with the King's portrait. These changes, particularly the omission of *Dei Gratia* upset a number of church groups, as well as the Federation of New Zealand Justices.

The change, however, was approved by George V, and the new style of GEORGE V KING EMPEROR was included on other empire coinages as well, such as Canada, South Africa, and Southern Rhodesia, although Australia persisted with the Latin inscription.

Once the New Zealand coins arrived, the withdrawal by the Treasury of British and Australian coins began, and on 1 February 1935 all English silver coins ceased to be legal tender.

In 1935 New Zealand's rarest coin was issued, namely the Waitangi Crown. In all only 1128 were issued.

With the death of George V on 20 January 1936, dies were prepared for New Zealand coins

bearing the head of Edward VIII. But on his abdication the dies were destroyed, and new ones for George VI were made, and it was not until 1937 that the first George VI coins appeared in New Zealand. Interestingly both George V and George VI face left, apparently breaking the tradition of successive monarchs facing different ways. But the Royal Mint argued that Edward VIII faced right in between, even though no Edward VIII coins were ever issued bearing his effigy. [Editor's note: of course, the dies that had been prepared for Edward VIII showed him facing left, like his father and brother; however, the fact that no coins were issued permits the legal fiction of continuity.]

The British penny and halfpenny continued to circulate in this country alongside New Zealand's silver coins. It was planned to release the first New Zealand bronze coins in February 1940 to coincide with the Centenary celebrations, but because of growing shortages of these denominations they were released in December of the previous year. Released in 1940, however, was the Centennial half crown, the only circulating commemorative coin which New Zealand has ever issued.

Counterfeit Coins

During the Depression years there were many reports of counterfeit coins being circulated within New Zealand - a number of counterfeiters were caught, but there appears to have been a number of counterfeit coins imported from overseas as well. There is one report that suggests that a number of well-executed counterfeits were actually made in China, and were circulated in Australia as well as New Zealand.

In Dunedin from 10 August to 20 September 1933, Woolworth's accepted £1 9s 6d in coins - half crowns, florins & shillings, some British and some Australian - which later proved to be counterfeits. Some of the florins were the work of a 37-year old unemployed, married man with seven children who lived in the suburb of Kew. In October 1933 he was up in court, pleaded guilty, and sentenced to be 'detained for reformatory purposes' for two-and-a-half years.

The first counterfeiting of New Zealand coins appears to have been quick off the mark, as it was reported that a spurious New Zealand half crown was uttered in Lower Hutt less than a month after the genuine article was first put into circulation! It was said to be 'a very clever imitation ... but when sounded it has a very dull, flat ring'. Indeed, ringing coins was the usual way of detecting a dud.

New Zealanders have never been really strict about not accepting similar-looking but non-legal tender coins. In 1933 there were reports of Canadian and US quarter dollars being used. Fiji adopted its own coinage in 1934, and in the same year it was reported that a number of Fijian sixpences were in circulation in Auckland.

Reserve Bank

Suggestions for a central bank with note-issuing powers were argued in New Zealand long before the Reserve Bank was finally set up, and indeed there was the experiment of the Colonial Bank of Issue from 1847 until 1856, which whilst being the sole issuer of paper money did not really have the range of functions of a central bank.

By 1930 the depression was focusing attention on the concept once more, and at the end of that year B.C. Ashwin (a later Secretary of Treasury) urged the creation of a government Note Issue Board to be the sole issuer of paper money in New Zealand. A Bank of England "expert", Sir Otto Niemeyer, came to New Zealand about this time, and in his report presented in late February 1931 recommended a central bank, amongst whose functions was to be the sole issuer of banknotes. A pamphlet entitled *A Common Sense Currency* published by *The New Zealand Worker* in 1931

also urged that all private issues of notes be suppressed and the state alone issue paper money. A Bill to set up a Reserve Bank was introduced into the House of Representatives in 1932 but later withdrawn, and it was not until the following year that a law was passed to set up the central bank.

Not everyone welcomed the proposal to have a central bank - the Otago Branch of the Associated Society of Railway Servants opposed it as being "against the best interests of the people of the Dominion". One assumes they were more against the economic implications rather than it as the sole note-issuing authority. Their opposition may also have been because the proposed bank was modelled on the Bank of England in that it was not a purely government institution but had private shareholders. When the first Labour government came to power they quickly changed that situation.

Under the 1933 Act the trading banks lost their right to issue notes, and whilst they did not seem too concerned since the notes were taxed, what did concern them was that they had to hand over their stocks of gold coin and bullion to the Reserve Bank for which they would receive Reserve Bank notes. A controversy arose as to what value the gold had, but eventually the banks agreed to the Government's proposal as the latter held the trump card. This was to do with the fact that banknotes had been made legal tender during the First World War, and this regulation had continued to be renewed every three years. This meant that the banks no longer had to give gold sovereigns for any of their notes if a customer so desired. The existing regulation was due to run out in 1935, and the government had only to refuse to renew it and when this happened anyone presenting a trading bank note could have demanded sovereigns.

The issue of trading bank notes ceased on 1 August 1934. On 1 August 1936 liability for all outstanding trading bank notes was transferred to the Reserve Bank, and the trading banks had to pay the Reserve Bank their value, even though many hundreds if not thousands of the notes had been lost or destroyed.

With the first Reserve Bank notes issued on 1 August 1934 there was no time to prepare other than a "temporary" issue. All the notes carried the same design, and were of the same size. A report in *the Otago Daily Times* (2 August 1934) described them as "strikingly handsome in appearance." The first notes released were the 10/-, £1 and £5, and it was not until the following December that the £50 began to be put into circulation. The new Reserve Bank notes were quickly criticised for 1) the poor quality of the paper used so that they were said to tear more easily than the old trading bank notes; and 2) on the closeness in colour of the 10/- and £50 notes, both being of a similar reddish colour. The old trading bank 10/- notes had been light yellow, but for some unknown reason a change was made.

The notes were printed by Thomas de la Rue & Co, London, a fact criticised by the Labour opposition who thought they should have been printed in New Zealand, namely by the Government Printing Office. Fred Langstone, Labour MP for Waimarino, thought the latter course would have advantages for the government for "Instead of moaning 'Where are you going to get the money from' when asked for some small improvement, the Ministers would have the answer at their front door and would be able to go down to the Government Printing Office and get all the bank-notes and money they wanted." As is usual, what is said in opposition is quickly forgotten when a party becomes the government - the first Labour government elected in late 1935 continued throughout its term of office to have New Zealand notes printed in Britain.

In Parliament in May 1936 Mr Sexton, MP for Franklin, asked Walter Nash, the new Minister of Finance, if he would take the necessary steps to have the King's head as part of the design of banknotes in the future. Nash assured the House that when new notes were printed Royal approval would be sought for this, but like so many political promises, it was never kept.

Counterfeits

In the early 1930s there were a number of cases of counterfeit trading bank notes being uttered, but the first case of forging Reserve Bank notes which I have so far come across occurred in December 1936 when on Christmas Eve a number of counterfeit £5s, numbered K809329, appeared in Queen St, Auckland. Similar fake notes were also passed in Wellington. According to a Reserve Bank official the forged notes were not printed on genuine paper; the date was omitted; the word "Governor": was omitted; there were numerous small differences in the printing on both front and back of the note; the watermark was not genuine; and the notes were made of two pieces of paper stuck together rather than being one piece printed on both sides. It was also remarked that the notes were somewhat blurry in parts. And yet they were accepted! The case emphasises that we do not really check our money, but implicitly rely on it to be genuine.

In my book *From Beads to Banknotes* (Dunedin, 1972) I wrote that "a 19-year-old labourer and printer [Clifford George Remmers] was arrested, and although found guilty on charges of being in possession of forged bank notes, uttering and attempted uttering (for which he was sentenced to two years' Borstal detention) he was found not guilty on the major charge of forgery." I can now for the first time complete the story. The accused, Clifford Remmers, was in Court in February 1937. It was not until September of the same year that a second person was charged over these counterfeits, and that person was his father, Charles Alfred Remmers, aged 48. He was found guilty of being the forger, and was sentenced to four years' imprisonment.

Funny Money

Today we are familiar with "funny money" which has elements of legitimate Reserve Bank note designs incorporated, and rarely does the Reserve Bank take umbrage at these. But in 1939 the Reserve Bank was less sympathetic to the work of advertisers. A Wellington tailoring firm, Schneidemann & Sons, Ltd, were had up in Court for issuing a document which the police claimed "was made up to look like a ten shilling note" and which bore the words "Ten Shillings Special Discount". No evidence was presented to show that any copies of this funny money were ever presented as real money, and whilst the magistrate concluded that it "could be held to resemble the ten shilling note," the offence was not serious and the firm was only fined £2 and costs.

In 1940 the Reserve Bank at last replaced the first "temporary" issue of notes, and at the same time introduced a new denomination, the £10. Despite earlier comments about the need for tellers to be careful, the Bank also changed the colour of the 10-shilling note, making it brown and thus easily distinguishable from the red £50 note. There was one other change as well - the signature on the notes changed from that of "Governor" to "Chief Cashier".

My detailed research into the 1930s is still continuing, and some questions remain to be answered. In December 1934 a cancelled BNZ £10 note, unsigned and with two corners cut off, turned up in Auckland and was cashed. According to the newspaper report of the incident, new BNZ £10 notes had been printed in Australia, but had arrived too late in New Zealand to be issued before the Reserve Bank took over responsibility for New Zealand's paper currency. Because of the heavy duty payable on note forms, the notes were returned to Australia to obtain a rebate. It was believed that the note had been abstracted after the notes had left New Zealand. The problem is that in no authority I have consulted is there mention of any BNZ notes ever being printed in Australia - all say BNZ notes were printed in England.

(This paper was originally presented at a meeting of the Otago Branch, Royal Numismatic Society of New Zealand.)

THE SAMOAN OVERPRINTS

Alan Sadd

When the Great War broke out in 1914 the islands which we now know as (Western) Samoa were a German colony. New Zealand troops were sent to occupy the German colony, which was achieved without opposition. The occupying forces took with them a supply of New Zealand £1 banknotes. The notes concerned were E 917001 to E 942000, E 995001 to E 1000000, G 000001 to G 020000 and G 058001 to G 083000, a total of 75,000 notes. In addition 5,000 examples of the five pounds numbered 960401 to 965400 were sent. These are notes of the third issue.

The above information comes from Griffin p. 34 but what Griffin does not say is that these notes were overprinted. The bank name and the domicile were crossed out. The overprinting is in three lines and reads:

GOVERNMENT OF SAMOA
CURRENCY NOTE
(THE BANK OF NEW ZEALAND IS NOT LIABLE HEREON).

APIA is shown as the domicile. These notes do not appear to have been listed in any catalogue. Two extant one pound notes are known. E 923446 dated April 1 1915 and G 001502 dated January ?, both by red rubber stamp. No example of the five-pound note appears to have survived.

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Life Member Australian Numismatic Society
Life Member Wanganui Numismatic Society*

***Wanted to buy
all New Zealand banknotes***

LEGIONARY DENARII

by Douglas Carian

Coins related to military history, particularly those related to a famous person, have long been a special interest of mine. The coin illustrated on page 14 is one of a type familiar to many collectors of the Roman series. It is a silver denarius issued by Mark Antony during 32-31 BC. A very large number of this type were struck to pay the men of Antony's legions during the build-up to his war with Octavian in which he was supported by Queen Cleopatra of Egypt. Except for the number of the legion inscribed on the reverse, all these issues had the same design as that illustrated.

The obverse shows a warship and the inscription ANT AVG III VIR R P C.

During this period of Roman history, the Senate considered that the state was best governed by a triumvirate, a group of three men each with specific territorial responsibilities. Apart from spreading the load, this arrangement meant that no single man had complete control of the Roman world. The inscription indicates that Mark Antony was one of the triumvirate appointed in 43 BC to rule Rome. III VIR R P C stands for *Triumvir Rei Publicae Constituendae* meaning *Triumvirate for Establishing the Republic*. The other triumvirs were Octavian - later to be Augustus, the first Emperor of Rome - and Lepidus - a weak politician in spite of previously being Julius Caesar's Master of the Horse.

The reverse shows an aquila standard between two other standards. The aquila (eagle) was the usual design on a Roman legion's ensign. These standards were not only used to identify a particular legion but also as a rallying point in battle. It was a tremendous disgrace for a legion to lose its standards to the enemy.

Also shown is the number fourteen representing Antony's fourteenth legion. Roman legions were numbered in the order they were established and, prior to these issues, were not mentioned on coins. Antony was highly dependent on his legions for his continued existence and desperately needed to maintain their support. By naming individual legions on his coins, he was showing them his confidence and appreciation of their loyalty. He was also advertising the strength of his forces to his rivals for power in the Roman world.

Specimens exist with legion numbers up to XXIII but Sydenham suggests the numbers continue up to XXX. However, all the known specimens in the range XXIV to XXX, including those in the British Museum, are forgeries or, at least, highly suspect.

These denarii were struck in silver debased to 0.9 fineness or occasionally even less. A few legions were honoured by having their numbers recorded on gold variations of this issue. Silver, it seems, was scarce. Although Antony and Cleopatra were defeated by Octavian at the battle of Actium and later committed suicide in 30 BC, these legionary coins were accepted in the general coinage of Rome for two hundred years or more.

Legionary denarii were almost certainly not produced in established mints by skilled mint workers but in 'camp mints' with the work done by the soldiers themselves some of whom may have previously worked in mints. They have been described as 'money of convenience' - Antony certainly had to pay his men - but this is a good example of how coins could be used for propaganda purposes, an idea that was extensively developed in Roman times showing that propaganda is not a modern invention.

(An earlier version of this article appeared in the *Australian Coin Review* in 1996.)

SPENDING MONEY IN CHINA

C.T.H.R. Ehrhardt

Not everyone gets the chance of an academic year in China, especially one involving teaching Ancient Greek, Latin, and Greek and Roman History. So I was delighted to be appointed a 'Foreign Expert' at the Institute for the History of Ancient Civilizations, in Changchun, Northeast China, for 1998/99. This is not the place to describe the difficulties and pleasures of living and teaching in China, though both are great; enough to say that it is an experience I would not have missed.

Chinese currency is based on the 'Yuan', and is decimal, or rather centesimal. The Chinese maintain a fixed exchange rate of 8.37 yuan to the US dollar, so while I was in China, with the NZ dollar worth about 55 US cents, it was easy to work out approximate comparative prices, since dividing the yuan price by four gave a rather pessimistic NZ equivalent. But NZ prices were relevant only to things which I might bring back to New Zealand, such as clothes, shoes and souvenirs; for daily life I had to evaluate the prices in terms of my Chinese salary of 2400 yuan (about \$NZ520) per month. Since accommodation was free, this was enough to live very comfortably - and was in fact much more generous than the salaries most Chinese academics received - but it debarred me and my colleagues from the social life enjoyed by the quite significant number of expatriates who were working for joint venture companies and were paid expatriate salaries.

The difficulties with Chinese money started with nomenclature: officially the unit is the 'Renminbi', or 'People's Money'; 'yuan' really means 'dollar'; but in the markets the term is 'kwai', which means something like 'piece'. The yuan is divided into ten 'jiao', which are a unit in their own right, as shillings used to be in the traditional British currency; so if a loaf of bread costs 1.50 yuan, the price is not expressed as 'one kwai fifty', but as 'one kwai five'. However, though the minor unit is written on coins and banknotes as 'jiao', it is never called that: in shops and markets it is always 'mao'. So if something costs, say, 0.70 yuan, you are asked for 'seven mao', or even just 'seven' - which can be very confusing if you are not sure what normal prices are.

Finally, one tenth of the 'jiao/mao' is a 'fen', which (fortunately) has no other name.

Circulating currency consists almost entirely of notes, from one fen up to 100 yuan (so the largest note, at least in common use, was worth only about 22 NZ dollars). In principle, the same colour is used for each numerical value - so, for example, two fen, two jiao, and two yuan notes are all green - but the fen denominations are very small (only the size of cigarette cards), the jiao notes rather larger, and yuan notes a normal size. Once again, of course, there is considerable potential for confusion, especially if one receives notes in folded bundles, but it is much less than the problem faced by visitors to the U.S.A., where one has to examine the writing and picture on every note to ascertain its value, since at first sight they all appear identical.

There are coins in circulation in China, at least for two and five fen, one and five jiao, and one yuan, but of these only the one jiao was at all common; nearly all the circulating medium is paper, even though the concept of a note for one fen (worth approximately one-quarter of one NZ cent) seems absurd. I only got the really small notes in change when I bought eggs, since eggs were sold by weight, not by number. More often, one would get a 'bullet' of small notes folded together to make a value usually of ten fen (i.e. one jiao), or sometimes of two or even five jiao. In my last days in China, I still had quite a number of crumpled dirty notes of minimal value, but I managed to get rid of most of them in Xi'an, when I bought a street map from a vendor outside the railway station: as I solemnly unfolded and counted out the one and two fen notes, he plainly was not pleased, but I already had the map in my hand, so he took the money.

The banking system is undeveloped: my salary was paid in 100-yuan notes, and I deposited any surplus in the local branch of the Bank of China for safekeeping (I even received a tiny amount of interest). But when I planned to go to Peking for a few days, and asked if I could arrange to withdraw money from a branch in the capital, I found it was quite impossible: I had to estimate my likely needs, and take the amount with me in cash. Not surprisingly, I felt rather insecure as I travelled. Yet over fifty years ago, in Britain, the Post Office Savings Bank allowed me to draw money from my account at other branches.

The bank did offer to supply me with a credit card, provided I had a minimum of 30,000 yuan in my account; with a ten-month contract, on a monthly salary of 2400 yuan, this was not useful. Nor did I find any use for Visa or MasterCard while I was in China. However, when the university refunded my travel costs, which amounted to several thousand yuan, and gave me a yellow form to certify that this represented foreign money, the bank did change the amount into US dollar travellers cheques, which gave me a reasonably secure reserve in case of need.

In general I was very impressed with the honesty and integrity of Chinese merchants and vendors. I knew that at times they added a 'foreigner's surcharge' to their prices, but I was never cheated in my change. Once I started watching and listening in the food markets, I got the impression that I was asked to pay no more than the locals did; and I was never subjected to really 'hard sell', not even at tourist traps like the Summer Palace outside Peking.

The modern currency, of course, is a far cry from the traditional cast copper 'cash' with the central square hole, which came into use before 500 B.C., were standardised by the First Emperor, Qin Shih Huang (the ruler whose grave is still guarded by the armies of terracotta warriors just outside Xi'an) about 220 B.C., and continued with little change until A.D. 1900, or even from the silver dollars and copper minor coins of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In the 'Antiques Mall' in Changchun, where one can buy anything from Mao badges and copies of his 'Little Red Book' to fossilised fish (I bought one of the latter, but neither of the former), there were numerous stalls selling stamps, banknotes and old coins. Most of them had bowls of 'junk' coins on the counter - the sort which, in Western Europe, almost invariably contain a few battered late Roman bronzes, of the third century 'Gallic empire', or of Constantine the Great and his sons - and I was strongly tempted to rummage through them, till I realised I knew nothing about older Chinese coins, and was very unlikely to find any Roman ones among them. That possibility, though, should not be totally dismissed: Roman glass was exported to China, and even to Korea, and there is a very good piece (unfortunately labelled only in Chinese) in the Historical Museum of Peking, a reminder that trade along the 'Silk Road' was not one-way traffic. The coin dealers' stalls also invariably had albums of rather poor quality modern coins, not only from China, Japan and 'Manchukuo', the puppet state established by the Japanese in Manchuria in the 1930s, with Changchun as capital, but from India, the United States, Britain and elsewhere, as well as tawdry replicas of the prehistoric Chinese 'knife' and 'spade' money, and any amount of traditional 'cash', both genuine and imitation.

My son had asked me to buy him a Mah Jong set, not made from modern plastic but consisting of the traditional bone pieces with bamboo backing, and enough 'cash' to use as gaming tokens when playing. I managed to find a quite attractive Mah Jong set, and then started haggling for the coins. Since I was buying a hundred, I was allowed to pick my own, and I chose those that looked most attractive, and ensured that all had inscriptions in Chinese on one side and in Manchu, the language of the last imperial dynasty, on the other - I can recognise the scripts, though I cannot read them. But when a knowledgeable Chinese friend looked through my purchase, she picked out 63 as imitations and only 37 as genuine, so I was glad I had bought them as tokens, not for a collection!

These 'cash' cost me about 45 NZ cents each; but I could get money of far greater nominal value far more cheaply in any street market. This is the so-called 'hell money', for the use of the dead in the after-life. Traditionally in the north, so I was told, it had been made with an inked rubber roller marking out sheets of cartridge paper, and I equipped myself with a roller, but I never found the proper ink, so could not set up my own money-making workshop. In recent years, however, the market has been dominated by impressive, brightly coloured notes, mostly made in Hong Kong, with values up to a genuine billion (i.e. one million millions), often attributed to 'Foreign Exchange Bank of Underworld'. A packet costs about seven yuan. These are not mere play money: it is required that, a week after a relative dies, an appropriate amount be burnt to ensure his continuing prosperity in the after-life, and then at the commemoration for the dead which takes place each September considerable amounts are burnt - there were little bonfires scattered along all the sidewalks in Changchun. My son sometimes works for the World Bank, so I bought enough 'hell money' to pay off the foreign debts of half a dozen backward countries, to give him at his wedding to ensure his prosperity; but when some of my students heard of my intention, they were horrified, since this would be the worst of omens, and they did not rest until I had solemnly promised that I would not give him the money on his wedding day. I kept my promise, and can report that, two years after the wedding, both he and his marriage are in excellent health!



Illustration to Legionary Denarius article (page 11)

Erratum - Journal 78

Dr Ray Hargreaves advises that there was an error in the first line of his "Suggested Token Issue in 1931" (Journal 78, December 2000, page 29). C.A. Wilkinson had previously been a Reform MP, but was an Independent by the period covered by Dr Hargreaves' item.

THE COINS OF PONTIUS PILATE

Prof. Jean-Philippe FONTANILLE

1. INTRODUCTION

They are not really beautiful, or truly rare, nor are they of very great monetary value. Yet these apparently modest coins carry in their weight an era and an act which would have immense consequence to the history of the world. Indeed, they are closely associated with three basic factors which saw the foundation of Christianity:

1 - Temporal proximity: Most modern experts agree in recognising that the year now designated 30 C.E. marked the trial and the death of Jesus. Given that time-frame, Pilate's coins were minted in 29, 30 and 31 C.E.

2 - Geographic proximity: The most credible hypothesis indicates that these particular coins were struck in Jerusalem, the city in which the significant events took place.

3 - Human proximity: Pontius Pilate himself designed and put the coins into circulation, and of course he was the man who conducted the trial and ordered the crucifixion of Jesus.

So it is that everyone, whether a believer or simply a lover of history or of numismatics, will find in these coins direct evidence of and witness to an episode the memory of which has survived 2000 years: a momentous event which has to a great extent fashioned the world we know.

Throughout this article we will also note the exceptional character of Pilate's coins: Exceptional in the nature of the images they bear, for the numerous variants they offer, for the presence of countermarks, and above all for the part their originator played in history. The putative appearance of imprints of these coins on the Turin shroud has yet to be confirmed by more solid scientific proofs.

Pilate's coins are Roman coins, the words on them are Greek, they were circulated in Judea, and today they are to be found distributed among world-wide collectors after having spent 2000 years buried in the earth. They were minted and used during a period which produced an event destined to change the face of the world, and issued at the command of one of the principal actors in that event. An amazing and dramatic destiny for apparently such humble and unassuming little coins! In the sphere of numismatics, Pilate's coins are at the opposite extreme of certain coins which are struck each year exclusively for collectors. Bright as Horse-guards' buttons, these specially minted coins have never been used and never will be; their technical quality is immaculate but their historical value is negligible.

For 35 years Pilate's coins were passed from hand to hand every day. They knew the scent of spice-stalls, heard the merchants' ranting, smelled the sweat and dust of day-to-day work. They were alive to the sounds of Hebrew, Aramaic, Greek and Latin voices – now haggling over a price, now offering prayers to Jehovah, Jesus or Jupiter.

Nobody prays to Jupiter any more, but Pilate's coins are surviving witnesses to a time when the first Christians were considered as a messianic sect among several others in the midst of Judaism in crisis. The absolute split between Judaism and Christianity took place from about 70 C.E. the year which marked the tragic ending of the first Jewish rebellion. It was from that time, too, that Pilate's money ceased to be used.

Like each one of us, who carries always a few small coins in the bottom of our pockets; there is no doubt that some of Pilate's coins resonated to the last words of the most famous of all supplicants. A very long story had its beginning...

2. PONTIUS PILATE

THE MAN AND HIS METHODS

When in 26 C.E. the Emperor Tiberius appointed Pontius Pilate to be Prefect of Judea, the territory had already been under Roman domination for nearly a century. The least that we can say is that the man was rather harsh. His mindset and culture were typically Roman, and it would have been difficult to reconcile his attitude with that of the Jews, whose beliefs and customs he never understood, and for which he had little regard or interest.

Paradoxically, in spite of the evident problems of communication and understanding with the people, Pilate's relations with the priestly authorities seem to have been good. As a governor he showed evidence of goodwill and of imagination, and it would appear that, unlike other procurators, he was not implicated in corrupt practices, either active or covert; there is nothing to show that he was either dishonest or treacherous. In the final analysis, his appointment was properly managed except his implication in the barbaric act which resulted in the ending of his mandate. It must be remembered, though, that severity and harshness were the normal order of the day in times long ago, difficult though this may be for us to comprehend in our actual democratic days of relative comfort.

AN ORIGINAL HYPOTHESIS

In GBC, David Hendin mentions an original hypothesis put forward by Florence Aiken Banks. In a small way, I have allowed myself to supplement her assumption which is deduced from the images appearing on Pilate's coinage which we will study in the following paragraphs. The theory is as follows: before becoming prefect of Judea, Pontius Pilate followed the calling of soothsayer or seer. The Emperor Tiberius, well known for the importance he attached to the interpretation of signs and portents, called up upon Pilate's services for a number of years in the course of which a friendship and trust built up between the two men (even nowadays it is not unknown for certain heads of state to consult astrologers and rely on their advice!). The link between Emperor and foreteller finally resulted in the nomination of Pilate to the prefecture of Judea.

3. HOW PILATE'S COINS DIFFERED FROM OTHERS

We should keep it clear in our minds that the coins of Pontius Pilate, like those of other prefects and procurators, bore neither his effigy nor his name. Only the emperor's name and title appeared, although on the coin of year 29 the name of the emperor's mother was inscribed. These inscriptions, to which the date was added, are written in Greek. Coins were the only means of introducing the name of the supreme authority into the conquered provinces in the most remote parts of the Empire.

THE QUESTION OF DESIGN AND SYMBOLS

Pontius Pilate's coinage was limited to only two types. The first was struck in year 29, and the second in 30 then re-issued in 31. The date of issue was stamped on the coins; the complete collection of Pilate's coins consists of only these three samples. Happily for collectors of coins, each of these issues presents numerous variations which are particularly interesting, and certain variants which are extremely rare; these will be detailed later.

Pilate's illustrations mark a total break with those of other prefects and procurators as well as with the all other monetary categories in circulation in Judea at this time.

Even if Pilate hadn't become known universally for his involuntary part in the origin of Christianity, he would still have had a special place in the domain of numismatics for the uniqueness of his coins.

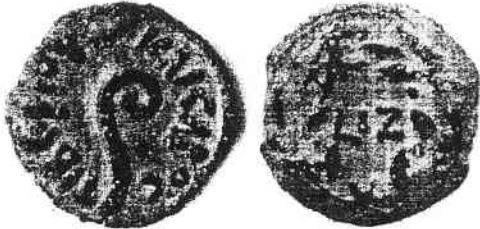
In effect, each of his coins presents on one side an object associated with divination or Roman religious rites: the "simpulum" on the money of year 29, and the "lituus" on that of year 30 and 31. It must be admitted that when dealing with a nation so strongly attached to monotheism and which rejected any form of divination, it would have been hard to find a clumsier way of giving offence. Knowing, as we do, that the monies of other prefects and procurators conformed in general to the Law in using motifs recalling those of the Asmoneans and of the more respectful Herods, it is tempting to surmise that in the opinion of the Jewish population the coins were a provocation to both the people and their customs.

PROVOCATION OR IGNORANCE?

The theory of provocation still seems rather implausible. Even if it is true that Pilate was ignorant of Jewish customs, it wasn't in his interest to repeat an error of the same magnitude as that of the busts. He was most probably surrounded by counsellors who were well informed of local beliefs.



The coin of year 29 ("LIS")



The coin of year 30 ("LIZ")



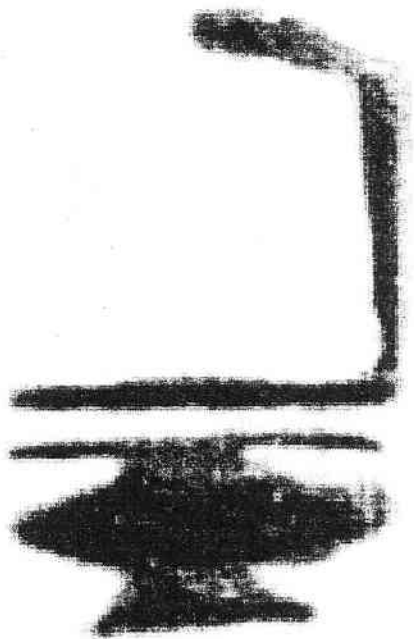
The coin of year 31 ("LIH")

Fig. 1. The three coins of Pilate.



Pontius Pilate painted by Giotto in 1305

Fig. 2. Pontius Pilate.



The simpulum

Fig. 3.



The lituus

Fig. 4.

The immense Roman Empire had not been built by fools, but even nowadays we know quite well that certain ministries are directed more by civil servants than by the ministers themselves! It must not be forgotten that relations between Pilate and the priestly authorities (who had not failed to manifest disapprobation in a similar situation) were not bad.

Add that if Pilate had really wanted to offend the Jews with his coinage, he could quite well have engraved the Emperor's portrait in the first instance using the pretext that Herod Philip done much the same in his little neighbouring kingdom.

As I see it, the theory of provocation, even if it ought not to be discarded, rests on a fragile basis and we need to examine a certain number of inconsistencies which are hard to resolve.

RESOLVING THE INCONSISTENCIES

To my mind the hypothesis which seems the most probable is this: Pilate greatly wished to illustrate his coins with the simpulum and then the lituus because there were strong links which tied him personally to those symbols, as suggested by F.A. Banks; and not because he wanted to provoke anyone. Being aware of the incongruity of the chosen images in the context of local beliefs, he tempered the simpulum on the first issue by engraving three ears of barley on the reverse side, this being a harmless or neutral symbol so far as the Law was concerned. Moreover, the same dichotomy was evident when, in years 30 and 31, Pilate's coins carried on one side the lituus and on the other a laurel wreath, another neutral motif which the Jews were long accustomed to seeing on their money.

If it were possible to see into Pilate's mind when he was choosing designs for his coinage, it would be easy to imagine him thinking: "One side for me, one side for them".

Another important element pleads in favour of mitigation of the potentially negative impact of the symbols: they are unrecognisable! This impression is not only due to the (deliberate?) simplicity of the drawing. Only the Roman citizen, familiar with the practices of divination and augury, would have been able to identify those objects with any certainty.

There is no reason why things should have been fundamentally different for the Jewish people of that epoch. Like other people of antiquity, they were for the most part artisans, fishermen or farmers who had neither the means nor the need to acquire a high level of learning and for whom the life-style and behaviour of distant Rome were matters of indifference, and any case inaccessible. One cannot imagine the ordinary Jew expressing lively indignation each time he had to spend one of Pilate's coins. What is more, the reverse face of the coins presented a familiar and conformist object which was easily identifiable.

As for the priestly authorities, who were bound to have known the true significance of the symbols, we can reasonably suppose that they accepted the coins as a stop-gap. Taking into account the obstinate nature of a prefect who had the power to oversee their business, nobody was really interested in rocking the boat while relations were fairly good. Not just for a motif anyway. In addition, the credibility of the high priests themselves was at that time considerably reduced in the eyes of the people since they had been appointed by the Romans and were not true descendants of the Sadoq family.

Thus, it seems quite reasonable to regard Pilate's coins, long believed to be the provocative objects which they might at first seem, as being in reality a subtle compromise which would satisfy the Law (after a fashion), and, more profoundly, the will of the prefect.

4. MANUFACTURE AND CIRCULATION

LOCATION OF MINTS

Although the prefects had their residencies in Caesarea, the administrative capital of the province, it seems that their money was minted in Jerusalem. Indeed, a specimen dated year 31 has been found in this town in an incomplete state of manufacture.

VARIETY : ERRORS ON DATES

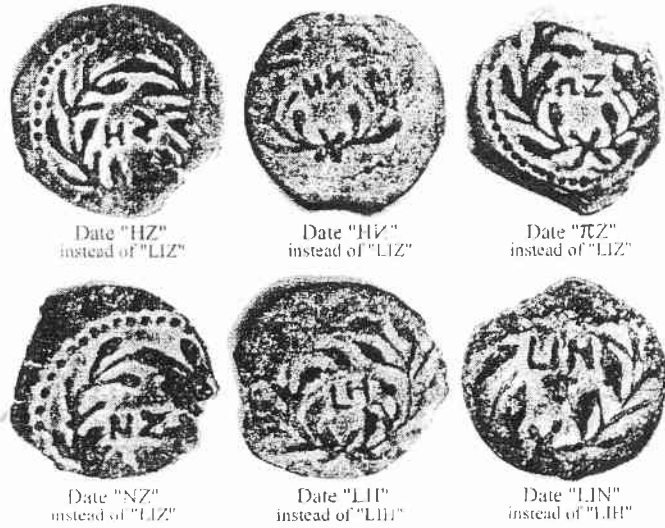


Fig. 5.

MISSING LETTERS



Fig. 6.

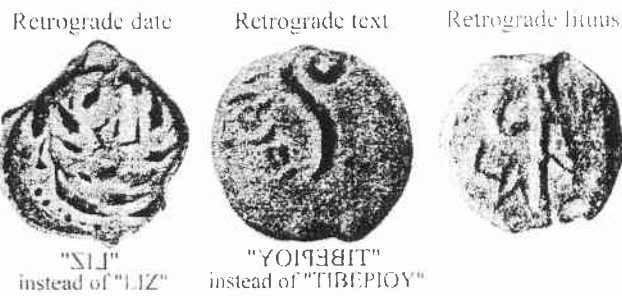


Fig. 7.



5 Pilate's coins bearing countermarks among the only 13 specimens listed throughout the world.

Fig. 8. THE COUNTERMARKS - Extreme enlargements-

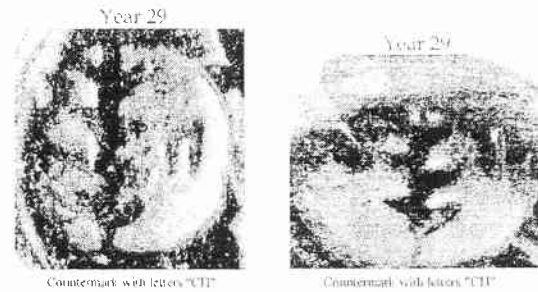
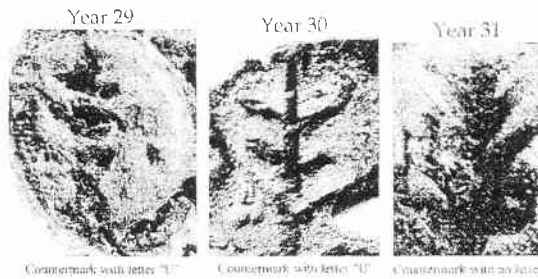


Fig. 9.



DURATION OF USE

It would seem that Pilate's money was in current use for at least 35 years. Indeed, some of it has been discovered among other coins during the excavation of remains of dwellings destroyed by the Romans during the first Jewish revolt, which is evidence that they were still in use at that time.

AREA OF CIRCULATION

These coins circulated far beyond the frontiers of Judea. Some samples have been discovered as far away as Antioch in present-day Turkey, nearly 500 kilometres from Jerusalem where they were minted. Others have also been found in Jordan. These limits represent a circulation area of at least 100,000 square kilometres, or five times larger than the size of the state of Israel. Taking into account that it was a time when distances were expressed in terms of days of march, one begins to see the important influence of these coins.

5. THE IMAGES AND THE TEXTS

THE SIMPULUM

A fairly frequent symbol from the Roman religion of the time, the simpulum was a utensil used by the priests during their religious ceremonies. This little ladle, provided with shaft and a handle, allowed the priests to taste the wine which they poured onto the head of an animal destined for sacrifice, after which the soothsayer was empowered to examine the animal's entrails for signs and portents sent to men by the Gods through the medium of the interpreter. As I pointed out, none of this would have been obvious at first sight of the motif except perhaps to a Roman citizen. However, it throws some light on the theory put forward by F.A. Banks.

This wasn't the first time that the simpulum appeared on Roman coins, but it is the first time it figured alone. This fact gives an additional specificity to Pilate's coins, not only in the context of Judea but also in comparison with all the other coins of the Empire.

THE THREE EARS OF BARLEY

The three ears of barley are featured on the opposing face of the simpulum. Unlike the simpulum, these ears of barley are not in contravention of the Jewish Law. The motif is nevertheless distinctive because it is the first time it appears on a Judean coin. The motif would reappear twelve years later on one of Herod Agrippa's coins, then on another, much rarer, of Agrippa II (ears of barley held in a hand). After that, the motif disappeared altogether from ancient Jewish coins.

We might ask why is it that the central ear is upright while the other two droop. The GBC mentions the possibility that Pilate wanted to symbolise his authority over the Jews, but it is possible that it was simply a matter of aesthetic choice. Nevertheless, it may be noted that on Agrippa I's money, all three ears are upright:

THE LITUUS

The lituus is by way of being the "star" of Pilate coinage, not only because the two coins it illustrates (those of years 30 and 31) offer many more varieties than that of year 29 with the simpulum, but also because its form is sufficiently striking to remain engraved in the memory. Even more than the simpulum, the lituus was a very important symbol of the Roman cults. It was carved on the frieze in the Temple of Jupiter the Thunderer at Rome.

The lituus was the wooden staff which the augurs held in the right hand; it symbolised their authority and their pastoral vocation. It was raised toward heavens while the priests invoked the Gods and made their predictions. Legend records that Romulus used it at the time of Rome's foundation in 753 B.C.E. It is interesting to note that the cross used in present times is the direct descendant of the lituus.

As with the simpulum, Pilate's coinage is exceptional in that it alone displays the lituus as the sole object illustrated on the reverse.

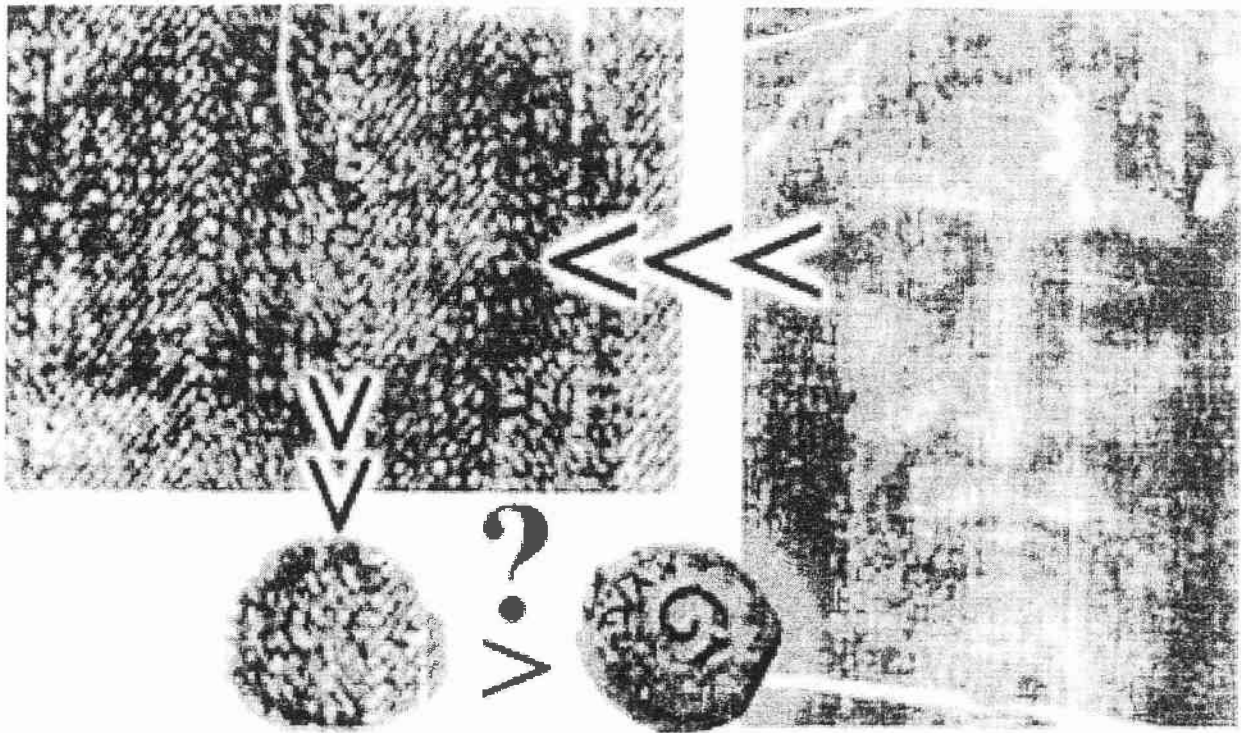


Fig. 10. The Turin Shroud and putative coins.

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THE WREATH

The laurel wreath is a symbol of power and victory, and figures on various ancient Greek and Roman coins. In Judea it can be found during the reign of John Hyrcanus I (134 to 104 B.C.E.). After that, Herod Antipas, speaker for Pilate, used it on all his coins. On Pilate's coins, the laurel wreath figures on the reverse side of the lituus, framing the date.

THE DATES

The notation of dates uses a code invented by the Greeks whereby each letter of the alphabet was assigned a number. This code would be used again in Judaism under the name of Guematria. The system is simple: the first ten letters of the alphabet are linked to units (1,2,3...), the following ten letters to tens (10,20,30...) and the four remaining letters to the first four hundreds.

Thus the date is always inscribed beginning with an "L", an abbreviation meaning "year". Pilate's three coins all follow this with an "I" (the tenth letter of the Greek alphabet, associated with the number 10), to indicate that the first decade of the reign of Tiberius has passed; after which Pilate's first coinage bore a "V" associated with 6, which shows that we are in the sixteenth year of Tiberius' reign. The second coinage's date ended with a "Z", or number 7 (17th year of Tiberius' reign), and finally, the third of Pilate's coinages ended with an "H", or number 8 (18th year of Tiberius' reign).

Tiberius became emperor on September 17 of year 14 C.E, so we have:

LIS = Year 29 C.E.

LIZ = Year 30 C.E.

LIH = Year 31 C.E.

THE TEXTS

The legends on Pontius Pilate's coins are written in Greek. Judea, governed by the Ptolemy dynasty (301 to 198 B.C.E) then by the Syrians until 63 B.C.E, came under the same powerful influence of Hellenic culture which touched the other territories of the ancient Persian Empire won by Alexander the Great. In spite of a certain amount of resistance, this Hellenistic heritage eventually crept into every aspect of daily life. Apart from the dates, the texts on Pilate's coinage consisted of only three different words:

- TIBEPIOY KAICAPOC (Of Tiberius Emperor) on all three coins;
- IOYLIA KAICAPOC (Empress Julia) added to the coin of year 29.

VARIETIES

The varieties on Pilate's coins are a fascinating subject of study. The most spectacular are those with retrograde motifs, with errors in texts or dates. These faults may have been due to the employment of apprentices or unskilled workers when the pressure of work was urgent because an insufficient quantity of coins was minted at the proper time, or perhaps work was farmed out to inferior workshops to make up for too low a rate of productivity in the official mints.

COUNTERMARKS

Throughout the world only thirteen specimens of Pilate's coins are listed as bearing countermarks. Three of them can be found in museums in Israel, and the other ten are in private collections. I am the lucky owner of five of them which are described below.

The countermarks represent a branch of the palm tree flanked by Greek letters "C", or "Cpi" or "U". According to the most credible hypothesis, the most frequent letters "Cpi" are an abbreviation of a Greek word designating a cohort, (a detachment of about 1000 soldiers), and applies to the 22nd Roman legion, which was stationed in the region. These countermarks could have been stamped in about 36 C.E, the period when Pilate left his official post. The palm branch may have indicated the place where the cohort was stationed, where there was perhaps palm groves. Nobody knows the meaning of the letters "U" or "C".

The countermarks were therefore stamped by the Roman legions for purposes connected with military affairs. It is noticeable that the engravers took care to save the central motif, which is

generally clearly visible. That must have been a delicate operation to accomplish in view of the small size of both the coin and the countermark die. This little detail reveals the importance attached to these coins; the countermarks add an extra dimension to objects already loaded with history. On the other hand, their scarcity is a mystery: the palm branch appears in different form; would anyone make several dies just to mint a handful of specimens? It seems odd, but not impossible.

PILATE'S COINS AND THE TURIN SHROUD

We will not enter into the arguments between the partisans and the adversaries of the authenticity of this shroud. An immense amount of literature has already been produced on this subject by all sorts of writers, from charlatans to eminent scientists. Let us consider the more outstanding recent developments. The "verdict" based on a Carbon 14 test was delivered in 1988: its conclusion was that the shroud is a work dating from the beginning of the 14th century. Many people accepted this decision as final. However, not long afterwards, some irregularities in the conduct of the experiments were taken into evidence, and the scientists themselves recognised the justice of this. Worse was to come: in 1997, an Italian archaeologist, Maria Siliato, demonstrated that the samples of cloth analysed had a density twice that of the shroud. In 1999, research from the Hebraic University of Jerusalem affirmed, after a study of the pollens in the shroud, that this object had been present in the region of what is now Israel at a period earlier than the 8th century.

One might well say that the Turin shroud guards its mystery to this day. Could it be possible that new developments may come from so unexpected a field as numismatics? Strange as it may seem, the possibility cannot be excluded.

It all began at NASA in 1978. At this time researchers Jackson, Jumper and Stephenson wanted to test the capacities of their VP8 new computer, specially for three-dimensional extrapolation, so they submitted the face on the shroud for analysis. The image obtained, now famous, distinctly revealed two circular protrusions on the eyelids. The experts immediately made a connection with an ancient custom which advocated the placing of coins on the eyes of the dead to keep them closed. Archaeological excavations have confirmed this tradition. Skeletons from the first and second century C.E. have been found with a coin in each eye-socket at Jericho and at En Boqeq. Everything then happened very quickly. The following year Professor Francis Filas, a teacher at Loyola University of Chicago, made an enlargement of the image of the left eye and noticed a strange curved shape with traces of letters above it. Intrigued, he went to an ancient coins expert from Chicago, Michael Marx, who concluded that it was probably the image of Pilate's lituus coin. I have reproduced the relevant illustration so that readers may form their own opinion on the matter.

In 1980, an electronic analysis performed in the Overland Park Laboratory in Texas confirmed not only the soundness of Professor Filas' findings, but also allowed the admission of evidence of another coin on the right eye, without however being able to identify why precise details were absent. Other researchers, Alan and Mary Whanger, took up the investigation in 1985, applying the technique of polarised light superimposition; they though they detected on the left eye coin the three ears of barley encircled with faint traces of letters: this indicated that it could be the coin minted in year 29.

What credibility may be given to these "discoveries"? Like everything else touching on the Turin Shroud, each discovery, whether in favour of its authenticity or against, is immediately contested by supporters holding the opposite view. The thesis of Pilate's coins on the eyes is neither more or less argued about than any other discovery or supposition concerning this shroud.

For my part, I must admit that I have failed to detect any trace of the year 29 coin on the right eye. On the other hand, the similarity of the centre left eye image to a coin bearing the lituus motif is actually more disturbing. The round form gives an impression suggestive of the lituus cross, (albeit a little less curved than in usual) surrounded by traces of letters which could be a vestige of the centre of the inscription "TIBEPIOY KAICAPOC".

A remarkable web site, www.shroud.com/lombatti.htm, presents all the details of this controversy (more than 20 pages).

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Postscript: Since this article was submitted, a full-length version has been published (September 2001): The Coins of Pontius Pilate, by J-P Fontanille and S. Gosline, preface by David Hendin. Shangri-La Publications, #3 Coburn Hill Road, Warren Center, PA 18851-0065, USA. 176 pages, 147 colour photographs. Paperback edition US\$26, clothbound US\$34.50. Shipping and handling US\$3 for US and Canada, US\$4.50 elsewhere. Discounts for multiple orders. Available from the author.

John R. Eccles

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OTAGO BRANCH ACTIVITIES

R. Hargreaves

The Otago Branch, RNSNZ, has a small core of loyal members who enjoy meeting regularly to listen to the research findings of individuals, to take part in Show & Tell evenings, and to see new acquisitions. Since our last report in the *Journal* two papers have been presented at meetings, namely "Currency in New Zealand in the 1930s" by Dr Ray Hargreaves, and "The Chatham Islands" (including related numismatic items) by Mrs Val Taylor. Two popular Show & Tell evenings had as their topics "Plants" and "Portraits of Non-Rulers".

In his report for 2000, the retiring Chairman, Dr Hargreaves, made the following comment, which received general support from the members present:

"Recently the Millennium \$10 note has become available to the public, and personally I feel that it is not a note New Zealand can be proud of. The majority of the public I have spoken to think it of a low standard, and this is not perhaps unexpected since it was designed by an advertising agency rather than experts in note design. We as a Society should make our comments about our coins and notes more public, as was true of the Numismatic Society in the 1930s and later."

The current Chairman of the Otago Branch is Brian Connor, whose outstanding expertise is in the field of Medals and Decorations.



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LEVIN INTER-CLUB MEETING, 2001

Angie Kidd, Wanganui

The annual meeting of the Royal Numismatic Society of NZ, Wellington Coin Club, Manawatu and Wanganui Numismatic Societies was held on Saturday 24 March 2001 at the Red Cross Hall, Queen Street, Levin.

Wanganui Numismatic Society President Gerry O'Mahoney welcomed the 31 attending numismatists on behalf of the host society.

Highlights of the day included the following:

- Round table group discussion of members' unusual items. This generated much information and mirth.
- The five short talks given by Wanganui N.S. members on aspects of their collecting interests:

Alan Sadd: An ancient Italian coin

Jim Kirk: Medals of Queen Victoria

Angie Kidd: NZ Money boxes

Gerry O'Mahoney: Brass band prize medals

Ross Kidd: 1908 USA Great White Fleet visit

This "short talk" format provided plenty of interest and variety for listeners.

- Sales/swap table treasures offered by John & Peter Eccles, Merle Sneddon, Kevin Mills, Martin Purdy and others.
- Alan Sadd's quiz for the Inter-club trophy which was narrowly won by the RNSNZ. Well done Royal and thank you Alan.

Alistair Robb made a special presentation to Alan Sadd in recognition of Alan's valuable contribution to his NZ banknote book.

As always, the day was a highlight of the numismatic year. The Wanganui N.S. members thank their friends in the other three clubs for their support and input in making such an enjoyable day.

WORLD COINS AND BANKNOTES for sale

I have a wide range of world coins (quality material and minors) and a number of banknotes available for sale. Send me your wants list with SAE and I'll see if I can fill any gaps.

Postal only - all coins banked.

I'm also interested in buying, particularly quality English and Scottish coins (no gold). Please send details only (*not* coins!) to the address below.

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OFFICERS OF THE SOCIETY 2001-2002
(Elected A.G.M. May 2001)

| | |
|-----------------------|--|
| PATRON: | Her Excellency the Right Hon. Dame Silvia Cartwright, Governor-General of New Zealand |
| PRESIDENT: | Mr W H Lampard |
| VICE-PRESIDENTS: | Messrs K Gottermeyer, A W Grant, C R Libby, K B Mills, L G Morel, M L Purdy, A F Robb, O J Wray, Dr M W Humble, Dr R P Hargreaves, Dr C T Ehrhardt |
| SECRETARY: | Mr C R Libby |
| TREASURER: | Mr R L Staal |
| ASST TREASURER: | Mr W H Lampard |
| AUDITOR: | Mr K B Mills |
| LIBRARIAN: | Mr R Hall |
| KEEPER OF COLLECTION: | Mr W H Lampard |
| ASSISTANT KEEPER: | Mr M L Purdy |
| EDITOR: | Mr M L Purdy |
| ASSISTANT EDITOR: | Mr W H Lampard |
| NEWSLETTER EDITOR: | Mr M L Purdy |
| JOURNAL ADVERTISING: | Mr A F Robb |
| COUNCIL: | President, Vice Presidents, Society position holders and Messrs J R Eccles, G S Park, R Collins, L G Morel |

MEDALS AND BADGES

| | |
|--|------------------|
| - 1981 RNSNZ Jubilee Bronze Medallion (49mm) in plush case | \$18.00 (US\$10) |
| - RNSNZ Society Badge | \$3.00 (US\$2) |

PUBLICATIONS AVAILABLE

| | |
|---|--------------------|
| - Transactions of the Society, 1931-1947 (three vols, photocopied. fcp size, unbound), indexed | \$40 each (US\$24) |
| - Set of Journals, nos. 1-52, 54-59, 61-75 (including three volumes of Transactions and reprints of out-of-print issues) | \$325 (US\$160) |
| - Set of Journals, nos. 4-52, 54-59, 61-75 (as above, minus Transactions) | \$225 (US\$110) |
| - Individual numbers | \$4 (US\$3) |
| - Index of nos. 4-48 | \$2 (US\$1) |

(All prices over NZ\$10 are post-paid)

Annual Report 2000-2001

As President I have pleasure in presenting the 70th Annual Report. We organised a full programme of ten meetings, issued Journal no. 77, two Newsletters (nos. 28 and 29) and supplied Volume 10 of the Journal of the Numismatic Association of Australia Inc. to members.

Summary of Meetings and Activities

- | | |
|----------------|--|
| April 2000 | Visit to Treasury to view part of their NZ coin and note collection - organised by the Wellington Coin Club Inc. |
| April 2000 | Members displayed year 2000 coin and banknote issues. |
| May 2000 | AGM & confirmation of year 2001 programme. |
| May 2000 | The Year 2000 Fair was enjoyed by those attending but was not the financial success we had hoped for. The venue at the Wesley Hall in Taranaki Street became unavailable a few days before the event because of the death of a church elder. We transferred to the Salvation Army Hall in Jessie Street, only a few hundred yards away, but the late change and the bad weather kept the public away. I thank members of the Royal and the Coin Club who worked so hard on this venture. |
| June 2000 | Banknotes - interesting notes and error notes were displayed and explained. |
| July 2000 | Other hobbies - members exhibited items from their other hobbies - postcards, stamps, trains, diecast toys, etc. |
| August 2000 | Members met at the Central Police Station, had a meal in the cafeteria and visited the Document Examination Centre. |
| September 2000 | Coins and banknotes from unusual places. |
| October 2000 | Primitive money - led by Alistair Robb. |
| November 2000 | Christmas meeting with the Wellington Coin Club. |

The Society's early years: reprints of the "Transactions" - the proceedings of the New Zealand Numismatic Society (as it was then) from 1931 to 1936, 1936 to 1941 and 1941 to 1947 - are once again available. More than just minutes of meetings, these contain detailed accounts of papers read at early meetings of the Society and represent a fascinating insight into the first years of our own distinctive coinage and the input by the NZNS.

See page 29, under "Publications Available", for price details.

- February 2001 Consideration of the idea that NZ should issue low-value circulation coins, based on the US \$¼ commemorative issue, but only to be available in circulation, to stimulate interest in coin collecting. We intend to put this proposal to the Reserve Bank.
- March 2001 Levin Inter-Club Meeting. A full report appears elsewhere in this *Journal*.
- March 2001 Police Museum visit - a very interesting evening attended by about 20 members from the Royal and the Wellington Coin Club.

Reserve Bank: 2000 New Zealand Collectors' Issues - Mintage and Sales Figures

| Product | Maximum Mintage | NZ Mintage from Mint | Struck in total | NZ Price |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| \$50 uncut pair | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | \$124 |
| \$50 sheet of 40 notes | 100 | 100 | 100 | \$2,270 |
| 1999 Annual Note Set | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | \$240 |
| 2000 Pied Cormorant proof set | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | \$110 |
| 2000 Pied Cormorant proof \$5 | 3,500 | 3,500 | 1,450 | \$70 |
| 2000 Pied Cormorant BU set | 3,000 | 3,000 | 3,000 | \$35 |
| 2000 Pied Cormorant BU \$5 | 2,500 | 2,500 | 1,700 | \$20 |
| 2000 Annual note sets | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | \$255 |
| 2000 Niagara Gold coin set | 600 | 600 | 600 | \$750 |

It is important to note that these products were issued at different times during the year and so some of the "Struck in total" numbers may have changed after 31 December 2000.

Membership Stands at 125. It is with deep regret that I record the death of:

Mr Eric Price, FRNSNZ, of Christchurch

Branches Otago held meetings during the year but Canterbury remains in recess.

Publications We issued Journal no. 78, and Newsletters no. 30 (July 2000) and no. 31 (March 2001) and supplied Volume 11 of the Journal of the Numismatic Association of Australia Inc. to members.

Administration In conclusion I wish to thank members of Council, the Secretary, Treasurer, Editor and Newsletter Editor for their efforts during the year.

W.H. Lampard
30 May 2001

**ROYAL NUMISMATIC SOCIETY OF NEW ZEALAND INCORPORATED
INCOME AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT FOR THE YEAR
ENDED 31 MARCH 2001**

| INCOME | 2001 | (2000) | EXPENDITURE | 2001 | (2000) |
|---------------|----------------|------------------|-----------------------|----------------|------------------|
| Subscriptions | 3436 | (2927) | Journals | 1660 | (988) |
| Tax Refund | 195 | (122) | Books | 131 | (97) |
| Medals/Badges | 30 | (-) | Postage etc. | 481 | (500) |
| Interest | 1036 | (1377) | Meeting Expenses | 250 | (260) |
| | | | Officers' Expenses | 600 | (600) |
| | | | Taxation RWT | 208 | (319) |
| | | | Rent | 967 | (613) |
| | | | Misc. Expenses | 308 | (280) |
| | | | Newsletter | 287 | (300) |
| | | | Grants etc. | - | (-) |
| | | | Insurance | 70 | (73) |
| | | | Coin Collection Costs | 240 | (249) |
| | | | Levin Inter-Club | - | - |
| | | | Depreciation | - | - |
| | | | Loss on 2000 Medal | 300 | - |
| Deficit | 805 | | Surplus | | (147) |
| | <u>\$5,502</u> | <u>(\$4,426)</u> | | <u>\$5,502</u> | <u>(\$4,426)</u> |

**BALANCE SHEET
FOR THE YEAR ENDED 31 MARCH 2001**

| LIABILITIES | 2001 | (2000) | ASSETS | 2001 | (2000) |
|--------------------|-----------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Accumulated Funds | 20,908 | (20,761) | Cash | | |
| Less Deficit | <u>(805)</u> | <u>(+147)</u> | Petty | 120 | |
| | | | BNZ | 505 | |
| | | | Sth. Canterbury | 7000 | |
| | | | Spiers Group | <u>10000</u> | 17625 (18488) |
| | | | Journal Stock | 500 | (500) |
| | | | Medals | 120 | (120) |
| | | | Library | 100 | (100) |
| | | | Coin Collection | 450 | (450) |
| | | | Stock Medals | 400 | (400) |
| | | | Slides | 100 | (100) |
| | | | Projector/Screen | 200 | (200) |
| | | | Chairs/Desk | 100 | (100) |
| | | | Display Cases | 150 | (150) |
| Creditors | - | (500) | Debtors | <u>358</u> | <u>(800)</u> |
| | <u>\$20,103</u> | <u>(\$21,408)</u> | | <u>\$20,103</u> | <u>\$21,408</u> |

AUDITOR'S REPORT

I have examined the books and accounts of the Royal Numismatic Society of New Zealand Inc. and I am satisfied that the above Income and Expenditure Account and Balance Sheet correctly sets out the financial results and position of the Society.

K.B. Mills. Hon. Auditor

W.H. Lampard, President

R.L. Staal. Hon. Treasurer



WELLINGTON COIN CLUB Inc



To commemorate the 'Year 2000' the Wellington Coin Club Inc offers to its members a limited edition of 200 Reserve Bank of New Zealand one dollar notes over printed as shown above. The cost is \$15.00 each (includes post and packaging)

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and
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AD 2000 Commemorative Medal



The Royal Numismatic Society of New Zealand Inc and the Wellington Coin Club have designed a medal to commemorate the AD 2000 Numismatic Fair.

The 32mm medal has been struck in bronze by Mayer and Toye Limited, Wellington and will be available at the AD 2000 Fair in Wellington on the 6th May 2000.

A brief personal message (such as a name and title or name and address) of no more than six words can be engraved in the blank area of the reverse. This will be engraved by the maker of the medal at the Fair.

For those members who are unable to attend and who would like to buy the medal please complete the attached order form and return it with payment to the Secretary, Royal Numismatic Society of New Zealand Inc, P O Box 2023, Wellington.

ORDER FORM AD 2000 MEDAL

Name: _____

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Please supply me with:

Bronze 32mm medal reverse engraved: _____ @ \$9-00 each = \$ _____

Bronze 32mm medal reverse blank: _____ @ \$7-00 each = \$ _____

Plus \$1.00 post and packaging for each medal
(if you cannot pick up the medals at the Fair)

Total payment enclosed: \$ _____

Inscriptions required: _____
