Registered at G.P.O. for transmission by post as a magazine

Volume 10 — No. 2 (32) August, 1960

NEW ZEALAND NUMISMATIC JOURNAL

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE
ROYAL NUMISMATIC SOCIETY OF NEW ZEALAND
INCORPORATED
P.O. BOX 23, WELLINGTON, N.Z.

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ISSUED GRATIS TO MEMBERS

NUMISMATIC JOURNAL

of the

ROYAL NUMISMATIC SOCIETY

OF NEW ZEALAND INCORPORATED

P.O. BOX 23, WELLINGTON, N.Z.

Vol. 10 AUGUST, 1960 No. 2 (32)

'NUMISMATIC HAGGIS

By ALLAN SUTHERLAND, F.R.N.S.N.Z.

As we know, the district North of the Firth of Forth was the land of the Picts, whilst the district South of the Forth was part of the Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Northumbria. At an early period a colony of Scots left their native country of Ireland and settled in Argyleshire, and about 843 the Picts and the Scots were united under Kenneth McAlpin, a Scot. (Rawlings, G.B.) It will be seen, therefore, that the Scots absorbed the Picts, and, it may be said, since then Scotsmen have absorbed many nationalities in all parts of the world. In the process, however, some of the Scotsmen have themselves been absorbed, for we have it on record that the late Sir Maui Pomare, Minister of Native Affairs—a Maori—boasted that he had Scottish blood in his veins because his ancestors had eaten a Scotsman!

Before passing from the subject of Picts and Scots, I should like to mention that Scotsmen have always been ardent coin collectors. One story is told of the capture by the Romans of a motley band of Picts and Scots, and when the Roman captain asked the soldiers how they could distinguish the Picts from the Scots, one soldier replied, "That is simple. We just throw them a handful of denarii—and the Picts don't get any!"

Curious coin-terms of Scotland include the world-known bawbee. The origin of the term is in doubt. Some suggest that it originated from the name of a moneyer, the "Laird of Sillebawbye" and others that it originated from the "bawbee" or baby face of Mary, Queen of Scots, who was proclaimed Queen when only a few days old, and whose baby face appeared on her early coins.

The Bodle has been corrupted into "boodle" which is a modern term used by the "vulgar poor" to describe the ill-gotten gains of the "vulgar rich"!

The bonnet-piece or ducat of gold was so named because of the head piece of King James V. Other curious coin-titles include the dollar, and the one-sixteenth or 40 penny-piece, the thistle-dollar, the thistle-merk, the ducat, the groat, lion, merk, noble, pistole, plack, rider, ryal, St. Andrew, testoon, unicorn, unite, hardhead, hatpiece. Fractional denominations included the six-shilling piece, the

60, 22, 16, 12 and 30 shilling piece, the 20 and 30 penny piece, and the £3 piece.

The coins of Scotland are of comparatively recent origin, beginning with the silver pennies or sterlings of David I (1124-1153) and ending with the issues of Anne in 1709. In earliest times the chief mint was a Holyrood, Edinburgh. The hammer was the principal coining implement and only silver coins were issued until David II (1329-1371) issued a gold noble. The first Scottish milled coins were the silver testoons of Mary, dated 1553, and these coins were minted in France. The English influence is plainly discernible in the Scottish coins, even to the point of debasement. After teaching the Scots to debase their silver coins, the English, in 1423, actually forbade the circulation of these Scottish coins in England!

John Baliol (1292-1296) issued pennies bearing the inscription, in Latin, "City of St. Andrew", Robert Bruce (1306-1329) coined pennies, halfpennies and farthings, in silver, these being the only coins circulating in Scotland at the time. David II, son of Robert Bruce, issued a gold lion or St. Andrew bearing the effigy of that Saint, with the cross of St. Andrew on the reverse of another coin. In the time of Robert III this coin was valued at 5/- and in the time of James III it was valued at 6/8, the lawyer's fee.

James III also issued other gold coins, including the rider (23/-) and the half and quarter riders, as well as the unicorn and the half unicorn or St. Andrew. The billon (base-metal) plack (from plaque) valued at 2d. or 3d., and a copper farthing also appeared during this reign. James V (1514-1542) issued a gold ducat or bonnet piece, worth 40/- (so named because of the flat bonnet worn by him in the coin portrait), and a billon plack-bawbee valued at 1½d. The modern shilling or "bob" is not equivalent to the old "bawbee" as is sometimes imagined but some Scots may be able to buy as much for their bawbee at 1½d. as we can with our shilling. Under Mary (1542-1567) the gold crown piece was worth 20/-, the silver testoon worth 5/-, and under Mary and Francis (1558) when at the age of 16 Mary Queen of Scots married the Dauphin of France, the gold ducat worth 60/- was issued, in addition to the silver testoon and half testoon, and the nonsunt (12d.) and the hardhead or lion worth 1½d. The coins of this reign bear the inscription "Francis and Mary, by the grace of God, King and Queen of France and Scotland." Under Mary and Henry Darnley (1565) a new coin was issued, the silver ryal worth 30/-, as well as a two-thirds and one-third ryal. On the abdication of Mary, her young son James VI (also James I of England) (1567-1625) issued a gold £20 piece, a half-rider, ducat 80/-, hatpiece 80/-, lion-noble 75/-, a sword and sceptre £6, a thistle-noble £7/6/8, and in silver 40, 30, 20, 16, 10, 8, 5, 4, and 2 shilling pieces. The silver two-merk piece or thistle-dollar was worth 26/8. The monarch was the most prolific issuer of Scottish coins.

In 1593 James VI issued a rider bearing the motto "I hope for better things" said to be an allusion to James's hopes for the English throne. On the accession to the English throne in 1603 James ordered that the Scottish gold and silver coins should follow the English in every respect, and henceforward the Scottish coins issued bore only the tiny distinguishing mint mark of a thistle or the letter E to indicate that they were minted in Edinburgh. The Scottish coins in circulation, however, seemed to persist in circulation for some time, and it was not until the time of Anne in 1707, when, according to the terms of the Union the coinages of England and Scotland were merged.

The value of Scottish coins appears to have fluctuated like the mercury in a thermometer, and every coin seemed to have an alternative name which was frequently changed or exchanged for other coin names. Nominally Scottish coins were worth twelve times as much as the English coins. Actually every Scottish pound was only worth an English shilling and every Scottish shilling equal to an English penny. Thus under James, after 1603, the £12 gold piece was worth £1 English, the 30/- Scottish silver piece equal to the English half-crown, and the Scottish shilling worth the English penny.

In order to perpetuate the old lie about Scotland's poverty-stricken state prior to the Union, it has been the custom of traducers—native and otherwise—to go ou of their way to explain that the old Scots money bore approximately the proportion of one-twelfth to the money of England; the implication being that the Englishman was twelve times richer than the Scot. This apparently arose from the fact that **the Scots "penny" was called a "Schillin" or "sgillinn", and there was a Scots coin called the "pund" or "pound", worth about the twelfth of an English coin called the "pound".** But "schillin" and "pund" were merely names. If we suddenly decided to call the modern sixpence a florin, the change of name alone would not increase its value or buying power.

Here are the names and comparative values of the old Scots coins:

2 Doits — 1 Bodle.
2 Bodles — 1 Plack or Groa.
3 Placks — 1 Schillin.
40 Placks — 1 Merk.
20 Schillins — 1 Pund.

Before passing on to St. Andrew and the great symbol of Scotland—the thistle—not to mention the lion rampant, I should like to refer in passing to the striking similarity between certain characteristics of the Scottish and the Maori races. Both races were wont to live in a communal state—the clans of Scotland and the tribes of the Maoris—both used hilltops for castle-fortresses or stockades. The piupiu or short dried flax covering of the Maori and the kilt of the Scotsman are not dissimilar, even to the patterns—copied later in Maori tartans—the Maori

cloak worn over one shoulder by the Maori warrior is something like the flowing folds of the tartan plaid falling from the shoulders of the Scotsman. The ceremonial staff of the kilted drum-major was not unlike the taiaha or warstaff of the Maori chief, the erect feathers in the Scottish Glengarry resembled the feathered headdress of the Maori. Cowan tells us that in the Maori War, Maori and Pakeha soldiers alike, wore kilt-like waist shawls at times to facilitate movements through bush and swamps for much the same reason as our trampers now prefer shorts when hiking in the hinterlands of New Zealand. Kilts were said to have been invented because Scotsmen could not get trousers big enough to get their feet through. Maori music was both sad and stirring, and resembled the laments and stirring fighting songs of the Scots. The Highland Fling and the Maori haka had similarities, and the yells of the haka leaders and the involuntary shouts of the Scots came from the same impulses. The skirl of the bagpipes made the true Scotsman shout—but that is perhaps the only shouting for which Scotsmen are famous! Apart from clothing, both races are of fine physique, and of proud bearing, both are chivalrous, and strangely enough the only evidence of cannibalism in the British Isles comes from Glasgow so that there is an affinity there between New Zealand and Scotland. But there is one great divergence between the Scots and the Maoris. The rigours of the Highlands and the troublesome English have developed characteristics that have had their beneficial influence in all parts of the globe, whereas the so-called kindly climate of New Zealand has made the Maori an easy going and contented citizen who distributes his largess with a lavish hand—an accusation that can hardly be hurled at the Scotsman. In New Zealand some Maoris—and only some —are referred to as smoked Scotsmen.

The fact that Scotsmen and their foes went bare-footed in the old days is one reason given for the adoption of the thistle as the great national emblem of Scotland. We are told on the best of authority that the legendary adoption of the thistle has been traced to an incident in the war with the Norwegians, in the 13th century, during an attack at Largs by Hakos' Army on Alexander. It is presumed that a stealthy Norwegian creeping on the Scots in the dark, trod on a thistle, and the involuntary expletives were sufficient to warn the Scottish defenders in time to save Bonnie Scotland. Modern artists depict St. Andrew barefooted. It is doubtful whether St. Andrew ever set foot on Scottish soil—much less on a Scottish thistle. The thistle emblem was first adopted by James III and it is suggested that it illustrates the motto of James "In Defence". The thistle appears on many coins of Scotland. The first Scotch thistle was planted in New Zealand with much ceremonial, on St. Andrew's Day, 1840.

St. Andrew, the patron Saint of Scotland, is believed to have suffered martyrdom on an X-like cross about the year 70 A.D. after a preaching tour through Greece. His connection with Scotland dates four centuries later when

some relics of the Saint were brought to Scotland by a monk. The ship bearing the relics was wrecked but the relics were brought ashore at a spot now called St. Andrew. St. Andrews has an ecclesiastical origin, and is today a famous seat of learning as well as being the headquarters of the ancient game of golf. St. Andrew's cross of martyrdom, a white saltire on a blue ground, was Scotland's flag, and it is now one of the three crosses incorporated in the Union Jack. St. Andrew's Day provides an occasion for the migrant-Scotsmen to meet, and on St. Andrew's night in Canada, South Africa, Australia and in New Zealand the minds of many Scotsmen will turn to their Homeland as they listen to the skirl of the bagpipes and Scottish songs and music that are heard at Scottish gatherings and over the radio.

Some years ago the St. Andrew's Society of London and of Glasgow presented a petition to the late King George V complaining that the provisions of the Treaty of Union of 1707 had been disregarded both in letter and in spirit, and that in Imperial heraldic matters and in ceremonial there was undue prominence given to the traditions and symbolism of England instead of treating the realms of Scotland and England as equal partners in that Union. The petition included the following complaints:

"Unconstitutional use of the words 'England' and 'English' in British and Imperial affairs.

The discontinuance of the Scottish Mint has involved loss of work to Scotland, and the coinage is, with one exception (Britannia) purely English in design and arrangement. (This has been rectified in the new issue. It is worthy of note that Britannia was modelled from La Belle Stuart, one-time friend of Charles II.)

The flags of the Royal Navy, contrary to the Treaty, display St. George's Cross, not conjoined with St. Andrew's Cross. The Union Pendant has been suppressed.

The War Office recognises the St. George's Cross for regimental colours, but declined to recognise St. Andrew's Cross.

The English Royal Crest is used illegally upon the Colour-pikes of Scottish Regiments.

The badge of the King's Own Scottish Borderers displays the English Royal Crest.

The flag recently designed for Governors-General displays the English Royal Crest only, which is unconstitutional, and reflects upon Scotland's share in founding the Empire.

In Imperial heraldry all reference to Scotland and to Scottish emblems is suppressed notwithstanding that in some cases the emblems are less popular than those of Scotland."

The Scottish lion rampant, is derived from the arms of the ancient Earls of Northumberland and Huntingdon, frfom whom some of the Scottish monarchs were descended. Sir Walter Scott says that William, King of Scotland, having chosen for his armorial bearing, a Red Lion rampant, acquired the name of William the Lion; and this rampant Lion still constitutes the arms of Scotland. The President of the heraldic court is called Lord Lyon King-at-Arms.

(Abridged paper read before Society 20 years ago.)

THE "TURPIN" COLLECTION

(Being an account of the English coinage from 1695 to 1738.)

By R. SELLARS, F.R.N.S.N.Z.

Contributor's Note:

The rather unusual form of approach to this paper was inspired by a wish to show something of the conditions that obtained in England during the period when these coins were actively circulating. It will thus be appreciated that despite the humble rusticity of 18th century England the artistry of her coin designers and engravers attained a very high standard indeed.—R.S.

On a certain summer's afternoon, in the year 1738, the London-Worthing stage-coach could be seen lumbering on it appointed way over the Sussex Downs, in the vicinity of Horsham. Leaden-hued skies and an oppressive atmosphere portended the approach of a thunderstorm. Inside the crowded vehicle the air had become so very stuffy that most of the passengers were nodding drowsily. A plethoric old gentleman, dozing uneasily in a corner seat, snorted audibly from time to time, while the additional heat engendered by his wearing of a peruke—that fashionable affectation of the period—caused glistening beads of perspiration to appear on his brow.

As the coach lurched unevenly around a bend in the road the travellers were startled into sudden wakefulness by the sharp command: "Stand and deliver!"

The response to that impervious summons was immediate. The brake was applied, the reins were jerked backward and the horses, rearing and plunging momentarily, were brought to a standstill as forth from the shelter of a convenient thicket stepped the jaunty figure of England's most notorious highwayman—Dick Turpin, himself. With pistols cocked for instant action he curtly ordered the company into the road, lined them up, stared menacingly at them for a few moments, then deftly proceeded to relieve them of their valuables. An ever-mounting pile of watches, snuff-boxes, jewellery and coinage of the realm

testified to the opulence of the bandit's latest victims. As he swept his ill-gotten gains into a capacious bag Turpin permitted himself a fleeting grin of satisfaction then, with mock gallantry, he brandished his hat in parting benediction and went his way.

We will leave the disconsolate travellers to continue their rudely-interrupted journey while we cautiously follow our "gentleman of the road" to his hide-out. Our interest lies not in the chronometers nor the jewellery which he acquired at pistol-point but in the coins that form an appreciable part of his spoils.

Peering circumspectly over his shoulder as he prepares to arrange these in chronological order, just what types of coinage might we (reasonably) expect to see? For a reason which will shortly become apparent, we are unlikely to encounter any hammered pieces. The milled issues of Charles II, also the coins of James II and William and Mary will probably be represented to some extent but it is mainly those of William III, Anne and the first two Georges with which we are about to become concerned.

No doubt most coin collectors are familiar with the circumstances that led to the great re-coinage of William III. Until 1695 hammered money was still current but most of the silver was so badly clipped and worn as to be obviously underweight. Taking a realistic view of the situation the Government of the day thereupon called in this defective money, redeeming it at face value regardless of its serious state of deterioration. Fortunately, a small proportion of it was found to be in first-class condition and, after being officially pierced in such a manner that its weight was in no way impaired, was returned to circulation for a few years. The hammered gold coins, being in good condition, also continued as legal tender until 1732.

The redemption of the old, defective silver resulted in a loss to the Treasury of £1,200,000. In order to rectify the position the Government, in 1697, introduced a most unusual form of levy, known as the "Window Tax". Any house or domicile containing more than six windows was taxed—on a graduated scale—on the excess number. In order to evade or to lessen this burden many house-owners bricked up some of their windows and evidence of this counter-measure can still be seen in some of the older English homes. The Window Tax was not officially repealed until 1851.

We may now proceed to survey the coinage of William III. The obverse of the gold issues portrays an undraped bust of the king, facing right, the reverse depicting cruciform shields, with sceptres in the angles. During his short, solo reign three different busts of William appeared on the gold coins. On some of these pieces the symbol of an Elephant and Castle, below the bust, indicates that the

gold from which the coins were made was supplied by the "Africa Company", operating on the coast of Guinea, in West Africa. Coins without a provenance-mark were produced in London.

Of the silver emanations of this reign the four major denominations include many varieties. In the case of the crown-piece three different busts grace the obverse while three distinct types of harp are to be found on the reverse. These harps provide additional minor variations according to the number of strings they bear. In order to expedite the minting of the half-crowns, shillings and sixpences additional Mints were temporarily established in Bristol, Chester, Exeter, Norwich and York, the city of origin being indicated by its initial letter, which appears below the bust. Thus, the letter "B" proclaims that the coin was made in Bristol, "C" represents Chester, and so on. These supplementary minting places operated continuously for over two years. When we consider the various combinations of busts and harps, including differences in the size of the crowns surmounting the harps on the sixpences, also the difference in the size of the lions on the half-crowns and shillings, plus the variety of minting-cities, etc., we can readily appreciate that specialisation in the coinage of this reign could well become an absorbing study. Many other variations also exist, such as the omission of stops in the legends of either the obverse or the reverse, mis-spelling of the king's name and, in rare instances, the introduction of roses on the reverse and of plume(s) on either side of the shillings and sixpences. Roses signify that the coins concerned were made from silver obtained from mines in the West of England, while plumes denote Welsh mines as the place of origin.

The minor silver issues—4d., 3d., 2d., and 1d.—present a simple uniformity of design. The one bust is used throughout William's reign and the main feature of the reverse is the denomination (in Arabic numerals) surmounted by a crown which divides the date. Few varieties occur.

Copper coins, consisting as usual of half-pennies and farthings, embody three types of the former and two of the latter. In the first issue of both values Britannia holds an olive-branch before her and the date is shown in the exergue. The second type has the date in the legend, following the word "Britannia", while, in the final issue (half-pennies but no farthings) the date again appears in the exergue and Britannia's right hand now rests on her knee.

An elusive copper coin, known as the London half-penny, is occasionally to be found. The obverse depicts an elephant, to left, while the reverse is occupied by a shield, together with the legend: "God Preserve London". It is possibly either a pattern piece or a token.

Queen Anne came to the throne in the year 1702. She was the younger daughter of James II and, by the Union of Scotland with England in 1707, became the first sove-

reign of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The Union was responsible for a change in the disposition of the royal arms. Prior to this important event the arms of the two countries had been featured on separate shields whereas, after the Act of Union, they were impaled on two of the shields.

Although Anne's coinage does not contain the amazing varieties of that of William III nevertheless four distinct busts are portrayed; also, some of the coins have plumes on the reverse while others show roses **and** plumes for the first time.

In the year 1702, during the War of the Spanish Succession, an Anglo-Dutch expedition sacked the seaport of Vigo, on the Spanish coast, securing a large hoard of silver "pieces of eight" and a quantity of gold. Some of these spoils of war were converted into good English money, on which the word "Vigo" appears under the bust. The gold coins (5 guineas, 1 guinea and ½ guinea) of this issue are rare but the silver pieces (crown, ½-crown, shilling and sixpence) are fairly abundant and are always in popular demand. The initial issue of the shilling, featuring the Queen's first bust, is dated 1702. In the following year the full set made its appearance, the "shilling" value now showing the second bust.

For two years after the Union the Edinburgh mint continued to function, the coins produced there being recognisable by the letter "E" or "E*" under the monarch's bust.

The minor silver issues (fourpence to penny) again follow the general pattern of the times for these pieces—that is, the one bust throughout the reign, and the reverse type that was standardised by William and Mary.

In 1713 various patterns were prepared for the halfpenny and farthing. A design for a copper farthing was duly approved but while the coins—dated 1714—were in course of production the Queen died. Consequently, very few of these farthings passed into circulation. Pattern halfpennies and farthings, in both silver and copper, sometimes appear in the salerooms of dealers and are eagerly snapped up by numismatists.

Although Anne bore no fewer than seventeen children, she survived them all, sixteen of them succumbing in their infancy. On her death, therefore, the choice of a successor to the throne became necessary. Her nearest relative was the Scottish Prince, James Edward, but as he was a Catholic he was unacceptable to the majority of the English, who insisted on a Protestant ruler. Eventually, the crown was offered to, and accepted by, the Elector of Hanover, George Louis, whose mother was a grand-daughter of James I of England. Thus, George Louis, Elector of Hanover, became George I of Great Britain and Ireland.

The legends on the English coinage of George I have reference not only to the currency of Great Britain, France

and Ireland, but also to that of his German Provinces of Brunswick and Luneburg. In addition, the Hanoverian arms now became incorporated in the reverse design.

Four different busts, all undraped, are to be found on the gold coins and a new value—a quarter-guinea—was included. This appeared in 1718. Owing to its smallness, however, it failed to win public approval as it was difficult to handle and was too easily lost. It was therefore not re-issued during this reign. The value of the guinea, which had hitherto been inconstant, fluctuating between twenty and thirty shillings, was in 1714 finally fixed at twenty-one shillings.

The major silver issues are fairly straightforward. One bust sufficed for the crowns, half-crowns and sixpences but a second bust was used for the later shillings, commencing in 1723. Two classes of mintmark are common to all four denominations. The now familiar Roses and Plumes type is the one most frequently seen. The other, used only on part of the output of 1723, consists of the letters "S.S. C.", standing for the South Sea Company, whose South American mines yielded the silver for this issue. The activities of this company, which did so much to restore the national finance after the disastrous effects of the South Sea Bubble, need no recapitulation here. Many of the "first bust" shillings of 1720-21 were produced at the Tower Mint and have no provenance-mark. A "second bust" type of shilling has the letters "W.C.C." below the king's effigy. These are the initials of the Welsh Copper Company who provided the silver from which these pieces were made. On the reverse of these shillings, which were issued in small quantities during the years 1723-1726, a plume and interlinked "C.s" are shown in alternate angles.

The smaller silver coins, from the groat to the penny, again followed the old, simple pattern. The full set appeared twice only—in 1723 and 1727—and apparently did not include varieties.

There were two distinctive issues of copper halfpennies and farthings. Small, thick flans were used for the first of these, the resultant coins being known as "dumps". Broader planchets, of normal thickness, were used for the later issue, which proved to be the more attractive.

George II succeeded his father in 1727.

On that sultry afternoon in 1738, when Turpin acquired his collection, the coinage of the reigning monarch was limited to the very pleasing "young-head" bust types.

The gold coins, as usual, feature an undraped bust and on many of them the letters E.I.C. appear below the king's portrait, thus intimating that the metal from which these pieces were minted was obtained from the East India Company. They are quite plentiful. A new reverse design adorns the gold coins of this reign, the cruciform shields of many years' standing now making way for a large, attractive, single-type escutcheon.

The silver coins portray the normal, draped bust and most of the major denominations have provenance-marks in the angles of the reverse design. In the case of the crowns and half-crowns, some have roses while others exhibit roses and plumes. Some of the shillings and six-pences have the same identification marks while others show plumes only.

Doctor G. C. Brooke, whose "English Coins" is the standard work in this field of numismatics, recognises the minor silver coins of George II as the first true Maundy Money. Prior to 1731 (or possibly 1729) he considers that these engaging little pieces circulated as coinage of the realm, his contention appearing to be substantiated by the worn condition in which the earlier issues are usually to be found.

There was only one copper issue during the few years of this reign covered by the present account. Both the halfpennies and the farthings portray a cuirassed bust of the sovereign on the obverse, Britannia occupying her usual position on the reverse.

Thus it will be appreciated that Dick Turpin's booty might well have provided the nucleus of a splendid, modern collection of the English series. It wouldn't have benefited him much, however, because in the following year he was hanged in York—for horse-stealing!

SILVER AND COPPER COINAGE OF GEORGE IV
(1820 - 30)

By E. HORWOOD, F.R.N.S.N.Z.

This was a period of some 16 years of great numismatic interest, covering the ten years of his reign and a further period as regent when we can reasonably assume that his keen artistic sense was extended to expressing his views on coin design.

It is to be borne in mind that this reign was a resettling time following the Napoleonic Wars and Waterloo, and therefore one of change with financial difficulties to be overcome.

The mint was reorganised in 1812 and as from the re-coinage of 1816 all coins are considered current coinage.

Artistically it was a fine period and commercially satisfactory from the point of view that coins were minted regularly once again, after the almost non-existent issues of the previous fifty years, and coins of this period were among the first to be circulated in the infant colonies of Australia and New Zealand.

The striving for perfection in appearance of the coins of this reign are reflected by the many changes in design, not to mention the artistic temperament displayed in quarrels over these designs so that results vary. While some outstanding specimens of metallic art were achieved others fall into the error of presenting overcrowded fields with too much detail which is quickly lost by wear in circulation.

There was a break from previous coin types at the 1816 recoinage by use of thicker flans and raised edges which gives a neater finish and more modern appearance.

At this time also, there were outstanding engravers at the mint in the persons of Benedetto Pistrucci, whose St. George and dragon design appeared on the last crowns of George III and is one of our most beautiful coins in the English series. Following the quarrels over the portrait of George III half-crown of 1816 known as the "bull-necked" issue, which was most unflattering, Pistrucci's place was taken over by William Wyom, the first of a family to be leading figures at the Royal Mint for the ensuing century, well entrenched in the tradition of artist craftsmen of considerable ability.

During the ten years' reign of George IV the changes in coin design show two obverse portraits and three types of reverse, while milled edges became standard practice on all silver but the crown piece, where lettering on the edge was still retained as a safeguard against clipping.

The first issue of the reign in 1820 consisted of half-crowns only, but in the following year a full set of silver and copper was put into circulation, all bearing on obverse a laureated head of his majesty facing left and occupying most of the field with inscription reading Georgius IIII D:G: Britanniar: Rex F:D:

Reverse of the crown piece was the St. George and dragon motif of Pistrucci but much larger and with a mat finish to the coin, and date in exergue. The half-crown, shilling and sixpence all have a similar reverse of a crowned shield quartered by the arms of England in first and third quarters and those of Scotland and Ireland occupying second and fourth respectively, but a smaller crowned shield in the centre bears the arms of Hanover. Outside the shields are the floral emblems of Scotland, Ireland and England in that order with date anno, 1821, on either side of the English rose, the whole effect being graceful and very pleasing to look at.

In 1823 a change in reverse design appeared and was issued in half crown and shilling only, followed by sixpence in 1824. This reverse consisted of a crowned shield but of a square shape this time, quartered as before, and enclosed by the Order of the Garter on the shilling and sixpence. On the half-crown this garter is further enclosed by the chain of the order complete with suspended figure of St. George, and date on either side, giving a very crowded effect to the coin.

In 1824 the king expressed displeasure with his portrait on the coinage so the following year the second portrait was issued, engraved by W. Wyon from Chantrey's popular bust. This shows the king bare-headed, a portrait of good clean lines and well executed, smaller than the previous issue and inscription Georgius IV Dei Gratia, and date under truncation.

The third and final reverse was issued from 1825-29 in the case of the half-crown and shilling, but 1826-29 for the sixpence. On the half-crown this consisted of a garnished shield of less square shape than the previous issue, surmounted by a plumed and crowned helmet. Under the shield is a ribbon bearing the motto "Dieu et mon droit", and around the sides Britanniarum Rex Fid: Def:.

The two smaller silver coins have as their reverse design a motif of a crowned lion standing on a larger crown, under which are the entwined shamrock, rose and thistle. This design is an excellent one and has been adopted and adapted several times since. The inscription around the sides reads Britanniarum Rex Fidei Defensor.

The copper issues also were of very good appearance and bear the same obverse as those on the silver, with the figure of Britannia on the reverse side. This figure was modified on the 1826 and subsequent issues. In conformity with the second portrait surrounding detail is omitted and the figure is more simplified.

The year 1827 saw the introduction of a new coin in the form of ⅓ farthing intended for small change in the colonies of the West Indies, Ceylon and Malta, but still legal tender in Great Britain. It bears no mark of value.

"IN GOD WE TRUST"

By E. J. ARLOW

How the Phrase "In God We Trust" came to be on the coins and paper money of the United States.
With thanks to the Chase Manhattan Bank.

In the December issue of our Journal I had an article on Numismatic Incongruities, and I have to make my apologies for having, through ignorance, included the United States coins in this category. One of my American friends has sent me a booklet issued by the Chase Manhattan Bank, and this is so enlightening that I am sure it will be of interest to our readers. The following explanation certainly removes the United States from any allegation of incongruity, and puts them on a plane calling for the highest commendation.

The Rev. Mr. Watkinson was troubled. In his small parish at Ridleyville, Pennsylvania, he brooded over the low ebb of Union fortunes after Fort Sumter and Bull Run. He deplored the godlessness of a nation seven months in civil war.

One cheerless November day in 1861 he sat down at the antique desk in his rectory and wrote a letter of singular eloquence to the Secretary of the Treasury.

"One fact touching our currency has hitherto been seriously overlooked," he wrote. "I mean the recognition of the Almighty God in some form in our coins. What if our Republic were now shattered beyond reconstruction? Would not the antiquaries of succeeding centuries rightly reason from our past that we were a heathen nation?"

Proposing a motto on the theme of God, Liberty, Law, he concluded, "This would relieve us from the ignominy of heathenism. This would place us openly under the Divine protection we have personally claimed. From my heart I have felt our national shame in disowning God as not the least of our present national disasters."

The Secretary of the Treasury was Salmon P. Chase, one of Lincoln's ablest cabinet members. Later he was to become Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and it was in his honour that the Chase National Bank of the City of New York was named in 1877.

The Secretary, deep in problems of war financing, read this letter from the Rev. M. R. Watkinson and promptly recognised the merit of his plea. Within a week he had dispatched a note to the Director of the Mint in Philadelphia, James Pollock.

"No nation can be strong except in the strength of God," the note read, echoing the sentiments of the clergyman, "or safe except in His defence. The trust of our people in God should be declared on our national coins.

"You will cause a device to be prepared without unnecessary delay with a motto expressing in the fewest and tersest words possible this national recognition."

The Director of the Mint acted quickly on the Secretary's order. Before the year was out a bronze pattern for a $10 gold piece with the motto "God Our Trust" had been submitted. Shortly thereafter, "God and Our Country" was suggested. But it was not until 1864 that "In God We Trust" first appeared on a United States coin, a two-cent piece. Salmon P. Chase himself had proposed this inscription. After 1864 it appeared on many of our coins but only since 1938, with the issuance of the Jefferson five-cent piece, have all coins minted by the government borne this simple affirmation of a nation's faith, "In God We Trust".

Paper Money

Ninety-three years later, in October 1957, one dollar Silver Certificates bearing the motto, "In God We Trust", were placed in circulation.

The suggestion to include "In God We Trust" on our currency was presented to the Secretary of the Treasury, George W. Humphrey, in November 1953 by Matthew H. Rothert of Camden, Arkansas. Mr. Rothert's idea came to him a few months earlier while attending church one Sunday morning in Chicago. As the collection plate was being passed, it occurred to him that only the coins in the plate had this motto. He then thought that since our paper money has a much wider circulation abroad than our coins, a message about this country's faith in God could be easily carried throughout the world if it were on United States currency.

Secretary Humphrey favoured the idea but felt that Congressional sanction was desirable. In March 1955, through Mr. Rothert's efforts, bills to this effect were introduced into the Senate by Senator Fulbright of Arkansas and into the House of Representatives by Congressmen Bennett of Florida and Harris of Arkansas. The bill which was approved by President Eisenhower on July 11, 1955 specified ". . . that at such time as new dies for the printing of currency are adopted . . . by the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, the dies shall bear . . . the inscription "In God We Trust", and thereafter this inscription shall appear on all United States currency and coins." The new dies and machinery for the printing of paper money were not adopted by the Bureau until 1957. While the one dollar certificates are the first notes officially to bear this inscription, it will appear eventually on all our currency.

CANADA'S SILVER DOLLARS
(1935 - 1960)
By HAROLD DON ALLEN

Canada's big silver dollars, some 10,000,000 of them, are popular with collectors here and abroad, and with good reason. The beautifully designed and splendidly executed coins are models of meddalic art, and a type set is within the means of any collector, yet incorporates a worthwhile display of fine commemorative pieces. Most collectors prefer to collect the coins by date, which is unfortunate, for there can never be enough choice piece to go around. Most Canadians, in marked contrast to the keen numismatic competition for superb specimens (1948: $75, perhaps more!) are barely aware that the coin exists. A student once described trying to use a silver dollar to pay for a milk shake at the Chalet atop Mount Royal. "Silver dollar?" said the attendant, fingering the planchet, "I'm sorry, there's no such coin."

Indeed there **is** such a coin, and it has replaced the time-honoured "shinplaster", a gift to children, and found its own niche as a silver anniversary presentation piece. But its circulation is slight. Millions are tucked away in tellers' cages and families' bureau drawers.

The coin first was struck in 1935, with a special inscription to allude to the twenty-fifth anniversary of the reign of King George V and Queen Mary. It proved immediately popular, as a souvenir piece if not as spending money, and its attractive "voyageur" reverse saw further use on a regular release of 1936 and was continued with the King George VI coinage of 1937 and 1938. The 1939 was a further commemorative, marking the Royal visit of King George VI and his Queen. Depicted were the Parliament Buildings, Ottawa. Both these commemorative releases were in exceptionally large numbers, and reached "circulation" at face in direct response to public demand. Hence, the coins remain readily accessible. The issue of the silver dollars was abandoned during the war.

The "voyageur" dollar was reintroduced in 1945, and remains the standard design to this day. The 1945, 1947, and 1947-ML were small strikings, and the 1948 exceptionally so (18,780), but the commemoratives of 1949 and 1958 are more than abundant, as are the first Queen Elizabeth releases of 1953. Public interest enabled these mintings to reach record heights. The 1949 marked the entry of Newfoundland into the Canadian federal union, and depicted the "Matthey", explorer John Cabot's ship, in full sail. The 1958 piece honoured British Columbia, Canada's Pacific province, and employed the controversial totem motif. Mintage reached 3,390,000. Over twenty major varieties of the silver dollar are recognised, and much hair-splitting has resulted from attempts to establish as further varieties the inferior products of worn or filled-in dies,—in this latter category the high-priced Arnprior "variety" likely would fall.

There are few more attractive numismatic exhibits than a gem set of Canada's silver dollars, their gleaming silver .800 fine, and the coins constitute a proud testimonial to Canadian craftsmanship and sense of art. The price has become prohibitive to the average collector, but even a type set is a highly worthwhile collector's item, and current pieces and the commoner old dates can be had at a large bank at face.

Editorial Note: From 1935 to 1959 there were 11,312,488 Canadian dollars minted.

N.Z. WINNERS OF THE VICTORIA CROSS

By R. B. SILCOCK.

SAMUEL FRICKLETON, V.C.

Samuel Frickleton volunteered for the Army at Greymouth on the 15th February, 1915, and left New Zealand on the 12th June, 1915, with the Canterbury Regiment for Egypt and later to France. On the morning of June 7th, 1917, Cpl. Frickleton was in action at Messines, France, when his company came under heavy machine gun fire from the German positions. The fire was so intense that the entire company was compelled to seek cover as the casualties were mounting at an alarming rate.

To quote one who was there: "A lone soldier was seen to move out of his position and crawl forward in the direction of the first machine gun emplacement. Interspersed with the machine gun fire was the constant crack of a rifle. Then we realised that the soldier was slowly but surely knocking out the enemy. The machine gun fire continued, more rifle fire and another machine gun ceased to fire. In all, Cpl. Frickleton, single-handed, knocked out several German machine gun posts before falling with the wounds he had sustained.

By his single action, Cpl. Frickleton had saved the lives of many of his comrades on that morning.

An officer who witnessed the entire act of bravery of this soldier, took a sheet of paper from a note book and made an entry, which was then signed by another officer and given to a runner who was sent immediately to Divisional H.Q."

Cpl. Frickleton spent the next nine months in hospital and on leave recovering from his wounds. He was commanded to be present at Buckingham Palace for the investiture on the 11th September, 1917, and on arrival in London, was given a train ticket back to Scotland as the investiture had been postponed for one week, and would now be held

at Ibrox Park, Glasgow. This was to be the first Investiture to be held in Scotland. On the day of the 18th September, 1917, Cpl. Frickleton received his proud decoration from the hands of His Majesty King George the Fifth. He was granted a commission at Cambridge and returned to New Zealand, arriving on the 12th June, 1918, exactly three years to the day from his departure. He remained in the Army after the war and retired from the Staff Corps in 1927. He served in the Territorials from 1933 until he finally retired from Army life in 1937, after returning from England with the Coronation Contingent.

I am happy to say, Captain Frickleton is still enjoying life in retirement at Lower Hutt, New Zealand.

Editor's Note: This is the first of a series embracing the N.Z. winners of the Victoria Cross.

"LET THEM SHOOT ME"

The Story of New Zealand's Only George Cross Winner.

By CAPTAIN G. T. STAGG, F.R.N.S.N.Z.

Ask the man in the street what is the George Cross and the reply would probably be: "Oh! It's the civilian V.C." If pressed for further details the fact that it was awarded to the island of Malta and perhaps the name Odette may be forthcoming. That, in all probability, would be the extent of his very scant knowledge of this rare gallantry award. No; the man in the street has probably never heard of Lance-Corporal David Russell, G.C., or if he had heard, had promptly forgotten about him.

In announcing the institution of the George Cross, which is second only to the Victoria Cross, King George VI used these words in September, 1940: "Many and glorious are the deeds of gallantry done during these perilous but famous days. In order that they should be worthily and promptly recognised, I have decided to create at once a new mark of honour for men and women in all walks of life."

It was intended primarily for civilians and awards to members of the armed services are confined to actions for which purely military honours are not normally conferred. However, the George Cross is far from being the "civilian V.C." as out of approximately 175 awards made to date, over 120 have been bestowed upon servicemen and servicewomen.

The only award of the George Cross to a New Zealand serviceman was posthumously conferred upon No. 30167, Lance-Corporal David Russell, of the 22nd Battalion, 2nd New Zealand Expeditionary Force. There have been no awards of the George Cross to New Zealand civilians. The

official announcement of the award in the "London Gazette" dated 24th December, 1948, stated it was "In recognition of gallant and distinguished services whilst a prisoner of war in German hands prior to September, 1945."

Born in Scotland in 1911, David Russell was a hospital orderly at the Napier Hospital when the war broke out and he enlisted eleven days later. Entering camp early in 1940, he sailed from New Zealand with the 2nd Echelon and after service in the United Kingdom, Greece and Crete, was taken prisoner in the Western Desert on 14th July, 1942. Escaping from a P.O.W. camp in Italy, he was sheltered by a friendly Italian peasant and operated with Partisans behind the enemy lines in assisting other escaped prisoners to make their way back to the Allied lines.

The story of his recapture, superb loyalty and gallantry, and his ultimate death was pieced together only after almost three years of investigations by the Special Investigation Branch of the Central Mediterranean Forces and Headquarters, 2nd New Zealand Expeditionary Force. The ultimate report was finally compiled from a mass of data produced at the trial of a German officer by the War Crimes Group, South East Europe. Upon receipt of this report in New Zealand, a recommendation for an award of the George Cross was initiated by Army Headquarters. The citation reads:

"Like so many other escaped prisoners of war, Lance-Corporal Russell had obtained civilian clothes and was living with an Italian peasant, Guiseppe Vettorello. He was well known and liked by the people of the locality. According to Guiseppe Vettorello, Russell maintained contact with a number of other ex-prisoners of war, visiting them regularly by bicycle.

On about 22nd February, 1945, Lance-Corporal Russell was arrested by a patrol of Italian Fascist troops near the home of Guiseppe Vettorello. Guiseppe Vettorello himself was arrested on suspicion of having harboured Lance-Corporal Russell. Their captors were members of a mixed German-Italian police regiment.

The prisoners were taken to the Company Headquarters of Oberleutnant Haupt at Pone di Piave. Here an attempt was made to force Lance-Corporal Russell to betray Guiseppe Vetorello, but he refused to do so, denying that he had ever seen him before. According to an Italian soldier who was present, Lance-Corporal Russell was beaten up by Haupt, but maintained his silence. Thanks to Lance-Corporal Russell's loyalty, Guiseppe Vetorello was released.

The Germans were evidently convinced that Lance-Corporal Russell had been in contact with other ex-prisoners of war and Partisans, and were determined that he should disclose their whereabouts.

He was chained to a wall in a stable, and told that, unless he gave the required information within three

days, he would be shot. Again, on the testimony of two Italians who were present, Lance-Corporal Russell was beaten up, but he resolutely refused to speak. A civilian who took him food tried to persuade him to save his life, but he replied: 'Let them shoot me'.

Haupt's interpreter, an Italian, says: 'The behaviour of the Englishman was splendid, and it won the admiration of Haupt himself'.

On the third day Lance-Corporal Russell was shot. A German warrant officer who witnessed the execution, says: 'The prisoner died very bravely!'

There can be no doubt whatsoever that Lance-Corporal Russell, in the midst of his enemies and in the face of death, bore himself with courage and dignity of a very high order."

The local Italians regarded the victim as a hero and later erected an expensive tombstone over his grave and were most reluctant to have it moved, but Lance-Corporal Russell was eventually re-interred in the British Empire Cemetery at Udine, Italy.

The George Cross awarded to Lance-Corporal Russell was presented to his father, who was still residing in Ayreshire, Scotland, by His Majesty King George VI on 26th July, 1949.

Perhaps today the man in the street in Napier may be better informed than his counterpart in other cities, for in the Napier Hospital one of the wards is now named the "David Russell Memorial Ward" and at its entrance is a photograph of him and his citation for the George Cross.

Footnote: A New Zealander, Mr. S. N. Wiltshire of Christchurch, is also the holder of the George Cross but did not win it as such. He was awarded the Medal of the Order of the British Empire for Gallantry while serving in the Royal Air Force in 1930. The Empire Gallantry Medal was abolished in 1940 on the institution of the George Cross and a supplement to the "London Gazette" dated 22nd April, 1941, laid down that a recipient of the Empire Gallantry Medal living on 24th September, 1940, shoud return it to the Central Chancery of the Orders of Knighthood and become instead a holder of the George Cross. He recently attended the biennial dinner of holders of the Victoria Cross and George Cross held in London.

THE NEW ZEALAND PIOBAIREACHD GOLD MEDAL

A Beutiful Example of Celtic Art.

"Piobaireachd" is the name given to the classical music of the Highland bagpipe. It is a highly developed form of

music which had its beginnings in the 16th century and was brought to perfection by the famous MacCrimmon family of Skye. It consists of a theme or groundwork followed by variations, and has always been regarded by the expert piper as the highest expression of his art. Piobaireachd calls for years of careful study, and has won admiration from musical experts of many countries.

It shows a piper of the period 1745, when pipers carried arms and played an instrument with two drones instead of the present three.

Actual size of the medal is 36mm.

A piper of the MacCrimmon period (1746), when pipers still wore arms, forms the design (above) of a new gold medal which has been made for Comunn na Piobaireachd (New Zealand) Inc.

The medal and its pin and clasp have been designed by the Caithness-born artist, George Bain, The Stone House, Codsall, Staffs.

The background to the piper shows the ancient diagonal Pictish Cross that became the St. Andrew's Cross of Scotland. Two of its quarters are filled with spirals representing art renderings of pibroch music.

Mr. N. McKay, secretary of the New Zealand society, asked Mr. Bain to design and supervise the making of the dies for the gold medal, **which would be struck in New**

Zealand. The two had met when Mr. McKay studied piobaireachd at Inverness under Pipe-Major McDonald and Mr. Bain lived at Drumnadrochit.

Mr. Bain, designer of the John Cobb memorial at Loch Ness, is an authority on Celtic art, and many copies of his book "The Methods and Construction of Celtic Art" are in countries behind the Iron Curtain and elsewhere in the world.

WHAT IS THE DATE?

By MURRAY WESTON

Recently, I was requested by a neighbour to identify a coin for him. The piece was made of copper—a little larger than an English halfpenny with a six-pointed star on the obverse and a crude but very bold date of 1286 on the reverse.

I was able to tell him that this was a FALU of Morocco, but when, after a few calculations, I mentioned the actual date of the piece was 1869, I could see that he was far from convinced. In fact, he assured me that the coin had been in the possession of his family for many years and that the figures on it proved without doubt that it was almost 700 years old. I went on to explain that countries using Arabic or Persian numerals observe the Mohammedan Era or as it is also known, Era of Hegira (A.H.). This system records time in lunar years of 354 days and is reckoned from the date of the flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina which historians have established as July 16th, 622 A.D. As the lunar year has approximately 3 per cent. fewer days than our solar year, I showed my visitor that to convert the Hegira date to our Gregorian system, it was necessary to reduce the former by 3 per cent. and then add 622.

Therefore:	1286
Less 3 per cent.	—39
	1247
Plus	622
	1869

This is only one of the numerous dating systems which have been used since the dawn of history. It must be remembered, however, that when converting the coins of Turkey, which also use the Mohammedan system, a translation of the Arabic numerals found on the lower reverse of each coin will only give the accession date of the ruler. The actual year of his reign is usually found on the lower obverse. This, however, does not hold true to the coinage of Egypt issued under Turkish rule and

presents a problem which could easily confuse the unwary collector. On some of these coins the figures found on the lower obverse indicate the value of the piece while the regnal year is located on the upper reverse.

Let us now examine the factors involved in the formation of any calendar.

Ever since the beginning of man, time has been measured astronomically; that is, according to the revolutions of the sun and the moon. The rotation of the earth on its axis measures the day, the revolution of the moon around the earth gives the lunar month, and the revolution of the earth around the sun makes a solar year.

There are three main types of calendar—the lunar, the solar, and the lunisolar.

The lunar month is based on the period of the moon's revolution around the earth; that is, the synodic period, or interval between two successive new moons or full moons. In Biblical times this period was taken as 30 days, but the Romans, Greeks, and others standardised on 29½ days. As it is not practical to have a month of 29½ days in length, most cultural groups using a lunar calendar reckoned the months as having 29 and 30 days alternately. A lunar year of 12 synodic months actually has 354.38 days; this decimal amounts to slightly more than 11 days in 30 lunar years and by making this adjustment, the calendar becomes very accurate with respect to the moon.

The main objection to this system, which makes it impractical for civil affairs, is that the year is about 11 days shorter than the solar year, causing the seasons to occur at earlier and earlier dates through the years.

The solar calendar is governed by the length of a solar year and has four crucial points—the two equinoxes and the two solstices. In order to have the vernal equinox fall on or about March 21st, an intercalation is necessary. The solar year is actually 365.24 days in length and therefore, as we have already seen in the lunar year, this decimal of a day must be provided for. Our present system is, of course, based on the solar year and we will learn later of the method that has been adopted to account for this decimal of a day.

In the lunisolar type of calendar, there is an attempt to keep the lengths of the lunar month and tropical year (which is the length of time between two successive returns of the sun to the vernal equinox) in harmony by periodic adjustments. Thus, the lunar month of 29½ days is made into a 29- or 30-day month alternately, and 12 of these give 354 days; additional months are added at times to bring the number of calendar days to the number of days in a solar year. Generally this is done by inserting an extra month every 2 or 3 years. The Jewish calendar is an example of the lunisolar type.

Primitive races generally used a system based on astronomical phenomena only. More civilised people have tended to reckon their time from a great epoch, each choosing an important event in its national history from which to date all other events, both prior and subsequent to it. This, we have already noted in the Mohammedan Era.

The epoch universally adopted in modern times by nations which have followed the customs and traditions of western European culture is the birth of Christ, the years before it being marked B.C. (before Christ) and those after it A.D. (Anno Domini)—in the year of our Lord. This method was first used about the year 533 A.D. by Dionysius Exigus—a Christian monk.

There are several different opinions on making reference to the date of the Nativity. Dionysius Exigus, himself, called it December 25th, A.D.1. Historians and chronologists have adopted it as December 25th 1.B.C., while some astronomers often call the year of the birth of Christ the year zero or A.D.0., the year preceding being 1.B.C. However, other astronomers as well as most historians and chronologists have no year 0, but instead have A.D.1. following the end of 1.B.C.

The Greeks took as their epoch the victory of Coroebus in the first Olympic Games held at Elis in 776 B.C. Timaeus, the Greek historian, used a system of reckoning by Olympiads, an Olympiad being a period of four years or the interval between two consecutive Olympic Games. The time of the games was governed by the first full moon after the summer solstice in the month of Hecatombeon which is nearly the same as our present July. This method soon became widely used by many other Greek historians.

The Nebonassar Era of the Babylonian kingdom took its full name from its first king, who ascended the throne on February 26th, 747 B.C.

The Romans used as the beginning of their era, the foundation of Rome, which is generally accepted from the computation of Terentius Varro as 753 B.C. The years were denoted by the letters A.U.C. (Anno Urbis Conditae), meaning "in the year of the founding of the city." Another method of reckoning used by the Roman historians was by the annual consulships. Sometimes both the year of the city and the names of the consults are used.

Other eras worthy of mention are the era of Alexander, counted from the date of his death on September 1st, 323 B.C., the era of the Seleucidae, also known as the Macedonian Era, beginning on September 1st, 312 B.C., and commemorating the capture of Babylon by Seleucus Nicator, and the era of Spain, dating from the conquest of Spain by the Romans in 38 B.C.

Apart from the Era of the Hegira, another system which dates after the birth of Christ is one which is still used

by the Copts and Abyssinians, called the Diocletian or Era of Martyrs, which was formed in 284 A.D.

In Siam, the Buddhist Era, reckoned as from the death of Buddha in 543 B.C. is rapidly losing popularity in favour of a more modern system which dates from the founding of Bangkok in 1782.

In more modern times, a Fascist Era was formed in Italy to commemorate the March on Rome on October 28th, 1922.

The Chinese are able to trace the formation of their calendar back some 4600 years. Their earliest calendar was lunar, but from time to time adjustments have been made to bring the system into line with equinoxes. In the seventeenth century, Jesuit missionaries corrected the calendar but further errors were made by the Chinese people. Since the Western penetration of China during the nineteenth century, the Gregorian calendar became more widely used until, in the year 1912 A.D., it was adopted by the new Chinese Republic. The dates on Chinese coins are correctly read from right to left—those of the Republic, when dated, start with the year 1912 A.D. while those of the Chinese Empire are dated according to the old system. This had a cycle of 60 years with stems, branches, and repetitions of each, which were named after animals. Under this system, our year 1960 is known as the Year of the Rat; other names include the Rooster, the Dog, the Monkey, the Horse, the Pig, and the Dragon.

The Jewish Calendar which is reckoned from the assumed date of creation, 3761 B.C., is another very ancient system. The civil year begins with the September equinox and their day starts at sunset. Because the calendar is based on the lunar month, a complicated system of intercalation is used. An extra month, called VEADAR, is introduced seven times during a cycle of 19 years.

Perhaps the most accurate of all the ancient calendars was that used by the Mayas, as the Spaniards found upon exploring Mexico and nearby areas in the sixteenth century. The marvel of this calendar is that the ancient Mexicans should have hit upon the true length of the tropical year. Undoubtedly a long and precise series of observations must have been made in order to achieve this result.

As previously mentioned, the method of reckoning from the birth of Christ was first invented about 533 A.D., but the most convenient point from which to recqon and to date the events of history, would be from the creation of man. Unfortunately, there are many opinions as to the date of creation and no two agree.

According to the Greek version of the Bible, it took place 6,000 years before the birth of Christ and 2,250 years before the flood. The Hebrew version reckons

3,761 years from the creation of man to the birth of Christ and 1,656 from the date of the flood, while the Sumaritan version allows for an interval of only 1,307 years between the creation and the flood.

According to the modern interpretations of the first book of Genesis, by scientists and theologians alike, the creation of the world cannot be fixed with any degree of accuracy whatsoever, but it must have taken place at a far earlier period than any suggested here.

The chronological system which is used throughout most of the world today has been built up from the ideas of the Romans. In their calendar, the days of the month were calculated backwards from three fixed periods. The Kalends, which were always the first day of the month, the Nones, which were on the fifth or seventh, and the Ides, which were on the 13th or 15th.

It is conjectured that originally this Roman Calendar consisted of only 10 months, the first month being March and the last December. Later, however, Numa Pompilius inserted the two additional months; January, at the beginning of the year, and February at the end. Ultimately, this order was changed, bringing the two months together at the beginning of the year. The months consisted of 29 and 30 days alternately, which made a lunar year of 354 days. Later, an additional month was intercalated in February every two years to bridge the gap with the solar year. The length of this month does not appear to have been regulated by any fixed principle, and the Pontiffs, in whose hands the control of the calendar rested, would use it to spite their enemies by curtailing it, or lengthen it to benefit their friends. When the great Julius Caesar became Dictator of Rome, he found the calendar in a state of chaos, so he took steps to reform the system. He found that by the year 46 B.C., there was a difference of three months between the Roman year and the astronomical year, and so, with the aid of Sosigenes, an astronomer from Alexandria, the average length of the year was fixed at 365¼ days—a normal year having 365 days while every fourth year, or leap year, had 366. The year was to be regulated by the sun, thus abandoning the lunar system and making the intercalated month unnecessary. In order that the days of the year should be properly restored, two months consisting of 34 and 33 days respectively were inserted between November and December of the current year. This made the year 46 B.C. consist of 445 days and it has since become known as the year of confusion.

This then was the Julian Calendar, now frequently called Old Style and introduced on January 1st 45 B.C. The number of days in the month alternated between 30 and 31 with the exception of February which was to have 29 days in an ordinary year and 30 days in a leap year. In 44 B.C. the name of the seventh month, Quintilis, was altered to Julius in honour of Julius Caesar.

The Pontiffs, however, who still had charge of the calendar, made the mistake of allowing the leap years to fall every three years instead of every four. This error was rectified by Augustus Caesar, the first Roman Emperor, who ordered the intercalating of the additional day to be dropped from 8 B.C. to 8 A.D. until the error had been corrected. The name of the eighth month, Sextilis, was changed to Augustus, and because the new emperor wanted the same number of days in his month as the great Julius, he took one from February, thus making that month 28 days in a normal year and 29 in a leap year. This change caused three months of 31 days to fall consecutively and so the number of days in the last four months of the year was changed as follows: September 30, October 31, November 30, and December 31.

The Julian Calendar, although a vast improvement on the older system, yet made the year 11 minutes, 40 seconds too long, and consequently, by the Sixteenth Century, the calendar was some 10 days wrong. The season dates, and notably the Easter Date, were occurring earlier and earlier every year. The rule is that Easter must fall on the first Sunday after the full moon following the vernal equinox.

So, in 1582, Pope Gregory XIII rectified the mistake by calling October 5th of that year, October 15th and in order that the fault should not re-occur, decreed that the centurial years should not be recognised as leap years unless they were divisible by 400, thus 1600 was a leap year, 1700, 1800 and 1900 were common years and 2000 will be a leap year. This rectification became known as the Gregorian Calendar, or New Style, and was immediately adopted by most of the European countries including Italy, France, Germany, Spain and Portugal. England, like Russia and Sweden, refused to recognise the change. It was not until 170 years later, in 1751, that Lord Chesterfield, together with Lord Macclesfield, the mathematician, and Bradley, the astronomer, drew up a scheme and passed it through the House. By this time the English calendar was eleven days out and so it was arranged that the day following September 2nd, 1752, was to be called September 14th. This reformation met with much ignorant protest from the public, and the popular opposition cry of the time became "Give us back our eleven days." Also in 1752, the beginning of the civil year in England was changed to January 1st. Previously it had been observed on Annunciation Day, March 25th. The Soviet Union did not abandon the Julian Calendar until after the Revolution in 1917. It is interesting to note that the only discrepancy between the ancient Mayan calendar and the Julian was cancelled out when this Gregorian correction was added to the Julian Calendar.

In November, 1959, the Russians announced that the world had been running behind time since the beginning of the century. Using a lunar camera with which the position of the moon could be photographically established, about 300 pictures were taken of the moon and

surrounding stars. By studying these pictures, the unevenness in the rotation of the earth around its axis was obvious and the difference between the actual time cycle and the astronomical one was computed to be 31 seconds. It has been known for some time that the Gregorian calendar is not absolutely correct, the calendar year being 26 seconds longer than the tropical year, but this Russian discovery will now reduce the difference by approximately one-half of a second. As even this will not amount to one day until more than 3,300 years have passed, we will leave any adjustment to some scientist of the far distant future.

Although the Gregorian calendar is very accurate and as a whole conforms to the natural phenomena, its chief weakness is that the year cannot be divided into even halves, quarters, or months. The quarters now contain 90, 91, or 92 days.

Theoretically, the civil or calendar year should be of the same length as the astronomical year, but this is impossible because the latter does not contain an even whole number of days. Because of the need for intercalation of an extra day on leap year, there are two types of year—common year and leap year. A year may begin on any one of the days of the week, giving seven types of common year and seven types of leap year, or 14 kinds of year. Nor is this pattern repeated every 14 years; 28 years are needed for the cycle of one series to be repeated in order.

A month may have 28, 29, 30, or 31 days, an irregularity causing difficulty in accounting and statistics. And so we find that dates or days from week to week, month to month, or year to year do not correspond, which makes it difficult to locate specific events. For example, the American Thanksgiving Day is always the last Thursday in November and so the actual date varies and Christmas is always December 25th although it could fall on any day of the week.

Many proposals for a reformed calendar have been made. During the existence of the League of Nations over 500 suggestions were handled in an attempt to evolve an international dating system and the United Nations plan to carry on with the task. Perhaps the most notable is the Perpetual Calendar proposed by Willard E. Edwards of Hawaii.

This calendar has four three-month quarters. They begin on Monday, January 1st, and the first two months of each quarter have 30 days and the last month 31 days. Monday is the first day of each week, and the fact that the first day of each quarter also falls on a Monday makes the system attractive to business. Other advantages cited are the elimination of Friday 13th from the calendar and the fact that Christmas Day and New Year's Day will always fall on a Monday. A three-day holiday including Boxing Day would, therefore, inevitably accom-

pany Christmas. As an extra day, called the Day Apart, would be inserted between December 31st and January 1st, a three-day holiday would also be observed at New Year. Every four years Leap Year Day, also a holiday, would be intercalated between June 31st and July 1st.

This system is still only a suggestion, yet it is a feasible one. Perhaps, when historians of the future make reference to the formation of their calendar, the name of the United Nations will be included with those of Julius Caesar, Emperor Augustus, and Pope Gregory XIII.

Editor's Note: Mr. Weston is a New Zealander of long-standing membership in our Society and a former office-bearer, now residing in Calgary, Canada.

CASE FOR A DECIMAL CURRENCY

By A. W. GRAHAM, B.Com., F.R.A.N.Z.
Secretary, New Zealand Society of Accountants.

An independent Australian decimal currency commission, under the chairmanship of Sir Leslie Melville, Vice-Chancellor of the Australian National University, has recommended to the Australian Government the adoption of decimal coinage.

This has focussed attention once again on the prospects of achieving this most desirable means of simplifying the financial transaction of the community in this country.

Decimal coinage already exists in a significant part of the Commonwealth. Canada has had its dollar for many years, as has Singapore, Hong Kong and, more recently, the West Indies.

The most recent country to make the change is South Africa, where a new unit, the rand—the equivalent of ten shillings—will soon become the major unit of value.

In New Zealand, revived interest in the possibility of a changeover led to the appointment of a special committee by the Minister of Finance in 1956. The committee strongly favoured the introduction of decimal coinage in New Zealand, but its report has not yet been considered by Parliament.

There seems little doubt that the reform must be made, and at a reasonably early date. With the increasing trend towards mechanisation of offices in New Zealand, delay will increase the cost of conversion, while the present uncertainty in the business community is detrimental to efficient office management. Moreover, New Zealand is denied access to many of the latest machines, some of which are available only for decimal use, or can be converted only at a considerable extra cost.

Opposition Negligible

The investigations of the Decimal Coinage Committee showed that support for an early change was evident

throughout the entire community and that opposition to it was negligible. More controversial, however, is the system to be used and this is an aspect which is of considerable importance.

If the full benefits of decimalisation are to be achieved, the only systems which merit serious consideration are the 10/- cent and 8/4 cent. Schemes with a major unit larger than 10/- require three decimal places for the smaller unit, with resultant loss of machine capacity and simplicity, while a unit lower than 8/4 is unreasonably small for calculations involving large sums.

Chief benefit of the 10/- cent system is its simplicity. Conversion from the existing £1 unit is much simpler than conversion to an 8/4 unit, while on the other end of the scale existing coins may be used without change of value in all cases except the penny and threepence. For these reasons the New Zealand committee advocated its adoption in this country.

Objection to System

The sole objection sometimes raised to this system arises from the increase in value of the penny by one-fifth, thus introducing the possibililty of rises in prices on smaller items such as bread and milk. But all prices would not be rounded off upwards, and the committee considered that official conversion tables could be evolved for the lower amounts which reduce the rise in price to negligible proportions.

It is true that a change to decimal coinage would be a costly operation. The committee estimated the cost to be between £3 million and £4 million and in normal circumstances the cost will increase year by year with increasing mechanisation of New Zealand offices.

Recent developments overseas, however, have reduced the cost of replacement parts necessary to effect the change and a slight reduction in the cost of changeover may result. In any case, costs of this order are but a small price to pay for benefits to teachers, accountants, business men and the general public which will accrue for many years to come.

DECIMAL COINAGE

(Editorial article in "Evening Post", Wellington, August 23, 1960)

When To Change To Decimals

If New Zealand needed added encouragement to make the change to decimal coinage, Australia would seem to have supplied it. A Government-appointed independent committee in that country, which has just released its findings, unanimously favours the change-over from the pounds, shillings and pence fractional system to decimals. The prospect is that unless New Zealand moves in the same direction it may find itself in isolation alone with

Britain as the only major trading nations still counting in dozens. Decimal coinage already exists in a considerable part of the Commonwealth. South Africa has been the latest to make the change.

The case for decimals for this country was convincingly stated in the conclusions of the widely-representative Decimal Coinage Committee which reported to the Government last year. The committee had no doubt about the ultimate advantages of a switch-over. It conceded that initial costs would be high. The outlay for accounting machine conversions, for instance, would run to between £3.5 million and £4.5 million. But against this it listed future economies which would more than compensate for early expenditure.

Opinion is so strongly ranged on the side of decimals that there seems little doubt the change will eventually be made. It is a question of when. Thus, the secretary of the Society of Accountants, Mr. A. W. Graham, commented recently, "With the increasing trend toward mechanisation of offices in New Zealand delay will increase the cost of conversion, while the present uncertainty in the business community is detrimental to efficient office management." The New Zealand committee's report is still to be considered by Parliament. The House should be given an early opportunity to discuss it. The fact that qualified opinion in Australia recommends decimals there should fortify those who advocate an early start toward achieving a similar desirable reform in this country.

N.Z. MINTINGS 1960

Mr. H. G. Hughan has been advised by the Reserve Bank that the mintings for 1960 are:

1/-	£30,000
6d.	£40,000
3d.	£50,000
1d.	£30,000
½d.	£5,000

EDITOR'S NOTES

Correspondence will be welcomed at all times from our members, for publication, or for direct answer.

Members' attention is drawn to our Members' Specialty Section in this and recent issues, and correspondence in relation thereto is solicited between members, especially from overseas. All members may have their specialty and/or wants inserted at the small cost of 1/- per line or 25 cents per line overseas. This charge will be added to our membership fee accounts at end of each financial year (May 31st).

We still have a supply of back issues of our Journals, going back to 1947—3/6 per copy, or 50 cents to our U.S.A. and Canadian members.

Members are urgently requested to send in their contributions for printing in our Journal—special articles, also any items of Numismatic interest will be appreciated. This is important.

All our members are recommended to give preference to our advertisers whose help is of great assistance to us in meeting costs of publication.

A special booklet on New Zealand Token Prices has been issued by Mr. Allan Sutherland, F.R.N.S.N.Z.—available to members at 3/6 per copy, or 5/- to non-members.

A word to overseas collectors. In view of the increasing demand for coins of the British Commonwealth, may we commend their attention to this section of that Commonwealth. New Zealand coins have no mint marks, and this fact greatly simplifies the collection of our currency. We started minting our own currency in 1933, so here again the gathering of our complete series is simplified. The early possibility of decimal coinage being introduced renders it advisable to get in early now. But do not be disappointed if you miss out on our rare Waitangi Crown.

We are pleased to inform our readers that in future we shall be including in our Journal articles contributed by Mr. Harold Don Allen of Montreal, Canada. Mr. Allen is a graduate in Science and Education of McGill University, and is a teacher of senior mathematics at the Montreal High School. He has published well over one hundred articles on numismatics, and we are grateful for his services in contributing to our Journal. Mr. Allen is a Life Member of the A.N.A., C.N.A., and is also a member of the R.N.S.N.Z.

The Society now has a supply of new combined Membership Application and Nomination Forms which will be supplied to members desiring same on request to the Secretary, Box 23, Wellington. The forms include particulars of the various types of membership available and the subscription rates for each expressed in N.Z., Sterling, Australian, and U.S.A. currency.

Our Treasurer wishes to explain to members and intending members that our subscription fee covers from 1st June to 31st May the following year. Where members join in between such dates, then they are supplied with any Journals issued from the beginning of the current year.

Page numbers in our last Journal, Volume 10, No. 1 (31): We are sorry to report that through an oversight, on account of change of

printers, the numbering of the pages in this new volume should have commenced with No. 1 and continued to No. 32 to the end of the Journal. This present issue (Volume 10—No. 2 (32)) rectifies this by commencing at Page No. 33. We would appreciate our subscribers renumbering the pages of the first issue of Volume 10.

Members are reminded that, if they wish, we can supply Silver lapel badges of membership at 3/- each, or 50 cents for overseas.

ARE YOU AN ACTIVE MEMBER?

Are YOU an active member,
The kind that would be missed?
Or are you just contented
That your name is on the list?

Do YOU attend the meetings,
And mingle with the flock?
Or do you stay at home
To criticise or knock?

Do YOU take an active part
To help the work along?
Or are you really satisfied
To only "just belong"?

Does this strike home to you as a member of a Numismatic Society?

ANNUAL REPORT

The Council of the Royal Numismatic Society of New Zealand has the honour to present its 29th Annual Report and Balance Sheet for the year ending 31st May, 1960.

While the past year has been a relatively quiet one in the field of numismatics, certain events could well have far-reaching effects in the years to come.

Sir James Elliott. G.C.St.J., V.D., M.D., Ch.B., F.R.A.C.S., F.R.N.S.N.Z., one of the very early members of the Society, passed away in October, 1959. With his passing we have lost another of that small band of stalwarts who, during its formative years, did so much to establish the Society as we know it today.

During the year 44 new members were elected, an increase of more than 83% over the previous year's figure. Two deaths were recorded, 7 members resigned and 20 members were struck off the roll for non-payment of subscriptions, giving a net membership increase of 15 for the year. The roll of members now stands at 323, made up of 2 Patrons, 59 Composite Life Subscription Members, 255 Annual Subscription Members and 7 Schools and Colleges. In addition, the free mailing and exchanges to kindred societies list contains the names of 53 recipients, 20 in New Zealand and 33 overseas. In all, the Journal is despatched to 376 members and institutions.

The Council has pleasure in recording that there has been a marked increase in the membership and activities of the Canterbury Branch and regrets that the Auckland Branch has gone into recess meantime.

The Council met once during the year, when four members were elected Fellows of the Society. Included amongst those elected was Miss M. Steven, who thus became the first lady so honoured by the Society.

A further resolution from the Auckland Branch concerning the constitution of the Society was rejected by the Council, only after the fullest consideration had been given to all the factors involved. A new and independent numismatic society was set up in Auckland in spite of an offer made by the Society for the President to meet the Branch members in Auckland, and discuss with them their problems. The Council wishes to place on record its appreciation of the efforts of some of the older members in Auckland to maintain their Branch as a going concern. May the day be not far distant, when the Society will again have an active branch functioning in the Auckland Province.

The favourable report of the Decimal Coinage Committee was tabled in Parliament just before the Christmas recess in 1959, in order that members could acquaint themselves with its contents by the time the House reassembled in June, 1960. The report was particularly well received by the national Press at the time and has since been endorsed by a number of influential professional and commercial institutions in New Zealand. While the National Party has included the adoption of decimal coinage in its policy, the Minister of Finance recently stated that he was hopeful the matter would be discussed in Parliament during the present session and an indication then given of the Government's definite proposals. It is to be hoped that the evidence contained in the report in favour of decimal coinage, will be evaluated in terms of a necessity that is above party politics, and that the requisite legislation for its adoption brought down without delay.

The issues of the Journal published during the year have included a section wherein members were given the opportunity to advertise their specialties. This feature has proved popular with members and some have reported good results from the publicity given to their wants. There is still a dearth of papers submitted for publication, particularly in the New Zealand and Pacific field of numismatics. The Council urges all members to rally round and do all within their power to make good this deficiency.

In spite of the Government's continuation of the grant, for which the Society is duly appreciative, expenditure for the year exceeded our receipts by £23/10/7. The extra revenue that will be derived from the members' specialty section and increased advertising in the Journal by numismatic dealers, should assist materially in overcoming this adverse trend in the future.

The Council desires to place on record its appreciation of, and thanks for, the many tasks performed by the various office-bearers of the Society and its Branches. Our thanks are also due to Mr. C. R. H. Taylor of the Alexander Turnbull Library for the accommodation and other facilities provided throughout the year, and to Mrs. Ranger for the gifts of headed notepaper, envelopes, and combined membership application and nomination forms, as well as providing the attractive suppers enjoyed at the end of each meeting.

For and on behalf of the Council of the Royal Numismatic Society of New Zealand,

G. T. STAGG, President.

Wellington, June, 1960.

ROYAL NUMISMATIC SOCIETY OF N.Z. INC. OFFICERS:

President: Capt. G. T. Stagg, F.R.N.S.N.Z.
Vice-Presidents: Mr. L. J. Dale, M.P.S., Ph.C., F.R.N.S.N.Z.;

Mr. R. Sellars, F.R.N.S.N.Z.; Mr. J. Berry, F.R.N.S.N.Z.;

Mr. H. G. Hughan, F.R.N.S.N.Z.

Hon. Secretary: Mr. R. B. Silcock.

Hon. Assistant-Secretary: Mrs. E. Ranger.

Hon. Treasurer: Mr. E. J. Arlow.

Hon. Editor: Mr. C. R. H. Taylor, F.R.N.S.N.Z.

Hon. Associate Editors: Mr. E. J. Arlow and Mr. A. Sutherland, F.R.N.S.N.Z.

Hon. Auditor: Mr. W. Chetwynd.

Keeper of the Roll: Mr. H. G. Hughan, F.R.N.S.N.Z.

General Council Members:

Mr. G. N. Balmer; Mr. M. H. Hornblow, F.R.N.S.N.Z.; Mr. E. Horwood, F.R.N.S.N.Z.; Mr. Asher Robinson, F.R.N.S.N.Z.; Mr. Allan Sutherland, F.R.N.S.N.Z.

ROYAL NUMISMATIC SOCIETY OF NEW ZEALAND (Incorporated).
STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS FOR YEAR ENDED MAY 31st, 1960.

RECEIPTS	£	s.	d.	PAYMENTS	£	s.	d.
To Balance 31/5/59	208	17	9	By Journal Expenses, 3 issues—			
Subscriptions	117	19	6	Printing	199	11	0
Advertising	7	9	6	Postage	8	16	9
Badges	1	13	6	Blocks	7	17	1
Donations	2	16	2	Wrappers—lists	20	5	0
Government Grant	100	0	0		236	9	10
Journals	4	14	8	Stationery	9	18	6
Suppers	3	19	0	Stamps	13	9	6
Bank Interest	4	14	3	Advertising	4	1	4
				Incidentals—freight		6	0
				International Fee	3	1	6
				Income Tax	3	4	3
				Balance	181	13	5
	£452	4	4		£452	4	4

BALANCE SHEET AS AT 31st MAY, 1960.

LIABILITIES	£	s.	d.	ASSETS	£	s.	d.
Accumulated Funds—				Post Office Savings Bank	442	17	1
Balance 31st May, 1959	761	14	4	National Savings Account	135	10	11
Composite Sub A/c.	12	12	5	Bank of New Zealand	181	13	5
Medal Trust A/c.	4	11	0	Excess Expenditure over Receijts	23	10	7
Interest Current A/c.	4	14	3				
	£783	12	0		£783	12	0

Composite Subscription Trust A/c.: Interest £12/12/5. Credit £442/17/1.
Medal Trust A/c.: Interest £4/11/-. Credit £135/10/11.

E. HORWOOD, F.R.N.S.N.Z., Hon. Auditor.
E. J. ARLOW, Hon. Treasurer.

The following schedule has been compiled for the benefit of Members of our Society and it will be repeated in every issue of the Journal unless cancelled or alterations authorised by the member concerned. All members have the right to have their names included and a small charge is made for each line for each issue.

SCHEDULE OF MEMBERS' SPECIALTIES AND WANTS

ALLEN, H. DON, 7534 Wiseman Ave., Montreal 15, Canada.
Specialty—Bank note issues especially Commonwealth countries.

ARLOW, E. J., 68 Dixon St., Wellington.
Specialty—World Coinage all dates. Exchanges available.

ARTER, D. W., P.O. Box 18, Raglan, N.Z.
Specialty—Armour, Daggers, Pistols, Flintlocks, Swords.

ATKINSON, D. O., F.R.N.S.N.Z., Takanini, Auckland.
Medals and Badges, especially Australasian and Colonial.

ATTWOOD, T. W., F.R.N.S.N.Z., 5 Gardise Road, Rothesay, Bay, Auckland.
Specialty—British Commonwealth Coins.

BALMER, G. N., 34 Kent Terrace, Wellington.
Specialty—World Gold Coins.
Specialty—N.Z. and Aust. and English Tokens, Church Tokens.

BELL, R. G., 50 Murray Place, Christchurch.
Wanted—Australian or N.Z. Tokens. Buy large or small collections, also commemorative medals.

BERRY, JAMES, F.R.N.S.N.Z., G.P.O. Box 23, Wellington.
Commemorative Medals of all types with particular emphasis on artistic angle, also Illustrated Books of same.

BROOK, Julian A., 9 Clarendon Rd., St. Heliers, Auckland.
Specialty—Modern Foreign, American, Canadian and Commonwealth especially N.Z. and Australia.

BURDETT, L. J., 19 Whenua View, Titahi Bay, N.Z.
Specialty—Coins generally, and Church Tokens.

CRAIGMYLE, J., P.O. Box 99, Wanganui.
Specialty—Gold Coins.
Wants—N.Z. Waitangi Crown 1935.

DENNIS, E. R., 172 Nelson St., Invercargill.
Specialty—Old English, Roman, and general.

FOWLER, F. J., P.O. Box 24, Tawa, Wellington.
Specialty—Coins of Pacific Countries.

FREED, A. J., 28 Abbott St., Ngaio, Wellington.
Specialty—Coins generally.

FREEMAN, C. J., P.O. Box 23, Wellington.
Specialty—Greek and Roman Coins and Tokens.

GASCOIGNE, A. W., 16 Brecon Rd., Stratford, N.Z.
Wants—William IV half sov. small head 1834, also Crown piece proof or pattern 1831.

GRAYDON, J. R. C., 7 Plymouth St., Karori, Wellington.
Medals—British Campaign Medals and Decorations.

HEWETSON, R., P.O. Box 131, Palmerston North, N.Z.
N.Z. Tokens wanted—buy and exchange.

HORNBLOW, M. H., F.R.N.S.N.Z., P.O. Box 23, Wellington.
Specialty—General.

HORWOOD, W. E., F.R.N.S.N.Z., 6 Highbury Rd., Wellington.
Specialty—English and Roman Coins.

HUGHAN, H. G., F.R.N.S.N.Z., P.O. Box 48, Carterton, N.Z.
Specialty—World Gold Coinage, and Coins of the Realm.

HUMPHREYS, Mrs. R. S., 20 Albany St., Gore, N.Z.
Specialty—N.Z. Coinage.
Wants—Waitangi Crown, also 1936 and 1944 florins.

HUNT, C. G., King's Bldgs., Victoria St., Hamilton, N.Z.
Specialty—Historic N.Z. Coins and Medallions.

JARVIS, P. W., 16 Jefferson St., Wellington, N.Z.
Specialty—Coinage of France and French Possessions. Any N.Z. dates supplied in exchange.

JOHNSON, H. N., P.O. Box 23, New Plymouth, N.Z.
Specialty—N.Z. Tokens.

KRAAGENHOF, G., Harderwyk, Netherlands.
Specialty—Scandinavian, West European, British Commonwealth Silver.
Wants—Waitangi Crown (exchanges).

LYNCH, M. A. C., 10 Atherton Rd., Epsom, Auckland.
Specialty—N.Z. Tokens and Coins, also interesting Foreign.

LYNCH, M. W., 22 Cook Street, Gisborne.
Specialty—English-French—all issues.
Wants—George II Crown young or old head.

McCLEW, J. M., 13 Fairholme Ave., Epsom, Auckland.
Specialty—English and British coinage.

McNAUGHT, C. M., P.O. Box 166, Wellington.
Stamps and Coins including U.S.A. and Canadian Dollars. Gold Pieces.

MADDEN, I. B., M.A., F.R.N.S., F.S.A. (Scot.), 11 Mt. Hobson Rd., Remuera, Auckland.
Specialty—English-Irish silver coins—general collector.
Member American Numismatic Assn., Numismatic Society of South Australia, Historical Assn. (London); Historic Auckland Society (N.Z.), and of several English, Irish, American and Australian Historical, Archaeological and Genealogical Record Societies.
Interested in all heraldic and historical matters.

MALUSCHNIG, K. E., 53 Central Terrace, Wellington.
Specialty—Gold Coins.

MENZIES, C. E., 39 Old Mill Rd., Grey Lynn, Auckland.
Specialty—Coins Generally.

MOTTRAM, W. D., 64 Preston's Rd., Papanui, Christchurch.
Tokens—Crowns—and modern British Commonwealth issues.

NETHERCLIFT, N. R. A., 20a Lancaster St., Karori, Wellington.
Tudor and English Hanoverian Silver—Maundys.
Wants—Official emergency issues and any unusual denominations.

PALMER, A. H., P.O. Box 440, Wellington.
I buy or exchange all Gold Coins.

PECK, W. B., 38 Greenridge Ave., White Plains, New York, U.S.A.
Specialty—All British Commonwealth coins and tokens.
Wants—More of above.

POLASCHEK, SERGEANT A. J., 21 Tui St., Burnham Camp, Canterbury, N.Z.
Specialty—Medals—British and Foreign.

PRICE, E. C., 50 Rhodes St., Merivale, Christchurch.
N.Z. Traders and Trading Bank Notes 1840-1833.

RANGER, Mrs. E., 58 Majoribanks St., Wellington.
Specialty—Tokens, Gold Coins, Church Tokens.

ROBINSON, H., P.O. Box 5189, Auckland.
Wanted N.Z. Tradesmen's Tokens, Church Tokens, and all or any material listed or not listed in the N.Z. Numismatic History of Allan Sutherland. Have exchange material or will buy.

Rose, L. G., 23 Sails St., Papanui, Christchurch.
Specialty—British Coins from George 1st.
Wants—Coins of South Seas Company and Edward VIII.

ROWE, V. A., 136 Albert St., Hamilton East, N.Z.
Specialty—Waitangi Crowns. Wants—Waitangi Crowns.

ROUFFIGNAC, J. K. de, 84a Nelson St., Petone, Wellington.
Specialty—Medals and Gold Coins.

RUTHERFORD, Master R., 11 Princess Street, Newtown, Wellington.
Wants Overseas Coin pen friends.

SADD, A. A., 15 Marne St., Palmerston North.
Specialty—Roman Coins.

SHERWOOD, G. C., Box 83, Wellington.
Specialty—British Coins.

SILCOCK, R. B., P.O. Box 23, Wellington.
British and Colonial Campaign Medals and Decorations.

SINCLAIR, Master John, 94 Happy Valley Rd., Wellington.
Wants Overseas pen friends for exchanging coins.

STAGG, Capt. G. T., F.R.N.S.N.Z., R.N.Z.A. Army Hq., Box 99, Wellington.
Specialty—N.Z. Long Service Awards. Would appreciate hearing from members or others possessing Long Service Awards to N.Z. Army, particularly those awarded to the Old Volunteer Forces prior to 1914. Identification of awards is set out in Vol. 9, Parts 4 and 5, of our Journal, and use of the Medal Type Nos. quoted would assist positive identification.

STRAW, FRED, 50 Uxbridge St., Papanui, Christchurch.
Specialty—German and Indian Coins and Tokens.

STUTTER, GARY, 18 Princess St., Newtown, Wellington.
Specialty—Coins of all Countries.

SUTHERLAND, J., 27 Kakanui Ave., Hillcrest, Hamilton, N.Z.
Specialty—N.Z. Tokens and Maundy money.

TANDY, J. G., 83 Beauchamp St., Karori, Wellington.
Specialty—British Coins.

TAYLOR, C. R. H., F.R.N.S.N.Z., 1 Kereru Bend, Tawa, Wellington.
Specialty—Roman Republican Coins.

TAYLOR, M. M., 46 Selkirk St., Hamilton, N.Z.
Specialty—Coins of the World—willing exchange.

TREMAYNE, T. O., 45 Waring-Taylor St., Wellington.
Buyer and Seller of all Gold Coins.

WAUGH, C. A., 17 Wallath St., New Plymouth, N.Z.
Specialty—Gold Coins of the World.
Wants—One Adelaide Govmt. Assay Office £1 1852 Gold.

WILLIAMS, B. R., Amriens Rd., Taupaki, Auckland.
Crown sized World Coins. Specialise in Mexican. Many coins for exchange. Correspondence invited.

WYNESS-MITCHELL, K. J., F.R.N.S., 1 Canning St., Gore, N.Z.
Specialty—War Medals, Decorations, and Awards.
Wants—Above in good condition, also Service Ribbons.