

Volume 10 — No. 5 (35)

December, 1961

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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OF NEW ZEALAND INCORPORATED
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Requiem for the Farthing

Coins which have been authorised for issue remain legal tender until they have been put out of currency by a Royal Proclamation. Such proclamations are rare and so when they have been made they have usually been fairly sweeping.

Four hundred years ago, the first Queen Elizabeth removed from circulation the coins that had been debased by her father. A hundred years later, following the Restoration, a Proclamation demonetised the coins of the Commonwealth as "not lawful money of the realm." In 1696, as a consequence of the introduction of coining by machinery, all the hammered silver coins issued before that date ceased to be current coin. When a bi-metallic system of currency was abandoned in 1816 in favour of a single gold standard, the silver coins were reduced in weight and became tokens, and all earlier silver coins were demonetised.

When official copper halfpennies and farthings were introduced in 1672 and pennies in 1797, their weight was fixed so that their intrinsic value approximated to their face value. They were cumbersome, and gave way to lighter bronze coins in 1860, and were put out of currency by Proclamation in 1869.

All gold coins issued before the reign of Queen Victoria were demonetised by Proclamation in 1890. Guineas, which had been issued between 1663 and 1813, ceased to be current, and also sovereigns of George III, George IV and William IV.

The Proclamation of 26th October, 1960, which demonetised the farthing, is probably unique in that its application is confined to a single denomination.

The farthing was one of the oldest of our coins. For over five hundred years, from the eighth to the thirteenth century, the silver penny was the only coin in general circulation, and for small change it was cut into halves to give halfpennies and into quarters to give fourthing or farthings. In 1279, Edward I ordered a round farthing.

"I read that King Edward the First, in the eighth yeare of his reigne, did first coin the penis and smallest

pieces of silver roundwise, which before were square and wont to beare a double cross with a crest in such sort that the penie might easile be broken, either into halfes or quarters; by which shifte onelie the people came by small monies, as halfe pence and fardings, that otherwise were not stamped nor coined of set purpose." (Holinshed.)

In the agreement made between the King and William de Turnemire the mint-master, it is stated that "The farthings shall be round and must be made at London and nowhere else and shall be called 'Lundreis,' so that any one who chooses to melt down four farthings may find in them as much fine silver as in one sterling, except what is needed to cover the extra cost of making. And because the farthing would be too weak and small if it were of the same alloy as the sterlings, it is provided that it shall have so much more alloy."

At Christmas, 1280 the disproportionately heavy farthing was abandoned and the coin was struck in standard silver (925) weighing 5.51 grains. It was less than one quarter of the weight of the obsolescent silver threepenny piece of our own times, and its size became even smaller as the price of silver increased and the silver content was reduced.

These tiny coins were rarely available in sufficient quantity to meet demand, both because they were uneconomical to make and because they were so small that many were lost. In 1402 the Commons successfully petitioned the King—

"That he would be pleased to ordain some remedy for the great mischief amongst the poor people for the want of halfpennies and farthings of silver which were wont to be and still were the most profitable money to the said people, but were now so scarce because none were worked nor made at that time."

In February, 1445, another petition was presented and it was agreed that for a period of two years halfpennies and farthings should be coined at the rate of 33s. to the mint pound, of which the king took 7d. for his seignorage, the mint-master 7d. to cover

"his labour of double meltyng, blaunchyng, waste and other costs" and the minters 10d. "because of their gretter labour to make so many smale peces."

By the time of Edward VI the farthing had been reduced to about 3 grains in base silver and had become too small to be coined or handled conveniently; during his reign the coinage of silver farthings came to an end. As a remedy for the shortage of farthings, private tokens began to appear, and during Elizabeth's reign the coinage of silver farthings came to an end. As a remedy for the shortage of farthings, private tokens began to appear, and during Elizabeth's reign frequent complaints were made that tradespeople were "stamping and issuing

tokens of lead, tin, latten and even of leather." It was not until 1613 that farthing tokens in copper were made legal tender and a patent for striking them was granted to Lord Harrington, with the proviso that they were not to be deemed money or legal coin. The patent subsequently passed through various hands until it was suppressed by Parliament in 1644. The trading public thereupon took the matter into their own hands, and tokens were issued on an enormous scale.

In 1672 the State decided to make an official issue of copper farthings and halfpence and to forbid all privately coined tokens. They were struck so as "to contain as much copper as shall be of the true intrinsic value of each less the charge only of coining and uttering." The reverse design was a figure of Britannia taken from a bronze coin of Antoninus Pius issued 1500 years earlier. With various changes in detail, this elegant design formed the reverse of all our copper coins until 1937 when it was restricted to the penny. Because of widespread counterfeiting the copper coinage was stopped in 1676.

In 1864 farthings were issued in tin of the same weight as those struck in copper, and in the vain hope that the counterfeiter would be defeated a small core of copper was introduced into the centre of the coins. The edge bore the date and the words "Nummorum famulus" (subsidiary coinage). The coinage of the tin farthings continued until 1692, and in 1693 copper was reinstated under a licence to Andrew Corbet. This licence expired in 1701, and on the advice of Sir Isaac Newton. Master of the Mint, the coinage of farthings was taken over by the Mint. None was isssued until 1717, apart from an experimental coinage in 1714, and they were then struck intermittenly until 1754 when, because nearly one half of the copper coin in circulation was found to be counterfeit, further coinages were suspended. No official tears were shed. So Joseph Harris, the assay master in 1751: "Copper coins with us are properly not money, but a kind of tokens," while in 1782 they were "not considered as properly belonging to the Mint.

Issues of farthings were resumed in the years 1770 to 1775. Towards the end of the eighteenth century Matthew Boulton conceived the idea of applying steam power to coining and erected a factory near Birmingham equipped with his new machinery, where he struck farthings in 1799, 1806 and 1807. Early in the nineteenth century the Royal Mint was transferred from the Tower of London to its present site on Tower Hill, and arrangements were made for withdrawing from circulation all the copper coin issued before the Boulton coinage. In 1821 £2,800 of farthings were struck, and issues continued until 1860 when bronze coinage was introduced. Except for 1870, 1871 and 1889, bronze farthings were struck in every year from 1860 to 1956, during which time £782,600 were issued.

It is a tribute to the stability of our coinage that for

over 1,000 years the farthing survived the many adversities which threatened it with extinction and struggled successfully to maintain a place in the minor economics of the Realm. And its end, in over-ripe age, is not without a struggle: "How strange that the Treasury are trying to make us forget the farthing as part of our currency in the same week that Pools promoters are giving it its greatest boost ever in their weekly coupons." (Letter in the London Evening News.)

—Extracted from the *Report of the Royal Mint* for 1960. With the express permission of the Comptroller.

Art and Craft on Coins

The increasing amount of overseas coinage work undertaken by the Royal Mint means an extending range of designs which not only afford scope and experience for the Mint engravers but also enable us to encourage artists to show their talents in this field. The metallic art is an interesting and charming form, and I propose saying something about its application to coinage.

Except for the tin coins in use early in the first century B.C., the coins used in this country have invariably been struck between dies. The early designs on the dies were compositions of dots, crescents and straight lines built up from a series of small chisel-like punches which were used also for the letttering. Thus the curved punch which made the C or G was used for eyebrows and curls of hair on each side of the king's face, and the full-stop punch for the pearls in the crown, the knobs at the end of the sceptre, and the royal eyes. Towards the end of the thirteenth century the technique of die-engraving began to develop; a complete punch was now made for the king's face, one for the crown, and others for the hair.

The practice of engraving punches for the coinage dies continued until the nineteenth century, when, with the advent of the Wyons, the original work of the artist was engraved in intaglio, thus producing a matrix and reducing by one stage the production of the working dies. Since the beginning of the present century handengraving of original coinage tools has been largely replaced by the "reducing machine," of which more later in this lettter.

The first coins to bear a well-marked design on both sides were those of Athens. On the reverse was an owl, and on the obverse was the head of Athene for whom the owl was the shorthand sign. This type set the pattern for the later Greek coins and was followed on the early coins of Rome.

When our present coinage emerged in the eighth century with the introduction of the silver penny, the design

was crude. Exceptionally the pennies of Offa (757 to 796) are remarkable for an ambitious set of portrait heads with reverses which display floral and geometrical designs. After Offa's death Saxon coins ceased to have any marked quality, though from time to time advances in design were made. Alfred is shown wearing a lavishly ornamented tunic; and a crown, for the first time on the Saxon coinage, decorates the bust on a penny of Athelstan. Aethelred II, "the Unready," is the first English king to be portrayed on a coin bearing a sceptre, and on one type he is shown wearing chain-mail and a crowned helmet. A striking design of the reign of Edward the Confessor shows a full-length figure of the king seated on a throne and holding a sceptre and orb.

The Norman Conquest brought no new techniques, and a deterioration reached its nadir under Stephen. A change in the preparation of dies during the reign of Edward I improved the obverse design, but "there does not appear to have been so much as an attempt to preserve any similitude of the several kinds on the impressions of their heads. They are all alike . . . and even those that are represented on their broad seals and monuments as wearing beards, do, nevertheless, appear smooth-faced upon their coins, and, although Henry VI became king when only nine months old, and reigned above eight and thirty years, yet can no difference be observed in his countenance by which his first moneys and his last may be distinguished from each other." (Martin Folkes, Tables of English Silver and Gold Coins, 1763.)

The Renaissance influence began to show on the English coinage early in the sixteenth century. For the first time a true portrait was struck, of Henry VII, and the stereotyped design of the cross and pellets that had served for the reverse was replaced by the royal shield of arms. On many of the coins of Henry VIII a fullfaced effigy of the king is shown, resembling the portraits by Holbein. Until the middle of the seventeenth century, the portraits on the coins display much skill in presenting the armour and costume of the period. The silver crown piece of Edward VI illustrates the armour of the sixteenth century, while the coins of Queen Elizabeth I are as ostentatious as one would expect. Changes of fashion in dress are shown on the coins of Charles I, where he is first portrayed in a voluminous ruff, then in a ruff of more modest proportions, and finally in the simple falling lace collar associated with his portraits.

The coinage suffered an abrupt decline in the Inter-The designs prescribey by Parliament are regnum. notable for their puritanical simplicity and uniformity, but mainly for their ugliness. On the obverse a device of the two shields reminded Lord Lucas of the reverse in breeches "a fit stamp for the coin of the rump." In 1656, however, Simon, one of the greatest of the Mint engravers, produced a very fine portrait coinage in the Roman style of the Protector which, although it had the

approval of the Council, was not circulated. The bust was laureated, and the shoulders were clothed in a mantle. This style remained the fashion for coinage portraits until the reign of George III.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century the Roman style was abandoned in favour of a sort of Grecian adaptation. On the new coinage of 1816 there is a simple laureated and undraped bust cut off at the neck, and later, even the laurel wreath disappears. The design of St. George and the Dragon devised by Pistrucci, and adopted for the sovereign when issued in 1817, was treated in a Grecian mode, and the Roman figure of Britannia on the copper coins was furnished with a Greek helmet.

About the middle of the nineteenth century the Gothic revival was reflected in the florin of 1849 and the pattern crowns of 1846, 1847 and 1853, but since that time the designs of coins have tended to conform to conventional and often dull models of the sovereign's head on the obverse and a shield or shields of arms on the reverse.

Although the primary purpose of coins is to provide ready money for smaller financial transactions, there has been some social self-consciousness about their quality, and towards the end of the eighteenth century the Committee of the Privy Council on Coinage wrote to the Royal Academy suggesting that a committee of that body might advise "their Lordships to improve and perfect the coinage of this country as a becoming work of taste and art."

—Extracted from the *Report of the Royal Mint* for 1960. With the express permission of the Comptroller.

WHIE 75:25 CUPRO-NICKEL

It has been observed that by the ordinary processes of cold-rolling, short-time oxidising annealing, blanching in acid, and drying in hot air, cupro-nickel coins are not uniform in colour, some having a faint but perceptible pink tinge.

The main variables that affect the finishing processes were, therefore, subjected to a critical investigation.

During a metallographic examination of cupro-silicondeoxidised material, it was noticed that a fully annealed specimen was harder to etch and noticeably whiter than a corresponding "as cast" specimen, this latter having a heavily cored structure compared with the homogeneous structure of the annealed material.

Tests carried out on production cupro-nickel deoxidised with cupro-manganese showed that the whitest and most satisfactory coins were obtained from hot rolled and scalped bars, although scalping alone seems to have little effect on the colour. More generally, white coins were obtained from blanks that had been bright annealed at 900 deg. C. for 20 minutes; this improvement was probably due to a reduction in coring and the formation of a uniform grain structure.

White blanks can be obtained by blanching in nitric acid, but only at concentrations so high as to make the cost prohibitive and the control of local violent attack nearly impossible.

The colour of blank dried in sawdust was generally good, but difficulty was always, experienced in coining. Trichlorethylene is very susceptible to grease contamination, which gives rise to a faint yellow film on the blanks. The most consistent results were obtained with rotary hot air dryers.

The colour was not improved by barrel burnishing in ammonium carbonate/soap/steel balls or synthetic bauxite media.

Normally processed blanks from melts deoxidised with cupro-silicon instead of cupro-manganese were of slightly better colour, but interangular precipitation of an as yet unidentified constituent caused serious embrittlemen of some 5 per cent. of the annealed strip, and coining tests showed a tendency to increased collar wear.

It may be concluded, therefore, that the main cause of the pink tinge of cupro-nickel coins, when it appears, is inhomogeneity of the blanks; during solidification, coring occurs and persists when fabrication involves only cold rolling and short-time annealing processes. Cupronickel coin closely resembling pure nickel in colour may best be obtained from bright-annealing, rotary air-dried blanks produced from hot rolled, scalped strip.

Experimental work on barrel burnishing, originally carried out in an attempt to produce a superior blank for coining at the New York Exhibition, led to its adoption as a production process.

—Extracted from the *Report of the Royal Mint* for 1960. With the express permission of the Comptroller.

American Civil War Currency

By E. C. PRICE

The centennial of the American Civil War is remembered this year. It raged from 1861-1865 over a wide territory bounded by the Atlantic, the Gulf of Mexico, the Mississippi states and the Ohio and Potomac Rivers.

The combatants were the Federals and the Confederates, and the war was caused by the demand of the

latter to secede from the Union. Popularly it was a struggle between North and South but the burning issue of the conflict was the desire of the South to retain some six million negroes in a continued state of slavery. The North was equally opposed and determined to destroy this system and all the socia implications that accompanied it.

The war opened with the bombardment of Fort Sumpter by the Confederates on 12th April. 1861. The first pitched battle on land was Bull Run on 21s July of that year. This turned out to be one of 2260 battles, sieges and skirmishes before the last Confederate armies surrendered on 26th May, 1865. Initially the South were better led than the North and it was not until late in the war when President Lincoln evolved the winning trio of Generals Grant, Sherman and Sheridan that the South were eventually overwhelmed. The first two years had seen predominantly Confederate victories but in May, 1863, "Stonewall" Jackson, their greatest general after Robert E. Lee, was killed under most tragic circumstances. This was to have an important bearing on the outcome of the war. Two months later the South were forced to turn back at Gettysburg. General Grant captured Vicksburg, the Confederate stronghold on the Mississippi. This had the effect of dissecting their territory and was to lead to General Sherman's famous drive to the sea in the following year.

It must not be overlooked that an additional factor in the eventual crippling of the South was the very effective blockade of its ports by the Union naval forces under the command of Admiral Farragut. This prevented the South from shipping its cotton to European nations and getting valuable war supplies in reeurn. Further, once the tide of the Union's huge industrial potential was under way, defeat for the South was inevitable. The end came when General Robert E. Lee was forced to abandon his lines at Petersburg, where he had resisted General Grant for nine months, and evacuate Richmond, the Confederate capital. His retreat was blocked and at Appotomax court house on 9th April, 1865, he surrendered to General Grant. The remaining Confederate force under General Johnston surrendered to General Sherman a few days later, bringing the war to an end.

From an economic point of view the conflict had farreaching consequences. Both sides were forced to resort to the widespread use of paper currency as a means to finance the war. Inevitably coin was speedily withdrawn from circulation. Hence it is that one hundred years later, the many forms of paper currency utilised present an interesting study for the numismatist.

A brief summary of these issues is appended. For practical purposes detailed survey of denominations are excluded.

Federal Issues

- 1. Compound Interest Treasury Notes. Issued 1863-5. These were issued in three-yearly terms but interest could only be collected by redeeming the note.
- 3. Legal-tender notes. First issued, March, 1862, and while possessing no backing had to be accepted by law. These would doubtless comprie the bulk of the notes in circulation.
- 4. National bank notes. First issued, 1863. Banks were authorised to buy United States bonds, thus easing the Government's money-raising problems. They could issue notes up to 90 per cent. of face value of bonds deposited with the Government.
- 5. Encased postage stamps. Designed by one J. Gault, of Boston, August, 1862. These were placed on unused stamps face up on brass discs—a round piece of mica was placed over each stamp. The two layers were then fastened together in a brass frame. This practice was short lived as the state issue of fractional currency (less than one dollar) were made to the public between August, 1862, and May, 1863.
- 6. Fractional currency. Five issues were made in all, comprising those made during the Civil War and two between 1866-76.
- 7. Tokens. Widely issued in some 23 states. A total of 20 million tokens offers a greater variety to the collector than any other branch of the country's currency. In 1864 Congress altered the bronze content from 72 to 48 grains and thus reduced the premium value of each token. Subsequently their issue was prohibited and they soon went out of circulation.

Confederate Issues

- Notes. These comprised: 1861, four issues; 1862, three issues; 1863, one issue of three eries; 1864, one issue. These notes are the most common today and consequently command the lowest values. As a whole, the notes are attracively designed and have definite historical appeal.
- Bonds. These were issued in terms from three to 30 years. In an effort to curtail inflation the Government did everything within its power to take notes out of circulation. By 1864 all notes over 5 dollars were ordered to be called in for conversion to bonds payable in 20 years. This measure met with little success as by then the South's position was hopeless in every way.
- Coins. Only two Confederate coins were struck—a cent and a half-dollar. Owing to the shortage of metal neither of these coins was ever issued in quantity. Actually, only four half-dollars and twelve cents were issued. Restrikes of these are known

Conclusion

It may be stated that the writer of this article is greatly indebted to the following sources of information: The Story of Civil War Money, by Fred Reinfeld; Confederate Bonds, by C. J. Affleck and B. M. Douglas. These admirable works of reference are both lucidly and interestingly written and provide a wealth of information on this absorbing subject.

COUNTERFEIT MONEY

FROM ROMAN TO MODERN TIMES

A Talk given by Mr. James Berry, President.

An interesting point regarding forgeries is that sellers of fraudulent imitations and fakes which one can purchase in junk shops throughout the world are safe from criminal proceedings because no expert would be deceived by them. It is only when the expert is deceived that the law can be brought in. This means that the skilled craftsmen in the case of forgeries pays more dearly than the unskilled.

Cheap imitations of coins and medals, usually in gilt or chrome finish, are often seen as pendants and brooches, or more often made up as bracelets. These are usually of thin or cheap metal and are nothing like the original in thickness or weight, although they may be similar in size and design.

In New Zealand we have an example of these in cheap copies of coins which were in use for counters for card games, etc., and to which I shall refer later on.

An interesting point which Mr. Chetwynd told me at the last meeting is that it is against the law to have more than three counterfeit coins or notes in a numismatic collection or in one's possession. This was news to me, but I have since had it confirmed by Police Headquarters. Here I have two counterfeit Roman coins and somewhere I have a counterfeit New Zealand half-crown, a rather poor specimen in a lead-alloy of some description, so that gives me my limit. I also have some of the cheap imitation spade guineas and half-guineas which were in use as card counters and which seem to turn up in all parts of New Zeaand. Being made of thin brass instead of heavy gold, they would not deceive any shopkeepers, so they may be disregarded.

Concerning the distribution of forged coins or notes, a person is regarded as "uttering" when he uses, offers,

publisehes, delivers, disposes of, tenders in payment or exchange, tenders in evidence or puts off a forgery, knowing it to be false. ("Outlines of Criminal Law," C. S. Kenny, 1945).

The earliest known forgeries date from Roman times, though no doubt they existed earlier. Roman counterfeiters imitated collectors' pieces and coins in daily use, and one report (Pliny) says that one false coin was worth several genuine specimens. Apparently Roman collectors were very keen on such pieces. We are inclined to look on forgeries of money, works of art, etc., as a somewhat modern development, but there were forgeries 2,000 years ago, just as there are today. Happily, today they are becoming increasingly rare as modern science and means of detection of spurious pieces gives the forger little chance of "getting away with it" in the established currencies of the world. However, it may be quite different for ancient coins and medals, as I have heard stories from time to time about the thriving industry in Italy and Egypt of recently produced "ancient coins" sold to the gullible tourists. In earlier times many Roman copper coins were plated with a thick coating of silver, and when this practice became widespread a law was passed that the edge of silver coins must be notched or milled—the reason our "silver" coins are milled today. Ancient Britons also learned the art of striking copper coins and plating them with silver or gold. This had become high treason by the time of the Middle Ages and offenders were immersed in boiling oil. Indignation against the forger was often tinged with admiration for his skill. Personally I have great admiration for his courage for running the risk, in those days, of getting the boiling oil treatment.

The most pernicious of all types of forgery has always been coining. Counterfeiting money did not become a statutory offence until 1562. The penalty after that date was possibly a fine, standing in the pillory, cutting off both ears, slitting and searing the nostrils, forfeiture of land and perpetual imprisonment according to the seriousness of the offence. In 1634 forgery was made a capital offence and remained so until the 19th century when a law was passed making only three crimes punishable by death murder, high treason and setting fire to His Majesty's Dockyards. It was not possible to produce coins of standard weight and size in the Middle Ages and coins came in for a lot of wear and tear—not always from natural causes. Coins were often clipped round the edges and scraped to remove some of the metal and with increasing knowledge chemical means were also used. In the case of gold and silver coins this practice could lead to considerable profit.

Forgery and counterfeiting were very common in England between 1750 and 1850. Prior to 1775 there was no law to prevent any private person issuing notes and around this period a great number of forged notes were

issued. To allow the uncontrolled issue of notes was the equivalent of forgery and counterfeiting. Many small banks of those days issued quantities of notes with inadequate cover and this was probably the principal cause of the failure of 240 banks between 1814 and 1816. Proper legislation to deal with this was not made until 1844.

Now for a few examples of counterfeiting. In the 19th century a German named Becker skilfully engraved dies for over 300 types of coins, mostly Roman. Most of these were struck in gold which does not alter with time. They were hard to detect and eager collectors helped him to obtain a large fortune. Becker was indeed a resourceful forger. To dispel the new and shiny appearance of his "coins" they were placed in a small box partly filled with iron shavings and this was attached to the springs of his carriage. He then drove from Frankfurt to Offenbach, by which time the "coins" appeared to have been in circulation, having lost their shiny new appearance during the journey. When the market became saturated Becker made sets of lead impressions from the same dies and sold them to the museums and collectors who had previously bought his counterfeits.

Now to quote an American example: In March, 1861, when the Contederacy controlled the New Orleans Mint, a design was approved for a half-dollar. This design was used for the reverse and for the obverse, the usual American half-dollar die was used. Four only of these coins were minted and one of these went to Jefferson Davis. Only two are known to be in existence today and are valued at over 1,000 dollars each. Years after the Civil War, a Philadelphian dealer discovered the Confederate reverse die and sold it to one, J. W. Scott, who had a bright idea. He obtained about 500 1861 U.S. half-dollars, planed off the reverse of each coin and impressed it with this Confederate die. A collector's item, these re-strikes are now worth around £35. I have no record of what happened to Mr. Scott but no doubt the law eventually caught up with him.

In the latter half of the 18th century private coining of copper coins was quite a profitable venture in England. In 1750 it was estimated that half the copper coins in England were counterfeit and two-thirds by 1789. Until fairly recent times it was not an offence to coin foreign currency in England. Large quantities of French and American money were manufactured in England and exported during the late 18th and early 19th centuries. Many coiners were in another trade as a blind. One of these was Woodstock, who was on the face of things a tailor, but really a notorious coiner. He was under suspicion for a long time, but he was a shrewd customer and had a special system of bells which sounded an alarm in his workshop when the front door bell was rung. He was finally caught and received 14 years' penal servitude.

Getting fake money out of circulation is only half the battle. It is essential to trace the source and this is not

always so easy. A counterfeiter seldom uttered his own false money, but made use of a middle man, who again usually arranged for others to put the spurious coins or notes into circulation. About 70 years ago the coiner with a good distributing organisation often escaped detection for some time and even more recently an occasional coiner has got away with it for some years. In 1931 a coiner by the name of Harte was arrested in Dublin. He had not been in trouble with the police before and he confessed to having made counterfeit money for 30 years.

Moulding and minting are the usual methods used by counterfeiters. Moulding is more usually used but does not give such good results as minting. Woodstock used plaster of Paris moulds with good results. Counterfeit money does not always need to be made of base metal to be profitable. The silver coinage of France before World War I was of greater face value than its silver content. A coiner could have produced these coins in their correct metal, silver, and made a good profit. In the Police Museum at Lyon are unstamped silver discs which were prepared ready to receive the imprint of the official currency when the coiner named Bonnet, a dangerous motor bandit was arrested.

The forgery of bank notes is really more serious than coining because of the larger sums usually involved. Some bank note forgeries have been excellent as regards the engraving and printing of the notes but they usually slip up on the paper used. Charles Price, known as "Old was an expert forger of the 18th century. It is said he made his own paper with the correct watermark and prepared the printing inks. The paper was sufficiently different, however, from the "official" paper to enable bank officials to recognise the forgeries. About 1860 a gang led by a man named Burnet planned to steal Bank of England paper from the mills at Laverstock where it was made. He bribed one of the workmen who had not dared to steal the finished glazed paper, as too careful a check was kept on it, so the forged notes produced were all on unglazed paper which was fairly easily recognised. In those days the recipe for making the paper for ten and five-pound notes was handed down by word-ofmouth to each generation who supplied the paper for Bank of England notes. One ruse to get over the difficulty of not being able to match the paper correctly was to soil the notes with oil and other means which helped to disguise the wrong paper and also any poor design work or printing.

In 1879 the Russian rouble case exposed the counterfeiting of large numbers of notes—mainly 3 roubles. This caused a minor panic in some parts of Russia because of the large number in circulation. These were being forged in England and exported to Russia. Two Poles were eventually arrested in England and each received 12 years' imprisonment. A member of the Russian Embassy said at the trial that he could not distinguish any differ-

ence between the forged and the genuine notes. These forgers had got away with this for nine years and it indicated the difficulty the police had in those days of tracking down the forgers who exported all the money they produced.

A more recent case was the great German mark scandal of 1926. These forgeries were first class and this was the first occasion that ultra-violet light was used to show up the differences in the paper used.

Some years ago it was estimated that the equivalent of three to four million pounds sterling of forged money was in circulation on the Continent every year. Whether this is still the case today I do not know, but I should imagine the rapid advance in scientific detection methods in recent years gives little chance today to the counterfeiter and forger to remain long undetected.

Early in 1812, the year of the retreat from Moscow, a gang of counterfeiters were captured in Paris by the police. They had been turning out large numbers of Austrian and Russian notes and some of the most expert printers in Paris were involved. It eventually turned out that Napoleon himself had ordered the set-up to provide money for his troops in the Russian campaign.

A somewhat different case was the converting of British sovereigns into French louis by coiners in the British Army. This was ordered by the Duke of Wellington just before the French campaign.

Large quantities of dounterfeit money are often made for political as well as financial motives, sometimes causing international complications. At a trial of some Russians and Germans before the Supreme Court in Berlin in 1930 the accused were charged with forging large numbers of Russian bank notes in an attempt to overthrow the Government.

The affair of the German mark forgeries of 1926 was the direct result of the debasement of the currency after World War I. In 1923 the exchange value of the mark (prewar about 10d or 1/-) was 18 billion to one English pound. To have some conception of what that meant, imagine our own New Zealand currency being approximately 15 million shillings to one English pound. or £750,000 N.Z. pounds to £1 sterling. The chaotic results following such action would not require much imagination. For instance, a life insurance policy of, say, £10,000 on which large premiums had been paid for perhaps some 40 years would be worth less than 1d. Bank accounts of similar amounts and larger would also be worthless.

Another type of forger is the criminal professional forger. Jim the Penman (James Saward) was an example of this type, specialising in false cheques. After considerable success he was caught through the carelessness of one of his associates.

To come up to modern times with a touch of

humour, a large American firm recently had the idea of producing near-perfect facsimiles of Confederate paper money and giving it away in their packaged products. The U.S. Secret Service raised no objections and copies to a value of 882 billion dollars were run off. The children loved it, but the nation's coin dealers developed a few headaches through people sending in the reprints, thinking it was genuine Confederate money. Another unexpected result following a publicity photo of the "bills" coming off the press in big sheets was that the firm were swamped with orders from Southerners who wanted to buy the sheets for wallpaper.

A New Zealand parallel still has its repercussions with the thin brass copies of spade guineas and half-guineas which people find in all parts of the country and send in, wanting to know how valuable is this "rare" coin. Actually, these were counters for card and other games, which were sold in their thousands years ago by a large firm of New Zealand booksellers and stationers. There are several varieties of them with different wording, etc., but their value is nil. So much continuous confusion was caused that the firm were eventually asked to refrain from selling these. They still turn up and I doubt if there is a coin collector in the country who has not come across them some time or other. These are not classed as forgeries because they were not good enough reproductions of the original coins on which they were based. From a design point of view they were good copies but the main point of difference was weight. These counters are thin and light, whereas the gold coins, although not thick, were quite heavy in comparison.

Reference works used in preparing this paper: "The Craft of Forgery," by Henry T. F. Rhodes, published by John Murray, London; "Counterfeit," by Sonia Cole.

ANNUAL REPORT

The work of the Society has proceeded quietly. There has been a notable increase in the number of members in North America, mainly due to Mr. Arlow's efforts.

During the year 65 new members were elected, an increase of 50 per cent. over last year's record increase. Two deaths were recorded, seven members resigned and 19 members were struck off the roll for non-payment of subscriptions or for having failed to advise the Society of changes of address. The net increase in membership was 37.

The roll of members now stands at 360, made up of two patrons, 59 composite life subscription members, 292 annual subscription members, and 7 schools and colleges. In addition, the free mailing list and exchanges to kindred societies number 52, of which 20 are in New Zealand and 32 overseas. In all, the Journal is now despatched to 412 members and institutions.

A re-arrangement of storage space in the Alexander Turnbull Library, brought about a reduction in the shelving space made available to the Society in the Bowen Street building, with the result that a section of the Society's library, comprising the works in foreign languages and the majority of the older periodicals, is now housed in the Turnbull Library Annexe in the Ford Building, Courtenay Place.

The proponents of Decimal Coinage took heart earlier in the year when all the main parties in the Parliamentary elections supported Decimal Coinage in New Zealand. Unfortunately, due to the serious decline in the country's overseas funds, the Minister of Finance in the new Government recently stated that he was reluctant to make available the considerable amount of overseas funds needed to implement the adoption of Decimal Coinage. It is recommended that the incoming Council should seriously consider this latest delay and perhaps endeavour to arrange for a deputation to wait upon the Minister of Finance and press for a review of the situation.

The 300th anniversary of Captain Cook's landing in New Zealand should be marked by the Society. A suitable medal should be struck and leisurely preparation could now be considered.

The Annual Balance Sheet reflects the healthy state of the Society's finances, brought about, in the main, by the great increase in the revenue received from advertisements in the Journal. The Council as a body takes no credit for this aspect of our finances, which is entirely due to the business acumen and drive of the Hon. Treaurer, Mr. E. J. Arlow.

Pleasing though the credit balance may be, the Council would rather see a considerable reduction in the balance of the General Account if it could be brought about by an increase in the number or size of the Journals issued during a year. Our efforts in this connection have proved most frustrating over the past few years, but with the greatly increased overseas membership we enjoy today, every effort must be made to improve this vital link with all members. Over and above all things, the success of the Society in Lulfilling its primary objective is irrevocably bound up in the standard and volume of the material published in the Journal.

The Council desires to place on record its appreciation of, and thanks for, the many tasks so ably performed by the various office-bearers of the Society and its Canterbury Branch. In particular, we wish to record the great work performed by Mr. Arlow, with Mrs. Arlow's able assistance, in the office of Hon. Treasurer over the past three years and as Officiating Editor during the ab-

ROYAL NUMISMATIC SOCIETY OF NEW ZEALAND (INCORPORATED)

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS RECEIPTS	ND PAYMENTS FOR Y	YEAR ENDED MAY 31, 1961. PAYMENTS	
To Balance 31/5/60	155 19 1 Printing 129 8 8 Postage 3 2 5 Blocks 7 6 0 Wrapper 4 1 0 19 1 6 Statione 3 12 0 Stamps 0 13 6 Advertis Incident Income	Expenses, two issues: 159 0 3 17 1 9 7 7 15	d. £ s d. 0 11 0 0 - 179 19 11 9 11 0 10 16 6 2 11 4 0 10 0 3 8 6 3 1 10 294 18 6
	2504 17 7		£504 17 7
Accumulated Funds: Balance, 31st May, 1960 Composite Sub. A/c Medal Trust A/c Excess Receipts over Expenditure	760 1 5 National Sa	ASSETS Savings Bank	£ s. d. 464 9 6 140 5 5 294 18 6
	2899 13 3		£899 13 5
Composite Subscription Trust A/c Medal Trust A/c	Interest Interest	£13 4 5 Credit £4 14 6 Credit	£464 9 6 £140 5 5

sence overseas of the Hon. Editor last year. Our thanks are also due to the Alexander Turnbull Library for accommodation, and to Mrs. Ranger for the excellent suppers provided at meetings.

In leaving office, I wish the Society every success in the future, and would also like to add my personal thanks to all office-bearers and other members who have so ably assisted me during my term as President of the Society.

For and on behalf of the Council of the Royal Numis-

matic Society of New Zealand.

G. T. STAGG.

President.

Wellington, June, 1961.

The Working of the Roman Mints

By Dr. T. F. CARNEY

Under the Republic, when the senate controlled virtually all State coinage, a college of moneyers, the III viri aere argento auro flando feriundo or Triumviri Monetales, put out issues of varying volume for the state. Appointments were annual, ranked low in the official career and were usually given to young relatives of magistrates concurrently holding high office. As the moneyers, acting for their relatives in high places, began after 150 B.C. to sup-plant the old-type devices of the state by new ones glorifying their respective families, they can be termed policy formers. But no rules or prescriptions beyond those of a relentless egoism shaped the new trend in regard to types, and the coinage of the late Republic was inundated by a welter of types glorifying, first, family, then individual as the will-to-power of the leading men triumphed over restrictions imposed by the state.¹

In 44 B.C. Caesar enlarged the college of moneyers inaugurated in 289 B.C. to four members; Octavian reduced it to the traditional number once more in 36 B.C. Though normally these officials had during this period issued the state coinage, special issues might, however, be decreed by the senate to meet urgent needs. Distinguished by a special formula,2 these might be struck by quaestors or even praetors. And campaigning generals came, after Sulla, to assert as their right the issuing of their own coinage, deputing their own staff members—a quaestor, pro-quaestor or legate as the case might be-to strike in their name for their troops who required a coinage suited to a non-Italian environment.3

Alfoldi, The Main Aspects of Political Propaganda on the Coinage of the Republic, RC 71-72.
 S(entatus) C(onsulto); Ex.S.C.; D(e) S(enatus) S(ententia); A(rgento P(ublico); ARG. PUB; Ex. A.P.
 Cf. RRC., xlviii-ix.

Under the Empire the competence of these senatorial officials was greatly restricted. Moneyers' names appear for the last time on precious metal coinage in 12 B.C. and on aes in 4 B.C. Though the office was continued into the third century, the monetales henceforth issued only aes. The post was, moreover, incorporated in the vigintiviratus, the collection of junior posts of which one had to be held by any aspirant for a senatorial career. As it had thus lost in importance in both function and status, it now became subject to direction by the higher officials of the State Treasury, the Aerarium Saturni. And imperial control over this Treasury (through the ceding to it of grants-in-aid) and over senior appointments (of Praefecti) to it meant that increasing direction of the senatorial coinage was thus exercised by the princeps.⁴

The imperial mint was under the control, in the first instance, of the emperor's Finance Minister, the Curator A Rationibus, in the early Empire a freedman, after Hadrian a knight. In immediate control⁵ was a freedman, styled the Exactor auri, argenti et aeris. He bore the military title Optio, so presumably exercised semimilitary authority over mint-employees (who, e.g., in 115 A.D., were about 90 in number, two-thirds freedmen, the rest slaves). Some such sanction was necessary, for Rome always leased out the actual manufacturing to contractors, supervising work done under their immediate direction (direct state management commenced only in the third century A.D., when special procurators of mints were appointed). Till then imperial mints in the provinces had been under control by the provincial procurators, subject to overall direction from the Curator A Rationibus, and staffed on lines similar to the Roman.

Such was the provision made in Rome for the administrative direction of her mints. The technical organisation of the imperial mint, about which alone something is known, was more complex.⁶ The exactor, technical head of the whole mint, was charged with the duty of securing the due supply of metals of correct fineness; he had under him an optio as deputy in charge of the precious metal section. Income of bullion and aes was secured through his conductores flaturiae argentariae;⁷

- 4. Sutherland, The Personality of the Mints under the Julio-Claudian Emperors, AJP 68, 1947, 49-51. On the encroachment of the Fiscus on the Aerarium, see Sutherland, "Aerarium and Fiscus," AJP 66, 1945, 154-57; Chilver, "Princeps" and "Frumentationes," AJP 70, 1949, 18-20; Jones, The Aerarium and the Fiscus JRS 40, 1950, 24-26; and Inflation under the Roman Empire, EHR 5, 1952, 296.
- 5. From Trajan's time, but probably not before, the immediate head was a Procurator Monetae of equestrian standing, to whom the Exactor was subordinate: RIC, I, 17; Sutherland, op. cit., 45-49 and n.6.
- 6. A similar, if less complex, organisation had subsisted under the IIIviri Monetales (intermediary administrative officials not technicians) of the Republic; e.g., the contracting system operated then also: L. Calpurnius Piso (90-98), a professional metal worker, is a contractor known to have struck for the Republican mint; RRC xlix-1. Carson, System and Product in the Roman Mint, in Carson and Sutherland, Roman Coinage: Essays presented to Harold Mattingly, 1956, 237, sugests others for the huge issues of 88-87.
- 7. E.g. in Caesar's day the gold bullion in the Sacred Treasury was stored in bars of 32 ozs. (=10 aurei or 1,000HS) and the silver bullion in 3 lb. bars (=1,000 HS apiece): Pliny NH 33, 56. This uniformity is evidence of the work of the Conductoress: cf. Frank, The Financial Crisis of 33 A.D., AJP 56, 1935, 339.

coinage was put upon the market by nummularii;8 both operations and the finances of the mint in general were audited by accountants (dispensatores). Preparation of metals was a task allocated to workshops of the mint, officinae, through the officinatores, heads of workshops, and their staff, of whom the statores adjusted alloys, the flaturarii prepared flans, the aequatores adjusted these to correct shapes and weights and the scalptores and the signatores engraved dies and affixed mint marks. Officinae can be seen in the coinage of the late Empire, in numerals or letters attached to mint marks; symbols and other cryptograms on occasion directly identified the work-groups which produced different issues.9 output seems to have varied, there was no differentiation of status between the various officinae within a mint. Actually, all officinae, within the one mint, seem to have combined in producing the same reverse type. The actual striking was done by suppostores, who placed flan and dies in position, and malleatores, who struck the upper There was some development in the organisation of the administration of the technical side of the mint in the late Empire; the outline above holds good only for the early Empire. From Diocletian's time administration of the mint of Rome and of all others within the Empire was part of the duties of the Comes Sacrarum Largitionum. At the head of each mint was an equestrian procurator monetae, with praepositi as subordinates in the place of the exactor of the early Empire. With the silver currency collapsed, aes seriously inflated and gold the only stable medium of exchange, the precious metal section came into new importance; its head, the curator thesauri sacri in arca auri, saw to it that the state's intake of gold (in taxation, by purchase, etc.) was up to standard in weight and purity.11

The actual process of striking 12 was probably as The statores melted the metals and adjusted follows.

There were guilds of money-changers throughout the Empire, termed collectarii, who for a slight, state-controlled profit acted as exchanges for local aes against imperial gold and silver and who came in time to be charged with the buying up of bullion with imperial aes: Bolin, State and Currency in the Roman Empire, 1958, 238-45; Jones EHR 5, 1952, 302 and 313. It was with these collectarii that this branch of the mint had to deal.
 Under the Republic even mints, though their operation can be indistinctly made out, are difficult to identify from their mintages; however, some twenty mintmarks (letters or monogrammes) have been identified: RRC xliv-viii. It was not until the debasement of the silver under Gallienus offered opportunities for fraudulent moneying that it became important to have a means of identifying the persons responsible for individual issues; gradually a complete system of marking was introduced, each coin bearing an indication of the officina which produced it, the series to which it belonged and the mint-city at which it was struck. The officina mark was most important here, as mints had different and therefore identifiable styles, but a plurality of officinaeffi hence mint-masters were more concerned with distinguishing the various issues of their own mint than in distinguishing their own mintage from that of other mints. Mint marks occur from Gallienus' time but do not become general till Diocletian increased the number of mints. They are initially commonest on antoniniani, which most needed protection. The city mint-mark consisted of one or more letters of its name; officinae are distinguishable by numerals, Latin or Greek characters or even dots; symbols, such as stars, crescents and wreaths differentiate successive issues. Numbers of officinae within a mint vary; from 3 to 12 are recorded: RIC V 1, 15-16; xxxv-v.
 Little is known of the mint-procedure that is not derived from the coins themselves; this reconstruction is based, in the main, on RIC 1, 1

the two halves of the mould did not coincide, producing a displacement of types with an imperfectly formed edge. Subsequently Rome used the Italo-Grecian mints of southern Italy, gaining experience in preparation for her own minting; RRC, xliv.

the alloy; the flaturarii ran the metal into clay moulds to form circular blanks which the aequatores then trimmed up and weighed, individually in the case of gold and silver, by the pound for aes. The trimmed blanks were now heated in a blowpipe furnace by the suppostores—so that their metal was malleable; carelessness over this operation accounts for the cracks and fissured edges often met with in aes. Once suitably heated they were inserted between the two dies, made of hardened metal and held

in strong forceps upon an anvil, obverse die in the lower and reverse in the upper socket of the holder. In this position the upper die was struck by two malleatores.14 The high relief of coins of the middle of the first century was only possible when the metal was at a high temperature or when the coins were each twice cast and struck. The beautiful effects thus achieved contrast markedly with those got by clipping in the third century, when a number of coins were struck on a flat bar of metal in the shape of a series of blanks, part circular, part joined to one another. These were then divided and roughly rounded off by a cold-chisel. In the preparation of the typically Roman, realistic die-portrait a clay bust was modelled from life (or from an ancestral bust for a memorial issue); reduced profile bas-reliefs were made in wax from this, and from these the die cutters carved intaglio reproductions on the metal dies, which were subsequently case-hardened.15

The senatorial mint of Rome was housed in the temple of Juno Moneta on the Capitol during the Republic and early Empire, the imperial mint in the fifth region of the city; there is no definite evidence for the view that they were subsequently housed together, but this seems highly probable. But the influence of the princeps must anyway have pervaded the senatorial mint. A senatorial decree to strike, which the princeps could himself move by virtue of his tribunicia potestas (tribune's power), gave him carte-blanche as to its implementation. The major treasury officials, selected by the emperor and relying on the Privy Purse for grants in aid to balance the Treasury's budget, had to defer to the Imperial Finance

^{13.} Money values were originally fixed by weight and under the Empire the standard for each denomination was fixed at some fraction of a pound. Besides, the acceptance value of the currency was in direct relation to its metallic value; cf. RIC 1, 18-19. Actually, however, all Roman currency was over-valued, in relation to its metallic content (by 20% in the case of gold, 25% in that of silver and 33% in that of aes), so that weight-variation about a norm was the usual feature of any issue. This variation was carefully calculated—in the case of gold coins only half the natural range of variations was tolerated; with silver the full natural range prevailed; with aes, in the lower denominations, a mixed range of variation was used—so as not to reward melting down or encourage hoarding, while saving the state-mint bullion: cf. Bolin, 163, 178-79 and 189-90.

^{14.} For an obverse in very high relief, as e.g. on Nero's coins of the Roman mint, the obverse die was made slightly concave, the reverse slightly convex; possibly too the flans were cast in this form so as to receive a better impression from a deeply cut die: RIC 1, 19.

^{15.} Again, the coins themselves, in the main, are the only evidence for these conclusions (in which I have followed RIC 1, 18-19 for the most part).

^{16.} RIC 1, 16; it is very likely that Nero brought the two mints under one roof in the reconstruction, both architectural and monetary, attendant upon the Great Fire of Rome: CRIP, 165; Carson, op. cit., 229-32.

^{17.} CRIP 182-83; cf. also 176.

Secretary. 18 And practical considerations also made for reliance of the "senatorial" on the "imperial" mint; the mint-director was the exactor auri, argenti et aeris and thus controlled the intake and output of all aes, and his permanent and professsional expertise must have made the constantly changing junior officials of the senatorial mint rely heavily on him and his staff in technical matters.19 In effect then supreme authority in the coinage rested on the Finance Secretary, under the princeps, and the Finance Secretary effectively delegated it to the imperial mint-master or exactor.

Policy formation in regard to the vital matter of coin propaganda and general handling of issues seems to have lain with the Finance Secretary, subject to direction from the emperor. This varied from emperor to emperor; the Finance Secretary of the absentee Tiberius enjoyed a freer hand and wider responsibility than his Augustan counterpart. Claudius' Procurator a studiis may well have been the subtle interpreter of Claudian achievements and aims, acting as intermediary between emperor and Finance Secretary, with both of whom he was on terms of intimacy. In general, a major political figure at the court, e.g., Sejanus under Tiberius or Agrippina under Nero, could secure the appointment of his own creature as Finance Secretary and direct policy, in regard to coin types, through him.²⁰ The personalities of the various Julio-Claudian mints, for example, as indicated by their type-output, show that Rome alone furnished the general directives for the (intermittent) advertisement of certain well-defined themes by provincial mints. These general instructions, however, depended for their success upon the ability and enterprise of local mint-superintendents. whose varying capacities in some cases indicate economy measures in the appointment of a man of inferior status and competence.21 Here again, as in every aspect of Rome's currency, the importance of the personal, human element is much in evidence.22

Sutherland, op. cit., 50.
 Ib. 50-51. So much so that non-senatorial bronze (e.g. Caligula's famous ADLOCUT(io) COH(ortium)) could be issued from the senatorial mint: ib., 59.
 Ib. 58, 60, 57 and 61 respectively; cf. 62 and CRIP 147, 155 and 168.
 Sutherland, op. cit., 56-57.
 Thus idiosyncracies peculiar to one mint over a period suddenly appear in another through the transfer of mint officials from place to place. Duplication of mint-marks was caused through leaving discretion in their selection to local officials: RIC V, 1, 18.

BOOK REVIEW AND NOTICES

Selections from "The Numismatist," by the American Numismatic Association; 4 volumes. Racine. Wisconsin, 1961.

Anyone who has had to consult in a library the earlier journals of a learned society must have wished that the wheat could somehow be winnowed from the chaff, and that one could have the boiled-down result upon one's own

shelf for ready reference. Here the wish is realised, for the four comfortable volumes, now made available by the American Numismatic Association cull from the richness of the years, the best material that has appeared. The volumes treat respectively of United States coins, United States paper money and miscellaneous, modern foreign currency (which includes Canada, Mexico, South Ameica, West Indies, England, Spain, France, Russia, Germany China and a few minor countries) and ancient and medieval coins.

It is inevitable that there cannot be encyclopaedic coverage simultaneously with more-than-encyclopaedic detail in the treatment, but the result is amazingly full. For instance, there is a group of articles on ancient coin portraiture, and we find the following: (a) The beginnings of coin portraiture; (b) Hellenitic and early Roman coin portraiture; (c) coin portraiture of the early Roman Empire; (d) face to face with the ancient Greeks and Romans from a study of their coins.

On the other hand, some weakness is exhibited in the coverage of "other countries," where Oceania is represented by a good article on Australian coinage and currency, and another on Philippine guerrilla currency.

But overall it is a rich gathering, and amounts to a handsome reference library in small compass. Any serious numismatist would never regret the modest outlay on the superb resources these volumes offer. —C.R.H.T.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Mintmark Index, Nos. 1-13; 22 pp. The Numismatic Society of Auckland, Inc., 1961.

This most useful record of the material published by the Auckland Society includes a full list of members.

The Federal Reserve System: Purposes and Functions; 238 pp. Washington, D.C., 1961.

238 pp. Washington, D.C., 1961.
This is the fourth edition of the work, first issued in 1939. It explains for the enlightened public the operations of "the nation's credit and monetary machinery," using attractive graphic presentation rather than arrays of figures. An effective statement of the system.

The Money Museum: The National Bank of Detroit, 1961.

This 12-page well-illustrated brochure has come by courtesy of Rear-Admiral Oscar H. Dodson, Director of the Money Museum. This is a magnificent and fitting enterprise for a bank, and the obviously effectively displayed material is extensive in range and both graphically and chronologically. There are over 12,000 items, only a proportion of which is on view at any one time.

Currency of New Zealand: A catalogue of exhibits arranged by the Numismatic Society of Auckland, in conjunction with the centenary of the Bank of New Zealand, 1861-1961; 17 pp.; Auckland, 1961.

Private members contributed to assembling impressive groups of the several kinds of currency used in New Zealand from the early nineteenth century, viz., foreign coins; Australian coins, New Zealand tradesmen's tokens, British Imperial coins, national coinage 1933-1961, and Bank of New Zealand notes.

British Copper Coins and Their Values: Part I, Regal coins. 108 pp.; B. A. Seaby Ltd., London, 1961.

It is good to have this information available once more. Seaby's earlier "Catalogue of the Copper Coins and Tokens," 1949, has been unavailable for some years. The present is a new arrangement, and benefits from the British Museum Catalogue of Mr. C. W. Peck, published in the interim. It is profusely illustrated on art paper, and gives all information that one has come to expect from Seaby's publications. The price is 12/6.

THE GEORGE CROSS

The total number of George Crosses issued up to the 31st July, 1961, is 245. One was awarded to the Island of Malta, 93 to members of the Armed Services, and 39 to civilians, making a total of 133 George Crosses awarded as such.

The remaining 112 George Crosses were issued in exchange for Empire Gallantry Medas held by recipients living on the 24th September, 1940, the figures being 63 for the Armed Services and 49 for civilians.

This gives a total of 156 George Crosses to the Armed Services and 88 to civilians.

G. T. Stagg.

N.Z. WAITANGI CROWN

Our readers will be interested to earn that collectors are beginning to realise the value of this coin. Two months ago, one was sold in Paris to a Belgian buyer for £45. Now this price has been doubled by an American buyer for a direct purchase from New Zealand, £90. This is not for a cased set, but for a single crown only.

—E.J.A.

THE REGAL COINAGE OF HONG KONG

One of our members, Mr. Jerome H. Remick, of Quebec, Canada, has just made an outstanding contribution to numismatic records. He has made a complete listing of all the regal currency issues of Hong Kong, from 1863 to date—that British Colony was the first British Colony in the Empire to adopt the decimal system—nearly one hundred years of decimal coinage is an excellent example to the rest of the Commonwealth.

Details of Mr. Remick's investigations are published in the August issue of the "World Coin Bulletin" published in Peoria, Illinois, U.S.A.

—E.J.A.

ROYAL MINT ANNUAL REPORT, 1960

The following notes are of interest:

Six thousand nine hundred and twenty tons of metal were melted. The value of United Kingdom silver coins issued by the Mint from 1816 to 1920 was £107,080,217. At this time it is estimated that £87,000,000 worth of silver coin either remained in circulation or was lost in sundry ways.

From 1874 to 1951, £163,645 worth of new and reissued United Kingdom bronze coins were issued to New Zealand.

In 1960 Australian silver coins to the value of £2,822,-200 were issued by the Melbourne branch of the Royal Mint.

NEW ZEALAND PROOF COINS

One of the Canadian Members of our Society has just advised that he bought recently at an auction conducted by one of the foremost English firms, a proof copy of the New Zealand 1949 crown, for which he paid the equivalent of 75 dollars, adding the statement that there are less

than 25 copies in proof.

We are sorry to disillusion our friend, but on the official authority of the Royal Mint in London, and confirmed by the New Zealand Treasury, there was only one 1949 crown struck in proof: this was sent out to New Zealand by the Royal Mint as a specimen only and for approval of our Government before the actual minting took place. This specimen Crown is now at the Dominion Museum in Wellington. The total mintings of New Zealand crowns for 1949 amounted to 200,000—it has been assumed that the odd twenty in this total were proofs, but this is not so.

Apart from the coin referred to above, THERE WERE NO PROOF COINS STRUCK FOR NEW ZEALAND IN 1949.

The only proof coins struck for New Zealand, despite recurring reports to the contrary, were the 364 cased proof sets issued in 1935 and the 7,000 cased proof sets issued in 1953.

This statement of the facts can be officially confirmed.

—E.J.A.

N.Z. MINTINGS, 1961

The following are the total mintings as supplied officially by the Reserve Bank:

y LIIV	~ I/CO/	I VC Da	LAAK			
Hal	lf-cro	wns	*****	*****	*****	80,000
2/-	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	1,500,000
1/-	*****	*****	*****	*****	4****	400,000
6d	*****	*****	*****	*****	*****	800,000
3d	*****	*****	*****	******	*****	4,800,000
1d	*****		*****	*****	*****	7,200,000
3d	*****	*****		******	410144	2,880,000
Ťot	al va	lue of	*****	*****	*****	£296,000
						—E.J.A

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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.
- ALLEN, Theodore Jr., Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona, U.S.A.

 Specialty—Silver Crowns of the world and any books relative thereto.
- ARLOW, E. J., 68 Dixon St., Wellington.

 Specialty—World Coinage all dates. Exchanges available.
- ATKINSON, D. O., F.R.N.S.N.Z., Takanini, Auckland. Medals and Badges, especially Australasian and Colonial.
- BALMER, G. N., 4 Carrington St., Wellington. Specialty—world gold coins.
- BELL, R. G., 50 Murray Place, Christchurch.

 Waitangi Crown F.D.C.—will exchange for my wants in the rarer N.Z. tokens—correspondence invited.

 Specialty—N.Z. and Aust. and English Tokens, Church Tokens.
- BELTON Jnr., J. L., 650 Copeland Tce., Santa Monica, Calif., U.S.A.

 Specialty—All British Commonwealth coins and tokens. Buy and trade. Correspondence welcomed.
- 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.
- FERGUSON, J. Douglas, F.R.N.S., P.O. Box 180 Rock Is., Quebec, Canada. Specialty—Canadian Coins, Tokens, Medals and Paper money
- 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.
- GOURLAY, E. S., F.R.S.N.Z., 124 Nile Street, Nelson.
 Specialty—Hammered English silver and gold coins, from Ancient British to Charles II—also wants to buy same.
- GRAYDON, J. R. C., 7 Plymouth St., Karori, Wellington. Medals—British Campaign Medals and Decorations.
- GREENER, John C., 158 Underwood Ave., Warwick, Rhode Island, U.S.A.
 Wants—Silver Crowns of the World—many to exchange.
- HEWETSON, R., P.O. Box 131, Palmerston North, N.Z. N.Z. Tokens wanted—buy and exchange.
- HEYWOOD, H., Central Fire Station, Esk St., Invercargill.

 Specialty—Miniature British Orders, War Service Medals and Decorations.
- 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.
- 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.
- JEFFERY, F. J., 20 Warwick Crescent, Milksham, Wilts, England.

 Wants—English silver coins, Edw. VII halfcrowns, miss.—strikes and brockages.
- KIRKWOOD, James, 4484 Douse Av., Cleveland 27, Ohio, U.S.A.

Wants—Notes of British Commonwealth.

KRAAGENHOF, G., Harderwyk, Netherlands.

Specialty—Scandinavian, West European, British Commonwealth Silver.

Wants-Waitangi Crown (exchanges).

- LOWNDES, R. D., 4a Sultan Street, Ellerslie, Auckland. Specialty—modern foreign coins (no notes). Wants—Korean and Ethiopian coins.
- 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., P.O. Box 9363, Newmarket, S.E. Specialty-English and British coinage.
- McNAUGHT, C. M., P.O. Box 166, Wellington. Stamps and Coins including U.S.A. and Canadian Dollars. N.Z. and Australian commemorative coins and early English silver coins, especially crowns.
- 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.
- MOORHEAD, David P., 35 Wells Rd., Beaumaris, Viz. Aust. Specialty-Australian Colonial and Commonwealth Currencies, Australian Tokens and Commemorative Medals, also U.S.A. Silver Dollars. Wants—To purchase or exchange as above.
- MOTTRAM, W. D., 64 Preston's Rd., Papanui, Christchurch. Tokens--Crowns-and modern British Commonwealth issues.
- NETHERCLIFT, N. R. A., 130 South Rd., Hawera. Tudor and English Hanoverian Silver—Maundys. Wants—Gold and silver coinage of George III.
- 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 to 1933.
- RANGER, Mrs. E., 58 Majoribanks St., Wellington. Specialty—Tokens, Gold Coins, Church Tokens.

- RAUDNIC, John, 10 Kensington Av., Petone, Wellington. Wants—Early British pennies from 1841 to 1859.
- REMICK, J. H., C.P. 742 Haute Ville, Quebec P.Q., Canada. Wants—Gold, silver and copper coins of British Commonwealth.
- 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
- ROSE, L. G., 23 Sails St., Papanui, Christchurch.
 Wants—N.Z. tokens and English commemorative medals. Any information on Perkins & Co., token issuers, Dunedin.
- 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.
- SCHLATHER, Chris C., LL.B., 3,500 Halliday Ave., St. Louis 18, Missouri, U.S.A.
 Wanted—Pre-1900 East Asian, Oceania and African coins, American and Australian Territorial gold.
- SCOTT, J. F., Dentist, Dannevirke.
 Specialty—Gold coins and crowns—exchange or buy.
- SILCOCK, R. B., P.O. Box 23, Wellington.
 British and Colonial Campaign Medals and Decorations.
- SIMPSON, A. J., 252 Graham's Road, Bryndwr, Christchurch. Specialty—British regal copper coins.
 Wants—Queen Anne farthing and copper issues of William III and William and Mary.
- SINCLAIR, Master John, 94 Happy Valley Rd., Wellington. Wants Overseas pen friends for exchanging coins.
- 99, Wellington.

 Medals of all kinds—Specialty: Long Service Awards, also information on same.
- STUTTER, GARY, 18 Princess St., Newtown, Wellington. Mainly coins of Canada and Australia.
- Wants—Canadian Dollars, Crowns. Have for exchange medals and crowns.
- 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—Crown sized coins of the world.

- 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.
- WILLIAMS, Jim, 1350-0 Street, Anchorage, Alaska, U.S.A. Specialty—U.S. and Canadian coins.
- WITTMAN, Major E. E., 481 Iola St., Aurora 8, Colo., U.S.A.
 - Wants—Crowns of the world, American coins. Will buy or have some Australian and N.Z. tokens to trade.
- WOOLWAY, Hal, 1025 Palms Blvd., Venice, Calif., U.S.A. Specialty—Paper money of the world, Military Script, also World Coinage type sets and date series (major). Wanted—Correspondence, exchange want lists, buy duplicates of yours that I need—numismatic booklets. Please write first.
- WYNESS-MITCHELL, K. J., F.R.N.S., 1 Canning St., Gore, N.Z.

 Specialty—War Medals Decorations and Awards

Specialty—War Medals, Decorations, and Awards. Wants—Above in good condition, also Service Ribbons.

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