ResearchGate

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/296585530

The Coinage of Sicily

Chapter · January 2012

DOI: 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780195305746.013.0009

CITATIONS
6

READS
270

1 author:



Wolfgang Fischer-Bossert
Austrian Academy of Sciences (OeAW)
10 PUBLICATIONS **23** CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE

All content following this page was uploaded by Wolfgang Fischer-Bossert on 28 June 2022.

The user has requested enhancement of the downloaded file.

CHAPTER 8

THE COINAGE OF SICILY

WOLFGANG FISCHER-BOSSERT

Sicily was settled by Greek colonists from the second half of the eighth century onward. Already before that time there had been irregular contact between the Greek motherland and the island, as Mycenaean finds show. Even if today it is described as *precolonizzazione*, this contact will have been limited to periodic trade and the establishment of isolated emporia. Around the end of the Bronze Age, Sicily had been settled by Iberian Sikanoi. At the end of the second millennium BC, they were driven into the western half of the island by the Sikeloi, an invading people from Italy. A third people, presumably originating in Liguria, the Elymoi, settled the northwestern part of the island at the same time. These peoples were the original inhabitants of Sicily encountered by the Greeks.

Greek colonization of Sicily occurred in several waves. The Ionian Chalcidians had set out for Campania around the middle of the eighth century in search of Etrurian bronze deposits. They raised the first bases on the island Pithekussai (Ischia) and, not long after, at Kyme (Cumae); they thus knew the route from Messina very well. They soon began to settle the eastern coast of Sicily as well, not least to secure the promising trade route through the strait. The first foundation was the colony Naxos at the foot of Mount Etna, traditionally dated to 735 BC; the two cities that watched over the strait from either side, Rhegion (Reggio Calabria) and Zankle, later Messana (Messina), soon followed. In the meantime, Dorian settlers had also set out for Sicily. It is traditionally held that Syracuse was founded by the Corinthians in 734 BC, only a year after the foundation of Naxos. Megara Hyblaia, not far to the north, was founded by colonists from Megara, and early in the seventh century, the Rhodians founded the powerful city of Gela on the southern coast. Secondary settlements soon began to appear. The Naxians extended to the northern coast with the settlements of Mylai and Himera, to pursue interests in the Tyrrhenian Sea. The Dorian cities Syracuse and Gela expanded their territory

Copyrighted material

with foundations on the southern coast, such as Akragas and Kamarina. A glance at the map at this point would reveal the island split in two: Ionian cities in the northeast and north, Dorian cities in the southeast and south. This territorial division would play an important role in Sicilian politics; indeed, during the Sicilian Expedition of Athens (415–413 BC), it led to the creation of two hostile "blocks." The historiographical tradition, however, can often lead us astray. The colonists of a given city were by no means of such homogenous extraction as the poets and historians of the fifth and fourth centuries claim. Closer examination of competing foundation myths, the oldest ceramic finds, and the earliest epigraphic evidence ever more frequently confirms the suspicion that the first colonists were in fact composed of very diverse groups. Only after some time, through social pressure and also the assimilation of smaller segments of the population, did the politically dominant element of a place come to prevail in dialect and identity.

The numismatic history of Sicily reflects the vicissitudes of its political history in truly unique fashion. Cities were conquered and destroyed, populations displaced and resettled, tyrannies raised and toppled. Many of these political shifts have left traces in the history of Sicilian coinage. Nevertheless, many an accepted view has proven erroneous, and many an assumed turning point deceptive. Cities generally were not utterly destroyed as the ancient historians describe; neither were population displacements rigorous, nor did politicians and tyrants have absolute discretionary power—as one might well imagine, given the bitter experiences of modern history. Thus, today much numismatic evidence must often be checked anew and sometimes completely reassessed.

The Chalcidian cities Naxos, Himera, and Zankle and Dorian Selinus were the first to begin coining, only one or two decades after Aegina, Corinth, and Athens had begun to mint coins in the motherland (figs. 8.1–8.4). The earliest Sicilian coins cannot be precisely dated for lack of well-dated hoard finds, but they will scarcely have been minted before 540 BC. Before we turn to coin types, we must first cast a glance at weight standards. Here appear not only old connections to the mother cities but also the preferences of overseas trade. Thus Selinus in all probability modeled its coinage on the Corinthian stater, issuing a basic denomination of approximately 8.2 g (this was, however, divided into 2 drachms as at Athens, not into 3 as at Corinth). On the other hand, the Chalcidian colonies followed the standard of their mother city, Chalkis in Euboea. There the basic denomination was a stater of about 17.4 g; the heaviest fractions were thirds. (The same basic denomination was used in neighboring Attica, but there the stater was halved. Consequently, half of an Attic stater weighed the same as a Corinthian stater, c. 8.2 g. This relationship will be of importance later.) None of the Chalcidian colonies in Sicily minted a stater on the Euboean standard, but they did mint its third, which was called a Chalcidian drachm, and smaller fractions. There were apparently no fixed agreements; each of the three cities proceeded at its own discretion. Thus, the standard weight of a drachm in Himera was 5.80 g, in Zankle 5.55 g, and in Naxos 5.45 g.

Matters were different in Selinus, a fact that casts light on the structures of trade at the time. As mentioned, the basic denomination of Selinus appears to have been

Copyrighted material

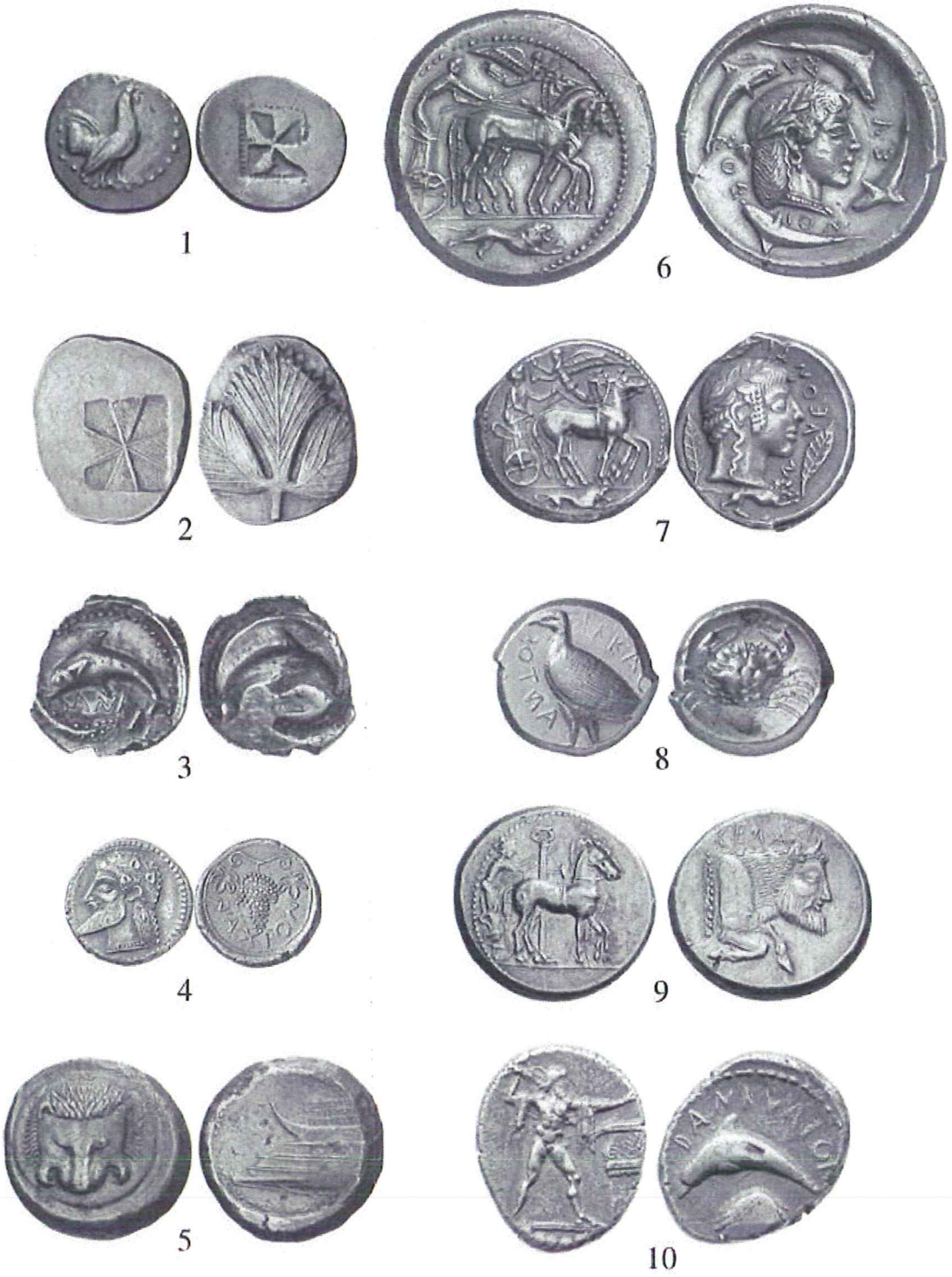


Fig. 8.1–8.10

modeled on the Corinthian stater. The weights of the earliest coins of Selinus are highly erratic. Since Corinth dominated overseas trade with Sicily, its money appears to have inspired the issues of Selinus; the minting technique of the coins of Selinus moreover bears some resemblance to the Corinthian staters. We must take care, however, not to interpret this similarity as if both currencies were convertible on a 1:1 ratio. There is evidence that testifies to the contrary: The production of the coins

Copyrighted material

of Selinus was initially very sloppy; their widely fluctuating weights could not have inspired confidence in foreigners. In fact, we almost never find any coins of Selinus outside the island, just as indeed all Sicilian currency was seldom brought overseas. Until the Attic standard was established throughout the island, Sicilian coins circulated primarily only in the territory of the issuing polis. Moreover, we have no reason to assume that the overseas trade of Corinth in the sixth century was conducted any differently than in the seventh century, namely in goods, not money. We find virtually no Corinthian money in Sicilian coin hoards of the sixth and fifth centuries, whereas Corinthian ceramics can be found all over Sicily (they would be supplanted by Attic imports over the course of the sixth century). In short, the Corinthian stater may have served as the model for the coinage of Selinus, but apparently without the motive of trade policy that is so hastily ascribed to it.

The images on these earliest Sicilian coins are simple but subtle. A celery leaf (*selinon*) adorns the coins of Selinus, which serves as a *type parlant* or "canting badge" (fig. 8.2). The same allusive technique was used at Himera; there a rooster announcing the new day (*hemera*) symbolized the name of the city (fig. 8.1). The meaning of the symbols, however, is not confined to puns. Often a cultic or mythological significance that influenced the choice of the name of the city and produced the puns underlies them. On the coins of Zankle, a dolphin swims in a sickle-shaped frame (fig. 8.3). This probably is meant to evoke the shape of the harbor of Zankle (Gk. "sickle"). The metaphors may well be older than the coin types themselves. The city Naxos struck out in a different direction: It was one of the first Greek poleis to place the head of a deity on its coins (fig. 8.4). This was the beginning of a typological tradition that would ultimately lead to the creation of the ruler portrait, a custom that persists to this day. The choice of the deity—Dionysos—betrays old cultic connections of Naxos, not to its mother city, Chalkis on Euboea, but to the eponymous Cycladic island Naxos, which had contributed a portion of the colonists. The coins of Naxos were also avant-garde in their use of an independent reverse type. While the first coins of Zankle show the obverse type in negative (the so-called incuse type), a peculiarity that is encountered elsewhere only in southern Italy, as at Kroton and Sybaris, and the coins of Selinus and Himera display merely a *quadratum incusum*, that is, a depressed surface with a geometric design, the reverses on coins of Naxos show distinct images. Not only that, these reverse types correspond to those on the obverses: With the bearded head of Dionysus on the obverse a bunch of grapes is paired on the reverse, as symbol of the god.

The Dorian cities on the southern and eastern coast of Sicily began to mint coinage later than their Ionian counterparts to the north. In the decade 520/510, both Akragas and Syracuse began to issue coinage. Akragas appears to have followed the example of Selinus, insofar as its earliest staters are on the Corinthian standard. At the same time, however, their coins also corresponded to the Athenian didrachm. In Syracuse, the relationship with Attic coinage, though indirect, is still more obvious. The oldest coins of Syracuse copy an anonymous northern Greek coinage, which was once attributed to Olynthos. The imitation is not confined only to the coin's type—a quadriga—but adopts its weight standard as well, which

Copyrighted material

corresponds to that of the Euboean stater and Athenian tetradrachm. Smaller Syracusan denominations reveal that the coinage follows the Athenian ratio of 4 drachms per stater and 6 obols per drachm. Since the coin production of Syracuse swiftly surpassed that of the other cities—the dominance of Syracusan coinage became ever more oppressive after the tyrant of Gela, Gelon I, seized control of Syracuse in 485 BC and made it his residence—the Attic standard soon became dominant throughout the island.

The choice of the Attic standard may be related to the importation of silver from northern Greece. In the late sixth century, alongside the mines on the island Siphnos, the mines of Pangaion in Thrace constituted the main source of silver for all Greek coinage. Although Spanish mines will also have contributed a share, most of the silver minted in Sicily during the sixth and fifth centuries came without doubt from the east. The small coinage of "Olynthos" gave impetus to a choice of coin type and weight standard that would have far-reaching consequences in numismatic history.

Although a borrowed image, the quadriga on the coins of Syracuse is emblematic of the culture and self-image of the minting authorities of the city. Both the Gamoroi, the ruling class of large landholders, and later the tyrants considered and presented themselves as wealthy men of leisure with expensive predilections, horse-racing preeminent among them. The horse-teams of several Sicilians, among them tyrants such as Hieron I and Dionysios I, won victories at the Olympic Games. The prestigious image of the quadriga was supplemented by a mythical figure, the fountain nymph Arethusa. In contrast to all other contemporary coin series, the goddess's head was displayed as the reverse type.

The Sicilian coins of the fifth and fourth centuries are distinguished by a technical curiosity found nowhere else: They show two bulges at the edge that lie across from one another at exactly 180 degrees (figs. 8.7, 8.8, 8.18, 8.20). The flans for these coins consisted of two cast half-dome-shaped parts that were connected to each other at the moment of striking. The bulges are the seam between the two parts that remained visible at the edge only. In just a few cases, the seam is also visible as a bow-shaped "cut" on the image.

A further peculiarity of Sicilian coinage is the concurrent circulation of obols and litrai. As mentioned, Syracuse adopted Attic denominations, whereby a drachm is divided into 6 obols. Political upheavals around 480 BC made this the standard for silver coinage on the whole island. The coinage system of the original inhabitants carried on an independent existence. It was not based on minted coinage, to say nothing of silver coins, but, as later in Rome, on the bronze pound, the *litra* (Lat. *libra*). The ratio of silver to bronze (1:120) permitted a simple way of converting coin: 1 Syracusan drachm corresponded to 5 pounds of bronze. This method of converting money by the pre-Greek inhabitants must have made a deep impression on Sicilian trade. Around 465 BC, a new silver denomination was added to the old, namely the litra, corresponding to a pound of bronze, that is, 1/5 drachm. Since obols did not vanish at a stroke, litrai and obols must initially have been used alongside one another. The conversion from litrai to obols was, in itself, not difficult:

Copyrighted material



11



16



12



17



13



18



14



19



15



20

Fig. 8.11–8.20

Copyrighted material

1 obol was worth 10 onkiai (Lat. *unciae*), and 1 litra was worth 12 onkiai, so that the hexas, worth 2 onkiai (a sixth of a litra), could serve as a fractional denomination of both coins. There nonetheless existed a practical shortage of corresponding small money, because both the hexas and hemilitron (1/2 litra, i.e. 1/10 drachm) were issued only in small amounts. This gradually changed once the litra had supplanted the obol entirely. Around 430/420 BC, the tetras was added as another silver fraction (1/4 litra, i.e. 3 onkiai).

Meanwhile, the native Sicilian conception of coinage led to a further truly groundbreaking innovation: the creation of small denominations in bronze, whose value was based not on their material worth but solely on a fixed exchange rate in silver coins—in other words, on the confidence of the citizens that they could exchange their bronze coins for silver the next day. Akragas led the way, producing cast bronzes around 450 BC, which resemble teeth rather than coins (fig. 8.11); the next issue—still cast, not struck—had the usual coin shape, and struck bronze coins quickly followed, not only in Akragas but also in Segesta and Himera. These bronze coins did not weigh what their nominal worth would dictate but were a purely fiduciary coinage. Sicily was not singlehandedly responsible for this monumental innovation, for other Greek colonies on the Black Sea also began to mint bronze coinage at the same time; but the example of Sicily attracted disproportionately greater interest, and after some hesitation—Syracuse minted its first bronze coins around 430/420—not only did the other Sicilian poleis adopt fiduciary bronze coinage, but little by little so did the Greek colonies in Italy and the poleis of the motherland.

After these fundamental remarks, I will limit myself to specific points. The most prominent mints of the fifth century were as follows.

Syracuse began minting around 520/510, on the Attic standard. The basic denomination is the tetradrachm. Typical coin types: quadriga on the obverse, head of the nymph Arethusa on the reverse. Around the end of the rule of the Deinomenids (Gelon I and his successors, Hieron I and Thrasybulos), that is, in the decade 470/460, two innovations appear: the introduction of the litrai, mentioned above, and the temporary minting of an unusually large denomination, the decadrachm (fig. 8.6). The early classical series of decadrachms (there are also two series of the classical age) was until 1966 associated with a tradition that describes a series of Syracusan coins worth 50 litrai, minted after the naval battle of Himera (480). Because of an anecdote connected to this report, these coins were called "Demareteia," a term that persists in the literature, although the decadrachms are no longer associated with this tradition.

Gela began minting around 500, on the Attic standard. The basic denomination is the tretradrachm. Typical coin types: a rider on horseback, from around 480 a quadriga (adopted from Syracuse) on the obverse, the river god of Gela in the form of a bull with a human face and long beard on the reverse (fig. 8.9).

Akragas began minting around 510, on the Attic standard. The basic denomination is first the didrachm, later the tetradrachm. Typical coin types: an eagle on the

Bahan dengan hak cipta

obverse, a crab on the reverse (fig. 8.8). Shortly after the destruction of the city by the Carthaginians in 406, a series of decadrachms was issued.

Kamarina began minting around 490, on the Attic standard. The basic denomination was initially the didrachm, from around 430/420 the tetradrachm. Typical coin types: on the late archaic didrachms, a helmet and shield on the obverse, a palm flanked by greaves on the reverse; on the tetradrachm, the quadriga adopted from Syracuse on the obverse and the head of Herakles in a lion-skin, initially bearded, later beardless, on the reverse (fig. 8.13, an anticipation of the obverse type of the tetradrachms of Alexander the Great).

Katane began minting only after 466 because of political circumstances, on the Attic standard. The basic denomination is the tetradrachm. Typical coin types: Initially the river god Amenanos (in the form of a bull, just as at Gela) on the obverse, Nike on the reverse. Around 450 the coin types of both sides change: The quadriga, borrowed from Syracuse, appears on the obverse, the head of Apollo on the reverse (fig. 8.12).

Leontinoi began minting in the early fifth century, on the Attic standard. The basic denomination is the tetradrachm. Typical types: As at Gela, Kamarina, and Katane, initially the Syracusan quadriga on the obverse and a lion head (as a *type parlant*) on the reverse, where it is soon replaced by the head of Apollo (fig. 8.7). After the fall of the Deinomenids, the head of Apollo is moved to the obverse, and the lion head appears again on the reverse.

Naxos began minting 540/530, initially on the Chalcidian standard. The basic denomination in this early phase is the drachm (1/3 of a Euboean stater, fig. 8.4). There is a gap in coin production under the rule of the tyrants of Gela/Syracuse, 490–466. Thereafter production is resumed on the Attic standard; the basic denomination becomes the tetradrachm. Typical coin types: the head of Dionysos on the obverse, a bunch of grapes on the reverse, and after 466 a squatting satyr drinking wine.

Messana began minting (under the name Zankle) around 540/530, initially on the Chalcidian standard. The basic denomination of this early phase is the drachm (as at Naxos). Typical coin types of this phase: dolphin in the sickle-shaped harbor on the obverse, an incuse depiction of the obverse type on the reverse (fig. 8.3, as at the mints of southern Italy), then a patterned *quadratum incusum*. There occurs a gap in the coinage, or rather a change of minting authorities, in 494: Immigrants from Samos occupy the city for five years, minting tetradrachms on the Attic standard with coin types derived from Samos: a lion-skin spread out on the obverse, the prow of a Samian galley on the reverse (fig. 8.5). In 489, the tyrant of Rhegion, Anaxilas, seized Zankle and renamed the city Messana. The basic denomination is now the tetradrachm, with coin types borrowed from Rhegion: a lion's head, facing, on the obverse and a calf's head on the reverse. After 480, the coin types were again changed: A team of two mules, which evoke an Olympic victory of Anaxilas, appear on the obverse and a leaping hare on the reverse. While

Copyrighted material

Rhegion changed its coin types after the fall of the tyranny in 466, Messana retained its own.

Himera began minting around 540/530, initially on the Chalcidian standard. The basic denomination of the early phase is the drachm (1/3 of the Euboean stater). Typical coin types: a rooster on the obverse, *quadratum incusum* on the reverse (fig. 8.1). The coinage was changed to the Attic standard in 483 in consequence of political events. The basic denomination is at first the didrachm, later the tetradrachm. Typical coin types: rooster on the obverse, crab adopted from Akragas on the reverse; from 460/50, the quadriga adopted from Syracuse on the obverse and the nymph Himera sacrificing at a shrine on the reverse.

Selinus began minting around 540/30, on the Corinthian standard. The basic denomination is the stater, which is approximately equal to the Attic didrachm. A gradual transition to the Attic standard is concluded with the minting of tetradrachms in the mid-fifth century. Typical coin types: initially a *selinon* leaf on the obverse and a *quadratum incusum* on the reverse (fig. 8.2). The tetradrachm, in contrast, bears the quadriga adopted from Syracuse (though with Apollo and Artemis in the car as a local characteristic) on the obverse and a youthful river god (in human form) sacrificing in a shrine on the reverse.

Segesta began minting around 470, on the Attic standard. The basic denomination is the didrachm. Typical coin types: a hunting dog on the obverse, the head of the nymph Aigeste on the reverse. Around the end of the fifth century, some few tetradrachms were minted; their obverses show the hero Aigestes as hunter; their reverses are as before (fig. 8.14).

The small mints of Aitnai, Eryx, and Motye, which coined a few transitory series, also deserve mention. There are moreover unique, typologically irregular coins that are interpreted as issues of exiles. One such coin is a stater of Zankle that apparently was produced after the city was renamed Messana (fig. 8.10); another is a recently discovered tetradrachm of Syracuse.

The numismatic history of Sicily developed organically and gradually in the fifth century, proceeding by distinct steps. With the last quarter of the century, one has the feeling of witnessing a dramatic acceleration and escalation of events. Most famously, these years saw the production of the coins for which Sicily enjoys such a fine reputation among art lovers. It is the age of the signing engravers. Names such as Kimon, Euainetos, Phrygillos, and Eukleidas appear in this lexicon of artists. Another fascinating aspect of this period lies in the influence that these engravers exerted on their colleagues. No longer are the crab of Akragas or the Syracusan quadriga adopted as fixed coin types by other poleis for political or financial reasons. Instead, it is individual coin dies and their artistic principles that are influential, and we know the names of the artists.

At the end of the century, the political landscape of Sicily underwent fundamental change. The end of the Athenian expedition (415–413) had once again confirmed the preeminence of Syracuse, but the conflict between the Greeks and the Elymoi

Bahan dengan hak cipta

brought Carthage on the scene. Consequently, from 406 there began a decades-long struggle between the Carthaginians and their west-Sicilian allies on the one hand and Syracuse, where Dionysios I had risen to become tyrant, on the other. Numerous poleis, such as Gela, Akragas, and Katane, were devastated to such an extent that their coinage seems to have broken off abruptly. The extent of the destruction and displacement has, however, been considerably qualified in detail by the findings of recent excavations. A certain numismatic desert is nevertheless undeniable, where great diversity prevailed in earlier times. Both in Carthaginian western Sicily and in the eastern Sicilian empire of Dionysios, most autonomous silver coinage simply ceases. In the eparchy of Carthage, the issues of the generals take its place. They take the coinage of their enemy as a typological model, that is, the quadriga and Arethusa of Syracuse (fig. 8.18). The standard, still Attic, remained unchanged, and the basic denomination continued to be the tetradrachm. The situation in the east of the island developed differently. Shortly after Dionysios seized power, the tetradrachm series of Syracuse came to a temporary halt; production would be resumed under Agathokles. But that was not all: all previous silver denominations in use were replaced with bronze (fig. 8.17). The backbone of the coinage now consisted of formerly unusable large denominations: the two high classical series of decadrachms in silver, signed by Kimon and Euainetos (figs. 8.15, 8.16), and a typologically and chronologically elaborate emission of gold coins, some of which were also signed by Kimon and Euainetos. Since the old elites were largely either expelled or annihilated under Dionysios and the established population had possibly become poorer than before, we must assume that the ordinary citizen, who won his bread as a farmer or craftsman, hardly came into contact with these large denominations. He will have had to content himself with the bronze coins. The decadrachms and gold coins must have served to pay the Italic and Celtic mercenaries on whom Dionysios's power rested. The coinage policy of the tyrant was generally considered scandalous, as one may conclude from the economic writings of Aristotle (or his school) that report not only indirect confiscations.

The tyranny of Dionysios I (reg. 405–367) and his son Dionysios II (reg. 367–357, 346–344) marks a formal watershed for the numismatic history of Sicily. Only with the intervention of the Corinthian Timoleon, who banished the Carthaginian threat and ended the rule of the tyrants in the Greek poleis (344–337) does a new chapter begin. Autonomous issues resume everywhere during this period, both in silver and in bronze. The staters of Corinth served as a model for the silver issues of Syracuse and other cities, which bear a Pegasus on the obverse and the head of Athena on the reverse (fig. 8.19). Corinthian money had already reached Sicily under the two Dionysioi; under Timoleon the stream of money suddenly swelled to new levels, presumably less due to subsidies than to the export of grain to the motherland. The bronze issues show great variety; in particular, many more mints by far are now active than in the fifth century (fig. 8.20). It is not possible to describe these coin series in detail here.

مادة محمية بموجب حقوق النشر

This numismatic springtime was of short duration. At the end of the century, conditions similar to the beginning of the century emerge: A tyrant in Syracuse by the name of Agathokles (reg. 317–289) subjugated eastern Sicily and antagonized the Carthaginian eparchy in the west of the island. The coin types of both sides follow old models. The Carthaginians seamlessly continue their production of tetradrachms, though now with some innovations in types: The Syracusan quadriga vanishes, and the head of Arethusa, copied from the Syracusan decadrachms, now gives way to the Punic goddess Tanit; on the reverse there appears either a lion or horse as symbols of Africa, calling to mind the foundation myth of Carthage. A palm (Gk. *phoinix*) stands as a *type parlant* in the background (fig. 8.21). Also in Syracuse, Agathokles revived older types. The types of his first two series of tetradrachms copy the decadrachm of Dionysios I (fig. 8.23). The second series shows the influence of the Diadochoi, particularly Seleukos I: On the obverse the appears the head of Demeter, who served as an emblem of Sicily, and on the reverse the goddess Nike, who assembles a tropaion (fig. 8.24). Alongside the silver tetradrachms, Agathokles issued an elaborate coinage in gold, electrum, and bronze. Here, too, the images are new in many regards, even if frequently derived from foreign models. Worth mention is a short-lived series of gold staters that show a youthful, beardless head in elephant skin on the obverse and Athena Promachos on the reverse (fig. 8.22). The head is derived from coins of Ptolemy I, though its meaning is contested: a personification of Africa, which would allude to Agathokles's attempted invasion of the Carthaginian empire (310–307) or a portrait of Alexander the Great? Agathokles, in contrast to the Diadochoi, did not put his own portrait on his coins.

The third century gives essentially the same picture: The antagonism between the Carthaginians and the Greek dominance of Syracuse is reflected in the precious metal coinage, while smaller poleis make their appearance only in bronze issues. Tyrants and short-lived democracies succeed one another in Syracuse; many issues can thus be dated with considerable precision. Worth mentioning are the coins of Hiketas and Pyrrhos, king of Epirus, both of whom reprise older coins of Timoleon and Agathokles (fig. 8.25). Something new appears under Hieron II, who like the Diadochoi assumed the regal title (reg. 269–215): his coins bear his portrait head with diadem (fig. 8.26) or the veiled portrait of his wife Philistis (fig. 8.28). On the reverses, one often finds the familiar type of the quadriga or an armored rider with lowered lance. Coin production, especially in the larger denominations, intensifies during the First Punic War (261–246), as it does on the Carthaginian side (fig. 8.27). The latter keep the obverse type of the head of Persephone (or Tanit?—see above), derived from Arethusa, and the reverse type of the Carthaginian horse. During the Second Punic War, the young king Hieronymos assumes power for a year (215/214). His coins continue the tradition of his predecessors (fig. 8.29). Syracuse was conquered by the Romans in 212, and a year later the Roman denarius took the place of the Sicilian silver coinage. Local bronze coinage continued on a low level but lost ever more of its Greek character (fig. 8.30).

Copyrighted material

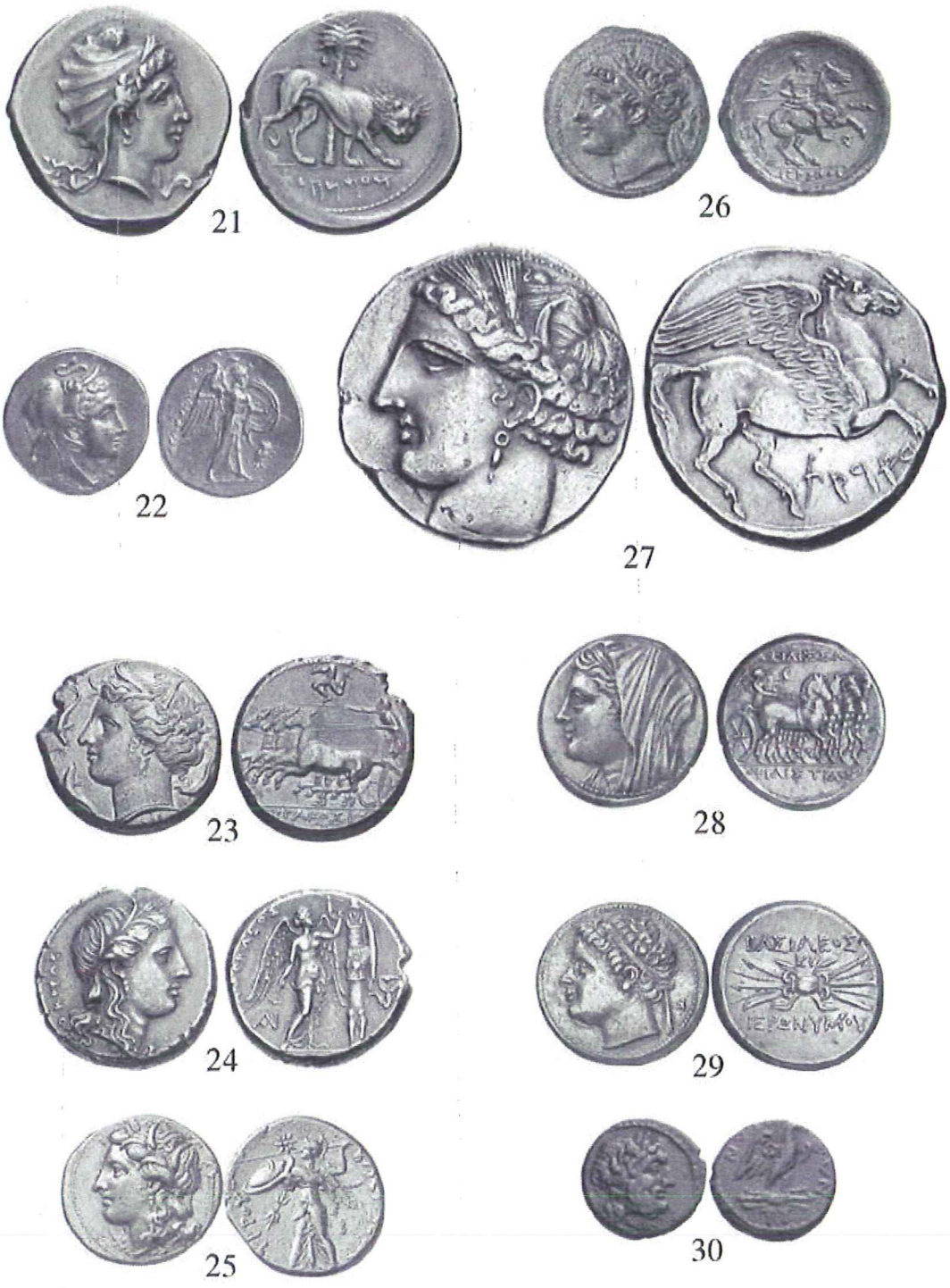


Fig. 8.21–8.30

Key to Illustrations

Fig. 8.1. Himera, silver drachm (c. 540–515). Numismatica Ars Classica (Zurich) "O," May 13, 2004, 1492 (5.63 g).

Fig. 8.2. Selinus, silver stater (c. 540–510 BC). Münzen & Medaillen AG Deutschland (Lörrach) 15, October 21, 2004, 926 (8.92 g).

Copyrighted material

Fig. 8.3. Zankle, silver drachm (c. 540–493). Künker (Osnabrück) 104, September 27, 2005, 84 (4.92 g).
Fig. 8.4. Naxos, silver drachm (c. 520–500). Leu (Zurich) 83, May 6, 2002, 74 (5.73 g).
Fig. 8.5. Samians in Zankle, silver tetradrachm (491/490). Numismatica Ars Classica (Zurich) 27, May 12, 2004, 91 (16.81 g).
Fig. 8.6. Syracuse, silver dekadrachm ("Demareteion," c. 470–460). Berlin, Münzkabinett, Fox Collection (43.36 g).
Fig. 8.7. Leontinoi, silver tetradrachm (c. 465). Gorny & Mosch (Munich) 159, October 8, 2007, 34 (17.31 g).
Fig. 8.8. Akragas, silver tetradrachm (470–450). Lanz (Munich) 141, May 26, 2008, 69 (17.18 g).
Fig. 8.9. Gela, silver tetradrachm (c. 465/460). Numismatica Ars Classica (Zurich) 33, April 6, 2006, 68 (17.35 g).
Fig. 8.10. Zankle, silver stater (c. 460). Brussels, Bibliothèque Nationale. Cabinet des Médailles, Lucien de Hirsch Collection 466 (17.05 g).
Fig. 8.11. Akragas, bronze tetras (450–430). Lanz (Munich) 138, November 26, 2007, 83 (11.42 g).
Fig. 8.12. Katane, silver tetradrachm signed by Euainetos (c. 410). Leu (Zurich) 81, May 16, 2001, 67 (16.89 g).
Fig. 8.13. Kamarina, silver tetradrachm signed by Exakestidas (c. 410–405). Classical Numismatic Group (Lancaster), Triton X, January 9, 2007, 73 (17.15 g).
Fig. 8.14. Segesta, silver tetradrachm (c. 405–400). Numismatica Ars Classica (Zurich) 40, May 16, 2007, 236 (17.36 g).
Fig. 8.15. Syracuse, silver dekadrachm signed by Kimon (c. 405–400). Numismatica Ars Classica (Zurich) 33, April 6, 2006, 96 (42.60).
Fig. 8.16. Syracuse, silver dekadrachm signed by Euainetos (c. 400–380). Numismatica Ars Classica (Zurich) 25, June 25, 2003, 115 (42.81 g).
Fig. 8.17. Syracuse, bronze drachm (405–367). Peus (Frankfurt) 380, November 3, 2004, 260 (29.37 g).
Fig. 8.18. Carthaginians in Sicily, Panormos mint, silver tetradrachm (c. 400). Leu (Zurich) 86, May 5, 2003, 276 (17.15 g).
Fig. 8.19. Syracuse, silver stater (344–c. 320). Künker (Osnabrück) 133, October 11, 2007, 7961 (8.43 g).
Fig. 8.20. Campanian mercenaries, Entella mint, bronze onkia (343–339). Künker (Osnabrück) 133, October 11, 2007, 7138 (5.45 g).
Fig. 8.21. Carthaginians in Sicily, silver tetradrachm (c. 320–310). Numismatica Ars Classica (Zurich) 27, May 12, 2004, 142 (17.00 g).
Fig. 8.22. Syracuse, gold stater minted by Agathokles (c. 310). Vienna, Kunsthistorisches Museum. Münzkabinett Inv. 7234 (8.45 g).
Fig. 8.23. Syracuse, silver tetradrachm minted by Agathokles, 1st series (317–310). Münzen & Medaillen AG Deutschland (Lörrach) 25, October 18, 2007, 2120 (16.60 g).
Fig. 8.24. Syracuse, silver tetradrachm minted by Agathokles, 2nd series (310–304). Classical Numismatic Group (Lancaster), Triton XI, January 8, 2008, 69 (17.29 g).
Fig. 8.25. Syracuse, bronze oktobol minted by Pyrrhos (278–276). Gorny & Mosch (Munich) 147, March 7, 2006, 1129 (5.50 g).
Fig. 8.26. Syracuse, medium bronze, minted by Hieron II (275–216). Lanz 135, May 21, 2007, 82 (17.52 g).
Fig. 8.27. Carthaginians in Sicily, 5 silver shekels (c. 264–260). Classical Numismatic Group (Lancaster) 67, September 22, 2004, 397 (37.54 g).
Fig. 8.28. Syracuse, 16 silver litrai, minted by Hieron II for his consort Philistis (216/215). Lanz (Munich) 125, November 28, 2005, 118 (13.45 g).

Bahan dengan hak cipta

Fig. 8.29. Syracuse, silver didrachm, minted by Hieronymos (215/214). Gorny & Mosch (Munich) 155, March 5, 2007, 42 (8.49 g).

Fig. 8.30. Tyndaris, bronze coin (after 214). Numismatica Ars Classica (Zurich) "O," May 13, 2004, 1433 (4.18 g).

Further Reading

The standard reference today is still B. Head, *Historia Numorum*, 2nd ed. (London, 1911). A revised edition is in preparation. The first volume, devoted to the Italian peninsula, has already appeared: K. Rutter, ed., *Historia Numorum Italy* (London, 2001); the forthcoming second volume will treat Sicily. Both an authoritative introduction and detailed bibliography can be found in C. M. Kraay, *Archaic and Classical Greek Coins* (London, 1976). The following studies published after 1976 are useful.

Bibliography

Amandry, M., and S. Hurter, eds. (1999). *Travaux de numismatique grecque offerts à Georges Le Rider.* London.

Arnold-Biucchi, C. (1990). *The Randazzo Hoard 1980 and Sicilian Chronology in the Early Fifth Century B.C.* New York.

Arnold-Biucchi, C., L. Beer-Tobey, and N. M. Waggoner. (1988). "A Greek Archaic Silver Hoard from Selinus." *ANSMN* 33: 1–35.

Arnold-Biucchi, C., and A.-P. Weiss. (2007). "The River God Alpheios on the First Tetradrachm Issue of Gelon at Syracuse." *NAC* 36 (2007): 59–74.

Ashton, R., and S. Hurter, eds. (1998). *Studies in Greek Numismatics in Memory of Martin Jessop Price.* London.

Bechtold, B. (1999). *La necropoli di Lilybaeum.* Rome.

Boehringer, C. (1979). "Zu Finanzpolitik und Münzprägung des Dionysios von Syrakus." In Mørkholm and Waggoner: 9–32.

———. (1989). "Himera im IV. Jahrhundert v. Chr." In Le Rider et al.: 29–40.

———. (1998). "Zur Münzgeschichte von Leontinoi in klassischer Zeit." In Ashton and Hurter: 43–53.

———. (1999). "Bronze, Silber, Gold. Überlegungen zu den Nominalen einiger sizilischer Goldmünzen." *RBN* 145: 49–59.

Bonacasa, N., L. Braccesi, and E. De Miro, eds. (2002). *La Sicilia dei due Dionisi, Atti della settimana di studio, Agrigento 24–28 febbraio 1999.* Rome.

Burnett, A., U. Wartenberg, and R. Witschonke, eds. (1998). *Coins of Macedonia and Rome. Essays in Honour of Charles Hersh.* London.

Buttrey, T. V., K. T. Erim, T. D. Groves, and R. R. Holloway. (1989). *The Coins.* Morgantina Studies II. Princeton.

Caccamo Caltabiano, M. (1993). *La monetazione di Messana. AMuGS* 13. Berlin.

Caccamo Caltabiano, M., B. Carroccio, and E. Oteri. (1997). *Siracusa ellenistica. Le monete "regali" di Ierone II, della sua famiglia e dei Siracusani.* Messina.

Copyrighted material

Cahn, H. A., L. Mildenberg, R. Russo, and H. Voegtli. (1998). *Griechische Münzen aus Grossgriechenland und Sizilien, Katalog der Antikensammlung Basel und Sammlung Ludwig.* Basel.

Carroccio, B. (2004). *Dal basileus Agatocle a Roma: Le monetazioni siciliane d'etá ellenistica: Cronologia, iconografia, metrologia.* Messina.

Crawford, M. (1998). "Selinus and the Quadrigatus." In Burnett et al.: 119–123.

Fischer-Bossert, W. (1998). "Nachahmungen und Umbildungen in der sizilischen Münzprägung." *RSN* 77: 25–39.

Frey-Kupper, S. (1999). "I ritrovamenti monetali." In: Bechtold 1999: 394–456.

Garraffo, S. (1984). *Le riconiazioni in Magna Grecia e in Sicilia.* Catania.

Gorini, G. (2002). La monetazione dionigiana in Adriatico. In Bonacasa et al.: 203 –215.

Holloway, R. R. (1989). *Ripostigli del Museo Archeologico di Siracusa.* Rome.

Houghton, A., S. Hurter, P. Erhart Mottahedeh, and J. A. Scott, eds. (1984). *Festschrift für Leo Mildenberg.* Wetteren, Switzerland.

Hurter, S. (2008). *Die Didrachmenprägung von Segesta.* Zurich.

Ierardi, M. (1995–1996). "The Tetradrachms of Agathocles of Syracuse: A Preliminary Study." *AJN* 7–8: 1–73.

Jenkins, G. K. (1997). *Coins of Punic Sicily.* Zurich. (Reprint of four articles in *Schweizerische Numismatische Rundschau*, 1971–1978).

Knoepfler, D. (1992). "La chronologie du monnayage de Syracuse sous les Deinoménides: Nouvelles données et critères méconnus." *RSN* 71: 5–40.

Kraay, C. M. (1984). *The Archaic Coinage of Himera.* Naples.

La monetazione dell'età dionigiana. (1993). Atti dell'VIII Convegno Internazionale di Studi Numismatici. Rome.

Lee, I. (2000). "Entella: The Silver Coinage of the Campanian Mercenaries and the Site of the First Carthaginian Mint, 410–409 BC." *NC* 160: 1–66.

Lentini, M. C., and S. Garraffo. (1995). *Il tesoretto di Naxos (1985) dall'isolato urbano C4, casa 1–2.* Rome.

Le origini della monetazione di bronzo in Sicilia e in Magna Graecia. (1979). Atti del VI Convegno Internazionale del Centro Internazionale di Studi Numismatici. Rome.

Le Rider, G., K. Jenkins, N. Waggoner, and U. Westermark, eds. (1989). *Kraay-Mørkholm Essays.* Louvain-la-Neuve.

Manganaro, G. (1999). "Dall'obolo alla litra e il problema del 'Damareteion.'" In Amandry and Hurter: 239–256.

Mattingly, H. B. (1992). "The Damareteion Controversy: A New Approach." *Chiron* 22: 1–12.

Mildenberg, L. (1989). "Über Kimon und Euainetos im Funde von Naro." In Le Rider et al.: 181–189.

———. (1993). "Sikulo-punische Münzlegenden." *RSN* 72: 5–21.

Mørkholm, O., and N. M. Waggoner, eds. (1979). *Greek Numismatics and Archaeology. Essays in Honor of Margaret Thompson.* Wetteren, Switzerland.

Rutter, N. K. (1993). "The Myth of the Damareteion." *Chiron* 23: 171–188.

———. (1997). *Greek Coinages of Southern Italy and Sicily.* London.

Walker, A. S. (1984). "Some Hoards from Sicily and a Carthaginian Issue of the Second Punic War." In Houghton et al.: 269–288.

Westermark, U. (1999). "Himera: The Coins of Akragantine Type." In Amandry and Hurter: 409–434.

Westermark, U., and G. K. Jenkins. (1980). *The Coinage of Kamarina.* London.

Bahan dengan hak cipta