## BULLETIN

OF THE

## **GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAI**

# FOREIGN COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAI (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)







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**NEW SERIES - GENERAL SECTION. VOL 1-2011** 

PUBLISHED BY: THE PRINCIPAL SECRETARY / COMMISSIONER OF MUSEUMS, GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAI-600008 2011

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## FOREWORD



Government Museum, Chennai is known for its Numismatic Collections. This Museum is having almost all the dynastical issues of India in its cabinet totalling 50,000 coins. Major South Indian coins were acquired through Treasure-Trove while, major North Indian coins were gained through gift, donation and sometimes in exchange with other Museums. Kushan, Gupta, Vardhana, most of the Delhi Sultans, Mughals, Gujarat and other sultanate coins were some of the major collection which came to the Government Museum, Chennai through gift from other Museums in the British period. One can see the unbreakable Numismatic Heritage of India, displayed in the Numismatics Gallery, Government Museum, Chennai, in the theme of "Punch-marked to present day coins".

The Roman, the Chinese and the Venetian Coins are noteworthy in the Foreign Coin Collection of Government Museum, Chennai. All these three categories are received through Treasure-trove from the soil of South India especially from Tamil Nadu. Besides these there are a large number of foreign coins of different countries belonging to 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> Century C.E but are with less historical significance in the collection. Hence, it is decided to bring out this significant Foreign Coin Collection in a single volume for the benefit of researchers, scholars and students of History. This is a pioneering effort in the field of Numismatics. Foreign Coins are not mere evidence for foreign commercial contacts that existed in yesteryears; they also throw light on the political and social relationship that prevailed between ancient India and countries of the East & the West. Government Museum, Chennai recently conducted a Special Exhibition on Roman coins and released a catalogue on "ROMAN COINS IN THE GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAI with a Detailed Catalogue of the Denarii Hoard from Budinatham (Tamil Nadu)" in February 2011. Both the Exhibition and the catalogue were sponsored by the Indo-Italian chamber of Commerce and Industry, Chennai and the Italian Embassy Cultural Centre, New Delhi. This book on the Foreign Coins is also a product on similar lines. However, this is an abridged compilation of the catalogues of Roman, Venetian coins published already as Museum Works in the years 1938, 1942 and 1989.

- Bulletin of the Madras Government Museum Catalogue of the Venetian Coins in the Madras Government Museum, T.G.Aravamuthan., First Edition – 1938.
- Catalogue of the Roman and Byzantine Coins in the Madras Government Museum, T.G. Aravamuthan (Chennai, 1942, reprinted 2002).
- Catalogue of the Venetian Coins in the Government Museum, Madras, N.Sankaranarayana, First Edition – 1989, Reprint 1999, New Series – General Section, Vol. XIV, No. 2, published by the Principal Commissioner of Museum, Chennai – 600 008.

This volume will help to reveal the unbreakable commercial contact and maritime trade of ancient days between distant foreign lands and South India.

I am very much thankful to the Government of Tamil Nadu, for sanctioning allocations in the financial year 2010-2011 for this publication. I thank Thiru. D. Dhanasekar, Data Entry Operator, Tmt. S. Thara, Personal Assistant to the Principal Secretary/ Commissioner of Museums for their typing work and Thiru. G. Ramesh, & Thiru. M. Girja Shankar (retired), Photographers for pictorial assistance.

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## Introduction

The Geographical position of India is very much significant for maritime trade and commerce. India is located midway between the West and the East. The Romans and the Chinese came to India to promote trade. Many harbours of the Coromandel coast acted as a transit port for the Chinese goods which were transported to Rome, in the 1<sup>st</sup> Century C.E. Both Tamil literary works and Roman annals speak about the volume of trade.

Being a peninsular country, India, particularly South India, enjoyed supremacy in maritime commerce by having many natural ports. River systems like Kaveri, Vaigai, Tamraparani and Periyar (Kerala) enabled foreign traders to use inland natural waterways. Not only the Geographical position, but also the wind directions i.e., South West monsoon and South East monsoon winds were an added advantage to the early sailors to reach their destination with safety and speed. The nonstop rain gained through the South West monsoon helped cultivators of the Western Ghats, to cultivate costly spices such as pepper, cardamom, clove. Naturally, pepper the queen of spices attracted the Roman commercial world and they exchanged pepper for gold. In the bygone era, it is remarkable that India was the only pepper producing country in the whole world and always had upper hand in trade. Ancient Indians bifurcated the Mother Nature into five major elements *Prithvi* (earth), *Vayu* (air) *Akasa* (sky) *Apah* (water) and *Agni* (fire). Among the five elements three were very much favourable to India i.e., *Prithvi*, the geographical position in the globe, *Vayu*-Monsoon winds and Trade winds, and *Apah* sea surrounded by the main land in all its three sides.

The Roman trade and the Roman coin finds in South India are well recorded by the historians, while the Chinese and Venetian contacts were given lesser importance. After the disappearance of Dark Age in the history of Europe many city states emerged in Italy. Once again Roman literature and art and architecture got rejuvenated. This new era in Europe is named as 'Renaissance'. In this period maritime trade with India was revitalized. "All roads lead to Rome" was the ancient proverb but "all ships sailed to India" became the new mantra for the Europeans. Italian travellers like Marco Polo visited India and recorded what they saw and heard. These travelogues kindled the curiosity of the sailors to find a new sea route to India. Finally, Vasco-da-Gama came to India by sea after crossing the Cape of Good Hope in 1498 C.E. The Venetian traders continued their commercial activities till the conquest of Italy by the French Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte. The Venetian coin finds in Tamil Nadu attest this trade relationship. The Chinese connection in trade with India commenced during the Sangam age. Chinese traders came to India to sell their products to both Romans and Indians. The rise of Persian Empire under Darius I has checked Chinese trade through the Silk Route. Hence, the Chinese were forced to seek alternate trade route to Rome. Chinese traders came to India and used the harbours of the Coromandel Coast for long period of time. After the end of Sangam Age in 300 C.E. Chinese trade slowly declined. The Pallavas of Kanchi and the Pandyas of Madurai came to power in the 6<sup>th</sup> Century C.E. The Chinese trade was rejuvenated and it reached its zenith during the rule of the Cholas from the 11<sup>th</sup> to 13<sup>th</sup> Centuries C.E. Chola King Rajendra I subdued many kingdoms of the Far East and brought the entire maritime trade under his control. Inscriptions of the King Rajendra I speak of his victory over this region. After Rajendra I his successor Kulottunga I sent emissaries to China for diplomatic ties and to promote trade and commerce.

In this volume, the Chinese connection with ancient Tamil Nadu is described in the first part; while the Roman coin finds and its significance are discussed in the second part; finally the trade relationship between Venice and South India that emerged during the Renaissance period have been narrated. The Venetian trade was a continuation of Roman maritime contacts. This volume synchronizes maritime trade between the East and the West with India.

## CHINESE CONNECTION WITH ANCIENT TAMIL NADU -WITH SPECIAL REFRENCE TO NUMISMATIC EVIDENCES

China was well connected with India both by land and sea routes since very ancient times. The opening of the trade routes and presence of the Buddhist missionaries from India helped the growth of Sino-Indian contacts in the arena of trade, religion and culture. The Chinese followed 'Mahayana' sect of Buddhism which was popular and predominant in South India and Sri Lanka. The Chinese Buddhist followers had aspiration to undertake pilgrimage to India in order to understand their religion and to visit the Buddhist sites of importance.

#### The Role of South Indian Buddhist Monks

Bodhi Dharma

During the reign of Wo-ti, in 520 C.E., Bodhi Dharma, the son of a king of Kanchipuram in South India, went to China, where his miracles are even today a favourite subject of Chinese artists. Leaving Kanchipuram he reached Canton in 520 C.E., where he advocated "*Dhyana marga*". He spread his faith in North China: this sect was called "*Chan*" by the Chinese and "Zen" by the Japanese. Chinese called him Tamo, and have incorporated him in their list of 28 messengers of Buddhism. According to the Japanese annals Bodhi Dharma went to Japan after propagating his faith in China, and had religious discourses with Shotoku Taishi at Kataoka Yama. Both in China and Japan temples were built for him. Of them, some exist even today and in them oil lamps were burnt night and day (as lighting perpetual lamp is a custom in South Indian temples).

The visit of South Indian Buddhist monk Bodhidharmas to China was an eye-opener in the relationship between South India and China. The Chinese Emperor Liang Wu at Nanking provided a grand reception to Bodhidharma. Another important personality who visited China from South India was Bodhiruchi. The Chinese emperor invited Bodhiruchi to his capital city during 701 C.E. More information about visits of Buddhist scholars to China is available from the Chinese travelogues of Fa-Hien, Hieun-T-sang and I-t-Sing.

#### Dharmapala

Dharmapala (528 – 560 C.E.) of Kanchipuram, became a monk even as a bachelor. Later he became the head of Nalanda University. His pupil was Silabhadra of Nalanda, who taught Sanskrit to Yuan Chwang. Visesa Mitra, Jina Mitra and Jnana-Sundra were other pupils of Dharmapala, who received I-tsing in Tilaka Vihara during his visit.

#### Vajrabodhi

Vajrabodhi (661 - 730 C.E.), an adherent of Vajrayana belonging to Pandya country, was a contemporary of Pallava Narasimhavarman II. His student was Amoghavajra. As a wide traveller, he went to Nalanda, Kapilavastu, then Ceylon and China. He reached China through Ceylon and Srivijaya in Sumatra and carried the text of the '*Mahaprajnaparamita*' with him. Important Buddhist works were translated into Chinese by him.

#### THE CULTURAL CONNECTION BETWEEN CHINA AND SOUTH INDIA

The cultural affiliation was not restricted to a particular religion or region. Chinese influence is found also in the field of South Indian Music. *Jalatarangam* a musical instrument, which literally means 'water and waves' (water filled in different ceramic bowls creates musical resonance while beating softly by a stick generates waves in the water ; at the same time due to vibration produces music) was one of best examples for Chinese influence on South India. The travelogue of Sulaiman narrates that the Chinese were known to build wooden walls instead of brick. According to Sulayman, South Indians are known for constructing wall with brick and mortar and also plastering it. It is believed that the Chinese gave up building of wooden structures, which was their conventional method and switched over to a new technique of constructing buildings with brick and mortar as in South India.

### RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN KANCHIPURAM AND CHINA DURING THE 2<sup>ND</sup> CENTURY C.E.

Pan Kou, the Chinese author who lived before 1<sup>st</sup> Century C.E., narrates about Kanchipuram in his works. Rare, precious and semi precious stones and shining pearls were exchanged with silk and gold. According to him, the large pearl was in the size of nearly 7 inches. People provided food for the foreign merchants. Merchants met many cyclonic storms during their voyages to Kanchi. In his work, this author mentions Houng-tche, which phonetically correlates with Kanchi.

#### THE PALLAVA KINGS AND CHINA

*T'ang shu* and *Ts'o fu Yuan Kuri* are two significant Chinese literatures. The latter work mentions about Pallava King and Chinese ambassadorial relationship with one Pallava king named *Sheli-Na –Lo-Seng-Kia* (Sri Narasimha) and also records *Sheli-Na –Lo-Seng-Kia-pao-To-Pa-Mo* (Sri Narasinga Potavarman or Potarya). These words when articulated are very much similar to the Pallava king Narsimhavarman I. Even in  $2^{nd}$  Century B.C.E., there was strong trade relationship that existed between South India and China, states *Pan Kou*. The Chinese traders anchored east coast, and visited *Kanchi* (Kanchipuram) and substituted materials like pearls, glass artefacts, precious and semi-precious stone and other materials which were considered rare in China for gold and silks. The Chola port city of *Puhar* or *Kaveripoompattinam* (located at the mouth of river Kaveri, near present Mayiladuthurai, erstwhile Thanjavur District) was on the eastern coast, while the western coast ports were Quilon, Monte De Ely and Calicut. According to *Fei Hsin* gold, silver, colured satins, blue and white porcelain wares, beads, musk,

camphor etc, were exchanged. A Muslim interpreter assisted *Cheng Ho* who came to South India. In his accounts, he narrates that as soon as a ship from China anchored at Calicut, the king's overseer and *Chitti* (known as Chetty, the people of business community) went on board and listed an invoice of goods in the ship.

To fulfill the request of a Chinese King, the Pallava king Narasimhavarman II constructed a Buddhist temple at Nagapattinam in eighth Century C.E. Later this temple was named as *Seena Koil* (Chinese Temple). The Venetian traveler Marco Polo refers to a *Seena Koil* that existed at Nagapattinam.

Tamilnadu State Department of Archaeology unearthed Chinese porcelain wares at many excavation sites such as Korkai, Gangaikonda Cholapuram, Tranquebar, Periyapattinam. This proves that the Chinese connection with the Tamil country is well attested not only with the coins but also with other unearthed artefacts.



CHOLA TRADE ROUTE TO CHINA

#### THE CHOLA KINGS AND CHINA

According to the Chinese chronicle *Chau-Ju-Kua*, three delegations were sent to the court of Chola kings in different time frames.

- I. The first delegation reached during the reign of Rajaraja I, in the year 1015 C.E.
- II. The second delegation was sent during the reign of Rajendra I, at 1033 C.E.
- III. The third and last delegation, which was diplomatically important, was during the rule of Kulotunga I in 1077 C.E. All these three emissaries were given important role to encourage trade and commercial activities between these countries.

The Song dynasty chronicles attest that the first mission to China from Chu-lien (Chola) reached that country in 1015 C.E. The chronicles mention the name of the king as Lo-ts'a-lo-ts'a (Rajaraja). Another delegation from shi-lo-lo-cha Yin-to-lo-chu-lo (Sri Raja Indra Chola) reached China in 1033. C.E., and a third in 1077 C.E. from Kulottunga-Chola-Deva. The commercial relationship among Southern India and China was consequently constant and extensive. Writing in the latter half of the twelfth century, Cou-ku-fei states of San-fo-ts'i (Sri Vijaya): "It is the most important port on the searoutes of the foreigners, from the countries of Sho-po (java) on the east and from the countries of the Ta-shi (Arabs) and Ku-lin (Quilon) on the west; they all pass through it on their way to China".

The Song dynasty annals record that the delegation from Chulien (Chola) reached the Chinese court in the year 1077 C.E. and that the king of Chulien at the time was called Ti-hua-kia-lo. It is possible that these syllables disguise the name of Deva Kulo(ttunga). The name is that of the contemporary Chola king who ruled in 1077 C.E. who was Kulottunga I. This 'embassy' was clearly a commercial endeavor and seems to have ended very profitably for the Tamils. For the seventy-two men who formed the embassy were given 81,800 strings of copper cash. The export articles to China such as glassware, , brocades (called Kimhwa in the Chinese text), rhinoceros horns, ivory, incense, rose-water, asafoetida, borax, cloves, etc.

The Tamil literature *Kalingattupparani* and the inscriptions of Kulotunga I speak about the victory and destruction of Kadaram situated on the wide ocean while costly tributes were sent from foreign islands. The references are not clear and as a practice in literary works, a poet may sometimes attribute the political victories of the predecessors to his successors on the throne. The smaller Leyden grant narrates that Kulottunga I had connection with the empire of Sri Vijaya. The suggestion has been made that Kulottunga I spent the period between 1063 and 1070 C.E. in Sri Vijaya restoring order and maintaining the Chola power in that region.

Two facts have been cited in support of this view:

• Kulottunga I in his early life re-established harmony in the Eastern lands by gently raising the Earth from the waters of the ocean like Visnu.

• Secondly, the names of the high official who visited China as envoy from Sri Vijaya in 1067 and of the Chola emperor who sent the embassy to China (noted above) ten years later are the same, Ti-hua-kia-lo—Devkala, probably a part of Deva Kulo(ttunga). The first is obviously the result of misunderstanding of a Tamil phrase. The Song government of the day paid great attention to foreign trade. The trade was made a government control and strong efforts were made to increase the volume of maritime trade. To promote maritime trade the Chinese emperor sent missions abroad with official correspondence under the imperial seal and provisions of gold and piece-goods. Was an invitation to China for the traders of the South Sea and those who went for overseas trade. The Chinese governments assured to offer special authorization for their maritime trade.

That the Cholas took advantage and extended the opportunities opened to them is evident from the missions sent to China by Rajaraja and Rajendra. The embassy from Chola land reached China in 1015 C.E after spending over three years. Towards the last part of the rule of Rajaraja, (Lo-tsa-lo-tsa of the Chinese chronicles) one embassy left the Chola country. Chau Ju-Kua says of this embassy: In former times they did not send tribute to our court, but "in the eighth year of the ta-chung and siang-fu periods (C.E. 1015), its (of Chu-lien) sovereign sent a mission with pearls and like articles of tribute. The translators, in interoperating their conversation, said they wished to show the respect of a distant nation for (Chinese) civilization." They were ordered by Imperial declaration to remain in waiting at the side gate of the Palace, and to be entertained at a banquet by the Associates in the College of Court Annalists. By imperial favour they were ranked with the envoys of K'iu-tz'i. The envoys had a fine opportunity to witness the Emperor's birthday and expressed the congratulations in the 'Sacred Enclosure.' Less information was available about the other embassy from Rajendra I Shi-(lo)-lo-cha yin-to-lo Chu-lo (Sri Raja Indra Chola) that reached China in 1033 C.E. The trade thus started with China appears to have been carried on without interruption in the eleventh century and in the language of the Annalists of the Celestial court, the Chola kings continued to send 'tribute' to that court. The naval expedition of Rajendra against Sri Vijaya and the success achieved by that expedition rendered communication with the 'Southern seas' and the empire of China more easy and regular than it was ever before. The appeal to Virarajendra for help in the settlement of the political relationships of Kadaram confirms the dealings between the Cholas and the kingdoms of the east.

The major imports into China in this period consisted of two distinct categories of goods, the one woven textile fabrics (mostly of cotton), spices and medicines, and the other (and by far the more valuable intrinsically), jewels and semi-precious substances, animal products like ivory, horn of the rhinoceros, coral, forest products like ebony, aromatic woods, amber, perfumes used either for incense or for the body. There was great demand and high value for the second category of goods; by witnessing the increasing demand, Chinese government declared it as a government monopoly. Only licensed vendors were allowed to sell these articles, and store them in government warehouses in quantities and the selling price was also determined by the government. There was no restriction in trade of cotton fabrics, spices and drugs. Import duty was levied ranging from one-tenth to two-tenths of the goods imported and the duty was collected in kind. A tonnage tax was also collected at the time of their entering the port, besides this import duty. This trade was felt on the whole to be beneficial to China and caused no concern to the government. Later, malpractices developed in the trade connected to luxuries and lead to the drain of coins and precious metals like gold. Finally these malpractices became more visible in the twelfth

century C.E. and the Chinese government prohibited precious metals and coined money for sending abroad. The size of trade with Ma'bar and Kulam (i.e., the Coromandel Coast and Quilon) was restricted.

Several exchanges of missions between South India and the Mongol emperor Kublai Khan followed the sea-route which was partly commercial and partly political. These Mongol contacts with South India was mainly during the period of Pandyan rulers, (a few of them were direct connection with the Chola kingdom). The travel account of Marco Polo and his interpretation on Mabar are very interesting and significant while his travelogues are only passing references in study of history of the Cholas.

#### THE ROLE OF NAGAPATTINAM PORT WITH CHINESE TRADE

Nagapattinam like Nalanda in South Bihar appears to have been a centre of Buddhist learning from days of yore. Ptolemy in his *Geography* refers to a "Nikama, the metropolis . .  $126^{\circ}-16^{\circ}$ ." Yule identifies *Nikama* with Nagapattinam. In Tamil works written by Buddhists the place is depicted as a place of pilgrimage for all Buddhists. During the reign of the Pallava king Narasimhavarman II (690 – 720 C.E.) a Buddhist temple was constructed here under the orders of a Chinese king for the sake of Chinese Buddhists who came to Nagapattinam from China for trade. Later on this temple came to be called the "China Pagoda" (*Seena Koil*).

The next reference to "China pagoda' is by Valentyn when he visited Nagapattinam in 1725 C.E.

The last reference to it by an eye-witness before it was pulled down by the Jesuits in 1867 C.E. was by Sir Walter Elliot who described it as follows :-

"Till within the last few years there was to be seen on the Coromandel coast, between one and two miles the north of Negapatam, a tall weather-beaten tower, affording a useful landmark to vessels passing up and down the coast. It went by various names, as the Puduveli-gopuram, the old pagoda, Chinese pagoda [It is mentioned under this (Pagood China) name by Valentyn (1725), vol. VII, p. 21], black pagoda, and in the map of the Trigonometrical Survey, sheet 79, it stands as the Jeyana (Jaina) pagoda. But save in name it has nothing in common with Hindu or Muhammadan architecture, either in form or ornament. Tradition is silent as to its origin or purpose, and although it has been the subject of frequent speculations, no satisfactory theory has been formed to account for it."

#### SUPPORTING INSCRIPTIONAL EVIDENCES

According to an inscription of Nagapattinam dated 1019 C.E., a donor gifted 75 - 87 *Kalanju, Cheena Kanakam* for conducting temple *poojas* and rituals. *Cheena Kanakam* means gold brought from China. This inscription which was issued during the period of Chola king Rajendra I (1012-1044) threw light on the gold brought from China and gifted as donation to the temples.

Four Chinese copper coins were found beneath the *bali pita*, from the *Suyambunathaswamy* temple at *Nedungadu* (near Karikkal of the Puducherry Union Territory). These coins belong to three different periods:

- ◆ The first coin was issued by Yuan Yu in the year 1086-1094 C.E.,
- ✤ The second coin by Shaq Sheng in the year 1094-1098.
- The third and the fourth were by the Ch'ung Ning 1102-1007.C..E.

These finds are closely associated with the reign of Kulottunga I (1070 -1122 C.E.), who sent an embassy to China.

#### References about China in Meikirtis

During the time of Cholas naval supremacy reached its zenith. Coromandel Coast was described as a lake of the Chola Empire. The *Meykirti* (*"Thiru mannivalara...."*)of Chola king Rajendra I indicates many places of far-east such as Kadaram, Visayam, Pannai, Malaiyur, Mayirudingam, Lankasoka, Pappalam, Mevilibungam, Valaipandur, Elamuri, etc.

The meykirti beginning with "Poomalar thiruvum ...," of Maravaraman Sundarapandyan (1215-1239 C.E.) mentions about Seenam (China). The Meykirti of Sadayavaraman Veerapandyan (1253-1268 C.E.) beginning with "Tirumagal valar mulai ...", mentions about Seenam (China) in two places.



TAMIL INSCRIPTION IN CHINA

Bilingual Inscription found in China

(Courtesy: State Department of Archaeolgy, Tamil Nadu)

A Bilingual inscription (Tamil & Chinese Characters) was found at Chuan Chou, 500 miles away from Canton. This place was an important port city of that time. This inscription was issued in the full moon day of the month Chithra in Saka year 1203, corresponding to 1281 C.E. It mentions the erection of deity *Thirukkaniccuramudaiyar* by one *Sambandapperumal* for the well being of Chinese emperor Cekacaikan Parman.

We have inscriptions in Tamil script in Far-eastern countries such as Myanmar, Thailand, Malayan Peninsula etc. These inscriptions attest to maritime contacts existed during the time of Cholas and Pandyas.

#### THE CHINESE COINS AND THEIR HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE

The discovery of Chinese coins in India, predominantly in South India, substantiates the commercial intercourse between India and China. A good number of Chinese coins were unearthed in many parts of South India. So far three important hoards of Chinese coins which were obtained from Tamil Nadu, particularly from composite Thanjavur district prove that *Kaviripoompattinam*, played a vital role in promoting mercantile activities via sea borne trade with China.

- The first hoard consisting of 20 Chinese coins of Kai Yuan's reign (713-742 C.E.) reached the Government Museum, Chennai through treasure trove in the year 1943. This hoard was acquired from the village Vikram, Pattukkottai Taluk, Thanjavur District.
- The second hoard was acquired in the year 1944, containing 1822 Chinese coins of Ching Tin (1260 -68 C.E.). (Of these, 1250 coins were distributed to other museums). This hoard was obtained from the village called *Thallikkottai* of Mannargudi Taluk, erstwhile Thanjavur District and was the largest one among all the three hoards.
- The third hoard arrived at the Government Museum, Chennai in the year 1962. This hoard containing 323 Chinese coins was unearthed in the village Olayakkunnam, Pattukkottai Taluk, erstwhile Thanjavur District. This treasure trove find is considered to be the most significant one since it yields the Chinese coins dated back to 142 B.C.E.

#### Details of the Thallikkottai hoard of Chinese coins

Serial No	Metal	Sovereign	Date (in C.E.)
1-2	Copper	Wu —chu	585
3-12	Copper	Kai Yuan	713-760
13-16	Copper	Kien Yuan	758-760
17-20	Copper	Sung Yuan	966-975
21-25	Copper	Shun Kua	990-995
26-35	Copper	Chi Tao	995-998
36-45	Copper	Hisen P'ing	998-1000
46-55	Copper	Ching te	1004-1008
56-65	Copper	Hisang fu	1008-1017
66-75	Copper	T'ien his	1017-1022
76-80	Copper	Tai puig	1021-1031
81-90	Copper	T'ein Sheng	1023-1033
91-95	Copper	Ming Tao	1032-1033
96-105	Copper	Ching Yu	1034-1038
106-115	Copper	Huan Song	1038
116-121	Copper	Chi ho	1054-1056
122-131	Copper	Chua Yu	1056-64
132-141	Copper	Che p'ing	1064-068
142-151	Copper	His wing	1068-1078
152-161	Copper	His wing	1068-1078
162-171	Copper	Yuan fung	1078-1086
172-181	Copper	Yuan fung	1078-1086
182-191	Copper	Yuan Yu	1086-1094
192-194	Copper	Yuan Yu	1082-1094
195-204	Copper	Shao Sheng	1086-1094
205-207	Copper	Shao Sheng	1086-1094
208-217	Copper	Yuan fu	1098-1101
218-227	Copper	Shen song	1102-1107
228-233	Copper	Shen song	1102-1107
234	Copper	Ch'ong ning	1102-1107
235-244	Copper	Takuan	1107-1111
245-254	Copper	Cheng – Po	1111-1118
255-264	Copper	Hsiun Po	1119-1126
265-274	Соррег	Chien Yen	1127-1128

275-283	Copper	Shao hsing	1131-1163
284-293	Copper	Shun his	1174-1190
294-300	Copper	Ching Yuan	1195-1201
301	Copper	K'ai his	125-1208
302-311	Copper	Chia-t'ai	1201-1205
312-321	Copper	Chia-ting	1208-1225
322-326	Copper	Shao toing	1228-1234
327-329	Copper	Shnu Yu	1241-1253
333	Copper	Hwa song	1254
331	Copper	K'ai ching	1259-1260
332-334	Copper	Ching sin	1260-1265

#### Details of the Vikram hoard of Chinese coins

Serial No	Metal	Sovereign		Date (in	C.E.)
335	Copper	Yuan Fong		1078-10	85
336	Copper	Yuan Fong		1078-10	85
337	Copper	Yuan Yu		1086-10	193
338	Copper	Shao Hing		1131-11	.62
339	Copper	Cheng Ho		1111-11	18
340	Copper	Cheng Ho		1078-10	85
341	Copper	Shun Yu		1241-12	:51
342	Copper	Not identified d	iue to	Not	identified
		defacing		due to d	efacing
343	Copper	Yuan Fong		1078-10	85
344	Copper	Kien Yan		1127-11	.30
345	Copper	Yuan Yu		1086-10	193
346	Copper	Siang Fu		1008-10	016
347	Copper	Che P'ing		1064-10	67
348	Copper	King Yu		1034	
349	Соррет	Kai Yuan		713-742	<u>:</u>
350	Copper	Kai Yuan		713-742	2
351	Copper	Kai Yuan		713-742	2
352	Copper	Kia Hi		1237-12	241
353	Copper	Not identified d	lue to	Not	identified
		defacing		due to d	efacing
354	Copper	His Ning		10681	077

FOREHER COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF COVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS



Obverse & Reverse C.No 335- Ac.No778-1 Chinese- Yuan Fong Date: 1078-85 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 336- Ac.No-778-2 -Chinese- Yuan Fong Date :1078-85 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 337- Ac.No-778-3 - Chinese- Yuan Yu - Date : 1086-93 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 338- Ac.No-778-4 -Chinese- Shao Hing Date: 11131-62 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 339- Ac.No-778-5 Chinese- Cheng HO Date: 1111-1118 C.E.



Obverse& Reverse C.No 340- Ac.No-778-6 Chinese- Cheng Ho - Date: 1078-85 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 341- Ac.No-778-7 Chinese- Shun Yu Date :1241-51 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 342- Ac.No-778-8 Chinese- Date -NIL

#### FOREICA COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAL (CHINESE ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)





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Obverse & Reverse C.No 343- Ac.No-778-9 Chinese- Yuan Fong – Date:1127-30 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 344- Ac.No-778-10 Chinese- Kien Yan – Date:1127-30 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 345- Ac:No-778-11 Chinese- Yuan Yu – Date: 1086-93 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 346- Ac.No-778-12 Chinese- Siang Fu – Date:1008-16 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 347- Ac.No-778-13 Chinese- Che P'ing – Date:1064-67 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 348- Ac.No-778-14 Chinese- Kiing Yu – Date:1034 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 349- Ac.No-778-15 Chinese- Kai Yuan - Date:713-742 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 350- Ac.No-778-16 Chinese- Kai Yuan - Date:713-742 C.E.

#### FOREIGN COMS IN THE COLLECTION OF COVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)



Obverse & Reverse C.No 351- Ac.No-778-17 Chinese- Kai Yuan - Date:713-742 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 352- Ac.No-778-18 Chinese- Kia Hi – Date: 1237-41 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 353- Ac.No-778-20 Chinese- Hsi Ning – Date:1068-1077 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 354- Ac.No-778-19 Chinese- Date -Nil

### Details of the Olayakkunnam hoard of Chinese coins

Serial No	Metal	Sovereign	Date (in C.E.)
357	Copper	Kai Yuan	142 B.C.E.
358	Copper	Wu Chu	126 B.C.E
359-381	Copper	Sung Yuon	960
382-383	Copper	T'ai H'sing	976
384-385	Copper	Ch'un -hua	990
386-389	Copper	Chih-tao	995
390-396	Copper	Hsien -p'ing	998
397-401	Copper	Ching-leh –Yuan Pao	1004
402-411	Соррег	Hsiang –fu-Yauan Pao	1008
412-420	Copper	T'en -hsi t'ung Pao	1017
421-428	Соррег	T'T'ien Sheng Yuan-pao	1023
<b>429-4</b> 30	Copper	Ming Tao – Yuan Pao	1032
431-433	Copper	Ching Yu – Yuan Pao	1034
434-464	Copper	Huan Sung –T'ung Pao	1023
465-474	Copper	Cjih ho Yuan Pao	1054
475 -484	Copper	Chia-Yu -Yuan Pao	1056
485-490	Copper	Chih p'ing – Yuan Pao	1064
491-527	Copper	His ning –Yuan Pao	1068
528-563	Copper	Yuan-teng -t'ug Pao	1078
564-586	Copper	Yuan Yu t'ung Pao	1086
587-599	Copper	Shao Sheng Yuan Pao	1094
600-602	Copper	Yuan Fu – Tung Pao	1098
603-620	Copper	Shen-Sung	1101
621-622	Соррег	Ta Kuan –t'ung Pao	1107
623-640	Copper	Cheng ho t'ung Pao	1111

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641-645	Copper	Hsuan- ho t'ung Pao	1119
646	Copper	Chien Yu Tan Pao	1127
647-651	Copper	Shao hsing Yuan Pao	1131
652-656	Copper	Ch'un his Yuan Pao	1174
657-659	Copper	Shao his Yuan Pao	1190
660-661	Соррег	Chi'ng Yuan t'ung Pao	1195
662-663	Copper	Chia-t'ai t'ung pao	1201
664	Copper	Kai hsi Tung Pao	1205
665-667	Copper	Chia ting t'ug Pao	1208
668	Copper	Shaoting tung Pao	1228
669	Copper	Ch'un yu Yuan Pao	1241
670-679	Copper	Damaged - unidentified	~-





Obverse & Reverse C.No 357- Ac.No971-1 Chinese- Kai Yuan Date: 142 B.C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 358- Ac.No971-2 Chinese- Kai Yuan :Date: 142 B.C.E.



C.No 359 to 381- Ac.No971 Chinese- Sung Yuon Date: 960 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 382,383 Ac.No971 Chinese- T'ai H'sing Date: 976 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 383,384 Ac.No971 Chinese- Ch'un -hua Date : 990 .C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 386 -389Ac.No971 Chinese- Chih-tao Date: 990 C.E.

FOREEN COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)





Obverse & Reverse C.No 391 -396 Ac.No971 Chinese- Hsien -p'ing Date: 998 -C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 397-401 Ac.No971 Chinese- Hsien -p'ing Date: 998 - C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 402-411Ac.No971 Chinese- Hsiang –fu-Yauan Pao Date: 998 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 412-420 Ac.No971 Chinese- Ten hsi Date: 998 C.E.

FOREIGN FOREN IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM CHEVNAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COUNS)



Obverse & Reverse C.No 421-428 Ac.No 971 Chinese- Tien sheng Date: 998 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 429-430 Ac.No 971 Chinese- Tien sheng Date: 998 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 431-433 Ac.No 971 Chinese- Ching yu –Yuanpao-Date: 142 B.C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 434-464 Ac.No 971 Chinese- Huan Sung tung pao- Date: 976.C.E.

#### FOREIGN CONSERVICE THE COLLECTION OF GEVEN MEET ALSEL II, CHENNAL CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS





Obverse & Reverse C.No 465-474 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Huan Sung tung pao Date: 1054 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 475 to-484 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Chia Yu Yuan pao Date: 1056 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 485 to-490 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Chihping -Yuan pao Date: 1064 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 491-527 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Chiihping -Yuan pao Date: 1068 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 528-563 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Yuan Teng Tung Pao Date: 1078 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 564-586 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Yuan Teng Tung Pao Date: 1086 C.E.

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Obverse & Reverse C.No 587-599 Acc.No 971 Chinese-shao Sheng Yuan Pao Date : 1094 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 600-602 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Yuan Fu-Tung Pao Date: 1098 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 603-620 Acc.No 971 Chinese Sheng Sung-Yuan Pao Date : 1101 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 621-622 Acc.No 971 Chinese Ta Kuan Tung Pao Date: 1107 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 623-640 Acc.No 971 Chinese Ta Kuan Tung Pao Date : 1111 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 641Acc.No 971 Chinese Chien Yu- Tung Pao Date :1119 C.E.





#### FOREGV CONSERVE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT AUSTOR, CHENNAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)



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Obverse & Reverse C.No 647-651 Acc.No 971 Chinese Chien Yu- Tung Pao Date: 1131 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 652-656 Acc.No 971 Chinese Chun his- Tung Pao Date: 1174 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 657-659 Acc.No 971 Chinese Shao his Tung Pao Date: 1190 C.E.

FOREIGN COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)



Obverse & Reverse C.No 660-661 Acc.No 971 Chinese Ching Yuan Tung Pao Date: 1195 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 662-663 Acc.No 971 Chinese Chiat ai Tung Pao Date: Date: 1201 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 664 Acc.No 971 Chinese Kai hsi Tung Pao Date: 1205 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 665-667 Acc.No 971 Chinese Chiat ai Tung Pao Date: 1208 C.E.


Obverse & Reverse C.No 668 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Shao Ting- Tung Pao Date: 1228 C.E.



Obverse & Reverse C.No 669 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Chun Yu Yuan Pao Date: 1241 C.E.





Obverse & Reverse C.No 670 - 679 Acc.No 971 Chinese- Defaced and unidentified Date: --

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## THREE COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF STATE DEPARTMENT OF ARCHAEOLOGY

Thiru. Rajendran, former Curator of the Tarangambadi (Tranquebar) State Department of Archaeology Museum, has collected three Chinese coins and sent them to Thiru. Natana Kasinathan, the then Director of the State Department of Archaeology for examination and study. Later, Thiru. Natana Kasinathan forwarded the photographs of those coins to the Chinese Consulate Office, New Delhi for examination and obtained details of the legends.

According to the decipherment of the legends, it is revealed that:-

- The first coin was issued by the Jin dynasty, during 1224-1236 C.E. The legend in Chinese characters reads '*Rupin Tongbao*' (Rupin means 'peaceful' and Tongbao means 'money').
- The second coin issued by the Ming dynasty, between 1628 and 1644 C.E. reads 'Congzhen Tongbao' (while the word Conghzen represents the name of the Chinese emperor Congzhen, Tongbao- means ' money').
- The third coin was also issued by the Ming dynasty, during 1674-1676 C.E. The legend of the coin in Chinese character reads '*Yumin Tongbao*. (wherein Yumin means 'enrichment' and Tongbao means 'money').

All these three Chinese coins received from Tarangambadi reveal details about the healthy commercial relationship that existed between China and South India between 13<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> Centuries.

## ROMAN COIN FINDS IN SOUTH INDIA

### Introduction

The Indo-Roman contacts initially began for commercial purpose but in due course, it gradually developed to cultural interface and some times, the exchange of ambassadorial embassies also took place. But the trade contacts were the most important and noticeable. The trade connection commenced around the second century B.C.E and reached its pinnacle during the rule of the Roman emperors Augustus (27 B.C.E –14 C.E.) and Tiberius (14-37 C.E.). By the time of Augustus up to 120 ships were setting sail every summer from Myos Hormos to India. The trade relation continued during the reigns of the emperors Gaius or Caligula (37-41 C.E.), Claudius (41-54 C.E.) and Nero (54-68 C.E.).Towards the end of the first century C.E., there was a slow but gradual decline in the trade. During the subsequent centuries, especially after the creation of the Roman Empire into the East and the West, the trade declined further until it came to an end around the seventh century C.E.

The efforts of scholars in the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the commercial, cultural and political ties between the kingdoms of ancient India, particularly South India and the Roman world remain indistinct in the minds of many archaeologists and historians and are not often included in university courses on Roman history and art. These contacts are, however, the most significant examples of globalization. Thousands of Roman traders and their African and Arabian delegates came to India, often accompanied by artisans and craftsmen like carpenters, architects from the Roman Empire. They settled in India, adjusting to the Indian type of weather and way of life.

The Romans came to India looking for Indian gemstones such as beryl, carnelian, amethyst, clothes like silk, cotton and animal product akin to ivory, peacock quill, tortoise shell Indian spices like pepper, cardamom, clove and fragrant woods like sandalwood. In the Roman markets there was a great demand for Indian spices, primarily pepper and cardamom.

In return, wine, olive oil and coral, gold, silver and copper coins from the Roman Empire were exported to India. The Roman coins were major import in the form of metal.

### THE GEOGRAPHICAL KNOWLEDGE OF THE ROMANS REVEALED THROUGH LITERATURES



ROMAN MARITIME TRADE ROUTE TO INDIA

### THE SILK ROUTE & MARITIME SILK ROUTE

At the onset of Roman trade in the 5<sup>th</sup> Century B.C.E., the early traders preferred caravan routes, which nearly touched upper Himalayas; this trade route was commonly named as 'Silk Route'. At the commencement of the 2<sup>nd</sup> Century B.C.E. one branch from the silk route has been extended towards south and it reached up to the mouth of river Indus. In the Beginning of the First Century C.E. the Persian Empire became more powerful and they intervened in the commercial activities by using caravan routes. Indeed, caravan routes were not safe, because of dacoits, long and tiresome journey foiled the Romans to discover an alternate route. Now the Chinese were compelled to divert their goods to the Coromandel coast. Coromandel ports served as transit warehouses between China and Rome. The Silk Route which connected Rome and Asia, by surface, was checked by the Persian Empire. Hence, a new 'Maritime Silk Route' was discovered as an alternate. As necessity is mother of inventions, Roman traders used the discovery of monsoon winds or trade winds by Hippalus, perhaps a Greek sailor in the First Century C.E., which helped Roman commercial fleets to reach the destination (India) faster and safer.

### THE GEOGRAPHY KNOWN TO ANCIENT ROMANS

Ancient literary works, both Graeco-Roman and Tamil, throw welcome light on the long and interesting story of the Rome-India trade links.

• The Geographic system of Eratosthenes (275 – 195 B.C.E)

This earliest Roman account on geography gives details about Northern part of India. Peninsular India is depicted as east —west direction in the map and the island Sri Lanka was shown parallel to the Indian western coast.

 The Geographic system of Strabo (67 B.C.E – 20 C.E.) Strabo had followed the same plan of Eratosthenes. He mentions about the river system of Ganges and Indus in his work. Strabo narrates various information about the tradition and customs followed at that time in India.

- The Geographic system of Claudius Ptolomaeus (2<sup>nd</sup> Century C.E.) Ptolemy who gives a clear topography of Indian subcontinent attests the Malayan peninsula in his topography. He gives information about the Indian society and trade with the west.
- The principal Graeco-Roman works dealing with the trade include *Naturalis Historia* by Pliny (77 C.E.) *Naturalis Historia* (Latin for "Natural History") is an encyclopedia published in circa C.E. 77-79 by Pliny, the Elder. It is one of the largest single works to have survived from the Roman empire to the modern day and purports to cover the entire field of ancient knowledge, based on the best authorities available to Pliny.
- The *Periplus* of *Erythraean Sea* by an unknown author (2<sup>nd</sup> Century C.E.) The anonymous author of this work provides the perfect illustration of the maritime route that existed for India. He states that trade started from Alexandria in Egypt (admired as the 'Pearl of the Mediterranean') going onward voyage through the Nile, and reached Red sea port Myos Hormos, by using caravan route. From Red sea they continued their voyage to India.

### THE POLITY IN TAMIL NADU DURING THE TIME OF ROMAN TRADE

During the time of Roman trade, Satavahanas, Sangam Cheras, Sangam Cholas and Sangam Pandyas were the major powers in South India. Nandas, Mauryas, and later the Kushans were contemporaries of Sangam Tamil kings. The political history of the Sangam period is most interesting because of the interaction with the other kingdoms in India and abroad. The polity and history of the Sangam period was mainly based on the literary sources, while archaeological, numismatic sources are limited.

Cheras, Cholas and Pandyas were three major dynasties that ruled this region. Satavahanas ruled the northern portion of Tamil country. This region was popularly known as *Tamizhagam* because the people lived here spoke Tamil language. According to the Sangam literary and the grammar works the northern most boundary of *Tamizhagam* was *Venkatam* (Tirupati) and Kanyakumari (Cape Comorin) was in the south. The Sangam territory was mainly comprised of present states of Tamil Nadu, Pondicherry and Kerala.

All the three Tamil kings patronsied art and literature. Pandyas provided a great seat in Madurai for the assembly of the academicians and poets who were well versed in Tamil and participated in scholarly debates and discussions. This scholarly assemblage of Tamil poets was named as the *Sangam*. These *Sangams* assembled often at the Pandyan headquarters Madurai, between 300 B.C.E and 300 C.E. Thus, this period is called the '*Sangam* Age' by the historians.

The literary works of that period were named as the 'Sangam literatures'. The word 'Sangam' is commonly placed before the three main Royal Clans of Cheras, Cholas and Pandyas since they ruled this region during this timeframe. This is the only occurrence in the field of history, where a historical period has been called after an academic session of a particular language.

### THE SANGAM CHERAS

The Sangam Chera kingdom included present Kerala and some western regions of Tamil Nadu, the Kongu country or the Coimbatore vicinity. The capital city of the Sangam Cheras was not clearly acknowledged by the historians. There are two different theories among scholars; some scholars opined that Tiruvanchikulam in coastal Kerala was the Chera capital as others believed that Karur was the capital city situated on the banks of the river Amaravati, a tributary of the Kaveri. The findings of Sangam Chera inscriptions at a site called Pugalur near Karur and the regular finds of thousands of Sangam Chera coins in and around Karur have currently provided concrete evidence that Karur was the capital city of the Cheras. Muziris, situated on the mouth of river Periyar, on the western coast, was the most important port city of the Cheras.

### THE SANGAM CHOLAS

The kingdom of the Sangam Cholas mainly consisted of parts of northern and central Tamil Nadu with the epicenter of power located in the Tiruchi-Thanjavur region of central Tamil Nadu. The Cholas had two capitals, Uraiyur (near the city of Tiruchirappalli or Tiruchi) was their main capital while the port-city of Kaveripoompattinam (Poompuhar) served as the secondary commercial capital.

The Sangam Pandya kingdom comprised the regions of Madurai, Ramanathapuram and Tirunelveli in southern Tamil Nadu. The Pandya kingdom was situated immediately south of the Chola kingdom, the river Kaveri often forming the boundary between the two. Thus, the Pandyas were the rulers of the southernmost tip of India and were closest to the island of Sri Lanka. Madurai, also called as Kudal, was the capital city of the Pandyas. Marungurpattinam or Alagankulam and Korkai were the chief ports of the Pandya kingdom.

While Cheras, Cholas and Pandyas were the three main rulers of Tamil Country, there were a number of minor feudatories who were loyal to one of the above mentioned three supreme powers. Sometimes they ruled independently also. These feudatories often shifted their alliance. The Malaiyamans or Malaiyans of Tirukoilur and the Adiyamans of Tagadur were small but important dynasties of that time. The Malaiyamans were very powerful among them. They ruled Malaiyaman Nadu which consisted of present-day Pondicherry and the neighbouring South Arcot regions. Their capital city was Tirukoilur, located on the bank of river Pennaiyar. The famous port of Arikkamedu, near Pondicherry, was under the control of the Malaiyamans for a brief period.



Distribution pattern of Roman Coin Finds in South India

### **REFERENCES IN TAMIL LITERATURE**

Ahananuru and Purananuru, the ancient Tamil literatures provide limited details pertaining to the commercial activities. 'Yavanas' the common terminology was given to the Greek and the Romans. During the reign of Augustus one Pandya king sent his emissary to the Roman Empire. Some Yavanas returned to their home land after completing the business activities, while some extended their stay to undertake skilled business in Tamil Nadu. Manimegalai, an ancient Tamil epic speaks about 'yavanath thachar' (Roman carpenter). Silapathikaram, another epic provides details about some Romans who were in employment as soldiers in the Pandian palace and fort in Madurai. While Kovalan (hero of the epic) was entering Madurai fort gate, the gate was guarded by the Roman soldiers.

'Kadi mathil vayil kavalir sirandha Adal val yavanarkku aiyaradhu pukku'

Silambu: Urkan: 66-67

Artists from Magadha, craftsmen from Maratha, smiths of Avanti and Yavana carpenters contributed to construct the grand palace of Cholas at Kaviripoompattinam.

'Magadha vinaingnarum martta kammuram Avandik kollarum yavanathacharum'

In Pandya army Yavana soldiers were employed and they were seen with shorts and shirts and holding an equestrian spears. The Mullai Pattu gives this narration about Roman soldiers.

'mathigai valaiiya marinduveengu seriudai Meippai pukku veruvarund thotrattu Valipunari yakkai vankan yavanar'

Mullai pattu (59-61)

Lamp imported from the *Yavana* territory gave light constantly without any flickering. *Nedunalvadai*, one of the ancient Tamil Sangam work narrates about a feminine statuette in standing position and holds lamp with two hands known as '*Pavai Vilakku*' (in Tamil).

Yavanar nankalan tanda tankamazh theral Poncey punei kalt t tendi nalum Ondodi mamagalir maduppa magizhchirandu

May sweet scented theral (wine), brought in by the lovely ships of the *Yavanas*, be served unto you every day on trays of chiselled gold, by girls with sparkling wrists, and after tasting of it may you be filled with cheerfulness...,

### EXPORT COMMODITIES FROM INDIA

Exports from India, have been classified into five categories viz.,

- 1. Spices namely pepper, cardamom, clove. There was a huge requirement for the Indian pepper in Roman market.
- 2. Aromatic woods like sandal.
- 3. Animals and animal products such as peacock, peacock quills, tortoise shells, ivory, pearls were the major export items.
- 4. Cloth products like silk, cotton, muslin, linen.
- 5. Precious and semi-precious gem stones like beryl, carnelian, amethyst, garnet, etc.

Most of the export items from India were consumable and perishable commodities like spices, textiles and animal products like peacock quills. Hence, archaeological evidence for the trade with the Roman land is inadequate. However in India, particularly from South India most of the archaeological finds are available in plenty, as they were in the form of non-perishable items like coins, amphora jars and roulette pottery.





### IMPORT COMMODITIES TO INDIA

### > The amphora jars

The amphora jars are long conical jars with handles on either side. These jars were used as containers to fill wine and olive oil and transported to India, as containers of liquid. Amphora jars are found mostly in Arikkamedu and other Roman sites. Arikkamedu and Alagankulam in Tamil Nadu have yielded potteries of 'terra sigillata', a variety of ancient earthenware including mould-made ornamented vessels and unornamented wheel-made ones produced in Italy. Other types of Roman terracotta objects such as lamps and icons are very few in India. A few such lamps have been found in Arikkamedu.



### Roman glass

Roman glass including raw glass, glass vessels and beads were imported into India. Among these objects, the glass vessels are widely known. These include small ribbed glass bowls reported from Dharanikota in Andhra Pradesh and Arikkamedu in Pondicherry, both in southern India.

### Roman coins

Gold, silver and copper coins from the Roman Empire were the major imports for India. The Roman coins were major imports available in the metal form.

### EARLY REPORTS ON THE ROMAN COIN FINDS IN INDIA

As the Rome-India trade declined around the sixth-seventh centuries C.E., many of the Roman coins in India vanished or got hidden under the earth. It is understood that throughout the Middle Ages, the Roman coins in many locations were unearthed throughout the country by farmers and labourers who were employed in digging. As the discovered coins were mostly melted or lost most of these finds were never recorded or documented. In ancient India nobody knew Latin to decipher the legends. By the end of the eighteenth century C.E., after the advent of the European settlers, archaeological findings and accidental discoveries were brought to light and documented. Implementation of the Indian Treasure Trove Act in the year 1878 effected a heavy inflow of antiquities to the museums. As this region yielded the major number of Roman coins for the period of the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries C.E., the museum's Roman collections recorded a phenomenal augmentation. Thus, Government Museum, Chennai has the unique distinction of acquiring Roman coin finds in almost every part of South India. It is also the first museum in the whole of Asia to attempt a catalogue of some of the Roman coins in

its collection as early as 1874 C.E. <sup>'</sup> The most important Roman coins in the Madras Museum comprise those collected from the Roman commercial locations such as Budinatham, Vellalur, Karur in Tamil Nadu. A few of them are very rare and unusual coins which are not seen in any other museums in India. Some of these coins bear rare and interesting countermarks also.

The Roman coin finds in India constitute primary source material for the study of the Indo-Roman commercial contacts. Nineteenth Century researchers documented Roman coin finds acquired from distant sites of India. Thus, the attention of the early researcher was restricted to merely recording the finds. No effort was made to examine the historical consequences of the coins. As a result, most of the early published works are descriptive observations of the finds. These notices are scattered in a variety of academic journals and reports of the museums.

Many of the distinct features like slash marks, countermarks and imitations of the Roman coins finds in South India were not distinguished by the authors of nineteenth century C.E. G.F.Hill, who worked in these lines for the first time observed the significance of the slash marks effected on the Roman coins in South India. He attests on the slash marks in his well-known article on the aurei find from Pudukkottai in Tamil Nadu (1898), which is the largest slashed aurei known hoard in the whole of India.

### EXCAVATION CONDUCTED BY THE MUSEUM IN ROMAN SITE OF ARIKKAMEDU

Remarkably, the Madras Museum has yet another connection with the Indo -Rome trade, which was not popularly known to the scholars. Around the year 1940, Jouveau-Dubreuil, a French researcher in the field of Archaeology has sent a collection of glass and semi-precious stone beads, potsherds and terracotta figurines discovered at Arikkamedu, India's largest and most significant Roman trade centre, to the Museum. He also requested Dr. A. Aiyappan, the then Superintendent of the Museum, "to do something for the site" for its betterment. With the monetary support given by the French India government at Pondicherry, the Madras Museum had undertaken trial excavations at Arikkamedu. The foundations of a number of buildings, amphora jars, multifaceted terracotta lamps and beads made out of glass and semi precious stones were brought to light through the excavation. The excavation conducted by the Museum proved that Arikkamedu was one of the most important Indo- Roman trade centers in South India. Dr. Aiyappan published an article in the newspaper, The Hindu on 23 March, 1941, entitled "A Dakshina Taxila, Historic Relics From Arikkamedu". This article invited not only Indians but also foreign scholars to visit this historical site. Even though the first systematic archaeological excavation at Arikkamedu was done by the Museum authorities, this pioneer endeavor of the Museum in the field of excavation is not generally familiar among the scholars of Archaeology. Later, this pilot excavation lead the way for further excavations at the same site not only by the Indian archaeologists, but also by the British, French and American archaeologists.



Excavation Site - Arikkamedu

### **EXCAVATION SITE – ARIKKAMEDU**

The study of the outline of Indo-Roman trade and Roman numismatic finds in India was first endeavoured by Bishop Caldwell (1851). Based on his remarks on a study of the very large Kottayam (Kerala) hoard, he made a pioneering effort to illustrate the route adopted by the Romans to reach the Malabar ports. He also implied that the Roman coins were in use as 'currency' by the ancient Indians. Robert Sewell (1904) who methodically classified all the Roman coin finds in India, according to emperor-wise, came to a conclusion that the trade which commenced during the reign of Augustus (27 B.C.-14 C.E.), attained its pinnacle under Nero (54-68 C.E.), and gradually came to an end during the reign of Caracalla (198-217C.E.) but was rejuvenated slightly in the fourth-fifth centuries C.E.

Most of the later scholars including E.H.Warmington (1928, 1974), T.G.Aravamuthan (1942), Mortimer Wheeler (1951, 1954), P.L.Gupta (1965) have accepted most of Sewell's explanations in the light of added evidences. David W. MacDowall (1991,1996), however, disagrees from all other scholars by stating that the height of the Indo-Roman trade was after Nero and that all the Roman Republican and Julio-Claudian coin finds in India were exported from Rome after 70 C.E.

### THE ROMAN COINS FINDS IN TAMIL NADU

The Roman coins occur in many circumstances all over India. The coins found in a brass or bronze container is a rare incidence. In the Roman Empire, the hoards occurred in places where usually Roman military troops were stationed, but in India, the hoards may have been buried in case of fear to hide the coins to avoid unforeseen conflicts. The hoards in the vicinity of Coimbatore might have been buried or lost by the merchants in danger from the dacoits who are active, due to its mountainous topography and surrounded with thick forest. Furthermore, it was located in the boundary of the three kingdoms of the Sangam Age. This landscape provided easy way to flee for the dacoits. Roman coins were also discovered in the megalithic burial spots like Chavadipalaiyam and Coimbatore.

### THE ROMAN COIN SITES

In the sites of Roman Empire, yielding Roman coins through archaeological excavations is very normal while in India it is an unusual aspect. In certain parts of India and adjacent regions, the Roman coins are now and then found in a 'ritualistic' background. And these types of occurrences are hardly identified in the Roman land. For example, the Roman coin finds from within Buddhist *stupas* in Ahin Posh, Manikyala are located in the present Pakistan-Afghanistan region. In South India, the usage of the Roman coins as ritual contributions is moderately uncommon. Of late, a few spots such as Bavikonda Totlakonda in Andhra Pradesh have yielded Roman coins inside the premises of Buddhist shrines. The Roman coins have been discovered beneath the foundations of an old Hindu temple at Nellore (Andhra). A lot of published references merely do not differentiate between coins found within the compound of a shrine or monastery viz., coins buried for the use in future, and those finds deliberately hidden below a shrine or inside a *stupa*, as a contribution to the holy place, on no account to be used again.

Traders of the Roman Empire had spread their commercial activities in the ancient world. Hence, the Roman coins were discovered in many sites of Europe, Africa and Asia. It is revealed that these coins obtained the position of a worldwide legal tender, similar to the contemporary Euro or U.S. Dollars that are established as suitable medium of exchange in a number of commercial enterprises. In many parts of the world there will be definite variations in the metal, value, wear-condition. These 'differences' might have occurred due to volume and time frame of the Roman trade in diverse regions. The changeable fiscal procedures adopted by the various Roman emperors and the successive changes in the metallic composition of their coins had a direct bearing on the export of these coins to Arabia, India and Sri Lanka.

### THE TYPOLOGY OF ROMAN COIN FINDS IN INDIA

The Roman coin hoards in India vary in composition, which are identified within the Roman Kingdom and its neighbourhood, because, the type of Roman coin circulated in the its collection as early as 1874 C.E. The most important Roman coins in the Madras Museum comprise those collected from the Roman commercial locations such as Budinatham, Vellalur, Karur in Tamil Nadu. A few of them are very rare and unusual coins which are not seen in any other museums in India. Some of these coins bear rare and interesting countermarks also.

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Finds of first century Roman base metal coins are very few in India. But the number of such coins slowly increases during the succeeding centuries. The majority of the Roman coins reaching India are of copper, by the fourth-fifth centuries C.E.

One could trace a subtle link between the metal of the Roman coins of different periods in India and the type and quantity of Indian goods exported to Rome during those periods. In the first century C.E. when the volume of trade was very large and it mostly involved precious goods like gemstones and ivory, the use of copper coins in these 'high-value transactions' was not thought of. Thus, the Roman coins of this period found in India are of gold and silver. But from the end of the first century C.E. when the trade began to be gradually confined to non-luxury items such as cotton and pepper, there is a slow and steady increase in the number of Roman copper coins reaching India.

### SLASHMARKS AND COUNTERMARKS ON THE COINS

One of the unusual features of the Roman coin finds in India is the presence, on some of the coins, of slashmarks, generally 1 to 2mm long, effected by a knife or a chisel or a file. Such marks are totally absent on Roman coins found outside India including those reported from Sri Lanka, Africa and Central Asia. There are over 20 well-recorded slashed coin finds in India. There have been reports of a few more slashed coins, specially the denarii, but neither the exact find-spot nor the circumstances of these finds are known.

Site	District	Number of slashed coins		
Tamil Nadu:				
Kaliyampattur	Madurai	4		
Madurai Hills	Madurai	5		
Karukkakurichi	Pudukkottai	461		
Tondamanatham	Cuddalore	2		
Soriyapattu	Villupuram	3		
Total		475+		
		40		

The site-by-site distribution of the known slashed coins in Tamil Nadu is as follows:

### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE SLASHMARKS

There have been a number of views among the scholars regarding the significance of the slash marks on the Roman coins found in India. G.F.Hill was the first to observe on the reason of the cut mark or slashmark in his renowned research on the Pudukkotai collection of Roman aurei, published in the *Numismatic Chronicle* in the year 1898. Other scholars have different hypotheses concerning the reason of these slash marks effected on the coin. Most of the scholars opined that the slashes were deliberately made to cancel the authority of issue. These same coins were used as currency in the Indian territory. According to a small group of scholars, these slashes may have been done due to the consequence of Muslim or Buddhist iconoclasm. But none of the hypotheses are believable because of the extremely limited occurrence of the theory. Future discoveries and studies in this line may facilitate us to know the exact reason of these chisel cuts/slash marks.

A few finds of gold coins are in badly bent condition. This can be witnessed in Nandyal and Pudukkottai hoards. This bending was deliberately made. A good portion of *Auriei* finds is deliberately defaced, with a chisel –cut on the head of the obverse side. Occasionally, where a coin bears head or bust on the obverse as well as reverse, both are cut.

According to scholars, the defacement was not effected in Rome. This defacement was mainly effected for purpose of demonetizing them. For instance, no indigenous Indian coins of first 10 centuries (1<sup>st</sup> century C.E onwards) have been defaced or mutilated.



### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE COUNTERMARKS

### COUNTERMARKS FOUND IN EUROPE

The applying of countermarking on brass and copper coins, between the Julio-Claudian period and up to the opening months of Vespasian's reign, was fairly common. These countermarks served three main purposes: to extend the area in which the coin would be accepted as legal tender; to lengthen the useful life of a coin which had been in circulation over a comprehensive period of time; and to indicate that a new authority was renovating issue of the coins for extended circulation.

The first category of countermarks belongs to the reigns of Augustus and Tiberius which were proposed for the use of Roman troops occupied with battles, chiefly in Germany. These include imprinting countermarks in Latin characters such as AVG (Augustus), IMP (Imperator – Emperor).

Countermarks extended the period of circulation of old coins produced by the Rome mint mainly belonging to the early years of reign of Nero when no new copper coinage was being minted. The purpose of this was to withdraw those pieces which had become too worn out for continued use and to countermark coins which were still in good enough condition to remain in circulation for a few more years. A particularly interesting countermark of this period has been noted on a much worn *sestertius* (silver coins).

Vespasian, the ruler who eventually emerged victorious from the chaos of the civil wars and went on to found the Flavian dynasty also countermarked *dupondii* and *asses* of Nero with a monogram of his name. The same emperor was also responsible for a remarkable series of countermarks on silver coins of the Republic and early Empire, possibly applied at the Antioch mint. Being without the facilities to produce a regular coinage to publicize his regime in the early days of his revolt against Vitellius, he adopted the expedient of marking with the legend 'IMP VESP' on as many denarii as he could lay his hands on.

Countermarks were rarely applied on Roman coins after his period, but in the Roman Provincial ('Greek Imperial') series they occur quite frequently well into the 3<sup>rd</sup> century C.E., possibly even as late as the reign of Aurelian (270-75 C.E.).

Roman coins with countermarks are also noticed in many European sites. In Europe, during the Julio-Claudian period (Augustus to Nero) and up to the opening months of Vespasian's reign (69-79 C.E.), the practice of countermarking brass and copper coins was fairly common. The emperor Vespasian made countermarks on some of the Republican and early issues of imperial silver coins also. These countermarks, mostly in the form of short Latin legends, usually served one of the following three distinct purposes such as (i) to extend the area of circulation, (ii)to prolong life span of a coin, (iii) to indicate that the present authority was converting coin of his predecessors into his own.

### COUNTERMARKS FOUND IN INDIA

But the countermarks seen on the Roman coins in India are very different from those seen on the above coins in Europe. While the marks in Europe are mainly Latin legends, the majority of the marks in India are geometric designs, lines and dots. Again, in Europe, the marks are mainly seen on base metal and silver coins while in India the marks usually occur on silver and to a lesser extent, on gold coins also. Thus, one may conclude that the marks on the coins in India were made after they reached this land. The precise purpose or significance of these countermarks on the coins in India is not clear. The possibility of these marks being made to test the quality of the metal is ruled out because many of the marks are intricate floral or geometric designs. The countermarks may be bankers' marks or ownership marks. The necessity of stamping one's ownership mark would arise only on specific occasions when the coins (wealth) of different individuals are being handed over for safe custody to a single money-lender or banking institution. Significantly, early Indian epigraphs allude to such deposition of coins with corporate bodies.

Appearance of the countermarks on some of the Roman coins is another unusual characteristic of the Roman coin finds discovered in India. All the marks are generally small in size. The marks may be classified into two viz., 1. Geometrical figures, 2. Alphabets.

- Geometrical figures like dots, crescents, circles, lines, triangle and other shapes.
- Alphabets of the Latin and or Roman letters such as C, S, K, R, N, O, T etc. All the counter marks are usually very small in size, they appear mostly on the obverse side and in some cases in the reverse side also, while in some coins on both sides.

These countermarks were not strongly noticed by the earlier scholars and they simply discarded the appearance of these countermarks. Obviously, many coins belonging to the well documented hoards were often photographed and studied with countermarks. No special attention was made to the study of these indistinct countermarks. It is very difficult for a researcher to find the difference between the original counter marks and abrasions occurred by wear and tear. In some cases like worn silver coins, it has been very tricky to determine whether some of the minute lines, curves and dots are actually of countermarks or mere abrasions. Also the countermarks are sometimes partially obliterated by the slash marks.



Augustus Tiberius Silver coin, Vada Budhinatham Hoard, Tamilnadu (with distinct marks)

Five sites have yielded around 208 well documented countermarked coins in India. The details of the countermarked coins in Tamil Nadu are furnished below:

Site	District	Number of countermarked coins
Tamilnadu:		
Akhilandapuram	Coimbatore	3
Budhinatham	Coimbatore	200+
Koneripatti	Salem	3+
Pudukkottai	Pudukkottai	1
Madurai(?)	Madurai	1
Total		208+

Many of the countermarked issues occur in hoards and sometimes in stray finds. The largest and most interesting hoard containing countermarked coins is the one found at Budhinatham (also called Vada Budhinatham) Udumalpet Taluk, erstwhile Coimbatore District (Presently of Tirupur District) in February, 1946. The hoard consisted of 1408 denarii silver coins. A few of these coins are having the countermarks such as Latin /Roman letters, legends, and geometrical marks. The hoard is now in the coin cabinets of Government Museum, Madras (Chennai). A detailed catalogue with study of the countermarks of this hoard has been released by Government of Museum, Chennai on 2nd February, 2011.

### **IMITATION COINS**

From nearly 30 sites, forged imitations of Roman coins have been reported and all are restricted to specific regions of western and southern India. It is believed that a few more published finds also contain imitations that were never identified and recorded. The counterfeit occur in gold, silver, copper and lead. The copper imitations, though limited to the smallest number of sites, are the most abundant.

The common types of Augustus and Tiberius are the earliest known imitations in India. The silver copies of gold imitations of the Julio-Claudian period are extremely rare. The imitations of the late first and the second centuries C.E. are, however, all of gold and they represent a wide range of types and varieties. The copper counterfeits are mostly of the fourth-fifth centuries C.E. and they often occur in association with the genuine late Roman and Byzantine copper coins at Madurai and Karur in Tamil Nadu.

Many of the known Roman imitation issues in India seem to have been die-struck like the genuine Roman coins. The existence of a possible die-link between the various fake coins of the Gumada hoard (Andhra) has also been suggested. It is also observed that a few imitations were produced by the casting method also.

It would now be relevant to note a few important characteristics pertaining to the gold and silver Roman imitations in India. Taking first the silver imitations, it may be said that all the known denarii reproduction belong to the first century C.E. and are almost alike to the original ones in dimension, thickness, weight and the purity and colour of the metal. Apparently, the maker of the imitations has tried his level best to duplicate all the features of the original coins on the reproduction. But he was incapable of correctly reading the legends on the genuine coins and these account for the few inaccuracies in the legend on the reproduction. The main point of difference, between the genuine and the reproduction denarii, however, is that the figures and features of art are less when compared with original ones. The cause for this may again be exactly due to the fact that the manufacturers of these imitations, being unaware of Roman mythology and art, would have, not surprisingly, portrayed the Roman rulers and divinities in a comparatively crude fashion.

The general features of the Roman imitation gold coins in India are a striking contrast to those of the denarii copies in this country. Unlike the silver imitations, at least a few of the gold copies in India are totally different from the original Roman gold coins in size, fabric and weight. It is also pertinent to note that although the legends of both the gold and silver imitations are jumbled, the legends on the denarii copies can at least be read and understood and can be matched with the legends on the corresponding actual denarii. But in the case of majority of the gold imitations, the legends on them hardly convey any meaning and hence cannot be unequivocally matched with the legends on any of the original Roman issues. This is most startlingly illustrated in the imitation aurei where the obverse legends consist of mere tiny horizontal strokes and circles or dots which have been engraved merely to indicate the presence of 'legends' which do not convey any meaning whatsoever. Again, unlike the denarii duplicates the gold imitations often exhibit known obverse and reverse types but in 'impossible' amalgamation. For instance, an imitation aureus exposed in South India, bears an obverse type of Septimius Severus (193-211 C.E.) and a reverse type of Marcus Aurelius (161-180 C.E.).

The gold imitations are more widespread, compared to the silver replicas. Yet again, while all the denarii duplications in India are of the first century C.E., the gold copies range in date from the first century C.E.to the fourth century C.E. and even afterwards. Surprisingly, the stylistic features and the artistic significance of all the known silver duplication are almost indistinguishable whereas the gold copies, belonging to varied periods and regions, exhibit wide disparities in style.

One is able to observe a direct connection between the artistic merit of the Indian imitations and that of the corresponding genuine Roman gold and silver issues. For instance, we know that the original Roman gold coins were artistically of a higher standard than the genuine denarii. The known gold copies are also certainly of a superior level of artistic workmanship than the denarii copies. Similarly, it is well-known that compared to the obverse, the reverse motifs on the genuine Roman coins are treated with less care by the minter because a mediocre standard of technical achievement was considered sufficient for the reverse themes and hence, the reverse figures and devices are generally not as aesthetically appealing as the royal bust on the obverse. The same phenomenon is discernible in the case of the Indian imitations too. Also, the makers of the imitations always reproduced complete or full obverse or reverse types on the copies and did not, under any circumstances, add or alter the decorative features and or attributes pertaining to any of the figures appearing on the genuine coins.

Coming to the copper imitations, these form a distinct group. The dumpy figures on the worn tiny copper copies are often partially out of the flan (blank metal piece). In many instances, the copper copies are strikingly similar to their genuine counterparts. Hence, it is very difficult to distinguish the fake copper copies from the original copper coins.

All the Roman imitation coins in India, whether in gold, silver or copper, appear to have been manufactured in India. The Roman coins were circulated as money in certain parts of South India and whenever there was a deficit in the supply of the original coins from the West, fakes were produced. Interestingly, many of these reproduction coins like the real Roman coins found in India are attributed with slashmarks and countermarks.

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR AUGUSTUS 27 B.C.E. – 14 C.E.





OBVERSE: ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND: CAESAR AVGVSTVS DIVI F PATER PATRIAE REVERSE: GAIUS AND LUCIUS CAESARS VEILED, STANDING ON LEFT AND RIGHT RESPECTIVELY; SHIELDS SPEARS BETWEEN THEM. EACH RESTS A HAND ON ONE OF THE TWO SHIELDS THAT STAND UPRIGHT ON THE GROUND. THE SPEARS ARE BEHIND THE SHIELDS. THE BUTTS OF THE SPEARS ARE POINTING UPWARDS. BETWEEN THE BUTTS, SIMPULUM AND LITUUS LEGEND: C. L. CAESARES AVGVSTI F COS DESIGN PRINC IVVENT

METAL

SILVER

PERIOD

LOCATION

27 B.C.E. TO 14 C.E.

VADA BUDHINATHAM UDUMALPET TALUK COIMBATORE DISTRICT TAMILNADU

47

FOREIGN COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAI (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)

# COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR TIBERIUS 14 - 37 C.E.



(Boo)

OBVERSE : ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND: TICAESAR DIVI AVGF AVGVSTVS REVERSE: LIVIYA SEATED ON THE CHAIR, LEGEND: PONTIF MAXIM

METAL

SILVER

PERIOD

14 C.E. TO 37 C.E.

LOCATION

VADA BUDHINATHAM UDUMALPET TALUK COIMBATORE DISTRICT TAMILNADU

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR AUGUSTUS 27 B.C.E. – 14 C.E.





OBVERSE: ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND: CAESAR AVGVSTVS DIVI F PATER PATRIAE REVERSE: GAIUS AND LUCIUS CAESARS VEILED, STANDING ON LEFT AND RIGHT RESPECTIVELY; SHIELDS SPEARS BETWEEN THEM. EACH RESTS A HAND ON ONE OF THE TWO SHIELDS THAT STAND UPRIGHT ON THE GROUND. THE SPEARS ARE BEHIND THE SHIELDS. THE BUTTS OF THE SPEARS ARE POINTING UPWARDS. BETWEEN THE BUTTS, SIMPULUM AND LITUUS LEGEND: C. L. CAESARES AVGVSTI F COS DESIGN PRINC IVVENT

Metal

Gold

Coin No:204

Period

27 B.C.E. TO 14 C.E.

FOREIGN OHNS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR TIBERIUS 14-37 C.E.



### OBVERSE : ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND: TICAESAR DIVI AVGF AVGVSTVS CHAIR, LEGEND: PONTIF MAXIM

**REVERSE: LIVIYA SEATED ON THE** 

Metal

Gold

Period

14 B.C.E. TO 37 C.E.

Coin No: 169 / 175

- LET COLLECT FOR STREET S

FOREIGN CORNS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAI (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR CLAUDIUS



OBVERSE: ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND: TI CLAUD CAESAR. AVG.P.M.TR.P. X.IMP.P.P REVERSE: NEMESIS ADVANCING RIGHT, DRAWING OUT FOLD OF DRESS AT NECK, HOLDING CADUCEUS OVER SERPENT ADVANCING RIGHT BEFORE HER LEGEND: PACI AVGVSTAE

COIN NO: 144

Metal :Gold

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR NERO

54-68 CE



OBVERSE : ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND: NERO CAESAR AVGVSTVS

REVERSE: CONCORDIA SEATED

Metal :Gold

C.NO:155

FOREIGN CORNS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAI (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR NERO 54-68 CE



OBVERSE:NERO AND HIS MOTHER AGRIPPINA

LEGEND:AGRIPP AVG DIVI CLAVD NERONIS CAES MATER

C.no:116, Find spot: Nandyal ,Andhra Pradesh

REVERSE:OAK WREATH

LEGEND: EX S C WITHIN WREATH, NERONI CLAVD DIVI F CAES AVG GERM IMP TR P AROUND WREATH

Metal :Gold

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR NERO



**OBVERSE : ROYAL BUST LEFT** 

LEGEND : DIVVS CLAVDIVS AVGVSTVS

54-68 CE



REVERSE: CAR DRAWN BY FOUR HORSES

LEGEND: E X S C

C.no:385/117, Find spot: Nandyal, Andhra Pradesh

Metal :Gold

FOREIGN COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSELM, CHENNAL CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS

COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR VESPASIAN 69-79 C.F.



### OBVERSE : ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT

LEGEND T CAESAR IMP VESPASIANVS



REVERSE : COW (THE HEIFER OF MYRON) TO RIGHT

LEGEND: COS V

Accn .No. 822, Find spot: Kadmat Island, Lakshadweep

Metal :Gold

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR DOMITIAN 81-96 CE



OBVERSE : ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT REVERSE : GERMANIA SEATED LEGEND : DOMITIANVS AVGVSTVS

LEGEND : GERMANICVS COS XIIII

C.No: 146

Metal: Gold

FOREIGN COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR DOMITIAN 81-96 CE



OBVERSE :ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND :DOMITIANVS AVGVSTVS

C.No.324, Find spot: Nandyal, Andhra Pradesh



REVERSE : MINERVA STANDING LEFT, ROUND SHIELD BEHIND HER, HOLDING THUNDERBOLT IN RIGHT HAND AND SPEAR IN LEFT HAND

LEGEND : GERMANICVS COS XVII

Metal: Gold

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR DOMITIAN 81-96 CE



OBVERSE :ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND :CAES DOMIT COS II

C.No:145



**REVERSE** : HORSE MAN

Metal :Gold

FOREIGN COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAI (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR NERVA 96-98 CE



LEGEND : IMP NERVA CAES AVG GERM P M TR P II

Accn. No : 385/143

Metal :Gold

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR HADRIAN 117-138 c.e.

LEGEND : AVGVSTUS HADRIANVS

C.No: 156

Find spot :Karivalam Vandha Nallur, Tirunelveli, Tamil Nadu

Metal :Gold







**OBVERSE : ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT** 

LEGEND: COS III

**REVERSE: HORSE MAN TO RIGHT** 

LEGEND: IMP II COS IIII P P

55

FOREIGN CORNS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)

### COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR ANTONINUS PIUS 138 - 161 C.E.



OBVERSE : ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND : IMP TAELCAESR RI ANTONINUS



REVERSE : PIETAS STANDING RIGHT BEFORE AN ALTAR, RAISING RIGHT HAND & HOLDING BOX OF INCENSE IN LEFT

LEGEND-AVGFIVS IVS PA TR.P.COS DES II

Accn .No. 822 Find spot: Kadmat Island, Lakshadweep

Metal :Gold

### COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR ANTONINUS PIUS 138-161 C.E.



OBVERSE: ROYAL BUST TO RIGHT LEGEND: IMP CAES T AEL HADR ANTONINVS AVG PIVS P P



REVERSE: EMPEROR STANDING LEFT AND HOLDING GLOBE

LEGEND: TR POT X V COS IIII,

Accn .No. 822 ,Find spot: Kadmat Island, Lakshadweep

## COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR ANTONINUS PIUS 138-161 C.E.



LEGEND :ANTONINVS AVG PIVS P P IMP II REVERSE: VICTORY TO LEFT, HOLDING WREATH AND PALM

LEGEND: TR POT X X COS IIII

Accn .No. 822 Find spot: Kadmat Island, Lakshadweep

Metal: Gold





#### FOREIGN COINS IN THE COLLECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAI (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)



Dr. T.S. Sridhar I.A.S., Principal Secretary / Commissioner of Museums Inspecting a Roman Coin of Budhinatham hoard

### VENETIAN COINS

### Introduction

The Venetian coins occur in considerable quantity in Tamil Nadu. The Venetian coins find spots are listed below:

1.	Perambur village, Kulathur Taluk, Tiruchirapalli District	-	l coin.
2.	Pallapalayam village, Karur Taluk, Tiruchirapalli District	-	2 coins.
3.	Musiri Taluk, Tiruchirapalli District	-	l coin.
4.	Vadugapalayam village, Pollachi Taluk, Coimbatore District	_	2 coins.
5.	Thathamangalam village, Lalgudi Taluk, Trichirapalli District	-	2 coins.
6.	Kunnathur, Erode Taluk, Coimbatore District	-	4 coins.
7.	Pavithram village, Namakkal taluk, Salem District	-	120 coins
8.	Kanjampatti village, Coimbatore District	_	l coin.

The gold coins of Venice were originally known as "ducats", and later as "Seqnins" The name "ducat" came presumably from the word *ducats* found in the legend on the coins, a legend which was adopted from the silver ducats issued first in 1140 by Roger II (1130-54 C.E.) of Sicily. The obverse of Venetian Coins have, in a dotted circle, St. Mark handing over a "Gonfalon" (flagstaff) to the kneeling Doge (elected ruler - Duke). The Latin legend mentions the name of the Doge (Duke) and "S.M. Venet" inscribed along the rim. The reverse has, within a dotted circle, image of Standing Christ surrounded by stars inside an Oval. The legend in Latin was inscribed along the rim like that of the obverse.

During its entire coinage (between 1280 and 1797 C.E.) the design of the coin has continued unchanged except for the name of the Doge - Dukes. This is perhaps a world record.

It is a well-known fact that the Syrian Christian Women of Malabar created a huge demand for the Ducats since the image of Christ and St. Mark were portrayed on them.

The Reasons for use of Ducats as Jewellery and its Popularity

- (i) The purity of gold was assured;
- (ii) The weight (3.4 gms) tallied with the existing standard of Vijayanagar Varaha;
- (iii) It was suitable for making excellent jewellery item due to its thinness and broad flange;

- (iv) In the middle ages, due to political uncertainties where coins of the previous rulers suffered discounts, coins of a neutral nation were preferred;
- (v) The design has remained unvarying for five centuries; and
- (vi) There is flexibility in having pendants made of Ducats as household savings since additions or deletions (depending on the financial position of the household) can be made.

### Harbours of Vijayanagar Empire

- 1. Honavar was one of the chief sea-ports of the western coast of the Vijayanagara Empire. The export items were coconut oil, rice and other products.
- 2. Bhatkal was the important sea-port of the Vijayanagar empire. Moors settled there to look after commercial activities. Sugar, pepper, and perfumes were important export items from this sea-port.
- 3. Mangalore is one of the important sea-ports located on the western coast.
- 4. Kollam was annexed by Krishnadeva Raya Emperor of the Vijayanagar. Moors and Christians settled here to promote commercial activities. A number of pepper godowns were found here.
- 5. Kayal was under the control of Kollam King, it was annexed by Krishnadeva Raya in 1514 C.E. Precious stones and pearls were significant export commodities of this port.
- 6. Nagapattinam was the best sea-port situated on the Coromandel Coast. Perfumes and medicines were imported from China and Malayan Peninsula.
- 7. Mylapore was the newly developed port city. This port was very convenient for the foreign tourists to reach South India.
- 8. Pulicat was one the best sea-ports of the Coromandel Coast. Precious Stone, Stones inlaid jewellery and printed clothes served as major export items.

The golden period of Sangam Age provided facilities to the Roman maritime traders. Similarly, Vijayanagara Empire offered opportunities to the Venetian merchants. Mangalore, Honavar, Goa, (Karnataka) Kollam, Kayal (Kerala), Nagapattinam, Mylapore, Pulicat (Tamil Nadu) served as important South Indian port cites of that time.

### KNOWLEDGE AMONG ITALIANS ABOUT INDIAN GEOGRAPHY IN THE 15<sup>TH</sup> – 17<sup>TH</sup> CENTURIES C.E.

In Italy, as well as in Europe, in the  $15^{\text{th}}$  and  $16^{\text{th}}$  centuries C.E., -- notwithstanding the fact that from many points of view it was still clinging fast to the Ptolemaic system – the art of cartography received great momentum and was enriched by plentiful documentation, on account of the influence exerted by the fresh knowledge acquired as a result of the travels of Marco Polo in Asia.

The material drawn from the works of Marco Polo was turned to the greatest advantage in all the Italian geographical maps of the 15<sup>th</sup> century C.E

The works of the missionaries and travellers in the centuries that followed proved to be of notable importance in relation to geographical knowledge; in short, they served to confirm the trustworthy information supplied by Marco Polo, and at the same time to enrich the art of cartography with new data and concepts.

### HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES

The Italian merchants during the time of Roman rule came to India in search of pepper and spices, gemstones, ivory etc. This commercial contact gradually declined due to the down fall of the Roman Empire. This maritime trade relationship with India lasted four centuries beginning from the 1<sup>st</sup> Century C.E. and emergence of City States like Venice, but by the 11th century C.E., many cities, including Venice, Milan, Florence, Lucca, Pisa, Siena, Genoa, Cremona and others had become large trading metropolises. In the 14<sup>th</sup> Century C.E., Venice and Florence were two hubs of power and wealth that became the cradle of the Renaissance. Ship building was the primary industry in Venice. Venetian ships provided transportation to the Holy Land during the Crusades. Venice was the most prosperous city in Europe by the 13th century C.E. The city of Venice became rich by collecting taxes on all exports and imports brought into the harbour. To protect the valuable cargo of its commercial ships from pirate attacks, Venice built huge warships. With the vast wealth accumulated from trade, many of the leading families of Venice began to build the finest palaces or to patronize the work of the greatest artists.

Florence, the "city of flowers," was located in the hill country of north-central Italy. It prospered because of the wool industry. Sheep were raised in the rock hill country of central Italy, and Florence was a centre of wool processing. During most of the Renaissance, wealthy merchants dominated Florence. The merchants competed with one another by building grand palaces for themselves. The merchants were patrons of the arts.

The Renaissance period gave importance to free trade, promotion of Roman art and literature. Travelogues of Italian travelers such as Marco Polo, Nicolo dei Conti , Manucci opened a new era in seaborne trade and discovered new sea routes to India. In order to avoid

Arab middlemen, city states like Venice ventured in maritime trade which was known to them even in 1<sup>st</sup> Century C.E.

### ITALIAN TRADERS AND TRAVELLERS IN INDIA

In Classical times, Asia and the Mediterranean West had been linked by flourishing trade; later, however, the collapse of the Roman Empire, the rise of Islamic power, the decline of Byzantine Empire and the increasing weakness of the Chinese dynasties had created challenging obstacles between Europe and the Far East. Trade routes could become unsafe, because of the movement of entire peoples, invasions and struggles for power; as a result, trade exchange was mainly interrupted and commercial contacts had practically come to an end. Suddenly, the face of Asia was changed by a great event: the Mongol invasion. Under their empire, trade routes became safe for travel once again and new routes were also opened.

The merchants were the first to follow these trade routes and to reveal East and West to one another, since, along with their goods, they carried their own culture to the nations they visited; and on returning home brought with them the knowledge of all they had seen and heard.

There were many Italians – often the most active of all – among the European merchants who ventured along the various trade routes. They set out to reach a certain destination; then, fascinated by the lands they crossed, they settled down in them for a long period of time, or else pushed on even farther than had originally been planned. At times, they lost all they owned in the ups and the downs of commerce, and had to begin their trading all over again, returning constantly to places they had visited and could no longer forget.

Merchants were not attracted to India simply by the profit to be earned in the trade of spices and precious stones; sometimes, for their own commercial interests and often sharing the adventures and new experience of the travel.

The Italian merchants, travellers and adventurers in India were in the service of powerful employers, but their actions cannot merely be explained by the hope of wealth and honours; they rarely got rich from their adventures, on the contrary, they often had to tolerate hunger and thirst, heat and cold and many other kinds of discomfort. Certainly, they were really seeking something else, something of a spiritual nature, expressed in the words of one of them, Ludovico de Varthema: 'I determined, personally, and with my own eyes, to endeavour to ascertain the situations of places, the qualities of peoples, the diversities of animals, the varieties of the fruitbearing and odoriferous trees of India, remembering well that the testimony of one eye-witness is worth more than ten hear-says'.

As eye-witnesses, these men helped to spread knowledge of India throughout Italy and Europe. Their descriptions were read, translated and pondered on; and the fantastic images of the ancient world were replaced by definite data and precise information, which served as the basis for later travels and research. So this literature is of great importance. It is really scientific
contribution, rich in geographical, naturalistic, ethnographic and linguistic observations that sometimes anticipate modern studies.

But rather than in description and information, it is perhaps in certain reflections on the religion of the Indian peoples that the Italian travelers expressed their best qualities. Here, in fact, we often come across the respect, admiration and human sympathy that are only to be found in a mind that is well-intentioned and serene.

### NICOLO DEI CONTI

Nicolo dei Conti was born in Chioggia (Venice) about 1395. A tireless traveller, he followed the roads and routes of the East from Baghdad to Indo-China for 25 years, from 1414 to 1439 C.E. He reached India by crossing the Persian Gulf and stayed there for a long time, constantly on the move, not only along the coast – as Marco Polo and the other travellers before his time had done – but also inland.

He visited the coast of Malabar and Deccan, then the Coromandel Coast and Madras; he reached the delta of the Ganges and travelled further in the river, on his return journey from Sumatra; later, he returned to Malabar and travelled again for some time along the western coast of Deccan, Gujarat and then Malabar for second time.

In 1439 C.E. he went back to Venice and dictated his travel accounts to Poggio Bracciolini (1380-1459), a well-known literary person of that period; Nicolo passed away in 1469 C.E.

In spite of Bracciolini's flowery style, Nicolo's accounts were as of then the best explanation of India and its people. They mention customs that were almost unknown such as polyandry and matrilineal descent (Nayar), funeral customs and traditions (already attested by Marco Polo) and ceremonies of various kinds. They also describe the religious life of the peoples he met during his travels, as well as the products, flora and fauna of those places. Lastly, Nicolo notes the presence of the Nestorians all over India and documents the use of circulation of Venetian ducats in South India.

### LUDOVICO DE VARTHEMA

In the second half of the 15<sup>th</sup> century Ludovico de Varthema was born in Bologna, as a son of a doctor. He sailed from Venice about 1500 C.E., and stopped for some time in the Arab countries before reaching India through the Strait of Hormuz. He travelled in India from 1505 C.E. to 1507 C.E, went to Burma and Thailand, and eventually as far as Indonesia. He was forced by necessity to serve the Portuguese, but his constant and only urge was for knowledge and experience, desires so characteristic of the Renaissance man. He died in Rome in 1517 C.E.

His travelogues are contained in the Itinerario first printed in Rome in 1510 C.E. They describe the religion, life and customs of the nations he had visited; three Books are dedicated to India, and contain important social, economic and even military information about the cities and regions he travelled through.

#### **GIOVANNI DA EMPOLI**

Giovanni da Empoli was born on October 27<sup>th</sup> 1483, into a family of Florentine merchants. His whole life was dedicated to trade, travelling and adventure, and in fact ended prematurely in a country far from his own. He left his own city very young to go to Bruges (Belgium), to work for certain Florentine traders; as he showed so much commercial ability that he was sent as early as 1503 C.E to Calicut as their representative. This journey was so successful that he was soon sent to the East again, and he went to Cannanore, Goa and Cochin; but his time he went even beyond, to a place described as Malacca, a new country where no one had ever navigated (1509).

He returned to Lisbon in 1514 C.E., and he took sailed again in 1515 C.E, this time assigned with a commercial mission by the King of Portugal for Sumatra. After facing much destitution during the voyage, he set out for China, where he died in 1517 due to an epidemic that broke out on his ship.

His notes on his travels are collected in letters in which we find much information about the life and customs of the places and peoples he visited. Special attention is naturally paid to commercial matters in these letters, as can be seen from the following excerpt: In the land of Indian, called Melibar, the province extending from Goa as far as Cavo Comedis furnishes pepper and ginger, the worth of which you have already heard tell of. Going beyond Cavo Comedi, you meet Gentiles, and between it and Gael is where pearl-fishing takes place; and nearby lies the body of the Apostle St. Thomas. Moving ahead between land and Sea, there is the island of Zolan where cinnamon, sapphires and oriental rubies available in great abundance:

### FILIPPO SASSETTI

Filippo Sassetti was born in Florence in 1540 C.E. He was a man letters and took an active part in the cultural life of his time, but he was above all a merchant and traveller. In 1578 C.E. he set out for the Iberian Peninsula, where he was the agent for several Florentine firms in Lisbon and Seville. But he was not satisfied with his life there, and tried to find work that would let him go to India.

He finally sailed for India in 1582 C.E., as supervisor of the pepper trade on the Malabar coast, but with other tasks as well, given him by the Medici family and the Florentine aristocracy; however, the many troubles met with during the voyage forced him to return to Europe. He tried again in April, 1583, and arrived in Cochin on November 9<sup>th</sup> of the year, after a

hard trip which is mentioned in one of his letters: The truth is, that if one really thought long and hard about this trip before taking ship, about how one has to live for seven months on biscuits and stale water, jammed into a small space with eight or nine hundred other people, weak with hunger, thirst and hardship, and with bad treatment to top it off; well, in that case no one or almost no one, would still insist on seeing India at the cost of so much hardship.

Sassetti remained in Cochin, and also went to Goa, where he died in 1588.

He gives information about Indian science (particularly in the field of medicine and astrology) along with many details about customs, religious attitudes and customs and public institutions. They also offer as well the very first comparison between Sanskrit and a European language (Italian), preceding by two centuries W. Jones' research on the relationships for the Indo-European languages.

#### GASPRO BALBI

Gasparo Balbi was born in Venice about 1550 C.E. He was also a jeweler and he too, like Federici, soon left for East to trade. He first reached in Aleppo (Syria) and then came to India in 1579 C.E; after staying in Diu, Goa, Ceylon and Mylapore, he travelled to Burma. On his way back, he passed through Cochin and resided there seven months (1586), lastly reached Venice in 1588 C.E.

Almost nothing more is known about him after that date. Certain documents suggest that in 1590 C.E. he was getting ready for an additional voyage to India, but we do not know if that trip ever took place. He died between 1621 and 1625 C.E.

The account of his voyage was published in Venice in 1950. It is like a detailed diary, in which Balbi cautiously records historical events, customs and traditions relating to various peoples, business information and geographical data of great importance. In particular, he gives a precise account of some of the coins in circulation in Goa, Cochin and Negapatan (presently by Nagappattinam).

#### FRANCESCO CARLETTI

Francesco Carletti was born in Florence into an old merchant family; he soon started the courageous life of trade, and took ship for the Americas as early as 1594 C.E., hoping to increase the family luck through commerce across the ocean. The trip continued for a long time. During the course of this *immensa pellegrinatione*, this endless wandering, he visited Panama, Peru, Mexico, the Philippines, Macao, and a Malacca; in 1599 C.E. he reached Goa. He stayed there for 21 months trading and came into contact with Indian merchants whom he later remembered with respect in his memoirs: "I also know, thanks to my long experience with this kind of men, that in dealing with them one finds a marvelous observance of reality and trust in all their

actions; they are highly intelligent buyers and sellers, and above all, men who keep their word and fulfill their promises". He left Goa at the end of 1601 C.E., and returned to Florence in 1606 C.E., after many hardships; there he entered the service of Ferdinando dei Medici, Grand Duke of Tuscany. He died in 1636 C.E.

His travel chronicles are restricted in his Ragionamenti; originally an account delivered to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and was published for the first time in 1701. In the Ragionamenti dedicated to India, Carletti discusses about the society, customs and way of life, the crop and the vegetations he observed, and gives a long discussion on the people of Goa.

### PIETRO DELLA VALLE

Pietro Della Valle was born into a noble family in Rome in 1586 C.E. After spending his youth in an unprofitable search for fame and glory through literary activity and military exploits, he finally sailed from Venice in 1614, with the aim of reaching Palestine and then Turkey and Persia. This voyage may well have had a political tinge, but it was basically his own innate restlessness that led this Italian traveller to race through the world and to broaden his own spiritual horizons with the acquisition of a precious treasure of information about the outer world. The truth of this sentiment is shown by the length of the voyages themselves (12 years), the sharpness of his observations on what he saw and the interest he showed in the culture of the nations he visited, often leading him to learn their language.

In 1622, he came to India from Hormuz. Moving from the gulf of Cambay south along the western coast, he touched successively Ahmedabad, Surat, Daman, Bassein, Chaul and Goa, where he resided for a long time; later, he extended his voyage along the Malabar coast towards Mangalore and Calicut.

His travel memoirs, which contain details about the social customs, religious practices and beliefs and temples of the cities he visited, are based on the letters he wrote from the countries he travelled. The first edition of the Viaggi was printed in Rome in 1590 C.E., but the part referring to India was published only after his death in 1663.

# GIOVANNI FRANCESCO GEMELLI CARERI

Giovanni Francesco Gemelli Careri was born in Calabria in 1651 C.E. After filling some posts in the administration of the viceroyalty of Naples, he travelled around Europe and fought against the Turks. In 1693 C.E., hoping to gain fame and fortune through some exceptional feat, he embarked on a voyage around the world. He left from Naples and visited Egypt, Armenia, Persia, India, China, Philippines and Mexico, returning home in 1698. He died in Naples in 1725 C.E. His travel recollections fill a large set of six volumes, entitled, "Giro del mondo", respectively dedicated to the following countries: Turkey, Persia, Hindustan, China, the Philippine Islands and New Spain. The Giro del mondo which was printed for the first time in Naples in 1699-1700 C.E. had great success in Italy and was translated into French, English and German.

# THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE ITALIAN MISSIONARIES TO TAMIL LANGUAGE

The Italian missionaries, who went to India from the 14<sup>th</sup> century onwards, contributed a great deal to Italian knowledge of that country, from many points of view: geographic, ethnological, linguistic, historical, that of religious and philosophical thought, of science and of art. Their accounts, the letters they sent from India, the printed books published from their writing to form an important collection of news and data which once again made Italy aware of the Indian subcontinent, above all after the long mediaeval period during which the countries of the East had become obscured by legends of fantastic monsters.

The Itinerarium Orientale, of Father Odorico da Pordenone, which for the first time mentions Indian religion, philosophy, linguistics and geography that show what a deep interest these men had in the peoples with whom they came into contact. This interest led them to learn the languages, the religious and philosophical thought, and way of life of the Indian peoples and very often kept many missionaries busy trying to adapt to local customs and traditions.

Father Roberto De Nobili lived in a hermitage for a long time, according to the custom of the sannyasin, devoting himself to the study of Indian philosophical texts and reaching in fairly short time a thorough knowledge of Indian thought and of the Sanskrit and Tamil tongues.

Father Giuseppe Constantino Beschi's works in Tamil are considered among the classics of Tamil literature.

# **ROBERTO DE NOBILI**

Roberto de Nobili, a commanding missionary figure, born in Montepulciano in 1577, arrived in South India in 1605 C.E. and stayed there for forty years. He died in Mylapore in 1656.

A scholar and profile writer, he evinced a deep interest in Indian philosophy and rapidly acquired a profound knowledge of Indian thought.

From the very start of his stay in India, he became convinced that in order to overcome the mistrustful attitude of the Indians towards foreigners in general, and to come nearer to the Indian peoples through direct and open—hearted contacts, it was necessary to get to know deeply and accept partly their culture, their traditions, their beliefs, going so far as to live their way of life. This programme of adjustment to the culture of India led him to wear the orange — coloured tunic of the *sannyasin*, to feed only on rice, milk and fruit, to follow the rule of life of the *yogin*. For about one year he lived the life of a recluse, delving deep in the Indian texts and perfecting his knowledge beginning with the Vedas, thus obtaining a thorough mastery of the Sanskrit and Tamil languages.

The way of life he had adopted opened to him the gates of the Tamilians and his vast culture enabled him to discuss with them religious and philosophical problems.

The uncompromising orthodoxy of his colleagues, however, inflicted on him the charge of heresy, from which he was forced to justify himself, by writing his Apologia.

From the pages of this book it is possible to draw out, be it in a fragmentary way, the first accurate and precise exposition of Hinduism ever written in Europe.

Among his other major works, we shall mention:

- Gnanobadesam (Spiritual Teaching), Madras 1891;
- Attuma Nirunayam (Disquisition on the Soul), Madras 1889;
- Agnana Nivaranam (Dispeling of Ignorance), Trichinopoly 1891;
- Tivviya Mathirikei (Divya madrighai) (The Divine Model), Pondichery 1870;
- Anittia Nittia Vittiasam, Pondicherry 1903;

# TAMIL TERMINOLOGIES IN LATIN (ITALIAN)

Since the first-second century C.E., words of Indian provenance, particularly for Tamil Nadu, already abound in both Latin and Greek. These are names of the peculiar products of Tamilnadu, vegetables and minerals listed below:

Tamil Terminology	Latin	Italian
Inji, inji ver	Gingiber	Zinziber
Karpuram	Camphora	Canfora
Sandanam	Santalum	Sandalo
Arisi	Oryza	Riso

Tamil gave a few terminologies to the Latin world in the beginning of the 1<sup>st</sup> Century C.E. In turn, many Italian scholars like Father Robert de Nobili, Constantio Joseph Beschi served for the improvement of Tamil language and literature later.

List of Doges (DUKES) of the Venice is given below:-

DOGES (DUKES) OF VENICE	Fromto	DOGE n°
Paoluccio ANAFESTO	697-717	1
Marcello TEGALLIANO	717-726	2
Orso IPATO	726-737	3
MaestrideiCavalletiDomenicoLEONE(737)FeliceCORNICOLA(738)TeodatoIPATO(739-740)GiulianoIPATO(741)Giovanni FABRICIANO(742)	737-742	*
Teodato IPATO	742-755	4
Galla GAULO	755-756	5
Domenico MONEGARIO	756-764	6
Maurizio GALBAJO	764-787	7

.

Giovanni GALBAJO	787-804	8
Obelerio ANTENOREO	804-809	9
Angelo PARTECIPATIO	809-827	10
Giustiniano PARTECIPATIO	827-829	11
Giovanni I° PARTECIPATIO	829-836	12
Pietro TRADONICO	836-864	13
Orso I° PARTECIPATIO	864-881	14
Giovanni II° PARTECIPATIO	881-887	15
Pietro Iº CANDIANO	887	16
Pietro TRIBUNO	888-912	17
Orso II° PARTECIPATIO	912-932	18
Pietro II° CANDIANO	932-939	19
Pietro PARTECIPATIO	939-942	20
Pietro IIIº CANDIANO	942-959	21
Pietro IV° CANDIANO	959-976	22
Pietro I° ORSEOLO	976-978	23
Vitale CANDIANO	978-979	24
Tribuno MEMMO	979-991	25
Pietro II° ORSEOLO	991-1008	26
Ottone ORSEOLO	1008-1026	27
Pietro CENTRANIGO	1026-1032	28
Domenico FLABANICO	1032-1042	29
DSomenico CONTARINI	1042-1070	30
Domenico SELVO	1070-1084	31
Vitale FALIERO	1084-1096	32
Vitale I° MICHIEL	1096-1102	33
Ordelafo FALIERO	1102-1116	34
Domenico MICHIEL	1117-1129	35
Pietro POLANI	1130-1148	36

Domenico MOROSINI	1148-1155	37
DOGES (DUKES) OF VENICE	Fromto	DOGE n°
Michiel VITALE II°	1156-1172	38
Sebastiano ZIANI	1172-1178	39
Orio MALIPIERO O MASTROPIERO	1178-1192	40
Enrico DANDOLO	1192-1205	41
Pietro ZIANI	1205-1229	42
Jacopo TIEPOLO	1229-1249	43
Marino MOROSINI	1249-1253	44
Ranieri ZENO	1253-1268	45
Lorenzo TIEPOLO	1268-1275	46
Jacopo CONTARINI	1275-1280	47
DOGES (DUKES) OF VENICE	Fromto	DOGE n°
Giovanni DANDOLO	1280-1289	48
Pietro GRADENIGO	1289-1311	49
Marino ZORZI	1311-1312	50
Giovanni SORANZO	1312-1327	51
Francesco DANDOLO	1328-1339	52
Bartolomeo GRADENIGO	1339-1342	53
Andrea DANDOLO	1342-1354	54
Marin FALIERO	1354-1355	55
Giovanni GRADENIGO	1355-1356	56
Giovanni DOLFIN	1356-1361	57
Lorenzo CELSI	1361-1365	58
Marco CORNARO	1365-1368	59
Andrea CONTARINI	1368-1382	60
Michele MOROSINI	1382	61
Antonio VENIER	1382-1400	62
Michele STENO	1400-1413	63

Tommaso MOCENIGO	1 <b>414-1423</b>	64
Francesco FOSCARI	1423-1457	65
Pasquale MALIPIERO	1457-1462	66
Cristoforo MORO	1462-1471	67
Nicolo' TRON	1471-1473	68
Nicolo' MARCELLO	1473-1474	69
Pietro MOCENIGO	1474-1476	70
Andrea VENDRAMIN	1476-1478	<b>7</b> 1
Giovanni MOCENIGO	1478-1485	72
Marco BARBARIGO	1485-1486	73
Agostino BARBARIGO	1486-1501	74
Leonardo LOREDAN	1501-1521	75
Antonio GRIMANI	1521-1523	76
Andrea GRITTI	1523-1538	77
Pietro LANDO	1539-1545	78
Francesco DONATO	1545-1553	79
Marcantonio TREVISAN	1553-1554	80
Francesco VENIER	1554-1556	81
Lorenzo PRIULI	1556-1559	82
Girolamo PRIULI	1559-1567	83
Pietro LOREDAN	1567-1570	84
Alvise Iº MOCENIGO	1570-1577	85
Sebastiano VENIER	1577-1578	86
Nicolo' DA PONTE	1578-1585	87
Pasquale CICOGNA	1585-1595	88
Marino GRIMANI	1595-1605	89
Leonardo DONATO	1606-1612	90
Marcantonio MEMMO	1612-1615	91
Giovanni BEMBO	1615-1618	92

Nicolo' DONATO	1618	93
Antonio PRIULI	1618-1623	94
Francesco CONTARINI	1623-1624	95
Giovanni lº CORNARO	1624-1629	96
Nicolo' CONTARINI	1630-1631	97
Francesco ERIZZO	1631-1646	98
Francesco MOLIN	1646-1655	99
Carlo CONTARINI	1655-1656	100
Francesco CORNER	1656	101
Bartucci VALIER	1656-1658	102
Giovanni PESARO	1658-1659	103
Domenico CONTARINI	1659-1675	104
Nicolo' SAGREDO	1675-1676	105
Alvise CONTARINI	1676-1684	106
Marcantonio GIUSTINIAN	1684-1688	107
Francesco MOROSINI	1688-1694	108
Silvestro VALIER	1694-1700	109
Alvise II° MOCENIGO	1700-1709	110
Giovanni II° CORNER	1709-1722	111
Alvise III <sup>®</sup> MOCENIGO	1722-1732	112
Carlo RUZZINI	1732-1735	113
Alvise PISANI	1735-1741	114
Pietro GRIMANI	1741-1752	115
Francesco LOREDAN	1752-1762	116
Marco FOSCARINI	1762-1763	117
Alvise IV° MOCENIGO	1763-1778	118
Paolo RENIER	1779-1789	119
Lodovico MANIN	1789-1797	120

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Indian Export Commodities were in great demand in the European markets. Many of the Indian ports served as the transit port for Chinese products, like silk and others exported from Canton and timbers exported from Java Sumatra and Indo-China. Vasco-da-Gama passed Cape of Good Hope and reached India in 1498 C.E. Thus resulted on sea borne trade with India, Venetians trade gradually declined and Portuguese became more powerful, later other European powers have taken over the supremacy of trade. Venetian trade commenced in the 15<sup>th</sup> century C.E. and lasted for three centuries, in the beginning of 18<sup>th</sup> century C.E. this trade came to an end by the fall of Venetian Republic to Napoleon in the last quarter of the 18<sup>th</sup> century C.E.

# THE INFLUX OF GOLD COINS AND ITS USAGES:-

The inflow of Venetian coins commenced in the  $15^{th}$  century C.E. and stopped in the  $18^{th}$  century C.E. There may be chance of Venetian coins having served as the currency because Venetian Sequins (56.5 grains) are near to the weight of Hindu coins (55.5). Foreign merchants cleared their dues with the Venetian coins. These thin coins were suitable for making 'Kasumalai', but the contemporary Hindu coins are thick.

India always had upper hand in mercantile trade with the West. Indian imports are less than the exported commodities. In ancient days Romans complained about the flow of gold and silver from their exchequers. Venetian coins are all made of gold. The designs on the obverse and reverse of the coins are the same. Variations can be observed on the obverse side depending up on the name of the Doge. The names of Dukes have been inscribed near the rim of the coin.

# SOCIAL USAGE OF VENETIAN COINS:-

Syrian Christian ladies in Kerala used to wear necklace made out of Venetian coins, because they contain image of St. Mark.

No Roman or Chinese coins found in India have cultural value, as they were not associated with any religious and social value but only the Venetian coins have customary value and mingled with the traditions of the Indian society.

LISJ	OF VENE	ETIAN COINS IN	THE GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, C	HENNAI		:	
SI.	Stock Register			Period	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	Measurement	
No.	No.	Location	Doge's name on obverse		Weight		Remarks
-		24	FRANCESCO DONATOB	1545-54		2.1 cms	
-	1	Kunnatur	(Fran. Lona)		o.u4gms		
			ANTONIO TREVISAN	1554	!	2.0 cms	
7	2	Kunnatur	(M.Ant.Tri)		3.47gms		
			ANTONIO TREVISAN			3 1 <i>c</i> me	
3	3	Kunnatur	(M.Ant.Tri)		3.44gms	2.1 UIB	
							A hole
			ANTONIO TREVISAN	1554		2.1 cms	near the
4	116	Pavithram	(M.Ant.IVS)		3.21gms		corner
			ANTONIO TREVISAN	1554		71 amo	
S	138	Pavithram	(M.Ant.IVS)	- +cc1	3.37gms	2.1 UIIS	
			FRANCESCO	73 7331		1 0 ame	
6	4	Kunnatur	VNIER(Fran. Vene)	00-+001	3.46gms	2.U CILIS	
			PASQULQE CICOGNA (Pasc	1605 05		2 () ame	
7	5	Kelshi	ciscon)	C6-C0C1	3.45gms	2.0 0115	
		Private	GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	CC 0021		ן ז ז מייה ר ר	
×	6	colletion	Cornel)	77-60/1	2.34gms	2.4 VIIIS	
			GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	CC 0021		2 2 me	
6	19	Pallapalayam	Cornel)	77-2011	3.4gms	4.4 VIIIS	
			GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	1700-22		) ) crne	Hole near
9	38	Pavithram	Cornel)	T 102-27	3.2gms	2117 TT	the rim
			GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	1700-22		2 1 cmc	Hole near
Ξ	62	Pavithram	Cornel)	T 1 07-201	3.39gms	2.1 VIII3	the rim

FOREICH OPINS IN THE OULECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, CHENNAL ICHTINESE, ROMAN & VENETTAN COTNS

	Darithan	GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	1709-22	1 67	2.1 cms	Hole near
		GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	00 0027	0		Hole near
Pavithra	E	Comel)	1/09-22	3.46gms	2.1 cms	the rim
Pavithra	Ε	GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	1709-22	3 37 ame	2.1 cms	
		GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan				Hole near
Pavithra	E	Cornel)	77-60/1	3.32gms	2.1 cms	the rim
		GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	1700.22		<b>7</b> 1 cmc	Hole near
Pavithra	n	Cornel)	77-60/1	3.89gms	7.1 CIID	the rim
		GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	1700 22		0 1 cma	Hole near
Pavithra	m	Cornel)	77-60/1	3.46gms	2.1UIIS	the rim
		GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	1700 22		1 0 cmc	Hole near
Pavithra	m	Cornel)	77-2011	3.04 gms		the rim
		<b>GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan</b>	CC 0021		2 1 cms	Hole near
Pavithra	m	Cornel)	77-2011	3.47gms	CUIU 1.2	the rim
		<b>GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan</b>	1700 22		2 1 cmc	Hole near
Pavithra	m	Comel)	77-40/1	3.51gms	4.1 CIIIS	the rim
		GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	1700-22		7 7 cms	Hole near
Pavithra	m	Comel)	77-2011	3.53 gms	CIIIN 7.7	the rim
		GIOVANNI CORNARO II(Ioan	1700 22		7 1 ame	Hole near
Pavithra	nm	Comel)	77-20/1	3.41 gms	ettin 1.2	the rim
		CAROL RUZZNI (CAROL	1737.35		2 1 cms	
Malabar		RUZNI)	CC-7C1	3.44gms	SUIV 1.2	
						Alphabate
		CAROL RUZZNI (CAROL	1732-35		2.0cms	R' is not
Pavithra	m	RUZNI)		<u>3.52gms</u>		clear
		FRANCESCO LOREDEN	1752-67		2 () cms	
Pavithra	E	(FRANC LAVERD)	70-7011	3.16gms	STIL N.7	
		FRANCESCO LOREDEN	1752-62		2 Jame	
Pavithra	m	(FRANC LAVERD)		3.44gms	4.44110	

FOREGK OMES IN THE OULECTION OF GOVERNMENT MUSEUM, GREANI (CETINESE, ROMAN & VENETTAN COINS

			The edge	nca AVRFD	is having	a cut					defaced,	hole near	the edge,	cut mark	also found	alhpabate	'D' 1s cut	1	Hole				
2.3 cms	2.0 cms	2.0 cms	,	2 () cms			2.2 cms	1.9 cms		2.2 cms			1.9 cms			1.9 cms		2.1cms		2 2 cms		2 () cms	
3.46gms	3.27 gms	3.21gms				3.98gms	3.51gms	3 ()5 ame	emgco.c	3.52gms					2.74gms	3.03	gms	3.56	gms	3.54	gms	3.49	gms
752-62	752-62	752-62	-	1752-62			1752-62	1752-62		1752-62			1752-62			1752-62		1752-62		1757_67	70-7011	<i>1</i> 757-62	11.06 46
LOREDEN	LOREDEN	LOREDEN			LOREDEN		LOREDEN	LOREDEN		LOREDEN				LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN	
FRANCESCO (FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO (FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO (FRANC LAVERD)			FRANCESCO	(FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO (FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO (FRANC I AVFRD)	(INTIN TYATYA)	FRANCESCO (FRANC LAVERD)				FRANCESCO	(FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO	(FRANC LAVERU)	FRANCESCO	(FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO	(FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO	(FRANC LAVERD)
Private colletion	Private colletion	Pavithram				Pavithram	Pavithram	Davithram		Pavithram					Pavithram	:	Pavithram		Pavithram		Pavithram		Pavithram
6	39	43				46	48	51	<b>.</b>	52					53	ľ	/c	1	58		60		64
27	58	29				30	31	3		33					34	1. r	3		36		37		38

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FOREKN ORINS IN THE CALEFTIAN OF GOVERNMENT MUSERN, GIENNAL (CHEINESE, ROMAN & VENETTAN COENS)

														alphabtes	E& D cut	at he edge				Hole					RED are	cut		
2.1cms	2.1cms		2.2cms		2. lcms	) 1 ame	2.10115	, 10 m	2.2011IS		2.0CIIIS	, 0, cm , c	2.0CIIIS		2.1cms		) 10mg	2.1 CIIIS	1 Ocime	GUIDC.1	2 1 ama	2. I UIIS	1 1 ama	2.11011.2	1 0.0ms	1.70113	J 10mc	دווטו.4
3.39gms		3.4/gms	3 540me	A. A. A	3.55gms		3.53gms		3.46gms		3.51gms		3.22gms			3.28gms		3.36gms		3.05gms		3.52gms		3.55gms		3.05gms		3.57gms
1752-62	1752-62		1752-62		1752-62	1757 67	70-7611	1767 67	70-701	1767 67	70-70/1	1767 67	70-701		1752-62		CY C311	70-701	1757-67	70-701	1757 63	70-701	1767 67	70-701	1757.67	70-7011	1753 67	70-7011
LOREDEN	LOREDEN		LOREDEN	LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN			LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN		LOREDEN	
FRANCESCO (FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO	(FKANC LAVERU)	FRANCESCO	FRANCESCO	(FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO	(FRANC LAVERD)		FRANCESCO	(FRANC LAVERD)																		
Pavithram		Favitnram	Pavithram		Pavithram		Pavithram		Pavithram		Pavithram		Pavithram			Pavithram												
66	0,	80	69	\$	71		72		73		74		76			77		78		84		85		91		97		8
39		<del>}</del>	41		42		43		44		45		46			47		48		49		50	L	51		52		33

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FOREKN GAUS IN THE OIL BETON OF GOVERNMENT MUSCIFIA, CARANAL ACHENESE, ROMAN & VENETLAN COINS

							Hole				"FRANC" erased					
2.1cms	2.0cms	2.1cms	1.9cms	2.1cms	2.0cms	2.0cms	2.0cms	2.0cms	2.1cms	2.1cms	2.1cms	2.1cms	1.6cms	2.0cms	2.0cms	2.0cms
3.51gms	3.53gms	3.47gms	2.09gms	3.25gms	3.53gms	3.11gms	3.22gms	3.45gms	3.42gms	3.48gms	3.51gms	3.56gms	3.06gms	3.1 gms	3.21 gms	3.12gms
1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62	1752-62
LOREDEN	LOREDEN															
FRANCESCO (FRANC LAVERD)	FRANCESCO															
Pavithram	Pavithram															
103	106	107	108	110	114	115	118	121	122	125	126	127	130	134	137	140
54	55	56	57	58	59	99	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	89	69	5

FORERN ORIS IN THE OFFICEN OF GOVERNMENT MUSSING, (HENNAL CHENESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS

			(FRANC LAVERD)				
71	142	Pavithram	FRANCESCO LOREDEN (FRANC LAVERD)	1 1752-62	3.25gms	2.0cms	
72	146	Pavithram	FRANCESCO LOREDEN (FRANCLAVERD)	1 1752-62	3.16ems	2.0cms	"LAVRE D" cut at the edge
13	150	Pavithram	FRANCESCO LOREDEN (FRANC LAVERD)	1752-62	3.51 gms	2.0cms	
74	152	Pavithram	FRANCESCO LOREDEN (FRANC LAVERD)	1 1752-62	3.53gms	2.1cms	
75	70	Pavithram	(INVSIA AOTV) INVSIA SIATV	1735-41	3.51gms	2.1cms	
76	113	Pavithram	<b>ALVIS PISANI (ALOY PISANI)</b>	1735-41	3.14gms	2.0cms	
77	128	Pavithram	ALVIS PISANI (ALOY PISANI)	1735-41	2.96gms	2.0cms	Hole is there
78	10	Malabar	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALO) MOCEN)	1763-79	3.48gms	2.1cms	
70		Their contraction	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALON	1763-79	2 43 ame	2.2cms	A hole at the
2	11	FTIVALE COLLECTOR	MUCEN	-	Singet c		DOULOIN
80	12	Private colletion	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALO) MOCEN)	1763-79	3.19gms	2.1cms	
81	18	Parambaur	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALO) MOCENI)	1763-79	3.51gms	2.1cms	
82	20	Pallapalayam	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALO) MOCENI)	1763-79	3.4gms	2.1cms	
83	22	Keeranalur	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALO) MOCENI)	1763-79	3.23gms	2.0cms	
<b>*</b>	28	Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALO) MOCENI)	1763-79	3.33gms	2.2cms	
85	30	Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALO) MOCENI)	1763-79	3.5gms	2.0cms	
86	31	Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALO) MOCENI)	1763-79	3.19gms	2.0cms	

FOLEGN OFFICING OF COVENIMENT MUSEUM, CHEWAL POLEGN OFFICINGSE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS

					Hole										Hole	
2.1cms	2.0cms	2.0cms	2.0cms	2.2cms	2.0cms	2.1cms	2.1cms	2.1cms	2.0cms	2.1cms	2.1cms	2.1cms	2.0cms	2.1cms	2.1cms	2.1cms
3.5gms	3.49gms	3.39gms	3.24gms	3.52gms	3.09gms	3.24gms	2.50gms	3.43gms	3.14gms	3.23gms	3.22gms	3.25gms	3.47gms	3.52gms	3.41 gms	3.53gms
1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79	1763-79
ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY															
Pavithram	Pavithram															
87 32	88 34	89 37	90 45	91 50	92 54	93 5	94 56	95 59	96 61	97 75	98 79	99 81	100 87	101 88	102 92	103 95

PURERA GRASS IN THE COLLECTING OF SOFERINGARY MISEILA, CHERVAL (CHINESE, ROMAN & VENETIAN COINS)

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	MOCENI)				
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.10gms	2.0cms	
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.13gms	2.0cms	
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.51 gms	2.1cms	
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.09gms	1.9cms	
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.07gms	2.0cms	
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.52gms	2.1cms	
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.52gms	2.1cms	The letter "Y", "E" & "N" are defaced
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.52gms	2.2cms	
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.52gms	2.1cms	
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.28gms	2.1cms	Hole
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.46gms	2.1cms	Letters defaced
Pavithram	ALVIS MOCENIGO IV (ALOY MOCENI)	1763-79	3.50gms	2.1cms	
Malabar	PAOLA RENIER (PAVL RAINER)	1779-89	3.39gms	2.0cms	
Malabar	PAOLA RENIER (PAVL RAINER)	1779-89	3.5gms	2.1cms	
Private	PAOLA RENIER (PAVL RAINER)	1779-89	3.45gms	2.1cms	Not clear

FIGLER ONS IN THE OULEFTIGN OF GOVERNMENT AS SET A CREWN (CHINESE ROMAN & VENETTAN CONS

															le			le			
															Ho			Ho			
2 leme	GHU1.2	1 0.000	2.0011S	, 0.000	2.UCIIIS	) Anme	CUUINS	3 1ama	2.1 UIIIS	2.1cms	2.1cms	2.0cms	2.0cms	2.2cms	3.5cms	2.1cms	2.1 cms	2.1cms	2.1cms	2.2cms	3.0cms
	3.34gms		3.4gms		3.47gms		3.27gms		3.4gms	3.38gms	3.16gms	2.95gms	3.03gms	3.43gms	3.16gms	3.5gms	3.53gms	3.28gms	3.08gms	3.53gms	3.95gms
1770.80	117-07	00 0441	11/9-09	1700.07	1107-71	1700.07	1/02-21	16 50 74	10.07-74	1741-52	1741-52	1741-52	1741-52	1741-52	1741-52	1741-52	1741-52	1741-52	1741-52	1741-52	1763-79
(PAVL		(PAVL		(LVDO		(LVDO		VTARINI		(INANI)	IMANI)	(INANI)	(INANI)	IMANI)	(INANI)	(INANI)	(INANI)	(INANI)	IMANI)	IMANI)	(ALOY
RENIER		RENIER		MANIN		MANIN		CO	NT)	NI (PET GR	NI (PET GR	NI (PET GR	NI (PET GR	NI (PET GR	NI (PET GR	NI (PET GR	cenigo IV				
PAOLA	<b>RAINER</b> )	PAOLA	<b>RAINER</b> )	<b>LUDIVICO</b>	(NINN)	<b>LUDIVICO</b>	MANIN)	DOMINICO	(DOMIN CO	PET GRIMA	PET GRIMA	PET GRIMA	PET GRIMA	<b>PET GRIMA</b>	PET GRIMA	ALVIS MO MOCEN)					
	Vadugapalyam		Vadugapalyam		Malabar		Thathamangalam		Manipura	Pavithram	Pavithram	Pavithram	Pavithram	Pavithram	Pavithram	Pavithram	Pavithram	Pavithram	Pavithram	Pavithram	Kanjampatti
	23		24		15		26		16	40	42	47	86	104	109	111	117	136	144	145	
	119		120		121		122		123	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131	132	133	134	135

# Venetian coin



lang Millinga Subar Subar Subar



Obverse: St. Mark handing the *gonfalon* (Flag) to the Doge(Duke). Duke standing in the middle. Legend: DUX, S.M.VENET (Sanctus Marcus Venetus – St. Mark of the Venice). DOMIN. CONT (abbreviation for the Dukes name).

Reverse : The standing savior with nimbus (halo), surrounded by stars, is enclosed by an oval of dots-SIT. T. XPE. DAT.Q.TV REGIS.ISTE. DVCA



Obverse: St. Mark handing the *gonfalon* (Flag) to the Doge(Duke). Duke standing in the middle. Legend: S.M.VENET (Sanctus Marcus Venetus – St. Mark of the Venice). ALOY MOCENI (abbreviation for the Dukes name).



Reverse : The standing savior with nimbus (halo), surrounded by stars, is enclosed by an oval of dots-SIT. T. XPE. DAT.Q.TV REGIS.ISTE. DVCA

During its entire coinage (between 1280 and 1797 C.E.) the design of the coin has remained unchanged except for the name of the Doge - Dukes. As the Venetian Coins are all belong to a single typology (the obverse depicting image of St. Mark and Duke & the reverse showing a standing religious priest), only a representative coins were studied in detail in this work.

# TREASURE-TROVE FIND SPOTS OF THE VENETIAN COINS IN TAMIL NADU ARE LISTED BELOW:

- 1. Pavithram, Village Namakkal Taluk, Salem District (presently Namakkal District)
- 2. Kunnathur, Erode Taluk, Coimbatore District (presently Erode District)
- 3. Paramabur Village, Kolathur Taluk, Trichirapalli District
- 4. Vadugapalayam Village, Pollachi Taluk, Coimbatore District
- 5. Thathamangalam Village, Lalgudi Taluk, Trichirapalli District
- 6. Pallapalayam Village, Karur Taluk, Trichirapalli District (presently Karur District)

# CONCLUSION:-

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Coin is a piece of money made out of metal which replaced barter system. Coins usually bear image and name of a king or issuer, date, place of mint, symbols such as insignia of a dynasty or symbol of a government and records historical events. Like inscriptions and copper plates coins are also considered as primary source materials for study of History. A coin not only commemorates but also confirms historical victories of royal personalities. Especially Foreign coins are considered as Primary Source material for the ancient commercial ties, cultural ethos, religious conditions, ex-im policies, and economical strata. Occurrences of Foreign coins in India speak about the volume of mercantile relationship, seafaring activities, cultural interfaces between India with the countries of the East and West. Particularly this volume synchronizes the unbroken maritime heritage of India since 2<sup>nd</sup> Century B.C.E.

- Roman coin finds attest the commercial and cultural ties between India and Rome that lasted from 2<sup>nd</sup> to 6<sup>th</sup> Century C.E. (1977 Coins in the Museum Collection)
- Chinese Coins attest the maritime activities of the Cholas, who ruled during medieval period. (697 Coins in the Museum Collection)
- The occurrence of Venetian coins gives detailed report on the trade between Venice and Vijayanagara Kingdom of the Modern period. (155 Coins in the Museum Collection)

Even though, literary and inscriptional evidences speak about volume of the trade, export and import commodities, ports, merchant guilds and other related commercial contacts, only a tiny piece of metal, coin could attest the mercantile relationship with the other countries concerned.

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# COIN OF THE ROMAN EMPEROR VESPASIAN 69 -79 C.E.





Coin of Chiihping -Yuan pao (Chinese) Date: 1064 C.E



Venetian Coin