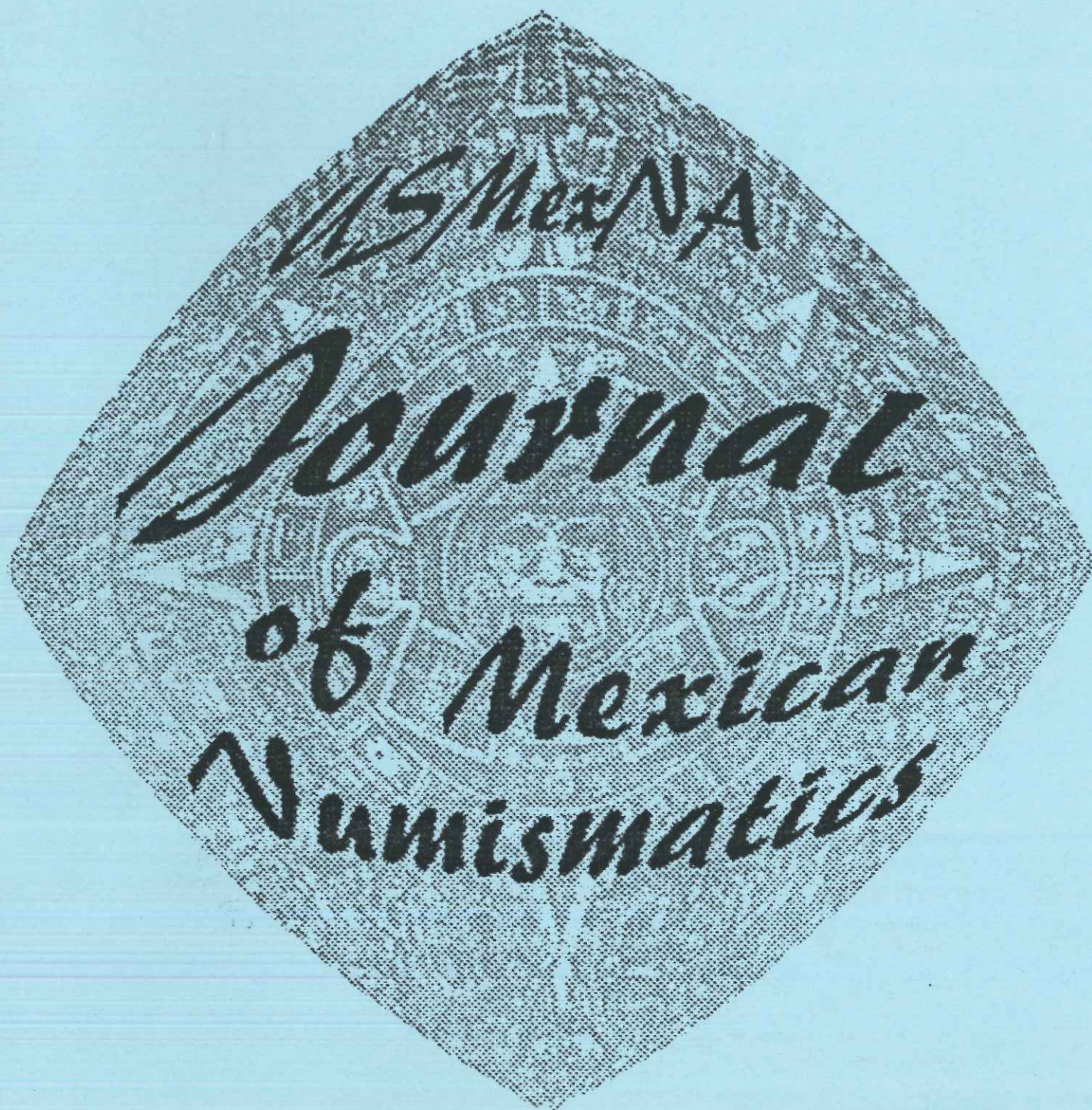


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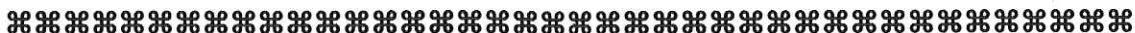
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VIVA LA REVOLUCION

By Joe Flores C-2

In the past I have written articles about coinage of the Mexican Revolution of 1910 – 1920. I have always had an interest in anything pertaining to this era; such as currency, tokens, and border service medals that were dedicated to General Pershing's troops when they invaded MEXICO in his pursuit of Francisco Villa for his raid on Columbus New Mexico.

I have been very lucky to have the opportunity to acquire a border service embedded and glued to a wood frame that appears to be from a picture frame. Some of the coins are copper and silver, with one Chihuahua five centavo, for a total of six coins and the border service medal as in the photos.

This skewed piece of wood is 2 7/8 X 9 7/8 inches. In the center of the wood backing is the copper border service medal as in the photo. The reverse of the medal is the lord's prayer and on the upper edge, in a semi circle Schwaab & Co., Milwaukee.

This medal is the only one I have seen and I am seeking information from anyone out there who can help me out.

Editor's note:

This medal is a souvenir piece that was sold during the expedition and comes in a few different styles. It's not necessarily scarce but an interesting piece of folk art from the border service.



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**A NARRATIVE OF THE POLICIES USED BY THE UNITED STATES TO END
FRENCH INTERVENTION IN MEXICO, 1861-1867**

By Robert L. Bridwell

Del Mar College
Corpus Christi, Texas

In October 1861 Great Britain, France and Spain signed the Convention of London and thereby agreed to intervene jointly in Mexico to force payment of debts owed to them by the Mexican government and to protect private investments their citizens held in that American republic. The following months saw the three parties to the London Convention occupy Vera Cruz until the British and Spanish elected to withdraw their armies, whereupon the French reinforced their expeditionary army and extended their control over most of Mexico. In the year 1864 the French completed their conquest and installed Archduke Maximilian of Austria as Emperor of Mexico. This empire lasted until 1867 when French troops were removed and Maximilian was deposed by the legitimate President of Mexico, Benito Juarez.

Continual and bitter Mexican opposition to the foreign emperor and the astronomical cost of maintaining Maximilian's regime with French arms were the principal reasons why France abandoned her middle American adventure in 1867. But the hostility of the United States toward this European incursion into the New World played at least an important secondary role in ending the Empire. The following paragraphs consist of a brief examination of the actions taken by the United States government and some of the unenacted proposals for action that were considered to hasten French departure from Mexico.

Since 1823 the United States foreign policy for the Western hemisphere had been embodied in what is known as the Monroe Doctrine. This stated that the United States did not consider the American continents as fit subjects for future colonization by any European power, that the political systems of Europe and the Americas were essentially different and, furthermore, that the United States would consider as a "manifestation of an unfriendly disposition" towards her an attempt of any European power to extend its governmental system to any independent republic in the Americas. Thus the United States opposed this attempt to create a European-oriented monarchy in Mexico.

In the 1850's the United States had recognized the government of Benito Juárez as the legitimate power in Mexico and had consistently supported that regime during the civil conflict of the Mexican War of the Reform. Juárez finally consolidated his control over Mexico in 1861, but national economic prostration forced him to suspend, temporarily, payments on his nation's foreign debt and to provoke retaliation by his European creditors. Almost simultaneously the United States plunged toward its bloody civil war and actual fighting was imminent when Abraham Lincoln took office in March of 1861.

Lincoln's Secretary of State, William H. Seward did not demonstrate the brilliance with which he would direct future United States foreign policy in his first attempt to block

foreign intervention in Mexico. Upon taking office Seward urged Lincoln to use the volatile Mexican situation as a device to end the disruption of the union and proposed that Lincoln provoke a war with either Britain or France over the Mexican question and then use this foreign war to divert attention from domestic disputes and thereby preserve the union. Fortunately Lincoln rejected Seward's foolhardy suggestion and saved the country from a foreign war and civil war at the same time.

Seward's next proposal was not as dangerous and certainly more practical. He urged that the United States step in a guarantor of interest charges on the Mexican foreign debt for a three year period while Juárez put his country's finances back in order. The United States in return would get a lien on public lands in the northern Mexican states of Chihuahua, Lower California, Sonora, and Sinaloa.*

Although this scheme had the backing of the Mexican Minister in Washington, it received a hostile reaction and an overwhelming rejection from the United States Senate Committee on Foreign Relations as well as hot opposition from the European nations that held the Mexican debt.

Soon afterward civil war broke out in the United States and in Mexico European troops occupied Vera Cruz which forced Seward to reorient his Mexican policy. It was now more important to the United States to prevent European recognition of the independence of the Southern Confederacy than it was to antagonize the French in Mexico. Consequently Seward adopted a position which admitted France's right to engage in hostilities against Mexico to collect valid debts and he did not specifically oppose the investment of Vera Cruz. He did not, however, acknowledge France's right to establish a monarchy in Mexico and when the Empire was created, refused to extend any form of diplomatic recognition. Seward could not go beyond this point until the Civil War ended or at least until any chance of European recognition of Southern independence had passed.

This situation occurred late in 1864 when the North's military victories doomed the Confederacy. The change emboldened certain people in the United States hatch schemes which were designed to drive the French from Mexico. A plan to call a truce in the Civil War and to unify the Northern and Southern armies in a campaign against the French in Mexico received some consideration at the highest levels of the Union and Confederate governments. Then the United States House of Representatives adopted a belligerent attitude toward the French and unanimously resolved its unending opposition to Maximilian's regime. Ulysses S. Grant, Commander of the Union armies, became a party to the anti-French intrigue when he ordered General Phillip Sheridan to the Rio Grande with several thousand seasoned troops. Later Grant recruited General John M. Schofield to organize a "volunteer" army of Union and Confederate veterans who were to assist Juárez defeat the French, and gave General Sheridan specific orders to furnish war supplies and materials to this army of liberation. Seward opposed such schemes as these and often blocked their execution, but he cleverly used them to demonstrate to the French

* Doubtless Seward hoped that the United States would acquire these states from a grateful Mexican government.

that popular opinion in the United States was clamoring for an end of their occupation to Mexico.*

Toward the end of 1865 Seward applied further pressure on France when he dispatched a note that declared the continued "prosecution of armed intervention in Mexico" had brought the usual friendly relations between the two nations into "imminent jeopardy." In December a ban on the sale and shipment of arms to Mexico was dropped and the munitions markets of the United States were opened to Juárez. At about the same time General Sheridan transferred 30,000 carbines to the Juárezistas for use against the French.

On February 12, 1866 Secretary of State Seward decided to prod the French further and dispatched to Paris what amounted to a diplomatic ultimatum, which requested that the French government give him some "definitive information of the time when French military operations may be expected to cease in Mexico."

The inability to subdue the native opposition in Mexico, the mounting costs of the intervention, and the resurging strength of the Juárezistas coupled with the increasingly heated opposition of the United States had its effect on France. On April 5, 1866 she announced that her troops would be recalled from Mexico within nineteen months. Continued prodding from Seward speed on the withdrawal and the last French army left Mexico in the spring of 1867. With the main prop of his regime gone, the government of Emperor Maximilian soon toppled and he died before a firing squad in June 19, 1867.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE:

The literature on the French intervention in Mexico is voluminous and often repetitious. Outside of the published collections of public documents, the best secondary sources of material on United States diplomacy and the French Intervention are as follows:

J. Fred Rippey, The United States and Mexico
Thomas A. Bailey, A Diplomatic History of the American People
Dexter Perkins, A History of the Monroe Doctrine

* Seward blocked the plan for a volunteer army under Schofield by sending the General to France as a special envoy.

**MEXICO RELEASES NEW ISSUES OF THE 5 PESO
COMMEMORATIVES COMMEMORATING THE CENTENNIAL
OF THE MEXICAN REVOLUTION AND THE BICENTENNIAL OF
THE INDEPENDENCE**

So far this year Mexico has released seven additional coins in this ongoing coinage program commemorating the centennial of the Mexican Revolution and the bicentennial of the Independence . As of this date the coins for 2009 are:

INDEPENDENCE COINS ISSUED THUS FAR FOR 2009:



#15 **José Maria Cos (1770? – 1819)** was born in Zacatecas, and moved to Guadalajara where he obtained a doctorate in theology.

At the request of Ignacio Lopez Rayon he attended the Meeting of Zitácuaro in 1811. He published two newspapers in Sultepec, entitled, *American Illustrator* and *National Illustrator*. Cos attended the Congress of Chilpancingo representing Zacatecas. He also took part in writing the Constitution of Apatzingán, the first law that governed the government of the rising Mexican Republic.. He died in 1819 in the city of Pátzcuaro, Michoacán.



#17 **Pedro Moreno (1775 – 1817)** an insurgent that was born in Lago in the state of Jalisco in 1775, from a wealthy landowner family. He began fighting with his own forces in 1814. In 1817 he joined the battalion of Francisco Xavier. In a battle with the royalists forces he was killed in the combat on October 27 1817.



#19 Agustín de Iturbide (1783 – 1824) was born at Valladolid, Michoacán. He started his military career at a young age. He enlisted in the royalist army fighting in the Gabriel Yermo uprising. He rejected the offer by Miguel Hidalgo to make him a General in the insurgent forces. Instead He served in the Spanish army and was in charge of pursuing Vicente Guerrero and José María Morelos. At a later point Iturbide talked Guerrero into declaring Mexico's independence. This meeting is known as the *Abrazo de Acatempan*, as the two former rivals sealed the agreement with an embrace.

In 1821 Iturbide arrived in Mexico City heading the *Ejército Trigarante* (The Three Guarantees) that were the main parts of the agreement with Guerrero; independence, racial equality and religion. He appointed himself as Emperor Agustín I. This did not last long and Iturbide ordered the dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies. General Antonio López de Santa Anna put the Plan de Casa Mata in operation to reinstate the congress and create a republic. Iturbide abdicated as Santa Anna approached Mexico City and fled to Europe. He decided to return to Mexico and was recognized when he landed at Soto la Marina, Tamaulipas, captured and executed. His body rests in the San Felipe de Jesús Chapel in the cathedral of Mexico City.

REVOLUTIONARY COINS ISSUED THUS FAR FOR 2009:



#14 Filomeno Mata (1845 – 1911) was the editor of the *Diario del Hogar*, and was imprisoned thirty times for expressing his anti re-election views leading up to the early days of the revolution. During this period of Díaz rule the press was rigidly controlled, and reporters who dared to oppose the government were themselves either jailed like Mata or exiled. Some that were persistent were killed. .



#16 Carmen Serdán (1875 – 1948) was born in 1875 in Puebla, and was the sister of Serdán Aquilles and worked along with him in the anti re-election and the maderista campaign. On November 18, 1910 at the Serdán family home on Santa Clara Street in Puebla, was attacked by the Federal Army and the state police, where upon Carmen went to the balcony with rifle in hand to warn the citizens about the attack and she was wounded.

When the resistance stopped, Carmen, the mother and the wife of Aquilles were captured and jailed. Later they were sent to the municipal hospital of San Pedro. After Huerta left office, during the constitution conflict Carmen served as a nurse in several field hospitals. She retired to the city of Puebla where she died in 1948.



#18 Andrés Molina Enríquez (1865 – 1940) is best known for publishing in 1909 *Los Grandes Problemas Nacionales*, which was very critical of President Diaz. He focused on two main subjects; land reform and the indigenous people's rights and their place in Mexico's society. The Plan de Texcoco was issued in 1911, in which Molina Enrique called for creation of a dictatorship committed to land reform. He was arrested by the Francisco León de la Barra government on August 25, 1911. He served in various political positions following the revolution.



#20 Luis Cabrera Lobato (1876 – 1954) was born in Zacatlán, Puebla July 17, 1876. Early on he worked for *El Hijo del Ahizote*. He got his law degree and worked in the law offices of Rodolfo Reyes and Andrés Molina Exriquez. He joined the directive of the Partido Anti re-elección. In July of 1909 he started a campaign against the "Científicos" group and in his writings he was anti Diaz. In 1912 he was director of the

Escuela Nacional de Jurisprudencia (now known as the Faculty of Law of the UNAM). From 1914 to 1917 he was responsible for the Finance and Public Credit Branch and its Secretary, from 1919 to 1920.

As a political opponent of Pasquel Ortiz Rubio he was deported to Guatemala in 1931, but he was only gone a short time. President Venustiano Carranza appointed him to the Niagara Falls negotiations, where the Carranza's recognition as President of Mexico by the United States, and the withdrawal of American troops from Veracruz were discussed. Cabrera was offered the presidential candidacy twice but he declined both times. He died April 12, 1954 in Mexico City.

Numbering of these coins and their anticipated dates of Issue are as follows:

BICENTENARIO DE LA INDEPENDENCIA:

- 2008 #1, Ignacio Lopez Rayón (1773-1832).
- 2008 #3, Carlos Maria de Bustamente (1774-1847).
- 2008 #5, Francisco Javier Mina (1789-1817).
- 2008 #7, Francisco Primo de Verdad y Ramos (1768-1808).
- 2008 #9, Mariano Matamoros (1770-1814).
- 2008 #11, Miguel Ramos Arizpe (1775-1843).
- 2008 #13, Hermenegildo Galeana (1772-1814).

- 2009 #15, José Maria Cos (?-1819).
- 2009 #17, Pedro Moreno (1775-1817).
- 2009 #19, Agustin de Iturbide (1783-1824).
- 2009 #21, Nicolás Bravo (1776-1854).
- 2009 #23, Servando Teresa de Mier (1765-1827).
- 2009 #26, Leona Vicario (1789-1842).
- 2010 #27, Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla (1753-1811).
- 2010 #29, José Maria Morelos y Pavon (1765-1815).
- 2010 #31, Vicente Guerrero (1783-1831).
- 2010 #33, Ignacio Allende (1769-1811).
- 2010 #35, Guadalupe Victoria (1786-1843).
- 2010 #37, Josefa Ortiz de Dominguez (1768-1829).

CENTENARIO DE LA REVOLUTION:

- 2008 #2, Alvaro Obregón (1880-1928).
- 2008 #4, José Vasconcelos (1881-1959).
- 2008 #6, Francisco Villa (1876-1923).
- 2008 #8, Herbero Jara (1866-1939).
- 2008 #10, Ricardo Flores Magón (1873-1922).
- 2008 #12, Francisco J. Múgica (1884-1954).
- 2009 #14, Filomeno Mata (1845-1911).
- 2009 #16, Carmen Serdán (1875-1948).
- 2009 #18, Andres Molina Enriquez, 1868-1939).
- 2009 #20, Luis Cabrera (1876-1954).
- 2009 #22, Eulalio Gutiérrez (1881-1939).
- 2009 #24, Otilio Montaño (1880?-1917).
- 2009 #25, Belisario Dominguez (1863-1913).

- 2010 #28, Francisco I. Madero (1873-1913).
2010 #30, Emiliano Zapata (1883-1919).
2010 #32, Venustiano Carranza (1850-1920).
2010 #34, La Soldadera.
2010 #36, José Maria Pino Suárez (1869-1913).

The numbering does not indicate the sequence of issue, but serves as a means of identifying the coins.

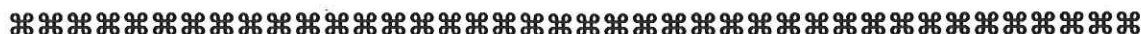
ENLARGED REVERSES



2, Alvaro Obregón

#6, Pancho Villa

#9, Agustin de Iturbide



WHERE HAVE ALL THE DEALERS GONE???

In putting this issue of the Mexican Numismatic Journal together it was noted the number of advertisements in the Volume VII, Number 81 Plus Ultra. Among the advertisers were:

Hans M. F. Schulman, New York, deceased.
Ed. Shlieker, Chicago, Ill.?
Richard A. Long, Corpus Christi, Texas, retired.
Jess Peters, Decatur, Ill, deceased.
Sergio Torres Martinez, Mexico City, retired.
Superior Stamp & Coin, Los Angeles, CA., Now operating as Ira and Larry Goldberg,
Beverly Hills, CA.
Colonial Coins, Houston, Texas, retired.
Harvey Bruns, Mission, Texas, deceased.
Emil E. Spranz, Alamo, Texas, deceased.
Lt. Col. Timothy Dunn, Maitland, Fla, ?
J's Hut, Houston, Texas. ?

Now there are only a few that deal mainly within the Mexican field. This was in the height of the Mexican market, everyone was working on a Mexican Type set, and coins were flowing into the United States from Mexico without any restraints. As the expression goes “BACK IN THE GOOD OLD DAYS”.

MEXICAN HISTORY AND NUMISMATICS

By Edward P. Beals-R.49,T.A.N.S.

Reprinted from *PLUS ULTRA*, Volume VII, Number 81, the late 1960's

A person can look at the coinage of a nation and see the reflections of its past glory, its times of trials and tribulations, and its prior contacts with its surrounding culture and environment.

The periods of revolution are generally characterized by coins of hurriedly made dies of poor quality. The material for coins varies from cardboard to metal bearing gold, to the point where the intrinsic value exceeds the face value. The mint machinery may be poorly made and in need of repair; the resulting coins are of poor quality and with many variations. The emission of stable governments, on the other hand, are generally done with pride of workmanship; properly prepared and maintained machiner; well designed, and tempered dies, with proper inspection and quality control of the ensuing monies.

It is essential to note the reasons for the Spanish colonization in contrast with the French and British a few years later; Spaniards came with the blessing and backing of Spain and the Catholic Church. They came primarily in conquest -- of wealth and converts, and personal gain, and coming in conquest they came without women. The British and French came as colonists, many as outcasts from their home country and some to escape from religious pressures. All, of course, hoping to find wealth in the New World. Many were farmers or tradesmen or indentured servants seeking freedom.

The Spaniards coming in conquest, enslaved the Indians and used them very harshly in spite of the efforts of some who tried to correct the sad conditions; existing, such as *ECOMIENDO*: the system of requiring a certain number of Indians to serve for a period of six months. Pay was required to be given to the Indians, but in many cases, after board, room and supplies were deducted, the Indian owed the mine operator or farmer, and at the end of the 6 months of servitude he was forced to stay on --going deeper in debt each day. This condition became so common and flagrant that before they left for service in the mines or ranches they would hold their own funeral services and give away all of their person property. Negro slaves were also used. They were stronger and did not inconvenience the owners with the frequency of deaths compared to the mortality rate of the Indians.

The Spaniards inter-married with the Indians and created a class known as "Mestizo" -- half Spanish, half Indian. Another class created by place of birth was the "Creole" -- he could be a Mestizo also, but being born in Mexico he had different basic instincts and thought of Mexico as his home; whereas the pure Spaniard was in Mexico generally to make his stake and take it back to Spain! Today in the United States we have a similar situation in the "Chicanos", whose birth and loyalties are North America, but whose heart and heredity are in Mexico.

So we have the following factions: (1) The King and later the Mexican Government wanting their 1/5 as taxes; (2) the Spaniard who wanted to take his stake home; (3) the Church wanting its share, plus converts; (4) the Creole wanting to better his home; (5) the Mestizo wanting equality; (6) the Indians wanting to be left alone; (7) the slave wanting his freedom, a class structure that was bound to cause friction. Culturally there was the conflict between European and Indian. These conditions and classes coupled with political misuse of authority caused many conflicts. In 1810 Miguel Hidalgo started the revolution against Spain; in 1822 the Monarchy of Iturbide lasted one year; in 1846 the United States stuck her nose into Mexico; in 1864 France went in with the monarchy of Maximilian; the Diaz dictatorship followed by the revolution of 1910-1916; again, internal friction in 1823-24. All of these revolts and different governments were efforts by the poorer classes to gain that modicum of freedom or a chance to better them.

Benito Juarez, the Abraham Lincoln of Mexico, in 1868 wrote a constitution that championed the cause of freedom. Again in 1917 the constitution was further revised resulting in the betterment of the lot of the individual. The population never was, and is not now evenly distributed -- being heaviest on the Central Plateau of Mexico. The Federal District has a population of over 3200 per square mile and declines sharply toward each frontier. Mexico is predominantly a country of little villages. In 1940 there were 125 thousand communities in Mexico; 75 thousand (or 72%) were hamlets of 100 persons or less; 99 thousand (or 94%) were composed of less than 500 persons per town; 99.2% of the people lived in towns of 2500 or less.

The overwhelming power and influence of Mexico City is because the vast majority of Mexicans are "country folk" and know nothing of city life or the politics of the country. This uneven distribution of population is caused in part by the physical structure of Mexico, which creates regionalism. The Central Plateau because of altitude, temperature and rainfall has the vast majority of the population. The five central states hold 25% of the population in only 4.2% of the area of Mexico. The mountains and deserts separate the country into smaller local areas of influence. It is estimated that there are 5 million persons whose food habits; tool equipment, family and social organizations are basically Indian rather than European. The Indians have maintained their culture because of their isolation. There are places in Chihuahua today that a white man hesitates to go without arms. The Mestizo has gradually made his presence felt. The revolution of 1910-16 was made by him and for him and the Indian. All of this background and history has had effects on the numismatics of Mexico.

With the many changes of government and the revolutions the currency of the last government was called in and exchanged for new legal tender, with much of the old being melted and recoined. With each change of government there was a shortage of the new money and this caused rapid wear due to greater circulation. Small coins were always scarce and can seldom be found today in uncirculated condition. Mr. Utberg once wrote a truism that is still appropriate: "Give a man a blank check for an Unc. Date and mint set of U.S. coins and in one year he would probably be able to provide them for you; give him the same check for a date and mint set of Mexico in uncirculated condition and

it is almost a certainty that he will never be able to provide it." The reason for this lies in the history of Mexico.

The revolutions did aid us as numismatists in one way. Mexicans had very little faith in banks, even where the banks were available; in towns of 500 populations, the banks were few ... if any. Most of the populace kept their wealth at home. When a revolution was brewing they buried their coins under the floor or in the wall. The owner would then go off to war and often never return. Today hoards are being found when homes are reconstructed or razed to make way for new highways or other so-called modern progress. It would be interesting to interview the finders of these hoards to learn where the money was hidden – in walls, chimneys, wells, rafters, under floors or? – Just where it was turned up. Church Padres and bandits also used the same methods of hiding their loot in times of stress.

To cover the high points of Mexican coinage we must start just 44 years after Columbus discovered America in 1492. By 1521 Cortez had conquered Mexico and quickly petitioned the Queen of Spain for permission to open a mint in New Spain, for he had already began the development of the fabulously rich mines. In 1536 by decree of the Spanish Queen, Johanna, the Mint at Mexico City was opened. (Johanna was the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella). The prompt establishment of the mint speaks well for the colonizing and development ability of Spain. The positions of authority in the mints was given or sold to favorites of the Royal House (Spoils System). They in turn sold the rights of the position to others in Mexico. The actual workers were paid on a percentage or share of each mark of silver or gold that was minted. A Mark weighed about 8 lbs. Each mark produced 68 eight reales or dollars; two reales were deducted from each mark and divided between assayer, treasurer, die-cutter, smelter etc. They in turn tried to make a little extra. With a setup like this there was naturally graft and kickbacks in the mint.

The law was that the first fifth of the silver and gold belonged to the Crown, and that the first thing performed was the extraction of this King's quinto or fifth. For those acquainted with the mordida system in present day Mexico, it is not at all new! Bribery and chiseling along the line has been practiced from the beginning. The Viceroy conducted an investigation in 1545 and found almost every person in the mint was guilty of some infraction of the rules. With this practice it is remarkable that the coins maintained such a high quality and such close tolerance to proper weight. The mint master's initials were on each coin and he was held responsible for the right weight and the correct silver or gold fineness.

Probably one reason for the early establishment of the mint was because the Viceroy appointed by the King was Antonio Mendoza who had been the treasurer of the mint in Granada, Spain, and knew the requirements of a mint; work which was near and dear to his heart.

The two Maravedies is an example of a coin that was not accepted by the population. The Indians did not like the lowly copper coins and threw them into Lake Texcoco. Today this minor copper coin has sold for \$600, and is very rare.

No dates appeared on Mexican coins until 1580. The mint was a prolific producer of gold and silver coinage from 1537 to 1821 during the Colonial reign of Spain. It produced 68,778,411 pesos of gold and 208,226,637 pesos of silver. Cobs were made in Mexico until 1732 when the pillar reales were established and lasted to the year 1772 when the Bust or portrait series were initiated in silver, with the reigning Monarch portrayed on the obverse and the coat of arms of the reigning king of Spain on the reverse. Cobs were not cut off the end of a round bar as previously thought (like ice-box cookies). The bar was a flat strip about 1-1/2 inches wide and about as thick as a dollar; it was chopped off to approximate weight and trimmed with shears to proper weight and then struck. Mr. Clyde Hubbard at the A.N.A. Forum in San Diego logically explained this theory in 1968.

The coins of Mexico have been used all over the world. It is reported that there were 500 million 8 reales hoarded in China by 1830. The Pillar and Bust reales were used almost exclusively in the trade with China, because the Chinese would not accept other money without greatly discounting it. The 8 reales weighed 420 grains; the U.S. dollar weighed 416 grains until 1837 when it was further reduced to 412.5 grains.

A personal theory about Mexican coins in China indicates that if you have a "chopped" coin you have a coin that was traded for opium. Drugs are not a new problem to the world.

The Chinese chopped coins to show their acceptance of that coin and as a sort of trademark; each merchant's mark being different. There was no commodity which the West had that the Chinese wanted, therefore the silk, spices, tea, jade and mercury, etc that the Occidental bought was paid for in silver and gold; hence the 500 million coins previously mentioned. In 1780, the proud, honorable Western World, introduced opium into China. From that date opium began to be the one commodity that could be traded for the silks and tea. Soon it became so important that there was not enough tea and silk in China to trade for the opium being imported and they had to cough up the hoarded silver. In the year 1837 there was 40 million dollars in silver brought from China in exchange for opium. Hence, the theory that practically every "chopped" coin in the Western World is the result of the opium trade, excluding, of course, the few brought in by collectors and tourists. How else can their presence here be explained?

At the beginning of the Republican period in 1832, Mexico adopted the eagle on a cactus, holding a snake in its claws and beak, as their Nation emblem. This appears on all of the regular gold, silver and many copper issues. The mints in Mexico at one time numbered 14. The reasons being several: (1) The States were jealous of their power and the power to coin money was a sovereign right in which they wanted to participate (as contracted to the central control from Mexico City), a factor of regionalism mentioned before. (2) During civil and revolutionary disturbances, safe transportation was a problem. Money coined and distributed near the mines would not be lost to bandits in the long treks over

poor roads to the capital, plus other losses due to spilling, handling, and "mysterious" disappearance, for the more times a commodity is handled, the more of it is lost. (3) The mints were leased out to private persons or firms for cash and for periods of many years; quite often to foreigners because of the large amount of capital necessary to start such lease arrangement. Mr. Temple of Los Angeles had the lease of the Mexican mint from 1847 to 1893. From 1824 to 1893, 1-1/2 billion in silver coinage was minted in Mexico; Guanajuato mined 111 million in silver, 3-1/2 million in gold; Zacatecas -- 369 million in silver, 2 million in gold. The government taxed it close to its source, and got their share. The closest mints to us geographically, were Alamos and Hermosillo, Sonora. The former opened in 1864 and the latter in 1835 -- both closed in 1895. While most of the mints were prolific in their output it does not mean that the coins are readily available.

Many millions were reduced to bullion for other countries coinage; China melted them for Sycee or shoe money and Mexico melted much of the previous coinage to make new issues. In 1927 alone, the Mexico City mint melted down 20,500 lbs of colonial coins and 58,000 lbs of other Mexican coins. Other millions have been melted for British, French, Spanish, Dutch, Portuguese and Brazilian coins. Both English and Brazilian coins were struck using the original Mo coin as a planchet and the previous design can be seen under the new impression. In the U.S.A. the Mexican 8 reales was standard coinage until 1834; most contracts calling for payment in the same. In 1830 60% of the money in circulation here was Mexican.

In the Riddel monograph of 1845, while written about U.S. coinage, pictures predominately Mexican coins, for they were being melted to mint U.S. coins. If you have a U.S. coin of 1800 to 1850 there is a definite possibility that it was previously a Mexican coin, since there was practically no mining of gold or silver in the United States until around 1849 and from 1830 to 1850 Mexican coins supplied the silver for most of ours. The cut and counterstamped coins of the West Indies, Canada and Australia were primarily Mexican. The silver smiths of Mexico and United States used Mexican coins almost exclusively in their crafts. Many more were buried and will probably be unearthed for many years to come -- but how many other hoards will never be found? Some of today's choice finds came from hoards. Full time archeology crews working with construction crews building the subway system of Mexico City have found many archeological treasures of yesteryears.

The collecting of Mexican coins is a fascinating hobby and Mexico is a fabulous country.

HIGHLIGHTS OF MEXICAN NUMISMATICS

By Dr. Alberto F. Pradeau

Reprinted from *PLUS ULTRA*, Volume IV, Number 48

Most collectors specializing in Mexican coinage are familiar with types, Assayers' initials and over dates, therefore this material will deal, as the title indicates, with unusual happenings.

It is well known that because of the War for Independence (1810 – 1821) New Spain was bankrupt, that the market was flooded with these interesting pieces known as tlacons (hacienda tokens; that the viceregal authorities issued copper species from 1814 to 1821; that Morelos and other insurgent commanders were placing in circulation their own currency, and that Iturbide, with grandiose ideas and no economic ability, issued paper money and was about to coin copper when deposed.

By national law of November 16, 1824 the individual states were empowered to strike their own coinage while the central government was forbidden by the same law to issue copper, thus the collector finds copper coinage for the states of Colima, Durango and Guanajuato from 1824 on; of Jalisco, Sonora9 Estado de Occidente) and San Luis Potosi as early as 1828 and 1829 and that Congress authorized the first national copper coinage.

From then on the sorry spectacle of bankruptcy, aggravated by untold suffering of the populace, became a nightmare. Governments toppled and each succeeding one, unable to cope with the problem, made matters worse by recalling the old, authorizing new issues, printing I.O.U's, imposing forced loans and borrowing from foreign powers.

Counterfeiting in and out of the country was rampant. It is interesting to note that Missouri was among the first to enter this profitable field and upon complaint of the Mexican Charge de Affairs in Washington (Jose Maria Montoya) received from the Secretary of State Edward Livingston the following:

“ ... the fabrication of counterfeit coins of Mexico, with the intent of introducing it to Mexico, will receive the serious attention of the President and directions have been sent to the District Attorney of New Orleans to make strict inquiries. If the coins counterfeited are Spanish Milled Dollars, as they are current by law, the counterfeiting is punishable... but if of any other description and manufactured within the United States for the purpose of fraudulently passing them in a foreign country although such act does not come within the purview of any existing law of the United States, yet, the President thinks it is due to other nations to recommend to the consideration of Congress the propriety of passing an ACT to the effect....”.

* Diplomatic correspondence of the United States, Inter-American Affairs. Wm. R. Manning, Washington D.C., Vol. VIII, page 23 and 251. Communication of April 18, 1832.

New York was next and during the month of August 1833, the "Robert Wilson", A vessel AT Vera Cruz carrying large sums of counterfeits; in Pennsylvania an enterprising firm had been making enormous quantities of Chihuahua coppers dated 1846 and smuggled them into Mexico through C. Juarez (El Paso del Norte at that time) in the hollow portions of water pumps; San Francisco, struck Sinaloa fourth of a real dated 1864 and smuggled into Mazatlan in the lumen (tubular cavity) of water pipes). Sinaloa had coppers of a different design struck at the Alamos mint in 1861. The dies were engraved by Guentin Douglas whose initials appear at the base of the feminine head and the amount recorded as \$17, 000 (544,400) pieces; Arizona not to be left behind, for spurious coinage of Sonora was being struck in Tucson during the year of 1879. Unfortunately this last item was not identified in the protest filed by the Mexican consul.

The intercession or interference of the United States in Mexico was much in evidence in the case of Juan Temple; lessee of the Mexico City Mint. Juan Temple, born in Redding, Mass., in 1798, migrated to California 1827. became a citizen, embraced The Catholic faith (was baptized in San Diego), married Rafaela, daughter of a wealthy Mexican (Francisco Cota) in 1830 and had a daughter whom they named Francisca. As a successful trader, at times working by himself or associated with his brother Pliny F. Temple who assumed the name of Johnathon, built the Temple Block in Los Angeles and the adjacent street still bears his name. He was active in the Vigilante movement, owner of the Cerritos ranch and creditor of the California Missions, died in San Francisco on May 30, 1866.

Destiny brought to San Francisco, in 1845, another trader well recommended to Thomas Oliver Larkin. the new arrival was Gregorio Ajuria, a Spaniard born in 1807, who in 1850 married Temple's daughter thus acquiring wealth and influence and wily enough to advance \$60,000 to the Comomfort revolutionary movement in 1854 in exchange for for promissory notes worth \$250,000 if and when the movement was successful. The Gamble paid off and as legal representative of his father-in-law, obtained an immensely profitable lease on the Mexico City Mint.

Although the lease carried a clause that for all intents and purposes the lessee was to be considered a Mexican citizen, Temple, who had made use of a prerogative granted by the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, reassumed American citizenship, ignored the exempting clause and repeatedly demanded protection from the diplomatic representative of the United States who on January 27, 1862 expressed himself as follows:

"This act of the (Mexican) Government amazes me; it seems scarcely possible. No fierce barbarian despotism in ancient or modern times has shown a more thorough contempt for pledged faith and national honor...."

In 1877, John W. Foster, diplomatic representative of the United States in Mexico, published in the new York Herald an article titled, "The Turks of America, Mexico and its abuses against American citizens. A government of thieves>"...Harsh words hardly applicable when the American Legation in Mexico City had acted as a

depository to the silver stolen in 1858 from the cathedral of Michoacan amounting to a million and half dollars! Sometime later this loot was disposed of in some unaccounted manner and the Mexican authorities were unable to recover more than \$79,000.

MICHOACAN – The legislature approved on January 23, 1834, the establishment of a mint and while several offers for the lease were received nothing was done. During 1858 the ornaments of the cathedral were removed by prominent revolutionaries and melted down, obtaining 15,000 lbs. Of silver, 25 of gold and numerous precious stones. This was the loot that found asylum in the U.S. legation in Mexico City.

The lessees of the DURANGO mint struck 8 real coins of bass metal from 1833 to 1840; the legal coinage of that period was 5 to 6 grains short in its silver content. In 1847 they had dies made in France and to top it all, they refused to accept the government inspector, threatening to eject him by force if he gained admittance. In 1840 they issued 8 real pieces with a different legend on the reverse (8,R.A.D:1849.O.M.C.) that in lieu of a better explanation has been interpreted as 8 reales annum dominatio (year of despotism) 1840 Octavio Martinez Castro, the assayer. The use of three assayer's initials was repeated in 1849 – 1852 (J.M.R.) Jose Maria Ramirez, and in 1877 (J.M.R. Jose Maria Reibert).

The gold coins of GUADALAJARA from 1824 to 1834 were short 4 to 16 grains each. the deficiency reported by Great Britain caused the suspension of the assayer Francisco Suarez, but his untimely death prevented prosecution. During the months of September and October 1860, the silver ornaments of the Guadalajara cathedral were removed and ordered coined without due process of assay obtaining an estimated 100,000 pieces of eight.

Had it not been for the foresight of the engraver (Albino del Moral) who surreptitiously placed a dot in the space between the right wing of the eagle and the tail end of the serpent, this coinage would have gone unrecognized. It was recalled shortly after and the number that escaped the melting pot was scant.

Guadalupe y Calvo - In 1839 a silver shipment was taken over by highwaymen while on the road to Durango and sometime later turned into coin. While the robbers were caught and punished, the judgment papers fail to disclose the characteristics of said coinage, Macintosh director of the Guadalupe y Calvo mint, declared that it did not bear the GC mint mark or the assayer's initials.

Hermosillo – The Santoyo copper coinage, as reported in PLUS ULTRA (Vol. V, page 3, Feb. 28, 1864) was made surreptitiously in a mountain cave. The silver coinage of 1835, 1836 (consult the NUMISMATIST, Vol. 66, numbers 8 and 11, 1953) that began November 1, 1835 with locally made dies, ended abruptly January 29, 1836, when the central government ordered the recollection of the issue and the mint closed.

The State of SONORA, independently of the central government, contracted with the Culiacan mint to coin cuartillas (fourth's of a real in 1859 and 1861; during the latter year the mints of Alamos and Hermosillo were established and shortly after the French intervention took place; Maximilian's Secretary of the treasury disapproved their lease and ordered the mints closed on August 25, 1865. The lessee (Robert R. Symon) hastened to Mexico City, signed a new lease and both Sonora mints resumed coinage March 11, 1866.

The GUANAJUATO mint, leased to Manning and Marshall had beautiful dies made in the Royal Mint in England and trial pieces were struck, they bear the initials of the engraver William Wyon and the year 827. The dies were confiscated in Veracruz and charges filed against the leasing co. The same thing happened in 1843 and the initials of Patrick Murphy appear after the date.

ZACATECAS - The silver coinage of 1832 and 1833 was six grains short of its legal fineness; in 1843 dies were made in England, trial pieces struck and the initials O.M. placed after the date correspond to the last names of the assayers Manuel Ochoa and Manuel Miner.

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## DOÑA JOSEFA ORTIZ DE DOMINGUEZ, HEROINE OF MEXICAN INDEPENDENCE

By Wendell G. Markham  
From Plus Ultra, Volume V, Number 57

Why does a little known Doña \* appear on a coin of Mexico? It would seem as likely to us Californians that Mrs. Reagan would appear on a coin of the United States of America in the year 2100! Numismatists are well aware that the likeness of real women on World coins is a rarity. For the likeness of a women who was only the wife of a corregidor to appear on a coin is an extremely rare likelihood.

Josefa was born in Valladolid, Michoacan in 1768 (day and month unknown.) Valladolid has been called Morelia in memory of Jose Maria Morelos since 1828. Juan Ortiz was not officially married to Josefa's mother, Manuela Giron. It was not the general custom, because of expense, for Creoles or metizos to have a formal ceremony in provincial days. As a tiny infant Josefa was left to be cared for by an older sister. Some how Josefa Ortiz received an excellent education for a lady of those times. At the age of 23 she left the college of Biscayana. Soon she married Miguel Dominguez who was educated as a lawyer. It is the writer's opinion that Josefa and Miguel were most likely Creoles. Miguel's education aided him in being appointed corregidor of Quertaro. \*\*

\* DOÑA {abbreviated Dña.) is a term used here as a sign of respect. Formerly it was a term, which indicated titled nobility, as "Don", which is equivalent of the English "Sir".



\*\* CORREGIDOR this is hard to translate. There is no American equivalent for this term, although it is often loosely translated as governor. Webster says a corregidor was a chief magistrate of a town of Spain or its colonies; but he was more important than a Mayor of a town, though less than a State Governor. A corregidor was both an executive and a judicial officer. Superior to him was the Indentant of a district. The indentant was the chief administrative officer (equivalent to Governor of a state) who served under the viceroy of New Spain.

Four main classes of people in New Spain are described below as they are pertinent to the action of heroes in this biographical sketch.

1. The old Spaniards, royalists, loyalists or aristocracy were usually wealthy, arrogant and unscrupulous in their operation of various monopolies for their personal profit. The population of this class in 1800 was less than 10,000.
2. Creoles were second generation native born of direct Spanish parentage. The old Spanish regarded the Creoles very often as natives. Creole population was 700,000.
3. Matizos were the people of mixed Indian and Spanish blood in New Spain. Metizo population was 1,500,000.
4. The true natives of New Spain were Indians. They were not recognized as citizens and had no rights. The estimated population of Indians in New Spain was 2,250,000.

Next, a little background is presented here about Hidalgo. It is my reading about Hidalgo that one is able to learn what little is known about the heroine of this article. Don Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla was a Creole. He was a brilliant student at St. Nicolas College where he majored in theology, philosophy and French. It was here that he received the nickname "THE FOX". (Can it be that this is the "El Zorro" that Walt Disney has immortalized on a television show a few years back?) ("El Zorro" means "The Fox" in Spanish. Scholarly, but practical, Hidalgo became a college professor, dean, and later a priest.

He decided to do something about the Spanish-Colonial regime, which had oppressed and robbed the natives for three centuries. The strength of King Ferdinand VIII in 1898 was greatly reduced after the napoleonic invasion. New Spain insisted on many social reforms. Social and literary clubs were formed by people of the lower three classes interested in a revolution. "Mexico for Mexicans" was most often a topic of discussion. Such a literary club existed in Valladolid and Queretaroo in 1808. The Queretaro club included Hidalgo, three lawyers and four army officers. Miguel Dominguez dared not be a member, but he favored its ideas. The Corregidora was very sympathetic to the ideas of the seekers of independence. Her participation in the struggle for independence was decisive.

A daughter of Josefa was the fiance of a leading conspirator, Captain Ignacio Allende. The plotters met in the home of the corregidor. By means of family conversations, all the secrets of the conspiracy for independence were known to the large Dominguez family. Josefa felt it her duty to keep Capt. Allende and the priest of Delores, Father Hidalgo, posted on happenings in Queretaro favorable to the cost of liberty.

Dolores is now Dolores Hidalgo, Guanajuato. The church bell of Dolores in Mexico's "Liberty Bell. On September 14, 1896, this bell was hung in the National Palace, Mexico City.

Many people had knowledge of the plot for independence, which had been going on for two years. December 8, 1810 was to be D-Day. It is difficult to say how the plot was discovered by the royalists. One generally accepted is told by A. H. Noll: ---- "One of the revolutionists being ill and in fear of death sent for his priest, that he might make his confession, and divulged to him the details of the plan for the popular uprising. That priest, in his zeal for the royal cause, broke the seal of the confessional by communicating to the authorities the knowledge he had thus gained. At the same time others in the revolutionary club became panic-stricken and either involuntarily or to avoid disaster to themselves, disclosed the whole plot with the names of those who were implicated."

What followed is more certain; orders were issued forthwith for the arrest of the chief actors; Hidalgo, Allende, Ignacio Aldana and others; and the corregidor, faithful to the duties of his office, proceeded to execute the order as was required of him. Ignacio Perez, the alcade, resided in the same house as the corregidor. By a preconcerted signal -- three taps on the floor of her room, the patriotic Josefa Maria Ortiz informed the alcade of the discovery of the plot and of the arrests which had been made, and hurried him off to San Miguel to warn Allende, and through him, Hidalgo."----

A similar report is given by Dr. A. F. Pradeau, in the 1962 Numismatist : -- "The governor had chosen to ignore the plotting that had been going on Sept.12, 1810 when the ecclesiastical judge, Rafael Gil Leon, officially denounced the conspiracy. Even then, the Dominguez acted so deliberately and openly that Hidalgo and his co-workers were given time to mature their plans.

Fully aware of the patriotic proclivities of his wife and fearing some indiscreet act on her part, the Governor kept her locked in their residence while he proceeded to fulfill his duties against the least important of the plotters. Nevertheless, Doña Josefa, by means of a prearranged signal, was able to bring to her assistance Jailer Ignacio Perez, also a fellow conspirator, who upon learning from her of the denunciation, hastened forth to warn Hidalgo. "The next day, Doña Josefa, intent upon notifying as many of the group as possible, sent another messenger (her daughter-in-law) to Capt. Arias, a royalist officer but active member for the independence movement. Arias, however faltered, and fearing for his life, turned informer, and as a result Sheriff Juan Ochoa arrested both the governor and his wife. Their trial exonerated them. And while Mr. Dominguez was



removed from office, Doña Josefa was arrested anew and twice again brought before a court of justice, charged with conspiring against the Spanish-Colonial regime.

Josefa Ortiz, when jailed in Santa Teresa convent received some consideration as she was about to have her 14<sup>th</sup> child. Later she was imprisoned for nearly four years. On June 7<sup>th</sup> 1817, at the request of her husband who was ill and nearly blind, she was freed by viceroy Juan Ruiz de Apodaca, count of Venadito.

Emperor Agustin de Iturbide named her Lady-In-Waiting to his wife, Ana Maria Huarte, but Josefa declined the offer because she was not in favor of a monarchy. She refused any reward for her service to the cause of freedom. The sad ending of this tale is that Doña Josefa died in extreme poverty at the age of 54, April 1829. Her many children forgot her when she and her husband lost their property. Her remains were left at the Convent of Santa Catlina de Sena. Later they were removed to Queretaroo.

Recognition finally came more than a century after her death. These honors are;

- 1.--- A plaza in Mexico City bears her name and a statue has been erected there in her honor.
- 2.--- The 5 centavos coin has borne her effigy since 1942. Minting of these coins was begun December 19, 1942. The Presidential decree to mint them was not given until Dec. 28, 1942. (10 dayys after minting had begun)
  - (a.) Type IV, Bronze 5 centavos, "Josefa Grande" were minted from 1942 to 1955 in the amount of more than 341 million.
  - (b.) Type V, copper-nickel 5 centavos, "White Josefas" were only minted in 1950. The entire issue of 5.7 million was not released. Probably less then a million were put into circulation.
  - (c.) Type VI, brass 5 centavos, "Josefa Chica", have been minted each year from 1954 to date (Editor's note up to 1969, and Type 7 1970-1976).. Through 1966 there were 1,053 million struck
- 3 --- This is the second coin issued by the Republic of Mexico on which the portrait of a patriot is shown.
- 4 ---- Doña Josefa was the first woman in the history of Mexico who was honored by having her effigy placed on a coin of the realm.
5. --- One medal, a centenario, of Josefa is known; it is not dated but was issued in 1910. It is 31mm in size, of bronze gilt and bears the Frank Grove number of #335. Obverse inscribed: A LAS DAMAS QUE COLABORERON EN LA ENSENAXA POPULAR. DA, JOSEFA ORTIZ DE DOMINGUEZ. Reverse; A likeness of the parochial church at Dolores Hidalgo, Inscribed: HOMENAJE DE COMISION NACIONAL CENTENARIO DE LA INDEPENDENCIA. PARROQUIA DE DELORES HIDALGO/
6. --- The Congress of Michoacan declared her Benedictine.

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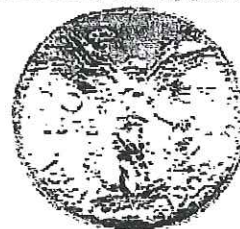
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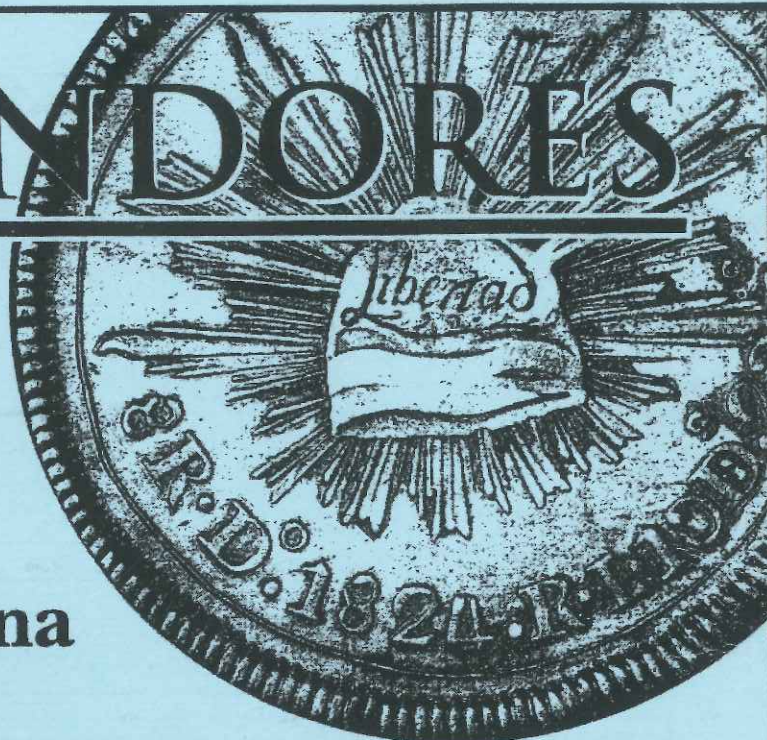


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