

# Origin and fate of the greatest accumulation of silver in ancient history

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1	Origin and fate of the greatest accumulation of silver in ancient history
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13	
14	Abstract
15	The capture of the Achaemenid treasuries in 331-330 BCE by Alexander the Great in
16	Persepolis and Susa marked the demise of the 300-year old Persian empire and the era of
17	Hellenistic kingdoms. Alexander seized the equivalent of about 5,000 tons of silver, which
18	represented the accumulated tributes paid by subjugated people from the Aegean Sea to the
19	Indus to their Achaemenid rulers. Die studies show that this gigantic amount of silver, the so-
20	called 'Persian mix', had been used to produce most of the coinage of Alexander the Great
21	himself and to an even greater extent those of the Diadochi, his successors. What remains to
22	be understood is the origin of the silver of this immense treasure. Lead isotope abundances
23	determined on both Persian sigloi and alexanders struck from Achaemenid silver trace the
24	bullion source to the southern Aegean, Macedonia, and Thrace. Lead in pseudo-coinage from
25	early Indian kingdoms is isotopically different from the rest, which attests to a limited Indian
26	contribution to the Achaemenid treasuries. Studies of Iron Age hoards from the Levant leave
27	open the possibility that the making of the Persian mix may have predated the Achaemenid
28	expansion of the 7 <sup>th</sup> century BCE. We speculate on the motivations of such massive hoarding
29	by the Persian kings and on its economic implications.
30	
31	1. Introduction
32	The 331 BCE defeat of the Persian Achaemenid king Darius at Gaugamela, next to modern

33 Erbil, Iraqi Kurdistan, opened the road to Susa, Babylon, and Persepolis to Alexander the

Great. The colossal amount of wealth plundered by the Macedonians, in particular from the royal treasury in Persepolis, has been described by a number of ancient writers such as Curtius, Diodorus, Plutarch, Arrian, and Justin (Callatay 1989; Holt 2016) and may have reached up to 200,000 talents of Attic standard (1 talent = 25.9 kg), which in modern units correspond to a staggering silver weight of about 5,200 metric tons. This estimate is an aggregated value of gold and silver converted to Attic silver talents, for example 2,600 tons of silver and 260 tons of gold. This figure has to be seen from the mercenary perspective: a Greek hoplite received a daily stipend of about a drachm of 4.3 g. As such, 200,000 talents represent 1,2 billion daily wages, enough to pay in fresh coins for an army of 50,000 soldiers during more than 60 years.

Although heritage of silver accumulation by the Neo-Assyrian (911-605 BCE) and Neo-Babylonian (626-539 BCE) empires in what would become the Persian Empire by looting, trade, and tribute was certainly significant, the Achaemenid dynasty organized the captation of silver resources on a regional scale very efficiently. As reported by Herodotus (III.95), the yearly tribute was 14,560 talents. The looting of Persian treasuries by Macedonian armies created one of the most massive releases of precious metals, superior to any other booty known from Classical antiquity, such as the Egyptian treasury brought back to Rome by Augustus (Nicolet 1984). How such a bullion deluge affected the various economies at the time, and in particular commodity prices, has been the subject of much interest (Van der Spek and van Leeuwen 2014), but, beyond the impact on commodity prices in Babylonia for less than a generation (Jursa 2010), its effect on the Aegean market is not well documented.

What is known, however, is that, over three decades (ca. 332-301 BCE), most of the Persian treasuries were converted into coins. Different forms of 'money' existed in Mesopotamia for millennia, and among them barley and silver were the most prominent (Powell, 1996; Jura, 2014). The silver shekel, originally a measure of weight (8.3 g), had also gradually been accepted as a unit of account and been used physically for trade, although far from exclusively. Silver coinage was only briefly used in the Western part of the Empire for military purposes (Alram 2012; Le Rider 2001). As pointed out by van der Spek et al. (2018), the conquest by Alexander in 331 ushered in minted silver as the primary currency. The many die studies conducted on the coinages of Alexander and his successors reveal that the full production issued in gold and silver exceeded 100,000 talents (Callatay 1989; Callataÿ 1993; Holt 2016; Meadows 2014). Moreover, coin metal analyses have shown that, for both gold

and silver, nearly all eastern production, as well as a substantial part of western production, notably in Macedonia, are likely to have been issued from this bullion, hereafter referred to as the 'Persian mix'. Mixed bullion is consistent with both historical accounts attesting to a Persian policy of remelting tribute and the homogeneous Au/Ag of silver Alexander issues (Olivier et al. 2017).

Despite some modern discredit cast on Herodotus' list of tributes to Darius (Armayor 1978; Bresson 2020), this author famously testifies to the reality of the hefty tributes paid to the King of Kings (the title used by Achaemenid Persian kings) by each satrapy (III.89-97). Most revenues are expressed in silver talents but with some still paid in kind such as white horses or frankincense, while it is also made clear that India paid in gold. Whether the actual tributes were paid in silver, gold, horses, or frankincense cannot be known, but the massive minting of silver coinage by Alexander and the Diadochi demonstrates that the Achaemenid palaces must have been packed with vast amounts of bullion.

From where came the dormant silver heaps of the Persepolis and Susa vaults attested to by ancient writers (Callatay 1989; Holt 2016)? The present work investigates the issue of the origin of the Persian mix using high-precision lead isotope analysis in an attempt to understand whether other silver ores, in addition to the well-acknowledged sources in the Greek world, were involved in the treasures amassed by the King of Kings and what were the particular motivations behind the hoarding of so much bullion.

In addition to Pb isotope measurements of silver Alexander coinage (alexanders), the present work also presents data on two other types of silver coinage that were unlikely to have been minted from the central Persian treasury. First, silver sigloi (shekel) are the only significant coinage produced by the Persian empire in its western satrapies (Alram 1993; Tuplin 2014). They are known, together with archaic Greek coins and Indian punch-mark coinage from Gandhara, from the Kabul hoard deposited ca. 350 BCE (Schlumberger 1953), but so far have not benefited from isotopic work (e.g., Kraay and Emeleus 1962). Second, although no known evidence substantiates a significant input of Indian silver to Persian treasury (Herodotus, III.98-105), the present work provides Pb isotope data on early Indian punch-mark coinage to corroborate this conjecture by objective, concrete means (Reddy 2014).

### 2. Materials and Methods

The present work presents high-precision Pb isotope data on ancient silver coins produced in Persia during the Achaemenid reign and in the Hellenistic world in the immediate aftermath of Darius' defeat. The measured Pb isotope data were treated using novel statistical tools in the form of calculated Pb model ages combined with convex hull theory (see below), which allow the tracking of silver provenance with greater accuracy and precision than possible when using only raw Pb isotope ratios and manually comparing artefacts with known ores on a one-to-one basis. The coin types analyzed here are: (1) silver *alexanders*, minted both during the king's lifetime and shortly after his death; (2) silver sigloi; and (3) shatamanas (bent silver bars and imprinted pieces) from Gandhara and Kamboja janapadas (kingdoms), Northern India, generally dated from the 6<sup>th</sup> to the 4<sup>th</sup> century BCE, respectively. (4) A subset of Greek silver coins further was included for reference. The analytical techniques used for the determination of Pb isotope compositions have been described elsewhere (Milot et al. 2021) and involve anion-exchange chromatography for Pb separation and multi-collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (MC-ICP-MS) for Pb isotopic analysis. Here it suffices to state that all coins of (1), (2), and (3) were drilled, whereas coins of (4) were leached (37) (cf. Milot et al. 2021). Repeated measurements of NIST 981 throughout each analytical session consistently yielded an external reproducibility of <100 ppm (0.01%) for <sup>204</sup>Pb-normalized ratios and <50 ppm (0.005%) for <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb. In-run errors systematically were smaller than the external reproducibility for all samples. Table S1 (Supplementary Information) compiles relevant coin information with the corresponding Pb isotope data acquired in this study.

#### 3. Lead isotopes and the convex hull strategy

The prevalent method of assessing provenance of silver artefacts is by means of Pb isotopes. Contrary to the abundances of stable isotopes of other elements, such as Cu and Ag, which vary with environmental conditions, the relative abundances of Pb isotopes vary predominantly as a result of uranium and thorium radioactive decay and consequent lead radiogenic ingrowth. Isotopic variations are controlled by the U/Pb and Th/Pb ratios of the rock from which the Pb ore was born and by the time elapsed up to that point. Time (Pb model age), U/Pb, and Th/Pb can be calculated from measured Pb isotopic compositions and be used to deduce the tectonic context in which the ore appeared. In practice, however, archeologists and numismatists simply manually compare the measured Pb isotopic compositions of artefacts in pairs of 2-dimensional plots, such as <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb vs <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb

2 3 4 and <sup>204</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb vs <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb, with those of ores stored in a database until they find a match that is acceptable. However, it takes more than a match in one pair of diagrams to establish whether a data point falls into the 3-dimensional field of Pb isotopic ratios of a particular mining district (**Fig. 1a**). The Pb isotopic data must be visualized in 3-dimensional space (as dictated by the number of parent isotopes, <sup>238</sup>U, <sup>235</sup>U, and <sup>232</sup>Th): although the projections of two different points may coincide on the x-y and x-z planes, they can be distinct on the y-z plane. Prior attempts to address this issue (Delile et al. 2014; Westner et al. 2020) have demonstrated the multiple difficulties of assessing meaningful distances between points. Here we therefore take a different approach, that of the so-called 'convex hull' (**Fig. 1b**), which was previously proposed under the name of 'isotopic niche' in Ecology (Eckrich et al. 2020) before it found its way into Archeology in general (Robinson 2021) and the provenancing of Iron Age *hacksilber* from the Levant in particular (Gentelli et al. 2021).

The Pb isotope data on the different groups of coins, e.g. *sigloi*, are enclosed in the minimal (circumscribing) 3-dimensional (3D) volume (Fig. 1c), the convex hull, which was expanded by 5% to take into account potential analytical uncertainties. The algorithm finds all the ore samples that are plotting inside the sample convex hull. The benefit of testing each potential ore against the convex hull of the sample set, and not the other way around (Longman et al. 2018), which would amount to testing each sample against geographic groups of ores with consistent Pb isotope compositions, is that the sample hull is robustly defined by highprecision data. The downside of the convex hull approach is that some ore districts are overrepresented in the database with data variability at a given site being not specifically considered. It is clear that the database contains an inordinate amount of Lavrion samples, yet the hit maps are different for different samples (Gentelli et al. 2021, and this work). The effect of unequal sample representativeness for densely populated mine fields could be adjusted by normalizing the number of hits to sample density, but such a correction would make little sense for isolated ores with a very small number of samples, such as mines in Iran and North Africa. Rather, careful manual examination of local densities of individual hits will limit such potential bias as has been shown by a previous application of the convex hull method to multiple Iron Age hacksilber hoards (Gentelli et al. 2021) which showed no false-positive identifications of bullion sources. Each Pb isotope datum extracted from a ca. 6700-entry database on galena samples encompassing Europe, North Africa, and Western Asia is then tested for inclusion in the convex hull. Data from major copper ore deposits, such as those found in Cyprus and the Iberian Pyrite Belt, are unlikely to be significant Ag sources and

hence were left out from the search. Figure 2 shows the position of the ores comprising the database. An ore found to be included is considered a hit and therefore a potential Pb source, whereas ores plotting outside the hull (considered a miss) can be safely excluded as potential Pb sources. In order to minimize analytical errors and mass-dependent fractionation of Pb in ores, we opted for using <sup>206</sup>Pb-standardized ratios, i.e., <sup>204</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb, and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb. The hit densities are finally contoured on a geographic map shown in Fig. 3 for Greek silver coins, *alexanders*, and *sigloi*. Figures 4 and 5 show the raw Pb isotopic compositions of the hits identified by the convex hull approach on a grid of Pb model ages and <sup>238</sup>U/<sup>204</sup>Pb ( $T_{mod}$ -μ) values in <sup>207</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb-<sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb space. A grid of Pb model ages and <sup>232</sup>Th/<sup>238</sup>U ( $T_{mod}$ -κ) values was not added to the <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb-<sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>204</sup>Pb plot as this would require adopting a single μ value for all samples which would be incorrect. A single grid could instead have been drawn using the  $T_{mod}$ -(μ\*κ) doublet, but this would be much less informative.

#### 4. Results and discussion

The coin Pb isotope data are listed in Table S1 (*Supplementary Information*). Figure 3 shows the distribution of Pb ores consistent with the present results on coins, i.e., falling within the convex hull of the data set, with histograms of model ages as insets.

First, cluster analysis was applied to the samples using techniques implemented by commercial (Matlab) or public domain (R) packages (Albarède et al. 2021) (Fig. 1c). Each coinage is satisfactorily accounted for by two clusters, which also stand out as separated peaks in the histograms of model ages (Fig. 3, insets), though one of the clusters identified by sigloi has only two elements, which is not enough for a convex hull to be defined in the 3D space of Pb isotope compositions. The various Greek silver coins used for reference emphasize the diversity of ore provenance but with a predominance from Lavrion. Some districts, such as northwestern Sardinia, show more hits, which are consistent with evidence of Sardinian silver sources identified in one Levant hoard of *hacksilber* (Eshel et al. 2019; Gentelli et al. 2021). Delile et al. (2019) suggested that Tunisian silver sources may have been overlooked by ancient literature and explain the surprisingly fast revival of the Carthage economy after the crushing defeat of the Second Punic War and the ensuing war penalties. More isolated points, typically located in Gaul and Britain cannot be formally discounted, but have not been proven so far to be significant silver producers. The Cévennes in southern

France (Munteanu et al. 2016; Ploquin et al. 2010), the British Pennines (Raistrick and
Jennings 1983), and Germany (Körlin 2006) also show evidence of ancient silver mining
activity, but no records exist to document that any of these regions produced significant
amounts of silver before Roman times. For both *sigloi* and *alexanders*, the hits are
concentrated around the Aegean and include Sifnos, Lavrion, Macedonia, and Thrace (red
fields in Fig. 3). For the 18 *sigloi*, Lavrion and Sifnos define a coherent hot spot. As expected,
Macedonia is also an important bullion source for *alexanders*. These results highlight the
major mining districts that made Athenian and Macedonian political and military successes
possible.

The Pangaeon area in Macedonia was already extensively mined when the Persians conquered and controlled this area for a third of a century (512-479 BCE). Their one-time presence in the west prompted large productions which would fade with the battle of Salamis and the Persian retreat after the Second Invasion of Greece. Bresson (Bresson 2015; Bresson 2020) estimates the yearly production of Lavrion, Thrace, and northern Greece to 1500 talents. Callataÿ (2016) used die studies to raise the total amount of bullion to 10,000 talents (260 tons). How much silver extracted from other localities contributed indirectly, i.e., by trade or military movements, is not clear. A likely scenario now emerges in which Persians, who defeated the Lydians in 547 BCE and from then onwards were in contact with monetized precious metals, took full advantage of the silver extraction and minting processes once they became masters of the Pangaeon area. Following the retreat of the Persians from Europe after the Second Invasion, the Achaemenid economy returned to the normal standard of the time in Babylonia and other parts of the empire, which was to use silver for payment but largely in its unminted form (Jursa 2010).

On the Indian side, Gandhara and Kamboja *shatamanas* (1827 hits) show an extreme scatter in Pb isotopic compositions. Model ages fall into two groups (**Fig. 6**). One group with future Pb model ages, which are mostly found in volcanic rocks, is missing from the record of East Mediterranean ore deposits. The other group is characterized by positive Pb model ages (>100 Ma) but its large number of hits is clearly due to an extreme spread of the data in Pb isotope space. From the British Isles to Spain, Greece, Turkey, and Iran, this group singles out no specific province which could attest to a potential bullion provenance. The spread of the data, and notably of model ages, in each group suggests the existence of multiple but modest sources of Ag ores in the Middle East.

The outcome of the present work is twofold: the data on Persian *sigloi* show the prevalence of metal components with the strong Pb isotopic signature of Laurion (Figure 4), while alexanders further show additional Thraco-Macedonian, Thasos, Cycladic, and other unknown sources (Figure 5). The possibility of sources in Tunisia remains enigmatic but may also reflect some overlap with sources in Chalkidiki. The difference between sigloi and alexanders suggest that sigloi were struck from local Ionian sources. The present isotopic data complement the trace element data of Olivier et al. (2017) on alexanders. The comparison of alexander Au/Ag and Pb/Ag data with those of archaic Greek coinage (Davis et al. 2020) (Fig. 7) shows that *alexanders* are consistent with a mixture of gold-rich Thraco-Macedonian and gold-depleted, lead-rich Attic sources. Given that in most cases Greek silver coins retained a tight Pb isotope source signature, any mixing must have happened at a late stage. Whether mixing should be assigned to bullion melting at the time of tribute collection, as reported by Herodotus, or to reprocessing of the Persian treasury by Macedonians for minting is still open to question. There is no necessity for Greek bullion to have journeyed directly from Greece to Persia as formal tribute; intermediaries of all sorts over arbitrary time intervals could have achieved the same result. Trade, war indemnities, and deposits in temples such as Delphi or Ephesus efficiently redistributed silver all around the eastern Mediterranean. In this respect, the case of Egypt, which according to Herodotus (III.91) had to pay its tribute partly in silver (700 talents), while no silver mine is known in this area, is illuminating. Even if Egypt, a country which benefitted from strong exports based on barley and wheat, could not fully meet the Persian demand in silver, it is probable that at least part of the tribute must have been paid in metal, both minted and unminted.

Although some west-east circulation of Greek and *sigloi* silver coins in the Achaemenid
empire is attested to in particular by the hoards of Kabul (Schlumberger 1953), Babylon
(Reade 1986), and Malayer, next to Ecbatana (Kraay and Moorey 1968), hoarding of Persian *sigloi* in Persepolis and other major urban centers at the heart of the empire was uncommon
and an essentially 'silverized' but coin-less character of the Persian economy is usually
favored (Jursa 2010; Meadows 2005) with possible exceptions during the reign of Artaxerxes
III (Alram 2012). Additionally, Indian bent silver bars differ markedly in Pb isotopic
composition from the *sigloi* and the *alexanders*. Again, this is no surprise since neither
literary sources nor monetary circulation attested to by deposits indicate any flow of silver
from the far east to the center of the empire. As explained below, it should be noted that no

records exist for Achaemenid-era silver mines in either modern Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, Turkmenistan, or India, or, if such records did exist, they have been lost. Although silver extraction from Pb ores is mentioned for the Sassanid Period (224 AD-670 AD; Ghorbani 2013), the comparative chemistry of Parthian and Sassanid coinage is elusive about Persian sources (Sodaei et al. 2013). In modern Iran, silver is mostly mentioned in connection with gold and lead deposits (Ghorbani 2013), rarely in the form of silver ore. Porphyry copper deposits are abundant in Iran (Zürcher et al. 2019), but because molten Ag is sparingly soluble in Cu with which it forms a eutectic at 28.1 wt.% Cu (Subramanian and Perepezko 1993), the costly extraction of minor silver from copper ores simply may not have been profitable. The US Geological Survey reports on Afghanistan ore deposits but does not flag any significant silver-rich ores (Peters et al. 2011). The geologically old and otherwise basaltic India is an unlikely source of silver and lead, but the recent discovery of the major Huoshaoyun Zn-Pb deposit in the Karakorum Range (Li et al. 2019) suggests that sources of silver and lead, now exhausted and unrecorded in the extant literature, may have existed to support the manufacturing of early Indian coinage. Significant Asian sources of silver contributing to the Achaemenid treasure therefore remain highly speculative.

Most silver used to strike both the silver *alexanders* and the Persian *sigloi* presumably came from peri-Aegean metal sources. It is therefore appealing to consider that the Persian mix reflects the tributes exacted from the Greeks or, indirectly, from other satrapies which traded with the Greeks. Nevertheless, the Persian mix is occasionally found in hoards of *hacksilber* buried in the Early Iron Age (11<sup>th</sup>-10<sup>th</sup> centuries BCE) in modern Israel (Eshel et al. 2019; Gentelli et al. 2021). In addition, pollution of Alpine glaciers by Pb and Sb during the Iron Age, both strong markers of silver metallurgy, is barely measurable compared to values during the Roman era (Preunkert et al. 2019), which reflects that silver mining prior to the Persian expansion of the 6<sup>th</sup> century BCE may have been insignificant. What is currently defined as the Persian mix could also be a long-lived eastern Mediterranean mix dominated by circum-Aegean sources, where most silver had already been melted again and again all the way back to the Bronze Age.

We finally briefly speculate on why Persian kings hoarded bullion to an extent never seen at any other time in antiquity. Unproductive bullion accumulation was certainly a common habit
 of many societies, but the massive melting and underground storage of silver described by
 Herodotus reached an unparalleled practice which deserves scrutiny. Beyond the Persian

treasuries, it is difficult to estimate the volume of silver used for transactions within the Achaemenid empire, but it should not be minimized and transactions could have been taking place as early as the 6<sup>th</sup> century BCE (Jursa 2011; Pirngruber 2017). As attested to by the presence of chopped Greek coins in the Babylonian Rassam hoard from the end of the 4<sup>th</sup> century BCE (Reade 1986), silver coinage clearly was not the prevalent form of currency in the central part of the empire (Alram 2012; Le Rider 2001). The silver shekel, next to barley and other in-kind commodities, nevertheless certainly was present both physically and as a unit of account (Jursa 2011; Powell 1996; van der Spek et al. 2018). The noticeable price deflation observed in Babylonia during the 5<sup>th</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> centuries BCE was assigned to intensified captation of silver through taxes (Stolper 1985), but demography and improvement of cash-crop agriculture may also have been important alternative factors (Monerie 2013). Using concepts from modern mainstream economics, which were almost certainly not part of the Persian culture, massive hoarding resulted in a much longer bullion residence time in royal treasuries and was effective at slowing down large-scale bullion circulation. The clamping down on silver supply, in both its minted and unminted forms, combined with the massive silver tributes imposed on subjugated societies, which were otherwise allowed to keep their political system, drained regional silver resources on a massive scale into the royal treasury. If tribute was an efficient way of drawing off silver accumulated by potential adversaries such as Egypt and Ionian Greece, long-distance trade was the long arm of this scheme, certainly cheaper and less risky than launching distant military campaigns. Considering that the much-coveted Greek hoplites were usually paid in silver and gold coins, a major side effect of this policy must have been that it helped render the recruiting of large mercenary forces a royal privilege (Bresson 2020), thereby reducing the threats, both domestic and abroad, to the throne. But eventually, the systematic storage of very large amounts of silver in the royal vaults, whether intentional or not, contributed to the collapse of the Persian empire and ushered in its replacement by the Hellenistic kingdoms of Antigonid Macedonia and Ptolemaic Egypt, and by the Seleucid empire in the East.

### 5. Conclusions

The Achaemenids' ruling of old Persia achieved the largest accumulation of precious metals reported in ancient history, equivalent to about 5,000 metric tons of silver. While research has shown how Alexander the Great and his successors processed these gigantic quantities by striking coins, the origins of the silver have so far remained largely unknown. Lead isotope abundances determined in this work on both Persian and Alexander silver coinages trace the

338 bullion sources to the southern Aegean, Macedonia, and Thrace, while lead from pseudo-1 339 coinage from early Indian kingdoms is markedly different from the rest, hence excluding 2 3 340 India as a source. Fully understanding how and when such huge amounts of Aegean silver 4 5 341 were extracted and eventually arrived in the Persian treasuries is emerging as a new challenge 6 7 342 for future studies. 8 9 343 10 Acknowledgments 11 344 12 13 345 This work is a contribution of Advanced Grant 741454-SILVER-ERC-2016-ADG 'Silver 14 346 Isotopes and the Rise of Money' awarded to FA by the European Research Council (ERC). 15

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### **Author statements**

- The authors have no competing conflicts of interest to disclose.
- Data sharing plan: The data in Table S1 (Supplementary Information) will be made • fully available upon acceptance of the manuscript.

#### 35 357 **Author contributions**

37 358 JBT and FA designed the research and wrote the paper with input from FdC; FA selected the 359 coins for purchase; JBT produced the Pb isotope data with assistance from technical staff; PT 360 ensured instruments were working.

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### **Figure captions**

41 507 42 Figure 1. (a) Source identification with Pb isotopes in 2- and 3-dimensional plots may 508 <sup>44</sup> 509 provide different outcomes. The symbol P represents a single data point in 3D Pb isotope space and  $P_{xy}$ ,  $P_{xz}$ , and  $P_{yz}$  its three 2D projections onto the three xy, xz, and yz faces 46 510 (conventional isotope diagrams). The lavender 3D field *f* represents a single mining district 48 511 50 512 and the light-grey fields  $f_{xy}$ ,  $f_{xz}$ , and  $f_{yz}$  its three 2D projections. Clearly, inclusion of a point in 513 one and even two of these 2D fields is not sufficient to establish that P is part of the 3D f52 field. It should therefore not be concluded that the inclusion of a data point in a common field 514 55 515 in 2D representation demonstrates that it belongs to the same field in 3D. (b) The convex hull 57 516 technique for calculating the closest convex circumscribing volume to a set of points in a 3-59 517 dimensional space. This volume, here in yellow for an arbitrary set of data, is defined by all 60 61

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the x, y, z triplets of Pb isotope ratios of the sample (e.g., alexanders or sigloi). 'Hits' are the 518 localities of the samples extracted from a ca. 6700-entry database on galenas which plot within the convex hull. (c) The four steps used in this work to identify the ore deposits which are 'hits' in the convex hulls defined by the samples. For purpose of illustration and readability, this sketch of the different steps was drawn as a 2-dimensional representation though all steps were carried out in three dimensions in the present work. The variables x and y stand for any arbitrary Pb isotope ratios. Step 1: samples (yellow circles, e.g., sigloi) are plotted in an x-y representation; step 2: standard cluster analysis is carried out and, in this case, identifies two groups shown within dotted contours; step 3: convex hulls are calculated for each group with a small allowance (in grey) added for the fringe of each hull to take analytical uncertainties into account; step 4: the position of each ore sample inside (hits shown with green crosses) or outside (misses shown with red crosses) the convex hull is determined numerically (fringe not shown). In the present study, the number of groups vary between 1 and 2.

Figure 2. Map showing the localities of the ores listed in the ca. 6700-entry Pb isotope database on galena samples used with the convex hull algorithm of this study. The database is an extension of that published by Blichert-Toft et al. (2016) with copper and zinc ore and artefact data removed. Sample locations have been randomly jittered in a circle of 0-0.2 degree (0-22 km) radius around the true coordinates to increase their apparent spread and provide a better vision of sample distribution.

Figure 3. Maps of the Pb isotope 'hits' observed for sigloi (bottom panel), alexanders (middle panel), and Greek silver coins (top panel) using the convex hull algorithm. The histograms of model ages (insets) show how well grouped the results are. The total number of hits is the number of matches between coin and ore Pb isotopic compositions. The Pb ore database consists of about 6700 European, North African, and Middle Eastern ores significantly expanded and updated from a smaller core of data on Pb ores initially compiled in the OXALID database (Stos-Gale and Gale 2009) after careful removal of artefacts, slags, and Cu ores. Isolated hits (cyan-colored symbols) may reflect minor production sites, but may also reflect analytical issues and local geological intricacies; they are not localities where substantial silver production has ever been documented and hence are considered as fortuitous. Red-shaded fields represent areas with a hit density >10% per degree-squared normalized to the entire population of hits, which attest to the most frequent provenances.

*Sigloi* are therefore dominated by Attic and peri-Attic silver (Siphnos, Milos), with
 *alexanders* including additional Thraco-Macedonian sources.

**Figure 4.** Plot of the hits obtained for sigloi. In the 3-dimensional space of Pb isotopic ratios, two clustesr are first identified by cluster analysis. One of them comprises only two points and hence no convex hull can be calculated. The convex hull of the second cluster shows hits largely dominated by Laurion lead. Convex hulls are expanded by 5% to take analytical uncertainties into account. The samples labelled 'Tunisia' may indicate that silver from the Carthage hinterland has been neglected by ancient literature (Delile et al. 2019) or that other fields, such as Chalkidiki, were poorly sampled for Pb isotopic analysis. The 'other' group represents isolated Pb mines insufficiently documented by Pb isotope analysis. The model age isochrons and the growth curves for different  $\mu$  values calculated with Albarède and Juteau's (1984) parameters are shown for reference in the bottom panel.

Figure 5. Plot of the hits obtained for the analyzed *alexanders*. As in Figure 4, two clusters are identified. The convex hull of the cluster with Pb older model ages represent poorly documented mines from unexpected localities in Gaul, Britain, and Asia Minor. The cluster with younger model ages point to the Cyclades, Thasos, Chalkidiki, and Rhodope. As in Fig. 4, the model age isochrons and the growth curves for different μ values calculated with Albarède and Juteau's (1984) parameters are shown for reference in the bottom panel.

Figure 6. Comparison of the Pb model ages (in million years, Ma) of the four data sets analyzed in this work. Model ages represent the apparent tectonic age of the Pb ores used for silver cupellation (Albarede et al. 2012). Negative model ages are found only in mantle-derived volcanics. With a few exceptions, silver from Indian Gandhara and Kamboja *shatamanas* does not seem to have been a significant component of the 'Persian mix' used by Alexander and his successors to mint their coinage.

Figure 7. Triangular plot of Cu-Au-Pb concentrations in pre- (Philip II, in blue) and post-330
BCE (Alexander and Philip III, in red) Macedonian coinage (Olivier et al. 2017). The
background contours represent concentration frequencies in ca. 1200 archaic Greek coins and
delimit the Au-rich Thraco-Macedonian field and the Pb-rich Attica field (Davis et al. 2020).
Note the low Cu contents of Macedonian coinage. Macedonian silver coinage is a mixture of
Au-rich Thraco-Macedonian and Pb-rich Attic sources.

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1 2	587	Table captions
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Table S1. Pb isotopic ratios and model parameters of the samples analyzed. See Milot et al. (2021) and manuscript text for average uncertainties.

Lab code #	Origin	Denomination	Origin	Inventory	Chronology	206Pb/204Pb	207Pb/204Pb	208Pb/204Pb	207Pb/206Pb	208Pb/206Pb	Гmod (Ma)	mu	kappa	code
Sigloi														
P277	Persia	siglos		Wallin Mynthandel 60130	420-375 BC	18 7644	15 6735	38 809	0 83527	2 06825	77	9 824	3 881	1
1277	duplicate	sigles			420 575 50	10.7530	15.0755	20.767	0.03527	2.00025	 	0.772	2.001	1
F2770	Develo	sigios	Device I. Manual II	Alles have and		10.7328	15.0597	38.707	0.83307	2.00731	58	9.773	3.803	1
P278	Persia	sigios	Darios I - Xerxes II	Alloada yun 241		18.8211	15.6537	38.731	0.831/1	2.05779	-b	9.738	3.799	1
P279	Persia	siglos	Darios I - Xerxes II	Alibaba yun 242		18.8445	15.6869	38.871	0.83385	2.06272	43	9.861	3.866	1
P289	Persia	siglos	Byzantium, Thrace	FORVM LT91384	387-30 BC	18.7904	15.6799	38.855	0.83447	2.06785	70	9.844	3.89	1
P296	Persia	siglos	Great King	FORVM LT 91060	c.400 BC	18.8431	15.6742	38.804	0.83182	2.05926	19	9.812	3.829	1
P309	Persia	siglos IIIb	Lydia, Sardis, Artaxerxes I - Darius III	Rosen 673 SGCV II 4682 FORVM GA 91814	c.485-420 BC	18.8115	15.6633	38.805	0.83265	2.06287	21	9.776	3.846	1
P312	Persia	siglos III b	Lydia, Sardis, Artaxerxes I - Darius III	Rosen 673 SGCV II 4682 FORVM GA 91813	c. 480-420 BC	18.8393	15.6769	38.841	0.83213	2.06171	27	9.823	3.851	1
P312b	Persia	siglos IIIb	Lydia, Sardis, Artaxerxes I - Darius III	Rosen 673 SGCV II 4682 FORVM GA 91813	c. 480-420 BC	18.8355	15.6731	38.833	0.83210	2.06166	23	9.81	3.848	1
P315	Persia	siglos IIIh	Lydia Sardis Artaxerxes I - Darius III	Rosen 673 SGCV II 4682 FORVM GA 91816	c 485-420 BC	18 7920	15 6645	38 824	0 83356	2 06592	38	9 785	3 868	1
D210	Carta	totartomorion	Hekatompor	SNG Kockman 848 SNG Kauban 827 Kloin EO7 EORV/M GS 80700	c. 202 277 BC	10 0100	15.0015	20.021	0.03350	2.06340	24	0 701	2 955	1
F319	cana		nekatorinios		C. 392-277 BC	10.0100	15.0074	38.830	0.83234	2.00340	24	5.751	3.833	1
P332	Persia	1/3 sigios	Sardis Achaemenid Darius I	Lanz	552-486 BC	18.8510	15.6874	38.814	0.83218	2.05890	40	9.862	3.834	1
P409	Persia	1/4 siglos	Xerxes II - Artaxerxes II	Munzen Sann	c. 455-420 BC	18.7793	15.6793	38.846	0.83491	2.06851	//	9.844	3.892	1
P411	Persia	siglos	Artaxerxes II	André Cichos		18.6180	15.6465	38.667	0.84041	2.07683	133	9.748	3.893	1
P412	Persia	siglos	Darius II - Artaxerxes II	G. Henzen SNG Cop 284 Klein 763 Rosen 677	420-395 BC	18.8338	15.6693	38.809	0.83197	2.06056	16	9.795	3.836	1
P413	Persia	siglos	Artaxerxes II	Ingemar Wallin Utweckling	420-375 BC	18.8411	15.6921	38.867	0.83285	2.06289	56	9.881	3.868	1
P414	Persia	1/4 siglos	Darius II - Artaxerxes II	Ingemar Wallin Utweckling	c. 404-358 BC	18.8295	15.6634	38.789	0.83185	2.05998	8	9.774	3.827	1
P415	Persia	siglos	Xerxes II - Artaxerxes II	Ingemar Wallin Utweckling	420-375 BC	18,5997	15.6269	38.624	0.84016	2.07658	108	9.676	3.876	1
Alexanders		8												-
Alou1*	Threese		Abudas Alexander III	Drive 1575	220 207 PC	10 7020	15 6000	20 001	0 92522	2.07001	01	0 077	2 01	2
Alexi	Innace		Abyuos, Alexander III	Plice 1575	320-297 BC	16.7650	15.0660	30.001	0.85522	2.07001	91	9.8//	5.91	2
Alex2*	Macedonia		Alexander III		336-323 BC	18.8240	15.7100	39.006	0.83457	2.07214	104	9.954	3.954	2
Alex3*	Macedonia		Alexander III	Inumis		18.8040	15.6770	38.931	0.83371	2.07036	54	9.83	3.918	2
B058	Thrace		Mesembria	Plateau 118 :	120-80 BC	18.6411	15.6688	38.678	0.84056	2.07489	159	9.83	3.892	2
B059	Macedonia		Uranopolis Lifetime Alexander II	Plateau 143 : coll. L. de Hirsch 1065	332-290 BC	18.6060	15.6663	38.736	0.84199	2.08183	180	9.828	3.943	2
B060	Macedonia		Uranopolis	Plateau 143 : Acg. 1912	332-290 BC	18.3780	15.6428	38.478	0.85117	2.09370	304	9.786	3,951	2
B061	Macedonia		Uranopolis	Plateau 1/3 : coll L de Hirsch 1067	332-290 BC	18 /017	15 6480	38 550	0.84621	2 08520	230	0 781	3 02	2
B062	Macadonia		Tarsos Lifetime Alexander III	Distory 143 : coll. L. de Hirsch 1007	222 200 BC	10.4017	15.0400	20 645	0.04021	2.00520	200	0.020	2 0/6	2
B002	Macedonia	dan alama	Alexandra III	Ander Cicker 024 (2040	332-230 BC	18.3283	15.0049	38.045	0.84545	2.08300	233	5.655	3.540	2
P2/2	Macedonia	drachm	Alexander III	Andre Cichos 831/2019	336-323 BC	18.7533	15.6704	38.820	0.83559	2.07001	/9	9.814	3.892	2
P286	Ionia	Drachm	Colophon, Alexander III	Pasargad 25016		18.7851	15.6630	38.846	0.83244	2.06790	40	9.78	3.883	2
P287	Peloponnese	Tetradrachm	Corinth, Alexander III	Artifact Man 624199	310-290 BC	18.8371	15.6715	38.810	0.83196	2.06032	18	9.803	3.835	2
P333	Macedonia	drachm	Antigonus Monophtalmus	cgb bgr_576943	310-301 BC	18.7831	15.6555	38.753	0.83349	2.06313	27	9.752	3.835	2
P335	Macedonia Alexander Philippe III	drachm	Macedonia Alexander Philippe III	cgb bgr_560215	323-317 BC	18.7929	15.6862	38.920	0.83465	2.07100	80	9.868	3.923	2
P337	Thrace	drachm	Lysimachos	cgb bgr_572924	299/298-297/296 BC	18.7759	15.6658	38.850	0.83436	2.06914	53	9.792	3.891	2
P338	Macedonia	drachm	Demerios Poliorcetes	cgb bgr 313732	291-290 BC	18,7542	15.6711	38,787	0.83560	2.06823	79	9.817	3.875	2
<b>D330</b>	Macedonia	drachm	Antigonus Monophtalmus	Müller 200 Price 2279 EORVM SI 79268	310-301 BC	18 7853	15 6723	38 837	0 83/120	2 06743	50	9.816	3 881	2
P340	Macedonia	tetradrachm	Alexander Philippe III Arrhidaeus and Alexander IV	Müller P103 Price P182 EORV/M GS 87632	323-317 BC	18 8450	15.6763	38 793	0.83185	2.05849	22	9.010	3 824	2
0244	Maccuonia	des alsos	Action of the sector in a middle of the Action of the sector of the sect	Maller 1 105 The 1 102 T ONVIN 05 07052	323 317 60	10.0450	15.0705	20.020	0.00100	2.05045	22	0.025	2.054	2
P341	Macedonia	drachm	Antigonos i Monophtaimus	Muller 821, Price 1406 FORVINI SL 21985	310-301 BC	18.8247	15.6/6/	38.828	0.83278	2.06262	38	9.825	3.854	2
P352	Ionia	drachm	Colophon , Alexander III	Muller 315 - Price 1762 - SNG Copenhagen 994	323-319 BC	18.7967	15.6872	38.908	0.83457	2.06988	80	9.871	3.915	2
P353	Thrace	drachm	Abydos Alexander III	Muller 1618 - Price 1528 - SNG Copenhagen 994	310-301 BC	18.8024	15.6804	38.846	0.83394	2.06604	62	9.844	3.878	2
P354	Phoenicia	tetradrachm	Byblos , Alexander III	Muller 1375 - Pric 3426	330-320 BC	18.7997	15.6614	38.797	0.83307	2.06368	26	9.771	3.849	2
P355	Ionia	drachm	Colophon , Alexander III	Muller 317 - Price 1759 ; sng Copenhagen 1750	323-319 BC	18.8069	15.6932	38.946	0.83444	2.07083	84	9.892	3.93	2
P356	Ionia	drachm	Colophon , Alexander III	Muller 796 - Price 1808	310-301 BC	18.8084	15.6937	38.927	0.83440	2.06976	84	9.894	3.919	2
P357	Ionia	drachm	Colophon . Alexander III	Muller 796 - Price 1808	310-301 BC	18,8035	15,6893	38,926	0.83438	2.07012	79	9.878	3.92	2
P358	Ionia	drachm	Colophon Alexander III	SNG Copenhagen 994	323-319 BC	18 8204	15 6869	38 887	0.83351	2 06619	61	9.865	3 889	2
D2E0	lonia	drachm	Magnocia Alexander III	Muller: Thompson/ Bollinger Magnesia E. Brice 1940	222 210 BC	10.0204	15.0005	20 024	0.03331	2.06765	61	0.016	2 002	2
F339	iona -			Widiler, Thompsony beininger, Wagnesia, 5, Frice 1940	323-313 BC	18.7814	13.0722	38.834	0.83443	2.00703	10	5.810	3.002	2
P360	Mysia	Drachm	Lampsakos Alexander III	Muller 531 -Price 1365	323-317 BC	18.7874	15.6858	38.878	0.83492	2.06940	84	9.867	3.905	2
P361	Egypt	drachm	Alexander III	Muller 252 ; SNG Copenhagen 972, Price 1560	310-301 BC	18.8071	15.6694	38.875	0.83317	2.06701	36	9.8	3.886	2
P362	Ionia	drachm	Colophon, Antigonos I Monophtalmos	Price 1813 ARS coins Wien g181	310-301 BC	18.8092	15.6900	38.922	0.83418	2.06928	76	9.879	3.915	2
P363	Macedonia	drachm	Alexander III Philip III	Price (1991) 2637	322-319/8 BC	18.8073	15.6897	38.931	0.83424	2.06997	77	9.878	3.921	2
P364	Macedonia	drachm	Alexander III Philip III	Sear (1979) 6750	323-317 BC	18 7928	15 6829	38 900	0 83449	2 06994	74	9 855	3 912	2
Greek silver co	inage	aracinii		568 (1575) 6756	525 517 50	10.7520	15.0025	50.500	0.05115	2.00554	/-	5.055	5.512	-
0271	Three		Anallania Dantika	Andre Ciches 921/2010	450 440 BC	10 7700	15 6426	20 747	0 82204	2 06224	<i>c</i>	0 707	2 02	2
P271	- Innace			Andre Cichos 831/2019	450-440 BC	10.7766	15.0450	56.747	0.85504	2.00554	0	9.707	3.65	3
P2/3	Inrace	nemidrachm	Chersonesos, Lión	K.B COINS 14/1	386-338 BC	18.8416	15.6831	38.826	0.83236	2.06059	38	9.847	3.844	3
P274	Inrace	nemidrachm	Chersonesos, Lion	K. B coins 1471	386-338 BC	18.7752	15.6550	38.806	0.83380	2.06687	32	9.751	3.866	3
P275	Caria	Obol	Miletos	Blitz 123853797239	600-500 BC	18.8037	15.6596	38.877	0.83278	2.06749	19	9.764	3.885	3
P276	Thrace	Obol	Abdera	Blitz 123853803035	475-450 BC	18.8259	15.6736	38.830	0.83257	2.06255	31	9.813	3.853	3
P280	Thrace	Hemidrachme	Chersonese	Inumis MC/16/03780		18.7925	15.6742	38.839	0.83407	2.06674	57	9.821	3.879	3
P281	Caria	Obol	Miletos	Inumis MC/15/00572	C500 BC	18.8544	15.6853	38.837	0.83192	2.05983	33	9.853	3.842	3
P282	Mysia	Obol	Kysikos	Inumis MC/17/05961		18.8038	15.6774	38.822	0,83372	2,06455	55	9,832	3,864	3
P283	Mysia	Obol	Kysikos	Numismatik Lanz 303205463793 NER 122		18 7910	15 6529	38 8/13	0.83300	2 06702	15	9.74	3 874	3
. 200	,	0.001		Normania Carl 303203403733 NEN 122		10.7510	13.0325	50.045	0.03500	2.00702	13	5.74	5.074	5

P284	Ionia	Hemidrachme	Magnesia	Numismatik Lanz 372698845567 NER 125		18.7908	15.6588	38.823	0.83332	2.06608	28	9.763	3.866	3
P285	Macedonia	Tertobol	Terone	Numismatik Lanz 303213684949 CCT469		18.7886	15.6383	38.816	0.83234	2.06593	-12	9.685	3.856	3
P288	Lesbos	Diobol	Mytilene	FORVM LT91384 BMC 8	400-350 BC	18.8257	15.6742	38.832	0.83259	2.06270	32	9.815	3.854	3
P290	Thrace	Hemidrachm	Chersonese	FORVM LT91384	386-338 BC	18.7347	15.6541	38.773	0.83558	2.06952	60	9.755	3.875	3
P201	Thessalv	Hemidrachm	Magnesia	EORVM LT01384	350-325 BC	18 7738	15 6586	38 764	0.83406	2 06486	40	0 765	3 8/8	3
1201	Lucia	Hernidia chini	Indenesia	FORMALTO2004	167.00.00	10.7750	15.0500	30.704	0.03400	2.00400	40	0.700	2.040	2
P292	Lycia	Hemiorachim	Lycian league	FORVIN LT91364	107-00 DC	16.0194	15.0519	38.709	0.84065	2.08218	142	9.769	3.940	2
P293	ivi ysia	Hemiobol	Cyzicus	FORVIM LT91384	450-400 BC	18.7477	15.6733	38.820	0.83598	2.07062	89	9.827	3.897	3
P294	Thrace	Hemidrachm	Abydos	FORVM LT91384	350-325 BC	18.8183	15.6839	38.867	0.83344	2.06539	57	9.854	3.88	3
P297	Cyzicus	drachm	Cyzicus	FORVM LT 91060	390-341 BC	18.8324	15.6840	38.855	0.83281	2.06321	47	9.852	3.865	3
P299	Ionia	hemiobol	Ionia	FORVM LT 91060 uncertain		18.8373	15.6812	38.816	0.83245	2.06052	37	9.84	3.841	3
P300	Tenedos	Obol	Tenedos	EORVM LT 91060 SNG Con 509	450-387 BC	18 8350	15 6815	38 833	0.83256	2 06169	40	9 842	3 851	3
P201	Ausia	Obol	Orrigue	FORVM LT 91000 SNG COP 505	450 507 60	10.0000	15.0015	20.000	0.03250	2.00105	40	0.072	2 021	2
P301	IVI y SId	000	Cyzicus	FORVINIEI 91060		18.7409	15.0735	36.607	0.83000	2.07323	90	9.626	5.921	3
P302	Caria	1/48th Stater	Miletos	FORVM LT 91060	525-491 BC	18.8457	15.6782	38.830	0.83193	2.06043	25	9.827	3.842	3
P303	Bruthium Rhegion	Obol	Bruthium Rhegion	FORVM LT 91060 Klein 430	c.510 BC	18.7882	15.6498	38.842	0.83296	2.06738	11	9.729	3.874	3
P304	Sicily, Panormos	Obol	Panormos	FORVM LT 91060		18.7633	15.6722	38.807	0.83526	2.06826	75	9.82	3.88	3
P305	Sicily	litra	Sicily, segesta	FORVM LT 91060	461-416 BC	18.8105	15.6609	38.765	0.83257	2.06079	17	9.767	3.826	3
P306	Lycia	obol	Lycia	FORVM LT 91060	440-410 BC	18.7964	15.6741	38.793	0.83388	2.06379	54	9.82	3.853	3
P307	Thrace	hemidrachm	Chersonesos	McClean II 4076 SNG Cop 843 HGC 3 1437 FORVM GS 91079	c.400-338 BC	18.8233	15.6717	38.840	0.83257	2.06342	29	9.806	3.859	3
P308	Thrace	hemidrachm	Chersonesos	McClean II 4102 Weber II 2421 SNG Con 836 EORVM GS 91078	c 400-338 BC	18 8212	15 6640	38 796	0 83227	2 06129	15	9 777	3 835	3
P210	Thace	homiobol	Theor	Lo Bider 12 SNG Cop 1022 Eitzwillion 2665 McCloan 42218 EODVM CS 80782	c.411.404 PC	10.0212	15.6610	20 726	0.84074	2.00123	127	0.745	2 0 2 0	2
P310	Thasos Coulo		1 IdSUS	Le Rider 12 SNG COP 1035 Fil2Willian 3005 Micclean 42218 FORVIN GS 89785	C.411-404 BC	10.0000	15.0452	38.720	0.84074	2.06104	157	9.745	3.929	2
P311	Caria	1/12 stater	Whietos	SNG Kaynan 476 SNG COP944 SGCV II 3532 FORVIVI GA91987	late 6th century BC	18.7974	15.6526	38.862	0.83271	2.06/48	10	9.738	3.879	3
P313	Peloponnese	Iriobol	Argos Argolis	BCD Pelopon 1023 HGC 5 663 FORVM GS 91476	c.480-430 BC	18.8439	15.6778	38.838	0.83198	2.06101	26	9.826	3.847	3
P314	Thrace	hemidrachm	Chersonesos	SNG Cop 834 FORVM GS 91352	c. 400-338 BC	18.8385	15.6792	38.840	0.83230	2.06171	33	9.832	3.852	3
P316	Thasos	trihemiobol	Thasos	Le Rider 27 SNG Cop 1029 Dewing 1331 SGCV 1755 FORVM GS 89789	c. 404-355 BC	18.7874	15.6696	38.874	0.83406	2.06917	52	9.805	3.897	3
P317	Thasos	diobol	Thasos	Le Rider 4 HGC 6 333 Rosen 144 SNG Cop 191 FORVM GS 89782	c. 525-480 BC	18.8478	15.6693	38.960	0.83293	2.06715	6	9.793	3.902	3
P318	Thrace	Hemidrachm	Chersonesos	Weber II 2420 McClean 4113 HGC 3 1437 FORVM GS 91076	c. 400-338 BC	18,7883	15.6586	38.855	0.83341	2.06805	29	9.762	3.884	3
P320	Thrace	hemidrachm	Chersonesos	McLean II 4079 SNG Ashm 3589 Weber 2419 FORVM GS 91071	c. 400-338 BC	18,8163	15.6628	38,798	0.83242	2.06199	16	9.773	3,839	3
P320b	Thrace duplicate	hemidrachm	Chersonesos	Mclean II 4079 SNG Achm 3589 Weber 2419 EORVM GS 91071	c 400-338 BC	18 8201	15 6740	38 810	0.83243	2 06159	20	0.81/	3 8/15	3
1 3200	Music duplicate	- h - l	delable. Content		C. 400-338 BC	10.0201	15.0740	30.015	0.03245	2.00133	20	0.700	3.045	2
P321	Nysia	ODOI	doiphin, Cyzicus	VON FRIZE I FORVIM GS 911/1	525-475 BC	18.7939	15.6656	38.890	0.83355	2.06927	39	9.788	3.9	3
P322	Mysia	trihemiobol (hemihe	ek Phokaia	SNG Kayhan 525 von Aulock 1813 FORVM GA88960 823	c. 500 BC	18.6235	15.6554	38.680	0.84062	2.07689	146	9.782	3.899	3
P323	Thace	Hemiobol	Pantikapsion	SNG Fitzwilliam 1592 Klein 73 McClean 4442 FORVM GA86537 309	480-470 BC	18.8388	15.6769	38.837	0.83217	2.06159	28	9.823	3.85	3
P324	Mysia	Hemiobol	Cyzicus	SNG BNF 359 FORVM GA91752 722	600-550 BC	18.4062	15.5973	38.418	0.84739	2.08728	196	9.6	3.884	3
P325	Peloponnese	Diobol	Korinth	BCD 36 Kölner Münzkabinett 21561	500-450 BC	18.8091	15.6661	38.795	0.83290	2.06259	28	9.788	3.843	3
P326	Mysia	Obol	Cyzicus	Von Fritze II 15SNG BN 380-4 Romae Aeternae Numismatics	450-400 BC	18.7782	15.6725	38.811	0.83462	2.06683	64	9.818	3.873	3
P327	Aegina	Obol	Aegina	SNG Cop 505 Romae Aeternae Numismatics	525-500 BC	18.6983	15.6575	38.805	0.83737	2.07529	94	9.775	3.915	3
P328	Ionia	Drachm	Colonhon Alexander Philippe Arrhidaios	Price P46 Ars Coin g192	322-319 BC	18 8257	15 6946	38 949	0.83368	2 06898	73	9 894	3 92	3
0220	Mucia	Diobal	Currique	PMC 15 24 Arc Coin g219	490 400 PC	10.0257	15.6510	20 072	0.83450	2.06036	62	0.017	2 002	2
F325	ivi y sia	Dioboi	Cyzicus	bivic 13-34 Als colling216	480-400 BC	10.7014	15.0725	38.873	0.83430	2.00370	02	9.017	3.502	2
P3290	Nysia	UDOI	Cyzicus	Ars Coll g218	480-400 BC	18.7623	15.6550	38.813	0.83439	2.06867	41	9.753	3.8/8	3
P330	Mysia	Stater	Cyzicus	Von Fritze II 15 SNG Fr 380-384 Ars Coin g40	480 BC	18.8502	15.6828	38.857	0.83197	2.06136	31	9.844	3.854	3
P331	Peloponnese	stater	Corinth	cgb bgr_556764	340 BC	18.8440	15.6783	38.820	0.83200	2.06007	27	9.828	3.838	3
P336	Euboea	tetrobol	Histiaea	cgb bgr_594611	196-168 BC	18.5727	15.6420	38.679	0.84221	2.08259	158	9.74	3.927	3
Dr*	Istros	drachm	Istros		500-300 BC	18.772	15.684	38.876	0.8355	2.0710	92	9.863	3.913	3
Ob1*	Istros	obol	Istros		500-300 BC	18.767	15.684	38.897	0.8357	2.0726	95	9.864	3.927	3
Ob2*	Istros	obol	Istros		500-300 BC	18.823	15.694	38.931	0.8338	2.0683	73	9.892	3.912	3
Ob3*	Istros	obol	Istros		500-400 BC	18 861	15 699	38 897	0.8324	2 0623	55	9 904	3 873	3
nont1*	Thrace	drachm	Apollonia Pontika		500-400 BC	18 957	15 697	38 804	0.8326	2 0631	59	9 202	3 877	3
Dent2*	Three	des alum	Anellenia Dentika		500 400 BC	10.032	15.057	20.034	0.0320	2.0001	120	0.070	3.077	2
PUHLZ			Apononia POIILIKa		300-400 BC	10./11	10.085	20.910	0.0383	2.0798	139	9.6/9	3.9/3	3
Pont3*	Thrace	drachm	Apollonia Pontika		500-400 BC	18.821	15.681	38.965	0.8332	2.0703	49	9.842	3.926	3
Gr1*	Attica	drachm	Athens	Hafnia Coins Sear 2537	393-300 BC	18.858	15.701	38.914	0.8326	2.0635	61	9.912	3.884	3
Gr2*	Caria	diobol	Miletos	Hafnia Coins Sear 3532	c. 500 BC	18.274	15.645	38.436	0.8561	2.1033	385	9.820	4.000	3
Gr3*	Pharsalos	hemidrachm	Pharsalos	Sear 2189	450-400 BC	18.842	15.695	38.900	0.8330	2.0645	61	9.892	3.885	3
ph1*	Phoenicia	1/8 shekel	Sidon	Sear 5940	333 BC	18,920	15.696	39.178	0.8296	2.0707	5	9.882	3.973	3
Indian kingdor	ns													
0224	India	chana	Gandhara	cab bar 587000	E00 221 PC	10.0965	15 7154	20 620	0 02220	2 07691	70	0 0 2 9	4 007	4
P354	India	Slidild	Ganulara	cgn ngi_2910a0	500-551 BC	19.0865	15.7154	39.039	0.82559	2.07661	-79	9.928	4.097	4
P374	India	karshapana	Magadha, GH 233		550-461 BC	18.0430	15.7045	37.907	0.87039	2.10094	657	10.133	3.883	4
P375	India	drachm	Annuruddha-Nagadasaka period, Magadha GH 320		445-413 BC	18.3919	15.7436	38.346	0.85600	2.08492	477	10.188	3.905	4
P376	India	1/8 shatamana	Gandhara Janapada		c. 500-400 BC	19.2560	15.7171	39.900	0.81622	2.07211	-203	9.908	4.112	4
P377	India	shatamana	Gandhara		c. 600-500 BC	19.1184	15.7077	39.554	0.82161	2.06899	-119	9.893	4.033	4
P378	India	shatamana	Gandhara		c. 500-400 BC	18.6164	15.7440	38.813	0.84569	2.08486	318	10.132	4.003	4
P379	India	shatamana	Gandhara		c 500-400 BC	19 4476	15 7343	40 321	0.80905	2 07332	-311	9 945	4 189	4
. 375	India	shakamana	Condhara		<ul> <li>c. 500 400 bc</li> <li>c. 600 500 bc</li> </ul>	10.0316	15.7545	20.027	0.93107	2.07332		0.790	2.000	-
P380	inua .	sudtamana			C. DUU-SUU BC	18.8310	15.00/3	38.837	0.83197	2.06234	14	9.788	5.851	4
P381	India	drachm	Magadha, Bhattiya to Ajatashatru		c. 550-461 BC	18.3497	15.7507	38.167	0.85836	2.07995	519	10.229	3.838	4
P382	India	karshapana	Mauryan Empire			19.2707	15.7302	40.191	0.81627	2.08561	-187	9.954	4.242	4

P383	India	karshapana	Mauryan Empire		19.1485	15.7473	40.055	0.82239	2.09187	-61 1	10.038	4.266	4
P384	India	karshapana	Gandhara	c. 600-500 BC	19.3305	15.7191	40.147	0.81315	2.07671	-255	9.905	4.179	4
P385	India	karshapana	Panchala		18.3715	15.7955	38.026	0.85979	2.06988	580 1	10.408	3.762	4
P386	India	karshapana	Panchala		20.8712	16.0174	38.516	0.76744	1.84541	-752 ో	10.818	2.829	4
P387	India	karshapana	Gandhara	c. 600-500 BC	19.6064	15.7533	40.738	0.80348	2.07781	-390	9.995	4.282	4
P388	India	shatamana	shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.2451	15.7771	40.126	0.81980	2.08497	-73 ో	10.135	4.247	4
P389	India	Early ¼ shatamana	Early ¼ shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.2336	15.7312	40.145	0.81789	2.08721	-157	9.964	4.246	4
P390	India	Early ¼ shatamana	Early ¼ shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.3170	15.7389	40.172	0.81474	2.07961	-203	9.98	4.207	4
P391	India	Early ¼ shatamana	Early ¼ shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	18.6179	15.6824	38.701	0.84230	2.07861	202	9.888	3.923	4
P392	India	Early ¼ shatamana	Early ¼ shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.1935	15.7298	40.051	0.81952	2.08667	-130	9.965	4.228	4
P393	India	Early ¼ shatamana	Early ¼ shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.5297	15.7382	40.565	0.80585	2.07708	-365	9.949	4.248	4
P394	India	Early ¼ shatamana	Early ¼ shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	18.6294	15.6515	38.665	0.84014	2.07542	134	9.765	3.887	4
P395	India	Early 1/8 shatamana	a Early 1/8 shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.1291	15.7137	39.940	0.82145	2.08788	-115	9.914	4.211	4
P396	India	Early 1/8 shatamana	a Early 1/8 shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.3201	15.7285	40.307	0.81406	2.08622	-227	9.941	4.263	4
P397	India	Early 1/8 shatamana	a Early 1/8 shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.4086	15.7424	40.317	0.81111	2.07719	-265	9.98	4.215	4
P398	India	Early 1/8 shatamana	a Early 1/8 shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	18.7748	15.6822	39.110	0.83529	2.08316	86	9.856	4.028	4
P399	India	Early 1/8 shatamana	a Early 1/8 shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.1751	15.7046	39.906	0.81900	2.08109	-168	9.873	4.161	4
P400	India	Early 1/8 shatamana	a Early 1/8 shatamana	c. 600-500 BC	19.1938	15.7184	40.077	0.81891	2.08800	-153	9.922	4.235	4
P401	India	1/4 shatamana	Latest types or different denomination 1/4 shatamana ??		19.0908	15.6871	39.505	0.82172	2.06928	-141	9.82	4.019	4
P402	India	1/4 shatamana	Latest types or different denomination 1/4 shatamana ??		19.2942	15.7350	40.276	0.81551	2.08746	-194	9.969	4.268	4
P403	India	1/4 shatamana	Latest types or different denomination 1/4 shatamana ??		19.4350	15.7408	40.335	0.80993	2.07542	-288	9.971	4.206	4
P404	India	1/4 shatamana	Latest types or different denomination 1/4 shatamana ??		18.2925	15.6645	38.468	0.85632	2.10297	407	9.894	4.011	4
P405	India	1/4 shatamana	Latest types or different denomination 1/4 shatamana ??		18.9035	15.7160	39.448	0.83138	2.08686	57	9.962	4.124	4
P406	India	1/4 shatamana	Latest types or different denomination 1/4 shatamana ??		19.2969	15.7251	40.084	0.81489	2.07718	-217	9.932	4.173	4
P407	India	karshapana	Mauryan Empire		19.4102	15.7384	40.317	0.81082	2.07702	-274	9.965	4.213	4
P408	India	karshapana	Mauryan Empire		19.4185	15.7449	40.304	0.81082	2.07567	-267	9.988	4.204	4

\* Data from Desaulty et al. (2011)