Journal of the Oriental Numismatic Society, No. 211, Spring 2012, p. 33-37



Rupee with jihadi legend, dated AH 1259

Album states that, after the very brief reign of Shapur Shah in 1258, Muhammad Akbar, Dost Muhammad's son, resumed power in Kabul and issued the anonymous rupees, dated 1258, with the Kalima on one side (KM 493). The existence of the above rupees suggests that he also anticipated his father's return by the issue of a limited number of rupees in his father's name bearing the last legend of his earlier reign.

Die-engravers were clearly given some freedom in arranging the new legend on the dies when it was introduced in 1259. There are at least three different legend arrangements known for that year. It was only in the following year, that it settled down for the rest of the reign.



Rupees, dated AH 1259, with the new legend arranged in three different ways. Note also the different reverses and different positions for the date



Rupee of 1260 with what became the standard obverse layout for the remainder of the reign

Note

1 The historical information in this article is taken from Stephen Album's authoritative paper "The anonymous coinage of the Barakzays and their rivals in Afghanistan: a reappraisal", published as the supplement to ONS Newsletter 159. I have also taken the details of the coin legends from this paper.

A CHINESE COIN HOARD FROM BARROW

By Qin Cao, Manchester Museum

A Chinese coin hoard comprising 107 coins and 1 fragment was found by two members of the public while searching with a metal detector in a field in Dalton-in-Furness, in the borough of Barrow-in-Furness, Cumbria, in August 2011. It is one of the few Chinese coin hoards known to have been found in England. In recognition of its significance, the hoard has been kindly donated to the Dock Museum, Barrow, by the finders and landowners.

I. Description of the find

The coins are all copper alloy cast pieces with square holes in the middle, and are 'cash' coins' of East Asia.

The coins were reported to have been found lying tightly packed together, and the finder also preserved a few fragments of thread between the individual coins, which suggests that some (or perhaps all) of the coins were originally tied with a cord. In East Asia, it was customary to pass a thread through the central hole to create a 'string of coins' (normally 1000) for ease of carrying and spending

Most of the coins are in good condition and could be identified easily. All of them have been photographed, weighed and measured. However none of the items in the hoard have yet been conserved. All of the weights given below are for the coins in their original condition and therefore may vary slightly after cleaning. The coins are all of the same denomination, 1-cash, and almost all (101) have inscriptions from the Chinese *Qing* dynasty (1644-1911). All of the Chinese coins have both obverse and reverse inscriptions. The obverse inscription indicates the reign period when a coin was issued. The reverse inscription records the mint name in both Chinese and Manchu scripts with the exception of the 'Shunzhi tongbao' coin. This was an early type of coin issued just after the Manchu took control of China in 1644. The reverse inscription is in Chinese only: the denomination, '1-li', and the mint 'Yunnan' Yunnan'

As the majority of the coins appear to be contemporary imitations (see discussion in II Analysis of the hoard), it is quite difficult to determine when exactly those coins were cast. However, according to their inscriptions, the coin range in date from 1659 to 1850 (see 'Chart 1 Distribution of coins issued in different reigns'). A 'Shunzhi tongbao' coin was probably the earliest coin in the hoard, and was perhaps cast between 1659 and 1661.

The majority of pieces (56, representing 52% of the hoard) have the inscription 'Daoguang tongbao' and were probably issued in the Daoguang reign period (1821-1850) or later and might be the latest coins in the hoard. Coins with the inscription 'Jiaqing tongbao' formed the second largest group (22, 20% of the hoard). 2 coins are Vietnamese, and their inscriptions suggest that the first was issued during the Canh Hung reign period (1740-1786) of the Restored Le dynasty (1592-1789), the second during the Canh Thinh reign period (1793-1802) of the Tay Son dynasty (1778-1802). Two groups comprising 2 and 3 coins respectively were found corroded together. The coins on top of both of these corroded groups are 'Daoguang tongbao'. The rest are illegible, along with 1 coin and a fragment from the main hoard.

Summary by reign and mint

China

Shunzhi (1644-1661)

1 coin: Yunnan

Kangxi (1662-1722)

5 coins: Board of Revenue (4), Board of Works (1)

Qianlong (1736-1795)

17 coins: Board of Revenue (8), Chengdu (1), Guilin (1), Guizhou (1), Suzhou (1), Yunnan (1), uncertain (4)

Jiaqing (1796-1820)

22 coins: Board of Revenue (1), Guangdong (4), Hangzhou (11), Yunnan (3), uncertain (3)

Daoguang (1821-1850)

56 coins: Gongchang (1), Guangdong (42), Yunnan (6), uncertain (7)

Vietnam

Canh Hung (1740-1786): 1 coin Canh Thinh (1793-1801): 1 coin

Illegible 5 coins

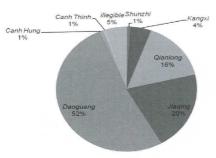


Chart 1 Distribution of coins issued in different reigns

As we can see from 'Chart 2 Mints distribution of Chinese coins', 45% of the coins appear to be from the Guangdong mint (also known as Kwangtung in English). Of the 'Xianfeng tongbao', and of the latest coins, 42 out of 56 coins were also inscribed with mint Guangdong. The 2nd largest group comprises coins with inscription of the Board of Revenue mint, Beijing and represents 13% of all the Chinese coins.

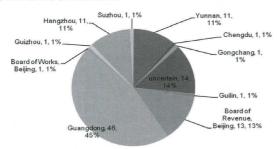


Chart 2 Mints distribution among Chinese coins

Due to the limited space available in this article, coins with the same inscription and mint name will be represented by one example. Images of all the coins are available on Yaoqiantree's Flickr account at the time of writing and can be viewed at http://www.flickr.com/photos/76335260@N07/. The hoard has also been recorded in the database of the Portable Antiquities Scheme and the unique ID is LANCUM-0095B8.4.73, 7.33



Map 1 Mints distribution among Chinese coins

II Analysis of the hoard

Following close examination of the dimensions and weights of the coins, the difference in weight is shown to be significant. The lightest coin is 0.72g and the heaviest is 4.1g. Interestingly, both of these coins are 'Daoguang tongbao' pieces and are supposedly from the 'Guangdong' mint. As all the coins are of the same denomination (1-cash), they should follow the standard weight regulations for 1-cash coins. The weight for 1-cash 'Qianlong tongbao', 'Jiaqing tongbao' and 'Daoguang tongbao' was 1 qian 2 fen (approximately 4.48g), an adopted standard from the 12th year of the reign of Yongzheng (AD 1734)3. Standards during the Shunzhi and Kangxi reigns vary slightly, but an official coin should range from about 3.73g to 4.66g4. Considering the weight variation during the casting process and natural degradation of the coins during circulation, coins weighing 3g and above were considered to be officially minted pieces, yet this can only be said for 8 coins in the entire hoard. 4 of them are 'Qianlong tongbao' coins and the others are 'Daoguang tongbao' coins. The rest are most likely to represent privately cast coins or the official mint's private production. It seems that thin and underweight coins were commonly accepted⁵ and this coin hoard from Barrow is not exceptional in this regard.

Underweight coinage was always a serious problem in the *Qing* dynasty (1644-1911), especially in the late period. The currency was mainly bullion silver in combination with base metal coins⁶, but there were no officially minted standard silver coins until the late 19th century. Silver circulated in the form of ingots and its value depended on weight and purity. The exchange rate between silver and cash coins determined the value of cash coins. During the reign of *Shunzhi* (1644-1661), the first emperor of the *Qing* dynasty, the government regulated that 1-*liang* (1 *tael*, about 37.3g) of silver was equal to 1000 1-cash coins⁷ (a standard string of coins). However this regulation was not successfully implemented, despite many attempts, and the situation became worse in the later period of the dynasty.

In 1744, during the reign of Qianlong (1736-1795), between 700 and 815 1-cash coins equalled 1-liang of silver in Guangdong province, due to the heavy weight of the coins and shortage of copper in China in the market at that time⁸. This resulted in people regarding private coinage as a higher profit opportunity and they started to buy copper coins and melt them down to produce thin and lightweight alternatives. The skill and equipment required to cast coins was less than that for hammered coins.9 The official mints also seized the opportunity to profit and copper was mixed with cheaper metals, such as lead and iron, to produce more coins. Meanwhile, thin and lightweight coins from Vietnam and Japan poured into China¹⁰. During this same period, the growing trade in opium meant that China was no longer in a position of trade surplus. The reign of Jiaqing (1796-1820) saw a turning point in the exchange rate between silver and coin¹¹. In 1802 (7th year of Daoguang reign), about 1450 1-cash coins equalled 1-liang silver in Shandong province¹², implying a doubling of the debasement compared to 1744. Obviously, those 1450 coins of 1802 would not be of a similar weight and quality to those in 1744, but would have comprised standard-weight coins together with counterfeits, including thin and lightweight Japanese and Vietnamese coins.

The face value of the Barrow coin hoard - 108 coins (107 pieces and 1 fragment) represents 108-cash and approximately 1/10 of a standard string of coins. As most of the coins were issued during the reign of *Daoguang* (1821-1850), statistics quoted below are taken from that period. However the value of 108 cash is not just a direct calculation using the exchange rate of silver and cash coins. According to J. Edkins's observation, the value of a set of cash coins also depended on the composition of the coins - how many good coins were mixed with bad ones or simply a set of counterfeit pieces¹³. As there are only 8 standard-weight coins in the hoard, the total value of these coins would be less than 2.6g of silver¹⁴.

As rice has always been a major part of the diet for people in China, its price has been well documented and used as an indicator of price stability. On average, about 3314 cash would buy a gongshi (about 84 kg) of rice during the Daoguang reign (1821-

1850)¹⁵, so 108 cash would buy 2.74 kg of rice or less¹⁶. By contrast, with the average rice price between 1651-1660, during the later reign of *Shunzhi* (1644-1661), 108 cash would buy 10.76 kg of rice¹⁷, which was nearly 4 times the buying power compared to the *Daoguang* reign (1821-1850).

In the following decade, during the reign of Xianfeng (1850-1861), the Taiping Rebellion¹⁸ broke out in 1851 and took over nearly half of the country in the next 2 years. In order to pay for the military expense and relieve the shortage of copper (Yunnan, the major province for producing copper was taken over by the rebellion), the government resorted to issuing coins of high denominations, ranging from 4 to 1000 cash, and paper money. The 1-cash coin weighed 1 qian (about 3.73g), but a 50-cash coin from the Board of Works mint weighed only about 35.8g19. If someone melted down 10 pieces of 1-cash 'Qianlong tongbao', he could produce 1 piece of 50-cash 'Xianfeng zhongbao'. The weight was reduced by nearly 80% and private minting was highly profitable. As Peng commented in History of Chinese Money, the debasement during the Taiping Rebellion represented the worst monetary system crisis of the whole Qing dynasty (1644-1911)²⁰. It did not happen overnight, nor was it caused by the Taiping Rebellion alone, but was probably a result of high numbers of devalued 1-cash coins (contemporary imitations and foreign lightweight coins) in circulation since the Jiaqing reign. The Chinese coin hoard from Barrow is not an exception, but simply one example among many that reveals the appalling monetary situation.

III. Discussion of the find

The find has been discussed with Joe Cribb (former Keeper of the Department of Coins and Medals at the British Museum), Dr Helen Wang (Curator of East Asian Money within the Department), and David Hartill, author of the book Chinese Cast Coins. This string of coins was almost certainly removed from China while still in circulation. It is not unusual to find coins from China and Vietnam in the same string. To determine why it was found in the Barrow area, we need to look at the three dates most relevant to such a coin hoard: when the coins were put together as a set, when the coins were removed from circulation and when the hoard was buried or abandoned in Barrow-in-Furness. One fact kindly provided by one of the finders, Dave Taylor, is that although the coins were found together with remains of thread between the coins, there is no actual evidence that all the coins were in a string together. However, it is a reasonable assumption that they were probably removed from circulation at the same time. Normally, 100 coins comprised a set, and 10 sets would form a string of coins. This hoard could possibly be a set of coins with some loose additional pieces. 'Daoguang tongbao' coins comprise 52% of the hoard and were definitely cast after 1821, the first year of the reign of Daoguang (1821-1850) (see Chart 1). It is obvious that the string was put together after 1821. Although no coins from the Xianfeng reign (1851-1861) are present this does not exclude the possibility that the set was assembled after 1851. As there were no other objects associated with the find, it is very difficult to determine an exact date for the burial or abandonment.

Combining the evidence of the find spot and local context, some non-numismatic evidence can also be adduced. The coin hoard was found in a field in Dalton-in-Furness, in the borough of Barrow-in-Furness and 5 miles from Barrow dock. Dalton-in-Furness had been in decline ever since the dissolution of Furness Abbey in the 16th century21, and Barrow-in-Furness was only a small village until the early 19th century. However, the rich deposits of iron ore in the local area brought the railway in 1846 and the area started to flourish22. Steel was added to the iron production by 1859²³. In 1870, a local shipbuilding industry started and Barrow became a separate port from Lancaster in 1872²⁴. Ironworks and shipbuilding brought prosperity to the Barrow area, and in the late 19th century it was home to one of the largest steelworks in the world. Due to the limited interaction an inland village or town may be expected to have had with the outside world, it is more likely that the Chinese coins were

brought to Barrow after 1846, and the findspot of the hoard was close to the railway line (personal communication, Dave Taylor).

As mentioned earlier, 45% of the Chinese coins were inscribed with the mint name 'Guangdong', and the majority of coins are 'Daoguang tongbao' (see Chart 2). Guangzhou, capital city of Guangdong province, was one of the five ports that were opened to foreign trade after the First Opium War in 1840. The set of coins was possibly put together in Guangdong. It would be difficult to say when and where the coins were removed from circulation, but the close association with Guangdong is certain. It might not be a coincidence that Barrow and Guangzhou were both prosperous ports at that time.

Another question concerns the original owner of the hoard, who may or may not have had a connection with China. The building of railways, steelworks and the shipbuilding industry in Barrow may have attracted labourers from China. There could have been business links between Barrow and China and locals may have travelled to China and brought back the coins. The Collection Manager at the Dock Museum, Barrow-in-Furness, noted that links between Barrow and Japan in the 19th century are well established, but a Chinese connection has not been much explored by local historians. She also mentioned that a Chinese diplomat, Li Hongzhang (also known Li Hungchang) visited Barrow. Li Hongzhang was one of the most powerful statesmen in the imperial Qing court in the second half of the 19th century. His visits to a number of western countries in 1896, including Russia, Germany, France, England, Canada and America, were well documented in contemporary news reports and government archives²⁵. Although Li Hongzhang's visit to England was only a one-off event, and the date does not tie in with the latest coin of the hoard, the significance of Barrow-in-Furness's ironworks and shipbuilding industry was not be overlooked, despite the absence of documentation in the local archives.

As there is no apparent spiritual or ritual reason for Chinese coins to be buried at this particular location, and as these coins would have had no monetary value in England, it is difficult to conclusively say why they were buried or possibly abandoned by the owner. Giving consideration to the local context and hoard information, however, a few theories can be postulated. Due to the heavy weight of the coins and their quantity, it is more likely they were deliberately abandoned or purposefully buried, rather than the result of accidental loss. One theory must be that a Chinese worker or servant travelled to Barrow with the coins, and buried them with the intention of retrieving them before returning to China. When the coin hoard was discovered, it was about 7 or 8 inches below the ground (personal communication, Dave Taylor). If the owner buried the coins on purpose, then they were not placed in a particularly deep hole. After contacting the Barrow Chinese Society, it was learnt that the first known Chinese resident arrived in Barrow in the 1940s. Alternatively, the coins could simply have been abandoned by the original owner, due to their uselessness in England. A Briton may have travelled to China on business and obtained the coins, or the coins could simply represent leftover spending money on returning to England. The owner might have immediately abandoned the coins due to their lack of value in England. Finally, the coins could have been brought back as a souvenir or gift which was abandoned by the owner or recipient.

IV. Similar finds in the UK and China

Although it is rare for a Chinese coin hoard to be found in the United Kingdom, there are a few known cases.

- In 1973, 128 copper alloy coins from around 1900 were found in a rubbish tip in South London (Cribb, J.E., Coin Hoards I, Royal Numismatic Society, 1975, p.84)
- In 1976, a group of 26 copper alloy coins (AD 1851 or later) was dug up in garden in Old Amersham, Buckinghamshire. (Cribb, J.E., *Coin Hoards III*, Royal Numismatic Society, 1977, p.121)

 In 1976, 17 copper alloy coins (c. AD 1850) were found by a metal detectorist, Westcliff on sea, Essex, England. (Cribb, J.E., Coin Hoards IV, Royal Numismatic Society, 1978, p.100)

In China, large quantities of coin hoards have been found in recent years. In *Coin Hoard IV*, Joe Cribb recorded 74 finds of coins between 1963-1976, among which were 10 hoards and 48 deposits with tomb burials²⁶. The sheer size of some individual coin hoards in China can be surprising, for example, about 1500 kg of 'huoquan' coins were found in Xuzhou, Jiangsu province in December 2009²⁷. Brief reports of coin hoards are normally published in archaeological journals, such as *Kaogu*, *Wenwu*, and numismatic journals, such as *Zhongguo Qianbi* (Chinese Numismatics).

V. Further reading

Qing cash coins and their monetary system have been well recorded in a number of official contemporary documents and later books:

Qingshi Lu (Qing historical archives), 2nd edition, Zhonghua shuju, 2008, ISBN 9787101056266.

Qingchao wenxian tongkao (Qing dynasty comprehensive historical compendia), 2nd edition, Zhejiang guji publishing, 2000, ISBN 7805180458.

Qingchao Tongdian (Qing dynasty comprehensive canons), 2nd edition, Zhejiang guji publishing, 2000, ISBN 7805180393.

People's Bank of China ed., *Chinese Modern Monetary History during the Qing Government 1840-1911*, 1st Series, Zhonghua shuju, 1964.

Hartill, D., *Qing Cash*, Royal Numismatic Society Special Publication 37, London, 2003.

King, F.H.H., *Money and Monetary Policy in China 1845-1895*, Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1965.

Kann, E., *The Currencies of China: An Investigation of Silver & Gold Transactions Affecting China with a Section on Copper*, 2nd edition, Kelly & Walsh Limited, Shanghai, 1927.

General reference books:

PENG Xinwei, *A Monetary History of China*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954; translated by Kaplan, E. H., Western Washington University Press, 2 volumes, 1994.

Hartill, D., Cast Chinese Coins, Trafford Publishing, 2005.

International Numismatic Commission, A Survey of Numismatic Research

2002-2007, International Association of Professional Numismatists Special Publication 15, Glasgow, 2009.

Zhongguo Qianbi Xuehui ed., *Zhongguo Qianbi Lunwenji* (The collection of numismatic articles), Vols. 1-5, Zhongguo jinrong publishing, 1985-2010.

Notes

¹ Cash: A Chinese base-metal coin with a square hole in its centre, the Chinese name for which is ch'ien; the word 'cash' seems to derive from the Portuguese caixa (a chest or strongbox). Doty, R. G., *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Numismatics*, Macmillan, 1982, p. 47.

² For known mints, they were marked on the map with square boxes. For

unknown or uncertain mints, provinces names were given.

³ PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*. Ourlian Publishing, China

³ PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954, p.488.

⁴ PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954, p.486-8.

S Kann, E., The Currencies of China: An Investigation of Silver & Gold Transactions Affecting China with a Section on Copper, 2nd edition, Shanghai: Kelly & Walsh limited, 1927, p.415.

⁶ PENG Xinwei, History of Chinese Money, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954, p.485.

⁷ PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954. p.486.

⁸ PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954, p.526.

⁹ PENG Xinwei, History of Chinese Money, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954, p.528-9.

¹⁰ PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954, p.492.

¹¹ PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954. p. 528.

¹² PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954, p.538.

Quoted in Kann, E., The Currencies of China: An Investigation of Silver & Gold Transactions Affecting China with a Section on Copper, 2nd edition, Kelly & Walsh limited, Shanghai, 1927, p.416.
 Here I used the exchange rates between coins and silver from various

Here I used the exchange rates between coins and silver from various provinces from 1821 to 1847. The average price was 1535 coins to 1-liang of silver. PENG Xinwei, History of Chinese Money, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954. p.538-9.
 Here I used the average rice prices during the reign of Daoguang (1821-

Here I used the average rice prices during the reign of *Daoguang* (1821-1850). PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954. p.542.
 Please note that most people in China live on a diet of rice that is locally

¹⁶ Please note that most people in China live on a diet of rice that is locally planted. It is very much like flour in the UK.

¹⁷ 843-cash would buy a *gongshi* of rice between 1651-1660. PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954.

p.531.

¹⁸ Taiping Rebellion: A rebellion that spread all over southern China, led by Hong Xiuquan. Its programme, which aimed at ushering in a 'Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace' (Taiping tianguo) was a mixture of religion and political reform. The rebels took Nanjing in 1853 and made it their capital, but internal strife, foreign intervention and the Qing forces under Zeng Guofan eventually brought the downfall of the movement. Lenman, B. P. & Boyd, K. ed., Dictionary of World History, Chambers, 1994, p. 90. Further reading: Jonathan Spence, God's Chinese Son: The Taiping Heavenly Kingdom of Hong Xiuquan, W. W. Norton & Company, 1996.

¹⁹ The average weight of 50-cash coins from the numismatic collection at the Manchester Museum.

²⁰ PENG Xinwei, *History of Chinese Money*, Qunlian Publishing, China, 1954. p.540.

²¹ Cumbria County Council & English Heritage, Extensive Urban Survey-Archaeological Assessment Report Dalton, 2006, p.10, doi:10.5284/1000195

doi:10.5284/1000195.

²² Cumbria County Council & English Heritage, Extensive Urban Survey-Archaeological Assessment Report Barrow, 2006, p.9, doi:10.5284/1000195.

Cumbria County Council & English Heritage, Extensive Urban Survey-Archaeological Strategy Report Barrow, 2006, p.18, doi:10.5284/1000195.
 Cumbria County Council & English Heritage, Extensive Urban Survey-Archaeological Assessment Report Barrow, 2006, p.9, doi:10.5284/1000195.

²⁵ CAI Erkang, ed., LIN Lezhi, translated and ed., Li Hongzhang Lipin Ou-Mei Ji (Li Hongzhang's visit to Europe and America), Hunan renmin publish, China, 1982.

²⁶ Cribb, J.E. ed., China section, in *Coin Hoards IV*, Royal Numismatic

Society, 1978, p.78-102. ²⁷ WU Jin, 'The Large Hoard of Huoquan coins Unearthed on Pengcheng Road, Xuzhou', *Jiangsu Qianbi* 2010.2.

Images of the Hoard



Fig.1 'Shunzhi tongbao', Yunnan, 1.76g~21.9mm



Fig.2 'Kangxi tongbao', Board of Revenue, 1.36g~20mm



Fig.3 'Kangxi tongbao', Board of Works, 1.54g~20.5mm



Fig.4 'Qianlong tongbao', Board of Revenue, 2.17g~20.5mm



Fig.5 'Qianlong tongbao', Chengdu, 3.54g~23.5mm



Fig.6 'Qianlong tongbao', Guilin, 1.97g~20.5mm



Fig.7 'Qianlong tongbao', Guizhou, 1.79g~21mm



Fig.8 'Qianlong tongbao', Suzhou, 1.56g~24mm



Fig.9 'Qianlong tongbao', Yunnan, 3.37g~26mm



Fig.10 'Jiaqing tongbao', Board of Revenue, 2.66g~23mm



Fig.11 'Jiaqing tongbao', Guangdong, 1.52g~23.5mm



Fig.12 'Jiaqing tongbao', Hangzhou, 1.45g~21.5mm



Fig.13 'Jiaqing tongbao', Yunnan, 2.86g~24mm



Fig.14 'Daoguang tongbao', Gongchang, 1.42g~23.1mm



Fig.15 'Daoguang tongbao', Guangdong, 4.1g~24.5mm



Fig.16 'Daoguang tongbao', Yunnan, 2.18g~22mm



Fig.17 'Canh Hung Thong Bao', Vietnam, 1.38g~21mm



Fig.18 'Canh Thinh Thong Bao', Vietnam, 2.02g~24.1mm