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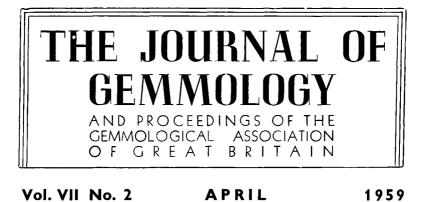
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SPINEL OR STANDARD REFRACTOMETER

By A. E. FARN, F.G.A.

OST gemmologists at some stage in their lives think of purchasing a refractometer, either for business reasons or gemmological interest. Since the jewellery trade and its offshoot gemmology depend entirely upon commerce for their very existence, it is necessary to consider financial outlay in terms of value for money and profit.

What is the best buy for a gemmologist, dealer or retail jeweller? The greatest proportion of gemmological trade is transacted in the following gemstones : emerald, ruby, sapphire, topaz, aquamarine, garnets, quartz (varieties), alexandrite, cat's-eye, tourmaline, peridot, zircon, etc.

In every branch of the trade there are two questions concerning goods—" What is it ?" and "How much ?" These may seem elementary observations to experts, but the average jewellery dealer and trader often needs a quick check on goods.

It is advisable to have the following apparatus : a spinel refractometer, a spectroscope, colour-filter and lens, plus basic S.G. liquids with suspended indicators.

Now if the standard (soft glass prism) refractometer is used frequently (however carefully maintained) it will soon need repolishing and adjusting—no small item of money compared to its initial cost. If the prism is scratched badly by quick checking of mounted jewellery it becomes practically useless for all the time it is left in such a state and all the time it is away being repaired. Nothing is more frustrating than expensive items of apparatus which cannot be used.

The spinel refractometer (how much we all owe to Anderson and Payne is seldom appreciated), however, will stand up to quite a lot of hard work, and the contact liquid (methylene iodide) has the advantage of not corroding, if it is inadvertently (and it often is) left on the instrument. Most gemstones tested, which require the use of a refractometer, from a jeweller's point of view, are topaz or quartz, aquamarine or synthetic spinel, natural or synthetic emerald. In these latter cases the spinel refractometer is supreme, far surpassing in results the standard model. Tourmaline is easily identified on the spinel refractometer and although peridot cannot be fully read, its easily observed double refraction (by lens) and absorption spectrum avoid the use of the standard refractometer. By the time most people have read this article some will have thought of a reason or stone which has not been mentioned, but by and large it is possible to avoid the use of the standard refractometer.

Above all, the spinel refractometer has the advantage of needing no sodium light or monochromatic filter eyepiece.

So far, the most usual stones needing to be tested for trade purposes have been mentioned. The spinel model is even more useful from a rarity point of view, since it has a more easily read scale.

Briefly to sum up, all those stones which cannot be tested on the spinel refractometer can be tested by means other than the standard refractometer. Here are some stones which cannot be tested on the spinel refractometer and some which cannot be tested on either standard or spinel model :

Blue spinel will have octahedral inclusions and a typical absorption spectrum distinct from sapphire or synthetic spinel.

- Red and pink spinel--octahedral inclusions and chromium fluted spectrum.
- Synthetic spinel, blue-red under Chelsea filter, with a cobalt spectrum.
- Synthetic spinel, red—(so far small stones)—bubbles, curved lines and chromium spectrum.
- Synthetic spinel, colourless—bubbles, singly refracting (no known colourless natural spinels of such "whiteness").

Chrysoberyl, yellow and green-absorption spectrum.

Alexandrite —daylight green, chromium spectrum, inclusions. Cat's-eye —S.G., absorption spectrum.

Corundum—refractometer will not distinguish between synthetic and natural; therefore other tests for inclusions and spectrum necessary. The synthetic sapphire imitating alexandrite has a daylight colour of no known stone, as well as a vanadium spectrum and curved structure lines.

Garnets-all reds show typical absorption spectra.

Brown or orange hessonites have typical diopside inclusions. Spessartite has a manganese spectrum.

Demantoid has asbestos fibres and absorption spectrum in deep blue.

Zircon-strong double refraction easily seen by lens, and heft.

Sphene-double refraction, dichroism.

Synthetic rutile-double refraction, dispersion and heft.

Strontium titanate-single refraction, soft, dispersion.

An analysis of the tests involving the use of the spinel refractometer, Chelsea filter, lens and spectroscope brings forcibly to mind the terrific amount of work and the debt gemmologists owe to the work put into the perfection of the Anderson-Payne spinel refractometer, the tremendous lists of absorption spectra observations and the colour filter—all devised and offered gratis by those two eminent gemmologists. I had not fully realized before just how much they had done.

THE ORIGIN OF HEALING FISSURES IN GEMSTONES

By W. F. EPPLER

Heating EALING fissures as inclusions in gemstones are well known and have often been described. In spite of this, the question of their origin has not yet been answered. A most valuable hint can be found in papers published by American authors about liquid inclusions in some minerals of the pegmatite series. Here, the aim of numerous investigations was to find out whether or not the liquid inclusions could be used as a "geologic thermometer." In this sense researches have been made to prove whether those particular inclusions could supply the desired information about the temperature at which the minerals of the pegmatites, and consequently the pegmatites of certain localities itself, have been formed.

As some of the pegmatite minerals belong to the best known gemstones and as, on the other hand, a great number of liquid inclusions are combined with healing fissures within these stones, the results which were found are important enough to be quoted.

E. N. Cameron, R. B. Rowe, and P. L. Weis¹ give the following explanation :

"The implication is, that the secondary inclusions (the 'healed fractures') are formed from solutions of the same general composition as the apparently primary (liquid) inclusions and probably they are developed only a short time after the host crystals; *i.e. within the period of pegmatite formation.*"*

A confirmation of these observations is found by P. L. Weis.² He obtained the same results during his studies of the fluid inclusions in beryl, quartz, tournaline, and spodumene.

The observations of these authors indicate that healing fissures are mostly originated during the growth of the host crystal. This point of view could be confirmed in many cases. In other cases it seemed to be likely that the formation of healing fissures took place after the growing period of the host crystal, i.e. during a later time, when the crystal was still *in situ* within the mother rock, or weathered out from it and embedded in a second or third deposit. For these

^{*} The terms in parentheses and the italics have been added for the purpose of this article.

reasons it is useful to distinguish between "early" (or "subsequent" instead of secondary) and "late" healing fissures, as both types can be easily recognized. Such a differentiation could also avoid the more common term "secondary" healing fissures, which has already caused some misunderstanding.

The proposed classification has the following meaning: "Early" (or subsequent) healing fissures originated during the growth of the host crystal; they are of syngenetic origin. "Late" healing fissures are formed after the growth of the host crystal ended; they are of epigenetic origin.

During the study of a great number of healing fissures in numerous gemstones it was observed that the main reason for their "early" or syngenetic origin was undoubtedly *a great growing rate* of the brittle host crystal. It seems to be obvious that a rapid growth of a crystal, practically in all cases, is combined with the effect of a strain or a stress, which in its turn produces cracks in preferred directions or at random. It is also not difficult to understand that such syngenetic fissures immediately after their formation had to undergo a healing procedure, which lasted so long as the host crystal itself could continue to grow. Preferred directions are those of the cleavage planes of the including crystal, and these are indeed more often than expected the places of healed or partly healed cracks.

Another cause which could be found, is the presence of primary crystal inclusions. Such a foreign material could produce cleavage cracks (early) or tension fractures (early and late), and both kinds healed according to the ruling circumstances.

Finally a mere shear tension, which could easily occur for different reasons, has been the cause of cracks which subsequently healed into different kinds. It has been found that these particular healing fissures are formed either by a rapid growth of the host crystal (early) or that they are favoured by the existence of a cleavage (early and late), or by other reasons of geologic events (mostly late).

In order to obtain a general view of the complex features of the healing fissures and the different causes of their origin, the following scheme is suggested :

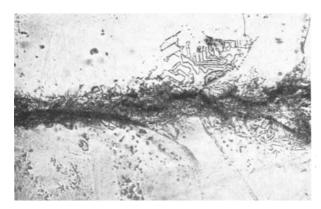
	Originated by	Examples	Time of Origin
I.	Rapid growth of the host crystal	Synth. emerald, pegmatite minerals like quartz, beryl, topaz, tourmaline, etc.	early
II.	Incipient cleavage	Topaz, fluorite, scapolite, zircon	early and late
III.	Primary crystal inclusions which cause (a) cleavage cracks (b) tension cracks	Snow-flake inclusions in aquamarine Tourmaline, aquamarine, garnet	early early and late
IV.	Shear tension which causes tension cracks in the host crystal A shear tension can arise by (I) and it can cause (II)	Aquamarine, garnet, zircon, and numerous others	early (and late)

HEALING FISSURES IN GEMSTONES

Convincing examples for a rapid growth of a crystal causing healing fissures were found by the crystallization of ammonia-alum $(Al(NH_4) (SO_4)_2 \cdot 12 H_2O)$. In applying a greater growing rate, clusters of very small alum crystals are deposited on an already present crystal plane. As can be seen in Fig. 1, tiny and unoriented crystals form a stripe, running from left to right. It caused within the bearing crystal, fissures in different directions, from which fissures one happened to be nearly parallel to the growing plane (111) of the host crystal, so that it can easily be observed.

In another case (Fig. 2), such a smaller cluster produced cracks in different directions which had already started to heal. This early healing process could be accomplished by bringing the host crystal back in the mother-liquor for a longer time (Figs. 3-5).

A great growing rate is also most probably responsible for the cause of those curious veil-like twisted "feathers" which are so typical of synthetic emeralds. It has been explained elsewhere³ that these feathers are true healing fissures (Figs. 6 and 7). There



The surface (111) of an ammonia-alum crystal. It bears a broader stripe of clusters, consisting of tiny, unorientated alum crystals, and caused by a great growing rate. The clusters caused tension cracks within the bearing alum crystal. One of these cracks shows the typical features of a healing fissure. 120 ×

F1G. 2

Octahedron plane of an alum crystal. A system of healing fissures starts from a cluster of tiny, rapidly deposited alum crystals. 120 ×



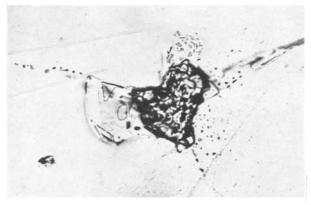
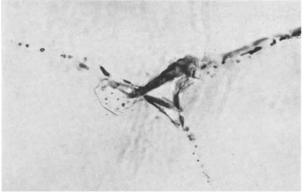


FIG. 3 Same as Fig. 2 after 6 hours in the mother liquor. 120 \times



F1G. 4 Same as Fig. 2 after 4 days in the mother liquor. 120 \times

F1G. 5

Same as Fig. 2 after 12 days in the mother liquor. 120 \times



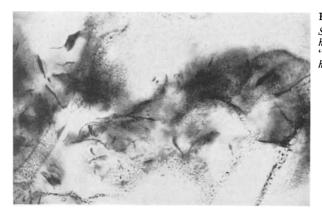
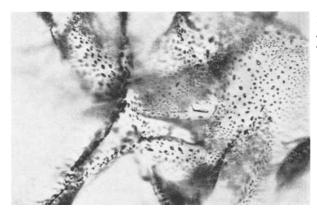


FIG. 6 Synthetic emerald (Chatham). Typical veil-like "feathers" which are true healing fissures. 40 ×

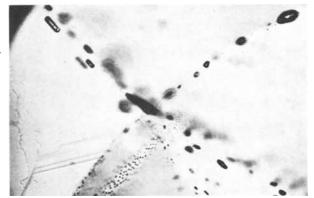


F1G. 7

Synthetic emerald (Igmerald). Healing fissures. 120 ×

FIG. 8

Blue topaz, showing a set of syngenetic (early) healing fissures, intersecting each other and consisting of liquid inclusions at random orientation. 85 \times



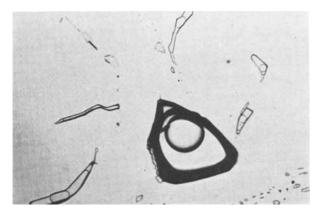


Fig. 9

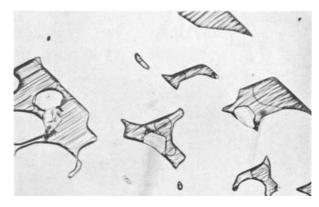
Blue topaz with a large liquid inclusion of primary origin (with broad dark rim), surrounded by syngenetic (early) smaller liquid inclusions, indicating a healing fissure. The system of inclusions is strictly parallel to the basal cleavage plane of the host crystal. $105 \times$ may also exist other reasons for the formation of the cracks, like shear-tension, caused by a great gradient of temperature during the synthesis, but it seems to be certain that the relatively rapid growth of the synthetic emerald crystals was one of the main factors which caused these partly healed cracks. It must be kept in mind, moreover, that the synthetic emerald has a similar brittleness to the natural one, so that cracks can easily be formed for various reasons.

It has already been mentioned that the origin of healing fissures is a very complex matter. In the following, details are given for a number of gemstones showing healing fissures, and an explanation of the origin of the more or less healed cracks has been attempted in each case.

Topaz. This gemstone exhibits two kinds of healing fissures, one of them, shown in Fig. 8, is characterized by liquid inclusions which follow curved planes and at random orientation. The fissures may intersect each other. It can be assumed that this type of healing fissure is caused by a rapid growth of the host crystal and that the fractures are of syngenetic (early) origin.

The other kind is shown in Fig. 9. Around a broadly rimmed liquid inclusion of primary origin, smaller liquid inclusions are arranged which follow strictly the basal cleavage plane of the host crystal. They represent a nearly healed fissure which formerly had been formed along the cleavage plane of the topaz and which is also of syngenetic origin.

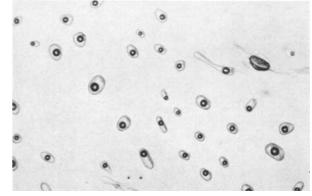
Scapolite cat's-eye. The tetragonal crystals of scapolite exhibit a perfect cleavage parallel to the prism face (100) and a less perfect one parallel (110). According to Fig. 10, the residues of a healing fissure follow the direction of the perfect cleavage. They form threephase inclusions in which the liquid phase consists of carbonic acid. The solid material is represented by doubly refractive, colourless crystals of not yet known composition. It has to be assumed that these crystals are primary and, furthermore, that they caused a cleavage crack which started to heal during the growing period of the scapolite crystal. This healing fissure is of typical syngenetic origin. The marked striation of the inclusions indicates that the healing process preferred crystallographic orientated directions. The lines, which form the striation, are repeated edges between the tetragonal prism and the bi-pyramid.

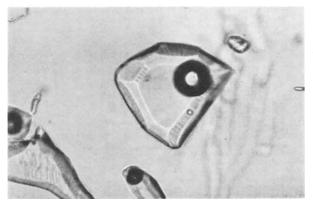


Scapolite cat's-eye, showing a healing fissure in the direction of the perfect cleavage along the prism face (100). $120 \times$

Fig. 11

Fluorspar with syngenetic (early) healing fissure parallel to the cleavage plane (111). 70 ×





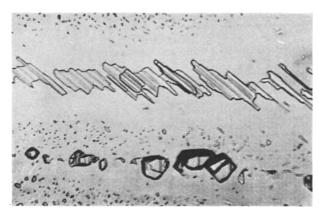
F1G. 12

Fluorspar. A single liquid inclusion of a healing fissure parallel (111), showing the crystal planes of the octahedron (111), the cube (100), and of the dodecahedron (101). $200 \times$ *Fluorspar.* The healing fissures in the cubic fluorite often follow the octahedron plane (111), which is the direction of perfect cleavage in this crystal. Fig. 11 shows such a cleavage crack which has been healed to a certain degree. In spite of the cause of the cleavage not being known, we have to consider this particular healing fissure as of syngenetic (early) origin. The single droplets represent the residues or the "undigestible remnants" of the former filling of the cleavage fissure which could not be resorbed by the host crystal. It is worth noting that the droplets are limited by crystal planes which, as shown in Fig. 12, belong to the octahedron (111), to the cube (100), and to the dodecahedron (101).

These inclusions are not to be mistaken for the primary liquid inclusions in fluorite which firstly have been described by E. Gübelin.⁴ They are claimed to be negative tetrahedrons (or bisphenoids), filled with a liquid and showing a libella. It is easy to agree with their primary origin, but for their shape it is preferable to consider them as the threefold corner of a cube, which is more in conformity with the cubic symmetry of the host crystal.

Quartz. Most of the healing fissures in quartz, particularly in rock crystal and in amethyst, follow curved planes and at random. In some cases, interesting features can be observed, and to these belong those cracks which form the so-called "tiger pattern." Without any doubt, they are partly healed fissures. On the other hand, they are composed of two components (Fig. 13), namely of liquid inclusions and of negative crystals. Both kinds of inclusion are arranged in distinct directions, whereas the liquid inclusions at the same time have an orientation according to the basic rhombohedron. It is presumed that the negative crystals are of primary origin and that they caused "subsequently" a fissure which in its turn entrapped during the healing process the liquid inclusions. This example, therefore, is a combination of primary inclusions (negative crystals) and of syngenetic liquid inclusions, the latter owing their typical shape to certain circumstances such as a rapid healing process.

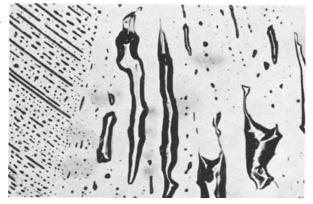
Another peculiarity is the strict orientation of liquid inclusions of a syngenetic healed crack in combination with other liquid inclusions which seem to be unorientated. Fig. 14 shows such a combination in a rock crystal with a faint brownish hue. The fissure itself is slightly curved and has no orientation within the host



Amethyst. Part of a socalled "tiger pattern." The rows of liquid inclusions alternate with other rows of negative crystals (with dark borderlines). 105 ×

Fig. 14

Rock crystal with parts of a syngenetic (early) healing fissure. $40 \times$



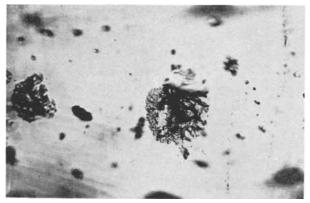


Fig. 15

Andalusite. A primary crystal inclusion (black centre) has caused a crack parallel to the cleavage plane (110) of the host crystal. The syngenetic (early) healing process left very small droplets within the area of the former crack. $105 \times$ crystal. It is not possible to give an explanation for such a differentiation which, by the way, can be observed similarly in some aquamarines.

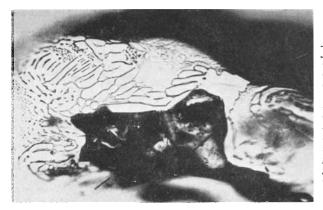
Andalusite, a rarely used gemstone, sometimes exhibits healing fissures which cover only a small and limited area. In Fig. 15, a doubly refractive crystal of primary origin caused a tension crack, which followed the direction of the cleavage parallel to the prism plane (110). The crack underwent a healing process and can now be recognized by the field of very small droplets, which surround the primary crystal inclusion nearly like a halo. This particular kind of healing fissure can be found in other gemstones. It is a typical example of early origin.

Orthoclase feldspar. A significant property of this monoclinic gemstone is the perfect cleavage along the basal plane (001) and the prism face (010) of the crystals, and both planes include an angle of 90°. In some of these stones from Madagascar, primary inclusions of dark and birefrigent crystals could be observed which had caused cracks parallel to both cleavages. The early-produced cracks healed (syngenetic), and they exhibit the picture of typical healing fissures (Fig. 16).

Spinel. Even in a crystal like spinel, which does not belong to the pegmatitic series, healing fissures can be observed occasionally. Such a healed fracture is shown in Fig. 17. It is of syngenetic origin and it follows approximately the octahedron plane (111).

Tourmaline. Healing fissures in tourmaline are well known. As described by E. Gübelin⁴, they mostly consist of "thread-like capillaries of most irregular arrangement." The discoverer (Gübelin) termed them "trichites" and mentioned them to be "ultrafine tubes which are filled with a liquid." It is no doubt that these typical "trichites" are the remnants of former healing fissures of early formation.

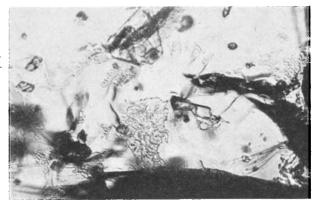
Besides this, other inclusions in tourmaline can be observed which, so far, also seem to be of diagnostic value. In Fig. 18, liquid inclusions of characteristic triangular forms are arranged parallel to each other, following at the same time the basal plane (0001) of the host crystal. They must be considered as the "undigestible residues" of a syngenetic healing fissure, showing now the faces of the trigonal pyramid ($10\overline{11}$). On the right of



Yellow orthoclase feldspar from Madagascar. A birefringent primary crystal inclusion caused two cleavage cracks which healed. One of them, seen here, exhibits the typical features of a healing fissure, particularly on its left side, where it shows a thinning like a wedge. The broad black rim near the top of the picture is the second crack, perpendicular to the first one, and out of focus. 105 ×

Fig. 17

Red spinel. A small healing fissure (centre), starting from a large crystal inclusion (below, black) and consisting of a pattern of little droplets. $105 \times$



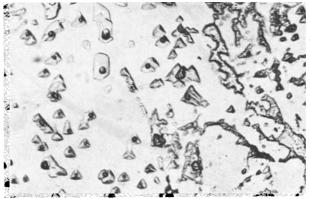


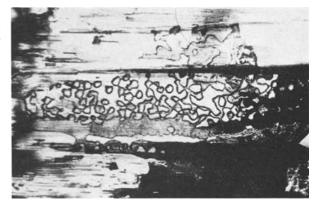
Fig. 18

Green tourmaline, California. A syngenetic (early) healing fissure parallel to the basal plane of the host crystal with liquid inclusions, forming trigonal pyramids and broader patches. $105 \times$

Rose coloured tourmaline, California. A syngenetic healing fissure parallel to the basal plane of the host crystal, showing liquid inclusions in various phases of resorption. $105 \times$

F1G. 20

Rose coloured tourmaline, California, with an epigenetic (late) healing fissure. 40 ×



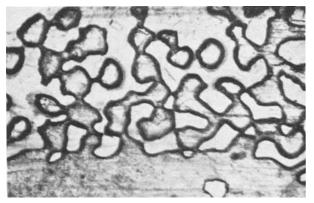


Fig. 21 Same as Fig. 20. 120 ×

Fig. 18, the liquid inclusions form broader and coarser patches which indicate that here the resorption (or the healing process) could not go so far as on the left side of the picture.

Confirmation for the correct characterizing of these inclusions is given by Fig. 19. Here, the healing fissure is nearly completely healed, particularly in the upper half of the picture. Only very thin capillaries and small droplets of liquid inclusions remain in the presence of a former healing crack, while the coarser patches in the lower part of the picture confirm the syngenetic origin.

In the same rose-coloured tourmaline, a typical epigenetic, partly healed crack of very late origin could be observed (Fig. 20). The filling of this fracture is of red-brown colour and does not contain any liquid. At higher magnification (Fig. 21), the first impression, as if grains are distributed throughout the fissure, is confirmed by the observation that a healing process has started, producing particles of greyish colour with a broad, dark rim. This particular filling must have happened long after the time when this tourmaline had left its mother-rock.

Beryl, a typical pegmatitic mineral, exhibits a great number of healing fissures, the origin of which is mostly syngenetic and not so often epigenetic. In many cases, an orientation of the healing cracks can be observed with respect to the host crystal. To these belong the best known three-phase inclusions, which are so typical of the Colombian emerald. They must be considered as parts of healing fissures which, with some deviations, follow generally the basal plane of the emerald. This is a direction in which the beryl has a weak or indistinct cleavage.

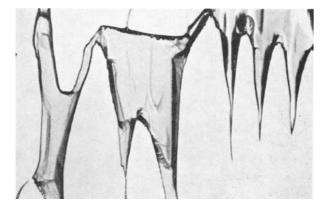
In aquamarine, three types of healing fissures could be observed, namely those

- (a) parallel to the main or c-axis of the host crystal,
- (b) parallel to the basal plane, and
- (c) at random orientation.

Examples for (a) are given in Figs. 22 and 23. Both pictures show typical healing fissures of early origin. They consist of liquid inclusions, which during the resorption or during the healing process developed elongated forms parallel to the direction of the c-axis of the host crystal. It is interesting to mention that these pictures furnish more than one hint for the healing process itself. Without

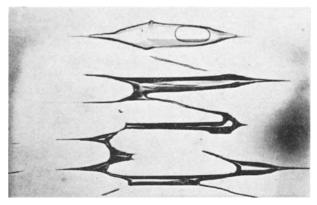
F1G. 22

Aquamarine. Strongly resorbed liquid inclusions of a healing fissure parallel to the c-axis. $105 \times$



F1G. 23

Aquamarine. Part of the same healing fissure as Fig. 22. $105 \times$ (In Fig. 22 the direction of the c-axis is from top to bottom; in Fig. 23 it is from left to right.)



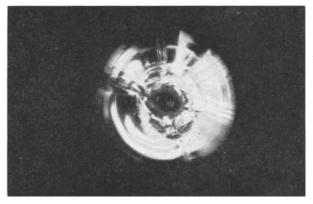


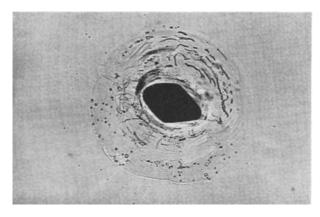
FIG. 24

Aquamarine. A circular crack along the cleavage plane (0001), caused by a crystal inclusion (centre); reflected light. $100 \times$ any doubt, the first thing that happened was the origination of a crack, most probably caused by rapid growing of the aquamarine. The second step must have been the filling of the fissure with material, that surrounded the host crystal and which we are accustomed to call "mother-liquor." The following step will have been the deposition of aquamarine substance on the inner walls of the crack, and this happened in a preferred direction, namely in the main growing direction of beryl, the c-axis.

It is not difficult to imagine that this particular step, the real healing process, is also responsible for the fact that some of the mother-liquor has been entrapped within the healing fissure. In the following period, conditions must have been in existence which enabled the aquamarine crystal to resorb such parts of the entrapped mother liquor, as could further build up the crystal edifice, or as could occupy intermediate places within the crystal lattice. The latter process would be a true resorption. In any event, there remained a residue of non-suitable material which, with regard to the healing fissures, mostly consists of a liquid.

(b) Wonderful examples of healing fissures parallel to the basal plane of the aquamarine crystal are the so-called "snow flake" inclusions. Details about these inclusions of such peculiar beauty have recently been published elsewhere.⁵ It could be found that the cause of each of these "snow flakes" is a primary embedded crystal inclusion which produced already during the growing period of the aquamarine a little crack in its host crystal. Mostly the crack has a circular shape, and it is always parallel to the basal plane as the direction of a weak cleavage in aquamarine. This crack started to heal immediately after its origin. Now, this healing fissure consists of six-sided droplets which are arranged round the primary crystal inclusion according to the symmetry of the host crystal. Again, the liquid inclusions are the "indigestible remainders" of the former filling of the crack, and they represent a very early (syngenetic) originated healing fissure.

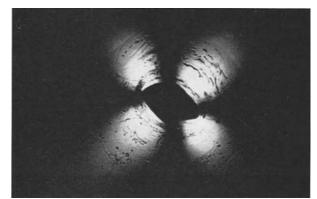
A convincing example for the correct explanation given for the origin of the "snow flakes" was found in another aquamarine, probably from Brazil. Here, a crystal inclusion, possibly ilmenite, had caused by one reason or the other a circular crack along the cleavage direction (basal plane) of the host crystal. In reflected light (Fig. 24), the crystal in the centre is hardly to be seen ; but



Aquamarine. The same crack as in Fig. 24 in transmitted light, revealing the cleavage crack as a typical healing fissure. $120 \times$

Fig. 26

Aquamarine. The same healing fissure as in Fig. 24 and 25 in transmitted light with crossed polarizers. The dark cross and the four bright fields respectively indicate in this direction (|| c-axis) of single refraction the presence of a distinct tension in the host crystal, caused by the solid crystal in the centre. 120×



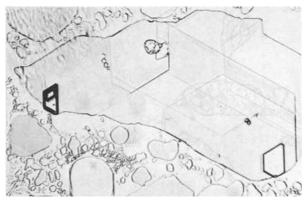


Fig. 27

Aquamarine. Films of syngenetic (early) liquid inclusions parallel to the basal plane of the host crystal. 100 ×

the cleavage crack itself acts in some way like a mirror. In transmitted light (Fig. 25), at a somewhat greater enlargement than Fig. 24, the crack reveals itself as a typical healing fissure with liquid inclusions, forming a kind of halo around the primary crystal in its In polarized light, the expected darkness in this direction centre. is not uniformly present, but only in the area of a cross, the branches of which indicate the directions of vibration of the combined set of polarizers (Fig. 26). The four bright fields mark a strongly developed tension, which covers the area of this particular healing fissure, and which is caused by the central crystal. It is amazing that the tension still exists in spite of the already started healing process. Regarding the time of its origin, it is certain that this healing fissure was formed during the growing period of the aquamarine (syngenetic), but also that by some unknown reason, the healing process itself went on at a relatively slow rate. Therefore, this inclusion could be termed an "under-developed snow flake."

Another kind of syngenetic inclusion parallel to the basal plane of the aquamarine is represented by very thin films of liquid inclusions (Fig. 27). They occur in different sizes showing rounded forms, or they are limited by straight lines, indicating the first order prism. The relatively large inclusion in Fig. 27 seems to be separated by some thin lines in several parts. In reality, these are only border lines of areas of different thickness of the same film inclusion. The films are so thin, that in transmitted light they have only a faint contrast against the surrounding host crystal, and therefore can easily be overlooked. In reflected light, however, they show the rainbow- (true interference-) colours, which vary throughout the entire visible spectrum according to the thickness of the liquid inclusions or parts of it.

Finely healing fissures of epigenetic (late) origin parallel to the basal plane of the aquamarine could be observed (Fig. 28). Here, a cleavage crack is partly filled with dark brownish crystal needles in a dendritic-like arrangement. From this it is assumed that the origin of the crack and its filling lies in a relatively late period, i.e. after the growing of the host crystal.

The needles are arranged in groups and in straight or bended directions. They strictly follow the directions of the hexagonal symmetry of the aquamarine. Although they resemble ilmenite crystals in colour, which often can be found in aquamarine, it seems to be unlikely that they are identical with this mineral.

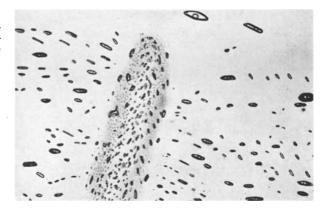


F1G. 28

Aquamarine. An epigenetic healing fissure parallel to the basal plane of the host crystal, showing dendriticlike arranged crystal needles of unknown nature. 100 ×

FIG. 29

Aquamarine. A syngenetic healing fissure with coarser liquid inclusions, overlying a smaller healed crack. 40 ×



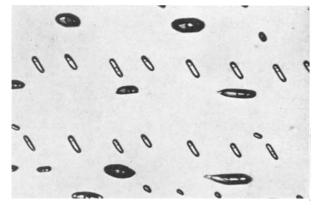


Fig. 30

Aquamarine. Part of the healing fissure of Fig. 29. $110 \times$

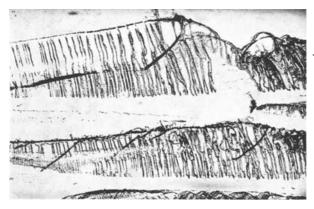
(c) Healing fissures at random orientation are most common in aquamarine. It seems to be certain that in most cases they have been formed by a relatively rapid growth of the host crystal, and therefore they are mostly of very early origin.

In Fig. 29, parts of such a broadly extended healing fissure can be seen, consisting of coarse liquid inclusions and overlying a smaller healed crack with the typical wedge-shaped borders. On the right of the picture, some of the inclusions seem to follow preferred directions. Under higher magnification the arrangement of the liquid inclusions reveals an orientation which corresponds with the symmetry of the host crystal (Fig. 30). In some way, it is a temptation to consider these inclusions as of primary origin. But this would not be correct, as the healing fissure itself is unorientated and shows typical curvatures. It can only be concluded that the healing process started early and lasted long enough to bring the unused material, the liquid inclusions, in directions which are suitable for the symmetry of the aquamarine.

Another kind of unorientated healing fissure in aquamarine is shown in Fig. 31. Here, the elongated hose-like liquid inclusions form a pattern which seems to be identical with the features of a conchoidal fracture. In another picture of the same aquamarine (Fig. 32), the resemblance with a conchoidal fracture is even more distinct. Most probably, the liquid inclusions of Fig. 31 and 32 represent a healing fissure which was formed after the growth of the aquamarine had ended, while the crystal was still in contact with the mother liquor. Perhaps we have in this case a transition from the syngenetic to the epigenetic origin of healing fissures.

A good example of an epigenetic healing fissure of random orientation in aquamarine is given in Fig. 33. It represents the filling of a flat crack with conchoidal markings. The filling consists of ramified liquid inclusions and a solid material of brown colour in different shades. The bright areas indicate the places of an advanced healing.

Zircon. Healing fissures in zircon from Mogok or Ceylon exhibit a pattern of elongated liquid inclusions which show by their rectangular arrangement an adaption to the tetragonal symmetry of the host crystal. In most of the cases they are nearly parallel to the first order prism (110) and follow the direction of the main or c-axis. They are of syngenetic origin.



Aquamarine. Unorientated healing fissures with the features of conchoidal fracture. $105 \times$

FIG. 32

Aquamarine. Feather-like border of an unorientated healing fissure consisting of liquid inclusions. $105 \times$

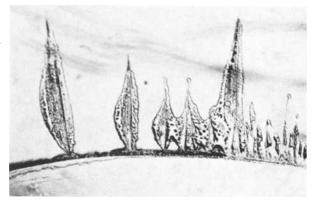
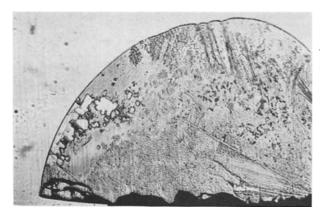




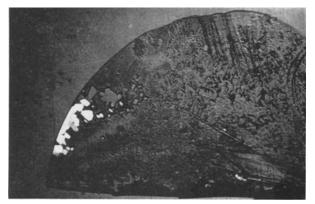
Fig. 33

Aquamarine. An unorientated healing fissure of epigenetic origin. $35 \times$



Brown zircon from Madagascar. An epigenetic healing fissure, containing tiny droplets and some crystals (left). $120 \times$

FIG. 35 Same as Fig. 34, but crossed Nicols. 120 ×



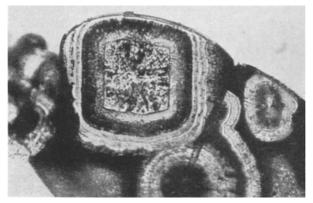
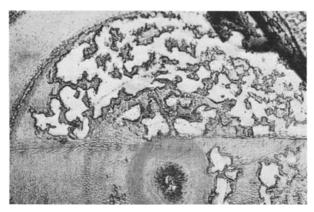


Fig. 36

Brown zircon from Madagascar. An epigenetic healing fissure, consisting of solid material. 420 ×



Brownish zircon from Madagascar with epigenetic healing fissures, containing disc-like aggregationen of iron oxide. Here parts of such a deep red coloured disk have been resorbed by the host crystal, forming a peculiar pattern. $120 \times$

F1G. 38

Brownish zircon, same healing fissure as Fig. 37. Between the red disks are colourless crystal needles, mostly radiating from one centre. 120 ×

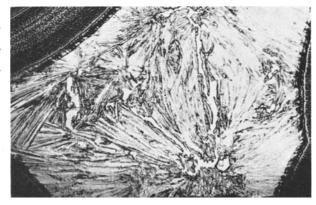




Fig. 39

Brownish zircon from Madagascar. A healed cleavage crack (epigenetic), with strangely formed deposits of iron oxide. $105 \times$

Recently, some brownish-coloured zircons from Madagascar arrived in Europe. The stones contain healing fissures of extraordinary shapes, which so far have not been described elsewhere.

One of the Madagascar stones contained a healing fissure which is shown in Fig. 34. It consists of tiny droplets, forming a shagreen texture, and some crystals near the left edge. The crystals are doubly refractive (Fig. 35), but otherwise nothing is yet known about their nature. The shapes of the fissure and of the tiny droplets indicate that most probably its origin is epigenetic. This seems to be confirmed by another part of the same crack, which exhibits an unusual pattern (Fig. 36). It consists of solid material, the nature of which could not yet be determined in spite of the application of high enlargement. There is no doubt that this particular filled or healed crack is of epigenetic origin.

Another brownish-coloured zircon from Madagascar showed healing fissures parallel to the main cleavage plane, the first order prism (110) of the host crystal. The filling of the cleavage crack proved its epigenetic (late) origin. It consisted of iron oxide forming greater and smaller discs of deep red colour. Some of these beautiful looking formations have been submitted to a resorption process which produced peculiar patterns (Fig. 37). The spaces between the discs are occupied by crystal needles, mostly starting from one centre (Fig. 38). These singly refractive needles are typical of a rapid crystallization, and this indicates, together with the aggregation of iron oxide, a very late origin of the healing fissure.

Other zircons from the same source contain similar epigenetic healed cleavage cracks which are puzzling by their strange appearance. Fig. 39 and 40 give only a small selection of the manifold formations of the deposition of heterogeneous material and its partial resorption within an ordinary cleavage crack.

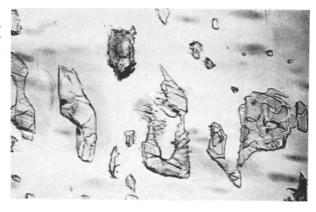
Garnet. Healing fissures in garnets are encountered only occasionally. In almandine garnet very early fissures could be observed (Fig. 41) which without any doubt have been submitted to a long-lasting healing process. This conclusion seems to be correct because the healed crack mostly consists of doubly refractive crystal inclusions which, moreover, are arranged in certain crystallographic directions.



Same healing fissure as Fig. 39, showing rectangular fields of resorption. 105 ×

FIG. 41

Almandine garnet. A very early healing fissure, mostly consisting of double refractive crystal inclusions. 110 ×



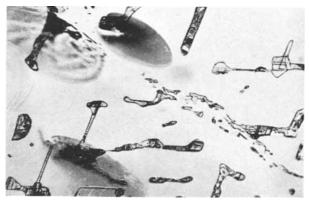
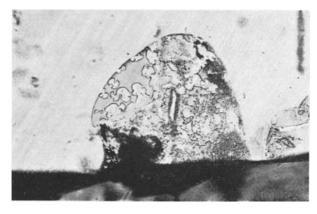


FIG. 42

Almandine garnet. An early healing fissure, the former liquid inclusions of which have been partly crystallized. 105 ×



Almandine garnet from East Africa with a typical healing fissure of late origin. 105 ×

Fig. 44

Almandine garnet from Madagascar. An inclusion of a slightly rounded zircon crystal. 110 ×

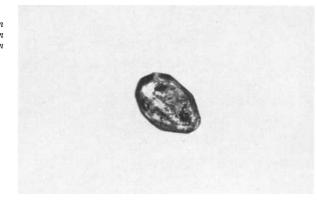




FIG. 45

Same as Fig. 44, polarized light. The four bright fields around the zircon indicate the area of a strong tension within the garnet. $110 \times$ Another almandine (Fig. 42) showed a syngenetic healing fissure, the former liquid inclusions of which have been crystallized. They likewise follow preferred directions, which most probably are the edges of the dodecahedron. The newly formed crystals are birefringent. In some cases they have caused disc-like tension cracks, parallel to each other and to a crystal plane likewise, the indices of which could not be determined. Some of the discs show the characteristic brownish colour in transmitted light, which indicates that they are true cracks. Others exhibit the typical pattern of a beginning healing process. Examples of both kinds are to be seen in the upper left corner of Fig. 42. They are of epigenetic origin. The inclusions of this almandine show the rare phenomenon of both kinds of early and late healing fissures present in the one stone.

In an almandine from East Africa, a typical healing fissure of late origin could be observed (Fig. 43). It consists of very small liquid films with characteristic rounded forms.

Another example may be given of the strong tension which an included zircon causes on its host crystal. As is well known, inclusions of zircon in gemstones, as in garnet likewise, can cause cracks, which sometimes look like a halo around the included zircon. It is believed that these cracks are formed by the shear tension, which the zircon exerts on its host crystal. In an almandine from Madagascar, a slightly rounded zircon was found which had not yet caused such tension cracks in its host (Fig. 44). In polarized light, four bright fields around the zircon disclosed an area of strong tension within the garnet (Fig. 45). If this tension is by any reasons increased only a little, the well-known cracks are originated which afterwards may be submitted to a healing process. In this phase, Fig. 45 shows a not yet developed crack or an "unborn" healing fissure.

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Gemmological Abstracts

ZWAAN (P. C.). Remarks on inclusions in an aquamarine. Proc. Kon. Ned. Akad. v. Wetensch., Vol. B 61, pp. 260-264. 1958.

A light bluish green aquamarine of unknown origin had $\varepsilon 1.572$, $\omega 1.578$; weak pleochroism, ε bluish, ω yellowish; sp.gr. 2.693. A plane containing the c-axis has negative crystals and tubular and irregular inclusions. The negative crystals have two liquid phases and a vapour phase, and on heating to $\sim 30^{\circ}$ C. one liquid phase disappears; this is taken to be liquid CO₂. Part of the tubular inclusions are filled with a liquid and a vapour phase, the rest are hollow. Other planes of inclusions occur oriented parallel to (0001) and contain irregular droplike forms. All the inclusions are believed to be of secondary origin.

R.A.H.

WEBSTER (R.). Synthesis of emerald. Germologist, Vol. XXVII, No. 328, pp. 203–206. November, 1958.

The article gives the history of the attempts to synthesize emerald from the time of the experiments of J. J. Ebelmen in 1848 and P. G. Hautefeuille and A. Perrey in 1888, to those of R. Nacken in 1912 and onwards and H. Espig and E. Jaeger's manufacture of *igmerald*, to the present commercial production of Carroll F. Chatham. Some idea of the possible methods of production is given, and the physical and optical properties, types of inclusions and other factors are compared with those of natural emeralds. 6 illus. P.B.

SCHLOSSMACHER (K.). Fabulit—der neue Diamantersatz. Fabulite the new diamond substitute. Zeitschr. d. deutsch. Gesell. f. Edelsteinkunde, No. 24, pp. 10-12. 1958.

The article deals with (synthetic) strontium titanate and lists its physical properties in comparison with those of diamond. Previously published in the July number of the Deutsche Goldschmiedezeitung. An English text has appeared in the Australian Gemmologist, Vol. 1, No. 2, 1958.

W.S.

SCHLOSSMACHER (K.). Die bisherigen Ergebnisse der Diamantschürfung im Gebiet Jakutsk. Results of diamond mining in the Jakutsk area. Zeitschr. d. deutsch. Gesell. f. Edelsteinkunde, No. 24, pp. 12-15. 1958.

The article is based on information issued by the German authorities for Foreign Trade who abstracted the Russian publication "Woprossy Ekonomiki." Six diamond bearing districts were listed :

- 1. Malo-Botuobinsk on the Malo-Botuobujy river, a tributary of the Wiljuij (itself a tributary of the Lena river).
- 2. Daldyno-Alakitsk (not on the map published by USSR in 1955).
- 3. Sredne-Marchinsk on the river Marcha, a tributary of the Lena river.
- 4. Tjungsk on the river Tjung, a tributary of the Wiljuij.
- 5. Munsk, on the river Muna, a tributary of the Lena river.
- 6. Severo-Oleneksk on the river Olenek.

Prospecting seems to be advanced in the districts listed under 1 and 2. The mines are named "Mir" in district 1 and "Udatschnaja" in district 2. The two mines are likened to Premier and Jagersfontein. According to "Woprossy Ekonomiki" the production possibilities seem most promising in these districts.

Ŵ.S.

STEINERT (Dr.). Die sowjetischen Diamanten. Soviet diamonds. Zeitschr. d. deutsch. Gesell. f. Edelsteinkunde, No. 24, pp. 16-17. 1958.

Attention is drawn to a Moscow scientific publication of 158 pages by 14 authors on the diamonds of Siberia and a popular propaganda sheet printed in Germany and published there by the Russian Embassy. Reference to fluorescence of diamonds under X-rays (as opposed to ultra-violet light) in the latter publication seems spurious to Steinert.

W.S.

BLANK (H.). Eine neue Quarzlampe für kurzwelliges UV-Licht. A new quartz lamp for short wave UV light. Zeitschr. d. deutsch. Gesell. f. Edelsteinkunde, No. 25, pp. 10-12. 1958.

The author describes the "Blank's Gem-testing lamp" developed by him for gemmological purposes. The mercury discharge lamp has a wattage of about 94 mW at 2540Å and about 5mW at 3650Å. The effective rays therefore lie within the shorter

wave range. The mean life of the lamp is 5,000 hours. The luminescence of a number of precious stones is described.

W.S.

SCHLOSSMACHER (K.). Fehlerprüfung von Brillianten. Examining flaws in brilliants. Zeitschr. d. deutsch. Gesell. f. Edelsteinkunde, No. 24, pp. 20-22. 1958.

A new instrument, the "Brilliantendoskop" (!) is described. This is essentially a microscope arrangement allowing inspection and photographing inclusions at $10 \times$ magnification. (A diamond dealer may fear that the requirements for a "loupe clean" diamond become too high.)

W.S.

SALLER (X.). Das Färben von Perlen. Dyeing of pearls. Zeitschr. d. deutsch. Gesell. f. Edelsteinkunde, No. 25, pp. 12-14. 1958.

Interesting article on pearls, their colour and processes of dyeing them. The organic conchiolin takes colour more readily than the mineral components (aragonite, calcite). The pearls are dyed cold or at a temperature of 50°C., the dye being dissolved in aqueous, alcoholic, acetone or similar solution. For dyeing with inorganic dyes certain metal chlorides are being used; these are mostly halogen compounds of strontium, barium or tin, which produce red, blue and blue-red hues. Organic dyes are rarely used, one of the few being that derived from the carcuma-root, which produces yellow. The most important dyes are the synthetic ones, with which the finest colour shades can be obtained. Alkaline and acid dyes can be used, the first being much quicker in use. A list of obtainable colours is added. The colour of the natural pearls is caused by chance similarly to the creation of the pearl itself.

W.S.

FLOOD (T. G.). Die Zuchtperle—ein zweihundertjähriges Mysterium The cultured pearl — a two hundred year old mystery. Zeitschr. d. deutsch. Gesell. f. Edelsteinkunde, No. 25, pp. 14-16. 1958.

An interesting historical article showing that round, cultured pearls were produced before Mikomoto's era by the Swedish scientist Carl von Linné, around 1761. Linnaeus's production method was bought by a Petter Bagge, whose grandson emigrated to Leith in Scotland around 1820, where he died nine years later. The documents relating to the invention have since been lost.

(Carl von Linné is usually known as Linnaeus in England—some of his cultured pearls are in the possession of the Linnean Society of London).

— Die neue Türkisimitation. The new turquoise imitation. Zeitschr. d. deutsch. Gesell. f. Edelsteinkunde, No. 25, pp. 17-18. 1958.

A successful imitation of turquoise has been made consisting of aluminium hydroxide and aqueous copper phosphate. The specific gravity of the imitation is lower than that of genuine turquoise. Thoulet's solution discolours the imitation (brown); the natural stone is not affected by it.

W.S.

PENSE (J.). Die Formbeständigkeit technischer Achate. Stability of industrial agates. Zeitschr. d. deutsch. Gesell. f. Edelsteinkunde, No. 25, pp. 23-24. 1958.

Investigation with the Zeiss interference microscope showed that the surface of agate remained completely smooth and plane at temperatures between 0°C and 60°C, also edges were not bent. From 200°C bending could be observed, but this temperature is far above any encountered in a known application of agate. Further investigations may refer to thermal expansion, humidity absorption and other properties of agate.

W.S.

SCHLOSSMACHER (K.). Die exakte Messung der Brilliantfarbe. Exact determination of the colour of brilliants. Gold und Silber, No. 9, pp. 25-26. 1958.

The author describes the "electronic colorimeter" of the American Gem Society, in particular the Shipley diamond colorimeter, which contains the light-source, 2 colour-filters, the measuring instrument and a calculating machine. The instrument does not require great skill in handling and gives fairly consistent results.

W.S.

EPPLER (W. F.). Flüssigkeiten in Edelsteinen. Fluids in Precious Deutsche Goldschmiedezeitung, No. 9, pp. 489-490. Stones. 1958.

Description of a two-phase and a three-phase inclusion in colourless Siam sapphires. The gas bubble in the two-phase inclusion being CO_2 varies with the temperature and is shown in three different photomicrographs taken at different temperatures. The fourth photomicrograph shows nonmiscible liquids with libellae.

GÜBELIN (E. J.). Notes on the new emerald from Sandawana. Gems and Gemology, Vol. IX, No. 7, pp. 195-203. Fall, 1958.

A concise report on the characters of the Sandawana emerald of Southern Rhodesia. The article is parallel to that published by the same author in the Journal of Gemmology, Vol. VI, No. 8, October 1958. R.W.

7 illus.

MAYERS (D. E.). Sandawana emeralds—some commercial aspects. Gems and Gemology, Vol. IX, No. 7, pp. 221-223. Fall, 1958. Tells something of the finding of the emerald in Southern Rhodesia and of the methods of marketing the stones. Owing to the fractured nature of the crystals generally only calibre cut stones can be fashioned from the rough material.

MAHAJAN (B. S.). A study of style and fashion in Indian jewellery. Gems and Gemology, Vol. IX, No. 7, pp. 204-220. Fall, 1958.

An article giving much interesting information on the designing, manufacture and marketing of jewellery in India. India has, from time immemorial, been known to the world as the land of fabulous gems, but jewels in India are prized not only for their beauty but for their investment value. The design and native use of necklaces, ear ornaments, nose rings, sari pins, bangles and rings are discussed. The introduction of a system of hallmarking gold and silver is proposed. A series of five double illustrations show models wearing jewellery with companion line-drawings showing suggested improvements in the style of jewellery worn. 11 illus. R.W.

W.S.

R.W.

BOOK REVIEW

SPERANZA CAVENAGO-BIGNAMI. Gemmologia—Pietre Preziose e Perle (Gemmology—Precious Stones and Pearls). Ulrico Hoepli, Milan, 1959, XXXIV and 1110 pp., 32 coloured plates, 850 illustrations, 67 tables. Price 15,000 Lire.

Written by the Director of the Italian State Gemmological Laboratory, this is a work conceived and carried out on a grand scale and achieves a very great degree of success, although it is not entirely free of the faults which are usual in such comprehensive works.

The book is divided into four main parts together with a bibliography and the indices. Part 1 is a discourse on the characteristics of minerals in crystals generally, Part 2 a detailed examination of each mineral in its aspect as a gemstone (including as well as the materials strictly belonging in this section, those organic substances, such as coral, amber and pearl that are used as well as the precious minerals for jewellery), Part 3 a description of the tests for precious stones, and Part 4 a number of tables repeating in a concise form for reference much of the information given at length in the preceding parts.

The mineralogical information given in Part 1 is a far fuller one than is customary in gemmological text-books, and perhaps demands a greater degree of scientific knowledge than would be expected of a student in this country, but the explanations are admirably clear and the illustrations of minerals both copious and effective. One fault, however, lies in the lack in many cases of captions to the illustrations, leaving their explanation to be sought in the text, perhaps at some distance.

The detailed descriptions of the stones given in the second part are well arranged with a table of principal characteristics of each stone at the head. It is perhaps of comparatively small importance in a book intended for use by Italians that the English equivalents of the Italian names for stones are often wrongly given ; this is especially true in the many cases where English usage is incorrectly made to follow the German, frequently resulting in out-of-date and inaccurate nomenclature. The references to English names and to English gemmological practice generally are one of the weaknesses of the book, which does not appear to have been read in manuscript or proof by anyone with more than a slight knowledge of English or of English gemmology, and the derivation of one of the English names for nephrite (axestone) from actinolite ($i\alpha \pi i s$ -ray, $\lambda i \theta o s$ stone), one of the constituents of the tremolite-actinolite series to which nephrite belongs, instead of from the literal translation into English of the Maori word " punamu" is indicative of this, especially as the Maori word is given and correctly translated into Italian. It is, of course, possible that similar errors could be found relating to the French and German languages, but this reviewer's knowledge of gemmological practice in either country is insufficient for him to detect them. However, as has already been said, these faults are comparatively minor in a book intended for use by Italian students.

The arrangement of this section with the stones described in descending order of hardness has much to recommend it. In particular it has the advantage over the more usual alphabetical arrangement that the most important gemstones fall naturally in the beginning of the section (diamond first, followed by corundum), whereas most writers who use the alphabetical arrangement find it necessary to take at least diamond out of its proper place to deal with it first. The part of this section dealing with pearls, both natural and cultured, is particularly well carried out.

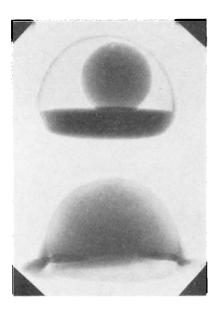
The third part, although entitled methods of testing precious stones and pearls, in fact covers a wider field than this would indicate, and gives a full description of the equipment and setting up of a precious stone laboratory. Part 4, tables, collects into convenient form for quick reference all the information which has been given in detail in Part 2. The main index is well arranged with the principal reference to any precious stone in bold type and is easy and convenient to use.

The production of the book is excellent and in general coloured plates attain the high standard which we have learned to expect from Italian printing, and considered generally this is a most valuable work for anyone whose knowledge of Italian is sufficient to enable him to use it successfully. Perhaps we may hope for an English edition to be published before long.

P.G.

AUSTRALIAN CULTURED BLISTER PEARLS

Further investigation of the large Australian pearls shown on the occasion of Mr. R. Webster's talk on pearls on Tuesday, the 27th of January (see p. 75), has demonstrated that the original bead nucleus cemented on to the pearl shell is a soft material and may be talc (soapstone). This bead, after the oyster has coated it with nacre, is removed from the shell with a hollow drill. These



objects are then sent to Japan for a final finishing, which consists of the removal of the original nucleus, the polishing of the inside of the shell of nacre and the insertion of a smaller bead nucleus embedded in a white cement. The pearl is finished with a backing piece of mother-of-pearl. This is strikingly shown by the radiograph reproduced here. The lower picture shows the blister as removed from the shell and the upper shows the finished cultured blister

pearl. The reason for the need to change the bead seems to be because the oyster first secretes a heavy layer of conchiolin over the nucleus before depositing nacre, and this shows through the translucent layers of nacre and gives a darkening effect to the colour of the pearl. By cleaning, and possibly tinting, the inner surface of the nacreous shell, the colour of the pearl is much improved and may even be enhanced by the white cement used to fix the new nucleus. This is no new departure, for some of the earliest patents of Mikimoto's were for such methods.

ASSOCIATION N O T I C E S

COUNCIL MEETING

A meeting of the Council of the Association was held at Saint Dunstan's House, Carey Lane, London, E.C.2, on 27th January, 1959. Dr. W. Stern presided.

The following were elected :---

Fellowship

D.1958

Hopper, Peter J., Sleaford

Zwirs, H. L., Curaçao, Netherlands Antilles D.1950

PROBATIONARY MEMBER

Guest, George M., Leeds

ORDINARY MEMBERS

Alden, Reta (Miss),	Ronald, James (Dr.), Inverness			
Vancouver, B.C., Canada	Scott, Cecil E. E., London, N.			
Alden, Ross, Vancouver, B.C., Canada	Weatherhead, Albert V.,			
Finucane, Alfred D., London, S.W.	Wellington, New Zealand			
Flood, Thorsten, Stockholm, Sweden	Wilson, Charles W., Chamblee,			
Hool, Rene H., Rotterdam, Holland	Georgia, U.S.A.			
Owens, Carl P., Atlanta,	Kelley, William F., Lakewood,			
Georgia, U.S.A.	Ohio, U.S.A.			

The Council agreed to make a contribution towards the cost of a badge of office for the Chairman of the Midlands Branch and recorded appreciation of the efforts of the Branch members in maintaining activities in the Midlands which were doing much to foster interest in germology. The income and expenditure account and balance sheet for the year ended 31st December, 1958, were approved for submission to the annual general meeting, which had been arranged to be held on 1st May next. The officers of the association were nominated for re-election.

TALKS BY MEMBERS

- BLYTHE, G.: "Gemmology," Chalkwell Evening Townswomen's Guild, 26th January, 1959.
- LIEPER, H. : "Gem pegmatites of San Diego County," Rotary Club, Del Mar, California, 16th October, 1958 ; "The titania gems," San Diego Mineral Society, 19th November, 1958 ; "The lapidary hobby," Fallbrook Gemological and Mineral Society, Fallbrook, California, 21st November, 1958.
- JONES, T. : "Gemstones," Institute of Metals, Middlesbrough, 20th November, 1958.

- WELLER, G. T.: "Pearls," Tunbridge Wells Congregational Church Youth Club, 28th January, 1959.
- BLYTHE, G. : "Gems," Infantile Paralysis Fellowship, Southend, 4th February; Hockley Young Wives, 9th February; Westcliff Young Wives, 23rd February, 1959; "Gemmology," Southbourne Women's Conservatives, 4th March; Rayleigh Rotary Club, 5th March, 1959.
- DUNCAN, JAMES M. : "Precious Gems," to Glasgow and West of Scotland Building Societies Institute, 10th February, 1959.
- WADE, D. : "Diamonds," Queen's Park Rotary Club, 4th February ; "Gemstones," Clan Donald Highlanders Institute, Glasgow, 20th February, 1959.
- WARREN (Mrs. Kathleen): "Gemstones," Beckenham Young Wives' Club, 10th
 February; Beckenham Mothers' Union, 25th February; Bromley Young
 Wives' Club, 3rd March; Bromley Mothers' Union, 4th March, 1959.
- BOWDEN, A. : "Gemstones," Hartley Town Women's Guild, Plymouth, 9th January ; Hessenford Women's Institute, 13th January ; R. N. Friendly Union & Sailors' Wives, H.M.S. Raleigh, 12th February ; Botus Fleming Women's Institute, Cornwall, 1st April; St. Ann's Chapel Women's Institute, Plymouth, 2nd April, 1959.

On Tuesday, 27th January, 1959, Mr. Robert Webster, F.G.A., gave a talk to members called "Pearls—ancient and modern" at the Goldsmiths' Hall, London. After references to the use of pearl in ancient times he surveyed the nature and occurrence of the pearl oysters, *pinctada vulgaris*, *p. maxima* and *p. martensii*, and the conch, clam and the pearl-bearing mussels. *Pinctada martensii* is used by the Japanese for pearl cultivation and the present-day method of inducing an oyster to produce a pearl is by inserting a small disc of the mantle from another oyster by means of a probe. A mother-of-pearl bead is then inserted after the piece of mantle, which grows round the bead nucleus and secretes nacre upon it. *Pinctada maxima*, in which Australian cultured pearls are grown, produces a larger cultured pearl. The first harvest of these was in 1958 and some specimens were exhibited by Mr. Webster.

Recently the Japanese have attempted the production of pearls without a nucleus, using the mussel *Hyriopsis schegeli* found in the inland lake Biwa Ko. The pearls produced are of fair colour but usually very baroque. Similar experiments have been tried in the new Australian fishery at Kuri Bay using the *maxima* oyster. The Japanese non-nucleated cultured pearls have been marketed in Arabian countries, but there does not appear to have been any marketing of the Australian product.

Coloured pearls are always prized; those with a yellow tint are appreciated by the dark-skinned beauties of Spain and Italy. Gunmetal-coloured bronzecoloured and black pearls have a charm of their own, and it is these blackish colours which may be artificially produced by staining with silver nitrate solution. It has been found by Anderson that natural black-coloured pearls show a dim glow when viewed in blue light through a red filter and that the artificially stained black pearls do not, and, further, owing to the opacity of the reduced silver, which gives the colour to the pearl, to X-rays a radiograph may show the conchiolin layers as white lines on the negative instead as black lines.

Other materials than mother-of-pearl may be used for the nuclei, but these are rare. Glass is one, but a more uncommon type is talc, and sometimes freak nuclei are found.

The cultured blister pearls were spheres of mother-of-pearl cemented to the oyster shell between it and the mantle of the animal, which secretes the nacre and which after a time covers the bead with this pearly substance. These objects were removed from the shell and the non-nacreous back ground flat and then backed with a dome of mother-of-pearl. Such an object is illustrated in Herbert Smith's book, but X-ray photographs of such pearls show a rather different structure, in which the central bead is smaller than would be expected. It appears that the original bead is removed, the inside of the shell of nacre polished, and maybe tinted, and a smaller new bead cemented into the cavity by white cement. The pearl is finished with a backing piece cemented on. This, indeed, was an early patent of Mikimoto's and we are apt to think of such objects as old fashioned. This is not so, for in the new Australian fisheries this type of cultivation, as well as whole pearl cultivation, is now carried on, using the large *pinctada maxima*. These Australian blisters are removed from the shell by drilling out with a hollow drill and these unfinished objects are sent to Japan for the removal of the core, the polishing of the inside and the refilling with a new bead.

The most useful and accurate method for testing drilled pearls is by the Endoscope, which clearly detects by a narrow beam of light passed through a special needle whether the pearl is concentric to the centre or has a layered structure. When the pearl is undrilled recourse is made to X-rays, of which the Diffraction method, also called the Lauegram method, is the most conclusive. By passing a narrow beam of X-rays through the centre of the pearl it is possible to determine whether the pearl structure is radial or directional. Cultured pearls usually fluoresce weakly under the influence of X-rays, but this is not conclusive as most freshwater pearls and some Australian pearls may show this effect. A direct X-ray picture will in certain cases give considerable help, but in the case of pearl necklets is rarely fully conclusive.

The mineral matter of pearls is calcium carbonate in the form of aragonite. It is well known that carbonates effervesce with acid and in a minor way an acid perspiration will dissolve the mineral part of pearl, and this is shown by the barrelshaped wear of the smaller pearls of a necklet, the pearls which are at the back and press upon the skin of the neck. Grease from cosmetics can have a deleterious effect on pearls, specially cultured pearls. Greasy substances avidly collect dirt, and this dirty grease may travel along the string canal and seep into the discontinuation layers, so prominent between the bead and the nacreous outer layers in cultured pearl. This dark grease shows through the translucent layers and the pearl appears a dark, blackish, very unattractive colour. If not too far damaged, these discoloured pearls may be "degreased" by careful treatment in an organic solvent. An unusual type of discoloration was found to be due to the darkening by sulphiding of some natural component in the make-up of cultured pearls.

Mr. Webster illustrated his talk by over fifty slides.

MIDLANDS BRANCH

X-rays were the subject of a well attended lecture given by Mr. Harry Proctor, surgeon at the Birmingham Accident Hospital, to members of the Midlands Branch of the Gemmological Association of Great Britain at the Auctioneers' Institute, St. Philips Place, Birmingham, on Friday, 30th January, 1959. Mr. Trevor Solomon, Chairman of the Midlands Branch, presided.

Mr. Proctor described some of the early developments leading up to the discovery of X-rays by Röntgen in 1895, and discussed the nature of X-rays following on to natural radioactive materials and the discovery of radium by Madame Curie. He referred to the uses of X-rays in medicine, both for the diagnosis and treatment of disease. The talk was illustrated throughout by slides showing the apparatus used in early experiments up to the more complicated modern X-ray tubes.

The dangers of over-exposure to X-rays was stressed, those by far the most dangerous to the public being given by machines used in some shoe shops. The X-rays from these machines, being "soft rays," are readily absorbed by the human body and if used too frequently could lead to serious consequences.

Mr. Proctor then described the importance of X-rays to the gemmologist, mentioning the powder X-ray photograph, the Switzer-Holmes X-ray diffraction camera and the use of X-rays to differentiate between real and cultured pearls.

He showed also, with some very interesting slides, how X-rays have played an important part in the studying of works of art.

The evening concluded with an examination of a modern X-ray machine, with cut away sections enabling the working parts to be seen. Some very fine X-ray photographs of flowers were also exhibited.

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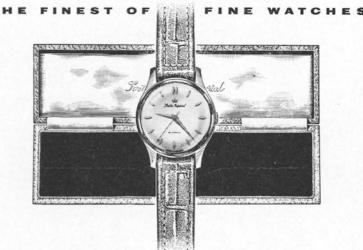
Members of the Midlands Branch held their annual dinner on Saturday, 7th March, 1959, at the Medical Institute, Edgbaston, Birmingham. Mr. Trevor Solomon, F.G.A., presided. Among the guests were Mr. John Croydon, F.G.A., Chairman of the National Association of Goldsmiths and Mrs. Croydon, Mr. R. Weston, President-Elect of the British Jewellers' Association, and Mr. K. Mindelsohn, B.A.

Speeches were few and brief and members and their guests enjoyed dancing after the dinner.

The Branch chairman wore the badge of office that had been designed by a member of the Branch, Miss J. Rice. The emblem of the Association, in enamel, is the principal motif of the badge.



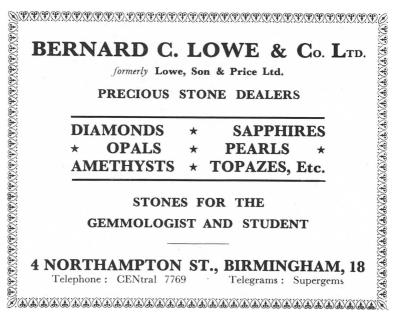




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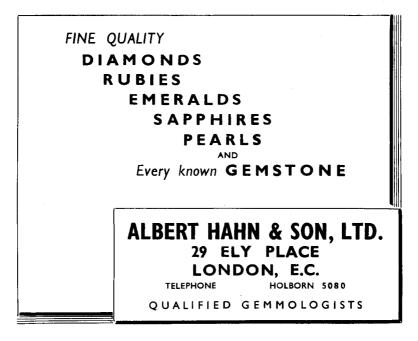
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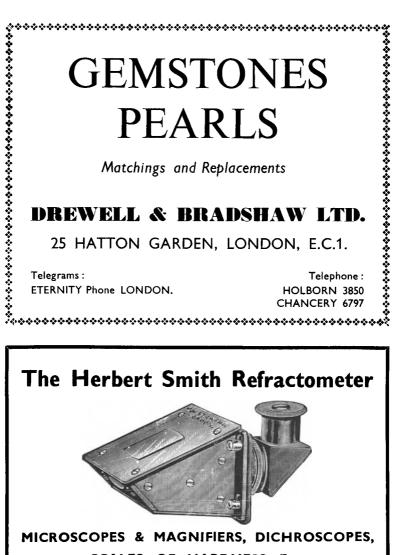
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