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IN CANADA
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Chairs

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Specials

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 finely finished piece.
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SER, 451—A beauti-
 dresser in golden oak,
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 ors, a ladies' dresser,
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SER, 320—Another
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Morris Chairs

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 Morris Chair special
 There are many
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Morris chair is a chair
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IS CHAIR, 612—
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IS CHAIR, 24—Mis-
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Our Editor

CONCERNING HEAT

Heat, says a scientific writer, is that which produces warmth. This does not seem to be a very lucid definition and recalls that given by another writer who defines the ethereal as "that which undulates," but if you try your hand at a definition of heat you will find it not easy to improve upon the above. We know that some things are warmer than others, and that which causes the difference is called heat. It is closely related to light and electricity, if indeed it is not identical with them. It can be measured, yet it is invisible; it produces effects upon material things, yet is absolutely intangible. Hence it seems to be a force and not a substance, although it is not very long ago that the most learned men were inclined to think it is a substance. Indeed, they arranged a small number of supposed entities into what they called a class of "imponderable substances." When it is said that heat is imponderable, or in other words that it has no weight, mention should be made of the effect upon the substance. Indeed, they arranged a small number of supposed entities into what they called a class of "imponderable substances." When it is said that heat is imponderable, or in other words that it has no weight, mention should be made of the effect upon the substance. Indeed, they arranged a small number of supposed entities into what they called a class of "imponderable substances." When it is said that heat is imponderable, or in other words that it has no weight, mention should be made of the effect upon the substance.

The rule that substances expand in proportion to their warmth, and therefore contract when cold, is subject to certain important variations. This page is printed from what are called linotypes. Melted metal is by an ingenious mechanism run into a mold, one side of which is composed of a series of brass matrices in which the forms of the letters are cut. The type-metal, like some other things, continued to contract as it cools, the molten metal would not quite fill the mold and the result would be a line of very imperfect letters; but just before type metal becomes solid it expands very slightly and fills the perfect letter is produced. This process takes place so quickly that in the working of a linotype machine it cannot be detected, but it goes on steadily hour after hour without variation. Iron acts in the same way and so do some other, but not all, metals. Water possesses this remarkable quality. As it cools it grows heavier until a temperature of 4 deg. centigrade is reached, which corresponds with about 40 deg. Fahrenheit when it expands. The result is seen in the freezing of the surface of water. If vessels filled with water are exposed to the cold the temperature of the surface is at once lowered and the water there sinks to the bottom until all that is in the vessel is lowered to a temperature of 4 deg. centigrade. Then, if the cold continues, the water begins to expand at the surface, and the fact that the water remains there until it has been frozen, and thereafter the freezing process extends downward. If the cold is sufficiently intense to freeze all the water in the vessel the expansion will extend to all parts of the vessel, and the vessel will burst under the pressure, or, if its form will permit it to do so, the ice will be thrown up in the centre and most probably be cracked. This expansive effect of the lowering of the temperature of water has been the most potent of all factors in the pulverization of rocks to form soil.

A few words in regard to thermometers may be said in this connection. Of these heat measures there are several kinds, but those most commonly in use are what are known as the Fahrenheit and the Centigrade. The former is called after its inventor, and the latter takes its name from the fact that the boiling point of water is placed at 100 degrees and the freezing point at zero. Fahrenheit took as his zero point the greatest extreme of cold which he was able to observe. He graduated his thermometer by placing an arbitrary scale according to which the mercury stands at 32 degrees when water freezes and at 212 degrees when water boils. Thus 32 Fahr. corresponds to 0 cent, and 212 Fahr. to 100 cent. These are the fixed points in both thermometers, but between them or below 32 in the case of the former and zero in the case of the latter there is a slight variation in the expansion or contraction of the mercury. It is very difficult to make a glass tube of absolute uniform diameter, and this fact combined with slight variations just mentioned explains why thermometers exposed under identical conditions do not always record the same temperature.

Speaking generally it may be said that heat seems to be produced in one of three ways, by chemical action, by friction or by pressure. Fire is a chemical process. It consists in the disintegration of certain compounds and the union of their elements with other elements. The production of heat by friction is one of the most familiar of all processes. Its production by pressure is not so generally known, but there are simple experiments by which it is easily demonstrated. The origin of the heat of the Sun is one of the unsolved questions of science. Some investigators attribute it to chemical action, others to friction, and others to the contraction of the Solar mass; others again think that its origin may be due to contraction but that resulting therefrom there is violent chemical action. If we assume that the Solar System was once a nebulous mass, it must have contained a vast potentiality of heat in latent condition. As the mass became solidified the heat would be manifest, and would be evidenced first in the molten condition of everything, and afterwards in the form of great chemical processes similar to fire. Now the heat of the Sun is transmitted across the wilderness of space is uncertain, but it is thought to be by a process similar to that which transmits light, if indeed they both are not transmitted by one and the same process. All evidence points to the conclusion that the interplanetary spaces, such for example as the space between the earth and Venus, that between Venus and Mercury and that between Mercury and the Sun is at a temperature of absolute zero, that is it is as cold as is possible. If across these absolutely cold regions heat finds its way without imparting any of it to the surrounding space, we seem forced to the conclusion that heat is the result of the operation of two agencies, something to produce it and something to receive it. The intensity of heat may therefore depend upon the nature of the receiving agency, and hence, although Mercury is very much nearer the Sun than the earth is, it may be no hotter. This also seems to show how it is that comets can graze the very surface of the Sun and yet go on their way apparently unaffected thereby.

ISSUS AND ARBELA

The Persian Empire was founded by Cyrus the Great about 537 B. C. It reached the height of its power under Darius I, and his successor Xerxes; that is from about 500 B. C. to 480 B. C. The first severe blows received by it were at Marathon, Salamis and

Plataea, to which reference has already been made. Between the death of Xerxes in 465 B. C. and the accession of Darius III. in 336 B. C. the empire was torn by internal dissensions, and yet for the most part it preserved its territorial integrity. In 334 B. C. Alexander the Great, of Macedonia, began his famous campaign against Persia. No better measure of the relative quality of the Greeks and Persians can be asked than the fact that Alexander set out on his expedition with only 30,000 infantry and 5,000 cavalry. When we compare this with the millions led by Xerxes against Greece a century and a half previously the difference between the two peoples seems extreme. Alexander's advance was not very strongly resisted, and he relieved the democracies of Asia Minor from the Persian yoke without any very great expenditure of blood. Darius, however, was only delaying his efforts to repel the invader and he gathered at a narrow defile in the mountains of Calceos, near Issus, a force of 600,000 men, of whom 300,000 were Grecian auxiliaries raised in Asia Minor. Alexander's force had been somewhat augmented, but it is doubtful if he had 50,000 men under him. Darius, who commanded the Persian force, personally, was so assured of victory that he brought with him his mother, his wife, his harem and all his children to witness his triumph. All the nobility of Persia were represented and the luxury of the equipment of the camp was unprecedented. An idea of this luxury in which Darius advanced may be formed from the fact that he took with him loaded vessels and 300 camels; most of this, however, was not taken to the battlefield. Darius, on reaching a large and level tract of country, which was suitable for the movement of large bodies of troops, awaited attack, but Alexander, whether because of recent illness or from design, refused to advance, and Darius, growing impatient, marched his immense host into the mountain defiles beyond which the Macedonian was resting with his victorious troops. Alexander at first could scarcely credit his good fortune, but the unexpected movement of the Persians being confirmed, he set out at once to meet them. The battle of Issus was one of three separate incidents. The first and most important was a charge by Alexander against the Persian left, where Darius was commanding in person. So impetuous was the onrush of the Macedonians that Darius set the example of retreat. Almost at the first onset he ordered his chariot to be wheeled about and fled precipitately from the field, his troops following him in wild disorder. The Greek auxiliaries occupied the Persian centre. They made a gallant resistance, but when Alexander, having driven Darius from the field, turned his troops against the centre, they also broke and fled. The third incident was the rout of the Persian cavalry, which formed the right wing of the army of Darius. This force offered splendid resistance and only fled from the field on learning that the king and all his retinue were in full flight. Issus was lost through the pusillanimity of Darius; but this only augmented the completeness of Alexander's triumph. The Persian loss was 10,000 cavalry and 100,000 infantry. The Macedonians lost 150 cavalry and 300 infantry. The great discrepancy in numbers is to be accounted for by the fact that after the first hour or so the battle consisted only of a leaderless flight on the part of the Persians, with the Macedonians pursuing and slaying them without mercy. The vast army of Darius was broken up. A force of 3,000 men found their way back to Persia, but the rest of the host disappeared, and the invaders, as they moved on, found the country deserted. The booty won by the Macedonians was enormous, and not the least important part of it was the thousands of prisoners who were sold into slavery. Among the prisoners were the family of Darius, but they were restored to that king. The battle of Issus was epoch-making in the history of the world, for it marked the beginning of the end of the empire of Persia, but it was not final in its results. During the next two years Darius exerted all his efforts to gather a new army, and succeeded to such a degree that he was able again to oppose Alexander. The battle of Gaugamela, which was a town lying east of the Tigris, estimated of the strength of the Persian army vary from a quarter of a million men, given by Curtius, to nearly a million, given by Plutarch. It seems to have been a splendidly appointed force, largely consisting of the best troops of the empire. The number of Persian chariots was estimated at 1,000, and it was the hundreds of chariots with scythes upon their wheels. Opposed to this host Alexander had 40,000 foot and 7,000 horse. The battle began by a cavalry charge of the Macedonians against the Persian cavalry, which was followed by a charge of the Persian chariots against the Macedonian infantry. The cavalry fight was very keen, but the chariot charge proved a failure, for the horses refused to advance against the shower of Macedonian arrows. Then Alexander repeated the tactics, which had been so successful at Issus. At the head of a cavalry brigade he charged directly for the point where Darius watched the battle from his chariot, and once more the Persian monarch sought safety in flight. The rout was indescribable. The right wing of the Persian army ofered a stubborn resistance, but on receiving news of the flight of the king it also gave way, and Alexander was completely victorious. There was much fighting between small bands of troops in which the Persians displayed much courage, but at nightfall saw the vast army completely overwhelmed. The number of Persian slain is variously estimated from 40,000 to 90,000; and the Macedonian loss at 100 to 500.

Following this battle came the surrender of the Persian capitals, Babylon and Susa. In the capture of the latter city uncounted gold and silver were won, and 120,000 captives were secured. Other booty, including slaves, the amount is incalculable. Alexander was now virtually king of Persia, and shortly after, by the death of Darius, became actually so. The Persian auxiliaries dispersed to their homes and what seemed at one time to be an empire that would give laws to the world became the dominion of the Macedonian king. One can hardly imagine the defeat of the Persian hosts by the small forces led by Alexander. The men under Darius were good soldiers, but they were poorly led, and the cowardice of the king was utterly demoralizing. In considering the numbers given of the men engaged and the losses on either side, it is to be borne in mind that we have only Greek accounts of the battles. It is certain, however, that neither at Issus nor at Arbela was anything like the whole Persian army engaged. The greater part of the soldiers were little more than spectators, whose very numbers, once they became demoralized by the flight of the king, made a rally and an efficient resistance impossible.

At the time of Alexander's conquest of Persia, Rome was extending and consolidating her power in Italy, and the republic acquired the position of leader of a confederacy, which embraced the central part of the peninsula. To the north, the Celtic cities to the south were ripening for the hour when the city on the Tiber would extend her sway over them. The first Samnite war broke out four years before Alexander's death. It was about this time that the Celts, exhibiting signs of decay and the Greek cities to the south were ripening for the hour when the city on the Tiber would extend her sway over them. The first Samnite war broke out four years before Alexander's death. It was about this time that the Celts, exhibiting signs of decay and the Greek cities to the south were ripening for the hour when the city on the Tiber would extend her sway over them. The first Samnite war broke out four years before Alexander's death. It was about this time that the Celts, exhibiting signs of decay and the Greek cities to the south were ripening for the hour when the city on the Tiber would extend her sway over them.

After the death of Alexander the Persian empire was divided into three parts, the Macedonian, the Seleucid and the Ptolemaic. The Macedonian part was the most important, and it was this part that the Romans conquered. The Seleucid part was the most powerful, and it was this part that the Romans conquered. The Ptolemaic part was the most important, and it was this part that the Romans conquered. The Macedonian part was the most important, and it was this part that the Romans conquered. The Seleucid part was the most powerful, and it was this part that the Romans conquered. The Ptolemaic part was the most important, and it was this part that the Romans conquered. The Macedonian part was the most important, and it was this part that the Romans conquered. The Seleucid part was the most powerful, and it was this part that the Romans conquered. The Ptolemaic part was the most important, and it was this part that the Romans conquered. 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