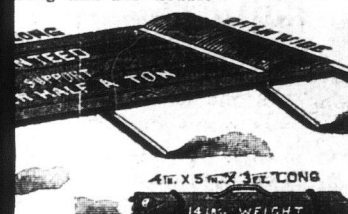


Victoria Home of McCray Refrigerators

re for Your Camp
That Folds Compactly Yet is
Strong and Serviceable



Camp Beds at \$3 to \$4.50



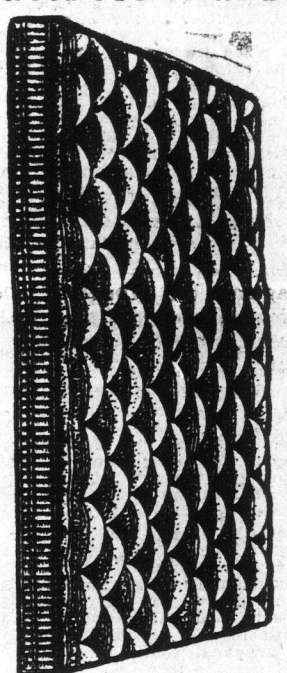
.....\$4.50
.....\$1.50

ITURE for the summer camp
light and strong and of the val-
is very compactly. All these
re combined in the furniture we
the Gold Medal—the principal
by us—we offer you the best
furniture on the market.

is steel reinforced and is guar-
anteed make folds so compactly
"packed" from camp to camp,
pieces in this and invite you
cial features. Here are a few

CAMP STOOLS at60¢
CHAIRS, at each\$1.00
ECLINING CHAIRS.....\$1.50
RM CHAIRS.....\$2.25
AMP BEDS, \$4.50 and.....\$3.00
ABLES at, each.....\$4.50

Mattress Value



Whether you want a mat-
tress for your home or for the
camp or for the Summer cot-
tage, you cannot do better
than choose from this stock of
mattresses.

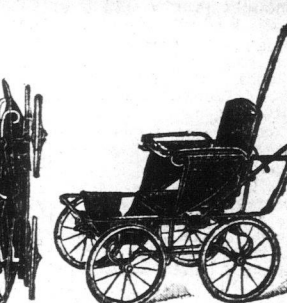
Every possible requirement
in mattresses may be filled
from our stock and special
sizes or special styles may be
made to order promptly. Prices
on full size range from—

\$3.75

FULL SIZE OSTER-
MOORS\$15

DAY JAUNTS

apsible Carts



er carried in trunk or suit case,
ate this cart to you. There

.....\$6.50
.....\$9.00

3.75

Furnishers
of
CHURCHES
SCHOOLS, STORES
OFFICES

An Hour with the Editor

GREAT INVENTIONS

From a stone tied to a stick to the latest Dreadnought is one aspect of human progress. The former was man's first inventive effort in the art of killing; the latter is the latest, but apparently by no means the last, for in no sphere of human ingenuity does there appear to have been greater activity than that which has to do with killing. Reference has already been made in this series of articles to the invention of the bow. There is no means of ascertaining when this weapon was invented or by whom. It was in use in very ancient times in Eastern Europe and Western Asia, and it seems to have been a very ancient implement among the North American Indians. As late as 1752, bowmen were regarded in England and elsewhere as among the most formidable of soldiers. We do not know very much about the military engines of early days. The sword seems to have been the most general in use, but there were siege engines, from which projectiles were hurled, and of these any available information is very defective. A writer in the middle part of the last century said that from the result of his investigations he was led to doubt if the artillery of that day was as effective as the discarded appliances of antiquity, but he seems to be almost alone in his opinion. It may be conceded that among the most potent of all agencies resulting from human invention gunpowder may be given a first place. It completely changed the nature of war, and thus indirectly led to great social and political changes.

It is not known by whom gunpowder was invented. Formerly it was believed that it was the invention of Friar Bacon, and was first used in warfare by Edward III in the battle of Crecy; but this idea must now be abandoned in the light of modern researches. Sir George Staunton has said: "Nitric is the natural and daily produce of China and India; and there, accordingly, the knowledge of gunpowder seems to be coeval with the most distant historical events." Hundreds of years before the Christian era, fireworks were common in China. There is a record of bamboo tubes being used for throwing projectiles, and these seem to be the origin of cannon. In B.C. 618, the Taing-Off dynasty had a cannon of metal, and the structure of the great wall of China indicates that swivel guns were mounted on it. Later the Chinese used stone mortars for the discharge of projectiles, and in A.D. 1332 cannon were employed against the Mongols. There is some ground for believing that the Greek Fire, which the Byzantine emperors used, was not materially different from gunpowder. But the claim of China to this invention is disputed by that of India. It is told in the old Sanskrit tales that when the Egyptian Hercules invaded India, he was repulsed from the cities with whirlwinds and thunders, which suggests the use of explosives, and a Greek historian of Alexander the Great's Indian campaign says the Hindus were able to discharge flames and missiles upon their enemies from a distance. It is quite certain that cannon were used in India in A.D. 1200, and when the Grand Vizier of Delhi went out in A.D. 1258 to meet the ambassador of the Mongol monarch, he had with him three thousand pieces of artillery. From that time onward the use of cannon in India became very common, so that these weapons were familiar to the people of that country long before Crecy was fought. Bacon announced that he had made gunpowder in A.D. 1216, but it was a very crude material, and its explosive powers were not great. It is improbable that he invented it, and most likely that he only employed formulas which he had learned from MSS. For two centuries earlier the Moors and Christians were employing an explosive prepared from nitre in their wars in Spain. The "cannon" used at Crecy were three in number and very small affairs. They had very little to do with determining the result of the day. The Black Prince had others with his force, but thought them of so little value that he did not employ them at all at Poitiers.

It was not until the reign of Henry VIII, that it is in the Sixteenth Century, that field pieces became of any great service, and it was much later before musketry came into very common use, the ingenuity of gun-makers not being equal to the production of weapons that combined strength with sufficient lightness to make it possible for men to carry them in battle. The use of gunpowder completely changed the nature of war and indirectly led to great social changes. The fighting man has always been the pivotal figure in social organization. In the days when the bow was the most effective weapon, the archers were selected from the ranks of nobility and better class of yeomanry and they held a place scarcely second to that of the knights, who fought with lances and swords on horseback. But when gunpowder came into use and hand to hand fights became exceptional, when the common soldier, with what now would be thought to be a poor apology for a gun, could slay a knight, clad in full armor, before the latter could get near him with his lance, all the conditions of battle were changed. No longer could the knight ride into the thick of the fight with his vizor down, and the quarterings of his shield alone telling who he was, and with lance, mace or broadsword hack and hew his way through opposing unarmored masses, and, after slaying scores of unhappy wretches, come out all unscathed himself. Chivalry, with all its strange robes, fled at the sound of cannon and vanished at the rattle of musketry. It seems a very remarkable thing that in India and China, where gunpowder

was known for so many centuries before it was introduced into Europe, the use of the explosive had no such effect as it had in Europe, and in this perhaps there is to be found a difference explainable only on racial grounds. It was gunpowder in the hands of the English that did the greatest part of the social leveling which Europe witnessed.

Gunpowder played an important part in the development of sea power. Until it came into use, sea-fights consisted of attempts on the part of ships to ram each other, and when this failed the vessels would be laid side by side and the issue be determined hand to hand; but when cannon were placed on ships a change at once took place, although even as late as Trafalgar the efforts of commanders was to lay their vessels side by side, so that cannons were discharged, sometimes muzzle to muzzle and hand-to-hand fighting was the end of many a terrific day. When the Japanese Admiral was in Victoria a few days ago he was asked at what distance a naval battle would nowadays be begun. He said at from ten to twelve miles, although really effective work could only be counted on at a distance of from six to eight miles. Compare this with the little cannon of Crecy, which could project a ball about two inches in diameter a hundred yards, and we get some idea of the vast progress that has been made in the development of ordnance. Space forbids a full investigation of the part that gunpowder has played in the progress of the world, but it has been so tremendous that it may well be classed as one of the greatest of inventions.

POITIERS

The story of the siege of Calais has often been told. It lasted a full year, and was only given up to King Edward, when the people found themselves face to face with starvation. Many readers will recall the story of the conditions exacted by the king, and how he insisted that six of the most prominent burghers should be delivered into his hands. Yet perhaps it may be well to tell it over again, as it illustrates in a forcible way the habits of those times. It was in August, 1347, that Edward sent his ultimatum to the beleaguered city. Jehan le Bel tells of the incident in graphic words. The town bell was rung and the people assembled desiring to hear the good news, for they were mad with hunger, but when they heard that six of their number must be sacrificed "then began they to weep bitterly so loudly that it was a great pity." But Eustache de St. Pierre, the wealthiest of them all, came forward and volunteered to be one of the six. Said he: "Of my own free will I will put myself barefoot in my shirt and with a halter round my neck in the mercy of King Edward." Other volunteers came forward, and the victims were led before the King, who with the Queen and all his train of counts and nobles, awaited their coming. Then Eustache de St. Pierre spoke: "Gentle King, here be six who have been of the old bourgeoisie of Calais and great merchants; we bring you the keys of the town, and render them to you at your pleasure. We set ourselves in such use as you see, purely at your will, to save the remnant of the people that has suffered such pain. So may you have pity and mercy on us for your high nobleness' sake." The assembled multitude was strangely moved, and only the King seemed pitiless. One after another of his great lords pleaded with him to be merciful; but the King was obdurate, and ordered the headsman to be called. "Then did the Queen of England a deed of great lowliness." She fell on her knees before Edward. "Ah, gentle sire," she said, "from the day that I passed over the sea in great peril I have asked nothing of you; now I pray and beseech you, with folded hands, for the love of Our Lady's Son, to have mercy on them." As she spoke she wept bitterly. For a time the King remained silent. "Then he took the six citizens by the halters and delivered them to the Queen, and released from death all those of Calais for the love of her; and the good lady bade them clothe the six burghers and make them good cheer."

The capture of Calais made Edward easily the first among the European princes, and he was offered the Imperial Crown. He encountered the fleet of Spain and so completely defeated it that he was called "King of the Seas." Froissart tells the story of the fight, and of how Edward, seated upon the deck of his ship, clad in black velvet, listened to Sir John Chandos sing German songs until the fight began. He was a brilliant example of the showy chivalry of the day, and full of courage, for he agreed to leave the fate of Calais to the result of a single combat of one of the bravest of the French knights, whom he vanquished after a hard fight. Just when his power was at its height and it seemed as if he would become master of Western Europe, the Black Death came upon England. This was in 1348, and of the 4,000,000 people who inhabited the country at that time, fully one-half were victims of it. In some of the cities there were hardly enough living to bury the dead. Nor was the plague confined to England alone. France suffered quite as heavily, and there was a forced truce between the armies of the two countries, which lasted for seven years. In 1355 hostilities were renewed, but it was not until September of the following year that any engagement of note occurred. Indeed, in the hands of the Black Prince the campaign was little better than one of plunder. King John of France, displayed a good deal of vigor, and having a superior force, 60,000 to 8,000, he believed he

was in a fair way to vanquish the English. The two armies encountered each other on September 19. The Black Prince, fearing the result of a fight against such fearful odds, offered to surrender all his prisoners and all the places he had taken, in consideration of being allowed to retreat in safety, and in addition he professed his willingness to take an oath that he would not fight against France for seven years. King John refused to grant the terms, and ordered three hundred of his knights to charge up a narrow lane, which the Prince had secretly lined with bowmen. The French were thrown into great confusion, and thereupon the Prince advanced with his whole line, driving the enemy before him in wild disorder. King John had remained a little apart, surrounded by his body-guard, and the Prince charged down upon him with two thousand cavalry. John fought valiantly, but was made prisoner. His army fled in confusion within the walls of Poitiers, leaving eleven thousand of their number dead in the field of battle or along the line of retreat. The Prince had two thousand men-at-arms and scores of nobles among his prisoners. King John was taken to London, which city he entered riding a magnificent white charger, while the Black Prince rode a little black palfrey at his side.

During two years after the victory at Poitiers the English carried on no active operations in France, but the state of the country was terrible. The defeated soldiery formed themselves into irregular bands and ravaged the land. What the Black Death and war had begun, the strife of these marauding troops well nigh completed. Petrarch wrote: "I could not believe this was the same France I had seen so rich and flourishing. Nothing presented itself to my eyes but a fearful solitude, an utter poverty, land uncultivated, houses in ruins. Even the neighborhood of Paris showed everywhere marks of desolation and conflagration. The streets are deserted; the roads are overgrown with weeds; the whole is a vast solitude." So dreadful were the conditions that war became impossible, for there was nothing upon which armies could subsist, and Edward at the Treaty of Bretigny agreed to surrender much that he might otherwise have held. By this compact he renounced his claim to the Crown of France and the Dukedom of Normandy, but he secured very extensive territories.

It is, perhaps, not exaggeration to say that, if it had not been for the Black Death, Edward would have made himself master of all France, Spain and what is now the western part of Germany. His fame as a warrior was of itself equal in potency to an army. The English had developed fighting qualities such as no other race at any period in history seem to have possessed. The number of their opponents apparently made no difference to them. A few hundreds would put thousands to flight. Nothing could withstand their impetuosity, and they were equally at home on sea and land. After the Treaty of Bretigny the Black Prince became Duke of Aquitaine and Gascony, where for some time he ruled very prosperously; but afterwards became involved in an unsuccessful struggle with the French King. He became estranged from his father, taking the part of Parliament against the latter. He died in 1376, being then 45 years of age. King Edward died in the following year. The reign of Edward was a notable one. It saw an increase in the power of the British Parliament, the establishment of trial by jury upon a solid basis, the weakening of ecclesiastical jurisdiction in the affairs of civilians, a marked revival of literature, and the beginning of the decline of chivalry, of which it is said that Edward, the Black Prince, was "its culmination both in virtues and vices."

The Birth of the Nations

XX.

(N. de Bertrand Lugin)

THE ROMANS—I.

Probably the most interesting account of the founding of Rome is found in Plutarch's Life of Romulus, though the writer himself does not claim to speak with any great authority as to which of the many legends concerning the birth of this great nation may be true. He hesitates indeed to accord the credit to Romulus of giving the name to the city which he founded, and gives us a short synopsis of several different legends, each of which sets forth a claim for that honor. For instance, one account tells us that a number of refugees from burning Troy, having found shelter in some ships, were driven by the winds to the mouth of the river Tiber, after many days of perilous and weary voyaging. A landing was made, but the men were loath to settle there. The women, however, were of a different mind, and, dreading the dangers of another voyage, at the instigation of one of them, who was of high birth and undisputed authority. They set the ships all on fire one night while the men were sleeping. She who had given the command was named Roma, and while the men were very angry with her at first for being responsible for an act that rendered them practically prisoners in an unknown land, they eventually forgave her, as the country possessed so many attractions and proved a most desirable spot for the building of the city, which city, in honor of Roma, they called Rome. Plutarch gravely adds, and, by the way, one of the charms of this old-time

historian is his custom of weaving throughout his narratives quaint little anecdotes that have no direct bearing upon the subject in question, as well as naive criticisms of his own, that the reason that kissing one's kinsmen and husbands became the custom in Rome was "because the women after they had burned the ships made use of such endearments when they were entreating and pacifying their husbands."

However, it seems to be a generally accepted fact that Romulus was the founder of Rome, and there are many and various tales as to his parentage, the one which is accepted by most authorities being as follows: Two brothers, direct descendants of Aeneas, the famous Trojan prince, were Numitor and Amulius, kings of Alba. In order to divide things equally, Numitor took the kingdom and Amulius all the gold and treasure that had been brought from Troy. Hence Amulius, having the money, was enabled very soon to take the Kingdom, too, and he insisted that the beautiful daughter of Numitor become a vestal virgin, for he did not wish her to marry and have heirs to the throne. However, Ilia, which was the girl's name, became secretly espoused, and gave birth to two beautiful twin boys, Romulus and Remus. The old story of their being cast away by Amulius and nursed by a wolf and fed by the birds is an old one and familiar to every schoolboy. Plutarch would have us believe that when Faustulus, the swineherd, eventually rescued and adopted them, Numitor, who had some vague idea of the children's parentage, assisted their foster-father to care for and educate them.

When Romulus and Remus had grown to manhood they made war upon Amulius. They gathered many followers and marched against the King of Alba, whom they defeated in battle, and afterwards caused to be put to death. As they did not care to remain rulers in that country during the lifetime of their grandfather, they left him to seek for new dominions, after first conferring wealth and honor upon the mother, who, after many long and sorrowful years, had at length been permitted to see her children.

The place where they had been brought up in their infancy was the one chosen by Romulus and Remus to build their city, but the brothers could not agree as to the exact location, and the consequence was that Remus was slain by Romulus. The latter offered all fugitives from justice a sanctuary, if they would become citizens of his city, and the population grew fast, though the men were greatly in excess of the women. In order to remedy this, Romulus resorted to extreme measures. "In the fourth month after the city was built," writes Plutarch, "the adventure of stealing the Sabine women was attempted. First Romulus gave out that he had found an altar of a certain god hid under the ground, upon discovery of which by acclamation he appointed a day for a splendid sacrifice and for public games and shows to entertain all sorts of people. Many flocked hither and he himself sat in front amid his nobles, clad in purple. Now the signal for the falling on was to be whenever he rose and gathered up his robe and threw it over his body. His men stood all ready armed with their eyes intent upon him, and when the sign was given, drawing their swords and falling on with a great shout, they ravished away the daughters of the Sabines, they themselves flying without let or hindrance." There is a great divergence of opinion about the number of women taken, the numbers varying from thirty to seven hundred. Among them there was but one married woman, and she was captured through ignorance of the fact that she was already wed, which Plutarch would have us believe goes to prove that "they did not commit this act wantonly, but with a design purely of forming alliances with their neighbors by the greatest and surest bonds." For many hundred years it remained a custom in Rome for the bride to be carried over the threshold of her new home by the bridegroom, in memory of the Sabine women who were won by violence by the Romans.

Very naturally this wanton act of Romulus inspired the hatred of the neighboring nations, and though the Romans made friendly overtures, desiring to propitiate the relatives of the women they had stolen, the Sabines declined to accept any offers of a reconciliation. In the war which followed Romulus was unqualifiedly successful, but the Sabines growing desperate proved at last a more formidable foe. Then the women who had by now become the wives of their captors and the mothers of their children, interceded between the two opposing parties.

Romulus' forces and those of the Sabines were drawn up in order of battle, and the command had been given to attack, when a crowd of women, their hair streaming, their faces blanched with fear, rushed upon the plain where the combat was about to take place, screaming and lamenting. They were the daughters of the Sabines, and instinctively the men of both parties hesitated, paused and fell back to give them room. Hersilia, she who had been married when taken captive, thus spoke for the women:

"Make us not, we entreat you, twice captive. Wherein have we injured or offended you that we should deserve such suffering, past and present? Our fathers and brothers are upon the one side, and upon the other are our husbands and our sons. Let no blood be shed, we entreat you. Rather let us all be united. Restore to us our parents and kindred, but rob us not of our husbands and our children."

The interference of the women changed the whole tide of affairs. A reconciliation between

the Sabines and the Romans took place, and all lived together in unity in the city which Romulus had founded and which in honor of him they decided to call Rome.

SOME LITERARY NOTES

"The White Sister," by F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., \$1.50.

A fresh interest is attached to a new novel by F. Marion Crawford, now that his pen has been laid aside forever. One cannot say that "The White Sister" will add to his reputation, for while in plot it is equal to any of his former work, the story is interlarded with too much of the author's speculations upon what might have been, and three or four times he uses the personal pronoun "I" in reference to himself—an innovation which it is to be hoped will find no imitators. If some one had edited it by cutting out the author's comments upon how he might have made the story run, the strength of it would be greatly increased. The plot turns upon some points in Italian civil law and some regulations of the Roman Catholic church, and is of intense interest, even though the reader's attention is directed at times to things that really do not matter—such, for example, as the American painter Durand, who is given a permanent place in the beginning only to be dropped as soon as the reader feels any real interest in him. The heroine is a fine character and commands admiration and interest. The hero is very much of a man, and his struggles between the promptings of love and the dictates of honor are very strongly depicted. Towards its close the story becomes absorbing, with situations of intense dramatic interest. The average reader will be strongly tempted to skip some of the pages, and nothing will be lost by so doing, for Mr. Crawford, when he set about speculating, usually ended in the air, proving nothing and not even suggesting anything of value. Apart from this weakness he was a splendid story-teller and it is with regret that the reader lays aside his last volume.

ENGLAND NOT DECADENT

"England is not a decadent nor, a dying nation," said Sir Robert Perks, to the Empire Club, of Toronto. "If you rake up a financial journal you will find the statements of statisticians—which, by the way, are the easiest thing in the world to use as a basis for weak argument—which prove that the country is living upon its capital, and gradually getting poorer and poorer."

"Take up a medical journal, or one of those neurotic humanitarian publications that we sometimes see, and you will be informed that the race is deteriorating; that we are a drunken people; that our cities are densely packed with a degraded population; and, in short, that the days of England's physical force are over. "Take up another paper and it says that Socialism is triumphant; another, and its cry is that the people no longer rule, but that all power lies in the hands of the administrators. A hundred voices say that the country is going down-hill. Some of high society say it, and the drama occasionally says it, and you have seen a level-headed, sensible resolute Englishman portrayed in every country in the world as a demented imbecile—our land is made the laughing-stock of every country."

"Gentlemen, go to England today. You will find that London has been practically rebuilt in the last generation. In the other cities you will find miles upon miles of well-kept streets whereon are the homes of thousands of healthy, happy workingmen. Statisticians point to the comparatively small savings of our working people. They forget the investment that these same people have made in home, in co-operative and in friendly societies. They forget also that great joint-stock banks now welcome business from these people that they would have paid no attention to twenty years ago."

"Sir, the homes of our people, the high standard of living, the millions of children that are now educated, but that would have wandered the streets thirty years ago, are something that these hurried judges forget. They forget the increase in our home and foreign trade, and they forget that the income from the penny in the pound income tax has doubled in the last thirty years, and that that means twice the assessable income to the people."

"If I venture to say, we as a nation or as an Empire, are faced with military problems such as our fathers faced a few hundreds of years ago, when the country was poor and sparsely inhabited. I repeat, I venture to say that you would find the same fighting force, the same stamina, the same resolution and fighting blood that was ours then."

"The Liberal party in England today has practically no mouthpiece. The Times is not a Government supporter. It has changed proprietors. The other influential papers, headed possibly by the Daily Mail, are either Conservative or Unionist. Hence in Canada, in the United States, in Australia, and in South Africa you never have the case of British Liberalism presented fairly in the extracts from the British press. And I may go farther and say that the press agencies are almost entirely controlled by one political section in the Old Land."

"No political party has ever striven more to encourage and allow to the dominions over the seas the privileges of self-government."

Referring to Germany, the speaker said that it was a powerful land, heavily taxed, over-militarized, and given to much beer drinking.