two precedents may be quoted, viz., Owen's College, Manchester, and the Sydney University. The latter is especially valuable as it represents a sister University placed in circumstances analogous to our own trying to cope with similar difficulties.

In Sydney arrangements are made for a complete series of classes which will embrace all the subjects included in the arts course. Other subjects will be introduced as opportunity occurs, but at present the funds at command will not allow of more than the one series. These classes are open to all who can attend them on payment of the proper fee. Any student who wishes may not only attend lectures, but may also work for a degree on such conditions as will prevent these classes from coming into competition with the regular University curriculum. Such students must:—1. Satisfy the governing body that they are unable to attend lectures during the day. 2. They must pass the matriculation examination. 3. They must pass the same examinations as the ordinary students. 4. They are precluded from taking more than an ordinary pass degree. 5. Attendance is required for three nights a week between 6 and 10 during the academic terms. 6. Five years of attendance on the evening classes are to be considered equal to three years of ordinary study; that is, a student after attending for two years can go up for his first examination. At the end of the next two years he may go up for his second examination, and may obtain his degree at the end of his fifth year. 7. The fees paid by evening students must equal in the aggregate those paid by the ordinary student. This is an outline of the plan adopted in Sydney. It commends itself in many particulars to our judgment as both wise and equitable. Its popularity in Sydney was manifested by upwards of twenty students enrolling themselves as soon as the scheme was announced. It is evident at once that if any such scheme be instituted here it will cost a considerable amount of money, and it is here that the council will feel a difficulty in meeting the wishes of the Collegiate Schools Association. The balance-sheet of the council, as published in the calendar, does not show that there is much of a margin of receipts over expenditure out of which the expense could be met. A good beginning could be made at a cost of £500 per annum, part of which would be covered by students' fees. Here is a case in which the University may appeal with every hope of success to some of the wealthy colonists of South Australia. In no more useful way could any man of means devote his surplus wealth for the good of the community. In the present circumstances of the University it would be better than founding scholarships or endowing new chairs, for it would bring the high class education of the University within the reach of all classes the comm[illegible]

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"Education" says:—"The University examinations for 1884 are now exciting attention amongst students. A number of the candidates must fail, and the cause of their failure has not to be sought after. The matriculation examination by itself is difficult, and those students who are over seventeen cannot pass unless they also pass in six of the primary subjects. That this is unfair treatment may be seen at a glance. Numbers of young men in this colony have not had the privileges enjoyed by boys attending such schools as Prince Alfred's College or St. Peter's, and therefore the work is indeed hard. The new rule of the Presbytery of South Australia shuts our a student from Union College until he has matriculated, and many of the young men despair of ever entering in consequence. I would suggest that any young man be allowed to pass the junior examination before entering for matriculation. The University would lose nothing but gain immensely. The fees charged would help to fill the coffers of that institution, and numbers of young men would avail themselves of the opportunity to lay the foundation of a good education"

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UNIVERSITY LECTURES.

On Monday evening, November 3, Professor Tate, F.G.S., F.L.S., continued his series of lectures at the University on "The Climate and Distribution of Life in Australia." He commenced by giving a description of the River Murray, mainly from a personal acquaintance with that portion within the confines of this colony. He traced on a map the course of the river through the Great Gorge, and said the volume of water was not now sufficient to occupy the whole width of the Gorge, the other parts of which were covered with sand and other deposits, brought down by the river at the period when the stream covered the breadth. There was little doubt in his mind from the indications that the Gorge had been excavated by the power of water in former times. Not one river in South Australia presented the appearance of flowing through a valley—such as was familiar to observers of rivers like the Thames in other parts of the world. They were confined to high banks, through which they cut their way. He explained that the Murray obtained its water supply from the melting of the snows in the ranges and from the floods arising from the tropical rains. The great flow of water down the Murray meeting in the narrow part of the Gorge caused a strong flood down that part. Speaking of the tropical rains he said the River Darling, to carry off such a rainfall, should have a volume of water 200 feet wide and 100 feet in depth; but the Darling did not show such a volume, and even stopped flowing altogether at certain times. The question arose as to what became of the excess water, and there was some reason for the opinion that this water disappeared from view—in fact flowed underground and appeared elsewhere in lakes or in artesian wells. In dealing with the fauna and flora of the country he referred to the Darwinian theory of development, and enlarged upon the theory that Nature in successive generations gave varieties which in the struggle for existence had unequal fortune, those most adapted to the circumstances of the time and place prospering and giving origin to descendants, ran the same risks, and under the same principle of natural selection acquired more and more the character of distinctness and superiority. He showed how that theory of development, or the mutability of species, was sustained on the fundamental propositions that no two animals or plants in nature were identical in all respects, each having its own individuality; that the offspring tended to inherit the peculiarity of their parents; that of those which came into existence only a certain number reached maturity; and that those which were on the whole best adapted to the circumstances in which they were placed were most likely to leave descendants. He maintained that no one of