individual property—the house, produce animals and poultry." Later decrees regulated the size of the holdings: they vary from half up to one or more acres, according to the region and the type of farming; on these the peasants can grow what they like. Each household was promised a cow, one or two pigs and some poultry. The peasants may dispose of the produce to the cooperative or in any way they please; there is, in fact, a good deal of selling in peasant markets especially by the women. Many found their own piece of ground more profitable than the collective. The peasant's wife and children may help him, but he may not pay any wage; that would amount to exploitation of a man's labor, which is forbidden. You may hire a person to look after your house or your dog if you have one, but not to look after your cow because that is an animal for production.

Thus the peasant's total income is derived partly from the collective, partly from his own plot and sometimes from other labor. The proportions vary a good deal. In the Gosplan publication already quoted the average income from labor-day payments per household in the collective farms in 1938 was 17.4 q. of grain and R. 376, while the total income was R. 5,843; putting the grain at R. 25 per q., the income from the farm is less than 14 per cent. of the total. On the other hand, the percentage distribution of working hours in 1937 was[6] as given in Table V.

Whatever the average, some workers instead of putting in the average two hundred labor-days on the collective, were putting in far fewer, and stringent orders were issued that not less than 60 to 100 labor-days per annum (according to the district) must be devoted to the farm.

In one direction, however, the private property took on very large proportions. It has been already stated that the livestock were drastically reduced when collectivization began. The numbers fell till 1933, then slowly rose, but the increase has been marked since the peasants were allowed animals of their own. By 1936 the numbers of animals on the collective farms were, in millions,[7] as shown in Table VII.

TABLE V

	Work on the collective	Work on private allotment	Work outside the farm	Domestic and other duties
Men ...	67.5	4.0	23.9	4.6
Women .	52.8	19.6	7.1	20.5

TABLE VI*

	Income: r. per worker per annum			Distribution of time		
	from collective	from private allotment	Per cent. of income derived from collective	on collective	on private	other work
Superior farms	5510	597	90	85	14	1.0
Good farms ..	4267	771	84.6	80	17.5	2.4
Medium farms	3035	849	78	72	22.6	5.4
Poor farms ..	2080	852	72			

* These figures show the impossibility of generalizing about collective farming. I am indebted to Mr. L. Hubbard for these and other data.

TABLE VII

Ownership	Cattle	Pigs	Sheep and goats	Land under crops, million ha.
Collective ...	14.8	6.3	22.75	116.0
Private	25.2	12.9	31.26	9.1
Private as per cent. of collective	172	207	137	8

(To be concluded)

INTERNATIONAL SCHOLARSHIPS AND FELLOWSHIPS[1]

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PERHAPS no great educational system has ever been so truly international as that of the United States. From Colonial days American students have gone abroad seeking education in every land under the sun, and from the time of their foundation American universities have welcomed, and indeed sought, students and professors from every country on earth. American education has never been isolationist.

At the end of the nineteenth century American students went in large numbers to the great German universities of that day and American scholarship owes much to German example. From Germany our students brought back the ideal of academic freedom which is rigorously maintained to this day in the

[6] As against this in "Communal economic foundations of Kolchoznik prosperity, 1941" it is stated that in the province of Voronezh the ratio of income from work on the collective farms and on private holdings was as given in Table VI.

[1] World-wide broadcast of the American Philosophical Society and WRUL, Philadelphia, June 19, 1942.

[7] *Kolkhozy vo vtoroi Stalinskoi Piatiletke, 1940.* Beside these animals there are others on the state farms, but even when these are added in the privately owned animals are still 40 per cent. of cattle and pigs and 30 per cent. of sheep and goats.

United States, although it has been abandoned in Nazi Germany.

In the field of international scholarships and fellowships during the last forty years, the United States has probably led the world in the number of foundations and the number of students concerned. The pioneer in this field, however, the man who established the first and the best known plan was not an American but an Englishman who lived his life in South Africa, Cecil John Rhodes. When Rhodes died in 1902 and his famous will was published there were, aside from the Boxer Indemnity Scholarships, only a few scattered opportunities for international study in existence. The Rhodes will was one of the most daringly imaginative documents in the history of education. By it were established approximately two hundred scholarships from the United States, from the British Dominions and from Germany for study at the University of Oxford. Nearly one half of these appointments went to the United States—two for each of the forty-eight states, or ninety-six in all.

During the period of nearly forty years since the first Rhodes Scholars were selected in 1904, over two thousand men from the various countries concerned have pursued their studies at Oxford and are now following their careers in the various lands of their origin. There are over one thousand ex-Rhodes Scholars living in the United States; they may be found in every corner of the country and in almost every occupation.

The contribution of the Rhodes Scholars to American life has been a notable one. It has perhaps been most significant in education, but it has been by no means limited to that field. The success and the prestige of the Rhodes Scholarships have been such as to exert a remarkable influence on American philanthropy, in the first place by bringing about the establishment of systems of fellowships reciprocating the Rhodes Scholarships, bringing English students to study in American universities; and in the second place by influencing the establishment of funds with a similar purpose, offering American students other opportunities for study abroad.

It is a noteworthy fact that since the Rhodes Scholarships were established opportunities have been created in the United States for bringing each year as many Englishmen—indeed, rather more—to study in American universities as there are American Rhodes Scholars going to Oxford. The Commonwealth Fellowships bring the largest number and most definitely reciprocate the Rhodes scheme. There are, in addition, the Davison Fellowships to Harvard, Yale and Princeton, the Choate Fellowship to the Harvard Law School, the Procter Fellowships at Princeton, the Riggs Fellowships at the University of Michigan and the Henry Fellowships to Harvard and Yale. The fact that generosity begets generosity has been notably illustrated by this reciprocation of the Rhodes plan.

The second general result of the Rhodes Scholarships is no less interesting—the establishment of American foundations with a similar purpose. The most important of these is the John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation, offering research opportunities to older scholars, suggested to the founder in the first instance by the example of Rhodes and organized and administered by Rhodes Scholars.

The Guggenheim Foundation is intended for scholars who have already demonstrated unusual aptitude for independent research or for creative work in any one of the Fine Arts, including music. American fellows may study in any country where their work may best be done and they work under the freest possible conditions. In addition to appointments for American scholars to work in this country or abroad, the Guggenheim Foundation offers fellowships in a steadily increasing number of countries of the western hemisphere for scholars who wish to pursue their researches in the United States. These countries include at present Canada, Mexico, Cuba, Puerto Rico, Brazil, Uruguay, Argentina, Chile and Peru.

Other systems of international fellowships open to American students, all owing something to the Rhodes example, are the Henry Fellowships to Oxford and Cambridge; the fellowships established by the Commission for the Relief of Belgium, for study in Belgian universities; the American Field Service Fellowships to French universities; and the fellowships offered by the American-Scandinavian Foundation, by the American School of Classical Studies in Athens, the American Academy in Rome, the Institute of Current World Affairs, the Kosciuszko Foundation, the Lalor Foundation and the Oberlaender Trust.

Even more widely extended are the appointments, varying in number and plan from time to time, offered by the Rockefeller Foundation, bringing scholars from other countries to the United States, from the United States to various European countries, and from one European or South American country to another. The Carnegie Corporation has likewise, without establishing any single uniform scheme, supported a very large number of individuals whose plans made it necessary for them to go from one country to another.

The Institute of International Education, which administers the American Field Service Fellowships to France, supervises also a very large number of appointments open to foreign students who wish to study in the United States or to American students who wish to study in some foreign country. Many of these fellowships are supported by small funds; others are individual exchanges. There are some twenty-five or thirty countries involved in these ex-

changes and the total number of students going in one direction or the other has in recent years varied between 6,000 and 9,000.

It could not be said that all of these fellowships are directly connected with the Rhodes scheme, but it can hardly be doubted that most of them have been influenced directly or indirectly by the prestige of the Rhodes plan.

The purpose announced by Cecil Rhodes in establishing his system of scholarships was to ensure the peace of the world by bringing about closer understanding between young men of Great Britain and the British Empire and citizens of the United States and Germany. If one takes a short view, it might be said that Rhodes failed in his purpose. The two greatest wars in history have been fought since the Rhodes Scholarships were founded. But Rhodes did not take short views. In one of his letters he sets the period of a century as the time needed for giving his scholarships their full influence and effect, and in another document he lengthens this period to two centuries. Rhodes had the patience of great faith, but even in the short period of forty years it seems clear to any one who looks beneath the surface that the purposes he had in mind are already beginning to be fulfilled.

Anything like regimentation of opinion would have been contrary to Rhodes's character and to the character of Oxford. The American Rhodes Scholars have held, and hold, all varieties of opinion on national and international questions, and the German Rhodes Scholars likewise run through all the extremes, from one who is a member of Hitler's Cabinet to others who have refused to return to Germany so long as the Nazi régime exists. It is not fanciful to see in the influence of American Rhodes Scholars (an influence exerted as individuals, not as a group) a part of the reason for our closer understanding with England and a juster appreciation of the best in English education than we have ever had before.

Men who ponder anxiously about the future of the world are likely to feel strongly the importance of closer cooperation between the United States and the various countries which make up the British Commonwealth of Nations. Obstacles to such cooperation still exist, not the least of them being the Anglo-Saxon habit of rather too much frankness of criticism within the family circle. But any one who compares the situation now with what it was forty years ago can not but feel encouraged by the immense progress which has been made toward closer and friendlier understanding. Certainly, some part of the credit for this must be given to the generations of English and American students who have gone to and fro across the Atlantic and have formed ties of friendship and understanding in the universities of their sister lands.

Furthermore, if we take the long view, as Rhodes would have done, we may include as a part of the effect of his scheme the many systems of scholarships and fellowships which have been established partly at least as a result of his example. Taken all together, these represent a great cultural interchange between the United States and many of the leading countries of the world. Their effect can not be measured by statistics nor by any tangible, concrete evidence. On the high level of cultural interchange, however, it is the intangible things which count. When the war is won, the people of the United States, because of this intellectual exchange from which we have received so much, will face the future with a far more sympathetic knowledge of the character and aspirations of other peoples in other lands than we possessed twenty years ago—an understanding which, as we set about to build a new world upon the ruins of the old, may be expected to strengthen the foundations of peace and international order.

SCIENTIFIC EVENTS

COUNCIL FOR SCIENTIFIC AND INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

ACCORDING to the fifteenth annual report (for the year ended June 30, 1941) of the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research of the Commonwealth of Australia, a very considerable part of the council's activities is now devoted to the solution of problems arising out of the war and to assistance and advice to various government departments and other institutions and organizations which are concerned with the war effort. This applies particularly to the council's National Standards Laboratory, the Aeronautical Research Laboratory and the Forest Products Laboratory, and to the Division of Industrial Chemistry. The expenditure on this class of work forms a substantial part of the total expenditure of the council, but as no specific information which might be of value to the enemy can be disclosed, reference to these activities is either confined to brief generalized statements or is omitted entirely.

The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research was established in 1926 by the reorganization of the existing Institute of Science and Industry. The powers and functions of the council are defined by the Science and Industry Research Act 1920–39, and include the initiation and carrying out of research in connection with, or for the promotion of, primary and