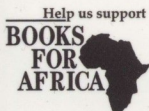




Noelia Penelope Greer (Ed.)

Vladimer Papava

Tbilisi State University, Saint Petersburg State University, Johns Hopkins University, International Monetary Fund



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University, Johns Hopkins University, International
Monetary Fund**

Imprint

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Contents

Articles

Vladimer_Papava	1
Tbilisi_State_University	5
Saint_Petersburg_State_University	15
Johns_Hopkins_University	26
International_Monetary_Fund	49
Parliament_of_Georgia	63
World_Bank	67
New_York_Academy_of_Sciences	77
Georgian_National_Academy_of_Sciences	79
Market_economy	80

References

Article Sources and Contributors	84
Image Sources, Licenses and Contributors	86

Vladimer_Papava

Vladimer (Lado) Papava (Georgian: ვლადიმერ [ლადო] პაპავა) (born March 25, 1955) is a Professor of Economics, a Senior Fellow of the Georgian Foundation for Strategic and International Studies (GFSIS), a Principal Research Fellow at the Paata Gugushvili Institute of Economics, and a Senior Associate Fellow of the Central Asia-Caucasus Institute & Silk Road Studies Program Joint Center (Johns Hopkins University-SAIS).

Born in Tbilisi, Georgia, Papava graduated Tbilisi State University (specialization Economic Cybernetics) in 1978. He received his Candidate of Science degree in Economics (PhD) from Central Economic-Mathematical Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, Moscow, in 1982, and his Doctor of Science degree in Economics from Tbilisi State University in 1989 and Leningrad State University in 1990.



Vladimer Papava

In 2005-2006 he was a Visiting Scholar at the Central Asia-Caucasus Institute, the Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies, Johns Hopkins University.^[1] He is the author of more than 200 publications, including many works on the theoretical and applied studies post-Communist economies and economic development of the Central Caucasus countries. His research efforts are underpinned by practical experience gained during his work for the Georgian Government: from 1994 to 2000, as Minister of Economy he was actively involved in currency reform, liberalization of economy, including liberalization of foreign trade, institutional transformations and other ambitious governmental programs. As a member of the Georgian Government and an Alternative Governor of the World Bank, he was one of the main participants in the negotiations with the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. From 2004 to 2008 he was a Member of the Parliament of Georgia (Committee for Finance and Budget).

Papava is an author of the Semi-Productive Matrix Approach for Input-Output Models, the Theory of the Economic Ability of the Government and Egalitarian Goods, the Model of an 'Economy Without Taxes,' the Theory of the 'Shadow Political Economy' (with Nodar Khaduri), the Indexes of Tax Corruption, the Method of the 'Social Promotion' for Post-Communist Transition to Market Economy, the Doctrine of Market Equality and Its Application to the Process of Post-Communist Transformation, and the Theory of 'Necroeconomics – the Political Economy of Post-Communist Capitalism.'

He is a Member of the Editorial Boards of the Problems of Economic Transition (USA), the Central Asia and The Caucasus (Sweden), The Caucasus & Globalization (Sweden), the Caucasian Review of International Affairs (Germany) and the Obshchestvo i ekonomika (Russia). In 1992-2005 he was a Chief-Editor of the Proceedings of the Georgian Academy of Sciences – Economic Series.

From 1997 Vladimer Papava is a Corresponding Member of the National Academy of Sciences of Georgia. He is an Active Member of The International Academy of Sciences, Education, Industry and Arts (CA, USA), an Active Member of The New York Academy of Sciences (NY, USA), an Active Member of the International Informatization Academy (UN) and other international societies and associations. In 2008-2010 he was a Deputy Chairman of the Scientific Committee for Economics and Law of the National Academy of Sciences of Georgia; from 2010 he is a Chairman of the Scientific Committee for Economics of the National Academy of Sciences of Georgia; from 2007 he is a Member of the CASE (Center for Social and Economic Research) Advisory Council (Warsaw, Poland) and a Member of the International Scientific Council of the International Institute for Social Development (Moscow, Russia).

In 2004 Vladimer Papava together with a group of Georgian Economists was awarded the State Prize of Georgia in Science for the Series of Publications – “The Methods and Models of Macroeconomic Regulations.”

In 2008 Vladimer Papava was awarded the Philippe Gogichaishvili Prize of the National Academy of Sciences of Georgia for the book – *Necroeconomics: The Political Economy of Post-Communist Capitalism*. New York, iUniverse, 2005.

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External links

- Vladimer Papava's website (<http://www.papava.info>)
- Georgian Foundation for Strategic and International Studies (<http://www.gfsis.org>)

Tbilisi_State_University

Tbilisi State University	
თბილისის სახელმწიფო უნივერსიტეტი	
	
Established	1918
Type	Public
Rector	Aleksandre Kvitashvili
Academic staff	5000
Students	18,000
Location	Tbilisi, Georgia
Campus	Urban
Nickname	TSU
Website	www.tsu.ge ^[1]

Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University (Georgian: ივანე ჯავახიშვილის სახელობის თბილისის სახელმწიფო უნივერსიტეტი, Georgian pronunciation: [ivɑnɛ dʒɑvɑxɪʃvɪlɪs sɑxɛlobɪs tʰɪlɪsɪs sɑxɛlmts'ɪpʰɔ univɛrsɪt'ɛt'i], *Ivane Javaxishvilis saxelobis Tbilis saxeImts'ipo universit'et'i*), better known as **Tbilisi State University (TSU)**, is a university established on 8 February 1918 in Tbilisi, Georgia. TSU is the oldest university in the whole Caucasus region. Over 18,000 students are enrolled and the total number of faculty and staff (collaborators) is approximately 5,000.

The University has five branches in different regions of Georgia, 6 faculties, approximately 60 scientific-research laboratories and centers, a scientific library (with more than 3,700,000 books and periodicals), 7 museums, publishing house and printing press (newspaper "Tbilis Universiteti").

Tbilisi University has close contacts with many foreign scientific and educational centres, these are the University of Saarland and Jena University (Germany), Emory University and Georgia State University (USA), Saint Mary's University (Canada), Warsaw University and University of Łódź (Poland), University of Málaga and University of Salamanca (Spain), Nantes, Paris 8, Paris 13, Grenoble and Toulon Universities (France), Bristol Polytechnical Institute, Brunel and London Universities (Great Britain), Budapest Eötvös Loránd University (Hungary), Bilkent, Trabzon Black Sea and Ankara Universities (Turkey), Palermo, Rome and Sapienza, Piza and Venice Universities (Italy), Athens, Pirueus, Ioanina and Saloniki Universities (Greece), International Centre of Nuclear Physics, Aarhus University (Denmark), Bucharest University (Romania), University of Vienna (Austria), Tehran and Gilan Universities (Iran), Cairo University (Egypt). TSU has relations with Association of European Universities, UNESCO, the Council of



First Seal of the Tbilisi State University . Museum of the Tbilisi State University.

Europe and other international organizations.^[2]

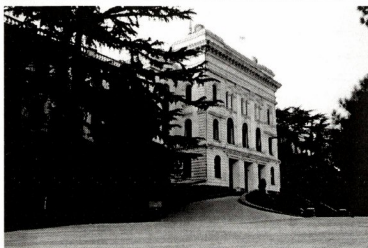
The main founder of the University was a well-known Georgian historian and academician, Ivane Javakhishvili. Several noted scientists - Giorgi Akhvediani, Shalva Nutsubidze, Dimitri Uznadze, Grigol Tsereteli, Akaki Shanidze, Andria Razmadze, Ioseb Kipshidze, Petre Melikishvili and Ekvtime Takaishvili were also co-founders. Professor Petre Melikishvili, a well-known Georgian chemist, was chosen the first rector of TSU.

The Rector of TSU since August 2010 is Aleksandre Kvitashvili.^[3]

Nowadays, TSU includes 6 faculties: Law, Economics and Business, Humanities, Medicine, Social and Political Sciences, Exact and Natural Sciences and the International School of Economics at Tbilisi State University as an autonomous graduate school of economics.

History

Tbilisi State University was founded in 1918 owing to the leadership and huge effort of a famous Georgian historian Ivane Javakhishvili and the group of his followers. It was the first and the only educational body of this type in Caucasus Region by that time.^[4]



Tbilisi State University. Photo by Paata Vardanashvili

Georgia has an ancient tradition of education, as evidenced by the functioning of the School of Philosophy and Rhetoric of Phazisi in Colchis (IV c.); as well as the setting up of cultural-enlightenment centers in Palestine (V c.), Syria (VI c.), Greece (X-XV cc.) and Bulgaria (XI c.); Gelati and Iqalto Academies in Georgia (XI-XII cc.); However, as a result of political-economic decrease and at last becoming the colony of Russia, there had been no national higher educational Institution in Georgia for the next few centuries.^[5]

Right after Georgia became independent and declared itself a national democratic state, one of the first achievements of Georgian people in the beginning of the 20th century was the foundation of Georgian National University in Tbilisi. Afterwards, through the Bolshevik and Communist period, in spite of the forced ideology and fierce censorship, Tbilisi State University managed to maintain national ardour, devotion to public ideals, raised the best representatives of Georgian intelligentsia, many famous scientific schools in mathematics, psychology, philosophy, linguistics, historiography were also established on the University basis. The foundation of Academy of Science of Georgia and many other higher educational institutions was also encouraged by the University.

A new era took start in the University after the collapse of the Soviet Union and re-establishment of independence of Georgia. Together with Christianity, the historical mission of the spiritual care and deepening of national self-consciousness of the country was set as the goals for the University. At the same time a particularly essential objective of the University is to support the development of a democratic society, culture and science, uninterrupted growth of the national level of civilization. That's why even today with adoration and great respect do Georgian people refer to it a Holy Temple of Science.

The University was solemnly opened on 26 January 1918, the day of remembrance of the Georgian King David the Builder. A church in the University garden, named after the King, has been functioning since 5 September 1995. In 1989 the University was named after its founder - Ivane Javakhishvili.

Petre Melikishvili, a well-known chemist, merited professor, was elected as the first rector of the University. At its commencement, the University had only one faculty - that of philosophy. Ivane Javakhishvili, well-known Georgian historian, delivered the first lecture. At the beginning of 1918 the board of professors and lecturers numbered 18, the student body of the university counted 369 students and 89 free listeners.

Today the number of professors involved in tuition and training amounts to 3275, including 55 academicians and corresponding member of the academy, 595 professors and doctors, 1246 assistant professors and candidates of sciences.

Over 35 thousand students are studying at the University and its 8 regional branches. The very important rearrangements at the University began on 25 April 1994, when the scientific council of the University adopted "The Concepts of University Education"[6], according to which since the year 1994 the University has entirely transferred to the two-stage form of study (the step-by-step rearrangements were launched in 1992) and moved forward to the integration in the European educational environment.

At the end of the I stage of the reform implemented, in the beginning of the year 2005, the bodies functioning at TSU were: 22 faculties with 184 chairs, 8 branches with 46 faculties, 3 scientific-research and study-scientific institutes, 81 scientific-research laboratories and centers, 161 study laboratories and rooms, clinical hospitals and diagnostic centers, publishing and editorial houses, the library with 3640693 items, 5 dormitories. 95 educational programs were used at the bachelor's course, 194 - at master's studies and 16 - at the single-step tuition.

Numerous universally recognized scientific schools came into being at Tbilisi University: mathematics (Andria Razmadze, Nikoloz Mushkeshishvili, Ilia Vekua, Viktor Kupradze, Andro Bitsadze and others), physics (Elepter Andronikashvili, MateMirianashvili, Vagan Mamasakhilov, Givi Khutishvili Albert Tavkhelidze and others), psychology (Dimitri Uznadze and others), physiology (Ivane Beritashvili and others). National scholarly schools of Georgian historiography (Ivane Javakhishvili and others), history of literature (Korneli Kekelidze and others), Georgian philosophy (Shalva Nutsubidze and others), study of art (Giorgi Chubinashvili and others), Georgian and Caucasian linguistics (Akaki Shanidze, Giorgi Akhvlediani, Arnold Chikobava and others), Oriental and Classic philology (Grigol Tsereteli, Simon Quakchishvili, Giorgi Tsereteli and others) are worth mentioning particularly. Thanks to their scientific activity Kartvelology (Kartvelian Studies) has turned into the international scholarly discipline.

The relevant chairs and scientific research departments serve for preparation of post-graduate students and scientific degree explorers. 26 qualification councils operate for conferring scientific degrees in almost all fields of science.

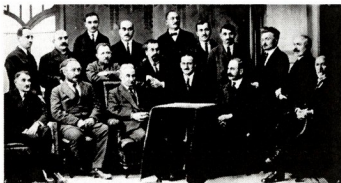
Medical education was restored at the university in 1994, the tradition of medical education was revived - originally the specialty of medicine was opened at the faculty of biology and medicine, and the faculty of medicine became an independent unit in 2000. The assembly of University clinics was founded, the educational bases of which are distinguished for their powerful material and technical equipment and highly qualified scientific-intellectual potential, the Center for the Management of Health Care and the Department for Continuous Medical Education were opened, the board of trustees of medicine and medical information service were founded. The University diagnostic center provides the health care of the professors and lecturers and collaborators of the University.

A printing press was set up at the University, in 1923 and a publishing-house in 1933. The University Archive was founded in 1933. The scientific edition "The Proceedings of Tbilisi University" has been publishing since 1919. The program "Textbooks for Students" has been functioning since 1996. The University publishes two weekly



newspapers "Tbilisi Universiteti" (since 1927) and "Kartuli Universiteti" (since 1998).

Many international conferences and symposia have been held at Tbilisi University. The following are notable: International symposia of psychologists (1979, 1986), symposia on Georgian art (II-1977, IV- 1983, VI- 1989), international symposia on the teaching of the Russian language and literature (1980, 1984, 1988), problems of German literature (1983, 1989), Classical philology (1969, 1975, 1980,1990, 1995, 1996), religion and ethics (1907, international private law (1985), international symposia on Kartvelian Studies (I-1987, II-1988, III-1995).



Ivane Javakhishvili and TSU Professors in 1920

Caucasian studies is one of the major trends of scholarly research, having inherited rich traditions. "Caucasica", an international scholarly journal, has been published since 1998.

Three international conferences have been held over the recent period on urgent issues such as, "Caucasus in the context of world history" (1996), "Peaceful Caucasus" (1998), "Caucasus at the turn of the millennia".

International conferences dedicated to major problems of the present day have been held at the University: "Caucasus, problems of democratization" (1995), "The law reform in Georgia" (1995), "The University reform in Georgia" (1995), "Hellenistic Studies over the centuries" (2000). Summer schools are regularly held for foreign scientists in Kartvelian studies (Kartvelologists).

The University has the tradition of electing the foreign scientists and public figures for the honorary doctors of Tbilisi State University.

Faculties

TSU has following six faculties:

- Exact and Natural Sciences* [Website ^[7]
- Humanities* [Website ^[8]
- Social and Political Sciences* [Website ^[9]
- Economics and Business* [Website ^[10]
- Law* [Website ^[11]
- Medicine* [Website ^[12]

Institution and Administration

TSU has no central campus, its buildings are spread over the city. The oldest building is #1 whereas the administration of the University is seated. In the yard of the 1st TSU campus lie the founders of Tbilisi State University, whose names imply establishment and development of various scientific schools in Georgia. The Pantheon of Tbilisi State University is one of the special cultural and historical places.^[13]

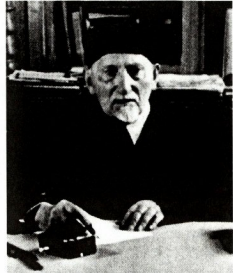
Board of Representatives

Board of Representatives is University's representative body, which is elected by the faculties, based on the representation. Senate members are elected separately from the students and the academic personnel in proportion to their number at each basic structural unit.^[14]

Board of Representatives is elected from within the University on the basis of general, direct and equal elections, by secret ballot. Students are comprising one-third of the entire body of Board. The Board includes a representative from the University's library.

The Board of Representatives is authorized to:

- (a) Develop University's charter with the participation of the Academic Council and present said charter to the Ministry of Education and Science of Georgia for approval;
- (b) Develop and approve the University's internal regulations, code of ethics and procedures for disciplinary responsibility;
- (c) Approve the rule for designing the budget of a University as well as the statutes of structural units;
- (d) Elect a Speaker of the Board;
- (e) Upon the proposal of the Academic Council, approve the candidacy for the Chancellor's office;
- (f) Upon the proposal of the Chancellor, approve University's budget;
- (g) Upon the proposal of the Chancellor approve the structure of University's administration;
- (h) Approve the annual report of the Chancellor;
- (i) Based on the reasoned proposal of the Academic Council, or on its own initiative, terminate the powers of the Chancellor before his/her term of office expires;
- (j) Based on the proposal of the Chancellor, approve the support personnel recruitment procedures as well as terms and amount of remuneration;
- (k) Upon the proposal of the Academic Council, approve the academic personnel recruitment procedures, terms and amount of remuneration;
- (l) Upon the nomination of the Academic Council, approve the candidacy for the Head of the Quality Provision Service.
- (m) Exercise other powers conferred to it by the Georgian legislation.



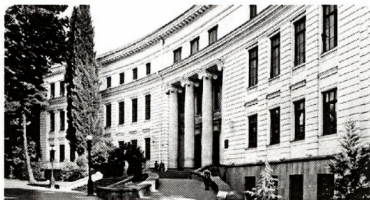
Famous Georgian Historian, Archaeologist and Public Benefactor Prof. Ekvtime Takaishvili. Founder and Notable Professor of TSU

Academic Council

The Academic Council is the highest representative body of the University. Council is elected by the members of the faculties' academic personnel and those representatives of students' self-governance who are the members of faculty council, on the basis of direct, free and equal elections, by secret ballot. Only professors may be elected as the members of the Academic Council.

The Academic Council shall:

- (a) Draft and approve University's strategic development plans;
- (b) Upon the proposal of the faculties, approve study and research programs;
- (c) Promote University integration into the European space as well as creation of the curricula, study and research programs, cooperation between University institutions, mobility and integrated teaching;
- (d) By the majority vote of its members, elect a chair of the Academic Council – the Rector, based on free and equal elections, by secret ballot;
- (e) Propose to the Board of Representatives a candidacy for the Chancellor selected by a majority of all its members on the basis of competition;
- (f) By the majority vote of its members, present to the Board of Representatives a substantiated proposal to terminate the powers of the Chancellor before his /her term of office expires;
- (g) Within the period of one month following the dismissal of the Chancellor, propose to the Board of Representatives a new candidacy for this office;
- (h) Take part in the discussions of the Board of Representatives regarding the higher education institution charter, statutes of structural units, budget and the annual report of the Chancellor;
- (i) In the beginning of a new academic year, upon the proposal of the faculty councils, approve coefficients for unified national examinations as well as number of students to be enrolled at each faculty;
- (j) Define procedures for recognition of academic degrees awarded by other higher education institutions;
- (k) Approve the dissertation council statutes upon the proposal of faculty councils;
- (l) Propose to the Board of Representatives for approval a candidacy for the head of the higher education institution's Quality Provision Service;
- (m) Present the annual report to the Board of Representatives;
- (o) Upon the proposal of a faculty, make decision on awarding a degree of Honorary Doctor;
- (p) Elect the heads of the University's library;



TSU Second Campus. Main Building of the faculties of Law and Physics.

Rector

The Rector is the highest academic authority of a University, serves as a chair of the Academic Council, represents the University in academic and research spheres both domestically and internationally and is entitled to enter into agreements and make deals on behalf of the University. The Rector is elected by the majority vote of Academic Council members, through secret ballot. The Rector's term of office

Chancellor

The Chancellor is the highest administrative manager at the University in the sphere of financial issues, material and human resources and represents the institution in financial and economic relationships.

The Chancellor is nominated by the Academic Council and approved by the Board of Representatives, through secret ballot. The Academic Council may nominate the same person only twice. The term of office of the Chancellor is four years.

Other

The museums of History, Georgian Emigration, Mineralogy, Geology and Paleontology, Geography, Zoology and Botany are functioning at Tbilisi State University.

The five dormitories of Tbilisi State University can accommodate up to 2200 living rooms.

The University has eight branches all over the country(Georgia) - in Sukhumi, Meskheti, Ozurgeti, Signaghi (kakheti), Zugdidi, Qvemo Qartli (Marneuli), Javakheti and Poti.

The university schools, namely the Ivane Javakhishvili school N53, the N. Muskhelishvili school N55, prof. T. Georgia physical-mathematical boarding school, Tbilisi lyceum, Rustavi gymnasium, Gurjaani college and Khobi school function successfully.

List of Rectors

- Petre Melikishvili - 1918/I - 1919/XII
- Ivane Javakhishvili - 1919/XII - 1926/VI
- Tedo Ghlonti - 1926/IX - 1928/IX
- Malakia Toroshelidze - 1928/IX - 1930/IX
- Ivane Vashakmadze - 1930/I - 1931/IX
- Aleksandre Erkomaishvili - 1931/X - 1932/XII
- Levan Aghniashvili - 1933/IV - 1935/VI
- Karlo Oragvelidze - 1935/VI - 1937/VI
- Giorgi Kiknadze - 1937/VII - 1938/IX
- Davit Kipshidze - 1938/X - 1942/II
- Aleksandre Janelidze - 1942/II - 1945/VII
- Nikoloz Ketskhoveli - 1945/VII - 1953/VI
- Ilia Vekua - 1953/VII - 1953/IX, 1966/IV - 1972/IV
- Ermile Burchuladze - 1953/IX - 1954/IX
- Victor Kupradze - 1954/IX - 1958/III
- Giorgi Dzotsenidze - 1958/IV - 1959/III
- Evgeni Kharadze - 1959/III - 1966/III
- Davit Chkhikvishvili - 1972/V - 1980/II
- Vazha Okujava - 1980/III - 1985/IX
- Nodar Amaglobeli - 1985/IX - 1991/VIII
- Tamaz Gamkrelidze - 1991/VIII - 1991/IX

- Otar Japaridze - 1991/IX - 1991/X
- Roin Metreveli - 1991/X - 2004/X
- Rusudan Lortkipanidze - 2004/XII-2006/IV
- Giorgi Khubua - 2006/IV - 2010/VIII
- Aleksandre Kvitashvili - 2010/VIII - present^[15]

Alumni

Prime Ministers

- Giorgi Arsenishvili
- Nikoloz Gilauri
- Vladimer Gurgeneidze
- Zurab Zhvania

Speakers of the Parliament

- David Bakradze
- Nino Burjanadze

Others

- Ilia Abuladze, philologist
- Giuli Alasania, historian
- Givi Alkhashvili, author, poet, essayist
- Arnold Chikobava, linguist
- Levan Chilashvili, archaeologist
- Gia Dvali, physicist
- Ana Dolidze, activist
- Guranda Gvaladze, botanist
- Evgen Gvaladze, lawyer and politician
- Gia Getsadze, lawyer
- Nikoloz Janashia, historian
- John Khetsuriani, lawyer
- David Lordkipanidze, anthropologist
- Aka Morchiladze, writer
- Gia Nodia, Minister of Education and Science of Georgia, politologist, political scientist
- Irakli Okruashvili, politician
- Bulat Okudjava, noted writer, poet, musician
- Grigol Peradze, theologian and historian
- Anna Schchian, botanist
- Giorgi Targamadze, politician
- Lasha Zhvania, politician, diplomat
- Jaba Mujiri, footballer

Noted faculty

- Ilia Abuladze
- Giuli Alasania
- Giorgi Arsenishvili
- Ivane Beritashvili
- Arnold Chikobava
- Simon Janashia
- Nikoloz Janashia
- Ivane Javakhishvili, historian
- Roin Metreveli
- Sargis Kakabadze
- David Lordkipanidze
- Rusudan Lordkipanidze
- Guram Mchedlidze
- Petre Melikishvili
- Niko Muskhelishvili
- Shalva Nutsubidze
- Simon Kaukhchishvili
- Ekvtime Takaishvili
- Sandra E. Roelofs
- Mikheil Tsereteli
- Grigol Tsereteli
- Giorgi Tsereteli
- Dimitri Uznadze

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- [3] "Georgian Prime Minister made a statement regarding Aleksandre Kvitashvili in the State Chancellery" (http://government.gov.ge/print.php?gg=1&sec_id=186&info_id=31221&lang_id=ENG), Press Office of the Prime Minister. , Retrieved 29 November 2010.
- [4] http://www.tbilisi.gov.ge/index.php?lang_id=ENG&sec_id=1297&info_id=6933
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- [12] <http://www.medicine.tsu.ge/>
- [13] <http://www.tsu.ge/eng/pantheon.asp>
- [14] http://www.mes.gov.ge/index.php?module=text&link_id=48
- [15] <http://www.tsu.ge/ge/about/rectors>

See also


- List of modern universities in Europe (1801–1945)

External links

- Official website (<http://www.tsu.ge>)

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Saint_Petersburg_State_University

Saint Petersburg State University	
Санкт-Петербургский государственный университет	
	
Arms of the State University of Saint Petersburg	
Latin: <i>Universitas Petropolitana</i>	
Motto	Hic tuta perennat (Here we stay in safety)
Established	1724 (1819)
Type	Public
Rector	Nikolai M. Kropachev
Admin. staff	11,854
Students	32,400
Undergraduates	26,872 ^[1]
Postgraduates	5,566
Location	Saint Petersburg, Russia
Campus	Both urban and suburban
Website	www.cn6ry.pф ^[2]

Saint Petersburg State University (SPbSU, *Russian*: Санкт-Петербургский государственный университет, СПбГУ) is a Russian federal state-owned higher education institution based in Saint Petersburg and one of the oldest and largest universities in Russia.

It is made up of 22 specialized faculties, 13 research institutes, the Faculty of Military Studies, the Academic Classical School, and the Department of Physical Culture and Sports. As of 2010, the university has a teaching staff of 6,855. The university has two primary campuses: one on Vasilievsky Island and the other in Peterhof. During the Soviet period, it was known as **Leningrad State University** (*Russian*: Ленинградский государственный университет), in 1948—1989 named after Zhdanov.

Reputation and international rankings



The Twelve Collegia building on Vasilievsky Island in Saint Petersburg is the university's main building and the seat of the rector and administration (the building was constructed on the orders of Peter the Great)

Saint Petersburg State University is considered the second best multi-faculty university in Russia after Moscow State University, however, it performs relatively poorly in both national and international rankings. While the university was ranked 251st^[3] in 2011 by the QS World University Rankings, it was placed 351-400th^[4] by the Times Higher Education World University Rankings and 301-400th^[5] by the Academic Ranking of World Universities. Furthermore, national rankings produced by RIA Novosti / Higher School of Economics and Forbes consistently place Saint Petersburg

State University outside top 10 in Russia.^[6]

Nonetheless, the university has a reputation for having educated the majority of a Russia's current political elite; these include presidents Vladimir Putin and Dmitry Medvedev, both of whom studied Law at the university.

The university is widely considered to be one of Russia's oldest universities. There is an ongoing debate as to whether it is, in fact, Russia's oldest university, as this title is also claimed by the Lomonosov State University of Moscow (Moscow State University). The reason for this uncertainty can be ascribed to the two separate occasions on which the university was founded; the first occasion, 1724, predates the foundation of Moscow State University in 1755. However, the second occasion, in 1819, does not. Thus the case is open to interpretation and currently there is no definitive answer.

History

It is disputed by the university administration whether Saint Petersburg State University or Moscow State University is the oldest higher education institution in Russia. While the latter was established in 1755, the former, which has been in continuous operation since 1819, itself claims to be the successor of the university established on January 24, 1724 by a decree of Peter the Great, together with the Academic Gymnasium and Saint Petersburg Academy of Sciences. Immanuel Kant State University of Russia in Kaliningrad claims to be the successor of the Albertina founded in East Prussia in 1544, though there is hardly any degree of continuity at all.



Hallway in the Twelve Collegia building, St. Petersburg State University: one of the longest academic hallways in the world

In the period between 1803 and 1819, Saint Petersburg University officially did not exist; the institution founded by Peter the Great, the Saint Petersburg Academy, had already been disbanded, because the new 1803 charter of the Academy of Sciences stipulated that there should be no educational institutions affiliated with it. The Petersburg Pedagogical Institute, renamed the Main Pedagogical Institute in 1814, was established in 1804 and occupied a part of the Twelve Collegia building.

On February 8, 1819 (O.S.), Alexander I of Russia reorganized the Main Pedagogical Institute into Saint Petersburg University, which at that time consisted of three faculties: Faculty of Philosophy and Law, Faculty of History and Philology and Faculty of Physics and Mathematics, and enrolled several dozen students. Since there is some degree of continuity between the Academy, the Pedagogical Institute, and the University, Saint Petersburg State University may be considered the oldest university in Russia. In 1821 the university was renamed Saint Petersburg Imperial University. In 1823 most of the university moved from the Twelve Collegia to the southern part of the city beyond the Fontanka. In 1824 a version of the charter of Moscow University became the first charter of the Saint Petersburg Imperial University. In 1829 there were 19 full professors and 169 full-time and part-time students in the university. In 1830 Tsar Nicholas passed the entire building of the Twelve Collegia back to the university, and the courses returned there. In 1835 a new Charter of the Imperial Universities of Russia was approved. According to it during the following years the Faculty of Law was established and the Faculty of History and Philology and Faculty of Physics and Mathematics were merged into the Faculty of Philosophy as the 1st and 2nd Departments, respectively.

In 1849 after the Spring of Nations the Senate of the Russian Empire decreed that the Rector should be appointed by the Minister of National Enlightenment rather than elected by the Assembly of the university. However, Pyotr Pletnyov was reappointed Rector and ultimately became the longest-serving rector of Saint Petersburg University (1840–1861).

In 1850 the 1st and 2nd Departments of the Faculty of Philosophy were turned back into the Faculty of History and Philosophy and Faculty of Physics and Mathematics, respectively, the latter specializing not only in mathematics and physics, but also in other natural sciences, such as biology and chemistry. The Oriental studies were separated from the Faculty of History and Philosophy, and in 1855 the fourth faculty, Faculty of Oriental Languages, was opened.

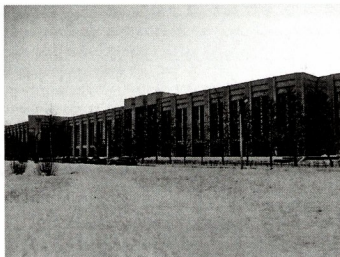
In 1859–1861 female part-time students could attend lectures in the university. In 1861 there were 1,270 full-time and 167 part-time students in the university, of them 498 were in the Faculty of Law, the largest subdivision. During 1861–1862 there was student unrest in the university, and it was temporarily closed twice during the year. The students were denied freedom of assembly and placed under police surveillance, while public lectures were forbidden. Many students were expelled. After the unrest, in 1865, only 524 students remained.

The new Charter of the Imperial Russian Universities adopted in 1863 restored the right of the university assembly to elect the rector. In March 1869, student unrest shook the university again but on a smaller scale. By 1869, 2,588 students had graduated from the university.

In 1880 the Ministry of National Enlightenment forbade students to marry and married persons could not be admitted. In 1882 another student unrest took place in the university. In 1884 a new Charter of the Imperial Russian Universities was adopted, which granted the right to appoint the rector to the Minister of National Enlightenment again. On March 1, 1887 (O.S.) a group of the university students was arrested while planning an attempt on the life of Alexander III of Russia. As a result, new admission



Dmitry Mendeleev



The Faculty of Mathematics and Mechanics in Peterhof



Botanical garden of the University

rules to gymnasiums and universities were approved by the Minister of National Enlightenment Ivan Delyanov in 1887, which barred persons of ignoble origin from admission to the university, unless they were extraordinarily talented.

By 1894, 9,212 students had graduated from the university. Among the renowned scholars of the second half of the 19th century affiliated with the university were mathematician Pafnuty Chebyshev, physicist Heinrich Lenz, chemists Dmitri Mendeleev and Aleksandr Butlerov, embryologist Alexander Kovalevsky, physiologist Ivan Sechenov, pedologist Vasily Dokuchaev. On March 24, 1896 (O.S.), on the campus of the university Alexander Popov publicly demonstrated transmission of radio waves for the first time in history.

As of January 1, 1900 (O.S.), there were 2,099 students enrolled in the Faculty of Law, 1,149 students in the Faculty of Physics and Mathematics, 212 students in the Faculty of Oriental Languages and 171 students in the Faculty of History and Philology. In 1902 the first student dining hall in Russia was opened in the university.

Since about 1897 regular strikes and unrests of students had shaken the university and spread to other higher education institutions across Russia. In 1905 during the Revolution the charter of the Russian universities was amended once more, the autonomy of the universities was partially restored and the right to elect the rector was returned to the academic board for the first time since 1884. In 1905–1906 the university was temporarily closed due to the student unrest. The autonomy was revoked again in 1911. In the same year the university was temporarily closed again.

In 1914 with the start of the First World War, the university was renamed Petrograd Imperial University after its namesake city. In 1915 a branch of the university was opened in Perm, which later became Perm State University. The Assembly of Petrograd Imperial University openly welcomed the February Revolution of 1917, which put an end to the Russian monarchy, and the university came to be known as just Petrograd University. However, after the October Revolution of 1917, the staff and administration of the university were initially vocally opposed to the Bolshevik takeover of power and reluctant to cooperate with the Narkompros. Later in 1917–1922 during the Russian Civil War some of the staff suspected of counter-revolutionary sympathies suffered imprisonment (e.g. Lev Shcherba in 1919), execution, or exile abroad on the so-called Philosophers' ships in 1922 (e.g. Nikolai Lossky). Furthermore, the entire staff suffered from hunger and extreme poverty during those years.

In 1918 the university was renamed 1st Petrograd State University, and in 1919 the Narkompros merged it with the 2nd PSU (former Psychoneurological Institute) and 3rd PSU (former Bestuzhev Higher Courses for Women) into Petrograd State University. In 1919 the Faculty of Social Science was established by the Narkompros instead of the Faculty of History and Philology, Faculty of Oriental Languages and Faculty of Law. Nicholas Marr became the first Dean of the new faculty. Chemist Alexey Favorsky became the Dean of the Faculty of Physics and Mathematics. Rabfaks and free university courses were opened on the basis of the university to provide mass education. In the fall of 1920, as observed by freshman student Alice Rosenbaum, enrollment was open and the majority of the students were anti-communist including, until removed, a few vocal opponents of the regime. Seeing that they were educating "class enemies", a purge was conducted in 1922 based on the class background of the students and all students, other than seniors, with a bourgeois background were expelled.^[7] During the 1920s the university, like other higher education institutions in the Soviet Union, became subject to educational experimentation. The structure and status of the faculties and departments of the university underwent major changes. Many of them were merged, split or renamed, new subdivisions were established, independent institutes were merged into the university as faculties, sometimes only to be restored to their old status a few years later.

In 1924 the university was renamed Leningrad State University after its namesake city. In 1925 the Faculty of Geography was opened. In order to suppress intellectual opposition to Soviet power, a number of historians working in the university, including Sergey Platonov, Yevgeny Tarle and Boris Grekov, were imprisoned in the so-called Academic Affair of 1929–1930 on fabricated charges of participating in a counter-revolutionary conspiracy aimed at overthrowing the government. Some other members of the staff were repressed in 1937–1938 during the Great Purge.

In the 1930 a number of new faculties were established. The Faculty of Biology opened in 1930, the Faculty of Geology in 1931, the Faculty of Chemistry in 1932, the Faculty of Physics and Faculty of Mathematics and Mechanics in 1933, the Faculty of History in 1934, the Faculty of Philology in 1937. The Faculty of Philosophy and Faculty of Economics split from the Faculty of History in 1940.

During the 1941–1944 Siege of Leningrad in World War II, many of the students and staff died from starvation, in battles or from repressions. However, the university operated continuously, evacuated to Saratov in 1942–1944. A branch of the university was hosted in Yelabuga during the war. In 1944 the Presidium of the Supreme Council of the Soviet Union awarded the university with the Order of Lenin on the occasion of its 125th anniversary and for its contribution to science and culture. The Faculty of Oriental Studies was split from the Faculty of Philology, and the Faculty of Law was re-created in 1944.

In 1948 the Council of Ministers named the university after Andrei Zhdanov, a recently deceased prominent communist official. This decision was revoked in 1989 during Perestroika.

In the late 1940s the university was hit hard by ideological and anti-Semitic purges. In particular, in 1949 several leading professors of the Faculty of Philology were accused of "cosmopolitanism", and some of them (Viktor Zhirmunsky, Mark Azadovsky, Grigory Gukovsky) were expelled from the university. Throughout the post-war Soviet years, unofficial ethnic quotas severely limiting Jewish admittance to Leningrad State University existed, which lasted at least until Perestroika.

In 1949–1950 several professors died in prison during the investigation of the Leningrad Affair fabricated by the central Soviet leadership, and the Minister of Education of the RSFSR, former rector Alexander Voznesensky, was executed.

In 1961 the Faculty of Journalism split from the Faculty of Philology. In 1966 the Council of Ministers decided to build a new suburban campus in Petrodvorets for most of the mathematics and natural science faculties. The relocation of the faculties had been completed by the 1990s.

The Faculty of Psychology split from the Faculty of Philosophy in 1966. In 1969 the Presidium of the Supreme Council of the Soviet Union awarded the university with the Order of the Red Banner of Labour. The Faculty of Applied Mathematics and Control Processes was split from the Faculty of Mathematics and Mechanics in 1969.

In 1989 the Faculty of Sociology was opened. In 1991 the university was renamed back to Saint Petersburg State University after its namesake city. During the 1990s three new faculties were opened: the Faculty of Management in 1993, the School of International Relations in 1994 and the Faculty of Medicine in 1995. During the period 2008 - 2010 three new faculties were organized: the Faculty of Political Science, the Faculty of Arts and the Faculty of Dentistry and Medical Technologies.

List of rectors

1819–1821 Mikhail Balugyansky
1821–1825 Yevdokim Zhablovsky
1825–1836 Antoine Jeudy Dugour
1836–1840 Ivan Shulgin
1840–1861 Pyotr Pletnyov
1861–1863 Alexander Voskresensky
1863–1865 Heinrich Lenz
1865–1867 Alexander Voskresensky
1867–1873 Karl Kessler
1873–1876 Pyotr Redkin
1876–1883 Andrei Beketov
1883 (1884)–1887 Ivan Andreevsky
1887–1890 Mikhail Vladislavlev
1890–1897 Pyotr Nikitin
1897–1899 V. Sergeevich
1899–1903 Adolf Holmsten
1903–1905 A. Zhdanov
1905–1910 Ivan Borgman
1910–1911 David Grimm
1911–1918 Erwin Grimm
1918–1919 Alexander Ivanov
1919 Sergei Zhebelev
1919–1922 Vladimir Shimkevich
1922–1926 Nikolay Derzhavin
1926–1927 V. Tomashevsky
1927–1930 Mikhail Serebryakov
1930–1932 Yury Nikich (director)
1932–1933 V. Seryozhnikov (director)
1933–1938 Mikhail Lazurkin (director)
1938–1939 Konstantin Lukashev (director)
1939 A. Marchenko (director)
1939–1941 P. Zolotukhin (director)
1941–1948 Alexander Voznesensky
1948–1950 Nikita Domnin
1950–1952 Alexey Ilyushin
1952–1964 Aleksandr Aleksandrov
1964–1970 Kirill Kondratyev
1970–1975 Gleb Makarov



1975–1986 Valentin Aleskovski

1986–1993 Stanislav Merkuriev

1993(1994)–2008 Lyudmila Verbitskaya

since 2008 Nikolai Kropachev

Organization

Governance

The university is a federal state institution of higher education managed by the government of the Russian Federation. It consists of twenty two faculties, which are further subdivided into departments, and other main structural subdivisions, including the Sports Department, Rectorate, Gorky Scientific Library, Academic Gymnasium, publishing house, and clinic.

The superior body of self-government of the university is its Assembly, which elects the Rector and the Academic Board of the University for a five-year term, and also adopts the Charter of the University and the Routine Regulations later approved by the Rector. The Assembly of the University consists of the members of the Academic Board of the University and the staff delegated by the general assemblies of the main structural subdivisions according to quotas set by the Academic Board of the University. The general administration of the university is vested in the Academic Board, which consists of the Rector, who presides over it, as well as the President of the University, vice rectors and representatives of the main structural subdivisions.

Likewise, the general administration of a faculty is vested in its respective academic board elected by the faculty assembly for five years. The procedure of election and department quotas are decided by the faculty-level academic board itself. The dean, who leads the faculty and presides over its academic board, is elected for five years by the faculty academic board.

Academic year

The academic year in St. Petersburg State University according to the Routine Regulations normally starts on September 1. One lesson normally lasts 1 h 30 m (two academic hours). As in other higher education institutions in Russia, the academic year is divided into two semesters. The first semester (term) ends by late December, the second one starts in mid-February and lasts until late May. Each term is followed by a series of preliminary tests (in the last week of December/May) and exams (in January/June).



The Twelve Collegia Building

Campuses

The university is organized around two main campuses: on Vasilievsky Island in the historic city center and in Peterhof (formerly Petrodvorets), a southwestern suburb, which can be reached by railway from the city's Baltiysky Rail Terminal. The main building of the university, Twelve Collegia, is located on Vasilievsky Island and includes the Library, the Faculty of Biology and Soil Science and the Faculty of Geology. The Faculty of Philology and the Faculty of Oriental Studies share the nearby 18th-century Petrine Baroque building on Universitetskaya Embankment of the



Saint Petersburg State University

Bolshaya Neva, designed by Domenico Trezzini and originally built as the Palace of Peter II of Russia. The New Gostiny Dvor designed by Giacomo Quarenghi and built in the 19th century in that part of the island is now occupied by the Faculty of History, Faculty of Philosophy. The Faculty of Psychology is situated in front of it on Admiral Makarov Embankment of the Malaya Neva. The Graduate School of Management, Faculty of Journalism, Faculty of Geography and Geo-Ecology, Faculty of Medicine, Faculty of Dentistry and Medical Technologies, Faculty of Law and Faculty of Military Studies are all situated on Vasilievsky Island, but farther to the west. Four other social science faculties are hosted in the east of the city center on the southern bank of the Neva: the Faculty of Economics is not far from the Chernyshevskaya metro station, while the Faculty of Sociology, Faculty of Political Science and the School of International Relations occupy historical buildings of Smolny Convent. The new suburban campus consists of the Faculty of Applied Mathematics, Faculty of Chemistry, Faculty of Mathematics and Mechanics, and Faculty of Physics, which are situated in modern buildings in Peterhof.

Faculties

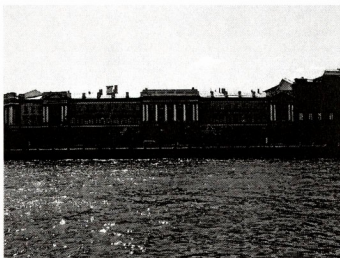
SPbSU is made up of 22 specialized faculties, which are:

- Faculty of Applied Mathematics and Control Processes (*rus^[18])
- Faculty of Arts
- Faculty of Biology and Soil Studies (*rus^[9])
- Faculty of Chemistry
- Faculty of Economics (*rus^[10])
- Faculty of Geography and Geoecology (*rus^[11])
- Faculty of Geology (*rus^[12])
- Faculty of History (*rus^[13])
- School of International Relations (*rus^[14] | *eng^[15])
- Faculty of Journalism (*rus^[16] | *eng^[17])



Faculty of Philology and Faculty of Oriental Studies on Universitetskaya Embankment

- Faculty of Law
- Faculty of Mathematics and Mechanics (*rus^[18] | *eng^[19])
- Faculty of Medicine (*rus^[20])
- Faculty of Oriental Studies (*rus^[21])
- Faculty of Philology (*rus^[22])
- Faculty of Philosophy (*rus^[23])
- Faculty of Physics (*rus^[24])
- Faculty of Political Science (*rus^[25])
- Faculty of Psychology (*rus^[26])



Faculty of Psychology on Makarov Embankment

- Faculty of Sociology (*rus^[27])
- Graduate School of Management
- Military Faculty (*rus^[28])

There is also a Department of Physical Culture and Sports. (*rus^[29])

Notable alumni and faculty

Saint Petersburg State University has produced a number of Nobel Prize winners. Both the former President, Prime Minister Vladimir Putin, and the current President Dmitry Medvedev of Russia are alumni.

Eight of the graduates of the university are Nobel Prize recipients: Ivan Pavlov (Physiology and Medicine, 1904), Ilya Mechnikov (Physiology and Medicine, 1908), Nikolay Semyonov (Chemistry, 1956), Lev Landau (Physics, 1962), Aleksandr Prokhorov (Physics, 1964), Wassily Leontief (Economics, 1973), Leonid Kantorovich (Economics, 1975) and Joseph Brodsky (Literature, 1987). However, none received the prize while working at the university or for the work done while affiliated with it.

Among the renowned scholars affiliated with Leningrad State University have been mathematicians Vladimir Smirnov, Solomon Mikhlin, Yuri Linnik and Aleksandr Aleksandrov, physicist Vladimir Fock, astrophysicist Viktor Ambartsumian, botanists Vladimir Komarov and Vladimir Sukachev, historians Mahapandit Rahul Sankrityayan, Yevgeny Tarle and Boris Grekov, philologists Lev Shcherba, Vladimir Propp and Viktor Zhirmunsky, orientalists Vasily Struve, Joseph Orbeli and Boris Piotrovsky.

The American novelist Ayn Rand attended the university from 1920 to 1924 graduating with honors in history.^[30]

Partner universities

-  Carleton University, Canada
-  University of Tartu, Estonia
-  University of Greifswald, Germany
-  University of Passau, Germany
-  University of Groningen, the Netherlands
-  Ching Yun University, Republic of China (Taiwan)
-  George Mason University, United States
-  University of California, United States

See also

- Education in Russia
- List of universities in Russia
- Smolny College
- List of Russian scientists

Notes

- [1] Official Site (http://www.priem.spbu.ru/about_spbu/summary.html)
- [2] <http://www.cn6ry.pq>
- [3] <http://www.topuniversities.com/institution/saint-petersburg-state-university/wur>
- [4] <http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings/2011-2012/europe.html>
- [5] <http://www.shanghai ranking.com/Institution.jsp?param=Saint%20Petersburg%20State%20University>
- [6] <http://www.forbes.ru/karera-package/obrazovanie/55574-luchshie-universitety-rossii-novyi-reiting-forbes>
- [7] Branden, Barbara (1986) *The Passion of Ayn Rand*. Garden City: Doubleday, hardcover, 442 pages, ISBN 0-385-19171-5; pp. 42-43; 50-51
- [8] <http://www.apmath.spbu.ru/>
- [9] <http://www.bio.pu.ru/>
- [10] <http://www.econ.pu.ru/>
- [11] <http://www.geo.pu.ru/>
- [12] <http://www.geology.pu.ru/>
- [13] <http://www.history.pu.ru/>
- [14] <http://www.dip.pu.ru/>
- [15] <http://www.dip.pu.ru/eng/>
- [16] <http://www.jf.pu.ru/>
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- [19] <http://www.math.spbu.ru/en/index.html>
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- [21] <http://orient.pu.ru/>
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- [23] <http://philosophy.pu.ru/>
- [24] <http://www.phys.spbu.ru/>
- [25] <http://politicalogy.pu.ru/>
- [26] <http://www.psy.pu.ru/>
- [27] <http://www.soc.pu.ru/>
- [28] <http://fvo.spbu.ru/>
- [29] <http://sport.spbu.ru/>
- [30] Branden, Barbara (1986); p. 54.

References

The history of the university, with a particular focus on the Law Faculty, from the 19th century to the perestroika period, is documented in English in David Lempert, *Daily Life in a Crumbling Empire: The Absorption of Russia into the World Economy, Book 2*, Eastern European Monograph Series, Columbia University Press, 1996, ISBN 978-0-88033-341-2.

See also

- List of early modern universities in Europe

External links

- Saint Petersburg State University homepage (<http://www.spbgy.pdф>)

ru:Санкт-Петербургска штатна універзіта

Johns_Hopkins_University

The Johns Hopkins University	
	
Official Seal	
Motto	Veritas vos Liberabit (Latin)
Motto in English	The Truth Will Set You Free
Established	1876
Type	Private
Endowment	US \$2.22 billion (2010) ^[1]
President	Ronald J. Daniels
Provost	Lloyd B. Minor
Academic staff	3,100 (full time) ^[2]
Admin. staff	15,000 (full time) ^[2]
Undergraduates	4,744 ^[3]
Postgraduates	14,275 ^[4]
Location	Baltimore, Maryland, U.S.

Campus	State of Maryland (MD) <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Baltimore (Main)• Laurel• Columbia• Montgomery County Washington, D.C. Bologna, Italy Nanjing, China Singapore
Colors	Old Gold & Sable (Academic) Columbia Blue & Black (Athletic)
Athletics	Division I Lacrosse NCAA Division III Centennial Conference
Nickname	Blue Jays
Website	jhu.edu ^[5]
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY	

The Johns Hopkins University,^[6] commonly referred to as **Johns Hopkins**, **JHU**, or simply **Hopkins**, is a private research university based in Baltimore, Maryland, United States. Johns Hopkins maintains campuses in Maryland, Washington, D.C., Italy, China and Singapore.

The university was founded on January 22, 1876 and named for its benefactor, the philanthropist Johns Hopkins.^[7] Daniel Coit Gilman was inaugurated as first president on February 22, 1876.^[8]

Johns Hopkins pioneered the concept of the modern research university in the United States and has ranked among the world's top such universities throughout its history. The National Science Foundation (NSF) has ranked Johns Hopkins #1 among U.S. academic institutions in total science, medical and engineering research and development spending for 31 consecutive years.^[9] As of 2011, thirty-seven Nobel Prize winners have been affiliated with Johns Hopkins,^[10] and the university's research is among the most cited in the world.^[11]

History

The philanthropist and the founding

On his death in 1873, Johns Hopkins, a Quaker entrepreneur and childless bachelor, bequeathed \$7 million to fund a hospital and university in Baltimore, Maryland.^[12] At that time this fortune, generated primarily from the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad,^[13] was the largest philanthropic gift in the history of the United States.^[14]

The first name of philanthropist Johns Hopkins is the surname of his great-grandmother, Margaret Johns, who married Gerard Hopkins. They named their son Johns Hopkins, who named his own son Samuel Hopkins. Samuel named one of his sons after his father and that son would be the university's benefactor.

In his 2001 undergraduate commencement address, university president William R. Brody said about the name: "In 1888, just 12 years after the university was founded, Mark Twain wrote about this university in a letter to a friend. He said:

'A few months ago I was told that the Johns Hopkins University had given me a degree. I naturally supposed this constituted me a Member of the Faculty and so I started in to help as I could there. I told them I believed they were perfectly competent to run a college as far as the higher branches of education are concerned, but what they needed was a little help here and there from a practical commercial man. I said the public is sensitive to little things and they wouldn't have full confidence in a college that didn't know how to spell the name *John*.' More than a century later, we continue to bestow diplomas upon individuals of outstanding capabilities and great talent. And we continue to spell *Johns* with an s."^[15]

Milton Eisenhower, once the university's president, once spoke to a convention in Pittsburgh. Making a common mistake, the Master of Ceremonies introduced him as "President of *John* Hopkins." Eisenhower retorted that he was "glad to be here in *Pittsburgh*."^[16]



Johns Hopkins

Early years and Daniel Coit Gilman

The original board opted for an entirely novel university model dedicated to the discovery of knowledge at an advanced level, extending that of contemporary Germany. Johns Hopkins thereby became the model of the modern research university in the United States. Its success eventually shifted higher education in the United States from a focus on teaching revealed and/or applied knowledge to the scientific discovery of new knowledge. The founders intended the university to be national in scope to strengthen ties across a divided country in the aftermath of the American Civil War. Therefore, the university's official inauguration took on great significance: 1876 was the nation's centennial year and February 22 was George Washington's birthday.

The University's viability depended on its first president, Daniel Coit Gilman, recruited from the presidency of the University of California. Gilman launched what many at the time considered an audacious and unprecedented academic experiment to merge teaching and research. He dismissed the idea that the two were mutually exclusive: "The best teachers are usually those who are free, competent and willing to make original researches in the library and the laboratory," he stated. To implement his plan, Gilman recruited internationally known luminaries such as the biologist H. Newell Martin; the physicist Henry A. Rowland (the first president of the American Physical Society), the classical scholars Basil Gildersleeve and Charles D. Morris;^[17] the economist Richard T. Ely; and the chemist Ira Remsen, who became the second president of the university in 1901.



Daniel Coit Gilman

Gilman focused on the expansion of knowledge, graduate education and support of faculty research. To Gilman, Johns Hopkins existed not for the sake of God, the state, the community, the board, the parents, or even the students, but for knowledge. Faculty who added to such knowledge were rewarded. A complementary focus on graduate education fused advanced scholarship with such professional schools as medicine and engineering. Hopkins became the national trendsetter in doctoral programs and the host for numerous scholarly journals and associations with the founding of the first university press in 1878.

With the completion of Johns Hopkins Hospital in 1889 and the medical school in 1893, the university's research-focused mode of instruction soon began attracting world-renowned faculty members who would become major figures in the emerging field of academic medicine, including William Osler, William Halsted, Howard Kelly, and William Welch. During this period Hopkins made

more history by becoming the first medical school to admit women on an equal basis with men and to require a Bachelors degree, based on the efforts of Mary E. Garrett, who had endowed the school at Gilman's request.

In his will and in his instructions to the trustees of the university and the hospital, Hopkins requested that both institutions be built upon the vast grounds of his Baltimore estate, Clifton. When Gilman assumed the presidency, he decided that it would be best to use the university's endowment for recruiting faculty and students, deciding to "build men, not buildings." In his will Hopkins stipulated that none of his endowment should be used for construction; only interest on the principal could be used for this purpose. Unfortunately, stocks in The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which would have generated most of the interest, became virtually worthless soon after Hopkins's death. The university's first home was thus in Downtown Baltimore delaying plans to site the university in Clifton. This decision became the only major criticism of Gilman's presidency. In the early 20th century the university outgrew its buildings and the trustees began to search for a new home. Developing Clifton for the university was too costly, and so the estate became a public park. In the end, the 140 acres (57 ha) estate in north Baltimore known as Homewood was purchased as the university's new campus with assistance from prominent Baltimore citizens.

Since the 1910s, Johns Hopkins University has famously been a "fertile cradle" to Arthur Lovejoy's history of ideas.^[18]

Presidents of the university

Name	Term
Daniel Coit Gilman	May 1875 – August 1901
Ira Remsen	September 1901 – January 1913
Frank Goodnow	October 1914 – June 1929
Joseph Sweetman Ames	July 1929 – June 1935
Isaiah Bowman	July 1935 – December 1948
Detlev Bronk	January 1949 – August 1953
Lowell Reed	September 1953 – June 1956
Milton S. Eisenhower	July 1956 – June 1967
Lincoln Gordon	July 1967 – March 1971
Milton S. Eisenhower	March 1971 – January 1972
Steven Muller	February 1972 – June 1990
William C. Richardson	July 1990 – July 1995

Daniel Nathans	June 1995 – August 1996
William R. Brody	August 1996 – February 2009
Ronald J. Daniels	March 2009–Present

Institutions

The Johns Hopkins University Press, founded in 1878, is the oldest American university press in continuous operation. Along with the hospital, Hopkins established one of the nation's oldest schools of nursing in 1889. The school of medicine was America's first coeducational, graduate-level medical school, and was a prototype for academic medicine that emphasized bedside learning, research projects, and laboratory training. In 1909, the university was among the first to start adult continuing education programs and in 1916 it founded the US' first school of public health. Programs in international studies and the performing arts were established in 1950 and 1977 when the Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies in Washington D.C and the Peabody Institute in Baltimore became divisions of the university.

Civil rights

African-Americans

Hopkins was a prominent abolitionist who supported Abraham Lincoln during the American Civil War. After his death, reports said his conviction was a decisive factor in enrolling Hopkins' first African-American student, Kelly Miller, a graduate student in physics, astronomy and mathematics, and in admitting Harvard-trained physician Whitfield Winsey and two other African-American physicians to Maryland's Medical and Chirurgical Society MedChi.^[19] These physicians could attend meetings only because they were held on campus. As the memory of Hopkins faded and trustees like King died, Hopkins became like other Baltimore institutions, particularly in terms of race. The Johns Hopkins University chronology stated that on March 15, 1892, an administrator hired by Gilman recommended that the hospital should have a "...separate ward for colored patients."^[20] Johns Hopkins Hospital subsequently became segregated. Johns Hopkins' "separate but equal" stance was evident when it came to these segregated wards: "Special care will be taken to see that the heating and ventilation apparatus is as perfect as possible. A sun balcony will be erected on each floor on the east side, for convalescents, while a sun bay-window will be constructed at the south end of the south wing. On each floor there will be a dining room, kitchen, lavatory and bath-rooms...The building will be fireproof throughout."^[20]

As segregation grew within Johns Hopkins institutions, it affected pay, hiring and promotions. Staff in segregated wards and those employed in the lower rungs of the service industries had the longest history within the Johns Hopkins Institutions. Johns Hopkins' students, physicians, administrators and staff of African descent had a much shorter history within these institutions. The first black undergraduate was Frederick Scott who entered the school in 1945. In 1967 the first black students earned graduate degrees. Dr. James Nabwangu a British-trained Kenyan, was the first black graduate of the medical school. A second was earned by Robert Gamble.^[21]

The first African-American instructor was laboratory supervisor Vivien Thomas, who also invented and developed research instruments, served as an assistant in surgery to surgeon Alfred Blalock and worked closely with Blalock and Helen Taussig in developing and conducting the first successful blue baby operation. Black students and professionals were rare at Johns Hopkins Institutions and Maryland's state medical societies until after the 1940s. Diversity increased only in the 1960s and 1970s. African-Americans and women were labeled "The Uninvited" in the second major history of the university.

Women

Hopkins' most well-known battle for women's rights was the one led by daughters of trustees of the university; Mary E. Garrett, M. Carey Thomas, Mamie Gwinn, Elizabeth King, and Julia Rogers.^[22] They donated and raised the funds needed to open the medical school, and required Hopkins' officials to agree to their stipulation that women would be admitted. Unfortunately, this stipulation applied only to the medical school. Other graduate schools were opened to women by president Ira Remsen only in 1907. Christine Ladd-Franklin was the first woman to earn a PhD at Hopkins, in mathematics in 1882. The trustees denied her the degree and refused to change the policy about admitting women; she finally received her degree 44 years later. In 1893 Florence Bascomb became the university's first female PhD.^[22]

The nursing school opened in 1889 and accepted women and men as students.

The decision to admit women at undergraduate level was not considered until the late 1960s and was eventually adopted in October 1969; in the fall of 1970, 90 females, five of them African-American, became undergraduates. In the academic year 1970–1971, 4.7% of students in the Arts and Sciences programs were women. In the year 1985–1986 the proportion of female students in the Arts and Sciences programs had increased to around 38%. As of 2009–2010, the undergraduate population was 47% female and 53% male.^[23]

Campuses

Main Campuses & Divisions									
Homewood			East Baltimore (Medical Institutions Campus)			Downtown Baltimore		Washington D.C.	Laurel, Maryland
School of Arts and Sciences 1876	School of Education 1909	School of Engineering 1913	School of Nursing 1889	School of Medicine 1893	School of Public Health 1916	Peabody Institute 1857	School of Business 2007	School of Advanced International Studies 1943	Applied Physics Laboratory 1942

Homewood

- **Zanvyl Krieger School of Arts and Sciences:** The Krieger School offers more than 60 undergraduate majors and minors and more than 40 graduate programs.^[24]
- **G.W.C. Whiting School of Engineering:** The Whiting School contains 14 undergraduate and graduate engineering programs and 12 additional areas of study.^[25]
- **School of Education:** Originally established in 1909 as The School of Professional Studies in Business and Education, the divisions of Education and Business became separate schools in 2007.



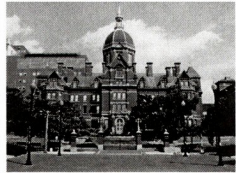
Homewood House

The first campus was located on Howard Street. Eventually, they relocated to Homewood, in northern Baltimore, the estate of Charles Carroll, son of the oldest surviving signer of the Declaration of Independence. Carroll's Homewood House is considered one of the finest examples of Federal residential architecture. The estate then came to the Wyman family, which participated in making it the park-like main campus of the schools of arts and sciences and engineering at the start of the 20th century. Most of its architecture was modeled after the Federal style of Homewood House. Homewood House is preserved as a museum. Most undergraduate programs are here.

East Baltimore

Collectively known as Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions (JHMI) campus, the East Baltimore facility occupies several city blocks spreading from the Johns Hopkins Hospital trademark dome.

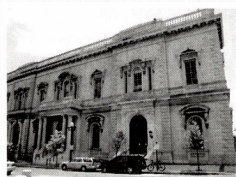
- **School of Nursing:** The School of Nursing is one of America's oldest and pre-eminent schools for nursing education. It has consistently ranked first in the nation.^[26]
- **School of Medicine:** The School of Medicine is widely regarded as one of the best medical schools and biomedical research institutes in the world.^[27] ^[28]
- **Bloomberg School of Public Health:** The Bloomberg School was founded in 1916, the world's first and largest public health school. It has consistently been ranked first in its field.^[29]



Johns Hopkins Hospital

Downtown Baltimore

- **Carey Business School:** The Carey Business School was established in 2007, incorporating divisions of the former School of Professional Studies in Business and Education. It was originally located on Charles Street, but relocated to the Legg Mason building in Harbor East in 2011.
- **Peabody Institute:** founded in 1857, is the US' oldest continuously active music conservatory; it became a division of Johns Hopkins in 1977. The Conservatory retains its own student body and grants degrees in musicology and performance, though both Hopkins and Peabody students may take courses at both institutions. It is located on East Mount Vernon Place.



Peabody Institute

Washington, D.C.

- **Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies (SAIS)** is located on the Washington D.C. campus near Dupont Circle. SAIS is devoted to international studies, particularly international relations, diplomacy, and economics. SAIS has full-time international campuses in Bologna, Italy and Nanjing, China. Founded in 1943, SAIS became a part of the university in 1950. In a 2005 survey 65% of respondents ranked SAIS as the nation's top Master's Degree program in International Relations.^[30]
- The Krieger School of Arts and Sciences' Advanced Academic Programs (AAP)^[31]
- Carey Business School

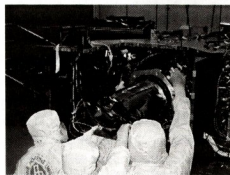
The Washington, D.C. campus is on Massachusetts Avenue.



Washington D.C. Campus (SAIS)

Laurel, Maryland

- **Johns Hopkins University Applied Physics Laboratory (APL):** The APL in Laurel, Maryland, specializes in research for the U.S. Department of Defense, NASA and other government and civilian research agencies. It has developed more than 100 biomedical devices, many in collaboration with the Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions.^[32] It is also linked to the Space Telescope Science Institute on the Homewood campus, which controls, analyzes, and collects data from the Hubble Space Telescope.



Installing a New Horizons Imager at the APL

The Applied Physics Laboratory, a division of the university co-equal to the nine schools but with a non-academic mission, lies between Baltimore and Washington in Laurel, Maryland.

Other campuses

see also List of Johns Hopkins University Research Centers and Institutes

Domestic

- Columbia, Maryland Center (Branches of The Carey Business School^[33] and The School of Education)^[34]
- Montgomery County, Maryland Campus (Part-time programs in Biosciences, Engineering, Business & Education^[35])

International

- The SAIS Bologna Center, Italy
- The SAIS Hopkins-Nanjing Center for Chinese and American Studies, China
- Yong Siew Toh Conservatory of Music (Collaboration between the Peabody Institute and the National University of Singapore)

In 2009, JHU ranked fifth among US universities in private fund-raising, collecting \$433.39 million.^[36]

The President is JHU's chief executive officer, and the university is organized into nine academic divisions.^[37]

Campus environmental initiatives

Johns Hopkins University has implemented a number of sustainability initiatives.^[38]

In 2011, the *Sustainable Endowments Institute* gave Johns Hopkins a College Sustainability Report Card grade of "C+." In particular the Institute criticized JHU for failing to disclose its endowment's holdings and proxy voting record on environmental issues.^[39]

Transportation

In 2007 carbon emissions were inventoried and electric vehicles were used for some campus transportation needs.

Food

As of 2007 dining services managers sought locally-sourced produce and seafood, and integrated organic food into menus.^[40] In addition, the smaller cafés around campus sell exclusively organic, shade-grown coffees. A small pilot composting program operated on the undergraduate campus.^[40]

Buildings

In 2007 the university was pursuing LEED certification for several buildings.^[40] Energy retrofits in certain buildings have resulted in over 50% less energy consumption.^[40] Retrofits included a green roof, experimentation with waterless urinals and low-flow shower heads, and upgraded fluorescent lighting that reduced electricity for lighting on one campus by over 40 percent. Similar lighting retrofits were underway at all campuses.

Water

In 2004, one campus completed a water conservation retrofit that annually saved over 8000000 US gallons (1) of water.^[40]

Student support

As of 2010 students contributed significantly to environmental initiatives, setting up the JHU recycling program, hosting a national "Greening" conference, launching a transportation shuttle service between campuses and making the campus more bike-friendly.^[38] Each year, students conduct the "S.E.X.:I.T." competition to see which dormitory can save the most electricity.^[41]

Organization

The Johns Hopkins entity is structured as two corporations, the university and The Johns Hopkins Health System, formed in 1986. The latter has grown into the bigger entity, with fiscal year 2005 consolidated net revenue of \$3.3 billion, employing 27,700 people, including some 4,700 full-time physicians.^[37]

JHU's bylaws specify a Board of Trustees of between 18 and 65 voting members. Trustees serve six-year terms subject to a two-term limit. The alumni select 12 trustees. Four recent alumni serve 4-year terms, one per year, typically from the graduating class. The bylaws prohibit students, faculty or administrative staff from serving on the Board, except the President as an ex-officio trustee.^[42] The Johns Hopkins Health System has a separate Board of Trustees, many of whom are doctors or health care executives. Some JHU Trustees also serve on the Johns Hopkins Health System Board.^[43]

Academics

The full-time, four year undergraduate program is "most selective"^[44] with low transfer-in and a high graduate co-existence.^[45] ^[45] The university is one of fourteen founding members of the Association of American Universities (AAU); it is also a member of the Consortium on Financing Higher Education (COFHE) and the Universities Research Association (URA).



Mason Hall, the Visitor's Center & Admissions Office at Johns Hopkins University

Undergraduate Admissions

Johns Hopkins University ^[46]	
C/O 2015 Applicants	19,355
C/O 2015 Admitted	3,550 (18.3%)
SAT Median (2400)	720R, 760M, 730W
ACT Median (36)	33
Freshman Class Size	1,235

In 2010, 87% of admitted students graduated in the top tenth of their high school class and the inter-quartile range on the SAT reading was 670–750, math was 690–780, and writing was 670–770. 97% of freshmen returned after the first year, 84% of students graduated in 4 years and 92% graduated in 6 years.^[47] Over time, applications to Johns Hopkins University have risen steadily. As a result, the selectivity of Johns Hopkins University has also increased. Early Decision is an option at Johns Hopkins University for students who wish to demonstrate that the university is their first choice. These students, if admitted, are required to enroll. This application is due November 1. Most students, however, apply Regular Decision, which is a traditional non-binding round. These applications are due January 1 and students are notified April 1.

Population

Year	Applicants	Growth	Acceptance rate	Accepted	Enrolled	Yield
2011	19,355	4.04%	18.3%	3,550	1,272 ^[48]	37%
2010	18,455	14.5%	20.4%	3,764	1,235	33%
2009	16,123	0.7%	26.8%	4,318	1,350	31%
2008	16,006	7.7%	25.3%	4,056	1,238 ^[47]	31%
2007	14,858	7.17%	24.2%	3,603	1,206 ^[47]	33%
2006	13,863	22.9%	27%	3,698	1,235	33%
2005	11,278	1.58%	35%	3,910	1,155	30%
2004	11,102	10.75%	30%	3,322	1,050	32%
2003	10,024	-%	31%	3,071	1,050	34%

Rankings

University rankings (overall)	
National	
ARWU ^[49]	16
Forbes ^[50]	101
U.S. News & World Report ^[51]	13
Washington Monthly ^[52]	25
Global	
ARWU ^[53]	18
QS ^[54]	16
Times ^[55]	14

At the undergraduate level, Hopkins was ranked #13 among National Universities by *U.S. News and World Report* (USNWR).^[56] It is ranked #6 in the nation in the high school counselor reputation rankings.^[57] The 2010 *Academic Ranking of World Universities* (ARWU) ranked Hopkins #18 internationally (#16 nationally) and 3rd in the world for Clinical Medicine and Pharmacy.^[58] In 2010, Johns Hopkins ranked 13th in the Times Higher Education World University Rankings^[59] and 16th in the 2011 QS World University Rankings.^[60] Johns Hopkins also placed #2 in the 2010 University Ranking by Academic Performance (URAP),^[61] #2 in the 2011 HEEACT – Performance Ranking of Scientific Papers for World Universities,^[64] ranked #7 among Top Performing Schools according to the *Faculty Scholarly Productivity Index* (FSPI) in 2008,^[65] and was listed #9 among research universities by the *Center for Measuring University Performance* in 2007.^[66]

For medical and public health research *U.S. News and World Report* ranks the School of Medicine #3^[67] and has consistently ranked the Bloomberg School of Public Health #1^[68] in the nation. The School of Nursing was ranked #1 nationally among peer institutions.^[69] The *Times Higher Education Supplement* ranked Johns Hopkins University #3 in the world for biomedicine and life sciences.^[70] Hopkins ranks #1 nationally in receipt of federal research funds and the School of Medicine is #1 among medical schools in receipt of extramural awards from the National Institutes of Health (NIH).^[71] Newsweek named Johns Hopkins as the "Hottest School for Pre-meds" in 2008.^[72] The Johns Hopkins Hospital was ranked as the top hospital in the United States for the eighteenth year in a row by the *U.S. News and World Report* annual ranking of American hospitals.^[73]

The university's graduate programs in the areas of Biological & Biomedical Sciences, Engineering (Biomedical, Electrical & Environmental), Human Development & Family Studies, Health Sciences, Humanities, Physical & Mathematical Sciences and International Affairs & Development all rank among the top-10 of their respective disciplines.^[74] ^[75]

The Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies (SAIS) ranked #1 (2005), #2 (2007), and #2 (2009), by College of William and Mary's surveys conducted once every two years beginning in 2005, for its MA program among the world's top schools of International Affairs for those who want to pursue a policy career.

The School of Education is ranked #6 nationally by *U.S. News and World Report*.^[76] Although no formal rankings exist for music conservatories, the Peabody Institute is generally considered one of the most prestigious conservatories in the country, along with Juilliard and the Curtis Institute.

Johns Hopkins is ranked the #1 Social Media College by StudentAdvisor.^[77] Several university departments have been known to actively engage on various social media platforms such as Blogs, Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and Flickr to reach prospective students, current students, and alumni.^[78]

Libraries

The Johns Hopkins University Library system houses more than 3.6 million volumes.^[79] It includes ten main divisions: the Sheridan Libraries at Homewood, the Medical Institutions Libraries, the School of Nursing Library, Abraham M. Lilienfeld Library at the Bloomberg School, the Peabody Institute Library, the Carey Business School and School of Education libraries, the School of Advanced International Studies Libraries (Sydney R. and Elsa W. Mason Library and Bologna Center Library), the R.E. Gibson Library at the Applied Physics Laboratory Library and other minor satellite locations, as well as the archives.

The Milton S. Eisenhower Library, located on the Homewood campus, is the main library. It was built in the 1960s. It houses over 2.6 million volumes and over 20,000 journal subscriptions. The Eisenhower Library is a member of the university's Sheridan Libraries encompassing collections at the Albert D. Hutzler Reading Room (called "The Hut" by students) in Gilman Hall, the John Work Garrett Library at Evergreen House, and the George Peabody Library at Mount Vernon Place. Together these collections provide the major research library resources for the university, serving Johns Hopkins academic programs worldwide. The library was named for Milton S. Eisenhower, former president of the university and brother of former U.S. president Dwight D. Eisenhower. JHU's library was previously housed in Gilman Hall, and other smaller departmental libraries throughout the Homewood campus.^[80]



Milton S. Eisenhower Library

Only two of the Eisenhower library's six stories are above ground, though the architects designed the building so that every level has windows and natural light. The design accords with a bit of traditional campus lore that no structure can be taller than Gilman Hall, the oldest academic building (although no written rule limits building height). In December 2008, an addition directly to the south of the library was announced. The six-and-a-half-story expansion will be named the Brody Learning Commons in honor of University President William R. Brody and will function as a "...collaborative learning space." It is scheduled to be completed by 2012.^[81]

Research

The opportunity to participate in important research is one of the distinguishing characteristics of Hopkins' undergraduate education. About 80 percent of undergraduates perform independent research, often alongside top researchers.^{[45] [82]} In FY 2009, Johns Hopkins received \$1.856 billion in federal research grants—more than any other US university.^[9] Thirty-three (33) Nobel Prize winners have been affiliated with the university as alumni or faculty members.^[83] JHU views its academic strengths as being in art history, biological, physical and other natural sciences, biomedical engineering, creative writing, English, history, economics, international studies, medicine, music, neuroscience, nursing, political theory, public health, public policy, and the Romance languages.

Between 1999 and 2009, Johns Hopkins was among the most cited institutions in the world. It attracted nearly 1,222,166 citations and produced 54,022 papers under its name, ranking #3 globally behind Harvard University and Max Planck Society with the highest total citations published in Thomson Reuters-indexed journals over 22 fields in America.^[11]

In FY 2000, Johns Hopkins received \$95.4 million in research grants from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), making it the leading recipient of NASA research and development funding.^[84] In FY 2002, Hopkins became the first university to cross the \$1 billion threshold on either list, recording \$1.14 billion in total research and \$1.023 billion in federally sponsored research. In FY 2008, Johns Hopkins University performed \$1.68 billion in science, medical and engineering research, making it the leading U.S. academic institution in total R&D spending for the 30th year in a row, according to a National Science Foundation (NSF) ranking.^[85] These

totals include grants and expenditures of JHU's Applied Physics Laboratory in Laurel, Maryland. The Johns Hopkins University also offers the "Center for Talented Youth" program—a nonprofit organization dedicated to identifying and developing the talents of the most promising K-12 grade students worldwide. As part of the Johns Hopkins University, the "Center for Talented Youth" or CTY helps fulfill the university's mission of preparing students to make significant future contributions to the world.^[9]

Research centers and institutes

Divisional

- School of Medicine (28)^[86]
- School of Public Health (70)^[87]
- School of Nursing (2)^[88]
- School of Arts and Sciences (27)^[89]
- School of Advanced International Studies (17)^[90]
- School of Engineering (16)^[91]
- School of Education (3)^[92]
- Applied Physics Laboratory

Medical

- Johns Hopkins Hospital
- Johns Hopkins Bayview Medical Center
- Johns Hopkins Singapore International Medical Centre
- Howard County General Hospital
- Suburban Hospital
- Sibley Memorial Hospital
- All Children's Medical Center

Others

- Center for Biotechnology^[93]
- The Center for Language and Speech Processing
- Johns Hopkins Institute for Policy Studies
- The Berman Institute of Bioethics
- Johns Hopkins Information Security Institute^[94]
- Space Telescope Science Institute
- Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health Center for Communication Programs
- Center for Talented Youth- Summer institute for gifted students



Wyman Quad, home to the Whiting School of Engineering at Johns Hopkins University

Johns Hopkins University Press

The Johns Hopkins University Press is the publishing division of the Johns Hopkins University. It was founded in 1878 and holds the distinction of being the oldest continuously running university press in the United States.^[95] To date the Press has published more than 6,000 titles and currently publishes 65 scholarly periodicals and over 200 new books each year. Since 1993, the Johns Hopkins University Press has run Project MUSE, an online collection of over 250 full-text, peer-reviewed journals in the humanities and social sciences. The Press also houses the Hopkins Fulfilment Services (HFS), which handles distribution for a number of university presses and publishers. Taken together, the three divisions of the Press—Books, Journals (including MUSE) and HFS—make it one of the largest of America's university presses.

Student life

The Johns Hopkins Student Government Association represents undergraduates in campus issues and projects. It is elected annually.^[96] Blueprints for a new programming board called The Hopkins Organization for Programming ("The HOP") were drawn up during the summer and fall of 2006.

In addition Charles Village, the region of North Baltimore surrounding the university, has undergone several restoration projects, and the university has gradually bought the property around the school for additional student housing and dormitories. *The Charles Village Project*, scheduled for completion in 2008, brought new commercial spaces to the neighborhood. The project included Charles Commons, a new, modern residence hall that includes popular retail franchises.^{[97] [98]}



Students gather under the holidays lights at the yearly Lighting of the Quad, a Hopkins tradition

Hopkins invested in improving campus life with an arts complex in 2001, the Mattin Center, and a three-story sports facility, the O'Connor Recreation Center. The large on-campus dining facilities at Homewood were renovated in the summer of 2006.

Quality of life is enriched by the proximity of neighboring academic institutions, including Loyola College, Maryland Institute College of Art (MICA), UMBC, Goucher College, and Towson University, as well as nearby Inner Harbor.

Annually, the Johns Hopkins Spring Fair is held on the Homewood campus over a three day weekend in mid-to-late April. Food, arts and crafts, and non-profit vendors, along with a popular musical act and various other activities attract nearly 25,000 people from the greater Baltimore–Washington area. The Spring Fair is the largest entirely student-run fair in the country.

Housing

Living on campus is required for first- and second-year students, except for commuter students who live with a parent or legal guardian.^[99] Housing is not guaranteed for juniors or seniors at Johns Hopkins.

Freshmen housing is centered around Freshman Quad, which consists of three major residence hall complexes: The Alumni Memorial Residences (AMR I and AMR II), Building A and Building B.^[100] AMR I was built in 1923 and includes Royce, Sylvester, Vincent, Willard, Wilson and Wood houses; AMR II in 1954, holding Adams, Baker, Clark, Gildersleeve, Griffin, Hollander, Jennings, Lazear houses. The houses were named for Hopkins Alumni who died in World Wars I and II. While each house has its own outside entrance,



Freshman Residence Hall at JHU

there are no dividers indoors that distinguish them. In 1983, Buildings A and B were added to Freshmen Quad. They have not yet been dedicated. Freshmen are also housed in Wolman Hall and the terrace floor of McCoy Hall, located on the other side of North Charles Street.^[100]

Freshman enter a housing lottery in their spring semester to determine where they will live during their sophomore year. Juniors and seniors may choose between



Johns Hopkins University Campus, Schematic

entering the campus housing lottery or moving into nearby apartments or row houses. They occupy one of four buildings.^[101] The first, McCoy Hall, is located next to Wolman Hall on North Charles Street. McCoy Hall is predominantly composed of sophomores and transfer students.^[102] Apartment-style housing is offered in the Bradford Apartments, one block east of campus on St. Paul Street, and in the Homewood Apartments, two blocks south on North Charles Street.^[101] The last is Charles Commons, the newest and largest university-owned dormitory, located at the corner of North Charles and East 33rd. It was completed in 2006 to house 618 students and represented a major step by the university towards offering on-campus housing to students.^[102] Charles Commons consists of two 11-story towers connected by a bridge, residential suites and features a ballroom, fitness center and several conference rooms. Nolan's on 33rd, a dining hall specializing in dinner services, is also located in the building.^[102]

JHU rents several buildings on North Charles Street to house students when necessary. At full capacity, dormitory buildings can house approximately 60% of undergraduates. Privately-owned apartment buildings around Homewood are usually filled with Hopkins upperclassmen, so despite the lack of university-owned dormitories, housing is available.

Fraternities and Sororities

The University Office of Greek Life recognizes thirteen fraternities and eight sororities, which include approximately 25% of the student body. Greek life has been a part of the university culture since 1877, when Beta Theta Pi fraternity became the first to form a chapter on campus. Sororities arrived at Hopkins in 1982. As with all Hopkins programs, Greek discrimination on the basis of "marital status, pregnancy, race, color, ethnicity, national origin, age, disability, religion, sexual orientation, veteran status" is prohibited.^[103] JHU also has an anti-hazing policy^[104] and prohibits alcohol at recruitment activities.^[105] Hopkins does not permit "city-wide" chapters, and requires all members of a JHU recognized fraternity or sorority to be a JHU student.^[106]

As of Spring 2011, 1,208 students were members of one of Hopkins' fraternities or sororities. The All-Greek Average GPA was 3.31, above the undergraduate average GPA.^[107] In Spring 2010 the university was considering construction of a "fraternity row" of houses to consolidate the groups on campus.^[108]

All Johns Hopkins fraternities and sororities belong to one of four Councils: the **Inter-Fraternity Council**, the **National Panhellenic Conference**, the **National Pan-Hellenic Council** and the **Multicultural Council**.

The Inter-Fraternity Council includes eleven fraternities:^[109]

- ΑΔΦ – Alpha Delta Phi fraternity, *chapter founded 1889.*
- ΑΕΠ – Alpha Epsilon Pi fraternity, *Psi chapter founded 1936. Jewish interest.*
- ΒΘΠ – Beta Theta Pi fraternity, *Alpha Chi chapter founded 1877.*^[110]
- ΛΦΕ – Lambda Phi Epsilon fraternity, *Upsilon chapter founded 1994. Asian-American interest.*^[111]
- ΦΔΘ – Phi Delta Theta fraternity, *Maryland Delta chapter founded 2008.*

- ΦΙΙ – Phi Gamma Delta fraternity, *Beta Mu chapter founded 1891.*
- ΦΚΨ – Phi Kappa Psi fraternity, *Maryland Alpha chapter founded 1879.*
- ΠΚΑ – Pi Kappa Alpha fraternity, *Iota Tau chapter founded 1994.*
- ΣΑΕ – Sigma Alpha Epsilon fraternity, *Maryland Phi chapter founded 1994.*
- ΣΧ – Sigma Chi fraternity, *Kappa Upsilon chapter founded 2003.*
- ΣΦΕ – Sigma Phi Epsilon fraternity, *Maryland Alpha chapter founded 1929.*

The National Panhellenic Conference includes four sororities:^[112]

- ΑΦ – Alpha Phi sorority, *Zeta Omicron chapter founded 1982.*
- ΚΚΓ – Kappa Kappa Gamma sorority, *Eta Epsilon chapter founded 1999.*
- ΦΜ – Phi Mu sorority, *Gamma Tau chapter founded 1982.*
- ΠΒΦ – Pi Beta Phi sorority, *Maryland Gamma chartered November 20, 2010.*

The National Pan-Hellenic Council includes two historically African-American groups:^[113]

- ΑΦΑ – Alpha Phi Alpha fraternity, *Sigma Sigma chapter founded 1991.*
- ΣΓΡ – Sigma Gamma Rho sorority, *Rho Omega chapter founded 2009.*

The **Multicultural Council** includes four groups:^[114]

- αΚΔΦ – Alpha Kappa Delta Phi sorority, *associate chapter founded 1997. Asian-American interest.*
- ΔΞΦ – Delta Xi Phi sorority, *Lambda chapter founded 2003. Multicultural interest.*
- ΙΝΔ – Iota Nu Delta fraternity, *chapter founded 2008. South Asian interest.*
- ΣΟΠ – Sigma Omicron Pi sorority, *Lambda chapter founded 2002. Asian-American interest.*



Johns Hopkins University Main Campus at Homewood.

Delta Phi Fraternity, also known as St. Elmo's, maintains a chapter exclusive to students at Johns Hopkins, though it is not recognized by the Office of Greek Life.

Unrecognized Alpha Kappa Alpha and Delta Sigma Theta African-American interest sororities often recruit Johns Hopkins undergraduates, in their city-wide chapters. Delta Sigma Theta was the first **National Pan-Hellenic Council** member to charter on the campus in 1976, as well as the first sorority of any kind on the JHU campus.

Kappa Alpha Theta, a National Panhellenic Conference (NPC) sorority, was disbanded by its national headquarters on April 14, 2009 after twelve years on campus.^[115] The removal was due to repeated risk management violations.

In March 2010, Johns Hopkins University officially opened for NPC extension. In May 2010, the University Panhellenic Council selected Pi Beta Phi, which opened in the fall of 2010.^[116]

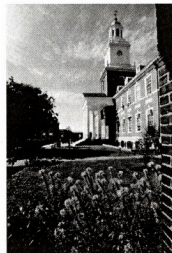
Recruitment for Inter-Fraternity Council and Panhellenic Conference fraternities and sororities takes place during the spring semester for freshmen, though some groups recruit upperclassmen during the fall semester. All participants must have completed one semester and must be in good academic standing.

Many of the fraternities maintain houses off campus, but no sororities do. Baltimore City allows housing to be zoned specifically for use as a fraternity or sorority house, but in practice this zoning code has not been awarded for at least 50 years. Only Sigma Phi Epsilon's building has this zoning code due to its consistent ownership since the 1920s.^[117]

Student publications

Hopkins has many student publications.

- *The Johns Hopkins News-Letter*, founded in 1896, is one of the oldest continuously published weekly college newspapers in the nation with a press run of 5,200.^[118] The News-Letter won a Associated Collegiate Press Newspaper Pacemaker award for four-year, non-daily college newspapers in 2007.
- *The Hopkins Donkey* is a political newspaper with a Democratic perspective on international, national and state-wide political topics.
- *The Carrollton Record* is a political newspaper with an American conservative perspective on campus and city-wide politics.^[119]
- *Epidemic Proportions* is the university's public health research journal, designed to highlight JHU research and field work in public health. Combining research and scholarship, the journal seeks to capture the breadth and depth of the JHU undergraduate public health experience.^[120]
- *Thoroughfare*, *Zeniada* and *j.mag* are literary magazines. *Prometheus* is the undergraduate philosophy journal.^[121]
- *Frame of Reference* is an annual magazine that focuses on film and film culture.^[122]
- *The New Diplomat* is the multi-disciplinary international relations journal. *Foundations* is the undergraduate history journal.^[123]
- *Américas* is the Latin American Studies journal.^[124]
- *Argot* is the undergraduate anthropology journal.^[125]
- *The Triple Helix* is the university's journal to address issues concerning science, law and society.
- *Perspectives* is the official newsletter of the *Black Student Union*.^[126]
- *The Black & Blue Jay* is among the nation's oldest campus humor magazines. It was founded in 1920.^[127] According to *The Johns Hopkins News-Letter*, the magazine's name led the News-Letter to first use the moniker Blue Jays to refer to a Hopkins athletic team in 1923.^[128] While the magazine enjoyed popularity among students, it received repeated opposition from the university administration, reportedly for its vulgar humor. In October 1934, Dean Edward R. Berry removed financial support for the magazine; without funding, the magazine continued under the name *The Blue Jay* until Berry threatened to expel the editors in 1939. The magazine had a revival in 1984, and has appeared intermittently since then.^[129]



Gilman Hall, Center for the Humanities

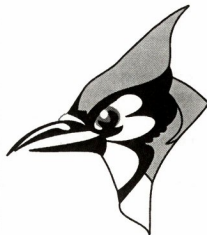
Student-Run Businesses

Hopkins Student Enterprises (HSE)^[130] is a startup incubator with the goal of fostering student innovation and encouraging the development of student-run businesses. Currently, 4 businesses are in operation:^[131]

- Hopkins Consulting Agency (HCA)—Business and technology consulting company that prepares technology commercialization reports and business plans.
- Hopkins Student Movers (HSM)—Moving and storage company that serves JHU faculty, staff, and students and the broader Baltimore community.^[132]
- Hopkins Student Creative Services (HSCS)—Full service graphic design company.^[133]
- The Blue Jay Cleaners - Student janitorial service for all on-campus and select off campus residence halls. [134]

Athletics

Athletic teams are called Blue Jays. Even though sable and gold are used for academic robes, the university's athletic colors are Columbia blue (PMS 284) and black.^[135] Hopkins celebrates Homecoming in the spring to coincide with the height of the lacrosse season. The Men's and Women's lacrosse teams are in National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I. Other teams are in Division III and participate in the Centennial Conference. JHU is also home to the Lacrosse Museum and National Hall of Fame, maintained by US Lacrosse.



Athletics logo

Men's lacrosse

The school's most prominent team is its men's lacrosse team. The team does not belong to a conference. The team has won 44 national titles – nine Division I (2007, 2005, 1987, 1985, 1984, 1980, 1979, 1978, 1974), 29 United States Intercollegiate Lacrosse Association (USILA), and six Intercollegiate Lacrosse Association (ILA) titles. Hopkins' primary national rivals are Princeton University, Syracuse University, and the University of Virginia; its primary intrastate rivals are Loyola College (competing in what is called the "Charles Street Massacre"), Towson University, the United States Naval Academy, and the University of Maryland. The rivalry with Maryland is the oldest. The schools have met 103 times since 1899, twice in playoff matches.



Johns Hopkins Men's Lacrosse at Homewood Field

Women's lacrosse

The women's team is a member of the American Lacrosse Conference (ALC). The team is developing into a top twenty team. The Lady Blue Jays were ranked number 19 in the 2008 Inside Lacrosse Women's DI Media Poll (ILWDIMP). They ranked number 8 in both the 2007 Intercollegiate Women's Lacrosse Coaches Association (IWLCA) Poll for Division I and the ILWDIMP. In 2006, they were ranked 14th in the ILWDIMP, in 2005, they were 11th, and, in 2004, they were 9th. However, recently the team has struggled and finished with a record of 5 wins and 12 losses in the 2009 season.

Other teams

Hopkins has notable Division III Athletic teams. In 2009–2010, Hopkins won 8 Centennial Conference titles in Women's Cross Country, Women's Track & Field, Baseball, Men's and Women's Soccer, Football, and Men's and Women's Tennis. The Women's Cross Country team became the first women's team at Hopkins to achieve a #1 National ranking. In 2006–2007 teams won Centennial Conference titles in Baseball, Men's and Women's Soccer, Men's and Women's Tennis and Men's Basketball. Hopkins has an acclaimed fencing team, which ranked in the top

three Division III teams in the past few years and in both 2008 and 2007 defeated the University of North Carolina, a Division I team. In 2008, they defeated UNC and won the MACFA championship. The Swimming team ranked in the top two of Division III for the last 10 years.

The Men's Swimming team placed second at DIII Nationals in 2008. The Water Polo team was number one in Division III for several of the past years, playing a full schedule against Division I opponents. Hopkins also has a century-old rivalry with McDaniel College (formerly Western Maryland College), playing the Green Terrors 83 times in football since the first game in 1894. In 2009 the football team reached the quarterfinals of the NCAA Division III tournament. In 2008, the baseball team ranked second, losing in the final game of the DIII College World Series to Trinity College.^[136]

Notable alumni, faculty and staff

Nobel laureates

As of 2011, there had been 37 Nobel Laureates, who attended the university as undergraduate students, graduate students or were faculty members.^[137] Woodrow Wilson, who received his PhD from Johns Hopkins in 1886, was Hopkins' first affiliated laureate, winning the Nobel Peace Prize in 1919.^[137] ^[138] Twenty-three laureates were faculty members, five earned PhDs, eight earned M.D. while Francis Peyton Rous and Martin Rodbell earned undergraduate degrees.

Eighteen Johns Hopkins laureates have won the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine, more than any other category.^[137] Four Nobel Prizes were shared by Johns Hopkins laureates: George Minot and George Whipple won the 1934 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine,^[139] Joseph Erlanger and Herbert Spencer Gasser won the 1944 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine,^[140] Daniel Nathans and Hamilton O. Smith won the 1978 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine,^[141] and David H. Hubel and Torsten N. Wiesel won the 1981 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine.^[142]

See also

- Johns Hopkins University in Popular Culture
- DirectHit - pharmacodiagnostic test for breast cancer developed by researchers from Johns Hopkins University

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External links

- Official website (<http://http://www.jhu.edu>)
- Official athletics website (<http://hopkinssports.ocsn.com/>)

International_Monetary_Fund

International Monetary Fund	
	
Official Logo for the IMF	
Formation	Adopted: July 22, 1944 Entered into force: December 27, 1945
Type	International Economic Organization
Headquarters	Washington, D.C. United States
Membership	185 Nations (Founding); 187 Nations (To Date)
Official languages	English, French, and Spanish
Managing Director	Christine Lagarde
Main organ	Board of Governors
Website	http://www.imf.org

The **International Monetary Fund (IMF)** is an organization of 187 countries, working to foster global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth, and reduce poverty around the world.^[1] The organization's stated objectives are to promote international economic cooperation, international trade, employment, and exchange rate stability, including by making resources available to member countries to meet balance of payments needs.^[2] Its headquarters are in Washington, D.C..

The IMF was conceived on July 22, 1944 originally with 45 members and came into existence on December 27, 1945 when 29 countries signed the agreement,^[3] with a goal to stabilize exchange rates and assist the reconstruction of the world's international payment system. Countries contributed to a pool which could be borrowed from, on a temporary basis, by countries with payment imbalances. The IMF works to improve the economies of its member countries.^[4] The IMF describes itself as "an organization of 187 countries (as of July 2010), working to foster global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth, and reduce poverty."

Membership

The members of the IMF are the 187 members of the UN and Kosovo.^{[6][7]}

Former members are Cuba (which left in 1964)^[8] and the Republic of China which was ejected from the UN after losing support of then U.S. President Jimmy Carter, and replaced by the People's Republic of China in 1980.^[9]

The other non-members are North Korea, Andorra, Monaco, Liechtenstein, Nauru, Cook Islands, Niue, Vatican City, and the rest of the states with limited recognition.

Some members have a very difficult relationship with the IMF and even when they are still members they do not allow to be monitored. Argentina for example refuses to participate in an Article IV Consultation with the IMF.

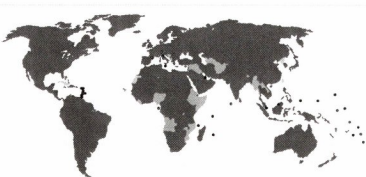
All member states participate directly in the IMF. Member states are represented on a 24-member executive board (five executive directors are appointed by the five members with the largest quotas, nineteen executive directors are elected by the remaining members), and all members appoint a governor to the IMF's board of governors. The powers of the other countries within the organization are represented on a proportional scale to their population and economic rank in the world. The Executive board are the general owners of the IMF and can control major decisions within the organization, but all other member countries are represented on the population, economic scale. For further in depth information and a guide to the proportions and numbers associated with deciding the voting rights of the other countries please reference "Power distribution analysis in the international monetary fund." "Automation & Remote Control".^[10]

All members of the IMF are also International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) members and vice versa.

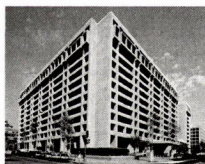
History

The International Monetary Fund was conceived on July 22, 1944 during the United Nations Monetary and Financial Conference. The representatives of 45 governments met in the Mount Washington Hotel in the area of Bretton Woods, New Hampshire, United States, with the delegates to the conference agreeing on a framework for international economic cooperation.^[11] The IMF was formally organized on December 27, 1945, when the first 29 countries signed its Articles of Agreement. The statutory purposes of the IMF today are the same as when they were formulated in 1943 (*see #Assistance and reforms*).

The IMF's influence in the global economy steadily increased as it accumulated more members. The number of IMF member countries has more than quadrupled from the 44 states involved in its establishment, reflecting in particular the attainment of political independence by many developing countries and more recently the dissolution in 1991 of the Soviet Union. The expansion of the IMF's membership, together with the changes in the world economy, have required the IMF to



IMF member states IMF member states not accepting the obligations of Article VIII, Sections 2, 3, and 4 Articles of Agreement of the International Monetary Fund, Article VIII - General Obligations of MembersSection 2: Avoidance of restrictions on current payments; Section 3: Avoidance of discriminatory currency practices;Section 4: Convertibility of foreign-held balances.



IMF "Headquarters 1" in Washington, D.C.

adapt in a variety of ways to continue serving its purposes effectively.

In 2008, faced with a shortfall in revenue, the International Monetary Fund's executive board agreed to sell part of the IMF's gold reserves. On April 27, 2008, former IMF Managing Director Dominique Strauss-Kahn welcomed the board's decision of April 7, 2008, to propose a new framework for the fund, designed to close a projected \$400 million budget deficit over the next few years. The budget proposal includes sharp spending cuts of \$100 million until 2011 that will include up to 380 staff dismissals.^[12]

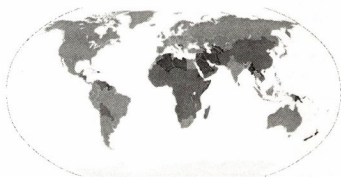
At the 2009 G-20 London summit, it was decided that the IMF would require additional financial resources to meet prospective needs of its member countries during the ongoing global financial crisis. As part of that decision, the G-20 leaders pledged to increase the IMF's supplemental cash tenfold to \$500 billion, and to allocate to member countries another \$250 billion via Special Drawing Rights.^{[13] [14]}

On October 23, 2010, the ministers of finance of G-20, governing most of the IMF member quotas, agreed to reform IMF and shift about 6 percent of the voting shares to major developing nations and countries with emerging markets.^[15]

As of August 2010, Romania (\$13.9 billion), Ukraine (\$12.66 billion), Hungary (\$11.7 billion), and Greece (\$30 billion) are the largest borrowers of the fund.^[16]

Data Dissemination Systems

In 1995 the International Monetary Fund began work on data dissemination standards with the view of guiding IMF member countries to disseminate their economic and financial data to the public. The International Monetary and Financial Committee (IMFC) endorsed the guidelines for the dissemination standards and they were split into two tiers: The General Data Dissemination System (GDDS) and the Special Data Dissemination Standard (SDDS).



IMF International Monetary Fund#Data Dissemination SystemsData Dissemination Systems participants: IMF member using SDDS IMF member, using GDDS IMF member, not using any of the DDSsystems non-IMF entity using SDDS non-IMF entity using GDDS no interaction with the IMF







The International Monetary Fund executive board approved the SDDS and GDDS in 1996 and 1997 respectively, and subsequent amendments were published in a revised "Guide to the General Data Dissemination System." The system is aimed primarily at statisticians and aims to improve many aspects of statistical systems in a country. It is also part of the World Bank Millennium Development Goals and Poverty Reduction Strategic Papers.

The IMF established a system and standard to guide members in the dissemination to the public of their economic and financial data. Currently there are two such systems: GDDS and its superset SDDS, for those member countries having or seeking access to international capital markets.

The primary objective of the GDDS is to encourage IMF member countries to build a framework to improve data quality and increase statistical capacity building. This will involve the preparation of meta data describing current statistical collection practices and setting improvement plans. Upon building a framework, a country can evaluate statistical needs, set priorities in improving the timeliness, transparency, reliability and accessibility of financial and economic data.

Some countries initially used the GDDS, but later upgraded to SDDS.

Some entities that are not themselves IMF members also contribute statistical data to the systems:

-  Palestinian National Authority – GDDS
-  Hong Kong – SDDS
-  Macau – GDDS^[17]
-  European Union institutions:
 - the European Central Bank for the Eurozone – SDDS
 - Eurostat for the whole EU – SDDS, thus providing data from  Cyprus (not using any DDS system on its own) and  Malta (using only GDDS on its own)

Member states

Membership qualifications

The application will be considered first by the IMF's executive board. After its consideration, the board will submit a report to the board of governors of the IMF with recommendations in the form of a "membership resolution." These recommendations cover the amount of quota in the IMF, the form of payment of the subscription, and other customary terms and conditions of membership.^[18] After the board of governors has adopted the membership Resolution, the applicant state needs to take the legal steps required under its own law to enable it to sign the IMF's Articles of Agreement and to fulfill the obligations of IMF membership.



IMF "Headquarters 2" in Washington, D.C.

Similarly, any member country can withdraw from the Fund, although that is rare. For example, in April 2007, the president of Ecuador, Rafael Correa, announced the expulsion of the World Bank representative in the country. A few days later, at the end of April, Venezuelan president Hugo Chavez announced that the country would withdraw from the IMF and the World Bank. Chavez dubbed both organizations as "the tools of the empire" that "serve the interests of the North."^[19] As of June 2009, both countries remain as members of both organizations. The government of Venezuela was forced to back down because a withdrawal would have triggered default clauses in the country's sovereign bonds.

A member's quota in the IMF determines the amount of its subscription, its voting weight, its access to IMF financing, and its allocation of Special Drawing Rights (SDRs). A member state cannot unilaterally increase its quota—increases must be approved by the Executive Board of IMF and are linked to formulas that include many variables such as the size of a country in the world economy. For example, in 2001, the People's Republic of China was prevented from increasing its quota as high as it wished, ensuring it remained at the level of the smallest G7 economy (Canada).^[20]

In September 2005 the IMF's member countries agreed to the first round of ad-hoc quota increases for four countries, including China. On March 28, 2008, the IMF's executive board ended a period of extensive discussion and negotiation over a major package of reforms to enhance the institution's governance that would shift quota and voting shares from advanced to emerging markets and developing countries. Under existing arrangements, the industrialized countries (including Mexico) hold 57 per cent of the IMF votes. But the financial crisis has tilted control away from heavily indebted mature economies, such as the United States and the United Kingdom, in favour of the fast-growing, cash-rich, so-called BRIC economies of Brazil, Russia, India, and China.^[21]

In May 2011 the IMF's Leader Dominique Strauss-Kahn was arrested which opened the IMF's and world bank spot for a new leader.^[22] This being said they were really looking for some change to open things up to other countries to lead, and to get a voting system changed around. The voting system gives bigger countries more votes, but also helps

Small Developing countries have a bigger say due to their economic growth.^[23]


















Since the United States has by far the largest share of votes (approx. 17 percent) amongst IMF members (see table below), it has little to lose relative to European nations. At the 2009 G-20 Pittsburgh summit, the U.S. raised the possibility that some European countries would reduce their votes in favour of increasing the votes for emerging economies. However, both France and Britain were particularly reluctant as an increase in China's votes would mean China now has more votes than the UK and France. At a subsequent IMF meeting in Istanbul, the same month as the Pittsburgh Summit, former IMF managing director Dominique Strauss-Kahn then highlighted that "If we don't correct them, we'll have the recipe for the next major crisis."^[24] Citing the seriousness of the issue to be tackled.




Members' quotas and voting power, and board of governors

Major decisions require an 85 percent supermajority.^[25] The United States has always been the only country able to block a supermajority on its own. The following table shows the top 20 member states in terms of voting power (2,220,817 votes in total). The 27 member states of the European Union have a combined vote of 710,786 (32.07 percent).^[26]

On October 23, 2010, the ministers of finance of G-20, governing most of the IMF member quotas, agreed to reform IMF and shift about 6 percent of the voting shares to major developing nations and countries with emerging markets.^[15]

Members' quotas and voting power, and board of governors (Note: Voting shares before the changes made on July, 2011)

IMF member country	Quota: millions of SDRs	Quota: percentage of total	Governor	Alternative Governor	Votes: number	Votes: percentage of total
 United States	42,122.4	17.72	Timothy Geithner	Ben Bernanke	421,964	16.77
 Japan	15,628.5	6.57	Yoshihiko Noda	Masaaki Shirakawa	157,025	6.24
 Germany	14,565.5	6.13	Jens Weidmann	Wolfgang Schäuble	146,395	5.82
 United Kingdom	10,738.5	4.52	George Osborne	Sir Mervyn King	108,125	4.30
 France	10,738.5	4.52	François Baroin	Christian Noyer	108,125	4.30
 China	9,525.9	4.01	Zhou Xiaochuan	Yi Gang	95,999	3.82
 Italy	7,882.3	3.32	Giulio Tremonti	Ignazio Visco	79,563	3.16
 Saudi Arabia	6,985.5	2.94	Ibrahim A. Al-Assaf	Fiamad Al-Sayari	70,595	2.81
 India	5,821.5	2.75	Pranab Mukherjee	Duvvuri Subbarao	58,955	2.34
 Canada	6,369.2	2.68	Jim Flaherty	Mark Carney	64,432	2.56
 Russia	5,945.4	2.50	Aleksei Kudrin	Sergey Ignatyev	60,194	2.39
 Netherlands	5,162.4	2.17	Klaas Knot	L.B.J. van Geest	52,364	2.08
 Belgium	4,605.2	1.94	Guy Quaden	Jean-Pierre Arnould	46,792	1.86
 Brazil	4,250.5	1.79	Guido Mantega	Alexandre Tombini	43,245	1.72
 Spain	4,023.4	1.69	Elena Salgado	Miguel Fernández Ordóñez	40,974	1.63
 Mexico	3,625.7	1.52	Agustín Carstens	Guillermo Ortiz	36,997	1.47
 Switzerland	3,458.5	1.45	Philipp Hildebrand	Eveline Widmer-Schlumpf	35,325	1.40

 South Korea	3,366.4	1.42	Okyu Kwon	Seong Tae Lee	34,404	1.37
 Australia	3,236.4	1.36	Wayne Swan	Martin Parkinson	33,104	1.32
 Venezuela	2,659.1	1.12	Gastón Parra Luzardo	Rodrigo Cabeza Morales	27,331	1.09
remaining 166 countries	62,593.8	28.79	respective	respective	667,438	30.05

Assistance and reforms

The primary mission of the IMF is to provide financial assistance to countries that experience serious financial and economic difficulties using funds deposited with the IMF from the institution's 187 member countries. Member states with balance of payments problems, which often arise from these difficulties, may request loans to help fill gaps between what countries earn and/or are able to borrow from other official lenders and what countries must spend to operate, including to cover the cost of importing basic goods and services. In return, countries are usually required to launch structural adjustment programs (SAPs), which have often been dubbed the Washington Consensus.

These reforms are thought to be beneficial to countries with fixed exchange rate policies that may engage in fiscal, monetary, and political practices that may lead to the crisis itself. For example, nations with severe budget deficits, rampant inflation, strict price controls, or significantly overvalued or undervalued currencies run the risk of facing balance-of-payment crises. Thus, the structural adjustment programs are at least ostensibly intended to ensure that the IMF is actually helping to prevent financial crises rather than merely funding financial recklessness.

Following the recent economic crisis, the IMF has attempted to help emerging economies deal with large capital outflows.^[27]

Criticism

Two criticisms from economists have been that financial aid is always bound to so-called Conditionalitys, including SAPs. It is claimed that conditionalitys (economic performance targets established as a precondition for IMF loans) retard social stability and hence inhibit the stated goals of the IMF, while Structural Adjustment Programs lead to an increase in poverty in recipient countries.^[28]

The IMF sometimes advocates "austerity programmes," cutting public spending and increasing taxes even when the economy is weak, in order to bring budgets closer to a balance, thus reducing budget deficits. Countries are often advised to lower their corporate tax rate. In *Globalization and Its Discontents*, Joseph E. Stiglitz, former chief economist and senior vice president at the World Bank, criticizes these policies.^[29] He argues that by converting to a more monetarist approach, the purpose of the fund is no longer valid, as it was designed to provide funds for countries to carry out Keynesian reflations, and that the IMF "was not participating in a conspiracy, but it was reflecting the interests and ideology of the Western financial community."^[30] If they do not look for a restructure they are looking at their resources to run out.^[31] A restructure of maybe how much they loan out or maybe even looking at the possibilities just trying to help countries when they need help for major things and not small and minor things. If they keep doing small help here and there it is just dwindling what they have and its just running what resources they have out.

"When the IMF arrives in a country, they are interested in only one thing. How do we make sure the banks and financial institutions are paid?... It is the IMF that keeps the [financial] speculators in business. They're not interested in development, or what helps a country to get out of poverty."

—Joseph Stiglitz^[32]

Overseas Development Institute (ODI) research undertaken in 1980 pointed to five main criticisms of the IMF. Firstly, developed countries were seen to have a more dominant role and control over less developed countries (LDCs) primarily due to the Western bias towards a capitalist form of the world economy with professional staff being Western trained and believing in the efficacy of market-oriented policies.

Secondly, the Fund worked on the incorrect assumption that all payments disequilibria were caused domestically. The Group of 24 (G-24), on behalf of LDC members, and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) complained that the Fund did not distinguish sufficiently between disequilibria with predominantly external as opposed to internal causes. This criticism was voiced in the aftermath of the 1973 oil crisis. Then LDCs found themselves with payments deficits due to adverse changes in their terms of trade, with the Fund prescribing stabilisation programmes similar to those suggested for deficits caused by government over-spending. Faced with long-term, externally-generated disequilibria, the Group of 24 argued that LDCs should be allowed more time to adjust their economies and that the policies needed to achieve such adjustment are different from demand-management programmes devised primarily with internally generated disequilibria in mind.

The third criticism was that the effects of Fund policies were anti-developmental. The deflationary effects of IMF programmes quickly led to losses of output and employment in economies where incomes were low and unemployment was high. Moreover, it was sometimes claimed that the burden of the deflationary effects was borne disproportionately by the poor.

Fourthly is the accusation that harsh policy conditions were self-defeating where a vicious circle developed when members refused loans due to harsh conditionality, making their economy worse and eventually taking loans as a drastic medicine.

Lastly is the point that the Fund's policies lack a clear economic rationale. Its policy foundations were theoretical and unclear due to differing opinions and departmental rivalries whilst dealing with countries with widely varying economic circumstances.

ODI conclusions were that the Fund's very nature of promoting market-oriented economic approach attracted unavoidable criticism, as LDC governments were likely to object when in a tight corner. Yet, on the other hand, the Fund could provide a 'scapegoat service' where governments could take loans as a last resort, whilst blaming international bankers for any economic downfall. The ODI conceded that the fund was to some extent insensitive to political aspirations of LDCs, while its policy conditions were inflexible.^[33]

Argentina, which had been considered by the IMF to be a model country in its compliance to policy proposals by the Bretton Woods institutions, experienced a catastrophic economic crisis in 2001,^[34] which some believe to have been caused by IMF-induced budget restrictions—which undercut the government's ability to sustain national infrastructure even in crucial areas such as health, education, and security—and privatization of strategically vital national resources.^[35] Others attribute the crisis to Argentina's misdesigned fiscal federalism, which caused subnational spending to increase rapidly.^[36] The crisis added to widespread hatred of this institution in Argentina and other South American countries, with many blaming the IMF for the region's economic problems.^[37] The current—as of early 2006—trend toward moderate left-wing governments in the region and a growing concern with the development of a regional economic policy largely independent of big business pressures has been ascribed to this crisis.

In an interview, the former Romanian Prime Minister Călin Popescu-Tăriceanu claimed that "Since 2005, IMF is constantly making mistakes when it appreciates the country's economic performances."^[38]

The delay in the IMF's response to any crisis, and the fact that it tends to only respond to them rather than prevent them, has led many economists to argue for reform. In 2006 an IMF reform agenda called the Medium Term Strategy was widely endorsed by the institution's member countries. The agenda includes changes in IMF governance to enhance the role of developing countries in the institution's decision-making process and steps to deepen the effectiveness of its core mandate, which is known as economic surveillance or helping member countries adopt macroeconomic policies that will sustain global growth and reduce poverty. On June 15, 2007, the executive

board of the IMF adopted the 2007 Decision on Bilateral Surveillance, a landmark measure that replaced a 30-year-old decision of the Fund's member countries on how the IMF should analyze economic outcomes at the country level.

Support of military dictatorships

The role of the Bretton Woods institutions has been controversial since the late Cold War period, due to claims that the IMF policy makers supported military dictatorships friendly to American and European corporations and other anti-communist regimes. Critics also claim that the IMF is generally apathetic or hostile to their views of human rights, and labor rights. The controversy has helped spark the Anti-globalization movement.

Arguments in favor of the IMF say that economic stability is a precursor to democracy; however, critics highlight various examples in which democratized countries fell after receiving IMF loans.^[39]

Impact on access to food

A number of civil society organizations^[40] have criticized the IMF's policies for their impact on people's access to food, particularly in developing countries. In October 2008, former U.S. president Bill Clinton presented a speech to the United Nations World Food Day, which criticized the World Bank and IMF for their policies on food and agriculture:

We need the World Bank, the IMF, all the big foundations, and all the governments to admit that, for 30 years, we all blew it, including me when I was president. We were wrong to believe that food was like some other product in international trade, and we all have to go back to a more responsible and sustainable form of agriculture.

—Former U.S. president Bill Clinton, Speech at United Nations World Food Day, October 16, 2008^[41]

Impact on public health

In 2008 a study by analysts from Cambridge and Yale universities published on the open-access Public Library of Science concluded that strict conditions on the international loans by the IMF resulted in thousands of deaths in Eastern Europe by tuberculosis as public health care had to be weakened. In the 21 countries to which the IMF had given loans, tuberculosis deaths rose by 16.6%.^[42]

In 2009, a book by Rick Rowden titled *The Deadly Ideas of Neoliberalism: How the IMF has Undermined Public Health and the Fight Against AIDS*, claimed that the IMF's monetarist approach towards prioritizing price stability (low inflation) and fiscal restraint (low budget deficits) was unnecessarily restrictive and has prevented developing countries from being able to scale up long-term public investment as a percent of GDP in the underlying public health infrastructure. The book claimed the consequences have been chronically underfunded public health systems, leading to dilapidated health infrastructure, inadequate numbers of health personnel, and demoralizing working conditions that have fueled the "push factors" driving the brain drain of nurses migrating from poor countries to rich ones, all of which has undermined public health systems and the fight against HIV/AIDS in developing countries.^[43]

Impact on environment

IMF policies have been repeatedly criticized for making it difficult for indebted countries to avoid ecosystem-damaging projects that generate cash flow, in particular oil, coal, and forest-destroying lumber and agriculture projects. Ecuador for example had to defy IMF advice repeatedly in order to pursue the protection of its rain forests, though paradoxically this need was cited in IMF argument to support that country. The IMF acknowledged this paradox in a March 2010 staff position report^[44] which proposed the IMF Green Fund, a mechanism to issue Special Drawing Rights directly to pay for climate harm prevention and potentially other ecological protection as pursued generally by other environmental finance.

While the response to these moves was generally positive^[45] possibly because ecological protection and energy and infrastructure transformation are more politically neutral than pressures to change social policy. Some experts voiced concern that the IMF was not representative, and that the IMF proposals to generate only US\$200 billion a year by 2020 with the SDRs as seed funds, did not go far enough to undo the general incentive to pursue destructive projects inherent in the world commodity trading and banking systems—criticisms often leveled at the World Trade Organization and large global banking institutions.

In the context of the May 2010 European banking crisis, some observers also noted that Spain and California, two troubled economies within Europe and the United States respectively, and also Germany, the primary and politically most fragile supporter of a euro currency bailout would benefit from IMF recognition of their leadership in green technology, and directly from Green Fund-generated demand for their exports, which might also improve their credit standing with international bankers.

Criticism from free-market advocates

Typically the IMF and its supporters advocate a monetarist approach. As such, adherents of supply-side economics generally find themselves in open disagreement with the IMF. The IMF frequently advocates currency devaluation, criticized by proponents of supply-side economics as inflationary.

Currency devaluation is recommended by the IMF to the governments of poor nations with struggling economies. Some economists claim these IMF policies are destructive to economic prosperity.^[46]

Managing director

Historically the IMF's managing director has been European and the president of the World Bank has been from the United States. However, this standard is increasingly being questioned and competition for these two posts may soon open up to include other qualified candidates from any part of the world.^[47] Executive directors, who confirm the managing director, are voted in by finance ministers from countries they represent. The first deputy managing director of the IMF, the second in command, has traditionally been (and is today) an American.

The IMF is for the most part controlled by the major Western powers, with voting rights on the executive board based on a quota derived from the relative size of a country in the global economy. Critics claim that the board rarely votes and passes issues contradicting the will of the U.S. or Europeans, which combined represent the largest bloc of shareholders in the Fund. By contrast, executive directors that represent emerging and developing countries have many times strongly defended the group of nations in their constituency. Alexandre Kafka, who represented several Latin American countries for 32 years as Executive Director (including 21 as the dean of the Board), is a prime example.

EU ministers agreed on the candidacy of Dominique Strauss-Kahn, Socialist Party MP and former finance minister in France,^[49] as managing director of the IMF at the Economic and Financial Affairs Council meeting in Brussels on July 10, 2007. On September 28, 2007, the International Monetary Fund's 24 executive directors elected Dominic Strauss-Kahn as new managing director, with broad support including from the United States and the 27-nation European Union. Strauss-Kahn succeeded Spain's Rodrigo Rato, who retired on October 31, 2007.^[50]

The only other nominee was Josef Tošovský, a late candidate proposed by Russia. Strauss-Kahn said: "I am determined to pursue without delay the reforms needed for the IMF to make financial stability serve the international community, while fostering growth and employment."^[51]

In April 2011, press reports linked the former United Kingdom prime minister Gordon Brown with the role as the next managing director of the International Monetary Fund. However, these reports received mixed reception. Ed Miliband, who succeeded Brown as the Labour Party's leader after their 2010 general election defeat, backed Brown for the role as his handling of the global economic crisis three years earlier had been "outstanding." However, the new Conservative prime minister David Cameron spoke of the possibility that he would veto Brown from taking the

position.^{[52] [53]}

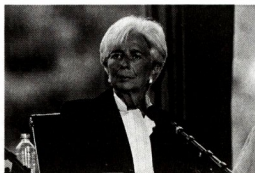
The IMF announced on May 15, 2011 that John Lipsky had become acting managing director.^[54] This was because of Strauss-Kahn's arrest in connection with charges of sexually assaulting a New York room attendant. Strauss-Kahn subsequently resigned his position on May 18.^[55]

On June 14, the IMF announced two candidates had been shortlisted for the post. These were Agustín Carstens, governor of the Mexican central bank, and Christine Lagarde, French finance minister.^[56]

Early in the contest the world's largest developing countries, the BRIC nations, issued an unusual statement declaring that the tradition of appointing a European as managing director undermined the legitimacy of the IMF and called for the appointment to be merit-based.^{[48] [57]}

The Wall Street Journal noted that the U.S. faced a delicate dilemma in backing a candidate. On the one hand it had advocated for more emerging-market representation and governance reform, a position favoring Agustín Carstens. On the other hand, it would wish to maintain its hold on its appointment of the No. 2 spot at the fund and its selection of the head of the World Bank, a position favoring Christine Lagarde.^[58]

In the event, the U.S. came out in favour of Lagarde, along with the BRIC nations Brazil, Russia, India and China, and on June 28 Lagarde was accordingly confirmed Managing Director of the IMF for a five-year term, starting on July 5, 2011.^{[59] [60]}



On June 28, 2011, Christine Lagarde was named Managing Director of the IMF, replacing Dominique Strauss-Kahn.

Dates	Name	Nationality
May 6, 1946 – May 5, 1951	Camille Gutt	 Belgium
August 3, 1951 – October 3, 1956	Ivar Rooth	 Sweden
November 21, 1956 – May 5, 1963	Per Jacobsson	 Sweden
September 1, 1963 – August 31, 1973	Pierre-Paul Schweitzer	 France
September 1, 1973 – June 16, 1978	Johannes Witteveen	 Netherlands
June 17, 1978 – January 15, 1987	Jacques de Larosière	 France
January 16, 1987 – February 14, 2000	Michel Camdessus	 France
May 1, 2000 – March 4, 2004	Horst Köhler	 Germany
June 7, 2004 – October 31, 2007	Rodrigo Rato	 Spain
November 1, 2007 – May 18, 2011	Dominique Strauss-Kahn	 France
July 5, 2011 –	Christine Lagarde	 France

Departments

Europe

The head of the IMF's European department is António Borges of Portugal, former deputy governor of the Bank of Portugal. He was elected October 2010.^[61]

Security

The computer systems of the IMF were breached by hackers on 12 June 2011 after an assault lasting several months. The chief information officer of the IMF stated in an internal memo that they "have no reason to believe that any personal information was sought for fraud purposes."^[62] The US Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) is investigating the attacks, which officials from the IMF said was conducted by "hackers believed to be connected to a foreign government."^[63]

In the media

Life and Debt, a documentary film, deals with the IMF's policies' influence on Jamaica and its economy from a critical point of view. *Debtocracy*, a 2011 independent Greek documentary film, also takes a look into the IMF and its tactics when it comes to providing financial help to indebted nations, taking a negative stand against the organization.

See also

African Monetary Fund

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- Official website (<http://www.imf.org/external/index.htm>)
- IFIWatchNet (<http://ifiwatchnet.org/>) (Web resource for analysis and commentary critical of the IMF and similar institutions)
- IMF-Supported Macroeconomic Policies and the World Recession: A Look at Forty-One Borrowing Countries (<http://www.cepr.net/documents/publications/imf-2009-10.pdf>), from the Center for Economic and Policy Research, October 2009

ru:Міжнародний валютний фонд

Parliament_of_Georgia

Parliament of Georgia საქართველოს პარლამენტი <i>sakartvelos parlament'i</i>	
	
Type	
Type	Unicameral
Leadership	
Chairperson	David Bakradze since 7 June 2008
Structure	
Members	150
	
Political groups	UNM (119) Republican Party of Georgia (2) Unified Opposition (17) Christian Democrats (6) Labour Party (6)
Elections	
Voting system	75 by proportional party list 75 by single-member constituencies
Last election	21 May 2008
Meeting place	
	
Parliament of Georgia 8 Rustaveli Avenue Tbilisi	
Website	

Parliament of Georgia (Georgian: საქართველოს პარლამენტი, *sakartvelos parlament'i*) is the supreme legislature of Georgia. It is unicameral and has 150 members, known as *deputies*, from which 75 members are proportional representatives and 75 are elected through single-member district plurality system, representing their constituencies. All members of the Parliament are elected for four years on the basis of universal human suffrage.

The Constitution of Georgia grants Parliament of Georgia central legislative power, which is limited by the Parliaments of the autonomous republics of Adjara and Abkhazia.

Slightly predating the Magna Carta in the United Kingdom, an idea of limiting the royal power and creating a parliamentary-type body of government was conceived among the aristocrats and citizens in the 12th century Kingdom of Georgia, during the reign of Queen Tamar, the first Georgian female monarch.

History

In the view Queen Tamar's oppositionists and their leader, Qutlu Arslan (a Georgian Simon de Montfort), the first Georgian Parliament was to be formed of two "Chambers": a) *Darbazi* – or assembly of aristocrats and influential citizens who would meet from time to time to take decisions on the processes occurring in the country, the implementation of these decisions devolving on the monarch b) *Karavi* – a body in permanent session between the meetings of the Darbazi. The confrontation ended in the victory of the supporters of unlimited royal power. Qutlu Arslan was arrested on the Queen's order.

Subsequently, it was only in 1906 that the Georgians were afforded the opportunity of sending their representatives to a Parliamentary body of Government, to the Second State Duma (from 1801 Georgia had been incorporated in the Russian Empire). Georgian deputies to the Duma were Noe Zhordania (later the President of independent Georgia in 1918-21), Ilia Chavchavadze (founder of the Georgian National Movement), Irakli Tsereteli (leader of the Social-Democratic Faction in the Second Duma, later Minister of Internal Affairs of Russia's Provisional Government), Karlo Chkheidze (leader of the Menshevik Faction in the Fourth State Duma, Chairman of the first convocation of the Central Executive Committee of the All-Russian Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies in 1917, and Chairman of the Trans-Caucasian Sejm in 1918), and others.

In 1918 the first Georgian National Parliament was founded in the already independent Georgia. In 1921 the Parliament adopted the first Georgian Constitution. However, shortly after the adoption of the Constitution, Georgia was occupied by the Bolshevik Red Army. This was followed by a gap of 69 years in the Parliamentary Government in Georgian history. The construction of the parliament building started in 1938 and completed in 1953, when Georgia was still a part of Soviet Union. It was designed by architects Victor Kokorin and Giorgi Lezhava.^[2]

The first multiparty Elections in the Soviet Union were held in Georgia on October 28, 1990. The elected Supreme Soviet (the name of the simulated and pseudo-Parliament in the former Soviet Union) proclaimed the independence of Georgia). On May 26, 1991 Georgia's population elected the Chairman of the Supreme Council Zviad Gamsakhurdia as President of the country.

The tension between the ruling and opposition parties gradually intensified, which in 1991-92 developed into an armed conflict. The President left the country, the Supreme Soviet ceased to function and power was taken over by the Military Council.

In 1992, former Minister of Foreign Affairs of Soviet Union Eduard Shevardnadze returned to Georgia, assuming Chairmanship of the Military Council which was reconstituted into a State Security Council. The State Council restored Georgia's Constitution of 1921, announcing August 4, 1992 as the day of parliamentary elections.

In 1995, the newly elected Parliament adopted a new Constitution. Georgia now has a semi-presidential system with a unicameral parliament. In 2011 Mikheil Saakashvili the president of Georgia signed the amendment of constitution which located the parliament in Kutaisi.

Structure

The Georgian Parliament is the country's Supreme representative body which effects legislative authority, determines the main directions of the country's home and foreign policy, controls the activity of the Government within limits defined by the Constitution and exercises other rights.

The Parliament is chaired by its speaker. Zurab Zhvania held the post of speaker from November 1995 until he broke with then-President Eduard Shevardnadze and resigned from the post on November 1, 2001. At the close of a "marathon" session, Nino Burjanadze was elected speaker on November 10, 2001.^[3] She was the speaker until the parliament elected in 2008 convened, as she had chosen not to run in the 2008 parliamentary elections. Davit Bakradze, who headed the ruling National Movement's party list in the 2008 parliamentary elections, was elected Speaker of the 2008 parliament.

Passage of a Draft Law in the Parliament

According to the Constitution, the President of Georgia, a Parliamentary committee, a Parliamentary faction, a member of the parliament, the supreme representative bodies of Abkhazia and Ajaria, or not less than 30,000 electors have the right to initiate legislation.

Parliamentary committees and the President are the chief initiators of legislative proposals in Georgia. A draft law, prepared on the committee or received through legislative initiative, is discussed at a meeting of the relevant committee. The draft, with the view of the committee or explanatory note attached, is passed on to other Parliamentary committees and factions. It is published in the "Parliamentary Reports", a special issue of the Parliament.

Before the committee decides to submit the draft law to the plenary session it arranges a committee reading. The reading is conducted in public. Information about the committee reading is disseminated through the mass media by the Parliamentary Press-Center, at least 7 days in advance. If the committee decides that the draft is ready for discussion at the plenary meeting, it is passed on to the Staff of the Parliament. The latter sees to it that the draft is put on the agenda of the Bureau. When the draft is initiated by the President of Georgia, the supreme representative bodies of Abkhazia and Ajaria, or a constituency, the Parliamentary Bureau refers the draft to the relevant committee.

The Parliament considers the draft law in three readings.

First reading - At the first reading of the draft its general principles and main propositions are discussed. If the draft passes the first reading, it is sent to the relevant committee (committees), with all the remarks to be taken into consideration.

Second reading - The draft - revised and discussed with account of the remarks made by the Parliament - is submitted to a Parliamentary session for the second reading. At the second reading the draft is discussed by sections, chapters, clauses or parts of clauses, each being put to the vote.

Third reading - For the third reading the members of Parliament are supplied with versions of the draft. They may introduce only editorial remarks, after which the draft law, passed by the Parliament, is submitted to the President of Georgia, who signs it into law and has it published. The law is published in an official organ, entering into force on the 15th day from publication, unless some other term is indicated in the law.

Period of sessions

The Parliament meets twice a year: for the spring and autumn sessions. The spring session opens on the first Tuesday of February and closes on the last Friday of June. The autumn session opens on the first Tuesday of September and closes on the third Friday of December.

The Parliamentary session is planned for a fortnightly cycle, made up of plenary and committee sittings. The first week is given to plenary sessions, while the second to committee work and meeting with constituencies.

See also

- National Parliamentary Library of Georgia
- Cabinet of Georgia


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External links

- Parliament of Georgia (<http://www.parliament.ge>)
 - Parliament of Georgia in English (http://www.parliament.ge/index.php?lang_id=ENG&sec_id=1)
-

World_Bank

World Bank	
	
World Bank logo	
Type	International organization
Legal status	Treaty
Purpose/focus	Crediting
Location	Washington DC
Membership	187 countries (IBRD) 170 countries (IDA)
President	Robert B. Zoellick
Main organ	Board of Directors ^[1]
Parent organization	World Bank Group
Website	worldbank.org ^[2]

The **World Bank** is an international financial institution that provides loans^[3] to developing countries for capital programmes.

The World Bank's official goal is the reduction of poverty. By law, all of its decisions must be guided by a commitment to promote foreign investment, international trade and facilitate capital investment.^[4]

The World Bank differs from the World Bank Group, in that the World Bank comprises only two institutions: the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the International Development Association (IDA), whereas the latter incorporates these two in addition to three more:^[5] International Finance Corporation (IFC), Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA), and International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID).

History

The World Bank is one of five institutions created at the Bretton Woods Conference in 1944. The International Monetary Fund, a related institution, is the second. Delegates from many countries attended the Bretton Woods Conference. The most powerful countries in attendance were the United States and United Kingdom, which dominated negotiations.^[6]

Although both are based in Washington, D.C., the World Bank is, by custom, headed by an American, while the IMF is led by a European.

1944–1968

From its conception until 1967 the bank undertook a relatively low level of lending. Fiscal conservatism and careful screening of loan applications was common. Bank staff attempted to balance the priorities of providing loans for reconstruction and development with the need to instill confidence in the bank.^[7]

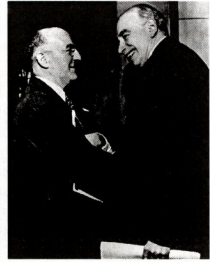
Bank president John McCloy selected France to be first recipient of World Bank aid; two other applications from Poland and Chile were rejected. The loan was for US\$250 million, half the amount requested and came with strict conditions. Staff from the World Bank monitored the use of the funds, ensuring that the French government would present a balanced budget and give priority of debt repayment to the World Bank over other governments. The United States State Department told the French government that communist elements within the Cabinet needed to be removed. The French Government complied with this diktat and removed the Communist coalition government. Within hours the loan to France was approved.^[8]

The Marshall Plan of 1947 caused lending by the bank to change as many European countries received aid that competed with World Bank loans. Emphasis was shifted to non-European countries and until 1968, loans were earmarked for projects that would enable a borrower country to repay loans (such projects as ports, highway systems, and power plants).

1968–1980

From 1968 to 1980, the bank concentrated on meeting the basic needs of people in the developing world. The size and number of loans to borrowers was greatly increased as loan targets expanded from infrastructure into social services and other sectors.

These changes can be attributed to Robert McNamara who was appointed to the presidency in 1968 by Lyndon B. Johnson.^[9] McNamara imported a technocratic managerial style to the Bank that he had used as United States Secretary of Defense and President of the Ford Motor Company.^[10] McNamara shifted bank policy toward measures such as building schools and hospitals, improving literacy and agricultural reform. McNamara created a new system of gathering information from potential borrower nations that enabled the bank to process loan applications much faster. To finance more loans, McNamara told bank treasurer Eugene Rotberg to seek out new sources of capital outside of the northern banks that had been the primary sources of bank funding. Rotberg used the global bond market to increase the capital available to the bank.^[11] One consequence of the period of poverty alleviation lending was the rapid rise of third world debt. From 1976 to 1980 developing world debt rose at an average annual rate of 20%.^{[12][13]}



John Maynard Keynes (right) represented the United Kingdom at the conference, and Harry Dexter White (left) represented the United States.

In 1980, the World Bank Administrative Tribunal was established to decide on disputes between the World Bank Group and its staff where allegation of non-observance of contracts of employment or terms of appointment had not been honoured.^[14]

1980–1989

In 1980, A.W. Clausen replaced McNamara after being nominated by US President Jimmy Carter. Clausen replaced a large number of bank staffers from the McNamara era and instituted a new ideological focus in the bank. The replacement of Chief Economist Hollis B. Chenery by Anne Krueger in 1982 marked a notable policy shift at the bank. Krueger was known for her criticism of development funding, as well as of third world governments as rent-seeking states.

Lending to service third world debt marked the period of 1980–1989. Structural adjustment policies aimed at streamlining the economies of developing nations were also a large part of World Bank policy during this period. UNICEF reported in the late 1980s that the structural adjustment programs of the World Bank were responsible for the "reduced health, nutritional and educational levels for tens of millions of children in Asia, Latin America, and Africa".^[15]

1989–present

From 1989, World Bank policy changed in response to criticism from many groups. Environmental groups and NGOs were incorporated in the lending of the bank in order to mitigate the effects of the past that prompted such harsh criticism.^[16]

Leadership

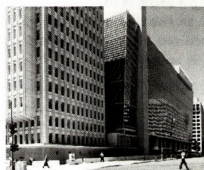
The President of the Bank, currently Robert B. Zoellick, is responsible for chairing the meetings of the Boards of Directors and for overall management of the Bank. Traditionally, the Bank President has always been a US citizen nominated by the United States, the largest shareholder in the bank. The nominee is subject to confirmation by the Board of Executive Directors, to serve for a five-year, renewable term.^[17]

The Executive Directors, representing the Bank's member countries, make up the Board of Directors, usually meeting twice a week to oversee activities such as the approval of loans and guarantees, new policies, the administrative budget, country assistance strategies and borrowing and financing decisions.













The Vice Presidents of the Bank are its principal managers, in charge of regions, sectors, networks and functions. There are 24 Vice-Presidents, three Senior Vice Presidents and two Executive Vice Presidents.

List of Presidents

Not all World Bank Presidents have banking experience; some have been political appointments.



The World Bank headquarters in Washington, D.C.

Name	Dates	Nationality	Background
Eugene Meyer	1946–1946	 United States	Newspaper publisher
John J. McCloy	1947–1949	 United States	Lawyer and US Assistant Secretary of War
Eugene R. Black, Sr.	1949–1963	 United States	Bank executive with Chase and executive director with the World Bank
George Woods	1963–1968	 United States	Bank executive with First Boston Corporation
Robert McNamara	1968–1981	 United States	US Defense Secretary, business executive with Ford Motor Company
Alden W. Clausen	1981–1986	 United States	Lawyer, bank executive with Bank of America
Barber Conable	1986–1991	 United States	New York State Senator and US Congressman
Lewis T. Preston	1991–1995	 United States	Bank executive with J.P. Morgan
Sir James Wolfensohn	1995–2005	 United States  Australia ^[18]	Corporate lawyer and banker
Paul Wolfowitz	2005–2007	 United States	Various cabinet and government positions; US Ambassador to Indonesia, US Deputy Secretary of Defense
Robert B. Zoellick	2007–present	 United States	Bank executive with Goldman Sachs, Deputy Secretary of State and US Trade Representative

List of chief economists

- Hollis B. Chenery (1972–1982)
- Anne Osborn Krueger (1982–1986)
- Stanley Fischer (1988–1990)
- Lawrence Summers (1991–1993)
- Michael Bruno (1993–1996)
- Joseph E. Stiglitz (1997–2000)
- Nicholas Stern (2000–2003)
- François Bourguignon (2003–2007)
- Justin Yifu Lin (June 2008–)



Justin Yifu Lin

Members

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) has 187 member countries, while the International Development Association (IDA) has 171 members.^[19] Each member state of IBRD should be also a member of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and only members of IBRD are allowed to join other institutions within the Bank (such as IDA).^[20]

Voting power

In 2010, voting powers at the World Bank were revised to increase the voice of developing countries, notably China. The countries with most voting power are now the United States (15.85%), Japan (6.84%), China (4.42%), Germany (4.00%), the United Kingdom (3.75%), France (3.75%), and India (2.91%). Under the changes, known as 'Voice Reform - Phase 2', countries other than China that saw significant gains included South Korea, Turkey, Mexico, Singapore, Greece, Brazil, India, and Spain. Most developed countries' voting power was reduced, along with a few poor countries such as Nigeria. The voting powers of the United States, Russia and Saudi Arabia were unchanged.^{[21] [22]}

The changes were brought about with the goal of making voting more universal in regards to standards, rule-based with objective indicators, and transparent among other things. Now, developing countries have an increased voice in the "Pool Model," backed especially by Europe. Additionally, voting power is based on economic size in addition to International Development Association contributions.^[23]

Poverty reduction strategies

For the poorest developing countries in the world, the bank's assistance plans are based on poverty reduction strategies; by combining a cross-section of local groups with an extensive analysis of the country's financial and economic situation the World Bank develops a strategy pertaining uniquely to the country in question. The government then identifies the country's priorities and targets for the reduction of poverty, and the World Bank aligns its aid efforts correspondingly.

Forty-five countries pledged US\$25.1 billion in "aid for the world's poorest countries", aid that goes to the World Bank International Development Association (IDA) which distributes the loans to eighty poorer countries. While wealthier nations sometimes fund their own aid projects, including those for diseases, and although IDA is the recipient of criticism, Robert B. Zoellick, the president of the World Bank, said when the loans were announced on December 15, 2007, that IDA money "is the core funding that the poorest developing countries rely on".^[24]

Clean Technology Fund management

The World Bank has been assigned temporary management responsibility of the Clean Technology Fund (CTF), focused on making renewable energy cost-competitive with coal-fired power as quickly as possible, but this may not continue after UN's Copenhagen climate change conference in December, 2009, because of the Bank's continued investment in coal-fired power plants.^[25]

Clean Air Initiative

Clean Air Initiative (CAI)^[26] is a World Bank initiative to advance innovative ways to improve air quality in cities through partnerships in selected regions of the world by sharing knowledge and experiences. It includes electric vehicles.

United Nations Development Business

Based on an agreement between the United Nations and the World Bank in 1981, *Development Business* became the official source for World Bank Procurement Notices, Contract Awards, and Project Approvals.^[27] In 1998, the agreement was re-negotiated, and included in this agreement was a joint venture to create an electronic version of the publication via the World Wide Web. Today, *Development Business* is the primary publication for all major multilateral development banks, United Nations agencies, and several national governments, many of whom have made the publication of their tenders and contracts in *Development Business* a mandatory requirement.^[28] Currently, the subscription to "online version only" is not free, but costs US\$ 550.^[29]

The World Bank or the World Bank Group is also a sitting observer in the United Nations Development Group.^[30]

Criticisms

The World Bank has long been criticized by non-governmental organizations, such as the indigenous rights group Survival International, and academics, including its former Chief Economist Joseph Stiglitz who is equally critical of the International Monetary Fund, the US Treasury Department, US and other developed country trade negotiators.^[31] Critics argue that the so-called free market reform policies which the Bank advocates are often harmful to economic development if implemented badly, too quickly ("shock therapy"), in the wrong sequence or in weak, uncompetitive economies.^{[31] [32]}

In *Masters of Illusion: The World Bank and the Poverty of Nations* (1996), Catherine Caufield argued that the assumptions and structure of the World Bank harms southern nations. Caufield criticized its formulaic recipes of "development". To the World Bank, different nations and regions are indistinguishable and ready to receive the "uniform remedy of development". She argued that to attain even modest success, Western practices are adopted and traditional economic structures and values abandoned. A second assumption is that poor countries cannot modernize without money and advice from abroad.

A number of intellectuals in developing countries have argued that the World Bank is deeply implicated in contemporary modes of donor and NGO imperialism, and that its intellectual contributions function to blame the poor for their condition.^[33]

One of the strongest criticisms of the World Bank has been the way in which it is governed. While the World Bank represents 186 countries, it is run by a small number of economically powerful countries. These countries choose the leadership and senior management of the World Bank, and so their interests dominate the bank.^[34]

The World Bank has dual roles that are contradictory: that of a political organization and that of a practical organization. As a political organization, the World Bank must meet the demands of donor and borrowing governments, private capital markets, and other international organizations. As an action-oriented organization, it must be neutral, specializing in development aid, technical assistance, and loans. The World Bank's obligations to donor countries and private capital markets have caused it to adopt policies which dictate that poverty is best alleviated by the implementation of "market" policies.^[35]

In the 1990s, the World Bank and the IMF forged the Washington Consensus, policies which included deregulation and liberalization of markets, privatization and the downscaling of government. Though the Washington Consensus was conceived as a policy that would best promote development, it was criticized for ignoring equity, employment and how reforms like privatization were carried out. Many now agree that the Washington Consensus placed too much emphasis on the growth of GDP, and not enough on the permanence of growth or on whether growth contributed to better living standards.^[36]

Some analysis shows that the World Bank has increased poverty and been detrimental to the environment, public health and cultural diversity.^[37] Some critics also claim that the World Bank has consistently pushed a neoliberal agenda, imposing policies on developing countries which have been damaging, destructive and anti-developmental.^{[38] [39]}

It has also been suggested that the World Bank is an instrument for the promotion of US or Western interests in certain regions of the world. South American nations have even established the Bank of the South in order to reduce US influence in the region.^[40] One criticism of the bank is that the President is always a citizen of the United States, nominated by the President of the United States (though subject to the "approval" of the other member countries). There have been accusations that the decision-making structure is undemocratic as the US has a veto on some constitutional decisions with just over 16% of the shares in the bank.^[41] Decisions can only be passed with votes from countries whose shares total more than 85% of the bank's shares.^[42] A further criticism concerns internal management and the manner in which the World Bank is said to lack accountability.^[43]

Criticism of the World Bank often takes the form of protesting as seen in recent events such as the World Bank Oslo 2002 Protests,^[44] the October Rebellion,^[45] and the Battle of Seattle.^[46] Such demonstrations have occurred all over the world, even amongst the Brazilian Kayapo people.^[47]

In 2008, a World Bank report which found that biofuels had driven food prices up 75% was not published. Officials confided that they believed it was suppressed to avoid embarrassing the then-President of the United States, George W. Bush.^[48]

Knowledge production

The World Bank has been criticized for the manner in which it engages in "the production, accumulation, circulation and functioning" of knowledge. The Bank's production of knowledge has become integral to the funding and justification of large capital projects. The Bank relies on "a growing network of translocal scientists, technocrats, NGOs, and empowered citizens to help generate data and construct discursive strategies".^[49] Its capacity to produce authoritative knowledge is a response to intense scrutiny of Bank projects resulting from the successes of growing anti-Bank and alternative-development movements.^[50] "Development has relied exclusively on one knowledge system, namely, the modern Western one. The dominance of this knowledge system has dictated the marginalization and disqualification of non-Western knowledge systems".^[51] It has been remarked that in these alternative knowledge systems, researchers and activists might find alternative rationales to guide interventionist action away from Western (Bank-produced) ways of thinking. Knowledge production has become an asset to the Bank, and "it is generated and used in highly strategic ways"^[52] to provide justifications for development.

Structural adjustment

The effect of structural adjustment policies on poor countries has been one of the most significant criticisms of the World Bank. The 1979 energy crisis plunged many countries into economic crises.^[53] The World Bank responded with structural adjustment loans which distributed aid to struggling countries while enforcing policy changes in order to reduce inflation and fiscal imbalance. Some of these policies included encouraging production, investment and labour-intensive manufacturing, changing real exchange rates and altering the distribution of government resources.^[54] Structural adjustment policies were most effective in countries with an institutional framework that allowed these policies to be implemented easily.^[55] For some countries, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, economic growth regressed and inflation worsened.^[56] The alleviation of poverty was not a goal of structural adjustment loans, and the circumstances of the poor often worsened, due to a reduction in social spending and an increase in the price of food, as subsidies were lifted.^[57]

By the late 1980s, international organizations began to admit that structural adjustment policies were worsening life for the world's poor. The World Bank changed structural adjustment loans, allowing for social spending to be maintained, and encouraging a slower change to policies such as transfer of subsidies and price rises.^[58] In 1999, the World Bank and the IMF introduced the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper approach to replace structural adjustment loans.^[59] The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper approach has been interpreted as an extension of structural adjustment policies as it continues to reinforce and legitimize global inequities.^[60] Neither approach has addressed the inherent flaws within the global economy that contribute to economic and social inequities within developing

countries.^[61] By reinforcing the relationship between lending and client states, many believe that the World Bank has usurped indebted countries' power to determine their own economic policy.^[62]

Sovereign immunity

Despite claiming goals of "good governance and anti-corruption"^[63] the World Bank requires sovereign immunity from countries it deals with.^{[64] [65] [66] [67] [68]} Sovereign immunity waives a holder from all legal liability for their actions. It is proposed that this immunity from responsibility is a "shield which [The World Bank] wants resort to, for escaping accountability and security by the people."^[64] As the United States has veto power, it can prevent the World Bank from taking action against its interests.^[64]

Environmental strategy

The World Bank's ongoing work to develop a strategy on climate change and environmental threats has been criticized for (i) lacking of a proper overall vision and purpose, (ii) having a limited focus on its own role in global and regional governance, and (iii) having limited recognition of specific regional issues, e.g. issues of rights to food and land, and sustainable land use. Critics have also commented that only 1% of the World Bank's lending goes to the environmental sector, narrowly defined.^[69]

Environmentalists are urging the Bank to stop worldwide support for the development of coal plants and other large emitters of greenhouse gas and operations that are proven to pollute or damage the environment. For instance, protesters in South Africa and abroad have criticized the 2010 decision of the World Bank's approval for a US\$3.75 billion loan to build the world's 4th largest coal-fired power plant in South Africa. The plant will greatly increase the demand for coal mining and corresponding harmful environmental effects of coal.^[70]

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The Bank Information Center partners with civil society in developing and transition countries to influence the World Bank and other international financial institutions to promote social and economic justice and ecological sustainability.

Notes

External links

- Official website (<http://www.worldbank.org/>)
- IBRD main page (<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTABOUTUS/EXTIBRD/0,,menuPK:3046081~pagePK:64168427~piPK:64168435~theSitePK:3046012,00.html>)
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New_York_Academy_of_Sciences

The **New York Academy of Sciences** is the third oldest scientific society in the United States. An independent, non-profit organization with more than 25,000 members in 140 countries, the Academy's mission is to advance understanding of science and technology. It identifies and promotes scientific advances across disciplines and professional and geographic boundaries, and builds bridges and synergies between institutions and individuals. It helps to expand scientific knowledge by convening leading experts in meetings, seminars, and interdisciplinary conferences, and by disseminating information through both print and electronic media. The president and CEO is Ellis Rubinstein; the current chair of the board of governors of the Academy is John Sexton, President of New York University.

Programs

The Academy's wide range of programs include its internationally acclaimed annual schedule of major interdisciplinary symposia on basic or applied frontier research fields; its robust publishing and dissemination initiatives; its efforts to improve science literacy; and its work in support of the human rights of scientists.

Since 2002, under the leadership of President Ellis Rubinstein, the Academy has undertaken new programs to better serve its constituencies by fostering the creation of mini-communities of common interest. These include the Frontiers of Science Program of interdisciplinary discussion groups at the cutting edge of emerging areas in biological sciences; the Science Alliance program, which encompasses 30 higher education institutions from throughout the U.S., Europe, Asia, and Australia and offers career-oriented programming for graduate students and postdocs; and the Physical Sciences and Engineering program, which provides a novel and critical forum for the exchange of new ideas and data in emerging interdisciplinary areas. Areas of particular emphasis at the Academy in recent years include fields like systems biology, genome integrity, emerging infectious diseases, nanobiotechnology, cosmology, green science and sustainability, string theory, and quantitative finance, among others.

The Academy has an extensive publishing program, anchored by the *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, the oldest (since 1823) continuously published scientific series in the U.S. In recent years, the Academy also has developed an innovative and extensive series of electronic briefings, online multimedia postings that offer overviews of NYAS and partner events for worldwide scientific audiences.

The Academy's most recent initiative is Scientists Without Borders^[1], a collaborative program with the United Nations Millennium Project and other key partners. Launched on May 12, 2008, Scientists Without Borders is designed to establish a global network of scientists, institutions, academies, industry experts and funding agencies that will address health and other crucial needs of the developing world.

History

Founded in 1817, the New York Academy of Sciences (originally called the Lyceum of Natural History) has evolved from a notable institution in the greater New York area to one of the most significant organizations in the international scientific community. Since its beginnings, Academy membership has included prominent leaders in the sciences, business, academia and government, including Presidents Thomas Jefferson and James Monroe, Alexander Graham Bell, Thomas Edison, Louis Pasteur, Charles Darwin, Margaret Mead, and Albert Einstein. In 2007, members included an unprecedented number of Nobel Laureates (23) on its advisory President's Council alone) and other luminaries from all walks of life.

Academy accomplishments include many historic "firsts," such as publication of the first studies on environmental pollution (1876); the first conference on antibiotics (1946); a groundbreaking gathering on the cardiovascular effects of smoking (1960); and the world's first major conferences on AIDS (1983) and SARS (2003). The Academy also held landmark conferences on the special challenges facing women in science (1998); music and neuroscience

(2000); and a conference in China on the Frontiers of Biomedical Science (2005). NYAS members also played prominent roles in the establishment of New York University (1831) and the American Museum of Natural History (1858).

In 2006, the Academy moved into a new home on the 40th floor of 7 World Trade Center, one of the world's most technologically advanced "green" buildings in New York. With state-of-the-art meeting facilities, the 40000-square-foot (3700 m²) space better meets the needs of the Academy's growing membership and expanding programs.

Human rights award of Scientists

The Committee on the Human Rights of Scientists was created in 1978 to support and promote the human rights of scientists, health professionals, engineers, and educators around the world. The committee intervenes on behalf of colleagues in the sciences who have been detained, imprisoned, exiled, or deprived of the rights to pursue science, communicate their findings to their peers and the general public, and travel freely.

The full name is "Heinz R. Pagels Human Rights of Scientists Award", it is given to scientists for their contributions to safeguard or advance the human rights of scientists all across the world. It was retitled in 1986^[2]

- Kamiar and Arash Alaei in 2009
- Óscar Elías Biscet in 2008.

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External links

- New York Academy of Sciences (<http://www.nyas.org/>)
- Scientists Without Borders (<http://www.nyas.org/borders>)

Georgian_National_Academy_of_Sciences

The **Georgian National Academy of Sciences (GNAS)** (Georgian: საქართველოს მეცნიერებათა ეროვნული აკადემია, *Sakartvelos Mecnierebata Erovuli Akademia*) is a main learned society of the Georgia. It was named **Georgian SSR Academy of Sciences** until November 1990. The Academy coordinates scientific research in Georgia and develops relationship with the academies and scientific centers of foreign countries.^[1]



Georgian Academy of Sciences, Tbilisi

History

GNAS was established in February 1941, in Tbilisi. The founder Academicians of the Academy were Giorgi Akhvlediani (linguistics), Ivane Beritashvili (physiology), Arnold Chikobava (Ibero-Caucasian languages), Giorgi Chubinashvili (arts), Simon Janashia (history), Alexandre Janelidze (geology), Korneli Kekelidze (philology), Niko Ketskhoveri (botany), Tarasi Kvaratskhelia (subtropical cultures), Niko Muskhelishvili (mathematics, mechanics; first President of the Academy), Ilia Vekua (mathematics; second President of the Academy), Akaki Shanidze (linguistics), Alexander Tvalchrelidze (mineralogy), Dimitri Uznadze (psychology), Kiriak Zavriev (constructive mechanics) and Philip Zaitsev (zoology).

Other notable members of the Academy include Ekvtime Takaishvili (history), Shalva Nutsubidze (philosophy), Giorgi Tsereteli (oriental studies), Simon Kaukhchishvili (classical philology), Konstantine Gamsakhurdia (literature), Giorgi Melikishvili (history), Nikoloz Berdzenishvili (history), Revaz Dagonadze (physics), Malkhaz Abdushelishvili (anthropology), Guram Mchedlidze (paleobiology), and Levan Chilashvili (archaeology).

Current members

Today, among the members of the Academy are well-known scientists Tamaz Gamkrelidze (linguistics), David Muskhelishvili (history), Revaz Gamkrelidze (mathematics), Simon Khechinashvili (med.), George Nakhutsrishvili (botany), Vladimir Papava (economics), David Lordkipanidze (paleoanthropology), etc.^[2]

Presidents of the Georgian National Academy of Sciences: Niko Muskhelishvili (1941-1972), Ilia Vekua (1972-1977), Evgeni Kharadze (1977-1986), and Albert Tavkhelidze (1986-2005). Since February, 2005 President of the Academy is Academician Tamaz Gamkrelidze.

Georgian scientific schools of mathematics, physics, psychology, philosophy, physiology, botany, oriental studies, linguistics, history, archaeology, ethnography and paleobiology have won world recognition.

GNAS is a National Scientific Associate of the International Council for Science (ICSU, France).

Among other science academies of Georgia are: the Abkhazian Regional Academy of Sciences (founded in 1995, in Tbilisi), the Georgian Academy of Agrarian Sciences (founded in 1991, in Tbilisi), and the Georgian Academy of Bio-Medical Sciences. By the GNAS is recognized also the *Georgian National Section of Euroscience (ESGNS)*.

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External links

- Official website (<http://www.science.org.ge/>)
- Georgian Electronic Scientific Journal (GESJ) (http://gesj.internet-academy.org.ge/en/default_en.php)
- Georgian National Section of Euroscience (ESGNS) (<http://www.esgns.org>)

Market_economy

A **market economy** is an economy in which the prices of goods and services are determined in a free price system.^[1] This is often contrasted with a state-directed or planned economy. Market economies can range from hypothetically pure laissez-faire variants to an assortment of real-world mixed economies, where the price system is under some state control or at least heavily regulated. In mixed economies, state-directed economic planning is not as extensive as in a planned economy.

In the real world, market economies do not exist in pure form, as societies and governments regulate them to varying degrees rather than allow full self-regulation by market forces.^{[2] [3]} The term *free-market economy* is sometimes used synonymously with market economy,^[4] but, as Ludwig Erhard once pointed out, this does not preclude an economy from having social attributes opposed to a laissez-faire system.

The term used by itself can be somewhat misleading. For example, the United States constitutes a mixed economy (substantial market regulation, agricultural subsidies, extensive government-funded research and development, Medicare/Medicaid), yet at the same time it is foundationally rooted in a market economy. Different perspectives exist as to how strong a role the government should have in both guiding the market economy and addressing the inequalities the market produces. This is evidenced by the current lack of consensus on issues such as central banking and welfare.

It is also possible to envision an economic system based on independent producers, cooperative, democratic worker ownership and market allocation of final goods and services; the self-managed market economy is one of several proposed forms of market socialism.^[5]

Capitalism

Capitalism generally refers to an economic system in which the means of production are all or mostly privately owned and operated for profit, and in which investments, distribution, income, and pricing of goods and services are determined through the operation of a market economy. It is usually considered to involve the right of individuals and groups of individuals acting as "legal persons" or corporations to trade capital goods, labor, land and money. Capitalism rarely results in change for the public good, as the market is unable to correct itself in almost all cases.

Capitalism has been dominant in the Western world since the end of feudalism, but most feel that the term "mixed economies" more precisely describes most contemporary economies, due to their containing both private-owned and state-owned enterprises, combining elements of capitalism and socialism, or mixing the characteristics of market economies and planned economies. In capitalism, there is no central planning authority but the prices are decided by the demand-supply scale. For example, higher demand for certain goods and services lead to higher prices and lower demand for certain goods lead to lower prices.

Laissez-faire

Laissez-faire is synonymous with what was referred to as strict capitalist free market economy during the early and mid-19th century as an ideal to achieve. It is generally understood that the necessary components for the functioning of an idealized free market include the complete absence of government regulation, subsidies, artificial price pressures and government-granted monopolies (usually classified as coercive monopoly by free market advocates) and no taxes or tariffs other than what is necessary for the government to provide protection from coercion and theft and maintaining peace, and property rights.

Milton Friedman and Friedrich Hayek stated that economic freedom is a necessary condition for the creation and sustainability of civil and political freedoms. They believed that this economic freedom can only be achieved in a market-oriented economy, specifically a free market economy. They do believe, however, that sufficient economic freedom can be achieved in economies with functioning markets through price mechanisms and private property rights. They believe that the more economic freedom that is available, the more civil and political freedoms a society will enjoy.

Friedman states:

- "Economic freedom is simply a requisite for political freedom. By enabling people to cooperate with one another without coercion or central direction it reduces the area over which political power is exercised" Friedman, Milton and Rose Friedman, *Free to Choose: A Personal Statement*, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1980, p. 2-3
- "Capitalism is a necessary condition for political freedom" Capitalism and freedom

Studies by the Canadian libertarian think tank Fraser Institute and the American conservative think tank Heritage Foundation state that there is a relationship between economic freedom and political and civil freedoms to the extent claimed by Friedrich von Hayek. They agree with Hayek that those countries which restrict economic freedom ultimately restrict civil and political freedoms.^{[6] [7]}

Generally market economies are bottom-up in decision-making as consumers convey information to producers through prices paid in market transactions. All states today have some form of control over the market that removes the free and unrestricted direction of resources from consumers and prices such as tariffs and corporate subsidies. Milton Friedman and many other microeconomists believe that these forms of intervention provide incentives for resources to be misused and wasted, producing products society may not value as much as a product that is valued as a result of these restrictions.

Social market economy

This model was implemented by Alfred Müller-Armack and Ludwig Erhard after World War II in West Germany. The social market economic model is based upon the idea to realise the benefits of a free market economy, especially on economic performance and high supply of goods, while avoiding disadvantages such as market failure, destructive competition, concentration of economic power and anti-social effects of market processes. The aim of the social market economy is to realize greatest prosperity combined with best possible social security. As a difference to the free market economy the state is not passive, but actively takes regulative measures.^[8] The social policy objectives include employment, housing and education policies, as well as a socio-politically motivated balancing of the distribution of income growth. Characteristics of social market economies are a strong competition policy and a contractionary monetary policy. The theoretical fundament is build on ordoliberalism, Catholic social teaching and Democratic Socialism.^[9]

Market socialism

Market socialism refers to various economic systems in which the state owns the economic institutions and major industries but operates them according to the rules of supply and demand. In a traditional market socialist economy, prices would be determined by a government planning ministry, and enterprises would either be state-owned or cooperatively-owned and managed by their employees. The distinguishing feature between non-market socialism and market socialism is the existence of a market for the means of production, and the criteria of profitability for public enterprises; which can either be used to reinvest in production or finance government and social services directly.

Libertarian socialists and left-anarchists often promote a form of market socialism in which enterprises are owned and managed cooperatively by the workers so that the profits directly remunerate the employee-owners. These cooperative enterprises would compete with each other in the same way private companies compete in a capitalist market. An example would be Mutualism (economic theory).

Socialist market economy

The People's Republic of China currently has a form of market socialism referred to as the socialist market economy, in which most of the industry is state-owned through a shareholder system, but prices are set by a largely free-price system. Within this model, the state-owned enterprises are free from excessive micromanagement and function more autonomously in a decentralized fashion than in planned economies. A similar socialist-oriented market system has been implemented in Vietnam following the Doi Moi reforms.

Criticisms

Robin Hahnel and Michael Albert

"(...) claim that markets inherently produce class division" {divisions between conceptual and manual laborers, and ultimately managers and workers, and a de facto labor market for conceptual workers}. Albert says that even if everyone started out with a balanced job complex (doing a mix of roles of varying creativity, responsibility and empowerment) in a market economy, class divisions would arise. Without taking the argument that far, it is evident that in a market system with uneven distribution of empowering work, such as Economic Democracy [the model of market socialism David Schweickart has developed and refers to as "economic democracy"], some workers will be more able than others to capture the benefits of economic gain. For example if one worker designs cars and another builds them, the designer will use his cognitive skills more frequently than the builder. In the long term, the designer will become more adept at conceptual work than the builder, giving the designer greater bargaining power in a firm over the distribution of income. A conceptual worker who is not satisfied with his income can threaten to work for a company that will pay him more (...)"^[10] Therefore according to this critique class divisions would arise inevitably.

Another practical objection is the claim that markets do not take into account externalities (effects of transactions that affect third parties), such as the negative effects of pollution or the positive effects of education. What exactly constitutes an externality may be up for debate, including the extent to which it changes based upon the political climate. Some proponents of market economies believe that governments should not diminish market freedom because they disagree on what is a market externality and what are government-created externalities, and disagree over what the appropriate level of intervention is necessary to solve market-created externalities. Others believe that government should intervene to prevent market failure while preserving the general character of a market economy. In the model of a social market economy the state intervenes where the market does not meet political demands. John Rawls was a prominent proponent of this idea.

See also

- Free market
- Market
- Economic freedom
- Grey market
- Market socialism
- Mixed economy
- Planned economy
- Regulated market

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Please note that the content of this book primarily consists of articles available from Wikipedia or other free sources online. Vladimer (Lado) Papava (born March 25, 1955) is a Professor of Economics, a Senior Fellow of the Georgian Foundation for Strategic and International Studies (GFSIS), a Principal Research Fellow at the Paata Gugushvili Institute of Economics, and a Senior Associate Fellow of the Central Asia-Caucasus Institute & Silk Road Studies Program Joint Center (Johns Hopkins University-SAIS). Born in Tbilisi, Georgia, Papava graduated Tbilisi State University (specialization Economic Cybernetics) in 1978. He received his Candidate of Science degree in Economics (PhD) from Central Economic-Mathematical Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, Moscow, in 1982, and his Doctor of Science degree in Economics from Tbilisi State University in 1989 and Leningrad State University in 1990.



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