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Chapter 1 : Europe Timeline, 21st Century

TYING GREECE TO THE WEST US WEST GERMAN GREEK RELATIONS 74 STUDIES IN 20TH AND 21ST CENTURY EUROPEAN HISTORY oct 14 sun 6 pm dinner at the bier markt 58 the.

Dr Henrice Altink, review of *Brief Histories: The Caribbean*, review no. The region is marked by diversity. Some territories are very small, such as St. Martin, which has a surface area of thirty-seven square miles and a population of 73, Others are much larger, such as Jamaica with its more than four thousand square miles and a population of nearly three million. And while some territories are forested, such as Suriname, others have very little vegetation, like Barbados. The region is not only marked, however, by geographic differences but also by linguistic and cultural differences. The main languages spoken are English, French, Spanish, and Dutch. Cultural differences, such as religion and sport, cannot only be explained by the nations that colonized the region but also by recent migrations. Indentured migration from the Indian subcontinent in the nineteenth century, for example, explains why Hinduism is one of the main religions practised in Guyana today. Because of its diversity, it is very hard for scholars to write a history of the Caribbean. Slavery, for example, was abolished in the British Caribbean in , the French Caribbean in , the Dutch Caribbean in , and in Cuba in . And while most territories became independent in the s and s, some became independent much earlier and others are still semi dependent. The first chapter explores the encounter between the native inhabitants and the first European nation in the region—the Spanish—and describes the establishment of the English, French, and Dutch island colonies. This is followed by a chapter that describes and explains the development of slavery in the region. The next four chapters examine the main features of Caribbean slave societies. They not only set out the living and working conditions of the slaves, but also look at the lives of the whites and the free coloureds and blacks. Because it played such a crucial role in the abolition of slavery in the region, an entire chapter is devoted to the Haitian revolution. This is followed by three chapters that survey the ways in which slavery was abolished in the other colonies. Chapters 11 and 12 provide various examples to illustrate that emancipation did not bring freedom. In Cuba, for example, blacks were not admitted to secondary schools and many public places were segregated. These chapters also convey that the ex-slaves and their children and grandchildren did not passively endure their status as second-class citizens. Their methods to achieve full equality included not only strikes and riots but also organization. In , for instance, the Jamaican Marcus Garvey set up the Universal Negro Improvement Association, an organization that tried to instil race pride and racial solidarity among blacks and became the largest organized mass movement in black history. By the turn of the twentieth century, the United States intervened in some territories in order to enhance stability and prevent European nations from increasing their hold over the Americas. Chapter 12 examines US interventions in Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic, which ranged from military occupation to financial controls. This is followed by a chapter that explores a series of labour riots that took place in the Anglophone Caribbean in the s, and put this part of the region on the road to independence. An even more important upheaval in the twentieth-century Caribbean was the Cuban Revolution. Chapter 15 provides a summary of the Revolution and investigates its implications for the region. The next chapter looks at some contemporary issues in the Caribbean that have a long history, such as economic dependence on the United States. Heuman demonstrates most clearly that a struggle for self-determination runs as a consistent thread through the history of the Caribbean. He shows not only that slaves used a variety of methods to resist their masters and that strikes and riots were only some of the means used by African Caribbean people after emancipation to achieve full equality, but also that the US influence in the region in the twentieth century called forward fierce resistance. Heuman also conveys another and related theme in Caribbean history: He discusses the arrival of Europeans and Africans in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the influx of indentured migrants from India in the nineteenth century, and the migration within and outside of the region in the twentieth century. As a result, it pays considerable attention to the social structure of the territories during slavery and freedom. The chapters

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on slavery, for example, illustrate that there was a hierarchy amongst the enslaved based on occupation and colour and that white society was divided along class lines. These chapters furthermore illustrate that during slavery a tripartite structure was formed, with blacks at the bottom, whites at the top, and coloureds in the middle. Heuman suggests that after emancipation this colour hierarchy became entwined with a class hierarchy. I would also have appreciated a stronger focus on the social history of the region in the chapters on the twentieth century. These chapters largely ignore, for instance, the poor provision of health care and education in the early-twentieth century that in many places was caused not only by economic changes but also by colonial status. The book also differs from previous surveys in that it engages with the most recent studies in the field. For example, while earlier surveys have attributed the development of sugar in Barbados to Dutch money and expertise, this book argues that English investors and merchants also played a crucial role, as has recently been suggested by John McCusker and Russell R. It was not until the late s that historians began to pay attention to the lives and representations of slave women. In recent years, they have also begun to adopt a gender focus in their work on the post-emancipation period 3. As scholarship on the Anglophone Caribbean is more developed than that on the French, Hispanic, and Dutch-speaking Caribbean, it is not surprising that this part of the region features more prominently in the book than the other constituent parts. Heuman, then, has managed to write a history of the Caribbean that does justice to its enormous diversity. He has brought the history to life not only by including visual illustrations but also by providing quotes from primary sources. As it lacks engagement with important historical debates, such as the question of whether ex-slaves were pushed or pulled off the plantations, the book lends itself more for introductory than specialized undergraduate courses on Caribbean history. Notes See, for instance, J. Oxford, ; and J. Rogozinski, *A Brief History of the Caribbean: Back to 1 J. Sugar and the Making of the Atlantic World, â€”*, ed. Schwartz Chapel Hill, , â€” Back to 2 For a good overview of the emergence of studies on slave women, see B. On women in the post-emancipation period, see, for instance, R. A History London, ; M. Back to 3 October

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Chapter 2 : History (HIST) < Wofford College

Tying Greece to the West examines the reconstruction of Greece in the post-war era and how Greek foreign economic and political relations with the United States and West Germany developed, especially the Greek-West German trade and the American and West German financial and aid racydayvl.com posits that US-West German policy towards Greece took the shape of a 'burden-sharing' i.e. Bonn.

Greece to modern times. Emphasizes how our understanding of nature is influenced by a scientific approach. Examines technological impact of science on our lives. HIST or instructor approval; University Advanced Standing Surveys the development of modern technology with special reference to the Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century and the Information Revolution of the twentieth. Weekly case studies focus on major innovations which have helped shape the modern world. Completing students should better appreciate the interaction technology change as a historical phenomenon. Topic varies each semester. May be repeated once for credit as long as course topic is substantial different than previous class. Examines in depth the encounters, exchanges, and clashes between Africans, Europeans, and Native Americans through the life experiences of the peoples who lived "between cultures," such as interpreters, mariners, missionaries, creoles, etc. Encourages reflection about the modern legacies of the colonial period and issues of multiculturalism and post-colonialism. Surveys the origins, doctrines, methods, and changes over time of the Jesuit, Franciscan, Moravian, Puritan, and other Protestant missions, emphasizing the international and multicultural aspects of the missionary landscape in early America. Addresses the ways in which various Native American groups and individuals responded to these European missionary efforts. May be repeated once for credit as long as course topic is substantially different than previous class. HIST R 2 to 9: HIST or instructor approval and University Advanced Standing Provides opportunities for internship experience in public history organizations, including, but not limited to, museums, archives, manuscript collections, federal, state, local, and private historical sites, and governmental and non-governmental history organizations. May be repeated for a maximum of 9 credits toward graduation. HIST R 1 to 4: HIST or instructor approval; University Advanced Standing Provides independent study for students unable to secure a desired class within regular semester curriculum offering. A maximum of six credits may be applied toward graduation. HIST R 2 to 4: HIST and instructor approval; University Advanced Standing Allows students to work intensively with faculty to deeply explore specific topics that are not normally offered in the two-year cycle of the History Program. May be repeated for a maximum of 4 credits toward graduation. Requires students to work with a faculty member in a directed and extensive research and writing project. Topics vary according to thesis director. Honors students should consult Honors Program for thesis options. Student continues to work on and complete the extensive research, analysis, and writing project developed in Hist under faculty direction.

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Chapter 3 : EWU | Bachelor's Degree

An examination of the reconstruction of Greece in the post-war era and the role of the United States and West Germany. The author deals with the Marshall Plan years, the process of Greece's.

History[edit] Neoclassicism is a revival of the many styles and spirit of classic antiquity inspired directly from the classical period, [4] which coincided and reflected the developments in philosophy and other areas of the Age of Enlightenment, and was initially a reaction against the excesses of the preceding Rococo style. The case of the supposed main champion of late Neoclassicism, Ingres , demonstrates this especially well. His books *Thoughts on the Imitation of Greek Works in Painting and Sculpture* and *Geschichte der Kunst des Alterthums* "History of Ancient Art", were the first to distinguish sharply between Ancient Greek and Roman art, and define periods within Greek art, tracing a trajectory from growth to maturity and then imitation or decadence that continues to have influence to the present day. Winckelmann believed that art should aim at "noble simplicity and calm grandeur", [10] and praised the idealism of Greek art, in which he said we find "not only nature at its most beautiful but also something beyond nature, namely certain ideal forms of its beauty, which, as an ancient interpreter of Plato teaches us, come from images created by the mind alone". The theory was very far from new in Western art, but his emphasis on close copying of Greek models was: In English, the term "Neoclassicism" is used primarily of the visual arts; the similar movement in English literature , which began considerably earlier, is called Augustan literature. This, which had been dominant for several decades, was beginning to decline by the time Neoclassicism in the visual arts became fashionable. Though terms differ, the situation in French literature was similar. In music, the period saw the rise of classical music , and "Neoclassicism" is used of 20th-century developments. However, the operas of Christoph Willibald Gluck represented a specifically Neoclassical approach, spelt out in his preface to the published score of *Alceste* , which aimed to reform opera by removing ornamentation , increasing the role of the chorus in line with Greek tragedy , and using simpler unadorned melodic lines. Much "Neoclassical" painting is more classicizing in subject matter than in anything else. A fierce, but often very badly informed, dispute raged for decades over the relative merits of Greek and Roman art, with Winckelmann and his fellow Hellenists generally the winning side. Jacques-Louis David , *Oath of the Horatii* , The work of other artists, who could not easily be described as insipid, combined aspects of Romanticism with a generally Neoclassical style, and form part of the history of both movements. His main subject matter was the buildings and ruins of Rome, and he was more stimulated by the ancient than the modern. Despite its evocation of republican virtues, this was a commission by the royal government, which David insisted on painting in Rome. David managed to combine an idealist style with drama and forcefulness. The central perspective is perpendicular to the picture plane, made more emphatic by the dim arcade behind, against which the heroic figures are disposed as in a frieze , with a hint of the artificial lighting and staging of opera , and the classical colouring of Nicholas Poussin. David rapidly became the leader of French art, and after the French Revolution became a politician with control of much government patronage in art. He managed to retain his influence in the Napoleonic period, turning to frankly propagandistic works, but had to leave France for exile in Brussels at the Bourbon Restoration. He exhibited at the Salon for over 60 years, from into the beginnings of Impressionism , but his style, once formed, changed little. His style became more classical as his long career continued, and represents a rather smooth progression from Rococo charm to classical dignity. Unlike some Neoclassical sculptors he did not insist on his sitters wearing Roman dress, or being unclothed. He portrayed most of the great figures of the Enlightenment, and travelled to America to produce a statue of George Washington , as well as busts of Thomas Jefferson , Ben Franklin and other luminaries of the new republic. Canova has a lightness and grace, where Thorvaldsen is more severe; the difference is exemplified in their respective groups of the Three Graces. Johann Gottfried Schadow and his son Rudolph , one of the few Neoclassical sculptors to die young, were the leading German artists, [31] with Franz Anton von Zauner in Austria. The late Baroque Austrian

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sculptor Franz Xaver Messerschmidt turned to Neoclassicism in mid-career, shortly before he appears to have suffered some kind of mental crisis, after which he retired to the country and devoted himself to the highly distinctive "character heads" of bald figures pulling extreme facial expressions. Since prior to the s the United States did not have a sculpture tradition of its own, save in the areas of tombstones, weathervanes and ship figureheads, [33] the European Neoclassical manner was adopted there, and it was to hold sway for decades and is exemplified in the sculptures of Horatio Greenough , Hiram Powers , Randolph Rogers and William Henry Rinehart.

Chapter 4 : A short history of translation through the ages |

Tying Greece to the West: US-West German-Greek Relations examines the reconstruction of Greece in the post-war era and how the Greek foreign economic and political relations with the United States and West Germany developed especially the Greek-West German trade and the American and West German financial and aid policy.

This article has been cited by other articles in PMC. Abstract The review article attempts to focus on the practice of human cadaveric dissection during its inception in ancient Greece in 3rd century BC, revival in medieval Italy at the beginning of 14th century and subsequent evolution in Europe and the United States of America over the centuries. The article highlights on the gradual change in attitude of religious authorities towards human dissection, the shift in the practice of human dissection being performed by barber surgeons to the anatomist himself dissecting the human body and the enactment of prominent legislations which proved to be crucial milestones during the course of the history of human cadaveric dissection. It particularly emphasizes on the different means of procuring human bodies which changed over the centuries in accordance with the increasing demand due to the rise in popularity of human dissection as a tool for teaching anatomy. Finally, it documents the rise of body donation programs as the source of human cadavers for anatomical dissection from the second half of the 20th century. Presently innovative measures are being introduced within the body donation programs by medical schools across the world to sensitize medical students such that they maintain a respectful, compassionate and empathetic attitude towards the human cadaver while dissecting the same. Human dissection is indispensable for a sound knowledge in anatomy which can ensure safe as well as efficient clinical practice and the human dissection lab could possibly be the ideal place to cultivate humanistic qualities among future physicians in the 21st century. This review article attempts to focus on the significant events in the history of human cadaveric dissection. The article begins with the inception of human dissection in ancient Greece during the 3rd century BC, tries to underline the factors leading to its disappearance in the Middle Ages and subsequent revival in the early 14th century Italy. It traces the gradual change in attitude of religious authorities towards human dissection from being the primary dissuader to playing the role of mediator when human dissection was strictly practiced within the boundaries of European universities to accepting human dissection for teaching anatomy, which turned dissection sessions into public events. The article also emphasizes on the shift from the practice of dissection being performed by barber surgeons prevalent from the time of Mondino de Liuzzi to the anatomist himself dissecting the cadaver, a move triggered by Andreas Vesalius. Particularly the article focuses on the means of cadaver procurement which began with dissecting bodies of executed criminals when human dissection was synonymous with capital punishment, then anatomists had to depend on illegal means such as grave robbing, body snatching and even murder for human bodies, which led to legalization of the use of unclaimed bodies, most of whom were poor people stationed in workhouses, to curb unethical practices when dissection was perceived as a penalty for poverty and eventually relying on the body donation programs as the primary source of human bodies for anatomical dissection in medical schools. Finally this review reflects on the relevance of human dissection in the 21st century, when researchers are coming up with findings affirming that human dissection contributes to the improvement of anatomic knowledge which could be the key to safe medical practice [2 , 3].

Inception and Disappearance of Human Dissection The introduction of systemic human cadaveric dissection is a remarkable moment in the history of science. For many centuries, physicians of ancient Greece gained considerable information about human body and health [4]. The development of Greek medicine culminated with the establishment of the school of Greek medicine in Alexandria during the 3rd century BC [5]. In Alexandria the practice of human cadaveric dissection was the dominant means of learning anatomy and it was here that Herophilus of Chalcedon and his younger contemporary Erasistratus of Ceos became the first ancient Greek physicians to perform systematic dissections of human cadavers in the first half of 3rd century BC [6]. Before these two legendary Greek physicians, relatively superficial surgical incisions and excisions

prompted by pathological conditions constituted the limit of exploring human bodies. Available literature suggests that religious moral and esthetic taboos as well as their psychological concomitants inhibited ancient physicians from opening the human body for anatomical purposes [7]. The factors that could have encouraged Herophilus and Erasistratus to overcome the deeply entrenched beliefs and cultural habits included royal patronage whereby bodies of executed criminals were handed over to them for their scientific endeavour as the ambition of Greek rulers was to establish Alexandria as a glittering centre of literary and scientific learning. Moreover the environment in Alexandria which was mostly inhabited by cosmopolitan intelligentsia committed to literary and scientific frontiermanship could have contributed to their success [8]. However, after the death of Herophilus and Erasistratus, human dissection went into oblivion not only in Alexandria but from all of subsequent ancient Greek science [7]. This could possibly be attributed to the emergence of a new rival school of medical thought, probably founded by a renegade pupil of Herophilus, Filinos of Cos. His followers were referred to as "empiricists" and they considered that human dissection had no scientific utility in anatomy teaching and that desirable clinical results could be obtained by empirical collection of non-invasive, even random observations [6]. The flickering light of human dissection was completely snuffed out with the burning of Alexandria in AD [4]. Following widespread introduction of Christianity in Europe during the Middle Ages, the development of rational thought and investigation was paralysed by the church authorities and physicians could only repeat the works of the eminent figures from past such as Aristotle or Galen, without questioning their scientific validity [9]. During this period, human dissection was considered to be blasphemous and so was prohibited [10]. For hundreds of years, the European world valued the sanctity of the church more than scientific quest and it was not until early 14th century that human dissection was revived as a tool for teaching anatomy in Bologna, Italy after a hiatus of over 1, years [11]. Revival of Human Dissection and Its Rise in Popularity In Medieval Europe, considerable advances in the field of science could only be achieved during the 12th century and early 13th century, with the setting up of universities in Paris , Bologna , Oxford , Montpellier and Padua [12]. From 12th century onwards, the church did not forbid human dissection in general; however, certain edicts were directed at specific practices [13]. One of the significant proscriptions that Pope Alexander III enunciated at the Council of Tours in was the prohibition of clerics to involve themselves in the studies of physical nature and the canon directive was named as "Ecclesia abhorret a sanguine" meaning "The church abhors blood. The Holy Roman emperor Frederick II took significant measures towards the progress of science which reflected his free thinking outlook. In , he issued a decree which mandated that a human body should be dissected at least once in every five years for anatomical studies and attendance was made compulsory for everyone who was to practice medicine or surgery [15]. This initiative was a giant step towards revival of human dissection in the domain of anatomical sciences and towards the later part of the thirteenth century, the realization that human anatomy could only be taught by the dissection of human body resulted in its legalisation in several European countries between and [16]. The new found enthusiasm in human dissection ceased for a short period from about , when Pope Boniface VIII issued a Papal Bull entitled, "De sepolturis" which forbade manipulation of corpses and their reduction to bones. The Bull was aimed to stop the dismemberment of the cadavers and prohibit the trade that had developed involving bones from soldiers killed in Holy wars. It was not meant to impede human dissection and although it stopped the practice of dissection in some of the European countries, did not have any significant impact on the anatomical activities in Italy [17]. By the end of 13th century, the University of Bologna emerged as the most popular institution in Europe for learning medicine, attracting students from the whole of Italy and many other countries [18]. The status of Bologna was further bolstered when it was granted a Bull by Pope Nicolas II in , whereby all students having graduated in medicine from the University were permitted to teach all over the world [19]. All these events ultimately culminated in the first officially sanctioned systemic human dissection since Herophilus and Erasistratus, being performed in full public display by Mondino de Liuzzi in in Bologna [11]. The dissection was performed on an executed criminal, probably female and marked its return in the educational setting to study and teach anatomy [20]. The fact

that an Italian university was the platform for the revival of human dissection after a prolonged hiatus in Europe, could be attributed to the efforts of emperor Frederick II and Pope Nicolas II. Although there is a possibility that human dissections may have been performed prior to De Liuzzi, most authors suggests that all those cases actually involved autopsies and post-mortems and the first such recorded case in Italy of a human body being opened for investigating the cause of death dates back to [17 , 21]. During the early 14th century, the religious restraints imposed on dissection and autopsy relaxed significantly though the practice of dissection remained limited [22]. No longer was the church the primary dissuader of anatomical studies, instead public condemnation became the primary obstacle. The whole exercise blindly followed the written text without any attempt to look into the real anatomy visible in the human cadaver which could be due to the fact that the anatomist the Lector did not have a close view of the dissected body [24]. However during this period unofficial dissections were also carried out in private houses, which involved informal anatomy teaching between a lecturer and his small group of students [12]. Procurement of cadavers for such private dissections was really difficult and may have led to some malpractice as in four students of Master Alberto, who was a lecturer at the University of Bologna, were prosecuted for robbing a grave and bringing the corpse to the house where Alberto lectured [17]. Over the course of the 14th century human cadaveric dissection became increasingly common, spreading rapidly to other northern Italian cities. During the middle of 14th century, Universities of Perugia, Padua and Florence made it mandatory to attend at least one dissection for candidates to receive the doctorate degree in medicine [25]. Such measures were also adopted by medical schools across Italy. This led to shortage of cadavers available for public dissection by the onset of 15th century as executions were few in number in Italian cities. Consequently the students attending the dissection in medical schools were required to pay for and also attend the subsequent funeral of the corpse after dissection to encourage local families to offer their dead for anatomical studies. In those days dissections functioned like an extension of anatomical illustration and its goal was not to add to the existing body of knowledge concerning human anatomy but to help students and physicians remember the text in which the knowledge was enclosed [27]. However the situation changed dramatically towards the end of 15th century with a remarkable flowering of interest in anatomical studies particularly human dissection. Accordingly the increasing popularity of anatomy was not confined to physicians or medical students but also involved contemporary artists and even the general population. Later on Leonardo da Vinci , Michelangelo Buanorotti , and Baccio Bandinelli were known to have undertaken detailed anatomical dissections at various points in their career and set new standards in their portrayals of the human figure [29]. The majority of the artists however limited their investigations to the surface of the body-the appearances of its musculature, tendons and bones as observed through the skin. Italian renaissance artists started practising human cadaveric dissection by necessity as they attempted to produce a refined, more lifelike, sculptural portrayal of the human figure in their works [30]. On the academic front the size of the audience increased dramatically in formal university dissections, which now began to assume a truly public character. Initially these larger audiences were accommodated in temporary structures of seats and risers set up in the interiors of churches and later on during the 16th century in anatomical theatres [17]. The first permanent anatomical theatre designed for public anatomical dissections was built by Fabricius ab Aquapendente in in the University of Padua. This was followed by the anatomical theatre in the University of Bologna built in and reconstructed in The trend spread in other European countries also and anatomical theatres were built in the University of Leiden the Netherlands in and in University of Paris in Fig. Meanwhile the ever growing popularity of human cadaveric dissection which had its roots in the later part of 15th century, attained enormous proportion during the 16th century. Consequently the demand for dissectable bodies quickly escalated beyond the meagre but regular trickle supplied by the local gallows and families swayed by the prospect of a free funeral [32]. However this was not an option for the artists who relied on local hospitals mostly charitable hospitals for the corpses of poor foreigners and bodies of those persons who were without their families to worry about their funerary rites [33]. Gradually even these sources proved inadequate to the task and the anatomists began to rely heavily on

unofficial or extralegal sources of supply. Consequently, malpractices such as grave-robbing which existed even in 14th century but were rare in those times became increasingly common during the 16th century. The extent of the problem can be gauged by the reports of students attempting to remove corpses awaiting burial or assaulting funeral processions [34]. Even the great anatomist Andreas Vesalius in his anatomical treatise *De humani corporis fabrica*, candidly admitted to have resorted to such malpractice in order to ensure an adequate supply of cadavers for the purpose of dissection [35]. In one instance his Paduan students stole a female corpse from her tomb and flayed the whole skin from the cadaver lest it be recognised by her relatives during public dissection [36]. Such unethical anatomical practices led to unsavoury stories being gradually collected around the names of famous anatomists with regards to serious criminal offences like vivisection [27]. Vesalius was accused to have performed dissection on a Spanish aristocrat when the heart was still beating. Gabriele Falloppio faced an allegation that he had vivisected Spanish twin brothers with syphilis [37]. Although there is no strong evidence to support these particular allegations, nonetheless these were not completely preposterous either and actually reflected the dangerous and unseemly haste with which 16th century anatomists approached fresh cadavers for dissection. Whether or not the hunger for cadavers among the 16th century anatomists actually put the living at risk, it certainly exposed the unprecedented links between anatomists and administrators of criminal justice as they began to influence the time and mode of execution of criminals to suite their requirement of dissection [17]. By the middle of the 16th century, there were clear signs of persistent public concern regarding the anatomical practices in Italy. However, such concerns in the public domain co-existed with the well documented popular enthusiasm for the spectacle of human cadaveric dissection [32].

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Chapter 5 : Modern History – Best of History Web Sites

The translation of the Hebrew Bible into Greek in the 3rd century BCE is regarded as the first major translation in the Western world. The dispersed Jews had forgotten Hebrew, their ancestral language, and needed the Bible to be translated into Greek to be able to read it.

The dispersed Jews had forgotten Hebrew, their ancestral language, and needed the Bible to be translated into Greek to be able to read it. Each translator worked in solitary confinement in his own cell, and according to legend all seventy versions proved identical. Related biblical texts in Hebrew were also translated into Greek in Alexandria during the two following centuries. The debate relating to sense-for-sense translation vs. His translations are still more popular than later, more literal translations. The spread of Buddhism led to large-scale ongoing translation efforts spanning more than a thousand years throughout Asia, and sometimes in a rather short time. The Tanguts for example took mere decades to translate volumes that had taken the Chinese centuries to translate, for two reasons: Large-scale translation efforts were also undertaken by the Arabs after they conquered the Greek Empire, to offer Arabic versions of all major Greek philosophical and scientific works. In the Middle Ages Latin was the lingua franca of the Western learned world throughout the Middle Ages, and there were few translations of Latin works into vernacular languages. In the 12th and 13th centuries, the Toledo School of Translators Escuela de Traductores de Toledo became a meeting point for European scholars who – attracted by the high wages they were offered – traveled and settled down in Toledo, Spain, to translate major philosophical, religious, scientific and medical works from Arabic, Greek and Hebrew into Latin and Castilian. Roger Bacon, a 13th-century English scholar, was the first linguist to assess that a translator should have a thorough knowledge of both the source language and the target language to produce a good translation, and that he should also be well versed in the discipline of the work he was translating. The first fine translations into English were produced by Geoffrey Chaucer in the 14th century. During this Council, Pletho met Cosimo de Medici, the ruler of Florence and a great patron of learning and the arts, and influenced him to found a Platonic Academy. For the first time, readers demanded rigor of rendering, as philosophical and religious beliefs depended on the exact words of Plato and Jesus and Aristotle and others. In the 16th century Non-scholarly literature continued to rely on adaptation. This translation was also the first Bible translation to work directly from Hebrew and Greek texts. After translating the whole New Testament, Tyndale went on with the Old Testament and translated half of it. Tyndale also became a leading figure in Protestant Reformation before receiving a death sentence for an unlicensed possession of Scripture in English. It became the first mass-produced English translation as a result of new advances in the art of printing. Martin Luther, a German professor of theology, was a seminal figure in the Protestant Reformation, and translated the Bible into German in his later life. He was the first European to assess that one translates satisfactorily only toward his own language, a bold statement that became the norm two centuries later. The Bible in Dutch was published in by Jacob van Lisevelt. The Bible in Slovene was published in by Jurij Dalmatn. All these translations were a driving force in the use of vernacular languages in Christian Europe, and contributed to the development of modern European languages. According to Cervantes, translations of his time – with the exception of those made from Greek into Latin – were like looking at a Flemish tapestry by its reverse side. While the main figures of a Flemish tapestry could be discerned, they were obscured by the loose threads and lack the clarity of the front side. In the 18th century According to Johann Gottfried Herder, a German philosopher, theologian, poet and translator, a translator should translate toward and not from his own language, a statement already expressed two centuries earlier by Martin Luther, who was the first European scholar to assess that one translates satisfactorily only toward his own language. But there was still not much concern for accuracy. Whatever they did not understand in a text, or thought might bore readers, they omitted. They cheerfully assumed that their own style of expression was the best, and that texts should be made to conform to it in translation. Even for scholarship, except for the translation of the Bible, they cared no more

than had their predecessors, and did not shrink from making translations from languages they hardly knew. In the 19th century The 19th century brought new standards for accuracy and style. In regard to accuracy, as observed by J. An exception was the outstanding translation of Persian poems by the English writer and poet Edward FitzGerald. Schleiermacher favored the latter approach. Yan Fu, a Chinese scholar and translator, developed in his three-facet theory of translation: Of the three facets, he considered the second as the most important. If the meaning of the translated text is not accessible to the reader, there is no difference between having translated the text and not having translated the text at all. His theory had much impact worldwide, but was also sometimes wrongly extended to the translation of literary works. Borges also wrote and lectured extensively on the art of translation, holding that a translation may improve upon the original, may even be unfaithful to it, and that alternative and potentially contradictory renderings of the same work can be equally valid. Other translators still consciously produced literal translations, for example translators of religious, historic, academic and scientific texts, who often adhered as closely as possible to the source text, sometimes stretching the limits of the target language to produce an unidiomatic text. While writing his own poetry, he translated many works from Dutch and Belgian poets into English. He was hired as an associate professor in the new Institute of Interpreters and Translators later renamed the Institute of Translation Studies created in within the University of Amsterdam, and also wrote a number of influential articles about translation. From Antiquity to the mid 20th century, interpreting was only seen as a specialized form of translation – spoken instead of written – before becoming a separate discipline. Interpreting Studies gradually emancipated from Translation Studies in order to concentrate on the practical and pedagogical aspect of interpreting. It also developed a different interdisciplinary theoretical framework including sociological studies of interpreters and their working conditions – while such studies are still sorely lacking for translators to this day. In the 21st century Like their ancestors, contemporary translators have substantially helped to shape the languages into which they have translated. When a target language lacks terms that are found in a source language, they borrow those terms, thereby enriching the target language with source-language calques literally translated words or phrases and loanwords words incorporated into another language without translation. Translation Studies is now an academic interdiscipline that includes many fields of study comparative literature, computer science, history, linguistics, philology, philosophy, semiotics, terminology , with the need for translators to choose a specialty legal, economic, technical, scientific or literary translation in order to be trained accordingly. The internet has fostered a worldwide market for translation services, for language localization and for translation software. It has also brought many issues, with precarious employment for some translators, with scarce freelance work and lower fees for other translators, and with the rise of unpaid volunteer translation – including crowdsourced translation – promoted by major organizations that have the necessary funds to hire many professionals – but no professional translators. Bilingual people need more skills than two languages to become good translators. To be a translator is a profession, and implies a thorough knowledge of a given discipline. While this was obvious in the Middle Ages and later on, this seems less obvious now. Despite the omnipresent MT machine translation and CAT computer-assisted translation tools that are supposed to speed up the translation process, some translators still want to be compared to artists, not only for the precarious life they have, but also for the craft, knowledge, dedication and passion they put into their work. Bibliography [] Ignacy Krasicki. Grolier, New York, vol. Brepols Publishers, Turnhout, Belgium.

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Chapter 6 : Human cadaveric dissection: a historical account from ancient Greece to the modern era

Number 14, Complex Predicates, 98 Subaru Impreza Wrx Repair Manual, Tying Greece To The West Us West German Greek Relations 74 Studies In 20th And 21st Century European History, Johns Hopkins Medical Guide To Health After 50 John Hopkins Medical Guide To Health After

Today, though no longer driven by subsistence requirements, fitness remains paramount to health and well-being. This article will highlight historical events and influential individuals who have shaped the history of fitness beginning with primitive man up to the foundation of the modern fitness movement. Primitive man and fitness pre, B. C Primitive nomadic lifestyles required the continual task of hunting and gathering food for survival 1. Tribes commonly went on one- or two- day hunting journeys for food and water. Regular physical activity apart from that necessary for hunting and gathering was also a principal component of life. Following successful hunting and gathering excursions, celebration events included trips of six to 20 miles to neighboring tribes to visit friends and family, where dancing and cultural games could often last several hours. This Paleolithic pattern of subsistence pursuit and celebration, demanding a high level of fitness and consisting of various forms of physical activity, defined human life 2. The Neolithic Agricultural Revolution 10., B. The Neolithic Agricultural Revolution marked the conclusion of primitive lifestyle and signified the dawn of civilization. This historic period was defined by important agricultural developments including animal and plant domestication, and the invention of the plow. These human advancements made it possible for hunting-gathering tribes to obtain vast amounts of food while remaining in the same area, thus transforming primitive man into an agrarian agriculture and farming society 3. This era in history symbolizes the beginning of a more sedentary lifestyle, as man began to alleviate some hardships of life while. Ancient civilizations - China and India B. China In China, the philosophical teachings of Confucius encouraged participation in regular physical activity 4. It was recognized that physical inactivity was associated with certain diseases referred to as organ malfunctions and internal stoppages, which sound similar to heart disease and diabetes were preventable with regular exercise for fitness. Consequently, Cong Fu gymnastics was developed to keep the body in good, working condition. Cong Fu exercise programs consisted of various stances and movements, characterized by separate foot positions and imitations of different animal fighting styles 5. In addition to Cong Fu gymnastics, other forms of physical activity existed throughout ancient China including archery, badminton, dancing, fencing, and wrestling. India In India, individual pursuit of fitness was discouraged as the religious beliefs of Buddhism and Hinduism emphasized spirituality and tended to neglect development of the body. Consequently, the importance of fitness within society in general was relatively low. However, an exercise program similar to Chinese Cong Fu gymnastics developed, while still conforming to religious beliefs, known as Yoga. Though its exact origin has yet to be identified, Yoga has existed for at least the past years. Translated, Yoga means union, and refers to one of the classic systems of Hindu philosophy that strives to bring together and personally develop the body, mind, and spirit. Yoga was originally developed by Hindu priests who lived frugal lifestyles characterized by discipline and meditation. Through observing and mimicking the movement and patterns of animals, priests hoped to achieve the same balance with nature that animals seemed to possess. This aspect of Yoga, known as Hatha Yoga, is the form with which Westerners are most familiar and is defined by a series of exercises in physical posture and breathing patterns 5. Besides balance with nature, ancient Indian philosophers recognized health benefits of Yoga including proper organ functioning and whole well-being. These health benefits have also been acknowledged in the modern-day United States, with an estimated 12 million individuals regularly participating in Yoga. The Near East B. Early political and military leaders within the civilizations of Assyria, Babylonia, Egypt, Palestine, Persia, and Syria, realizing the importance of fitness to the efficiency and performance of military forces, encouraged fitness throughout society 6. Perhaps the best example of a civilization utilizing fitness for political and military purposes is the Persian Empire. Persian leaders demanded strict physical fitness from its people,

which was accomplished through the implementation of rigid training programs. At the age of six, boys became property of the Empire and underwent training which included hunting, marching, riding, and javelin throwing. Fitness training to improve strength and stamina was not intended for health benefits, but rather to create more able soldiers to help expand the Empire 5. The Persian Empire during its height, with its policy and emphasis on high fitness, eventually encompassed all of the Near East. However, emphasis on fitness levels throughout the Persian civilization decreased as affluence and corruption entangled political and military leaders. The downfall and collapse of the Persian Empire occurred at a time when society could largely be characterized by an overall lack of fitness. Ancient Greek Civilization B. Athens Perhaps no other civilization has held fitness in such high regard as ancient Greece. The idealism of physical perfection was one that embodied ancient Greek civilization. The appreciation for beauty of the body and importance of health and fitness throughout society is one that is unparalleled in history. The Greeks believed development of the body was equally as important as development of the mind. Physical well-being was necessary for mental well-being, with the need for a strong, healthy body to harbor a sound mind. Many founding medical practitioners facilitated the growth of fitness throughout ancient Greece, including the likes of Herodicus, Hippocrates, and Galen 7. Gymnastics, along with music, was considered to be the most important classroom topic. A common saying in ancient Greek times was "exercise for the body and music for the soul 5 ". Gymnastics took place in palaestras, which were sites of physical education for young boys. The palaestra consisted of an indoor facility for gymnastics, in addition to an outdoor area for running, jumping, and wrestling. When adulthood was reached, typically between the ages of 14 and 16, the site for fitness training switched from palaestras to gymnasiums 8. Exercise in the palaestra and gymnasium was supervised by the paidotribe, who is similar to the modern fitness trainer. This idealistic fitness situation existed most strongly within Athens, which has been characterized as a democratic society most similar to the United States. However, the heightened interest in fitness within Spartan culture was primarily for military purposes. During this era, Greek states were frequently at war with each other. Fighting skills were highly correlated with physical fitness levels, making it imperative for individuals to maintain high fitness levels. Spartan society required males to enter special fitness programs at the age of six. This upbringing consisted of rigorous training programs that ensured all boys would grow into highly fit adult soldiers. Females were also required to maintain good physical condition for the purpose of being able to have strong offspring who could serve the state 9. The military-dominated culture of Sparta resulted in one of the most physically fit societies in the history of mankind. Roman Civilization B. The Roman Empire was the antithesis of the ancient Greek civilization with the overall physical fitness condition of the Roman civilization highest during its time of conquest and expansion. During this period, all Roman citizens between the ages of 17 and 60 were eligible for the military draft. Therefore, it was imperative for all citizens to maintain good physical condition and be prepared for service. Military training consisted of activities such as running, marching, jumping, and discus and javelin throwing This lifestyle resulted in strong, fit people who conquered nearly all of the Western World. However, the fitness levels of the general Roman population declined as individuals became enamored with wealth and entertainment, such as the gladiator battles. Materialistic acquisition and excess became higher priorities than physical condition. The lavish lifestyle and physical decay eventually took its toll as the Roman civilization fell to the physically superior Barbarian tribes from Northern Europe The Dark and Middle Ages The crumbling of the Roman Empire, which was conquered by Barbarians from Northern Europe, symbolized the beginning of a millennium of intellectual standstill. However, these occurrences were beneficial with respect to fitness. The barbaric tribes from Northern Europe possessed similar characteristics to primitive people. Their lifestyle consisted of hunting and gathering food, and tending to cattle Physical activity and fitness were prerequisites for survival. Therefore, despite the cultural setbacks that occurred with the fall of the Roman Empire, fitness experienced a revival during the Dark and Middle Ages. The Renaissance Following the Dark and Middle Ages, the rebirth of cultural learning from the ancient Greek and Roman civilizations gave rise to the Renaissance. Accompanying this time period was a renewed interest in

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the human body. Once again, the ancient Greek ideals, which glorified the human body, gained widespread acceptance. Many individuals, including Martin Luther religious leader, John Locke philosopher, Vittorino da Feltra, John Comenius, and Richard Mulcaster physical educators maintained that high fitness levels enhanced intellectual learning¹³. Civilizations that recognized the importance of fitness needed an avenue to convey this knowledge to their people. Therefore, fitness and physical education share a common bond. Physical education became the tool used to spread the value and benefits of fitness throughout society. School programs, primarily in ancient Greece, had previously recognized the necessity for curriculums involving physical education. The renewed appreciation for human life, which evolved during the Renaissance, created an environment which was ready for the widespread development of physical education throughout Europe. National Period in Europe Continental Europe underwent numerous cultural changes following the Renaissance. Fitness remained important and continued to follow trends initiated during the Renaissance. Physical education programs expanded within emerging nations of Europe. Intense feelings for nationalism and independence created the atmosphere for the first modern fitness movement, which came in the form of gymnastics programs. Gymnastics enjoyed immense popularity during this era, becoming especially prevalent in Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Great Britain. Germany The growth of gymnastics in Germany can be primarily attributed to the work of two physical educators: Johann Guts Muths and Friedrich Jahn. Guts Muths is generally referred to as the "Grandfather of German Gymnastics. His lifetime works and achievements are found in two books - *Gymnastics for the Young and Games*. Friedrich Jahn earned the title of "Father of German Gymnastics" for his long-lived work. With its downfall to France, Germany was subsequently divided into separate states. He believed future susceptibility to foreign invasion could be prevented through physical development of the German people. Shortly thereafter, exercise facilities that housed apparatuses designed for running, jumping, balancing, climbing, and vaulting called Turnvereins developed throughout Germany⁴. Sweden Per Henrik Ling developed and introduced his own gymnastics program to Sweden which consisted of three different areas: Ling, who had a strong medical background, recognized that exercise was necessary for all persons. He maintained that exercise programs should be devised based on individual differences.

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Chapter 7 : Upcoming Events - HistEvents

The Certificate in Western European Studies provides students with strong interests in predominantly Western European history, culture, politics, and languages to complement their major with a regional specialization.

History of Ancient and Medieval Western Civilization to History of Early Modern Western Civilization to A basic survey of Western Civilization from the Renaissance to History of Modern Western Civilization Since A basic survey of Western Civilization since History of the United States, A basic survey of American history from the settlement at Jamestown to the surrender at Appomattox. History of the United States Since A basic survey of American history from Reconstruction to the present. Historiography and Research Methods. An introduction to the concept of historiography i. The course also provides instruction in basic research methods, including technology-based research. Selected Topics in US History. Selected topics in United States history at the introductory or intermediate level. A study of the Middle East, with special attention given to the 19th and 20th centuries. Major themes include Islam and traditional Middle Eastern society and culture, the impact of Western imperialism in the Middle East, and the effort to build strong and independent nations out of the remnants of the Ottoman, French, and British empires. Successful completion of this course satisfies the Cultures and Peoples requirement for graduation. History of the Peoples of Sub-Saharan Africa. Survey of African history from pre-history to present. Themes include the role of the environment; interactions of ethno-linguistic groups; African Diaspora; the impact of Islam and European imperialism on African peoples; and decolonization and state formation in the 20th century. History of Slavery and Slave Societies. An introduction to the slave trades, varieties of enslavement, and major slave societies around the globe from the Ancient Mediterranean to the persistence of human trafficking into the 21st century. Colonial Latin American History. A study of the pre-Columbian and colonial eras of Latin American history examining the economic, political, and social aspects of colonial life, looking in particular at the adaptation of Spanish and Native American institutions to the new colonial reality. Study also includes the formation of ethnic and national identities between the 16th century conquest and the independence movements of the early 19th century. Modern Latin American History. An examination of Latin American history since Independence focusing upon the continuing issues of ethnicity and race relations, as well as the impact of global capitalism on Latin America. Emphasis is also placed on rural and urban social movements, peasant rebellions, political developments, and the relations of Latin American nations with the United States. Selected topics in the history of South Carolina from the colonial period to modern times. History of the American South to the Civil War. A cultural, economic, and social history of the South from to the Civil War. History of the American South since the Civil War. A cultural, economic, and social history of the South since the Civil War. Colonial North America to A study of American colonials as members of the British Empire, as settlers of the new frontier, and as innovators in institutions and ideas. Era of the American Revolution, The course emphasizes the social and intellectual dimensions of the Revolutionary era, from initial economic and political conflicts within the Empire, to the War for Independence and its impact in the Atlantic World, and the creation of a federal Constitution and a viable republic. Topics in American Social History. Explorations in American society, thought, and culture. A study of the Civil War years, A study of the overlapping and often conflicting diverse societies of western North America from c. The course will explore how physical geography and climate - aridity in particular - influenced the rise and containment of Native empires, Spanish settlement, comparative economic frontiers and military expansionism, and the mythic West of Hollywood. Introduction to landmark cases in American legal history and their social implications. Topics include heritage of English law, free speech, the Constitution and the Supreme Court, slavery and civil rights, gender and identity, the law and scientific enquiry, and terrorism. History of American Women. An exploration of the experience of women in their public and private roles throughout American history. A history of American foreign policy from national independence to the status of international power, with particular focus on the 20th century.

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African-American History to An in-depth exploration of the African-American experience from , with a focus on the institution of American slavery. African-Am History since An examination of African-American history since This class places particular emphasis on the competing ideas within the African-American community regarding how best to deal with the continuing legacies of slavery and racism. An examination of the major trends of recent American history, from the end of World War II to the present. Rome in the Late Republic. The Late Roman Republic is one of the most culturally rich and well documented periods of the ancient world. This course focuses on political history, from early social upheaval, through the civil wars, political divisions and wrangling, to the ascension of the first Roman emperor. We will study first-hand accounts from this period such as letters, court speeches, and campaign narratives, in order to address the question, why did the Roman Republic fall?. This class examines Athens in the age of Pericles, from the end of the Persian Wars in to the death of Socrates in In the final weeks students will follow the Athenians through the Peloponnesian war to their defeat, subsequent tyrannical oligarchy, and finally their decision to try and execute the philosopher Socrates. The Early History of Rome. Students will discuss topics such as the foundation of the city of Rome, the semi-mythological history of the early period, and the Punic Wars, while learning to weigh diverse bodies of evidence such as epigraphy and material culture in order to engage with the cultural, religious, and military landscape of the Republic. The World of Alexander the Great. Why he is a hero to some, and an irresponsible hedonist to others?. An exploration of the history of the Roman Empire from the ascension of Augustus to the fall of the Empire in the West. Warfare in the Ancient World. This course traces the history of ancient warfare from the origins of military thought in Greece to the 6th century A. Students will engage with ancient writers on military subjects and explore themes such as strategy and composition of ancient armies. The Early and High Middle Ages The Late Middle Ages and Renaissance Special attention is given to late medieval society and the Black Plague, as well as to the social and economic conditions that gave rise to the Italian Renaissance. The latter part of the course focuses on the culture of the Renaissance and its export to Northern Europe and on the impact of the Renaissance on European history. The Reformation and Counter Reformation An examination of the social, political, and religious causes of the Reformation in the 16th century. The course focuses as well on the changes made to European Christendom during the Reformation era and on the similarities and differences among different sects. Emphasis is placed on the reform of the existing church as both a self-motivated Catholic Reformation and as a response to Protestantism. Witchcraft and Magic in Early Modern Europe. A study of the intellectual and cultural origins of the European Witch Craze of the sixteenth century. The course will focus on changing views of witchcraft and folk belief during the sixteenth century and examine how attitudes toward witchcraft continued to change throughout the early modern period in the context of the Reformation, Catholic Reformation and Enlightenment. Focusing chiefly on France, a study of European society between and , with emphasis on social and political developments, in particular the rise of absolute monarchy and the modern state. In addition, study includes the so-called Scientific Revolution and the intellectual culture of the Enlightenment, as well as the economic, social, and political crises that preceded the French Revolution. The end of the course focuses on the French Revolution itself. Europe in the Age of Revolutions, A survey of the revolutions in Europe, beginning with the French Revolution and continuing through the revolutionary movements of This course addresses the political, social, economic, and cultural pressures both leading to and resulting from revolutions. Europe in the Age of Anxieties, A survey of the pressing cultural and social issues of Europe after the end of the revolutionary period covered in History Major themes include the effects of Darwinian science, the growth of empire, changes in gender roles, and the rise of mass culture. A survey of the growth of modern Russia, both geographically and politically. Beginning with the westernization of Russia under Peter the Great, this course reviews the social and political transformation of the country in the 18th and 19th centuries. The ultimate goal is to examine explanations for the Communist Revolution of Selected Topics in History. Selected problems, periods or trends for intensive study and reading. World War, Fascism, and Modernism: A survey of the crucial events that defined the 20th century for Europe and the rest of the world.

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This course examines the origins and effects of World War I, the nature of fascism as it developed in Italy and Germany, and the different meanings of modernism and modernity as it developed in this period. It then turns to the "crisis of democracy" that emerged with the Great Depression that eventually yielded another world war along with the Holocaust. Western Europe in the Age of the Superpowers, A survey of Western Europe in the half century after World War II, with attention to the Cold War, the welfare state, decolonization, youth rebellion, and the development of the European Union. A survey of the major political, social, and religious upheavals in England and Scotland during this period, focusing on the establishment of parliamentary monarchy and the break from the Catholic Church.

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Chapter 8 : History - Undergraduate Catalog

Modern Greek Studies at Illinois the 19th and 20th century and finally the region's integration into the mainland Europe and the European Union in the 20th and.

Emphasis on social, intellectual, and technological change in the development of the culture and history of the area. Biographical Approaches to History and Culture 3 Examination of various historical and culture developments through the lives of notable individuals from ancient times to the present; specific lives change each semester and cover a wide range of areas of accomplishment. Introduction to what history is and what historians do with a focus on historiography speaking and writing. Introduction to what history is and what historians do with a focus on research speaking and writing “ Topics in History 3 Listed in the Schedule of Courses, chosen according to timely interest. Labor History 3 Study of work and labor in the United States; emphasis on economic, political, social, and cultural changes in work and the labor movement. Urban History 3 History of cities and urban life in the United States from the colonial period to twentieth century. Immigration History 3 Experiences of immigrants in the United States and the creation of ethnic identity from the colonial period to the present. Environmental History 3 This course considers interactions between human populations and their physical environments from early arrivals in North America through the 20th century, addressing the impacts of this exchange on both culture and nature. Themes of exploration include revolution, gender, sexuality, socio-economic class, as well as the dynamics of globalization, among others e. Students will also build skills in analysis, speaking, writing and digital fluencies. History and Film 3 History of how motion pictures have portrayed the American past and how they have shaped views of the past. While political, cultural, and religious topics are covered, the primary focus is historical, interrogating how Turkish society evolved in response to a series of domestic, regional, and international challenges in the past century and a half. History and Popular Culture 3 This course explores the history of the United States through the prism of popular culture. Topics include fashion, food ways, television, movies, and music. Because of the sweeping nature of this subject, this course will borrow from a variety of fields of inquiry, including the history of science, law, religion, queer studies, and feminism. A study of politics, society, and economics through the mirror of law. Covers such issues as property, the family, and the legal profession. Major cases, questions, and issues from the revolutionary period through the 20th century. HIST or and junior or senior status. HIST or and junior or senior status or permission of instructor. This seminar explores the history of communication, new media, and the digital age. It examines the social and cultural history of information production and consumption from cave paintings to the internet, and from analog computation machines to handheld computers. Generally based in the history of the US, but, given the transfer of technology and the increasing ability of these technologies to transcend geographic regions, it ranges more widely as appropriate. The digital humanities, history and new media, and the creation of online historical resources “ The World of Late Antiquity 3 Prerequisites: The Mediterranean world in a period of military collapse, barbarian invasion, intellectual revolution, and religious ferment. The seminar also explores how Ottoman historians think about, analyze, and interpret that past, along with the cultural legacies left behind by the empire throughout the Middle East and the Balkans. History or and junior or senior status. The daily life of ordinary people in Europe during the early modern period , examining topics such as childbirth, literacy, disease, sexuality, and work. History and evolution on books in western culture, from manuscript to print to electronic media. HIST or or permission of instructor. Slavery in America from its African origins to its demise during the Civil War. HIST or , junior or senior status or permission of instructor. This research seminar allows students to explore the movement of peoples in and out of the US from the colonial period to the present. England from the fifth-century migrations of Angles and Saxons to the Norman Conquest. Examines the origins and impact of conspiracy theory thinking from the late 18th century to the present in a comparative context with special emphasis on France, the United States, and Russia. Role of women in Latin American

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society from the prequest period to the present. Key realms of focus include visual culture, cinema, and fiction, as well as the themes of memory, identity, politics, and global capitalism. Examine Soviet state and society under Stalin with particular attention to Communist ideology, collectivization, and industrialization, popular culture, the Great Terror, everyday life, and World War II. HIST or and junior or senior status or permission of the instructor. See Schedule of Courses each semester. HIST or , senior status and faculty approval of research topic. Individual investigation of a subject of historical significance, directed by a member of the department.

Chapter 9 : European Union failures in Greece and some possible explanations - Munich Personal RePEc

The European Union (EU) failed repeatedly to hold Greece accountable for violations of the Treaties it signed over the past five decades. In particular, the EU not only did not express reservations in the face of these violations, but on two crucial occasions, in and again in , it even rewarded Greece with concessionary decisions, which contributed significantly to its present calamities.