July 15, 1991

COPY

MEMORANDUM FOR DAVID DEMAREST
TONY SNOW
CURT SMITH

THROUGH: DAN MCGROARTY

FROM: CAROL BLYMIRE

SUBJECT: ANECDOTES FOR STATE DINNER TOAST
AND COCKTAIL RECEPTION IN ATHENS

I hope you find the following information useful. I will continue to work on finding more anecdotes and points of humor. If the information provided is not along the lines of what you had originally intended, please call and let me know what the exact focus should be. FYI -- Both contacts were extremely disciplined in clearing everything through their Ambassadors.

John Klekas, the Political Officer in our Embassy in Athens, provided me with the suggestions below.

-- Constantine Mitsotakis has an affinity for hiking and mountain climbing.

-- A family man, he enjoys gatherings with his wife, three daughters, one son, and numerous grandchildren. His son graduated from Harvard in June, 1990.

-- In Greece, he is known as "The Tall One." John suggests a statement like "I know many of your citizens refer to you as 'The Tall One'... let me tell you, you stand tall in my eyes as well."

The Press Attache in the Greek Embassy, Magdalene Kantartzis, suggested the following:

-- "The Tall One never retreats or falls back (on decisions); he conquers the highest mountains. This is just one more way he can appreciate his hobby of mountain-climbing."

Magdalene can be reached at (202)332-2727
John Klekas can be reached at our embassy in Athens, at ext. 390.

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

July 16, 1991

COPY

MEMORANDUM FOR **DAVID DEMAREST**
TONY SNOW
CURT SMITH

THROUGH: **DAN MCGROARTY** DMcG

FROM: **CAROL BLYMIRE** CB

SUBJECT: **ANECDOTES FOR THE STATE DINNER TOAST AND RECIPROCAL COCKTAIL RECEPTION, PART TWO**

John Long at State called the Political Counselor at our Embassy in Athens, and relayed the following anecdote:

> Prime Minister Mitsotakis' wife is an excellent cook. Wherever he goes, and whenever he can, he raves about her cooking -- especially her meatballs, or keftedakia [[kef-ted-AH-kyee-ah]].
>
> The Political Counselor also called Mitsotakis' daughter, who had absolutely nothing to offer.

Magdalene of the Greek Embassy called and said that the feeling from the Prime Minister's press director was to use "The Tall One." I think that would be good for the Cocktail Reception, and the meatball reference in the State Dinner toast.

Again, please call if this is not what you're looking for. I've put out an APB to all my contacts, and I'll fax anecdotes as I get them. Hope the trip is going well. Take care.

THE WHITE HOUSE

WASHINGTON

July 16, 1991

MEMORANDUM FOR **DAVID DEMAREST**
TONY SNOW
CURT SMITH

THROUGH: **DAN MCGROARTY** DMcG

FROM: **CAROL BLYMIRE** CB

SUBJECT: **ANECDOTES FOR STATE DINNER TOAST AND RECIPROCAL COCKTAIL RECEPTION, PART THREE**

Magdalene called from the Greek Embassy a few minutes ago. Here's some more info for you.

PM Mitsotakis is considered one of the most gifted Parliamentarians. After the assassination of his son-in-law, he showed enormous courage when he went to Parliament.

Mitsotakis left Greece from approximately 1967-74 to live in Paris. The people of Crete admired and loved him so much that they frequently sent him air mail packages of "the best fish from their nets."

(Hinchliffe/Blymire)
July 2, 1991 11 a.m.
RECEPTION Draft One

PRESIDENTIAL REMARKS: RECIPROCAL COCKTAIL RECEPTION
July 19, 1991
Athens, Greece

The Greek people are known for the warm way they welcome visitors into the embrace of their family. The generous, even exuberant, reception we've received here in this vibrant land shows how justly deserved that reputation is. Thank you all. I also want to thank Ambassador Mike Sotirhos and Estelle, for hosting this reception and for opening up their home to us.

I've learned a lot in this visit. I've seen the intensity of feelings and motion and sound that give this land its unique character. I've been struck by its beauty -- by the dazzling quality of light and colors. I've heard the resonance of democracy echoing through the streets and fields where it was born. I've seen the indomitable Greek strength on faces that have withstood tough tests by land and sea and man. I've visited the sites that sum up your extraordinary cultural heritage. I've felt the sense of community that marks this land -- people bound together by shared religion, history, language, and democratic ideals. And everywhere I've seen flying high and proud your flag, symbolizing the wisdom of God, freedom and country.

I feel confident about relations between our countries. That confidence is based on the fact that our connection is grounded in deeply held common interests. Our peoples have a longstanding friendship. We share devotion to the principles of individual freedom. We are dedicated to a free market society.

We are pledged to a Europe whole and peaceful and free.

Prime Minister Mitsotakis I had the chance for much good, fruitful talk over the last two days. We spoke of many issues -- like the future of Europe; the role of the Alliance; how to reduce tensions between Greece and Turkey; prospects for a fair and equitable settlement in Cyprus; the situation in the Balkans; and Greece's role as a force for stability in the region.

Constantine Mitsotakis is an eloquent spokesman for his country. He is also a man of ideas. We share the strong belief in a cooperative relationship that will benefit both countries. We also share a vision of Europe's future -- based on the ideals that guide our governments -- democracy, liberty, and the free market. Together, we will help make that vision a reality.

We're leaving Greece refreshed. We're leaving comforted by the solidity of the ties between our nations. And, Mr. President, we look forward to your visit to my country next year.

The world still turns to Greece for inspiration -- as your poet George Seferis wrote: "We were searching to rediscover the first seed so that the ancient drama could begin again." That first seed is the light which shone out so brightly from this city 2500 years ago: the light called "dimokratia" (de-mow-CRAW-tee-ah). It is, indeed, being rediscovered across this world -- and what excitement it is to watch. And, thanks to the example of Greece, the ancient drama of liberty is beginning again on every hemisphere of the planet we share. God bless you all.

# # # # #

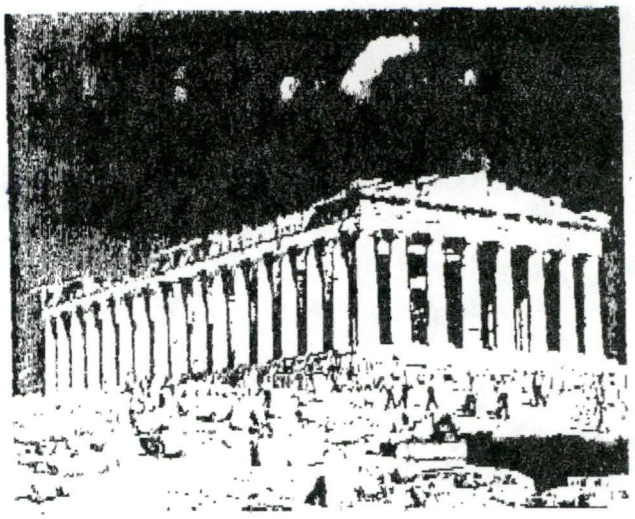
American Embassy
ATHENS

91 JUL 8

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE

IOM

INFORMATION MANAGEMENT



CHANCERY

TELEFAX COVER PAGE

FAX Number (30)—(1)— 722--4310

For: CAROL BLYMIRE
Spoochwriter, Office of the President

FAX No. (202)456-6218

From: John KLEKAS, Political Officer, AmEmbassy Athens

Date: _____ Time: _____

NUMBER OF PAGES INCLUDING COVER SHEET: 2

If you did not receive this number of pages please call the above number immediately.

REMARKS: Reply to request from Ms. Blymire

Embassy of the United States of America

UNCLASSIFIED

MEMORANDUM

Athens

July 8, 1991

TO: Carol BLYMIRE, Speechwriter, The White House

FROM: John KLEKAS, Political Officer, AmEmbassy Athens

SUBJECT: Notes Requested in connection with Presidential Visit to Athens

Ref: Blymire/Klekas telephone call 7/3/91

The following comments are forwarded in response to your request.

CONSTANTINE KARAMANLIS, PRESIDENT OF THE HELLENIC REPUBLIC

--Born in northern Greece in 1907;

--Enjoys playing golf;
President Bush may wish to say something along the lines of "I hope to improve my golf game by picking up a few pointers from President Karamanlis, who I understand also likes to spend some time on the links."

CONSTANTINE MITSOTAKIS, PRIME MINISTER, born 10/18/18

--The best reference, not widely known outside Greece, is his nickname, "The Tall One." We think a statement like, "I know many of your citizens refer to you as 'The Tall One'-- Let me tell you, you stand tall in my eyes as well" (or "you stand tall in our esteem") would be appreciated.

--He points to his affinity for hiking and mountain climbing as indicative of his continued physical fitness;

--A family man, he enjoys gatherings with his wife, three daughters, one son, and numerous grandchildren. His son graduated from Harvard in June 1990;

PM Mits

after assassination of son-in-law

↓ Terrorist group 9/26/89

↓

PM went to Parliament
extraordinary courage

→ Crete ♡s him

left greece
1967-74
lived in Paris

while in Paris in

so beloved by
Crete that they sent
him the best fish from
their nets by air

Tony-
room 538

— considered

one of the most gifted Parliamentarians

speech on resignation from George Papandreou govt.

1965

best rhetorical
ach. in Greek Parliament

FACT CHECK COPY

(Hinchliffe/Blymire)
July 10, 1991 12 a.m.
RECEPTION Draft One

STAFFED
91 JUL 10 12:49

PRESIDENTIAL REMARKS: GREECE RECIPROCAL COCKTAIL RECEPTION
July 19, 1991
Athens, Greece

Thank you. And special thanks to ~~Mike and Estelle~~ Ambassador and Mrs. Sotirhos, for hosting this reception and for opening up their home to us. John Long State

During this visit, we've all seen the intense passions of the Greek people, and we've thrilled to the motion and sound that give this land its unique character. I've been struck by the beauty of Greece -- by the special quality of its light and colors -- by the scenes and sounds have inspired philosophers and poets for centuries.

The Greek people have withstood tough tests by land and sea and man. I've visited sites that sum up your extraordinary cultural heritage, from the heights of the Acropolis to the shores of Crete. The entire world owes much to Greece, which gave to us precious gifts of religion, language, drama, philosophy -- and democracy. Your flag -- symbolizing the wisdom of God, freedom and country -- tells the world that these precious ideals live and thrive in modern Greece.

I feel confident that relations between our countries will continue to deepen and improve. We share many common interests, and we revel in our longstanding friendship. But more profoundly, we share ties of spirit. We share devotion to the principles of individual freedom. We believe deeply in the promise and productivity of the free market society. We are pledged to building a Europe whole and peaceful and free. We are

committed to building stronger ties between our two lands. \\\

Prime Minister Mitsotakis and I had the chance for much good, fruitful talk over the last two days -- and I'm looking forward to continuing this exchange when we meet in Washington for a ~~working~~ official visit. We wrestled with many issues critical to our nations' futures. We spoke of changes in Europe, and of the role of the Alliance. We talked of ways to reduce tensions between Greece and Turkey. We discussed prospects for a fair and equitable settlement in Cyprus. And we talked at length about Greece's role as the leading force for democracy and stability in the Balkans.

Constantine Mitsotakis speaks eloquently for his country. His ideas speak passionately for our world. America believes firmly in his integrity, his commitment and his vision, and we in America pledge our unwavering support. \\

He and I reaffirm our commitment to the cooperative relationship that benefits both our countries. We pledge to work for a European future based on the ideals that guide our governments -- democracy, liberty, and the free market.

The world still turns to Greece for inspiration -- as your poet George Seferis wrote: "We were searching to rediscover the first seed so that the ancient drama could begin again." That first seed sprouted in this city 2,500 years ago, and the entire world knows it by its ancient Greek name: "dimokratia" (de-mow-CRAW-tee-ah) -- democracy.

The great idea born here now offers new life and hope to

nations around the world. The ancient faith in liberty has revitalized the entire world, and given rise to a New World Order. The revolution that has remade our world began here, and those who love liberty and democracy will never forget it. God bless you all.

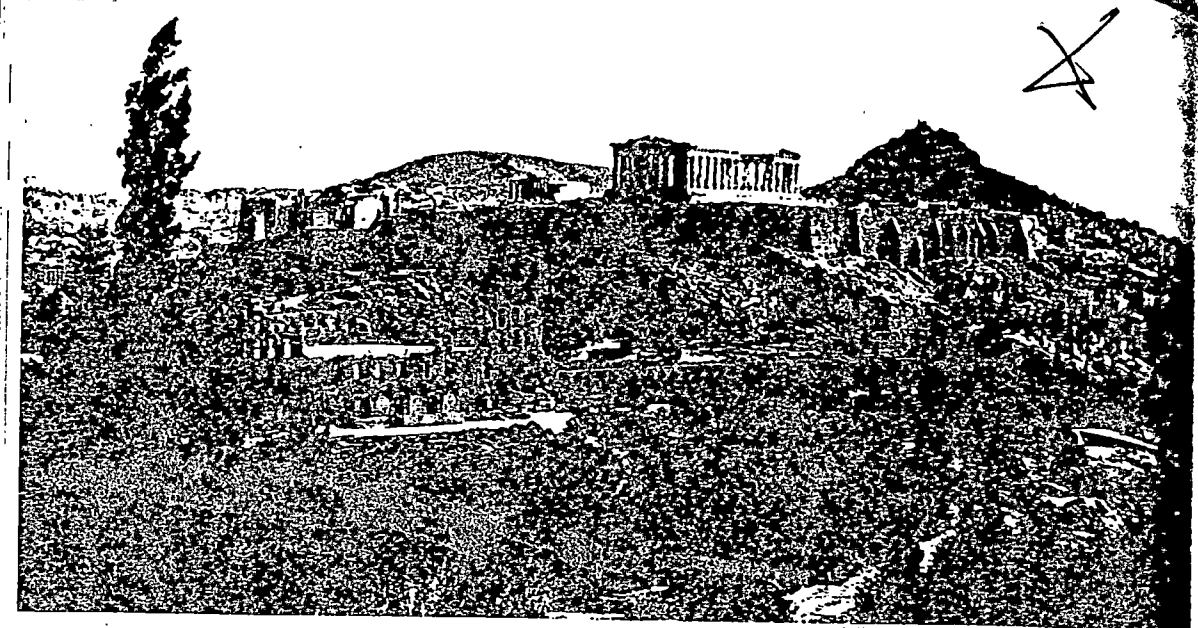
# # # #

7/19
Cocktail Reception

I ALSO WISH TO THANK AMBASSADOR MIKE SOTIRHOS AND HIS WIFE ESTELLE, FOR INVITING ME TO STAY AT THEIR HOME AND FOR HOSTING THIS RECEPTION TONIGHT. MIKE HAS DONE A SUPERB JOB REPRESENTING OUR INTERESTS. MORE THAN EVER AFTER MY VISIT HERE, I FEEL CONFIDENT ABOUT RELATIONS BETWEEN OUR TWO COUNTRIES.

MY CONFIDENCE REFLECTS THE FACT THAT OUR RELATIONSHIP IS GROUNDED ON A BROAD RANGE OF COMMON INTERESTS. LONGSTANDING FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN OUR PEOPLES. SHARED DEVOTION TO THE PRINCIPLES OF DEMOCRACY AND INDIVIDUAL FREEDOM. PARTNERSHIP IN THE ALLIANCE AND ITS GOALS. JOINT DEDICATION TO THE OPERATION OF A FREE MARKET SOCIETY. OUR SHARED INTEREST IN A EUROPE FREE AND AT PEACE.

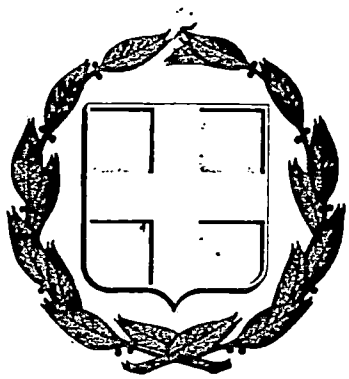
I HAVE HAD THE PRIVILEGE OVER THE LAST TWO DAYS TO MEET SEVERAL TIMES WITH PRIME MINISTER MITSOTAKIS, AND HIS COLLEAGUES. WE DISCUSSED RELATIONS BETWEEN OUR TWO COUNTRIES AND WAYS TO FURTHER IMPROVE THEM. WE ALSO ADDRESSED BROADER, INTERNATIONAL ISSUES SUCH AS THE FUTURE OF EUROPE AND ROLE OF THE ALLIANCE. THE BALKANS, AND HOW GREECE CAN SERVE AS A FORCE FOR STABILITY IN THAT REGION. REDUCTIONS IN TENSIONS BETWEEN GREECE AND TURKEY. CYPRUS AND PROSPECTS FOR A FAIR AND EQUITABLE SETTLEMENT.



BERNARD G. SILBERSTEIN, FROM RAPHO GUILLUMETTE

The centuries-old Parthenon, crowning the ancient Acropolis, overlooks the modern city of Athens.

GREECE



Coat of Arms of Greece

CONTENTS

GREECE is a small country located in the southern part of the Balkan Peninsula. One of the world's greatest civilizations once flourished there. The modern state occupies not only the southern end of the Balkan Peninsula but also the Ionian Islands, lying off its west coast; the large island of Crete, to the south; and, except for Imbros (Turkish Imroz) and Tenedos (Turkish Bozcaada), all the main Aegean islands, including Rhodes.

In world politics Greece is a member of the Western bloc. A member of the Council of Europe, Greece joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in 1952 and the European Economic Community (EEC), or Common Market, as an associate member in 1962. In its relations with its immediate neighbors, since World War II Greece has experienced periods of strain. With its three Communist neighbors to the north, who helped the Communists in Greece during the Greek civil war of 1944–1949, the strain has been ideological. But there have also been long-standing territorial issues. Greece still claims northern Epirus, or southern Albania. Yugoslavia has cast longing eyes on Greek Macedonia; and Bulgaria has claimed Thrace as well as Macedonia. Nonetheless, since 1948, relations with Yugoslavia have ranged from proper to cordial, and in 1965 diplomatic relations with Bulgaria were fully restored. Turkey, a member of the Western bloc, is formally allied with Greece as a comember of NATO. But in the mid-1950's the issue of the status of Cyprus revived historic Greco-Turkish hostility, and on two occasions after that almost precipitated war. Due to the sizable Greek communities in the Middle East and the influence of the Greek Orthodox Church there, Greece maintains cordial relations with both Israel and the Arab states.

Geographical Influences. Geography has always had a great influence on the Greeks and is responsible for many of the continuities of their long history. The mountains that chop up the Greek lands have contributed to localism and have been a major barrier to national unity. The difficulties of communication by land and the presence of the sea have made mariners out of some Greeks in every age. The limited natural resources of the Greek lands have always ensured a steady flow of Greeks to richer lands. Finally, the position of the Greek lands in the eastern Mediterranean basin, in close proximity to Asia and Africa, has made them a bridge between east and west, north and south.

The natural land bridges are two. The later route, along which the Romans once built the famous Via Egnatia, runs from the Albanian city of Durrës (Durazzo) on the Adriatic coast to

...alonika (Thessaloniki) and then along the north-...n Aegean coast to Istanbul (formerly Constan-...nople). The vertical route runs from Athens ...nd points farther south, in the Peloponnesus, ...hrough the eastern part of the Greek mainland, ...ntersects the lateral route at Salonika, and fol-...ws the Axios-Vardar-Morava river valley to ...he Danube River and thence into central Eu-...ope. In addition to the land routes, the sea ...onstitutes a natural highway, with the numerous ...slands serving as stepping-stones, especially in ...he Aegean. These natural routes, along which ...rmies, merchants, goods, and ideas could travel, ...ave served as channels through which the Greeks could extend their influence or, alter-...natively, receive the influence of others.

Cultural Influences. Because of their curiosity, ...genuity, and gregariousness, as well as for ...his basic geographic reason, the Greeks as a ...eople have never developed in isolation from ...he outside world. Their long and distinguished ...story has always been tied to that of other ...eoples and cultures, with periods of cultural ...rrowing alternating with periods of cultural ...nding.

During the 2d millennium B. C. the Greeks ...bsorbed the influences of the older Mesopota-...mian and Egyptian civilizations through the Minoan society of Crete and produced the Mycenaean civilization that was celebrated in ...he *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. After absorbing the Dorian conquerors who descended from the north ...round 1100 B. C., the Greeks colonized western Asia Minor (Ionia), the Black Sea coast, Sicily, ...nd points farther west in the Mediterranean. In ...his expanded Greek world, they developed the ...lassical civilization that culminated in the ...chievements of 5th century Athens. Under Alexander the Great in the 4th century B. C. the Greeks acquired an empire extending to India.

Subsequently, the Greeks fell under the west-...rn domination of Rome, but culturally they took ...heir conquerors captive. During this same Ro-...an period, they fell under the eastern spiritual ...ominion of Christianity, but gave it a Greek ...hilosophical formulation that has remained im-...portant ever since. To Byzantium, the con-...inuation of the Eastern Roman Empire after the ...th century A. D., they gave their language and ...a good part of their cultural heritage. Through Byzantium, they radiated the Greek Orthodox ...rm of Christianity, a modified Greek alphabet (Cyrillic), and other cultural influences to the Slavs (Russians, Bulgarians, and Serbs).

In the 14th and 15th centuries, the Greeks ...ere conquered from the east by the Ottoman ...rks, but in the process Greeks fleeing west-...rd brought to the Renaissance West whatever ...assical Greek learning the West had not already ...bsorbed. The long period of Ottoman domina-...n continued the flow of Oriental influences ...at had also taken place in Byzantine times. However, in the 18th century, while still under ...ttoman rule, the Greeks began to feel the first ...pact of modern Western civilization. It gave ...em a new appreciation of their classical heri-...ge and intensified their desire for national in-...pendence. Thus, since the 15th century, the ...reeks have been in one of their receiving ...eriods of history. Modern Greek history has ...en the attempt of the Greeks to Westernize ...hile remaining true to themselves.

Independent Greece. Greece, as an independent ...tion-state, is much younger than many other European countries. It achieved independence in 1830, after a decade of revolution, but with only about one third its present territory and with a majority of Greeks still under Ottoman rule. Relatively poor in natural resources, it has had a stormy history ever since. Until the years immediately following World War I, irredentism preoccupied the people, limited internal development of the country, and poisoned Greek-Turkish relations.

Since independence, political disunity and financial crises have been endemic in Greece, leading to continuous interference and domination by one or more of the world powers. Though Greece has been a monarchy, except for the period 1925–1935, the first dynasty was deposed in 1862, and in the 20th century three kings, including King Constantine in 1967, suffered exile at some point in their reigns. Coups d'etat in response to political crises have not been infrequent.

Peace and prosperity have seldom been enjoyed by modern Greece for long. In the 20th century the country was almost continuously at war from 1912 to 1923 and again from 1940 to 1949. It fought on the Allied side in World Wars I and II. Between the two wars, Greece was especially unstable. The struggle between monarchists and republicans was bitter; the country faced the immense task of assimilating more than one million Greek refugees from Turkey and Bulgaria; and population growth outstripped economic progress. The Greeks suffered severe hardships under Axis occupation during World War II and barely escaped Communist domination during the long and bitter civil war of 1944–1949. Only since the 1950's have the Greeks enjoyed relative peace and a degree of prosperity.

INFORMATION HIGHLIGHTS

Official Name: Hellenic Republic.

Head of State: President.

Head of Government: Premier.

Area: 50,960 square miles (131,986 sq km).

Boundaries: *North,* Albania, Yugoslavia, and Bulgaria; *east,* Turkey; *southeast,* Aegean Sea; *south,* Mediterranean Sea; and *west,* Adriatic Sea.

Highest Point: Mt. Olympus (9,573 feet, or 2,917 meters).

Population: (1981 census) 9,740,151; (1971 census) 8,768,641.

Capital: Athens (population, 1981 census: 885,136; Athens Metropolitan Area, 3,027,331).

Major Language: Greek (official).

Major Religious Groups: Eastern Orthodox (97%); Muslim (1.3%).

Monetary Unit: Drachma (1 drachma equals 100 lepta).

Weights and Measures: Metric system.

Flag: White cross extending full length and height of the flag on a light blue field (adopted June 1975 to replace flag with nine white stripes).

National Anthem: *Ethnikos Hymnos* (Hymn of Liberty), written by Dionysios Solomos, set to music by Nicholas Mantzaros.

Modern Greece

1. The People

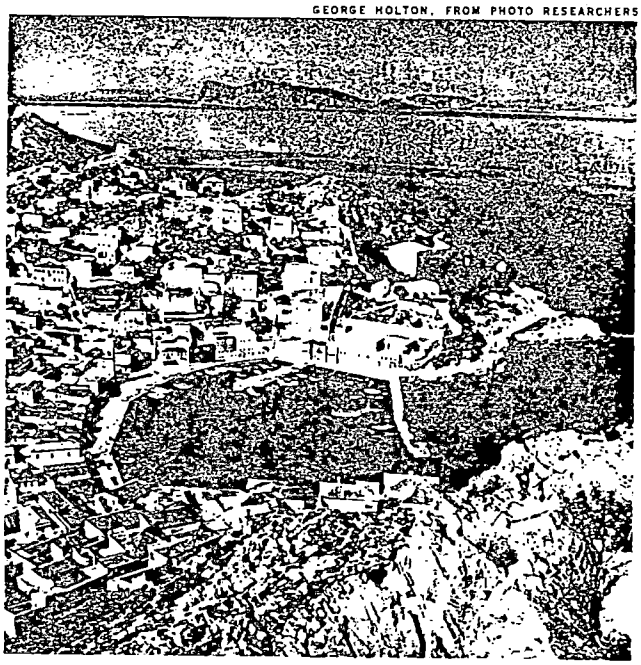
The names "Hellas" and "Hellenes," by which the Greeks refer to the country and themselves, originally designated a small district and tribe in Phthiotis. The name "Hellenes" was not applied to the Greek people as a whole until the post-Homeric period. The word "Greek" is derived from the Latin term "Graecus."

What defines a Greek historically is his language and the culture it expresses, not his race. Racially, the Greek people are a composite of the various peoples who have settled in the region over the centuries. That was probably true of the classical Greeks, who were separated from the original Greek-speaking inhabitants of the region by at least 1,000 years. It is certainly the case with the Greeks of today. In the 6th and the following centuries A. D., the Slavs settled in the Greek lands, as place-names in Greece attest. They were followed in the Middle Ages by Latins and Franks, Albanians and Turks. But because of the remarkable ability of Greek culture to assimilate intruders, by the dawn of the modern era the overwhelming majority of those living in Greece still spoke Greek and identified themselves as Greeks.

Greece today is linguistically one of the most homogeneous nations of the world. Virtually the entire population speaks Greek. There are, however, various bilingual groups which together make up almost 3% of the population. These include Albanian-speaking people in Epirus and Attica, a few Bulgarian-speaking Slavs on the Macedonian border, and some nomads speaking a dialect of Rumanian called Vlach. These groups are all Orthodox Christian in faith. In Greek Thrace there are two distinct ethnic groups of Muslims, who were exempted from the compulsory exchange of populations with Turkey in 1923: the Turkish-speaking descendants of Ottomans who settled there in the 14th century, and the Pomaks, descendants of pre-Ottoman inhabitants who converted to Islam during the Ottoman period. The latter speak a dialect akin to Bulgarian.

HYDRA, an island in the Aegean Sea, has a sheltered harbor that was once the center of a flourishing trade.

GEORGE HOLTON, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS



Language. Greek is an Indo-European language using a 24-letter alphabet. The use of Greek on the Greek mainland goes back to the early 2d millennium B. C. Modern Greek grew out of the popular Byzantine language, which in turn stemmed from the common language (Koine) used throughout the Greek world at the time of Alexander the Great. Turkish, Slavic, Albanian, Italian, and French words enriched the idiom.

The spoken form of the language (demotic) has become a rich and forceful literary medium. Alongside it there exists a purist form Katharevusa (Katharevousa), reconstructed at the beginning of the 19th century to accord more closely with ancient Greek. The latter is the official language of state and is used by the government, press, and universities.

Religion. The Eastern Orthodox faith is the official religion of Greece, though other faiths are tolerated. The Orthodox faith is professed by 97% of the population. Orthodoxy has traditionally commanded the loyalty of Greeks for spiritual reasons but also as a badge of nationality. Under Ottoman rule the Orthodox Church, headed by the patriarch of Constantinople, exercised civil as well as spiritual powers. When the Greeks achieved independence in 1830, the church in Greece withdrew from the control of the patriarch and became self-governing, or autocephalous. Ever since, it has been administered by a holy synod of bishops, subject to the control of the state, but it has maintained doctrinal unity with all other Orthodox churches. The chief primate of Greece is the archbishop of Athens. There is a married clergy, though only celibate priests may hold ranking positions within the hierarchy.

Among the religious minorities are the already mentioned Muslims of Greek Thrace, constituting about 1.3% of the population. There are also small communities of Roman Catholics, mostly remnants of Venetian times; Protestants, products of 19th century missionary activity; Armenian Monophysites; and Jews.

Population. The population of Greece, including the Greek islands, totaled 9,740,151 in the 1981 census. Since independence in 1830, it has multiplied more than 12 times, whereas the area of land has increased less than three times. The population density in 1981 was 191 persons per square mile (74 persons per sq km) of the total area, including the islands.

Greece suffered acutely from overpopulation in the years following World War I. More than one million refugees from Turkey and Bulgaria had to be absorbed. Also, foreign immigration restrictions cut off the emigration that had been taking place since the beginning of the century.

Since World War II, Greece has been spared the population explosion that has characterized many developing nations. But its low annual population growth was attributable in large part to renewed emigration. The number of emigrants

OUTDOOR CAFÉS along the waterfront of Mykonos provide a cheerful welcome for tourists from the mainland of Greece, as well as for foreign visitors.

PETER THROCKMORTON, FROM NANCY PALMER

...ve until the mid-1970's and then declined sharply. The chief recipients were the United States, Canada, Australia, and West Germany.

Urbanization. Concurrently, there has been a massive internal movement of people from the countryside to the cities. The chief recipients of rural emigrants have been Athens and Salonika. Many other smaller cities have absorbed their share as well. As a result, in 1981, greater Athens, including the port of Piraeus, contained 31% of the country's total population, as compared with only 6% in 1920. Approximately half of the Greek population is now classified as urban, compared with slightly less than one third in 1928. A frenetic building boom has taken place to house the new urban residents. Glistening, ultramodern apartment buildings have transformed parts of Athens and Salonika.

Both population movements affected the distribution of the rural population between the infertile hills and the fertile plains. Before the war, hill villages had been overpopulated and therefore contained the most poverty-striken segment of Greek society. Most of the postwar exodus to the cities or to foreign countries took place from the hill villages where the land was marginal. The population of the plains, where the land was amenable to mechanization, remained fairly stable.

Besides drawing off a portion of the rural inhabitants, the city has also extended its influence into the countryside through radio, newspapers, and a road system that reaches practically all the villages. The decline of rural isolation and self-sufficiency, which began before the war, has been intensified. Most villages now produce for profit rather than for mere subsistence, and therefore rely on the city to absorb their surpluses. Villagers, preferring standardized machine-made goods to their often aesthetically superior homemade clothes and household items, are dependent on the city for many essentials.

Since most villagers have relatives in the city or abroad, their mental horizon transcends their immediate surroundings. They no longer accept poverty as an act of God and accordingly expect more of life. However, since the cities have been constantly absorbing rural immigrants and because urban dwellers generally maintain close ties with the village of their origin, the city has retained at least some continuity with the past.

Social Structure. Social mobility has been a marked feature of modern Greek society. There is no hereditary aristocracy. Wealth, education, and personal achievement have been the chief determinants of social class. In the rural areas there are no fully formed social classes. The major social division is that between landowning and landless peasants. But most villagers own at least some land, and disparities of wealth and education are much less pronounced than in the cities.

In urban Greece, social classes are distinguishable. The upper class consists of shipowners, bankers, industrialists, and large-scale merchants. It also includes men of influence who may not be wealthy, such as leading politicians, senior military officers, and leaders in the professions and the arts, as well as self-made men who may not be educated. The middle class, a majority of the urban population, has two distinct parts. The upper part includes professional people, businessmen, officials, and senior executives. The lower middle class is made up of clerks, junior civil servants, small merchants and shopkeepers, craftsmen, and skilled workers. Finally, there is the lower class of unskilled, factory workers, drivers, and domestic servants.

Each social class has its own life-style. At least the educated and second-generation members of the upper class generally speak English or French fluently. They possess a cosmopolitan culture and indulge in conspicuous consumption. The middle classes tend to be thrifty and account for the remarkable growth of bank savings in Greece since World War II. The lower class, of limited education and often of recent rural origin, tends to be much closer to the rural areas in their style of life.

Social Values and Way of Life. The family plays a crucial role in Greek society. A closely knit unit, extending beyond a married couple and their children to include relatives as well, it commands a loyalty that overrides duty to other groups. Only the nation, and that only in time of crisis, can elicit equal devotion. Confidence and trust, self-sacrifice, and even friendship are usually restricted to the circle of one's family. Among Greeks who are not kinsmen, social obligations tend to be negative and marked by distrust. Cultivation of land or the running of a business tends to be a family enterprise because it allows men to pool their resources while sparing

HENRI CARTIER-BRESSON, FROM MAGNUM

LOCAL CRAFTS attract shoppers to an outdoor market in Sparta, which lies just south of the scenic ruins of the ancient city

them the necessity of working for nonkinsmen or investing in larger enterprises beyond family control.

The family is not just concerned with the upbringing of the children. Its ultimate concern is their marriage and honorable establishment. Daughters generally receive dowries. Sons receive equal portions of what remains either during the lifetime of the father or through inheritance. Family solidarity is a protective device against threats from the state or rival groups. However, it inhibits cooperative ventures between unrelated families, such as community action, labor unions, or farm cooperatives, and makes it difficult for the state to mobilize the population as a whole for the pursuit of national goals.

Concern for honor and desire for social reputation are deeply engrained attitudes among the Greeks, as they were in Homeric times. In the past, desire for social approval elicited the degree of conformity that permitted the Greeks to retain their heritage under adverse conditions. In more recent times, however, it has been instrumental in making Greeks adaptable to rapid social change, once those with prestige have shown the way. The Greeks as a whole have always been quick-witted and curious, freedom loving, and egalitarian in spirit. They admire personal achievement, disdain manual labor, and have a keen taste for intellectualism, discussion, and politics.

In spite of Westernization, the rhythm of daily life in Greece still bears distinctive features. Due to underemployment, the Greek farmer enjoys a great deal of leisure time, especially during certain seasons of the year. He spends most of it among exclusively male company in the village coffee house (*cafeneion*), talking, playing backgammon, or just observing. Though rural women have less time for leisure, they do spend some of it in public, apart from the men, at the village fountain or in the village churchyard.

In the cities, too, Greeks spend most of their leisure time out-of-doors and in public. The workday starts early in the morning and extends into the early evening, but it is interrupted by a long siesta in the early afternoon, when offices and stores close. In the evening, after work, Greeks come out in full force to the public squares, parks, and boulevards for a walk, refreshment, window-shopping, or just to see what is going on.

European-style clothing has universally replaced the traditional Greek garb, except for ceremonial and tourist purposes. Traditional dances, with several persons linked in a chain or with two dancing opposite each other, still prevail in the countryside and some have been revived in the dine-and-dance places (*tavernas*) of the cities. Some characteristically Greek items of diet are egg-lemon soup (*avgolemono*), stuffed vine leaves, various sorts of lamb dishes, a soft white cheese (*feta*), honeyed pastry of various types, a white resinated wine (*retsina*), an anise-flavored liqueur (*ouzo*), and demitasse coffee with a thick bottom of sediment.

Standard of Living. Following World War II there was a general rise in the standard of living. Real per capita income rose from $15 in 1955 to more than $500 in 1966. To be sure, inequalities among regions as well as groups continue. Income levels in greater Athens are far greater than those in the provinces. Yet no important segment of Greek society has been excluded from this general improvement.

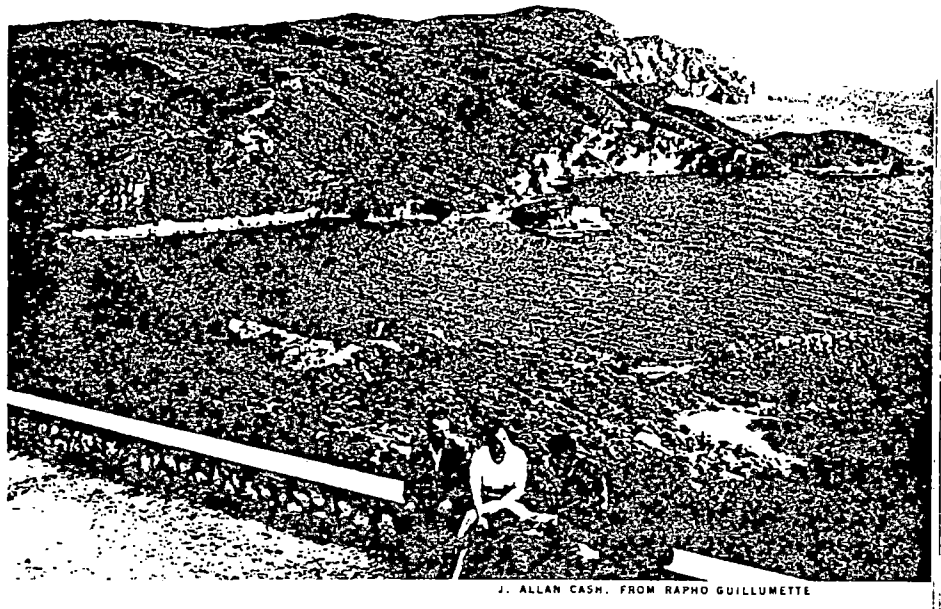
The rising standard of living is perhaps best reflected in dietary and health conditions, which before World War II were among the lowest in Europe. However, the composition of the average Greek diet, though now more varied and nutritional, still leaves much to be desired. The average life expectancy is about 69 years, and the country is free from endemic diseases.

JOHN A. PETROPULOS, *Amherst College*

2. The Land and Natural Resources

Within Greece there are wide variations of climate. The northern areas have the hard winter and torrid summer of southern continental Europe; the peninsula and the islands have the short mild winter and long dry summer of the Mediterranean area. Also, the western areas are much wetter than the eastern areas; thus Corfu is much greener than Chios. Within each district the mountains and the sea provide minor variations of climate, so that occupations and foodstuffs are varied.

Greece is divisible into the mainland and the islands, and into highlands, hill country and plains, each of which plays a different



THE ISLAND OF CORFU off the northwestern coast of Greece is one of the country's most beautiful islands. Its fertile soil produces olives and fruits.

J. ALLAN CASH, FROM RAPHO GUILLUMETTE

part in the country's economy. Capital, industry, and urban population are concentrated on the mainland at Athens and Salonika, situated in maritime plains, whereas Greek shipping is manned chiefly by islanders. The highlands provide timber, fodder, and pasture, especially for sheep; the plains are rich in cereals, tobacco, and rice; and the hill country provides olives, wine, figs, vegetables, maize, apples, pears, peaches, nuts, pasture, and charcoal. The seas breed fish, especially the tunny, in great numbers.

The Mainland. The mainland consists of northern Greece, central Greece, and the Peloponnesus. Thrace, Macedonia, and Epirus, constituting northern Greece, are relatively rich in basic foodstuffs and large in population. Thrace and Macedonia have large plains and coastal flats that grow excellent cereals, cotton, and tobacco, and maintain cattle, while their mountains are forested at high levels with pine, fir, beech, and chestnut, and at lower levels with mixed deciduous timber. Apples, pears, and peaches are increasingly produced for export. Epirus, on the western side of the Pindus range, has fewer plains and more pasture. It produces cattle, sheep, maize, milk products, and, at Arta, olives, citrus fruits, and rice. Sheep graze in the mountains in the summer and in the lowlands in the winter.

In central Greece, Thessaly is the richest region. Cereals are grown and stock pastured on its three large plains, while the mountains and hills produce timber, fruit, nuts, and olives, and provide pasture. Trikkala and Larissa are the chief centers inland; Volos on the Gulf of Volos (Pagasai) is the chief port.

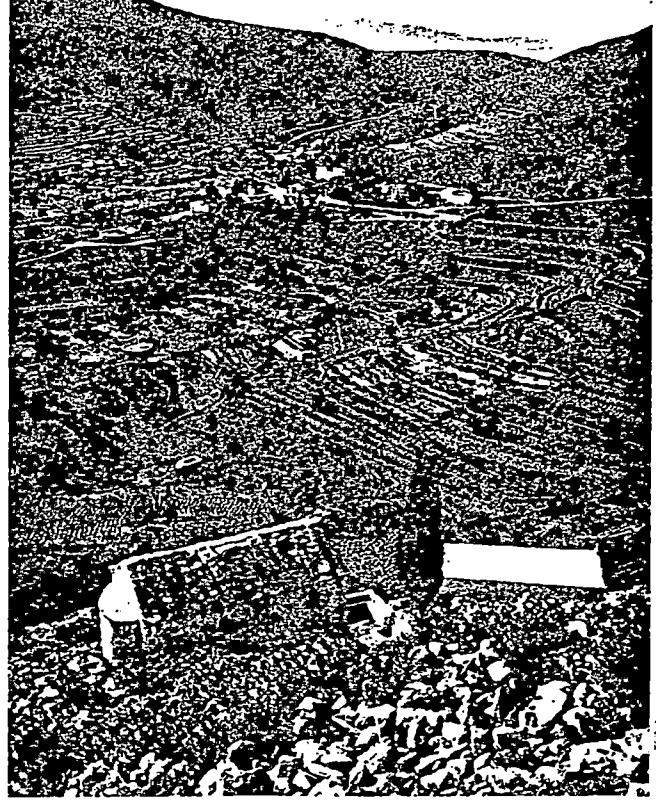
To the south the plains of Phocis and Boeotia are rich in wheat. Attica, with its light soil and Mediterranean climate, is suitable for the culture of the olive; its cereal-producing plains are small; its indented coast is well wooded with the small Mediterranean pine. The Athens-Piraeus metropolitan area, linking plain and coast together, is by far the largest center of population in Greece. The political and cultural capital, it lies at the focal point of seaborne commerce and overland traffic between northern Greece and the Peloponnesus.

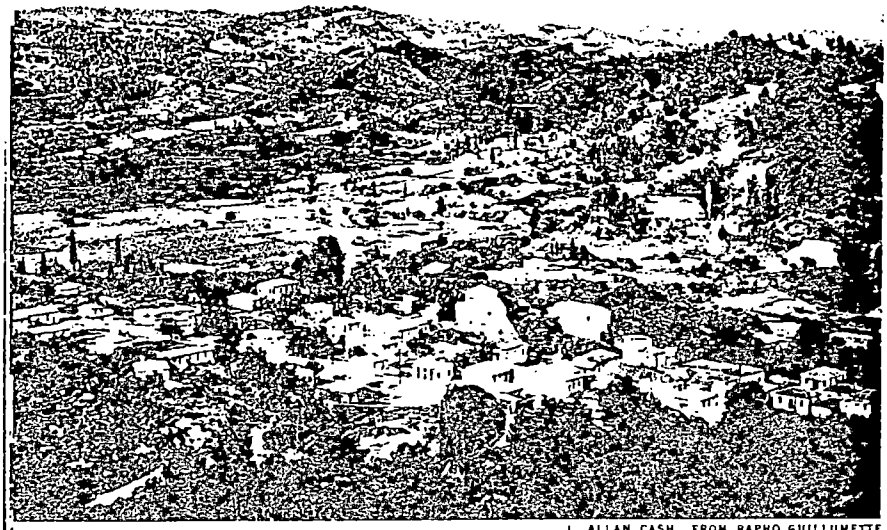
The western part of central Greece is much more mountainous. Parts of Acarnania and Aetolia are barren tracts of limestone; the population is relatively thin, except in the plain of Agrinion, where fine tobacco is grown and processed. The southern coast facing the Gulf of Corinth is generally rugged; Naupaktos and Itea are its chief ports.

The Peloponnesus is entered via Megara, a wine-producing area. Corinthia, Achaea, and Elis grow most of the grapes for the currant and sultana raisins that Greece exports. The Isthmus Canal being little used, Corinth has be-

TERRACED HILLSIDES on the island of Aegina enable crops to be raised on otherwise unusable land.

ERICH HARTMANN, FROM MAGNUM





J. ALLAN CASH, FROM RAPHO GUILLUMETTE

THE VILLAGE OF Olym... lies in a lush valley near ... site of the ancient sanc... Here were held the ... Olympic Games of ...

come a provincial town. Patras in Achaea is the main center of export from the Peloponnesus. Elis, a rich farmland, has only one port, Katakolon. In the south the alluvial basins of Kalamata and Sparta are very fertile, but water for irrigation is in short supply. In the center, Arcadia's limestone mountains have meager pastures and pockets of arable land, the largest of which is in the area around Tripolis. To the east, Argolis and Epidaurus resemble Attica in climate and products, but the population is rural. The Peloponnesus, so nearly an island, has an ethos of its own; life is hard but sunny, and a diet of bread, cheese, olives, garlic, and wine seems to suffice.

The Islands. The islands fall into groups. The western, Ionian islands, enjoying more rainfall, are more productive and more wooded than those east of the mainland; thus Corfu (Kerkira), which has the densest rural population in Greece, is able to export olives, fruit and wine. These islands control the coasting trade, Corfu having special importance as the key to the Adriatic.

East of the mainland, Cythera (Kithira), Aegina, and Euboea controlled the coastal trade at various times in history, but not today. Only Euboea is rich in its own right: it has timber, pasture, cereals, olives, and vines; it trades with the mainland opposite; and its channel offers shelter to small ships.

Between Euboea and the Dardanelles, the Northern Sporades have good harbors, little soil, and some olive groves, while Lemnos, having better soil, produces timber, cattle, cereals, and wine. Lemnos' harbor is magnificent. Well-wooded Thasos, and Samothrace with its granite peak, like the three prongs of the peninsula of Chalcidice on the mainland, have more rainfall and are more fertile than the outlying islands.

In the central Aegean the Cyclades are similar to Attica in climate and olive production, and the people engage in seafaring. Eastward the largest islands off Turkey—Lesbos, Chios, and Samos—are relatively rich in olives, wine, figs, fruit, and mastic gum. To the southeast the Dodecanese include small, almost waterless islands, where men live mainly from the sea; two larger islands, Kos and Karpathos, produce olives, wine, and fruit. Rhodes lies at the southeastern gate of the Aegean basin. Once famous for its forests, Rhodes still exports olives, wine, fruit, vegetables, and honey.

The largest Greek island, Crete, forms the southern side of the Aegean basin. Its mountains, once forested with cypress, cedar, pine, and oak, are now mostly bare, but the rich arable plains and the fertile hillsides give it a favorable balance of trade. Its better ports face the Aegean.

N. G. L. HAMMOND
University of Bristol

3. The Economy

As a result of foreign occupation during World War II and the long civil war that followed (1944–1949), economic recovery started later in Greece than in most war-torn countries. Yet, thanks to massive U. S. economic aid, it had been achieved by 1950–1951 and the basis laid for economic expansion. In 1953 the Greek government devalued the currency by 50%, initiating the monetary stability that lasted until the early 1960's. It also removed many import controls, making it easier to acquire equipment and machinery. United States aid declined rapidly after 1952, and direct assistance ceased in 1962.

The rapid expansion of the Greek economy after 1950 was apparent in an annual growth rate of the gross domestic product that averaged 7.5% between the mid-1940's and the mid-1960's and about 5% by the mid-1970's.

By tradition an agricultural country, Greece experienced a significant change at the beginning of the 1970's, when manufacturing began to account for a greater share of the gross domestic product than did agriculture. While agricultural production accounted for more than 90% of the country's exports in 1960, it dropped to about 36% by 1974. At the same time, the increased industrial production accounted for nearly 64% of the exports by 1974. In the mid-1970's, industrial production was increasing at a rate of about 10% annually.

An adverse balance of trade existed after the pre–World War II period despite a fourfold increase in exports between 1963 and 1973. The deficit was offset in part by a remarkable improvement in invisible receipts from shipping, tourism, and emigrants' remittances.

Economic expansion led to a serious problem of inflation. By the late 1970's, with the annual inflationary rate at 15%, the government was forced to take emergency actions.

Greece's principal trading partner has been the European Economic Community (EEC), in which

ATHANASIOS TSAGRIS, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS

Greece, where almost half of the population subsists by farming, is a land of small, individually owned farmsteads.

it attained associate membership in 1962. Greece's relationship with the European Economic Community, or Common Market, involved mutual reduction of tariffs over a 20-year period and led to western European, especially German, replacement of the United States as the major source of public loans to Greece. Greece was admitted to full membership in 1979, effective in 1981 after completion of all necessary ratifications.

Power. Before World War II, Greece's per capita production of electricity was the lowest in Europe. Recognizing that industrialization depended on the availability of electric power, the Greek state embarked on a nationwide electrification program. Between 1966 and 1971, electric power production was nearly doubled as both hydroelectric and coal-fueled plants were added. Virtually all of Greece's public power system is state owned.

Fuel and power resources remain inadequate. High-grade coal is lacking and nine tenths of its lignite (brown coal) is used to generate electric power. In February 1974 the Greek government announced that oil and gas had been struck in commercial quantities in the Aegean, a few miles off the island of Thasos.

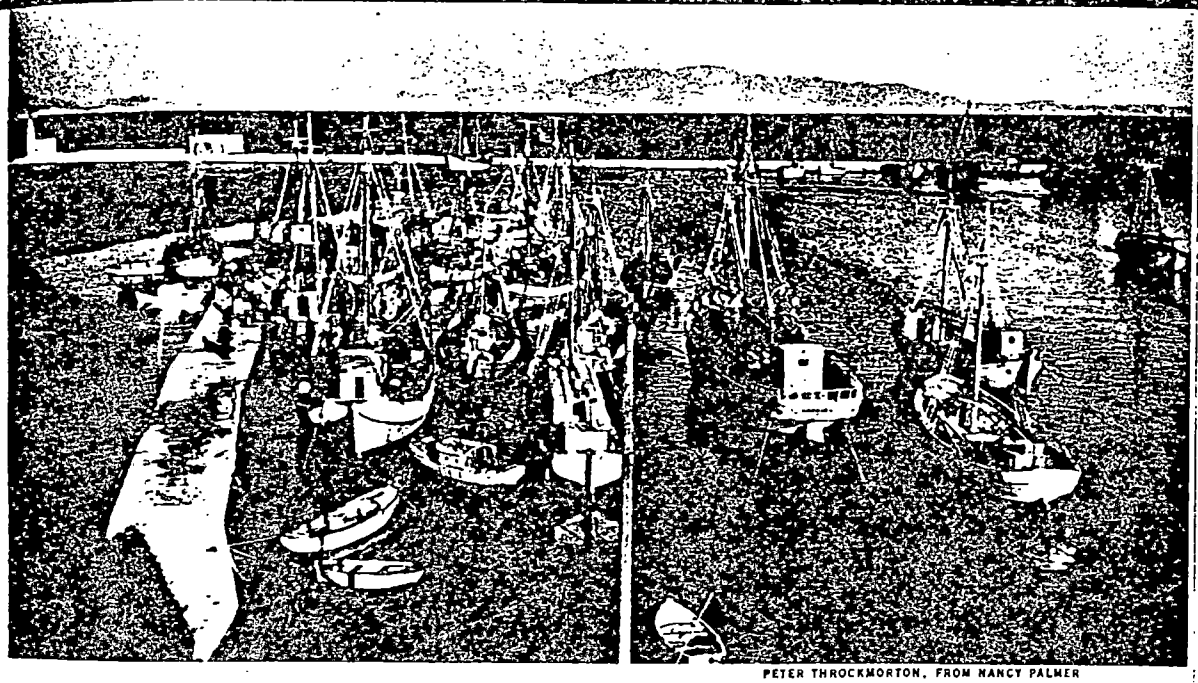
Mining and Metallurgy. There is a wide variety of minerals available in Greece, such as bauxite, lignite, chromiferous iron, barite, sulfur, magnesite, iron, emery, chromite, and marble. The basic metal industry of Greece produces such items as iron reinforcing bars, magnesite, and lead, as well as steel, aluminum, and copper sheets. Yet the mining industry provides only a small percentage of the national income and labor force. In the 1970's the minerals industry expanded considerably, as to both exploration for new ore deposits and building of new ore-processing facilities. Most mines are privately owned, but the government's policy aims at development of the mineral industry through better mechanization, financing, transportation, and exploration.

Manufacturing. The Greek manufacturing industry originated at the very end of the 19th century and gained steadily between World Wars I and II. Since then it has made striking gains. Between 1953 and 1963 its output doubled. Its annual rate of growth averaged 9% between 1948 and 1964 and reached as high as 11.7% in 1965–1966. Textiles, food processing, chemicals, metals, cigarettes, paper products, cement, and steel are major industries. The building construction industry has grown considerably since the civil war that ended in 1949.

Developing out of small artisan businesses, manufacturing is still largely a matter of small family enterprises engaged in inefficient, non-specialized, small-scale production. Yet relatively few firms account for the bulk of production, and industry is still concentrated in the area of Athens and Salonika. Some economists complain that too small a portion of available capital is being invested in manufacturing as compared with other sectors of the economy. All agree that there is a serious shortage of factory managers. Protected by a high tariff wall until 1953, Greek manufacturing has concentrated almost exclusively on the domestic market.

Yet large-scale industry, operating efficiently with modern machinery and adequate power, is being developed, much of it built by foreign private investment. Two such enterprises are the great aluminum refinery on the Corinthian Gulf and the Esso-Pappas complex of petroleum, metallurgical, and chemical factories near Salonika. Thanks to them, Greece is exporting aluminum, nickel, iron products, and liquid fuel. Fertilizer production and shipbuilding were also new industries. Association with the Common Market has made further modernization a necessity. It means that Greek industry will have to compete with the more efficient industry of western Europe to sell its goods, even within Greece.

Agriculture. Only about 29% of the land surface of Greece is arable. Yet almost one half the population depends on farming for a livelihood. As a result of government division of large estates before World War II, and of the practice of dividing the land among all the children of a landowner, Greece is a land of small, individually owned farmsteads. These are almost all subdivided into a number of widely dispersed plots



PETER THROCKMORTON, FROM NANCY PALMER

One of Greece's many small fishing fleets, which for centuries have plied the surrounding seas for their catch.

Though holdings are too small and fragmented to be farmed efficiently, the government has abstained from forced collectivization, and there has been little response to its legislation for voluntary land consolidation.

Agricultural productivity has increased markedly since World War II, though the annual growth rate has been somewhat sporadic and lower than that of industry. A good deal of this growth resulted from the extension of cultivated areas. Much also came from improvements in the yield of already cultivated land, through irrigation, better seed, and fertilizer. However, by the late 1970's, agriculture contributed only a little over one third of the country's exports.

Wheat, olives, and vines, the basis of traditional Greek agriculture, still play an important part in meeting the nutritional needs of the Greek people. In 1957, Greek farmers succeeded, for the first time, in growing enough wheat to meet the nation's need for bread. Olive trees, of which Greece is the third- or fourth-largest grower, satisfy the nation's demand for oils. Vines provide the domestic market with wine. Since World War II rice has become an important crop. Agricultural commodities for export are tobacco (the most important), currants and other raisins, citrus, table grapes, and other fruits, and cotton. All but the first two have assumed their importance since World War II.

The government has attempted to diversify the crop pattern through a decrease in wheat and tobacco production and an increase in the output of fruits, vegetables, rice, cotton, sugar, and livestock. There is a growing foreign demand for fruits, vegetables, and cotton. These products require more intensive labor for their production and bring greater monetary rewards than does the production of wheat. Thus they reduce rural underemployment and bring farmers greater profits. The raising of livestock, dairy farming, and the growing of sugar beets, industries which are still underdeveloped, are calculated to provide the meat, dairy products, and sugar that now have to be imported to meet the nation's demand for a more varied diet. As yet, the principles of modern animal husbandry are little practiced. The cattle population is relatively small, fodder is scarce, and natural pastures have contracted as cultivation has expanded.

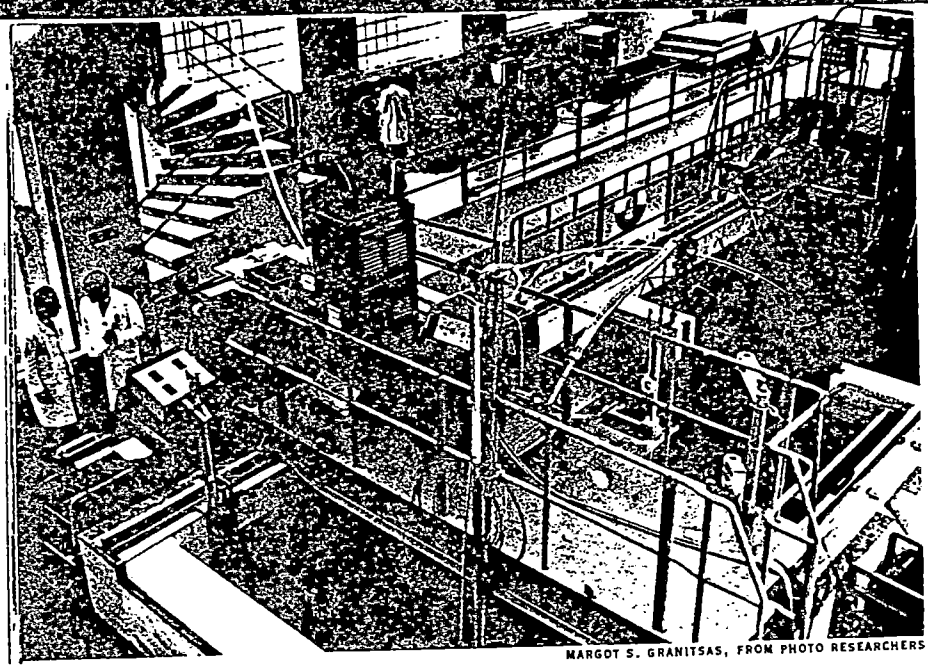
International Trade. Between the late 1930's and the mid-1970's, Greek foreign trade increased by nearly 340%. Imports rose by more than 400% and exports by more than 240%. Thus an increasingly adverse balance of trade became a regular feature of the Greek economy for many years. The excessive rise in imports was partly a consequence of modernization, which necessitated the purchase abroad of tractors, industrial machinery, and transportation equipment, and partly because of increased purchases of consumer goods.

In 1970, industrial products accounted for more than half of Greek exports. Within about five years, exports were divided roughly into two thirds industrial and one third agricultural products. Greece's continuing problem was that some of its exports were largely in the luxury or semiluxury category, the demand for which drops in times of recession, while a sizable portion of imports consisted of essentials.

About half of Greece's trade is with the EEC countries, of which West Germany commands the greatest share. The United States and Britain also remain important trading partners. Although the Communist countries play a far smaller role in the country's foreign trade, Greece has a higher export dependence on them than do other members of the EEC.

Transportation and Communications. The main highways and railroads of Greece follow natural historic routes. The railways system, rebuilt after World War II to its prewar extent, has given way to roads as the chief means of transportation. Great advances have been made in roadbuilding. The main highways were widened and improved. Even more important, the construction of secondary roads has ended the centuries-old isolation of many villages.

Maritime transportation and shipping have always been important in Greece. Among the many ports of Greece, Piraeus (the port of Athens), Salonika, and Patras are the most important. Piraeus is one of the chief ports of the Mediterranean and handles 60% of all Greek



MARGOT S. GRANITSAS, FROM PHOTO RESEARCHERS

THE NUCLEAR REACTOR at Democritos, the nuclear research center outside Athens, is illustrative of the advances being made in all phases of Greek life.

shipping. Salonika is the outlet for other Balkan countries as well as for Greece's northern provinces. Ferries connect Patras with the western mainland and with Brindisi, Italy. The Greek merchant fleet ranks fifth in the world in tonnage (more than 25 million tons in 1976). Greek-owned vessels flying foreign flags totaled over 23 million tons in that year. Receipts from shipping constitute one of the major sources of invisible earnings.

Olympic Airways, a private company primarily owned by Greeks, has maintained a monopoly on Greek air transport since 1952. From Athens airport, it maintains regular air services with all parts of Greece and the rest of the world. Greece has nationwide telephone and telegraph systems, both of them government-controlled. By the constitution of 1975, radio and television broadcasting also were placed under government control.

Tourism. Because of its antiquities, mild climate, and scenic beauty, Greece has long been a land of tourism. But only after World War II was there a concerted attempt to have tourism play a vital part in the economy. This effort included the building of roads, the construction of modern hotels, the organization of coach tours, cruises, and drama and music festivals, and the establishment of information offices abroad. By the late 1970's, over 4 million tourists visited Greece annually. Tourism has become one of the major sources of invisible earnings.

4. Education

Greeks have long treasured education as a channel of social mobility, as a means of recovering their glorious past, and as a way to achieve national progress. The modern revival of education started in the 18th century under Ottoman rule and played a vital role in stimulating the desire for national independence. After independence the state adopted the principle of free, compulsory, public education. But because of limited resources, implementation of this principle came very slowly. Only in 1929 was education made compulsory at the primary level, and the length of compulsory education has never been permanently extended since then. Only in 1964 was education made free at all levels. Since World War I, but at a greater pace since World War II, the number of schools and teachers, as well as the proportion of the young people in school, has increased. One indicator of this is the rise in literacy from 39% of the population aged 10 years or older in 1907 to 88% in 1972.

Elementary education covers six years of study between the ages of 6 and 12. Secondary school education has been divided, since 1964, into two successive 3-year cycles, the gymnasium and the lyceum. Higher education is provided by five universities in Athens, Salonika, Patras, Jannina, and Komotini, and by more than a dozen other schools with university status, each specializing in a separate field. Besides these three basic cycles, there is also preschool and vocational education. Nine years of education became compulsory by 1980 under the constitution adopted in 1975.

The role of private education in the total educational system varies according to the level of education. At the primary level, private schools are few except in Athens. At the secondary level, they are important throughout the country. Higher educational institutions are mostly state financed.

The percentage of the student population completing secondary school in Greece greatly exceeds that of several Western European countries, while the proportion of university graduates runs equal to or slightly greater than theirs. However, the quality of education in Greece does not equal the numbers educated. There are too few teachers and schools for the number of students. Teaching methods are outmoded and textbooks deficient. In terms of educational needs, too small a portion of the national budget is spent on education. The curriculum is overwhelmingly "classical" and deficient in technical subjects. As a result, there is an excess of lawyers and civil servants, while engineers, economists, technicians, and business managers are in short supply. Of the thousands of Greek students who annually study in foreign universities, a large percentage concentrate in scientific and technical fields.

In spite of its shortcomings, the educational system is contributing to social mobility. For instance, as far back as 1961, nearly half of the students at Athens and Salonika universities came from families of farmers and other laborers.

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5. Sites of Tourist Interest

The following sites are of major interest:

Athens. Structures on the Acropolis include the Propylaea, the temple of Athena Nike, the Erechtheum, and the Parthenon. Among other classical remains in the city are the Agora, the reconstructed stoa of Attalus, the Roman Odeum of Atticus and the Theater of Dionysus, and the temple of Hephaestus.

Bassae. The Doric temple of Apollo Epicurius is one of the best-preserved Greek temples. It was built by Ictinus.

Cape Sounion. On this cape at the eastern tip of the Attic peninsula stand remains of the Doric temple dedicated to Poseidon, god of the sea.

Corinth. The acropolis (Acrocorinth) of the city is 1,857 feet (566 meters) high. Ruins near the Acrocorinth include a temple of Apollo, a theater, stoas, an odeum hewn out of rock, the spring of Pirene, and part of the road to Lechaeum.

Delphi. Impressive ruins include the Temple of Apollo, the theater and stadium, a tholos or round building, the reconstructed treasury of Athens, and treasuries of several other city-states. Mt. Parnassus looms 8,062 feet (2,457 meters) over Delphi; it and neighboring Mt. Helicon were the home of the Muses.

Eleusis. Located 12 miles (29 km) west of Athens, Eleusis was one of the most sacred sites in all of Greece. It contains the ruins of a great hall of initiation into the cult of Demeter, and the Great Propylaea, built about 170 A. D.

Epidaurus. The ruins of this complex dedicated to Asclepius include the Temple of Asclepius, a tholos, baths, and a gymnasium. The great theater (4th century B. C.) is still used.

Marathon. The plain where the Athenians defeated the Persians in 490 B. C. lies 20 miles (32 km) northeast of Athens; the mound for the Athenian dead can be seen.

Mycenae. The capital of the legendary Agamemnon is situated high above the plain of Argos. The court and megaron of the palace of the Atridae have been partially restored. Other remains of the Mycenaean period include the Lion Gate, cyclopean walls, Grave Circles A and B, the house of the oil merchant, the Treasury of Atreus (a royal tomb of about 1300 B. C.) and the so-called tomb of Clytemnestra.

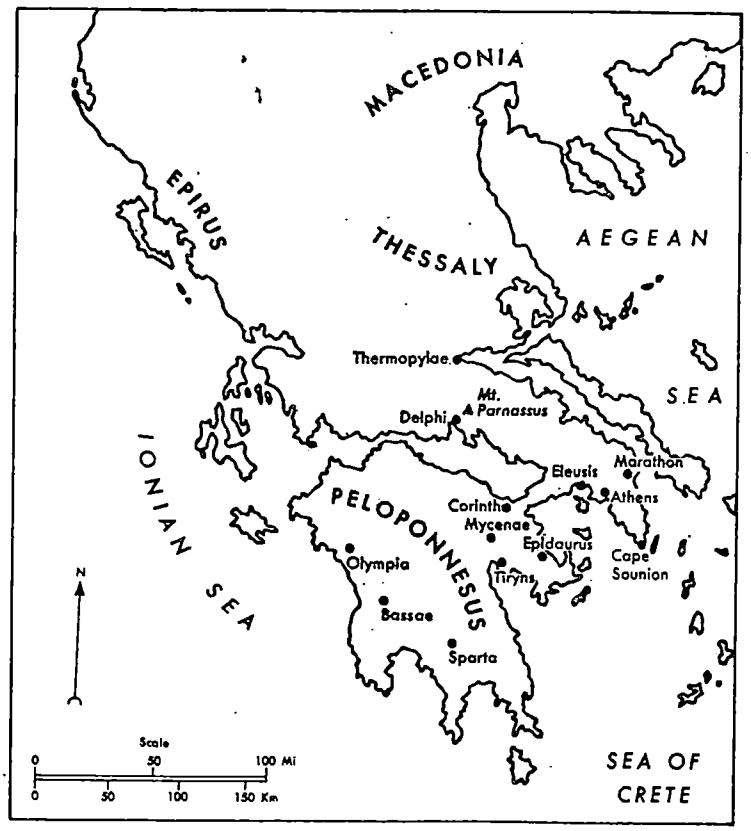
Olympia. Beginning in 776 B. C., the Olympic Games were held here for almost 1,000 years. Extant remains include the entrance to the stadium, the temples of Zeus and Hera, and the foundations of several 6th century B. C. treasuries.

Sparta. There remains only a low hill, which was the acropolis for a group of separate villages —there was no central city of monumental structures.

Thermopylae. Recession of the shoreline has enlarged the narrow pass between the mountains and the Malian Gulf, where Xerxes and the Persians defeated the Spartans in 480 B. C. Visitors can see the "burial mound of Leonidas" and the springs from which the pass derives its name.

Tiryns. Cyclopean circuit walls and the ruins of a Mycenaean palace are situated near the sea on a rock 263 feet (80 meters) high.

For additional ancient sites on Crete and the other Greek islands see articles on the individual islands.



SELECTED ANCIENT SITES ON MAINLAND GREECE

This map shows some of the many reminders of a culture from which Roman, and later Western, civilizations evolved.

7. Modern Culture

Among the many factors that have shaped the cultural life of modern Greece, two of the most important are the history of the country and its geographical location.

From the historical point of view, modern Greek culture is both old and new. It is old not only because it developed in an environment of ancient marbles, Byzantine churches, and countless monuments, but also because, in the people's songs, in folk art, and in popular customs, elements still exist that go back to Homer's day. Past eras, indigenous developments, and the influence of the peoples who conquered or came in contact with Greece have been integrated in the cultural patterns of the present-day Greeks. At the same time, modern Greek culture is young because Greece became independent only in 1829, after almost four centuries of Turkish rule. Born when romanticism was at its peak in Europe, Greece accepted it, as well as the reactions against it, and all the currents that followed. It is notable, however, that modern Greeks have inherited from their forefathers a tendency to be selective in their cultural borrowings. They adopt only those foreign patterns that are suitable, and then assimilate and develop them until they bear a genuine and unmistakable Greek stamp.

Geography has played as important a role as history in the cultural life of the nation. From very ancient times, Greece, located at the junction of East and West, developed two cultural characteristics. One is the Apollonian: clear, full of light, well defined, rational. The other is the Dionysian: dim, passionate, instinctive, mystical. Both elements have existed side by side, at times clashing with each other and causing serious cultural problems.

LITERATURE

The revolution of 1821 opened a new era in Greek literature. The same problems and currents then prevalent in most European countries found expression in the poetry and prose of the infant nation. The new literary production, however, owed much to the indigenous literary and cultural achievements of the 17th and 18th centuries. These included a greater quantity and higher quality of literary production; the development of individualism in writing; a more widespread use of the vernacular as a literary medium; the development of a body of literary criticism that reevaluated existing aesthetic principles; and the growth of a wider audience for literature. The 17th and 18th centuries also saw the influence on literature of the ideals of humanism and of the Enlightenment, and the replacement of Italy by France as the chief foreign literary influence. Crete, Cyprus, Rhodes, and the Ionian Islands were the principal centers of literary activity during this period.

During the prerevolutionary period, there was continued development of a folk poetry whose origins dated back to the Homeric period. This poetry had come down through the ages, continually being enriched with new experiences, and reached the 19th century with all its freshness and genuineness unspoiled. It was a masterly expression of the Greek soul and an inexhaustible source of inspiration for each succeeding generation. Set to music, it sang of every phase of the people's life: work, love, war, and death. It sang also of the beauties of nature and of the events of ancient times. During the immediate prerevolutionary period, one specific group of songs reached its fullest development: the *klephtika*, or songs about outlaws in the mountains who lived a life like Robin Hood's and defied Turkish rule. Epic and symbolic, lyrical and moving, these songs told of the hard life of the Klephts and of their heroism and gallantry. They were both a challenging denunciation of tyranny and a hymn to freedom.

Ionian School. Two poets who stood far above their contemporaries in the new period that began with the revolution of 1821 were Andreas Kalvos (1796–1869) and Dionysios Solomos (1798–1857). Kalvos was educated in Italy, where he met his compatriot from the island of Zante (Zakynthos), Ugo Foscolo (1778–1827), who inspired him with a love of the classics and taught him the technique of poetry. In 1824, Kalvos published his *Lyra*, 10 odes in Greek, which were followed by 10 more in 1826. The greatness of his poetry lies in his genuine lyricism and in its powerful expression of the lofty ideals of virtue and freedom. His work shows the influence of neoclassicism in its solemn and balanced expression, but its tone reveals a slight tendency toward romanticism. Its language is a mixture of archaic and modern expressions, accentuating the neoclassical character of the odes. Kalvos influenced modern poetry, particularly that written after 1900.

Dionysios Solomos also was born on Zante. He studied law at the University of Pavia in Italy, but he soon abandoned it for literature. The conflict between romanticism and classicism, the doctrines of the *philosophes*, and the ideas of the French Revolution aroused his interest. Like Kalvos, he wrote his first poems in Italian. In 1818, Solomos returned to Zante, and his first poems in Greek were on Greek subjects and reflected a deep romantic feeling. The revolution of 1821 provided him with fresh poetic inspiration. In 1823 he composed his *Hymn to Liberty*, which was set to music in 1828 and in 1864 became the national anthem of Greece. In 1828 Solomos left Zante for the neighboring island of Corfu, where, after a lonely life of study and writing, he died in 1857. His brilliant imagination, sincere emotion, masterly technique, and pure lyricism, combined with an ardent liberalism and love of freedom, made him the greatest of the poets of modern Greece. His poetry, consisting at first of simple and emotional lyrics, became, after his contact with German romantic philosophy, lofty and idealistic. Freedom, love, death, and life took on deeper meanings for him, and Solomos, without becoming a philosophic poet, endeavored to get at the absolute essence of his subjects. He was always concerned with the conflict between romanticism and classicism and finally managed to achieve in his poetry an admirable balance of sentiment and thought.

In prose, Solomos left few works. His two main contributions are his *Dialogue*, written sometime between 1823 and 1825, and *The Woman of Zante* (1826). The *Dialogue*, the first serious piece of criticism in modern Greek literature, is an eloquent and inspired defense of the vernacular, written in the form of a dialogue. *The Woman of Zante*, a satiric work written in a masterly vernacular, is a strong condemnation of the ugliness the writer found in contemporary society and a diatribe against those who did not sympathize with the struggle for freedom.

Besides Kalvos and Solomos, the school of the Ionian Islands included in its first period (until about 1880) several other literary figures. Some of the more important were Antonios Matesses (1794–1875), known especially for his *Vassilikos* (about 1830), a remarkable play written in the vernacular; Iakovos Polylas (1826–1896), a fine poet and serious critic, influenced by Solomos; Dionysios Typaldos (1814–1883), whose poetry is characterized by a deep religious and mystical feeling; and Georgios Kalosgouros (1849–1902), known especially for his translations into Greek of Solomos' Italian poems and of other Italian literature. After the middle of the 19th century, a group of new authors continued the tradition of this school, but by then stronger ties existed between the literary production of the Ionian Islands and that of the mainland.

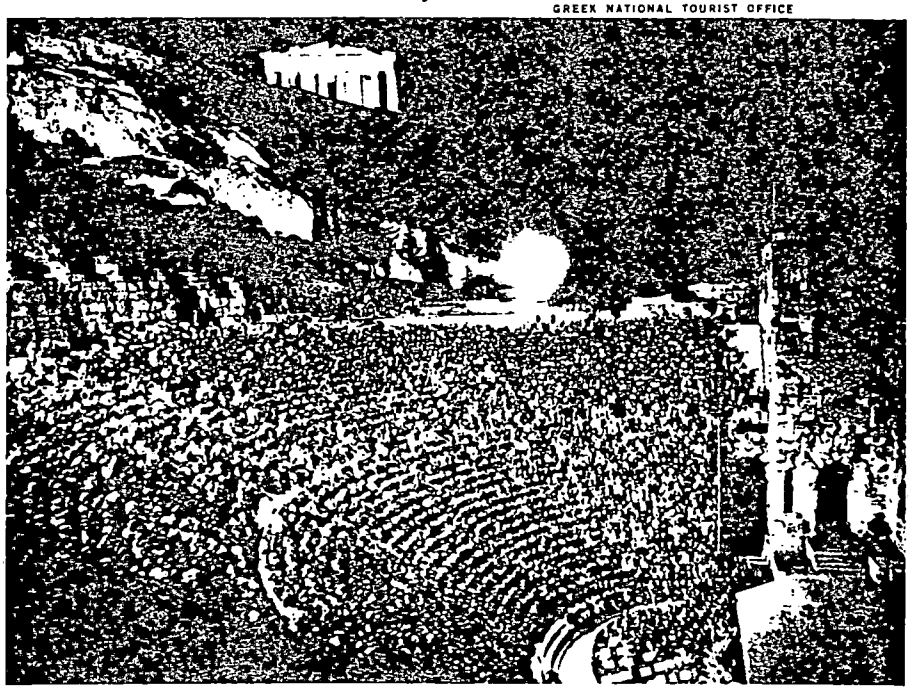
Early Athenian Writers. In Athens, in the early 19th century, a group from Phanar, the famous Greek quarter of Constantinople, gave a different color to literary expression. When the Phanariots emigrated to the newly liberated Athens, their superior education and broader background enabled them to dominate the intellectual life of the capital. Deeply influenced by the French romanticists and the glories of antiquity and attached to the "pure" language as opposed to vernacular Greek, they created a different climate from that of the Ionian Islands. Among the most distinguished of these writers were Alexandros Soutsos (1803–1863), best known as a satirist with liberal tendencies and a great facility in writing verse; his brother, Panayiotes Soutsos (1806–1868), whose patriotic and love poems were modeled after those of the French romanticists; and Alexandre Rizos Rangabé (Alexandros Rizos Rhangaves, 1810–1892), who left a voluminous body of work in all literary genres.

Old School of Athens. The road to romanticism was now open, and the next generation, known as the old school of Athens, between 1850 and 1880 developed romanticism to its highest point. Shallow and highly colored, with little technical or aesthetic value, the poetry of this period, written mostly in the pure language, provided an outlet for buoyant patriotism, melodramatic love, and everyday politics. Some of the most distinguished poets of this school were Demetrios Paparregopoulos (1843–1873); Spyridon Vasiliades (1845–1874); Georgios Paraschos (1822–1886); and his brother, Achilles Paraschos (1838–1895), who was widely read, exercised a great influence, and is considered the best representative of this period.

Meanwhile, a reaction against the excesses of the romanticists developed into a general demand for higher quality and new forms in literature. This reaction was stimulated by contact with literary men from the Ionian Islands, like Georgios Tertsetes (1800–1874), a sensitive poet with a strict devotion to the tradition of the Ionian school; Brailas Armenes (1812–1884), aesthetician and philosopher; Georgios Zalokostas (1805–1858), a lyricist; Aristoteles Valàoritis (1824–1879), a dynamic, eloquent poet who followed his Ionian compatriots in the use of the vernacular and the folk songs as prototypes, but the Athenian school in his technique and romantic style; and Andreas Laskaratos (1811–1901), a liberal writer noted for his criticisms of contemporary social conditions.

The prose of the second half of the 19th century is on a lower level than the poetry. Some notable exceptions are the few prose writings of Solomos and the memoirs and autobiographies of some of the leaders of the revolution. The most important of the latter is the *Memoirs* of the revolutionary hero John Makriyiannes (1797–1864). His narrative is vivid and possesses the finest qualities of folk art; his *Memoirs* is one of the masterpieces of Greek literature. The best novels of the period were *Thanos Vlekas* by Pavlos Kalligas (1814–1896) and *The Heroine of the Greek Revolution* by Stephanos Xenos (1821–1894).

GREEK NATIONAL TOURIST OFFICE



ROMAN ODEUM, on slope of the Acropolis, Athens, provides the setting for modern productions of classical Greek dramas.

Another exception to the generally low level of prose during this period is *Pope Joan*, written in 1866 by Emanuel Rhoides (1835–1904). This witty and articulate novel is significant because, though its story takes place in the Middle Ages and its author pretends that he is writing a romantic novel of the Walter Scott type, it contains a great protest against the excesses of contemporary romanticism and introduces into Greek prose a new emphasis on rationalism and realism. The example of Rhoides, who was also a respected critic, encouraged the younger generation to find new media of expression. In 1879 the novel *Loukis Laras* by Demetrios Bikelas (Vikelas, 1835–1908) showed some of the results of this encouragement. Its simplicity, grace, and form reveal striking divergences from the works of the Athenian romanticists.

New School of Athens. The last two decades of the 19th century in Greece were a period of increasing social differentiation, economic bankruptcy, and political corruption, culminating in the catastrophe of the Greco-Turkish War of 1897. It was in this period of contrasts and conflicts, when out of frustration and disappointment a demand for a national rebirth began to arise, that there appeared the generation of the 1880's, known as the new school of Athens. It was a small group of enlightened men, most of them young, who, challenging the standards of their day and utilizing everything valuable in the Greek tradition, endeavored to express a new spirit.

Their leader was the poet Kostes Palamas (1859–1943), who was the dominant figure on the Greek literary scene for more than 60 years. His work is distinguished by profound thought and inspiration and by a complete mastery of metrical technique. He embraced the Psichari movement for the use of the vernacular, broke with the romanticists, honored folk poetry, and emphasized the significance of the Ionians, especially Solomos and Kalvos. By 1900, Palamas' purpose was clear: to express the continuity of the Hellenic spirit from ancient times to his own day. But his eyes were also turned to contemporary realities. The age of science evoked from him deep admiration and great hopes. The social conflicts made him an advocate of the weak and the oppressed. The national adventures, and especially the catastrophe of the Greco-Turkish War, filled him with grief and despair, but he continued to express his faith in a better future for his country. Palamas left a voluminous body of work consisting of many collections of poetry, several fine volumes of literary criticism, and an exceptionally fine play, *Trisevyene* (1903).

Gathered about Palamas was a galaxy of outstanding literary figures. Among the most important was Jean Psichari (Ioannes Psychares, 1854–1929), who became a bold and inspired advocate of the vernacular, and who was the first to emphasize the importance of the linguistic problem. He studied in Germany and France and later taught for many years in the School of Modern Oriental Languages of the University of Paris. In 1866, when he returned to Greece, the linguistic problem was acute. Daily newspapers, literary works, and all classes from grammar school to university used the pure language. This language, based on the grammar of the ancient Attic dialect, purged of all foreign words—even those that had been imported and Hellenized through a long historical process—and including many obsolete words, was the pride of the dominant groups in every segment of Greek society. The spoken language of the people was despised, and those few who persisted in using it in literary works were considered radicals. The pure language, an artificial and dead tongue, was not only an inadequate means of expression, but also a serious handicap to the country's education and development. Vigorous protests were frequently made, and the Ionian school, beginning with Solomos, established the vernacular as the literary language. Nevertheless, the pure language remained in use because it was intimately connected with the ruling system of Greece.

Psichari was the first to shake the foundations of the pure language. With his fighting spirit, profound linguistic knowledge, and impressive personality, he not only pointed out the treasures of the vernacular, but placed the whole question of language on a national and social basis. Psichari's preaching had a strong impact, especially on young writers, whom it liberated from the shackles of convention and precedent. His novel *My Journey* (1888) became a milestone in modern Greek literature.

Another important figure of this new school was Nicholas Polites (1852–1921), who devoted his life to revealing the riches of Greek folklore. In so doing, he started one of the most creative movements in modern Greek culture and inspired literary men, composers, artists, and scholars. Polites' work is of inestimable value and significance.

The year 1903 was marked by an important literary event, the founding of the magazine *Noumas*. Around it were grouped the new writers who strove for the establishment of the vernacular and the renovation of Greek letters.

The new school of Athens included several good poets: Georgios Drosines (1859–1951), a tender and elegant lyricist; Georgios Vizyenos (1849–1896), who wrote with simplicity and sensitivity; Aristomenes Provelengios (1850–1936), gentle and idealistic; Ioannes Polemes (1888–1924), who sang of commonplace subjects in simple lyrics; Kostas Krystalles (1868–1894), who used folk songs as prototypes and succeeded in re-creating the atmosphere of peasant life in the mountains; Alexandros Palles (1851–1935), a poet of real talent and a warm fighter for the vernacular, in whose lyricism is reflected a passion for Greece's regeneration; Argyris Eftaliotis (1849–1923), another disciple of Psichari, who left a varied literary output; and John Gryparis (1872–1942), who wrote some of the best sonnets in modern Greek and made some masterly translations of classical tragedies. To the same generation belong a number of poets who wrote with feeling and warmth, but did not contribute anything new to the literature of their times—Zacharias Papantoniou (1877–1940), Konstantinos Hadzopoulos (1868–1921), Miltiades Malakases (1870–1943), Lambros Porphyras (1879–1932), and Soteres Skipes (1881–1953).

Early 20th Century Writers. At the beginning of the 20th century, literary production continued along the paths already opened by the new school of Athens. Three major poets emerged: Angelos Sikelianos (1884–1951); Konstantinos Kavafis (1863–1933), who is better known in the United States as Constantine Cavafy; and Kostas Varnales.

Angelos Sikelianos was a dynamic lyric poet with a powerful imagination, one of the richest

vocabularies in modern Greek poetry, and a grand style, sometimes tightly knit, sometimes free. His images are vivid, and he makes especially telling use of the contrast and resolution of opposing elements. For example, his deep feeling for nature is both Apollonian in its immediacy and sensualism and Dionysian in its search for the "original mystic value" of all things. He also reconciles Orphism with Christianity, Dionysus with Christ, and reason with mysticism, which for him are but different and revealing aspects of one thing.

During the 1920's he endeavored to create on the old site of Delphi a spiritual center for the meeting of representatives from all the countries of the world in the interest of universal peace and brotherhood. Only two Delphic festivals materialized, however, one in 1927 and another in 1930. Sikelianos' works, besides his lyric poetry, which is gathered in three volumes entitled *Lyric Life*, consist of a few inspired tragedies, in which with a deep insight and strong symbolism he views social conflict and advocates social reform, if not revolution. Their powerful poetic expression and genuine dramatic elements place them on the highest level of Greek literary production.

Constantine Cavafy, who spent most of his life in Alexandria, Egypt, expresses a different aspect of his time. He writes of the tragedy of life, the fate of the weak, of the unsatisfied, of those who are unable to react. It is not that he is unmoved by the brave, the virtuous, the lofty ethos, but simply that he passes them by and stresses only the tragic side of the story in which they are involved. He is attracted not by generalities but by particulars, by isolated cases that he describes with a superb sensitiveness. He seldom projects himself into his poems, instead usually allowing historical or fictitious persons to speak for him. Though he deals with deeply human problems and probably has contemporary situations in mind, he sets the historical scene of most of his poems in the late Hellenistic period (toward the beginning of the Christian era), an era characterized by intellectual brilliance and esthetic sophistication as well as by disintegration and declining values. His language, a mixture of the vernacular and the archaic, greatly contributes to his re-creation of the Hellenistic atmosphere. Cavafy became the most controversial figure in Greek letters and exercised a deep influence on the younger writers of the critical period of World War I and the years immediately after.

Kostas Varnales was the first Greek poet of the social conflict. He sings of the humble, the poor laborers, the victims of social injustice and oppression. Though he deals with subjects that could easily lead to the use of commonplace rhetoric, he infuses his poems with a high lyric tone and emphasizes the human element with creative perception. With his later work, and especially the collection *The Light That Burns* (1933), he emerged as the chief Marxist poet of his country. His clear and powerful lyrics and his irony mixed with a sense of the tragic made him one of the most influential figures of Greek letters.

During this period several other poets contributed greatly to literary development. Among them was Nikos Karvounes (1880–1947), who wrote a few highly dramatic verses and was the first to translate Walt Whitman into Greek (1912). Kostas Karyotakes (1896–1928) impressed his contemporaries by his pessimism, irony, and sarcasm and by his criticism of the conventionality of his society.

Meanwhile the Ionian Islands with their great literary tradition continued to produce some remarkable poets, among them Gerasimos Markoras (1826–1911) and Lorentzos Mabiles (1860–1912), who combined deep thought and warm feeling with his lyricism.

From the appearance of the new school of Athens until the end of World War I, Greek prose failed to reach the high standards of Greek poetry, but the contribution of a few authors, especially short story writers, is notable. Among them are two writers from the island of Skiathos —Alexandros Papadiamantes (1851–1911) and Alexandros Moraitides (1851–1929), close friends whose lives and work were very similar. They (especially Papadiamantes) wrote with a deep understanding of human nature, with sincerity, and with religious feeling. Georgios Vizyenos is noted for the introduction of psychological themes in his prose. Demetrios Kambouroglou (1852–1933) wrote graceful stories chiefly about historical subjects. Ioannes Vlahoyiannes (1868–1945) divided his efforts between writing short stories and doing historical research. Ioannes Kondylakes (1861–1920) is noted mainly for his psychological novel *Patouhas* (1916), and Andreas Karkavitsas (1866–1922) for his short stories. Kostas Theotokes (1872–1923) was the first Greek to write well-organized novels with a social content. They include *The Convict* (1912) and *The Slaves in Their Chains* (1922), which, with their strong psychological analysis, human feeling, and vivid description, are two of the best in Greek literature. Konstantinos Christomanos (1887–1911) was an author of great talent, who wrote both in a genteel style, as in *The Diary of the Empress Elisabeth* (1907), and with sensual realism, as in the *Doll of Wax* (1911). Petros Apostolides (1866–1937) wrote in a sincere and graceful manner, under the pseudonym Pavlos Nirvanas. Gregorios Xenopoulos (1867–1951), the best of the prose writers, left a voluminous production of powerful short stories and novels that analyzed the psychology and customs of contemporary society.

Drama. After the liberation of Greece in 1821, plays appeared in abundance but, with some notable exceptions, were mediocre. Besides Matesses and Rangabé, the playwrights include Demetrios Byzantios-Aslanes (1770–1853), Demetrios Vernardakis (1834–1907), and Spyridon Vasiliades. In the movement to rejuvenate the Greek theater, Gregorios Xenopoulos took the lead. His plays have a fast-paced dramatic action and lively dialogue; his well-defined characters move and act naturally; and the construction of his scenes achieves a remarkable excellence. Spyros Melas, Demitris Bogres, Theodoros Synadinos, Panteles Horn (1881–1941), and several other playwrights also contributed to the repertory of the modern Greek theater.

Literature After World War I. A new period in Greek literature opened with the third decade of the 20th century. After the defeat in Asia Minor and the catastrophe of 1922, disillusion, skepticism, and loss of faith dominated the younger writers, while the older ones continued on their well-defined paths. Post–World War I literature, reflecting the new critical times, developed interesting modes of expression. In poetry there

arose a negative attitude toward Palamas' reason and intellectualism, and a shift in emphasis from content to form as a result of an inner spiritual vacuum. New literary movements in the rest of Europe were readily adopted and assimilated by the younger Greek poets. Surrealism, especially, had a strong appeal for them.

Two poets of this period stand out—Nikos Kazantzakis (1885–1957) and George Seferis. With their superb poetic quality, profound humanity and power of expression, they contributed more than any others to bringing Greek literature before an appreciative international public. Their works, translated into many languages, are in the mainstream of world literature. Kazantzakis was one of the last great romantics. His poetry reflects both the dynamic flights of Nietzsche's philosophy and the implications of Bergsonism. However, Kazantzakis was also profoundly influenced by the *Upanishads* and the Buddhist scriptures, and by a classical rationalism and an inborn Greek zest for life. His main poetic work (dates are of original publication), *The Odyssey* (1938), a modern sequel to the Homeric epic, written in 33,333 iambic 17-syllable lines, epitomizes his philosophy. But his great themes—human existence, the meaning of freedom, the relationship of man to man and man to God, and particularly the constant struggle of man for a soul—are explored not only in his *Odyssey*, but also in his principal novels. Through the English translations of such works as *The Greek Passion* (1938), *Zorba the Greek* (1946), *The Last Temptation of Christ* (1951), *Freedom or Death* (1953), and *The Saviors of God* (1954), and the dramatizations for the stage and cinema of a number of them, Kazantzakis became the best-known Greek author in the English-speaking world.

In 1963, George Seferis (the pseudonym of George S. Seferiades) won the Nobel Prize for literature for his "outstanding lyric poetry which inspires a profound feeling for the Hellenic world of culture." His stream-of-consciousness poetry is rich in symbols, metaphors, associations, and allusions derived from the deepest, centuries-old Hellenic veins. His statements are direct; his words are carefully chosen for their immediacy, beauty, and semantic value; his verse is free and of a superb musical quality. While still young, Seferis became aware of the tragic element in the history of the Greek people, and later this awareness, extended to include all humanity, found its way into his poetry. War, the tragedy of the uprooted and exiled, destruction, death, and a cosmic corruption of matter are the themes with which he deals in a grand manner. The influence of T. S. Eliot, whose poetry Seferis translated into Greek, has often been overemphasized. The main difference between the two poets does not lie in the poetic forms but in their attitude toward fundamental issues. Where Eliot absolves the valueless in modern life with his profound religiousness, Seferis views with awe, if not with a helpless despair, the meaning of existence and of man as part of an inescapable cosmic corruption. This was the closest a modern Greek poet had ever come to the view of *moira* (fate) of the classical tragic poets. The universal character of his themes, despite their "Greek" outlook, makes Seferis a contemporary poet who does not belong to Greece alone. Most of his poetic collections, such as *Turning Point* (1931), *Mythistorema* (1935), *The Thrush* (1942), *Log Book I* (1940), *Log Book II* (1944), *Log Book* (1955), and others, have been rendered into cellent English translations by American British poets.

There were other important poets, including Odysseus Elytes, who began as a surrealist whose poetry has a sparkling Greek Ioannes Ritsos and Nicephoros Vrettakos are more of the numerous poets of the second half the 20th century.

The prose of this period reached new heights In the novels there is a seriousness and solemnity in the face of the human drama that reveals authors' deep awareness. Strates Myriveles Photes Kontoglou (1895–1965), though of older generation, may be included among writers of this new prose. The former has contributed much with his novel *Life in the Tomb* (1923), a cry against war written with descriptive power and a fine mastery of the vernacular. Kontoglou tried to revive folk literature and wrote warmly and expressively, influenced by Oriental mysticism and a passion for adventure. Angelos Terzakes is epic in his conceptions and with his strong talent for narration, re-creates the atmosphere of past eras. Georgios Theotokas (1905–1966) is a deep, thoughtful author, who reflects the search for solid foundations in the uncertainty of the years after World War I. Panteles Prevelakes—epic, powerful, and descriptive—was attracted by the historical past of his native Crete. Elias Venezes is one of the most significant novelists of this era; his works are characterized by lyricism, a profound human tone, and lively dialogue and description.

In the closing years of the 1960's, literary criticism reached a high level. The critics Elias P. Voutierides, Photos Politis, Ioannis M. Panagiotopoulos, Emil Hourmouzios, and Petros Haris continued to write, and new authors appeared whose systematic and scholarly works successfully attempted an appraisal of modern Greek literature. The most significant of these studies were those of Constantine T. Demaras and Linos Polites, which offered a historical background and a penetrating analysis of the literary development of modern Greece.

In the second half of the 20th century, a literary generation in Greece was working hard to reconstruct and create. They wished to express their controversial and dramatic times; they strove for perfection, utilized a rich local tradition, assimilated contemporary currents, stood critically before their own attainments, and endeavored to make their own contribution worthy part of contemporary literature.

MUSIC

In no cultural aspect of modern Greece is the coexistence and conflict of Apollonian and Dionysian—or, from another point of view, Oriental and Western elements—so clear as in its musical life. This dualistic character goes back to antiquity and through the centuries has taken various forms. Contemporary Greece possesses on the one hand an autochthonous music with its own aesthetics and principles, and on the other so-called western European music.

Historical Background. By 1821, when the Greeks revolted, they had both a rich secular music and an old, uniform, and well-established ecclesiastical music which was Byzantine in origin and had been transmitted unchanged through the centuries thanks to the early Byzantine

tation (see BYZANTINE MUSIC). This was the church music enjoyed on every religious occasion throughout the country. The single exception was the Ionian Islands, where, because of the repeated and long occupations by western Europeans, composers followed the musical development of western Europe, particularly of Italy.

Secular music consisted of the admirable folk songs. Despite their difference in color from one region to another and their great variety in type (dance songs, songs of the table, *klephtika*, mourning songs), they possess certain common characteristics:

(1) They are monodic.

(2) Most are modal, based on the eight Byzantine modes, as well as on the ancient Greek modes. (Some songs are based instead on Oriental chromatic scales.)

(3) In some categories (*klephtika*, table songs, epic and historical songs, and others) the rhythm is free, giving the singers great opportunity for ornamental improvisation. These songs usually end with refrains that, with a fast rhythm, change the musical climate produced by the main melody. Other categories (most of the love songs and dance songs, songs of work, and satirical songs) have a variety of rhythms, the most common of which are 2/4, 7/8, 6/8, 5/8, 9/8, and 3/4, as well as 6/4 and 5/4, with all their possible variations.

(4) Their range is often limited, sometimes extending no more than the interval of a fifth or a fourth.

(5) Frequently there are intervals of a half or a quarter of a tone, which together with Byzantine and Oriental practices transmitted in folk music, make its notation in the modern Western system almost impossible.

(6) Most of the songs are unaccompanied. When, however, they have an accompaniment, it is used to keep the rhythm, especially in dance songs, or to form a rich and complicated harmonic texture, completely independent of the monody, and always improvisatory.

This is the music that the Greeks were singing during the time of their liberation from the Turks and that the majority of Greeks continued to sing.

When Greece became free, many Greeks living in other parts of Europe returned to their homeland, bringing with them their European musical culture. The contact with the rich musical tradition of the Ionian Islands became closer. The new leaders of Greece established bands, imported the first pianos, introduced the teaching of European music in schools, and invited musicians from the Ionian Islands, Italy, and Germany. Closer relations with European countries, the introduction of opera, the founding of many music schools, the organization of orchestras, choirs, and musical societies, and, later, the presentation of musical stage productions and the availability of the phonograph and the radio succeeded over several generations in changing the musical consciousness of the urban centers. Nevertheless, the churches, with few exceptions, continued to use Byzantine music, and the villagers still sang their folk songs.

The coexistence of these two kinds of music so different in character, the one imported and the other indigenous, became a real problem in modern Greek composition.

Composers of the 19th and 20th Centuries. The first Greek composers appeared in the Ionian Islands, where they were dominated by Italian traditions. The leading figure was Nicholas Mantzaros (1796–1873) from Corfu. Others were Pavlos Karrer (1829–1896), Spyros Samaras (Spiro Samara, 1863–1917), and Dionysios Lavrangas (1864–1943). Almost all of them ignored the treasures of their local culture and patterned their music on the Italian romantic music of the early 19th century, to which they had become accustomed in the Ionian Islands and which they had studied in Italy.

The last quarter of the 19th century, which in literature brought the inspired generation of the 1880's, also had its impact on musical production. The composers of this period endeavored to reflect the new nation in their music. Three of them distinguished themselves in this direction: George Lambelet (1875–1945), Manolis Kalomiris (1883–1962), and Marios Varvoglis.

George Lambelet, though a native of Corfu who had studied in Italy, was attracted by Greek folk songs and emphasized the need for a new national music based on them. Manolis Kalomiris, a native of Smyrna, went to Greece after long periods of study in other parts of Europe and used his talent to create Greek national music. His basic romanticism and Wagnerian orchestration, however, were unaffected by the Greek subjects he chose. The quality of his operas and symphonies is high, but his chief influence in the creation of a national music lay in his appeal to his contemporaries. Marios Varvoglis reacted against the romantic tendencies, appreciated deeply the beauty of the folk music, and finally evolved his own style, influenced by French neoclassicism.

All three of these composers, however, failed, in their main goal of creating a Greek national music based on the prototypes of the folk songs. In their works the impact of the baroque, of classicism, romanticism, and neoclassicism, and of impressionism and other modern movements is easily traced in form, technique, and spirit. Their problem lay in trying to express the periodic folk song with a notation system inadequate for the purpose and in alien European idiom. The outcome, while perhaps good music, was of a different character from Greece's real national music. This continued to be the main problem of modern Greek composition.

More successful in this regard was Petros Petridis. Instead of transplanting and harmonizing folk melodies, he used Byzantine and ancient modes and tried to reproduce the musical atmosphere of the folk songs. Other composers were influenced by impressionism, which they applied to music of an Oriental character. Émile Riadis (1890–1935), a pupil of Maurice Ravel's; Georgios Ponirides (Georges Poniridy); and Demetrios Levidis (1886–1951) were among the best of this school.

A dynamic group of young composers appeared immediately after World War II and startled the conservative concert-going audience of Athens with the new sound of their avant-garde music. Their works, performed by the symphony orchestras of various European capitals, soon made them internationally known. Born in the 1920's and 1930's, these composers followed the road that had been opened to them by Nicholas Skalkotas (1905–1949), a brilliant pupil of Arnold Schönberg's. Skalkotas' music was well known to European audiences and was introduced to the United States by the Greek-Amer-

ican conductor Dimitri Mitropoulos (1896–1960), himself a composer of the Schönberg school.

One of the best representatives of this new movement was Iannis Xenakis. A mathematician and engineer, he used an electronic computer and applied calculus and the probability theory in writing his music. He attempted to produce, as he once stated, "a spray of sounds, a sonorous radiation, a stream of musical electrons." The quality of his music impressed specialists and audiences at international contests, and his compositions were introduced into the United States by Leonard Bernstein and the New York Philharmonic. Xenakis, a leader in the avant-garde movement and a resident of Paris, often traveled to the United States to lecture and conduct, and in 1968–1969 taught as a visiting professor at the University of Indiana. Some of his best-known compositions are *Metastasis* (1955), *Pithoprakta* (1957), *Achorripsis* (1958), *Morsima-Amorsima* (1962), and *Stratégie* (1964).

Another of the same group, Iannis Christou, held a degree in philosophy from Cambridge University. Through the use of a variety of contemporary techniques, he endeavored to express the deepest meaning of life, which he found in the perpetual conflict of opposing elements. After composing atonal music as well as music in the manner of the postserialists, who succeeded Anton Webern, Christou finally decided to write music that relied heavily upon chance. With conflicting musical colors, with subtle melodic statements woven into a rich and unusual harmonic texture, and with abrupt explosions of sound, he created extremely powerful effects. *Patterns and Permutation* (1962), *Phoenix Music* (1950), and *Enandioromia*, which was given its world premiere by the Oakland (Calif.) Symphony Orchestra in 1969, are among his most significant compositions.

Theodore Antoniou, one of the youngest in this movement, composed both serial music and music based on a 12-tone row. His works are lyric and often humorous. They received a number of awards in Germany, Austria, and Greece. He conducted American orchestras during a tour in 1966, and in 1969 he was a visiting professor at Stanford University. Other distinguished members of the same movement are George Sicilianos, Iannis Papaioannou, Ioannis Ioannidis, Stephanos Gazouleas, and Arghyris Koundis.

In no other branch of artistic expression of contemporary Greece can one find so many artists, and ones of such talent, as in music. While the post-World War II generation of Greek composers constituted part of an international movement that tried to express the agonizing complexity of modern life, its members felt happier "saying it in Greek." The Hellenic past, however, came to them as a poetic memory, which went deeper than in the superficial romantic revivals of the older generations. There was, indeed, a great affinity between Xenakis' work and the Pythagorean approaches to music, between Christou's compositions and Heraclitus' concepts, and between the work of all others and everything fine in the Greek tradition. Their relationship to the Greek past consisted of a similarity of approach, a reliance upon a cosmic view, and a restless search for fresh and appropriate media. It is for this reason they call themselves composers of *stohastic* (contemplative) music.

Musical analysis and history, which was established with the serious work of Minos Dounias (1900–1960), has made great strides, while the collection and systematic study of Byzantine and folk music was greatly enriched by the scholarly works of K. A. Psachos, Simon Karras, and Melpo Merlier.

After World War II, popular music took a new turn when versatile composers utilized genuine popular instrumentalization, as well as popular modes of musical expression. Two composers became internationally known—Manos Hadjidakis, primarily because of his music for the film *Never on Sunday* (1960), and Mikis Theodorakis because of his music for the film *Zorba the Greek* (1964).

ART

Folk art was almost the only Greek art between the classical age and the revolution of 1821. It was collectively produced over many centuries by large groups of people, from whose work and needs it sprang. It consisted of a blending of ancient and Byzantine features, Oriental and Western influences, and later autochthonous developments, resulting in a product that represents the most genuine expression of Greek artistic consciousness. In architecture, two main types were evolved, the common people's homes (*monospita*) and the houses of the notables (*archontika*), both admirably fitting into their natural landscapes. Painting was connected with the architecture of churches, where the artists followed Byzantine patterns, or with houses, where they freely used their own imagination on a variety of subjects. Paintings of the latter type were either murals (frescoes) or paintings in tempera on woodwork. They were spontaneous and primitive, characterized by vivid colors and strong naturalistic features. Popular verses often were inscribed on paintings.

Sculpture and woodcarving were also connected with architecture. Marble or special stone was extensively used on gates, stairs, fountains, fireplaces, and pillars of homes and churches. Furniture and utensils were skillfully carved in wood. This minor sculpture was remarkable for the sensitiveness expressed in the patterns. In wood carving, abstract designs usually covering the whole surface presented a harmonious balance and symmetry.

Among handicrafts, pottery was developed especially on the islands and in southern Greece and included both purely decorative objects and those for everyday use. The forms were simple and graceful, and the designs, including both the naturalistic and the abstract, were executed with great dexterity. Handicrafts in copper, bronze, iron, silver, and other metals often replaced pottery in northern Greece, and to some extent throughout the country. Silver and gold were used especially in a highly developed jewelry art, not only for the embellishment of women's apparel, but also for the decoration of firearms, swords, knives, pins for men's clothes, and the like. Costumes, varying greatly with the occasion and the locale, preserved very old patterns in their design, material, and decoration. Woven materials of silk, cotton, linen, or wool, made on looms of various types, reached an exceptionally high quality as did embroidery, laces, stamped materials, leatherwork, and other branches of folk art.

The Ionian Islands, which had escaped the Turkish occupation, developed, in addition to folk art, a remarkable school of painting influenced

MODERN GREEKS, dressed in colorful costumes and masks, take part in a lively folk dance.

GREEK NATIONAL TOURIST OFFICE

the great Venetian masters and enriched by the experience of the Cretan painters who had settled in the Ionian Islands when Crete was invaded by the Turks in 1669. In comparison with the Byzantine art existing in other parts of Greece, the Ionian paintings have a freer design, a wider range of colors, naturalistic elements, and the use of chiaroscuro in the Venetian manner. The island of Zante was the center of this artistic production, which reached its peak in the 18th century. The most important artists were Panagiotes Doxaras (1662–1729), his son Nicholas Doxaras (1690?–1775), Hieronymos Plakotos (died 1728), Nicholas Koutouzes (1741–1819), and Nicholas Kantounes (1767–1834). In 1805 an art school was established on Corfu, where Paul Prosalentes, a pupil of Antonio Canova, taught and exercised a great influence.

19th Century Painting and Sculpture. After the liberation of Greece, a great impulse was given to the development of art in Athens by the opportunity offered by King Otto I to young men to study in Munich, and also by the establishment, in 1838, of an art school called the Polytechneion. Most of the artists who studied in Munich ignored their native tradition and painted according to the school of thought prevailing in mid-19th century Germany. The most distinguished were Nicephoros Lytras (1832–1904), with his restrained romanticism and sensitiveness to the use of color; and Nicholas Gyzes (1842–1901), with his masterly design and elegance and expressiveness of line. To the same generation belong Constantine Volonakes (1837–1907), well known for his seascapes, and George Iacovides (1853–1932), who introduced more realism and exactness in his paintings.

Most of the sculptors of the period also studied in Munich. They followed neoclassical prototypes, which harmonized with their own admiration for classical antiquity. Among them, John Kossos (1823?–1872), Leonidas Drosis (1842–1894), John Vitsares (1843–1892), George Vitales (1840–1901), and Demetrios Philippotes (1840–1920) may be considered the best. Greatest of all was Giannoules Halepas (1854–1938), who unfortunately spent many years in a mental institution, but whose works remain the masterpieces of modern Greek sculpture. The warmth and grace of his works, and his power in handling his material, place him far above the level of his contemporary neoclassicists.

20th Century Painting and Sculpture. By 1900, several good painters appeared, whose work, though academic in character and still influenced by the Munich school, showed a slight tendency toward impressionism. Most important among them were the landscape painters Odysseus Phocas, George Hadzopoulos, Nikolaos Othonaios, Epaminondas Thomopoulos, and the portrait painter Spyros Vikatos.

Impressionism was introduced into Greece by Konstantinos Parthenes (1879–1965), rightly considered one of the greatest modern Greek painters. The main characteristics of his work were an abundance of light, soft colors, simplicity, elegance of forms, a subtle classical spirit, and a deep understanding of chromatic problems. The influence of modern European currents continually increased, and by the mid-20th century, Greece could boast of a whole group of modernists, the most distinguished of whom were the expressionists George Gounaropoulos, Constantine Bouzianes, and the internationally known Hadji-Kyriakos Ghikas and Iannis Spyropoulos. Other painters tried surrealism and cubism, but with less success.

There were two other categories of painters: the conservatives, who tried to give a realistic picture of what they saw, such as Vassilios Germenes, Loukas Gerales, Pericles Byzantios, and Achilles Varvaressos; and those who took their inspiration from folk art, such as Spyros Vasiliou, Iannis Tsarouches, and Photes Kontoglou, who successfully revived the spirit and technique of Byzantine art. Many of these painters, however, did not belong solely to one school of thought but tried several paths.

Architecture. Architecture developed rather slowly after 1821. Village homes were built according to folk art patterns, but in the towns a neoclassical style was introduced for public buildings, mostly by foreign architects who were commissioned to design them. The private urban homes of the 19th century had many romantic features. In the 20th century contemporary Western architecture influenced urban building, while some efforts were made to adapt folk architecture to the building of private homes.

A significant contribution to the field of city planning was made after World War II by Constantinos Doxiades. His bold architectural concepts were applied in the many settlements and towns he has built in various parts of the world.

THEATER

After the American playwright Maxwell Anderson visited Greece in 1947, he wrote: "I felt a surprise when I noted that the dramatic art in Athens stands on a higher level than in New York." Exaggerated though this may seem, it is a fact that the Greek theater by the middle of the 20th century had reached an extraordinarily high level. It was not only the number of excellent actors and producers and the careful selection of plays from the world repertory that gave this impression, but also the fact that, in Athens at least, there was a theatrical ferment expressed in the divergent tendencies of the various companies, ranging from classicism to the most advanced modern currents.

This development, however, came late. Behind it lay a century of struggles and disappointments, experiments and hopes, during which the modern Greek theater passed through four stages. The first centered in the Greek communities in Odessa, Russia, and Bucharest, Rumania; the second in the Ionian Islands; and the remaining two in Greece proper.

Greek Theater in Odessa and Bucharest. A Greek theater appeared in Bucharest in 1810, but it was only after 1814 that the theater played an important part in the life of the Greek community of that city and of Odessa. The Philike Hetairia (Society of Friends), which was preparing for revolution against Turkish rule, made use of the theater to promote national consciousness. The plays were given at first in private homes, but soon were presented in public places that could accommodate larger audiences. At the outset the casts were all male, but women were added shortly, a step that was taken in Greece proper only after the middle of the 20th century. The repertory consisted mostly of baroque tragedies, which were the most effective for arousing the audience's passion for freedom. Using classical examples, they denounced tyranny and extolled the ideals of heroism and of sacrifice for the country. Thus there were performed in Greek translation the plays of Alfieri, Metastasio, Voltaire, and Racine; the ancient Greek tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides; and a few plays written by contemporary Greeks (Nicholas Piccolos, George Lasanes, Ioannes Zambelios, and Iakovos Rizos Neroulos) on neoclassical models. Audiences received all these plays with great enthusiasm. The revolution of 1821 brought an end to the theater in these cities.

Greek Theater in the Ionian Islands. The Ionian Islands boasted an old theatrical tradition when the revolution broke out in 1821. On the island of Zante plays had been performed since 1571, either in private homes by the sons of prominent families, or on open-air stages by the people. The first theater was built in 1750, and shortly thereafter three Greek comedies were performed on its stage. In Corfu the first theater was built in 1690, but it presented only Italian operatic companies. The first Greek play, *Polyxene*, by Iakovos Rizos Neroulos (1778–1849), was performed there in 1817. After the revolution the struggle between theater and opera, which was later to hamper theatrical development in Greece proper, began in the Ionian Islands. The predominance of opera was so great that only a few theatrical companies had the opportunity to give either contemporary Greek plays or Greek translations of foreign plays.

19th Century Theater in Greece. The history of the theater in Greece proper falls naturally into two periods, the first from 1[illegible] to 1900, and the second from 1900 on. The Aegean island of Syros founded a theater in 1830. Six years later, Athens established its own theater, an open-air and poorly equipped affair. Its all-male companies produced several Greek plays, as well as French and Italian plays in Greek translation. By 1840 the competition of opera had become so strong that the theater closed. Many attempts were made to revive the theater, but until 1900 the various companies were formed only sporadically in Athens.

Theater After 1900. The turn of the century was marked by two important events. In 1[illegible] after efforts that had lasted 20 years, the Royal Theater was built in Athens with donations from Greeks abroad. It operated regularly for about seven years, and on its stage were presented 16 plays, including 27 by Greek authors. It was badly organized, however, and the productions were poor, the actors were free to act as they wished, and all the plays were given in the pure language. In 1901 the return of Konstantinos Christomanos from Vienna gave a new impetus to the theater. He established the Nea Skene (New Stage), where he produced, according to the most advanced dramatic conceptions, modern German, Russian, and Greek plays, as well as those of Henrik Ibsen. The translations were in the vernacular, the casts were carefully selected and directed with masterly skill, and the scenery and costumes were well conceived. The Nea Skene was active until 1906 and marked a great step forward for the Greek theater. When both the Royal Theater and the Nea Skene ceased to operate, other companies were formed with the actors from both theaters.

The greatest progress was made in 19[illegible] when, with government support, the National Theater was established. With fine casts, inspired directors, and a modern and thoroughly equipped stage, its productions rose to a high level. It staged some of the best plays of the world's repertory. Other companies that contributed to the development of theater in Greece after 19[illegible] included those of Marika Kotopoule and Katerina Andreade, Charles Coon's Theatro Technes (Art Theater), and the short-lived United Artists.

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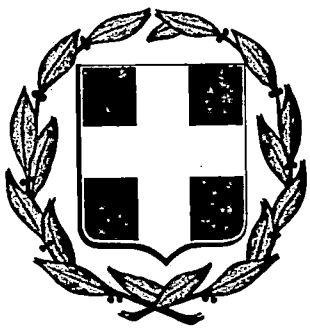
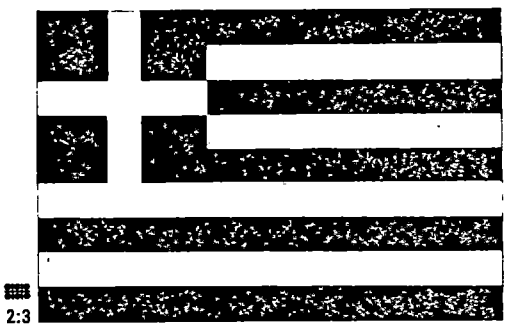
66 HELLAS GREECE



STATE ARMS

Officially hoisted March 1822; reestablished 22 December 1978.



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Adoption of a definitive national flag—the same design in use today—took place following the proclamation of Greek independence on 13 January 1822. The flag was stated to symbolize "the wisdom of God, freedom, and country." The blue is generally seen as a reminder of the sea and sky, white indicating the purity of the independence struggle. The cross in the canton is a reminder of Greek religious faith, while the nine stripes of the flag correspond to the nine syllables in the war cry of independence: "Freedom or Death." The shade of blue has varied over the years, sometimes unofficially and sometimes to indicate political and dynastic associations. For example, in the 19th century the Greek royal dynasty was of Bavarian origin and a medium blue was employed. The military junta which ruled Greece from 1967 to 1974 insisted on a very dark blue, while the latest flag law speaks of "light blue" without giving any scientific definition to the term.

Greece has frequently used a flag of blue with a white cross extending to the four edges of the flag. That flag was flown on land by private citizens (except in seaports) until abolished in 1970. Reinstated in 1975 as the sole official flag for all purposes, in practice it was not used on ships, which continued to display the striped flag. The latest flag law reverts to the situation of 1970–1975, the striped flag being official for all purposes on land and at sea.

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both elements was now possible. It lay with Sparta to choose the time and place for applying the relatively small but excellent forces of the Greek congress.

The first decision, to hold the narrow Vale of Tempe between Macedonia and Thessaly, was abandoned when it was realized that the position could easily be turned. On news of this the Athenians voted, on the proposal of Themistocles, to entrust themselves to "the wooden wall" of their ships in accordance with an utterance of the Delphic oracle, and plans were made for evacuating the noncombatants. Next the Greeks occupied the still narrower pass of Thermopylae with 6,000 or 7,000 hoplites and stationed 271 ships at Artemisium in northern Euboea. The positions were linked by communication between the Spartan commanders, King Leonidas at Thermopylae and Eurybiades at Artemisium, who intended to halt and damage the Persian forces. Meanwhile, Xerxes was advancing slowly. He made no use of separate columns, and his fleet suffered heavy losses in a storm when it was convoying supply ships along the coast. It was already August when Xerxes began the operations, which extended over three days.

Thermopylae

On the first day he sent a detachment of 200 ships, unseen by the Greeks, to sail round Euboea and close the narrows of the Euboean Channel; and he also attacked with his best infantry at Thermopylae, where the Greeks inflicted heavy casualties. During the afternoon the Greek fleet, having learned about the Persian detachment from a deserter, engaged the main Persian fleet with some success. The Greeks intended to sail south that night and destroy the detachment next day, but a tremendous storm kept the Greeks at Artemisium and wrecked the 200 Persian ships off south Euboea. On the second day news of the Persian disaster was brought up by a reinforcing squadron of 53 Athenian ships. Xerxes attacked again with no success at Thermopylae, and the Greeks sank some Cilician vessels off Artemisium. That evening a Greek traitor, Ephialtes, offered to guide the Persians along a mountain path and turn the position at Thermopylae. The Persians' best infantry, called the "Immortals," were entrusted to him. At dawn on the third day they began to descend toward the plain behind the Greek position. Leonidas retained the troops of Sparta, Thespiae, and Thebes and sent the remainder south. He then advanced. Except for the Thebans, who surrendered, he and his men fought to the death. Meanwhile the Persian fleet attacked at noon. Both sides suffered heavy losses and the Greeks realized that they could only succeed in narrower waters. That evening, when the fall of Thermopylae was known, the Greek fleet withdrew down the Euboean Channel and took station in the narrow Strait of Salamis.

In September, Xerxes, joined by many Greeks north of Attica, burned Athens. The city was almost deserted, for the evacuation had been completed. The Greek congress decided to fortify the isthmus and keep the fleet forward at Salamis. This decision caused dissension among the ship captains. Many wished to retire to the Argolic Gulf. As a stratagem, Themistocles informed Xerxes of their desire; Xerxes, who saw the end of the campaigning season close at hand, sent 200 ships that night to cut the Greek line of retreat and posted the main fleet, numbering probably 1,207 ships, off the eastern exit of the Straits of Salamis. During the night the Greeks learned of his dispositions and intentions. Putting to sea at dawn they feigned a retreat, actually sending a detachment northward to look out for the 200 Persian ships, and their manoeuvres led the enemy to advance incautiously into the narrow waters where superior numbers were of little effect. Within the narrows the Greek ships, stoutly built for ramming, had room to manoeuvre against the congested stream of Persian ships, which, designed for boarding tactics, proved less handy under oar and fell foul of one another. The result was a complete triumph for Greek seamanship. The Persians fled in confusion. Soon afterward their fleet, still superior in numbers but not in morale, set sail for Asia.

That winter, while Xerxes departed to Asia, a large army wintered in Thessaly under the command of Mardonius. By skillful diplomacy he drew the Greeks forward in the summer of 479 to the northern foothills of Mt. Cithaeron near Plataea, where difficulties of supply forced the Greek army of 110,000 men to withdraw during the night. The withdrawal was disorderly and dawn found the army scattered. Mardonius at once attacked a group of 11,500 Spartan and Tegean hoplites who had halted on hilly ground. Their commander, Pausanias, undismayed by the swarms of Persian infantry, led his men downhill in close formation, charged at the double, and overwhelmed the enemy. When the Athenians came up after defeating the Thebans, the Greeks stormed the camp and the survivors of the Persian army fled. Meanwhile, the Greek fleet had passed to the offensive at Mycale on the Asiatic coast opposite Samos. The Persians refused battle, beached their ships, and joined a large supporting army, but the Spartan king Leotychidas landed his men farther north and attacked with complete success. The victories of Plataea and Mycale ended the Persian invasion.

Plataea and Mycale

Greek offensive (478–448 BC). The Greek triumph was due to Spartan leadership, Athenian loyalty, and Greek fighting power. The Spartans, however, had no desire to campaign in Asia, whereas the Athenians were ready to deploy their fleet in support of the Ionians. Hence arose the Delian League, formed by Athens as executive leader and by many Greek states on the islands and Asiatic coast, to defend Greek liberty and exact retribution from Persia. A series of successful operations culminated *c.* 466 in victory at the Eurymedon River in Pamphylia, where an allied force of 300 ships defeated a Persian army and navy. In 460 the Athenians and their allies supported Egypt in a successful revolt. But the Persian army returned to the attack; Egypt made a separate peace, and the Greeks, overconfident in their sea power, were trapped on the Nile and annihilated in 454. By this time the Athenians were at war with Sparta, but a truce on the Greek mainland enabled them to launch successful attacks on Cyprus in 450–449. A treaty of peace was concluded, probably in 448, by the Athenians, their allies, and Artaxerxes I of Persia that recognized the liberty of the Greek states in Europe and Asia and kept the Persian fleet out of the Aegean Sea.

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(N.G.L.H.)

Greece

A constitutional monarchy until 1974—though the reigning monarch fled the country in 1967 as part of a series of events that continues to mold the nation—Greece is a European republic stretching across the tip of the Balkan Peninsula from the Ionian Sea to the Aegean and including islands in both seas. Its area—50,960 square miles (131,986 square kilometres)—is about that of Czechoslovakia or North Korea, and its neighbours (clockwise from the northwest) are Albania, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, and Turkey; its insular possessions stretch as far south as the major Mediterranean island of Crete (Kríti). Its capital is Athens (Athínai).

There is about Greece a vitality, all too often undisciplined, that makes many another European country seem tame, even dull, by comparison. This is evident immediately on sailing into a Greek port or crossing a Greek border: sounds, smells, movements, colours—the very tempo of things—conspire to heighten sensibilities and intensify expectations. But alongside all this is the serene coolness, even aloofness, of what remains in Greece from classical antiquity, the visible monuments of which constantly stand as a challenge to (if not even a rebuke of) contemporary endeavours.

The vitality of Greece and Greeks can be said to stem from the heady mixture over centuries of many peoples and ways of life. That land, now the home of about 9,000,000 persons, has long been "at the crossroads"—at that place in the Balkans where "three roads meet," where Europe, Africa, and the East converge, and at that point in time where the ancient, the medieval, and the modern coexist and conflict. The Greek is familiar with the Middle East: his language and food, to say nothing of his religion and history, are marked by exotic and even oppressive elements from Turkey, the Holy Land, Egypt, and beyond. But he is familiar as well with the more sober West, with the Europe to which the young go for training and for work, with the Americas and Australia to which so many have gone for a new home. Greeks, like the Jews whom they resemble in so many ways, have long been able to adjust themselves as merchants in many climes and to many ways of life. But, also like the Jews, they have preserved in their heart of hearts a vital memory of the homeland to which they yearn to return.

The crossroads

This homeland is as much a state of mind as it is a place to be found on maps. The yearning to "return," then, is almost as strong among those who have never left Greek soil as among those who find themselves abroad. Perhaps it is a yearning to attain that which has never been but which has always been aspired to. It is a yearning evident in the melancholy of Greek music, the nostalgia that can be heard even in the lively tunes and ballads sung on festive occasions. It is a yearning that can be heard as well in interminable conversations, especially those with which Greeks refresh themselves through the long cool nights that follow blistering summer days. And it is a yearning that can be seen in the faces and deeds of the Greeks, a yearning that makes it impossible for them "to leave well enough alone." A perpetual restlessness, much like that which was said to characterize the political life of ancient Athens, is evident, a restlessness that can continue subterraneanly despite surface conformity to the tyranny of the moment.

Indeed, there have been many tyrannies in Greece, tyrannies that are as much a part of the much-discussed "Greek experience" as (if not even the most frequent result of) their volatile democracies. Perhaps, it might even be said, memories of tyrannies remind Greeks of the unpredictability of human things, of the disaster that can follow upon prosperity, of the trials that even the most successful encounter from time to time. Life can be expected to be as hard, as unyielding, and as toughening as the soil and the sea from which Greeks have for centuries wrested their livelihood. But it can also be as enriching and as exciting as the landscape and the light for which Greece has always been celebrated and that can be seen, if not at this moment or place, then surely in a little while or down the road a few kilometres.

The following article surveys contemporary Greece. Additional information may be found in the articles on AEGEAN CIVILIZATIONS; AEGEAN SEA; ATHENS; BALKANS, HISTORY OF THE; BYZANTINE EMPIRE; CRETE; GREEK CIVILIZATION, ANCIENT; and the appropriate sections of VISUAL ARTS, WESTERN, and LITERATURE, WESTERN.

THE LAND

Topography. The Greek landscape is conspicuous not only for its beauty but also for its complexity and its variety. The dominant influence—as noted by Strabo, the great geographer of classical antiquity, and confirmed by a glance at the map—is the sea. An ever-present factor, the sea presses deep into the land in a host of arms and inlets, which are often separated by the rocky spines of peninsulas that thrust back into the sea and are continued in the arcs and clusters of beautiful islands across its surface. Only a small, wedge-shaped portion of the interior of modern Greece is more than 50 miles from the sea. Mountains are the second major element in Greek topography. They cover about three-quarters of the country's surface, forming a ribbed, interlaced network, trending generally from northwest to southeast, and enclosing numerous small basins. The basins—together with narrow valleys, small plains (spreading more extensively about river mouths), and a thin, broken coastal strip—form the third element in the relief, the lowland.

In their combination and interaction, these three elements have been of immense significance in shaping national development: the rich soils of the basins nurtured agriculture and the first stirrings of civilization, but the mountains (while often serving as a barrier against invaders) constricted this social development to small, fiercely independent areas and impeded communications between them. The sea—as both history and the ancient stories attest—made for contact between the separate communities and stimulated contacts farther afield, although it also exposed the coastal regions to external attack. For the geographer these three elements, in local combination, are a convenient basis for a division of the contemporary Greek landscape into six natural regions.

The Pindus Mountains. The core region in Greek topography is unquestionably the rugged Pindus Mountains (Píndhos Óros) area of the northwest interior. Following the general northwest–southeast trend of the mountains of the Balkan Peninsula, the Pindus sweep down in a series of rugged, roughly parallel ridges from the Albanian and Yugoslavian frontier and are structurally a part of the Dinaric mountain system of those countries. This system of young fold mountains was created relatively late in geological time, and earthquakes continue to afflict the region as the mountain structures settle down. The highest point in this region is Smólikas Óros (*óros*, plural *óri*, "mountain"), 8,651 feet (2,637 metres) high. The mountain scenery, with jagged granitic peaks, wild gorges, and a succession of magnificent views glimpsed from winding roads, is justly famed.

Macedonia and Thrace. A number of topographic regions surround this mountainous core and are often penetrated by extensions of it. The northernmost division, roughly the regions of Macedonia and Thrace (Thráki), extends in a long, narrow east–west band between the north Aegean coast and the frontier with Yugoslavia and Bulgaria. It is bounded on the east by the Maritsa River (Évros Potamós; *potamós*, "river"), which marks the Turkish frontier, and consists of hills and forest-clad mountains interpenetrated by valleys, river basins, and alluvial plains. Along the Bulgarian border and beyond it rise the ancient crystalline rock structures of the Rhodope Mountains (Rodhópi Óri), against which the newer mountains of the Pindus were crushed during their formation. In the west, the three-pronged peninsula of Khalkidhikí (Chalcidice) forms a distinctive feature as it thrusts out into the Aegean. On the easternmost prong, Áyion Óros (Holy Mountain), is located Mt. Áthos, the site of the famous monastic community.

The peninsula is separated from the rest of the coastal region by a fault line of structural weakness, marked by the lakes Korónia and Vólvi. Just to the west extends a large plain drained by the Vardar (Axiós) and Aliákmon rivers, whose swampy deltas are slowly pushing out into the nearby Thermaïkós Kólpos (*kólpos*, "gulf"). The forested Vérmion Óros and, beyond it, the barren inland basins around lakes Vegorrítis and Kastorías mark the boundary with the Pindus proper. Farther east is a succession of plains, often swampy; that of Sérrai, around the lower Struma (Strimón), and the deltaic plain of the lower Néstos are most significant. Inland basins of structural origin include that of the Pedhiás Drámas.

Central Greece. Central Greece lies to the south of Macedonia and Thrace and is lent character by four spurs that thrust out from the main Pindus mass, following the northwest–southeast trend of that region. A number of

distinctive basins and plains lie amidst these upland ribs. The northernmost, a rather broken spur called the Kamvoúnia Óri, runs along the coast of the Thermaïkós Kólpos and continues south to form the peninsula bounding one side of the Órmos Vólou (*órmos*, "bay"). One of its peaks is Mt. Olympus (Óros Ólimbos)—the mythical seat of the gods, whose often cloud-topped summit rises to 9,570 feet (2,917 metres), the highest point in Greece—and also the equally fine peaks of Óssa and Pílion (Pelion). The next spur on the west is the Óros Óthris range, which continues across the narrow Dhíavlos Oreón (Oreón Channel) in the northern sector of the long, narrow island of Évvoia (Euboea). Between the two spurs lie the ancient basins (formerly the site of lakes) of Thessalía (Thessaly), Tríkkala (Trikala), and Lárisa, drained by the Piniós. Just to their south, the basin of Almirós, of similar origin, lies around the Órmos Vólou.

The thr... elements in the to... pography

To the southwest, the third spur leaving the Pindus is that of the Oíti, continued in the Ókhi Óros of southern Évvoia. Just before the Oíti reaches the sea, near the head of the Maliakós Kólpos, lies the pass of Thermopylae (Thermopílai), scene of the famous battle of antiquity. The last (and perhaps the most important) of the four spurs thrusting down into central Greece is that curving away to the southeast through the twin-peaked mass of Mt. Parnassus (Parnassós). This mountain rises to 8,061 feet (2,457 metres) and was held to be the home of the muses. The view from its summit at sunrise, with a broad expanse of the heart of Greece gradually unfolding, is regarded as one of the finest in the world. The range continues as the backbone of the peninsula lying between the Vórios Evvoïkós Kólpos and the Gulf of Corinth (Korinthiakós Kólpos), and it reaches as far as Párnis Óros, just to the north of Athens. To its north lie the plains of Fokís (Phocis) and Voiotía (Boeotia) and around its southern tip lie the depressions of Attica (Attikí), hotter and more arid but with a strategic importance that helps to explain the rise of Athens.

Mt. Parnassus and its regional context

The Pelopónnisos. The entire southern portion of mainland Greece forms a peninsula lying to the south of the Gulf of Corinth. Technically, this region, the Pelopónnisos, or Peloponnese, also known as the Morea, is now an island, for the 3.9-mile (6.3-kilometre) Dhiórix Korínthou (Corinth Canal) cuts across the narrow neck of land formerly separating the Gulf of Corinth from that of Aíyina (Aegina). The Pelopónnisos consists of an oval-shaped mass with mountains rising to 7,800 feet and four peninsular prongs pushing out southward toward Crete. The limestone mass of the plateau of Arkadhía (Arcadia), where streams disappear underground in the soluble rocks, forms the heart of this mass, with the barren land of Taïyetos Óros (rising 7,897 feet, or 2,407 metres) extending southward to form the backbone of one of the subsidiary peninsulas. This mountainous core is surrounded by a thin fringe of fertile coastal plain in the north and west and by the larger alluvial depressions of Lakonía (Laconia), Messinía (Messenia), and Árgos, which head the inlets between the peninsulas to the south. The coast is indented and offers some fine harbours, and the whole region is noted for its wild beauty.

The Kha... kidhikí peninsu... and Mt. Áthos

The western uplands and islands. The western side of the Greek mainland north of the Gulf of Corinth to the Albanian frontier and the offshore islands (the Ionian Islands; Iónioi (Nísoi) possess their own distinctive topography and regional character. This effect has been enhanced by the fact that the mountainous barrier of the Pindus lying inland and the ameliorating climatic influences from the west have led to historic isolation from the rest of Greece. Fertile basins are not as well developed as in some other parts of Greece because they are constricted by the parallel ranges of coastal mountains, but the mountain regions themselves, being adequately supplied with rainfall, are not so barren as elsewhere. Kérkira (Corfu), the island lying opposite the Albanian frontier, is the northernmost of the seven major Ionian Islands. It is fertile and well watered. The other islands, Paxoí (Paxos), Levkás (Leucas), Skorpiós, Itháki (Ithaca), Kefallinía (Cephalonia), and Zákinthos (Zacynthus), lie farther south. Lack of rainfall accentuates their gaunt, broken limestone relief, although Levkás and Zákinthos have sheltered eastern plains.

The Aegean Islands (Nísoi Aiyaíou). Just as ridgelike extensions of the Pindus interpenetrate the basins and coastal plains of mainland Greece, island groups, which are often further extensions of the same mountain chains, form distinct regional clusters in the Aegean Sea. In the northeast, the island region forms the most extensive—and, visually, perhaps the most attractive—of the physiographic divisions of Greece. In the north, off Thrace (Thráki), lie Thásos (an oval block of ancient mineral rocks similar in composition to neighbouring blocks on the mainland) and harbourless Samothráki (Samothrace), an island of volcanic origin. Límnos, situated midway between Asia Minor and Áyion Óros, is almost cut in two by the northern Órmos Pourniá and the deep southern harbour afforded by the Kólpos Moúdhrou.

Regional clusters of islands

To the southeast, the rocky but sheltered islands of Lésvos (Lesbos), Khíos (Chios), and Sámos lie close to the Turkish coast and are extensions of peninsulas on the coast of Asia Minor. Across the central Aegean, near northern Évvoia (Euboea), lie the Northern Sporades (Voríai Sporádhes), or "scattered" islands; their crystalline rocks are similar to those of the Greek mainland. Farther south, in the heart of the Aegean, lie the Cyclades (Kikládhes), "islands in a circle." These roughly centre on Dhílos (Delos) and represent the tips of drowned mountain ridges continuing the structural trends of Évvoia and the region around Athens.

Between the Cyclades and the Turkish coast, the Dodecanese (Dhodhekánisos) group, with Rhodes (Ródhos) the largest of a dozen major islands, have a varied geological structure ranging from the gray limestones of Kálimnos, Símí, and Khálki to the complete ancient volcanic cone that forms Nísiros. Finally, the long, narrow shape of Crete stands at the entrance of the Aegean in the extreme southern portion of Greek territory. Its harsh, rugged landscapes mark yet another extension of the fold mountains of the Balkan Peninsula.

Climate and drainage. The basically Mediterranean climate of Greece is subject to a number of regional and even local variations occasioned by the country's physical diversity. In winter the belt of low pressure disturbances moving in from the North Atlantic shifts southward, bringing with it warm, moist, westerly winds. Squalls and spells of rain ruffle the Aegean, but sunshine often breaks through the clouds. As the low pressure areas enter the Aegean region, they may draw in cold air from those eastern regions of the Balkans that, sheltered by the Dinaric mountain system from western influences, are open to climatic extremes emanating from the heart of Eurasia. This icy wind is known as the boreas. Partly as a result, Thessaloníki (Salonika) has an average January temperature of 43° F (6° C), while Athens has 50° F (10° C). *Shilok*, or warm winds, are similarly drawn in from the south. The western influences bring plentiful rain to the Ionian coast and the mountains behind it; winter rain also starts early, and snow lingers into spring. At Kérkira (Corfu), January temperatures average 50° F (10° C), and the island's average annual rainfall is 52 inches (1,300 millimetres), compared with the Athens total of 16 inches (400 millimetres).

In summer, when the low pressure belt swings away again, the climate is hot and dry almost everywhere, with the average July sea-level temperature approaching 80° F (27° C), although heat waves can push the temperature up over the 100° F mark for a day or so. Topography is again a modifying factor: the interior northern mountains continue to experience some rainfall, while all along the winding coast the afternoon heat is eased slightly by sea breezes. In other regions the hot, dry summers are accentuated by the parching etesian winds, which become drier and drier as they are drawn southward.

In all seasons—perhaps especially in summer—the quality of the light is one of Greece's greatest treasures. Although the larger cities have not escaped the pernicious effects of industrial and vehicular pollution, the Greek atmosphere is generally pure and clear. The interplay of light and varied landscape is remarkable. The harsh white

The quality of Greek light

limestone crags of the islands, contrasting with the deep blue of the Aegean waters and an equally powerful sky; the dusty green olive groves, the burnt-orange tiled roofs, and dazzling whitewashed walls of coastal communities; and the ever-present weathered stones of the country's great number of ancient monuments all add their own tones.

The drainage pattern of Greece is significantly influenced by the porosity and solubility of the rocks of the limestone regions; hence, seasonal downpours are often immediately lost through seepage and runoff. Much rainfall is also lost in rugged terrain of the geologically young northern mountains, where there is a tortured network of rushing mountain streams, often falling into narrow, spectacular gorges. Finally, the irregular, deeply penetrating coastline makes for short river courses. The overall effect is to produce short rivers with an erratic seasonal flow, virtually useless for navigation and limited for irrigation purposes. The Vardar, Struma, and the Néstos, which crosses Macedonia and Thráki to enter the northern Aegean, are the major rivers—but only because they drain large regions beyond the Greek frontier. A host of small and medium-sized rivers drain the rest of the country: the Aliákmon, the Piniós (running east across the main peninsula), and the Evrótas of the Pelopónnisos are noteworthy.

Plant and animal life. Like other Balkan countries, Greece is open to influences from several major biogeographic zones, with the major Mediterranean influences supplemented by plants and animals stemming from the central European interior. Hence, local topographic and climatic conditions also occasion great variety. On the mountain flanks, and in the north generally, the central European types of vegetation prevail. In central and southern regions and in narrow belts along the valleys of the mountains, about half the land is under scrub of various kinds; and maquis, the classic Mediterranean scrub complex—with oleander, bay, evergreen oak, olive, and juniper—is particularly well developed in the Pelopónnisos. Evergreen trees and shrubs and herbaceous plants are found in the lowlands, with the flowers offering brilliant patterns in springtime. Pines, planes, and poplars line the rivers, the higher slopes, and the coastal plains. Oak, chestnut, and other deciduous trees are found in the north, giving way at higher altitudes to coniferous forests dominated by the Grecian fir, in which clearings are carpeted in spring and summer with irises, crocuses, and tulips. Forests and scrub are found at the highest levels: the black-pine forests coating Mt. Olympus are particularly noteworthy.

The forested zones, especially in the north, harbour such European animals as wildcat, martin, brown bear, roe deer, and, more rarely, wolf, wild boar, and lynx. Animals of the Mediterranean regions include jackals, wild goats, and porcupines, all adapted to lack of moisture and to the heat. Birds include pelicans, storks, and herons, while many varieties winter in Greece from farther north. Reptile and fish life is rich and varied.

The human imprint. The large number of monuments dotted across Greece are testimony of the antiquity of man's attempts to wrest a living from this sometimes harsh environment. Contemporary patterns of settlement, especially in the rural areas, bear the marks of long centuries of development.

Village life remains a powerful influence. It nevertheless has a cosmopolitan nature—seen especially in the village-square discussions—and the modern cities have something of the village in their character. The rural communities themselves range from the little communities of the northern mountain interior, reminiscent of central Europe, to the sun-beaten villages of Crete, which are almost African in appearance. Although rural settlement patterns reflect the vagaries of physical geography and the changing currents of history in a particular region, the tiled roofs, low, whitewashed walls, long, narrow windows, the central church, and the traces of fortifications are frequent features of village communities. Between villages, the ancient stone walls and winding roads add their own character to the landscape.

Yet town and city life is becoming increasingly important, and more than half of the people were classified as urban in the early 1970s. The metropolitan sprawl centred on Athens (home of over 2,500,000 people) is one of the great urban complexes of the Mediterranean, complete with industrial and port facilities. The port of Thessaloníki, with a metropolitan population close to 550,000, is the second major urban centre. There is then something of a gap, for the next half dozen or so major centres—often ports—have populations generally falling between 50,000 and 100,000. Urbanization and the modernization of the economy—especially improvements aimed at the influx of tourists—are also leaving their mark on the traditional Greek landscape.

Greece, Area and Population

	area		population	
	sq mi	sq km	1961 census	1971 census
Regions (*dhiamerismata*)				
Aegean Islands				
Departments (*nomoí*)				
Cyclades	993	2,572	100,000	86,000
Dodecanese	1,044	2,705	123,000	121,000
Khíos	349	904	62,000	54,000
Lésvos	832	2,154	140,000	115,000
Sámos	300	778	52,000	42,000
Central Greece and Évvoia				
Departments				
Aitolía and Akarnanía	2,103	5,447	238,000	229,000
Attikí*	1,303	3,375	205,000	258,000
Evritanía	790	2,045	40,000	30,000
Évvoia	1,509	3,908	166,000	165,000
Fokís	819	2,121	48,000	41,000
Fthiótis	1,686	4,368	160,000	155,000
Voiotía	1,240	3,211	114,000	115,000
Crete				
Departments				
Iráklion	1,020	2,641	208,000	210,000
Khaniá	917	2,376	131,000	120,000
Lasíthi	702	1,818	74,000	66,000
Rethímni	578	1,496	70,000	61,000
Ípiros				
Departments				
Árta	622	1,612	83,000	78,000
Ioánnina	1,927	4,990	155,000	135,000
Préveza	419	1,086	63,000	57,000
Thesprotía	585	1,515	52,000	41,000
Greater Athens†	167	433	1,853,000	2,540,000
Ionian Islands				
Departments				
Kefallinía	361	935	46,000	37,000
Kérkira	247	641	102,000	93,000
Levkás	125	325	29,000	25,000
Zákinthos	157	406	36,000	30,000
Macedonia				
Departments				
Dráma	1,339	3,468	121,000	91,000
Flórina	719	1,863	67,000	52,000
Grevená	903	2,338	43,000	35,000
Imathía	656	1,699	115,000	118,000
Kastoria	651	1,685	47,000	46,000
Kavála	814	2,109	141,000	122,000
Khalkidhikí‡	1,267	3,281	83,000	75,000
Kilkís	1,003	2,597	103,000	84,000
Kozáni	1,375	3,562	153,000	136,000
Pélla	968	2,506	133,000	126,000
Piería	598	1,548	98,000	92,000
Sérrai	1,539	3,987	248,000	203,000
Thessaloníki	1,375	3,560	544,000	710,000
Pelopónnisos				
Departments				
Akhaía	1,239	3,209	239,000	240,000
Argolís	855	2,214	90,000	89,000
Arkadhía	1,706	4,419	135,000	111,000
Ilía	1,035	2,681	189,000	165,000
Korinthía	884	2,289	113,000	113,000
Lakonía	1,404	3,636	119,000	96,000
Messinía	1,155	2,991	212,000	173,000
Thessalía				
Departments				
Kardhítsa	995	2,576	153,000	134,000
Lárisa	2,067	5,354	231,000	232,000
Magnisía	1,018	2,636	164,000	161,000
Trikala	1,289	3,338	143,000	133,000
Thráki				
Departments				
Évros	1,638	4,242	158,000	139,000
Rodhópi	982	2,543	109,000	108,000
Xánthi	692	1,793	90,000	83,000
Total Greece	50,960§	131,986§	8,389,000§	8,769,000§

*Attikí Department excludes area and population of Greater Athens, shown separately. †Constitutes part of Attikí Department. ‡Includes area and population of Áyion Óros (Mt. Áthos), an autonomous administration. §Detail does not add to total given because of rounding.
Source: Official government figures.

THE PEOPLE

Linguistic, ethnic, and religious background. Despite the great variety of influences that have shaped modern Greece, and the marked differences among the many isolated regions, a sense of community binds the Greeks together, especially in a national emergency, such as World War II. A common religion, a great heritage, and a common popular tongue (variations in regional dialects notwithstanding) tend to make all Greeks feel that they are somehow one people equal to each other in important respects. Combined with this sense of equality is the interest in, and appetite for, political discussion.

All but about 5 percent of the populace adheres to the Greek Orthodox Church (see EASTERN ORTHODOXY). This body appoints its own ecclesiastical hierarchy and is headed by a synod of 12 metropolitans under the presidency of the archbishop of Athens. The Greek Church has links in dogma with the other Orthodox churches. The Muslim minority, just over 1 percent of the populace, is mainly Turkish and is concentrated in western Thráki and the Dodecanese. Roman and Greek Catholics (concentrated in Athens and the western islands formerly under Italian sway) account for less than 0.5 percent, and there are a few thousand adherents of Protestant churches, the Gregorian Rite of the Eastern Church (mostly Armenians), and Judaism, the last named being much reduced in numbers by the German genocide of World War II.

In terms of ethnic composition, Greeks again make up all but 5 percent of the total, the remainder being composed of Macedonians, Turks, Albanians, and Romanians. Except in Cyprus, southern Albania, and Turkey, there are no major enclaves of Greeks in nearby foreign countries, although Greek communities play a distinctive role in Europe, the Western Hemisphere, and Australia.

Demographic trends. The Greek population has never displayed the high rates of growth attributed to it by some analysts, although—despite grievous losses in a succession of wars and constant emigration as a result of poor economic conditions—it has usually shown a regular increase since the first census, in 1828. Most of its growth in the years since it gained its independence from the Turks resulted from two factors—annexations of surrounding areas (the Ionian Islands; Thessalía [Thessaly] and Árta; Ípiros [Epirus], Macedonia, and Crete; Thráki [Thrace]; and the Dodecanese) and the influx of more than 1,000,000 Greek refugees from Asia Minor in the 1920s. Emigration continues to be a limiting factor, the most active periods having been 1911–15 when nearly 130,000 persons left, 1956–60 (160,000), and the decade of the 1960s (830,000). The commonest destinations of the emigrants are the United States, Canada, Australia, and, most recently, West Germany, which has also attracted the largest number of the 300,000 Greeks working temporarily in western Europe. Vital statistics are comparable to those of the developed countries of Europe —deaths are 8.5 and births 16.1 per 1,000 annually, giving a natural increase of 7.6 per 1,000. Higher birth rates after World War II, however, have produced a youthful population: about 25 percent are less than 15 years of age and 45 percent less than 30. Along with population growth, urbanization has been a most important factor, especially since World War II. The rural component has shrunk to about one-third of the total. All these factors have had important social and political implications. The average density of population is about 175 per square mile (68 per square kilometre), although the variation in natural conditions makes the average rather meaningless. It is perhaps more significant to note that more than eight out of every 10 Greeks live on the main peninsula, and in 1971 more than one Greek in four lived in the Greater Athens area.

(G.An.)

THE NATIONAL ECONOMY

Although Greece is a Balkan country, its principal economic links are with the United States, the European Economic Community (EEC; Common Market), of which it is an associate member, and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), of which it is a member. Trade with the Socialist bloc and with Yu-

goslavia has increased, however, and by 1974 about 16 percent of Greece's annual exports were going to those countries; they account, however, for only 5 percent of imports into Greece. With a population of only about 9,000,000 and a relatively low annual income per capita, Greece is not an important country industrially or in international trade. In the world of international shipping, however, Greek owners occupy an important place. If tonnage actually controlled by Greek nationals (as opposed to tonnage flying the Greek flag) is considered, the Greek fleet of about 4,380 ships, aggregating about 43,630,000 tons gross by 1976, was the second largest in the world (after Liberia). The fleet flying the Greek flag ranks fifth in the world, with more than 2,740 vessels aggregating 22,530,000 tons.

The extent and distribution of resources. *Mineral resources.* Greece's total mineral and quarry deposits are estimated at between 5,000,000 and 10,000,000 tons. There are important reserves of bauxite, lignite, and chromiferous iron, while the main quarry products are ceramic clays, gypsum, asbestos, and the famous Greek marble. Oil has been drilled for in several parts of the country, but commercially exploitable fields have not been found except in the northern Aegean Sea, and these have led to disputes with Turkey.

Greece is one of the main bauxite-producing countries in Europe. Proved reserves in mainland Greece amount to 40,000,000 tons, and probable deposits are estimated at more than twice as much. Output (mainly for export) doubled in the 1960s to approach 2,000,000 tons a year. A substantial and increasingly larger portion is used in the local production of alumina and aluminum metal. Total lignite (brown coal) reserves are estimated at 1,000,000,000 tons. About three-quarters of the lignite mined is used by power stations, the remainder for the manufacture of chemical fertilizers and domestic fuels. Ordinary iron ores and ores with a chrome and nickel content are present, but only the latter are exploited.

Biological resources. About 30 percent of the total area of Greece is arable land, about 40 percent is rough pasture land, 20 percent is forest, and the remainder is either unsuitable for cultivation or is unexploited.

In spite of the natural poverty of the soil and a system that leads to excessive fragmentation of the land (the average parcel is only about 1.4 acres, or 0.56 hectare), Greece is still essentially an agricultural country, about half the working population being directly engaged in farming and related activities. Agricultural products account for more than half the total exports, though Greece also imports substantial amounts of food.

Principal crops

The chief crops are wheat, cotton, tobacco, currants and seedless raisins, grapes, olives, and citrus fruit, production of which grew rapidly in the 1960s, partly owing to United States aid. Attempts are being made to improve dairy and meat production. Forestry is not important, though progress has been made in restoring the forests that were severely depleted during World War II. The very long coastline and numerous islands help nourish an important fishing industry. With the modernization of the fishing fleet and the extension of refrigeration and processing facilities, output has increased; the once-important sponge-diving industry, on the other hand, has declined in the face of competition from synthetic products.

Power resources. Waterpower and lignite are the most important power resources in Greece, about 70 percent of the electric power being derived from them. A power station at Megalópolis in the Pelopónnisos successfully utilizes lignite of remarkably low calorific value and high moisture content. This plant has interested specialists in other countries dependent upon low-grade lignite deposits. Surveys are still being carried out (with United Nations aid) with the aim of developing more hydroelectric stations, and the establishment of a nuclear generating plant has been under consideration.

Sources of national income. *Agriculture, forestry, and fishing.* The agriculture, forestry, and fishing sector accounted for 31 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP) in 1958, but thereafter it declined steadily. The decline was caused by the drift of workers from the land, either to other employment in Greece or to work abroad. In the period from 1961 to 1971 employment in agriculture declined at an average annual rate of 1.4 percent. Productivity, nevertheless, has been growing faster in this sector than in industry and in the services sector. As a result, agricultural production actually increased on average by nearly 3 percent a year in the period from 1965 to 1970, notwithstanding its decline as a proportion of total national output. Despite the comparatively more rapid growth of productivity in agriculture, however, its level of productivity is still a good deal lower than that of the average in other sectors—a factor experienced by the agricultural workers themselves as poverty. In an attempt to alleviate this, the government has tried to shift the emphasis away from excess production of wheat and tobacco to more profitable crops, notably cotton. Wheat subsidies were abolished in favour of a system of intervention price that sets a minimum selling price guaranteed by the government, which will buy wheat if prices fall below it and sell such purchases at free market prices. Farmers have also been compensated for loss of income by the waiving of debts and by grants to help pay for seeds, fertilizers, and agricultural machinery.

Government intervention in agriculture

Mining and quarrying. The mining and quarrying sector employs about 0.6 percent of the total labour force and accounts for just over 1 percent of the GDP. According to the industrial census of 1969, the number of mines and quarries (including quarries of building materials) and of solar-evaporation salt plants was 1,604, and average annual employment was 22,600 workers. In 1973 the value of the mining output was equivalent to 5.6 percent of total industrial output. In volume terms, more than one-half of the total output is accounted for by lignite production. The mining of bauxite is playing an increasingly important part in the economy, though if production of aluminum reaches the level planned for the mid-1970s, bauxite may have to be imported.

Manufacturing. Manufacturing output has tended to expand at a rate of about 10 percent per annum, but, largely because of the rapid growth of the services sector, manufacturing output as a proportion of the GDP remained around the level of 16 percent during the early 1960s; by the mid-1970s, however, it had risen to more than 25 percent of the GDP. Employment in the industrial sector as a whole (including building, mining, power production, and manufacturing) grew in the 1960s at an average annual rate of just over 4 percent, and over the latter half of this period productivity grew at the rate of 4.3 percent a year.

The main branches of industry are food processing, textiles, chemicals, steel, aluminum, and handicrafts. Athens and Thessaloníki are the main industrial centres, but government policy is to encourage industry to develop in other areas as well. The main change in the pattern of industry, however, has been the establishment of large industrial complexes, notably the huge Esso–Pappas complex at Dhiavatá, near Thessaloníki, which started production in 1966. Steel production is about 600,000 tons a year. The French-owned Pechiney complex at Dhírfis (Delphi) produces large quantities of aluminum for export. Another important industry, located at Elevsís (Eleusis), near Athens, is shipbuilding and ship refitting.

Products of industry

Energy. Electricity and gas production accounts for 2 percent of the GDP. In 1950, when 665,000,000 kilowatt-hours of electricity were produced, only 823 towns and villages in Greece were supplied with electricity; the Athens area accounted for 84 percent of the country's total consumption. In that year was founded the Public Power Corporation, on the initiative and with the aid of the United States; its first plant started operating in 1953. By 1970 a further 6,657 remote villages were receiving electricity, and the output was 9,000,000,000 kilowatt-hours; Athens then accounted for only 40 percent of consumption. Greece is still heavily dependent on imports for fuel supplies.

Financial services. The central bank is the Bank of Greece, founded in 1928. The bank is privately owned, but the governor is appointed by the government, and the state has a share in the profits. The Bank of Greece

is also the sole bank of issue, and it supervises all banking operations in the country, implementing the decisions made by the Currency Committee. Consisting of the governor of the bank and the ministers of coordination, finance, agriculture, and industry and commerce, this body formulates all monetary, credit, and foreign-exchange policy.

There are eight commercial banks, which are private competitive institutions. In addition to undertaking short-term financing, they extend long-term loans to industry and trade and sometimes take up shares in the equity capital of industrial firms. Two of the commercial banks have also set up special investment banks. There are also an agricultural and a mortgage bank. The latter, besides granting housing loans, arranges for loans to public corporations and to the tourist sector of the economy. Long-term industrial development is also promoted by the Hellenic Industrial Development Bank, which is wholly state owned and endowed with government funds. The capital market is still relatively underdeveloped, though a number of measures have been introduced to improve matters. There is one stock exchange, located in Athens, in which there is active trading in about 30 banking and commercial shares.

Foreign trade. Over the 1960s exports more than doubled, as did imports. Exports also increased at a somewhat faster rate than imports; however, because imports were generally about three times as large as exports, the trade gap grew steadily throughout the decade, until it was equivalent to more than 18 percent of national income. An encouraging feature of trade trends in the second half of the 1960s was the growth in exports of industrial and handicraft products; exports of aluminum were particularly important. Exports of tobacco, once Greece's largest export earner, declined, and the market appears to be saturated. Items of capital equipment and fuel accounted for an increasing share of imports, but imports of manufactured consumer goods (and also food) also expanded, in spite of government attempts at restriction. The resulting inflation contributed to the fall of the military junta in 1974.

The widening trade gap

Although the Greeks have expressed dissatisfaction from time to time at the effects of their association (as associate member) with the EEC, trade with this area has grown steadily since 1964, when EEC countries absorbed 38 percent of Greek exports and supplied 42 percent of imports. West Germany is Greece's main trading partner, taking about 19 percent of the country's exports and supplying 20 percent of its imports.

Although Greece has a persistent and increasing trade deficit, the balance of payments is helped by a steady surplus on invisible services, notably shipping, foreign tourism, and funds sent back home by workers who have emigrated to other countries.

Management of the economy. *Private enterprise and the role of the government.* The Greek economy remains predominantly one of private enterprise, with the state limiting its intervention to the field of tax incentives, cheap finance, and its own or bank guarantees to overseas suppliers (and then only for large projects). With the exceptions of electric power, railways, telecommunications, and broadcasting, the state produces neither goods nor services, and its policy is to refrain from activities that can be undertaken effectively by private firms.

It has been official policy to aim at a surplus on the ordinary budget and to use this surplus to finance part of the deficit on the public investment budget, the rest of this deficit being met by domestic issues of bonds and interest-bearing treasury bills and by borrowing abroad. Direct taxes contribute about 20 percent of the total revenues of the Greek fiscal system; between 1957 and 1966 direct taxes on households rose by more than 8 percent annually. Over the same period net indirect taxes rose on average by more than 13 percent, and their share in the total gross national product at market prices rose from 9.7 percent in 1957 to nearly 14 percent 10 years later. In the 1970s policy appeared to aim at more efficient collection of existing direct taxes instead of alteration of the fiscal structure as such.

Taxation

Trade unions and employer associations. The military government dissolved most trade unions and deported many union leaders soon after it came to power in 1967. After the fall of that government, trade union activity revived. The interests of employers are promoted by the Federation of Greek Industries, founded in 1907, and by the Federation of Shipowners and Industrialists. There are chambers of commerce in Athens, Piraiévs (Piraeus), and Thessaloníki.

Economic policies. The broad aim of economic policy is to secure growth through augmenting the share of industry in national output, while keeping prices as stable as possible. Since 1967 great emphasis has been put on the latter objective, and prices were held down by administrative measures for three years. Beginning in 1970, however, prices began to edge upward. In agriculture, the aim is to raise productivity through switching to more profitable crops, and the government no longer subsidizes the growing of wheat and tobacco at uneconomic prices. Under the first Five-Year Plan of the military regime of 1967–74, investment in infrastructure, in tourist facilities, and in industry was meant to be considerably increased, and the primary source of finance for the projected investments was intended to be found in domestic budgetary savings.

At the same time, however, great efforts were made to encourage private foreign investment. This was done not only in order to supply much-needed investment capital and technical and managerial expertise but also to balance the external-payments account by meeting the current deficit with a large inflow of capital. The government also did all it could to promote tourism and shipping, which are major sources of earnings.

In October 1975 a flexible Five-Year Plan (1976–80) was outlined, aiming at a 6 to 7 percent annual growth rate during the plan period and providing for fuller use of domestic energy resources, exploitation of mineral resources, and more active solicitation of foreign investment involving export industries.

The chief economic problem for Greece is the age-old one of lack of natural resources. The structure of employment and of the national income shows Greece's great dependence on secondary economic activities: only about 25 percent of the working population is engaged in manufacturing and construction, and very nearly half of the GDP is generated in the services sector. This leads to a persistent balance-of-payments problem, and foreign indebtedness has grown steadily.

Resource scarcity

(E.I.U./Ed.)

Transportation. Not unexpectedly, the Greek landscape and seascape have had immense effects on the development of transportation patterns in the country and perhaps help to account for the pre-eminence of Greek names in the world of international shipping. The needs of tourism, military and political considerations, and the general economy have helped stimulate the development of a modern national transport system.

Sea transport. The importance of Greek (and Greek-owned) shipping fleets in national and international trade was noted above. Partly as a result, there has been strong emphasis on port development. Piraíevs (Piraeus), the port of Athens, is the major centre, followed by Pátrai, Préveza, Iráklion, Kaválla, and Vólos, among others. There is a developed steamer service to the various islands, and car ferries ply across many of the straits and inlets. Cruise ships and private vessels add to the demand for service facilities at ports.

Road transport. About 50 percent of the road network remains unpaved, and many of the smaller rural roads, especially in the mountain regions, still leave much to be desired. The Athens–Pátrai, Athens–Lamía, and Athens–Thessaloníki highways are modern roads, and the total amount of paved road tripled during the 1960s. There is also an extensive network of rural bus routes.

Railway transport. Extensive modernization has been effected in the Greek railway system, the aims being to improve the existing tracks, to standardize differing metric gauges, to forge links with western Europe, and to coordinate development with that of the roads. The

Greek topography and a late start (railways date only from the 1880s, and Greece was one of the last European countries to develop them) have made this modernization costly and difficult.

Air transport. Air transport is operated by the government-owned Olympic Airways, which took over the financially troubled Greek National Airlines (founded 1951) in 1957. Increasing tourist traffic has resulted in a major expansion of facilities. Athens has a modern air terminal, regional facilities have been improved, and there are new airstrips on some of the islands. **(G.An.)**

ADMINISTRATION AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS

Structure of government. *The constitution.* The military junta (1967–74) ruled under a constitution approved in 1968 by a referendum held under martial law and preceded by a vigorous campaign in its behalf in the censored press. Political activity was prohibited, and the junta ruled by decree.

The republic

On June 1, 1973, the junta decreed that the monarchy was abolished and replaced by a republic. This was confirmed by popular referendum on July 29, but the validity of this referendum was challenged. After the fall of the junta and the restoration of democratic government, another referendum was held, on December 8, 1974, and 69.2 percent of those voting chose "uncrowned democracy."

On August 1, 1974, the prime minister, Konstantinos Karamanlis, announced that the constitution of 1952 would be reintroduced as a provisional measure until, in his words, "the country acquires a charter fully approved by the people."

The powers of head of state were to be exercised by the president of the republic. The word king in the constitution was replaced by the word president. Under the constitution of 1952 the government had full control over the armed forces, and the judiciary was free.

The draft of a new constitution was published on December 23, 1974, after endorsement by the full Cabinet. It provided for Greece to be a parliamentary republic, with a president as head of state and supreme commander of the armed forces. Legislative power was to be exercised jointly by the president and Parliament, the latter a unicameral body composed of 200 to 300 deputies (the exact number to be determined by Parliament itself) elected for five-year terms. The freedom to form political parties was guaranteed.

Resource scarcity

The president was to be elected by Parliament for a five-year (later reduced to four-year) term, and he was eligible for a second term.

The president was to appoint as prime minister the leader of the party with an absolute majority in Parliament; if such did not exist, other methods were prescribed. The draft constitution would also create an advisory body, the Council of the Republic, to consist of elder statesmen and the current leaders.

Administration. The Cabinet is composed of the prime minister and ministers of foreign affairs, national defense, coordination and planning, public order, culture and science, justice, national education and religion, employment, social services, interior, finance, agriculture, industry, commerce, public works, transportation and communication, and mercantile marine. There are also a minister for northern Greece and a minister to the prime minister.

Dhiamerismata and nomoi

Officially, Greece is divided administratively into 10 *dhiamerísmata* (regions), although only four (and part of a fifth) have their own governments. A further subdivision is into more than 50 *nomoí* (departments; singular *nomós*); special arrangements are provided for the Greater Athens area, and the peninsula of Áyion Óros (Mt. Áthos) is a self-governing monastic community with a civil governor, appointed by the government, who is responsible for public order outside the monasteries.

Municipal government, with elected mayors and urban and rural councils, was established in Greece in the mid-19th century. Local authorities may levy certain taxation, but, in general, provincial services are supported by the national government.

Political parties. After the downfall of the military junta in 1974 and the restoration of democratic government, two decrees, published on September 23, 1974, authorized the resumption of party political activities in Greece. Four major new parties emerged:

The Centre Union–New Forces Party, a merger of the Centre Union and the Movement of New Political Forces. The Centre Union represented the rump of the Greek liberal movement, the Centre Union Party (founded in 1961) of Georgios Papandreou. The new Movement of New Political Forces was founded to campaign for policies of "democratic socialism."

The New Democracy Party, founded by Konstantinos Karamanlis. It was pledged to work for the establishment of democracy in Greece through political, economic, and social reforms.

The Pan-Hellenic Socialist Movement (Pasok), incorporating two resistance organizations and founded by Andreas Papandreou, son of Georgios Papandreou. Its platform called for a non-aligned foreign policy (opposed to both the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and the EEC) and nationalization of private enterprises.

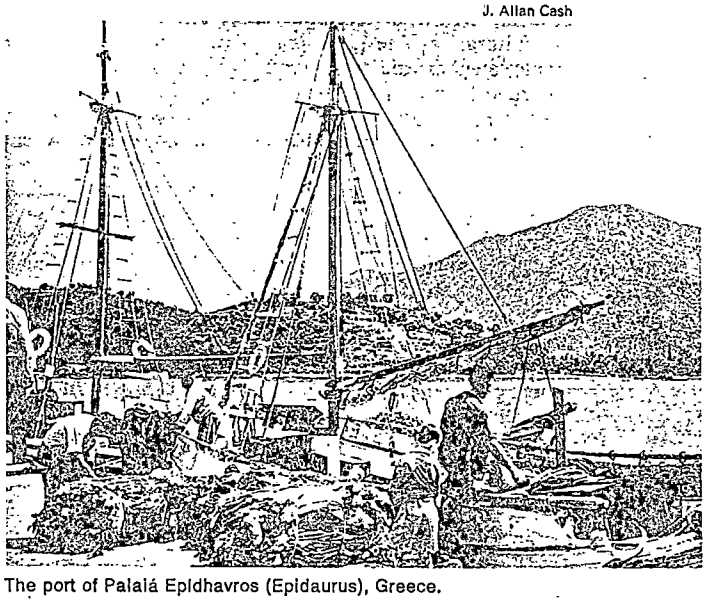
The United Left, a union of the United Democratic Left (EDA) and the two factions of the Communist Party of Greece (KKE). The EDA had been founded originally in 1951.

There were also a number of smaller parties representing various right-wing groups and groups that favoured the restoration of the monarchy.

New Democracy Party in power

Parliamentary elections were held on November 17, 1974, the first since 1964. The New Democracy Party of Karamanlis won 54 percent of the votes cast and a very large majority of the seats in Parliament; the next largest number of seats went to the Centre Union–New Forces Party (20 percent of the vote). On December 9, 1974, the Greek Parliament met for the first time in seven years.

J. Allan Cash



The port of Palalá Epídhavros (Epidaurus), Greece.

Justice. The Supreme Court consists of four sections; three civil and one criminal. There are 11 courts of appeal, having jurisdiction in cases of criminal and civil law of second degree; in exceptional cases they may also adjudicate in cases of first degree. Below these are the 58 courts of first instance, which function also as criminal courts. They have jurisdiction in cases of first degree and, in exceptional cases, second degree. Criminal and juvenile courts exist in towns where courts of first instance sit. Some towns also have tax courts. There are many courts of justices of the peace throughout Greece, and also magistrates' (police) courts. District attorneys function in all courts except justices of the peace and magistrates'; in magistrates' courts the duties of district attorney are carried out by a public prosecutor.

Procedure in the courts follows the French model; *i.e.*, the investigating magistrate examines the evidence and

interrogates witnesses and, if he decides that there is a prima-facie case, refers it to the public prosecutor, who decides whether or not a charge shall be brought. Judges of the higher courts are appointed for life, and others may be removed only if convicted of a criminal offense.

In addition to the regular courts, there is a State Council, having jurisdiction over administrative disputes, administrative contraventions of law, and revision of disciplinary procedure on permanent civil servants.

Police. There are two main bodies of police, the city police (in Athens, Piraiévs, Pátrai, and Kérkira) and the gendarmerie, the latter a paramilitary force with responsibility for the whole country outside the four cities. Both forces are administered by the Minister of the interior. The police forces were reorganized by a British mission after World War II. The gendarmerie and city police provide personnel for the tourist police. In addition, there are small forces of farm police, customs guards, and forest police and a Harbour Corps.

Armed forces. The Greek armed forces consist of an army, navy, and air force recruited on the basis of compulsory military service for all male citizens aged 21, for a period of two years. There is also a National Guard recruited from reservists for local security duties in frontier districts.

In 1967 a clique of army officers, mainly colonels, seized power in Greece by means of a coup d'etat. After the restoration of parliamentary government in 1974, Prime Minister Karamanlis stated (December 11), in a policy announcement, that the aim of the government would be to modernize the armed forces and ensure that they "recovered their concord and discipline." A gradual review of all members of the armed forces was begun, and in March 1975 a reorganization got under way. Clearly, it would be some time before the government could be confident of the loyalty of the military services.

Social conditions. Wages in Greece are low by reason of chronic rural underemployment and because the low agricultural income leads many young peasants to seek employment in the towns and there swell the ranks of unskilled labour. Minimum wages are fixed by the Ministry of Employment.

The Workers' Housing Organization, an agency of the national government, constructs housing and also provides technical assistance and loans for home building. Its projects are largely financed by a national lottery.

Health. After World War II the government took the lead in combatting disease, establishing modern health services and facilities. Malaria, once a scourge, has been virtually eradicated, and standards of hygiene and sanitation have been greatly improved. In the larger cities and towns the water supply is generally safe, though the same claim cannot be made for rural areas. Health measures taken in conjunction with the World Health Organization have been responsible for a great decline in deaths from infectious diseases. The main causes of death are cancer, cerebrovascular disease, and senility.

The Ministry of Social Services is responsible for the maintenance of hygiene, malaria control, establishment and financing of health and medical care centres and pharmacies, and for providing drugs, maternal and child care, and mental care. The large hospitals are concentrated in Athens, Thessaloníki, and Pátrai.

Social insurance. In 1968 the government unified the complex social insurance schemes, which are now controlled and supervised by the Ministry of Social Services through the Social Insurance Institution (IKA), the Unemployment Insurance Organization, the Farm Insurance Organization, and several separate main and auxiliary semi-public funds. The IKA insures workers in government, business, and industry, some agricultural workers, nonfarm self-employed persons, and domestic workers. The main and auxiliary funds offer insurance programs by occupation—*e.g.*, a fund for seamen, a fund for newsboys in Thessaloníki.

Social Insurance Institution (IKA)

Social insurance costs are largely financed by contributions paid into IKA by employees, in the form of payroll deductions, and by matching contributions from employers. Taxes on manufactured products and income from investments made by the insuring agency also help pay for social insurance.

Education. Education is the responsibility of the state, through the Ministry of National Education and Religion, policy being formulated by a Supreme Board of Education. In 1964 a new Education Act introduced radical changes, making school attendance compulsory till the age of 15 and covering both primary school (six years) and part of secondary school (three years). It also made demotic Greek (the colloquial language) the main language of instruction throughout the school system. The military junta in 1967 practically abolished the act of 1964, requiring attendance at school for only six years and reinstating Katharevusa (the literary language) as the principal teaching medium.

Junior secondary schools offer a three-year program, either a general academic course or a more technically oriented course, the former intended for students who plan either to end their education with secondary school or to continue in higher education, the latter for those planning to enter higher technical or vocational schools. Beyond the junior secondary schools are the advanced secondary schools, also offering a three-year program.

Universities

For higher studies there are universities at Athens (National Capodistrian University of Athens, founded in 1837, and National Technical University of Athens, founded in 1836) and at Thessaloníki (Aristotelian University of Thessaloníki, founded in 1925). The University of Ioánnina (1964) and the University of Pátrai (1966) are newer institutions. Athens also has a number of higher schools with university status: the Higher School of Fine Arts (1836), the Athens Graduate School of Economics and Business Science (1920), the College of Agriculture (1920), the Graduate School of Industrial Studies (1938), the American School of Classical Studies at Athens (1881), the Panteios School of Political Sciences (1930), and Pierce College (1875). The Graduate School of Industrial Studies at Thessaloníki (1958) also has university standing. (Ed.)

CULTURAL LIFE

The physical remains of the culture of ancient Greece, whether preserved *in situ*, in the fine network of museums, or (as a result of past activities) in the museums of other countries, are an ever-present reminder of the country's classical heritage. It continues as an important element in the culture of contemporary Greece and plays

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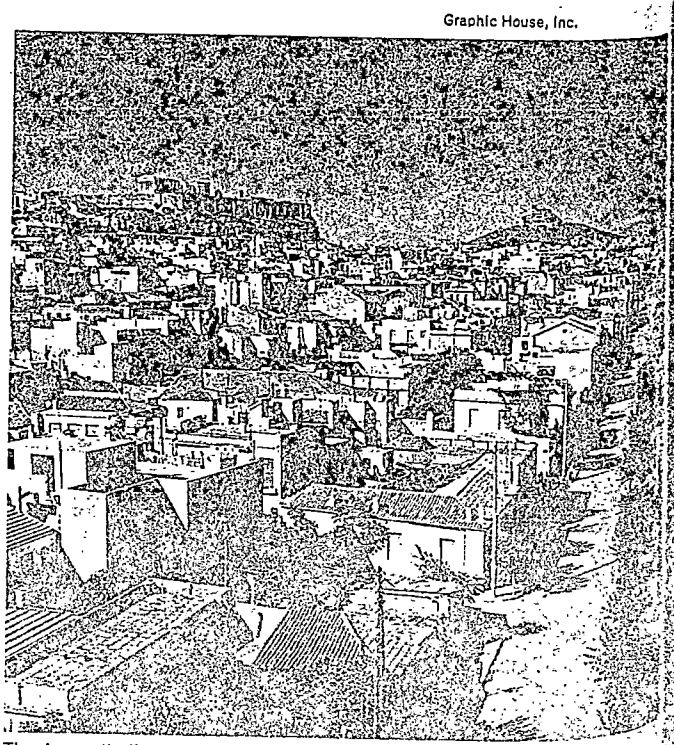

The Acropolis (background), in Athens.

a major role, through its attraction to tourists, in the economy. In addition, the deep religious traditions of the country—which found rich expression in the medieval icons and in the mosaics and frescoes that made the 14th century one of the triumphant eras of Byzantine art—continue to provide a fertile cultural source, generating a great variety of contemporary folk art and religious festivals. These are at their most vigorous in the rural areas generally and in the remoter regions in particular. Easter is the major event in the Orthodox calendar, and the sombre processions of Good Friday are followed by the festivities—including roasting of lambs and dancing in traditional costume—celebrating Easter Sunday. Other religious ceremonies occur throughout the year, beginning with the New Year blessing of the sea at Piraiévs (Piraeus) and elsewhere. The summer months are renowned for international music and drama festivals, particularly at Athens and Palaiá Epídhavros (Epidaurus). A revival of Byzantine iconography may be seen in the work of such artists as Fotos Contoglou and Stathis Trahanatzis as well as in the restoration of medieval frescoes and mosaics. The traditional Karankiózis puppet theatre is preserved by such masters as Panayioti Mixopoulos.

Modern Greek poetry is considered by many to be among the best of the 20th century. Poets of international renown include Constantine Cavafy (who spent most of his life in Egypt), George Seferis (who won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1963), Angelos Sikelianos, Odysseus Elytis, and Yannis Ritsos. Another remarkable writer was Nikos Kazantzakis, who experimented with several forms of expression. Contemporary Greek literature is fortunate in its English translators, especially the Americans Kimon Friar, Edmund Keeley, Themis Vasils, and Theodora Vasils.

The Greek character is reflected in the opening verses of the "Hymn to Liberty" written by the 19th-century poet Dhionísios Solomós. These lines, set to the stirring music of N. Manzaros as the national anthem of Greece, read (in a prose translation by Theodora Vasils),

> I know you by the sword's dread cutting edge, I know you by the look that with vigour measures the earth. Out of the sacred bones of the Hellenes you issue valiant as before, hail o hail, Liberty! You dwelt therein, sorrowful, withdrawn, waiting for a mouth to tell you, "Come again." That day was long in coming, and all were silent, cowering under the terror and the crush of slavery.

The other great "national" song of the Greeks is the fervent Resurrection hymn attributed to an 8th-century monk, St. John of Damascus,

> Christ has risen from the dead, by death trampling upon death, and has upon those in the tombs life bestowed.

The music of these two hymns, a millennium apart in composition, is both joyful and haunting. The listener is reminded of Greek nostalgia, of the deepest fears and hopes of the Greeks and indeed of all mankind.

Greek musicians with international followings include Manos Hadjidakis and Mikis Theodorakis. After the fall of the military regime in 1974 there was a revival in Athens of an irreverent political theatre as well as of the film industry. It remains to be seen what effect a decade of suppression will have on young literary talent. It also remains to be seen what effect the constantly growing tourist industry will have on the cultural integrity of the country.

THE OUTLOOK

The future of Greece remains in serious question, and in the decades ahead the fundamental alternatives facing the Greeks may be the exciting dangers of Balkan and eastern Mediterranean politics or the complacent prosperity of a closer association with the European community. Forces may already be at work among the Greeks that compel them toward further urbanization and industrialization and toward greater exposure to the homogenizing (if not demoralizing) "culture" of the international mass media.

Continuity with the past, a very long past, remains Greece's burden as well as its glory. The past and its significance are often obscure but always present. Their very language constantly reminds Greeks both of what they have been and of what they have aspired to. The ramifications of old influences go deep and are unpredictable; they seem to make permanent solutions impossible, so long as Greece retains its identity. Perhaps it is true for all peoples that there are no "permanent solutions" and that most of what can be done in the present depends intimately on what has happened in centuries past. But these limitations upon self-determination are much more evident in Greece than in most other countries. After all, the light of Greece has long been known to make many things clearer there than they are likely to be elsewhere. (G.An.)

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NAPLES

See CITIES

NATIONS

See also AMERICA & AMERICANS; CITIES; ENGLAND; ORIENT, THE; RACES & PEOPLES; TRAVEL

My heart's in the Highlands, my heart is not here,
My heart's in the Highlands a-chasing the deer.
—ROBERT BURNS, *My Heart's in the Highlands*

England is a paradise for women, and hell for horses; Italy is a paradise for horses, hell for woman, as the diverb [proverb] goes.
—ROBERT BURTON, *Anatomy of Melancholy*

Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres.
All Gaul is divided in three parts.
—JULIUS CAESAR, *De Bello Gallico*

France was a long despotism tempered by epigrams.
—THOMAS CARLYLE, *History of the French Revolution*

I am rather inclined to believe that this is the land God gave to Cain.
—JACQUES CARTIER, speaking of Canada, *La première relation*

It [Russia] is a riddle wrapped in a mystery inside an enigma.
—WINSTON CHURCHILL, radio speech, Oct. 1, 1939

Very big, China.
—NOËL COWARD, *Private Lives*

How can you be expected to govern a country that has two hundred and forty-six kinds of cheese?
—CHARLES DE GAULLE, *Newsweek*, Oct. 1, 1962

Our fatal troika [modern Russia] dashes on in her headlong flight, perhaps to destruction.
—FËDOR DOSTOEVSKI, *The Brothers Karamazov*

The Swiss are not a people so much as a neat clean quite solvent business.
—WILLIAM FAULKNER, *Intruder in the Dust*

They [the Greeks] were the first Westerners; the spirit of the West, the modern spirit, is a Greek discovery.
—EDITH HAMILTON, *The Greek Way*

The heart ran o'er
With silent worship of the great of old!—
The dead, but sceptred sovereigns, who still rule
Our spirits from their urns.

BYRON. *Manfred.* Act iii. Sc. 4.

GREECE; GREEK.

Græcum est, non potest legi.

It is Greek, it cannot be read.

FRANCIS ACCURSIUS.

[The origin of the Boar's head served every Christmas at Queen's College, Oxon., is traced to a remote period, when a scholar of the college, encountering a wild boar in Bagley Wood, thrust the volume of Aristotle which he was reading into the savage brute's jaws, crying out, "Græcum est!" and so both choked his assailant and saved his own life.]

Cassius. Did Cicero say anything?

Casca. Ay, he spoke Greek.

Cassius. To what effect?

Casca. Nay, an I tell you that, I'll ne'er look you i' the face again: but those that understood him smiled at one another, and shook their heads; but, for mine own part, it was Greek to me.

SHAKESPEARE. *Julius Cæsar.* Act i. Sc. 2, l. 281.

Accipe nunc Danaûm insidias, et crimine ab uno
Disce omnes.

Recognize now the treachery of the Greeks, and from one example learn the character of all.

VIRGIL. *Æneid.* ii. 65.

When Greeks joined Greeks then was the tug of war,
The labored battle sweat, and conquest bled
. . . . . .
Philip fought men, but Alexander women.

NATHANIEL LEE. *Alexander the Great.* Act iv. Sc. 2.

[The first line is constantly misquoted as
When Greek meets Greek then comes the tug of war.

Lee puts the saying into the mouth of Clytus (Kleitos) in the heated dispute with Alexander, which goaded the conqueror to murder his old friend. Clytus is comparing Alexander disadvantageously with his father, Philip. In the second line, with its strained personification of battle and conquest, sweat (= sweated) is the old past tense.]

Athens, the eye of Greece, mother of arts
And eloquence.

MILTON. *Paradise Regained.* Bk. iv. l. 240.

My faithful scene from true records shall tell,
How Trojan valour did the Greek excel;
Your great forefathers shall their fame regain,
And Homer's angry ghost repine in vain.

DRYDEN. *Prologue to Troilus and Cressida.* Concluding lines.

Again to the battle, Achaians!
Our hearts bid the tyrants defiance!
Our land, the first garden of Liberty's tree,
It has been, and shall yet be, the land of the free.

CAMPBELL. *Song of the Greeks.*

Ancient of days! august Athena! where,
Where are thy men of might, thy grand in soul?
Gone—glimmering through the dream of things that were:
First in the race that led to glory's goal,
They won, and pass'd away.

BYRON. *Childe Harold.* Canto ii. St. 2.

And yet how lovely in thine age of woe,
Land of lost gods and godlike men! art thou!

Ibid. Childe Harold. Canto ii. St. 85.

The isles of Greece, the isles of Greece!
Where burning Sappho loved and sung.
Where grew the arts of war and peace,—
Where Delos rose, and Phœbus sprung!
Eternal summer gilds them yet,
But all, except their sun, is set.

Ibid. Don Juan. Canto iii. St. 86. 1.

The mountains look on Marathon,
And Marathon looks on the sea;
And musing there an hour alone,
I dreamed that Greece might still be free.

Ibid. Don Juan. Canto iii. St. 86. 3.

Earth! render back from out thy breast
A remnant of our Spartan dead!
Of the three hundred grant but three
To make a new Thermopylæ.

Ibid. Don Juan. Canto iii. St. 86. 7.

V. M. MOLOTOV (b. 1890): Soviet Prime Minister and Foreign Minister

1147 To Soviet patriots the homeland and communism become fused in one inseparable whole . . . We Bolsheviks have sprung from the bowels of the people, and we prize and revere the glorious deeds in our people's history.

(Speech to the Supreme Soviet, 6 November 1939)

James MONROE (1758–1831): fifth President of the USA

1148 The mention of Greece fills the mind with the most exalted sentiments and arouses in our bosoms the best feelings of which our nature is susceptible.

(President's message to Congress, December 1822)

1149 The American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers . . . In the wars of the European powers in matters relating to themselves we have never taken any part, nor does it comport with our policy to do so.

(Message to Congress, 2 December 1823, the 'Monroe Doctrine')

Simon de MONTFORT, Earl of Leicester (?1208–65): leader of the English baronial reformers in Henry III's reign

1150 By the arm of St James, they are coming on cleverly; they did not learn this method of themselves, they learnt it from me.

(On seeing Prince Edward's army approaching to attack him at Battle of Evesham, 4 August 1265)

Bernard (Viscount) MONTGOMERY of Alamein (1887–1976): British Field Marshal

1151 Let no man surrender so long as he is unwounded and can fight.

(Message to 8th Army on eve of battle of El Alamein, 30 October 1942)

Anne-Marie-Louise, Duchess of MONTPENSIER (1627–93): niece of Louis XIII

1152 I paid a visit of condolence to the Queen of England. Her husband had been beheaded by order of the British parliament. The [French] court did not go into general mourning on this occasion, for want of funds. I found her not so deeply affected as she should have been.

(*Mémoires*, February 1649)

waste which comes of great men failing in their hearts to recognise how great they are. JOHN MORLEY, "Byron," *Critical Miscellanies* (1871–1908).

50. In a narrow sphere great men are blunderers. NAPOLEON I, *Maxims* (1804–15).

51. It is the privilege of greatness to confer intense happiness with insignificant gifts. NIETZSCHE, *Human, All Too Human* (1878), 496, tr. Helen Zimmern.

52. A great man does not lose his self-possession when he is afflicted; the ocean is not made muddy by the falling in of its banks. *Panchatantra* (c. 5th c.), 1, tr. Franklin Edgerton.

53. Do not despise the bottom rungs in the ascent to greatness. PUBLILIUS SYRUS, *Moral Sayings* (1st c. B.C.), 579.

54. Greatness is not the effect of which inspiration is the cause. We are all inspired, but we are all not great. NED ROREM, "Four Questions Answered," *Music from Inside Out* (1967).

55. The Great don't innovate, they fertilize seeds planted by lackeys, then leave to others the inhaling of the flowers whose roots they've manured. A deceptive memory may be the key to their originality. NED ROREM, "Random Notes from a Diary," *Music from Inside Out* (1967).

56. All great books contain boring portions, and all great lives have contained uninteresting stretches. BERTRAND RUSSELL, *The Conquest of Happiness* (1930), 4.

57. The loftiest edifices need the deepest foundations. GEORGE SANTAYANA, *The Life of Reason: Reason in Society* (1905–06), 1.

58. A great man need not be virtuous, nor his opinions right, but he must have a firm mind, a distinctive luminous character. GEORGE SANTAYANA, *Winds of Doctrine* (1913).

59. They that stand high have many blasts to shake them. SHAKESPEARE, *Richard III* (1592–93), 1.3.259.

60. Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon 'em. SHAKESPEARE, *Twelfth Night* (1599–1600), 2.5.157.

61. Great men hallow a whole people, and lift up all who live in their time. SYDNEY SMITH, quoted in Lady S. Holland's *Memoir* (1855), v. 1.7.

62. Nothing is likely about masterpieces, least of all whether there will be any. IGOR STRAVINSKY, *Conversations with Igor Stravinsky* (1959).

63. Great things are accomplished by men who are not conscious of the impotence of man. Such insensitiveness is precious. PAUL VALÉRY, "Fluctuations on Liberty," *Reflections on the World Today* (1931), tr. Francis Scarfe.

64. Great men have all been formed either before academies or independent of them. VOLTAIRE, "Society of London, and Academies," *Philosophical Dictionary* (1764).

65. A man is not as big as his belief in himself; he is as big as the number of persons who believe in him. WOODROW WILSON, speech, Oct. 3, 1912.

66. Masterpieces are not single and solitary births; they are the outcome of many years of thinking in common, of thinking by the body of the people, so that the experience of the mass is behind the single voice. VIRGINIA WOOLF, *A Room of One's Own* (1929), 4.

67. Great men with great truths have seldom had much support from their associates. PHILIP WYLIE, *Generation of Vipers* (1942), 10.

68. None think the great unhappy but the great. EDWARD YOUNG, *Love of Fame* (1728), 1.238.

400. GREECE, ANCIENT

See also 42. Antiquity

1. The spirit of Greece, passing through and ascending above the world, hath so animated universal nature, that the very rocks and woods, the very torrents and wilds burst forth with it. WALTER SAVAGE LANDOR, "Scipio, Polybius, and Panaetius," *Imaginary Conversations* (1824–53).

2. Except the blind forces of Nature, nothing moves in this world which is not Greek in its origin. SIR HENRY JAMES MAIN, Cambridge Rede Lecture, 1875, *Village Communities in the East and West.*

3. We [Greeks] are lovers of the beautiful, yet simple in our tastes, and we cultivate the mind without loss of manliness. THUCYDIDES, *The Peloponnesian War* (c. 400 B.C.), 2.40, tr. Benjamin Jowett.

9TH STORY of Level 1 printed in FULL format.

The Reuter Library Report

June 1, 1990, Friday, BC cycle

LENGTH: 547 words

HEADLINE: FIRST GREEK PRIME MINISTER IN 26 YEARS TO VISIT WASHINGTON

BYLINE: By Stephen Weeks

DATELINE: ATHENS, June 1

KEYWORD:
GREECE -VISIT

BODY:

A recent sharp improvement in U.S.-Greek relations will take a further step forward when Prime Minister Constantine Mitsotakis meets President George Bush in Washington next week, the first such talks in 26 years.

Mitsotakis, who in April formed the first conservative government since 1981, has made rebuilding friendly ties with Washington a cornerstone of his foreign policy.

"We look forward to positive results in foreign policy from our trip," Mitsotakis, 71, told reporters, adding that he hoped for greater U.S. investment and a substantial rise in tourism.

During eight years of Socialist rule from 1981 until June 1989 relations between the two NATO allies were stormy at the best of times and were often marred by harsh reciprocal denunciations.

Mass anti-American demonstrations were staged against U.S. military bases in Greece, and Washington attacked Athens' record on security and combatting terrorism.

Western diplomats said Mitsotakis delighted the Bush administration, and members of the U.S. Congress, with quick decisions on a new bases deal and by recognising Israel.

That leaves one outstanding issue which, according to some diplomats, could torpedo the goodwill created by Mitsotakis: a U.S. extradition request for a Palestinian guerrilla.

The United States wants Mohammed Rashid, 34, to stand trial for a mid-air bomb blast on a Pan Am airliner over Hawaii in 1982 which killed a Japanese teenager and wounded 15 other passengers.

Rashid was arrested in Athens in May 1988 on a U.S. tip-off and has served two jail sentences on lesser charges. He is now in detention pending a decision on the U.S. request.

The Greek Supreme Court approved extradition and the final decision rests with Mitsotakis. Diplomats said Rashid would be brought up repeatedly by U.S.

officials and members of Congress during the nine-day visit.

Mitsotakis leaves on Sunday and meets Bush on Wednesday for talks and a White House lunch. Meetings are also planned with Secretary of State James Baker, Defense Secretary Dick Cheney and congressional leaders.

He will be the first Greek prime minister to visit Washington since 1964, when the late Prime Minister George Papandreou met President Lyndon Johnson to discuss a crisis over Cyprus.

Constantine Karamanlis was the last prime minister to visit Washington to discuss specifically Greek-American relations. He met President John Kennedy in 1961.

Mitsotakis will stress the need to maintain a balance of forces and aid in the east Mediterranean, notably Washington's policy of providing Greece with 100 dollars in military assistance for every 70 dollars it gives to Turkey.

Endless disputes between Washington and former Socialist Prime Minister Andreas Papandreou, who ruled from 1981 to 1989, called the ratio into question. Greece received 350 million dollars in 1989 and Turkey 500 million dollars.

Diplomats said Mitsotakis would seek economic assistance from Washington to help Greece through a public debt crisis but Washington, with its own budget and debt problems, would give this a cool reception.

Mitsotakis will attend his son Kyriakos's graduation from Harvard University, and meet Massachusetts Governor Michael Dukakis, the 1988 U.S. presidential candidate who is the son of Greek immigrants.

SUBJECT:
DIPLOMATIC

4TH STORY of Level 1 printed in FULL format.

March 17, 1991

SECTION: LE MONDE; Pg. 14

LENGTH: 864 words

HEADLINE: Greece worried by Turkey's new role

BYLINE: By Didier Kunz

DATELINE: ATHENS

HIGHLIGHT:
Turkey's growing importance in the wake of the Gulf war is worrying Greece. The conservative government in Athens has been trying to offset the increasing tendency to see Ankara as a key player in the new order set to emerge from the Middle East conflict by moving closer to Washington, the great arbiter of the balance of forces in the Aegean. And fearing Ankara's influence on the Muslim minorities in Bulgaria and Western Thrace, the Greek government has also been strengthening its ties with Sofia.

BODY:

If Greece is to have its place in the new world order that will emerge from the conflict, "we'll have to be on the winner's side", pointed out Prime Minister Konstantinos Mitsotakis last week in a parliamentary foreign policy debate. This, he implied, justified dispatching a frigate to the Red Sea to join the anti-Iraqi coalition forces and the granting of facilities to the allies in Greece3, in particular in Crete where there are two big American bases.

Mitsotakis believes that by taking an active part in the international force Greece, is denying Turkey an opportunity "to act however it likes and move its pawns forward". Since the end of the war war, Athens has begun to push for "a settlement of the Cyprus and Palestine issues and will not allow Iraq to be dismembered". Since January 21, the Athens government has been taking a firm stand against any attempt to interefere with Iraq's territorial integrity, for it in fact fears that Turkey might be tempted to secure territorial advantages for itself at Iraq's expense.

Like all his prime ministerial predecessors, Mitsotakis keeps bringing up the security problems of a Greece allegedly threatened by Turkey. He points out that it is necessary for Greece to join the Western European Union and wants Greece's borders to be considered by its European partnersas the borders of the European Community, which would provide it with an additional guarantee against Turkey. These efforts are being made at a time when the Turkish government is trying very hard to break down the Greek "obstacle" that is preventing the application of a financial protocol with the Twelve and a rapprochement between Ankara and Brussels.

Greek Foreign Minister Antonis Samaras's visit to Washington at the end of January to promote these views was a success, says Mitsotakis, Samaras was received by President Bush -- which was exceptional for a Greek minister --

and he asked the United States for defence assistance, particularly Patriot anti-missile missiles that Turkey has already received. The Athens government is particularly satisfied on one point: Bush gave his assurance that the United States would "guarantee Greece's security and prosperity".

In the opposition's view, this phrase, which Athens considers to be "very positive", is in fact nothing more than a formula aimed at altering the sacrosanct 7 to 10 ratio in the aid provided to Greece and Turkey respectively. Indeed, the American Administration has asked Congress for increased aid to Ankara. America's big Greek lobby will have a harder fight in Congress this time than in previous years because of the sympathy that Turkey has won as a result of its stand in the Gulf conflict. When Turkey's Foreign Minister Ahmet Kurtcebe Alptemocin went to Washington on February 19 he zealously drew attention to the services his country has rendered and confirm the major role Ankara was playing in the region.

While developing closer ties with Washington in a bid to put pressure on Ankara, the Greek conservative government in Greece is also trying to constitute a special Athens-Sofia axis, a policy initiated in 1974 by the current Greek president, Konstantinos Karamanlis and continued by Andreas Papandreou's Socialists from 1981 to 1989. Visits of both military and political figures between the two capitals have become increasingly frequent. Last week, it was Bulgarian Prime Minister Dimitri Popov who came to Athens. Greek Prime Minister Mitsotakis went to Sofia a month earlier.

The Athens-Sofia axis is intended in particular as a "protection" against Ankara's influence on the big Muslim minorities in southern Bulgaria and Western Thrace who are likely to destabilise these regions any moment. Greeks and Bulgarians have also agreed to deny the existence of any Macedonian communities in their countries as Belgrade is claiming.

The minorities issue was the subject of a State Department reporton human rights forwarded to the Congress when Samaras visited the US. Among other things, the report claims that the Greeks are "oppressing" the Macedonian minority and the Muslim community in Thrace -- a point immediately exploited by Ankara much to the Greeks' annoyance. An exasperated Athens government has asked for "corrections" of the report. The government's foreign policy was a "fiasco", taunted Andreas Papandreou, the leader of the Socialist opposition, in parliament recently.

Recovering the stirring tones in which he used to talk of Greek independence, the PASOK leader condemned the conservative government's policies which he said were again turning Greece into an American satellite. He accused the government of turning Crete into a springboard for US operations in the Middle East. He spurned a "blind consensus" on the war and called for withdrawal of the Greek frigate from the multinational force.

Papandreou argues that while Greece has complied with Washington's policy it has got nothing in return. He pointed, for example, that US Secretary of State James Baker's has refused to draw any parallel between Kuwait and Cyprus as the Athens government has been insisting from the beginning of the crisis.

GREECE

Cocktail Reception
Athens

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