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INTRODUCTION

The Amazing Game of European Ancient Trails is the end product of our LLP/ Comenius multilateral partnership project.

The main objective of the project is to improve teaching approaches and techniques by creating a game that is inspired by The Game of the Goose.

Born in ancient Greece, The Game of the Goose, arrived in Spain and has spread across Europe in the Habsburg era.

Each country has developed a local version of the game, based on the same rules and design.

A network of paths crosses traditional Europe, most notably The Way of St. James, which is declared intangible heritage of UNESCO.

The Amazing Game of Ancient European Trails is the end product which involved different school subjects: Art, ITC, Social Sciences, Natural Sciences, Technology, Mathematics, English (French/Italian/Spanish), Sport.



Our game starts from a board game and a booklet with the rules which include ancient routes chosen by each partner country in the project.

On this basis it was created a computerized version of the game and a methodological miniguide to be used by teachers in foreign language classes, art, geography, history, ICT, mathematics, technology education, sport. The game includes lesson plans about the different countries and presentations of each trail. It is compulsory to use them before playing.

Using the game successfully will require assimilation knowledge of geography, history, literature, biology, civic culture, construction (woodwork and brickwork) engineering, business studies, computer studies, music, arts, and sports, acquired during travel along ancient routes proposed by each partner.

Based on direct observations and documenting students will be able to respond correctly to questions posed by participation in the game.

All the information related to the project activities and end products can be downloaded from the project website www.agaet.com

AGAET *helps students to develop flexible knowledge, effective problem solving skills, self-directed learning and collaboration skills.*

2. PARTNER SCHOOLS



Institut El Palau,
 Sant Andreu de
 Barca, Spain



1 Gymnasium
 Kamaterou,
 Athens, Greece



APLL Implantation
 des Arts et Métiers,
 La Louvière, Belgium



Kendal College
 of Further Education
 Kendal, Great Britain



Fahrettinpaşa
 Ortaokulu,
 Tarsus, Turkey



Katolickie
 Gimnazjum im Sw.
 Melchiora
 Grodzieckiego,
 Cieszyn, Poland



Şcoala Gimnazială
 “Ştefan cel Mare”
 Vaslui, Romania



Istituto Comprensivo
 Giovanni XXIII, Isernia,
 Italy



3. PROBLEM BASED LEARNING AS SUITABLE METHODOLOGY FOR EUROPEAN SECONDARY SCHOOL PROJECTS

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SantAndreu de la Barca, Barcelona, Spain

The experience gathered by the associated schools of the Comenius project AGAET (The Amazing Game of Ancient European Trails, supported by the Lifelong Learning Program of the European Commission) demonstrates that PBL (Problem Based Learning) is really suitable for international workgroup in European projects involving secondary schools. Anyway the partners should match some conditions to make the overall experience successful.

What is PBL?

PBL is a student-centered educational approach where a problem is the starting-point of the learning process. The aim of the process is to switch the traditional roles of one-way teaching methods like lecturing. With PBL the students are allowed to be responsible of their learning process, and the traditional role of the teacher switches into guidance and coaching to set the highest standards. The learning becomes really meaningful for the students because they have an active involvement in the lessons and lead their own learning process.

Nilson (2010, p. 190) lists learning outcomes associated with PBL like the development of skills related to collaborative team work, time management and problem solving.

PBL lesson plans are designed around an open question and a project proposal, which makes them enough flexible to admit adaptations and changes by the way because the student has to research collaboratively with fellows the best solution for the problem. The problems are based on real life and selected to meet educational criteria and ICTs play a core role to solve the problem. The learning process through meaningful learning is effective and the students enjoy the experience, retaining more lasting and better the information than from a textbook and/or a teacher's lecture, making PBL a powerful tool to acquire lifelong skills.

The use of PBL in an international project

The dimension of AGAET project, including eight school partners of very different cultural backgrounds, educational systems and styles of teaching like Romania, Turkey, Spain, Poland, United Kingdom, Greece, Italy and Belgium, makes very difficult to follow a very strict timeline and directed activities as happen in traditional one-way methodologies. PBL lesson plans are very easy to adapt to the specific features of each partner keeping a common baseline and this makes them the best solution to match the challenges of the project.

The whole project consists to create an educational game collaboratively among all of the partners. To develop the whole plan of work it had to be split in mini-projects guided by a lesson



plan to design each component of the game and the students had to work locally, deciding the teachers the best solutions for the design in the project meetings held in the partner's schools. ICTs are the mean of communication among the teams in-between the project meetings held on each partner school using software like Skype, Moodle and Edmodo.

1.Proposals and lesson plans

When PBL is used in international projects like AGAET, this methodology boosts all of its potentiality. Team work is not limited to a classroom or an educational system, even not only to students, but to a huge educational community. In this case, the international team of multidisciplinary teachers defined the problem, provided agreed lesson plans and the students through local workgroups used them as starting point of their research to develop the end products. The more experienced teachers using PBL lesson plans gathered the suggestions of the workgroup and wrote the lesson plans according to an agreed pattern.

2.Conditions for successful PBL teaching

a.Limited number of students

The teacher's team adapted the lesson plans according to the features of their classrooms. One factor of success of the PBL approach is the number of students in the classes. European projects match very well this condition because the schools have a limited number of students and teachers involved in this kind of project as relies in a scholarship, and the students use to be very

motivated and selected like in this case by their skills, especially in English whenever it is not the official language of the school. Teacher's custom guidance is core for a good PBL lesson. A class of less than 15 students is the best to apply this methodology. More students make classroom management difficult and guidance not effective.

b. ICT facilities of the school and trained staff

As the teacher takes the role of coach instead of unique provider of information in the classroom, ICTs facilities of the schools and a limited number of students are core to teach good PBL lessons. The teacher has to be used to ICTs and able to lead a good web research, better speaking English. The internet makes available a lot of significant information very difficult to reach by the students through other means and internet contents written in English use to be easier to find. The current technology conditions have sparked a revival of PBL in teaching, considered twenty years ago an almost odd and forgotten methodology of the 60's. Not all of the partner schools of AGAET have the best ICT conditions to work, or availability to develop the project into their curricula, but the international team of teachers did its best to solve these issues and fulfil all of the stages of the project successfully.

c. Multidisciplinary approach

This kind of approach is very motivating for the students, because their role in the learning process is active and they get by themselves the knowledge to match the requirements of the



project. This knowledge is not limited to school subject limitations, but multidisciplinary through real-life based proposals. As well the international environment of work makes the learning process something very similar to the real requirements of the professional world, where international teams connected by ICTs and collaborate on complex projects, facing challenges as cultural differences, working methods or the language barrier.

3.Issues on the use of PBL as methodology

a.Acceptance

The first phases of the AGAET split of PBL mini-projects used to be disquieting because the open features of this methodology, first among the international teachers' workgroup, in some cases their first experience teaching through PBL, and later among the students through local teamwork. The student's active self-learning process and the possibility of more of a right answer, which is really opposite to the usual experience of lecture based classes lead by a teacher is the core of PBL. There are not standardized routines and uncertainty is a part of the process, like in real-life projects. As the project progressed, meaningful active learning motivated the students and made them enjoy more the experience and acquire lasting knowledge and better skills of English if it was not their mother language.

b.School curricula

The associated schools have not the same class timetable, not the same holidays and not even the same school subjects. If the activities of the plan can be included in the school curriculum the hours of classes may not match completely to allow videoconferences. The associates have to consider alternatives out of the school curricula or timetables to meet simultaneously out of the project meetings of the AGAET plan.

c. Effective communication in-between

Depending on the schedule of classes if each school it may be possible to meet virtually through Skype among two or three partner schools simultaneously, but usually without effective results but for contacts and socialising among the students. Experience demonstrates that it is really difficult to hold a real communication because the students use to be really excited and get nervous in front of a camera watching a foreign student added to their own group pressure. The uncertainty about the own skills of English in front of a native (or advanced) speaker increases the anxiousness of the students. By the positive side the students have more the feeling of the existence of an international team and makes easier to meet them later.

d. Common criteria for assessment

A common assessment international policy is very difficult to be effectively held, so some suggestions for assessments like mark guidelines or reports may be useful and each school assesses according to their criteria.



References

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- De Graaf, E. and Kolmos, A. (2011). PBL across the disciplines: research into best practice. Aalborg: Aalborg University Press

LESSON PLAN OF THE AMAZING GAME OF ANCIENT EUROPEAN TRAILS		TEACHER	
COUNTRY		SUBJECTS INVOLVED	
XXXXX		English as Second Language Social Sciences Natural Sciences	
PLAN	METHODOLOGY	MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENTS	AIMS-TARGET
1. Introduction, scaffolding and icebreakers	1. xxxxxxxxx	1. Interactive Whiteboard or computer and screen	1. Behavioral:
2. Teaching-Learning Activities	2. xxxxxxxxx	2. English dictionary	2. Learning objectives:
		3. European Atlas book or poster map	3. Concepts:
			4. xxxxx
INTRODUCTION			TIME
1. xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx			xx min
1.1.1 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx			
1.1.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx			
DEVELOPMENT			
2. Teaching-Learning Activities			xxx min
1.2.1 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx			
1.2.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx			
ASSESSMENT OF THE ACTIVITY			
ADDITIONAL ASSESSMENT FOR SPECIAL NEEDS			

4. AIM OF THE GAME



The Amazing Game of the Ancient European Trails is a Comenius Multilateral Partnership project, inserted in the European Lifelong Learning Program, financed by European Union.

Is it possible to design a game to be played in the classroom of different subjects, different ages and different European educational systems?

The project lasts two years, from September 2013 to July 2015, involving Spanish, Romanian, Turkish, Polish, English, Italian, Greek and Belgian schools to create a game based on traditional transnational trails with a digital and living size version to be used in different subject classes.

We apply Problem Based Learning methodology to do the activities in the classroom and gather the observations done in the different countries in a methodology miniguide.



4. RULES OF THE GAME

a.The game includes lesson plans about the different countries and presentations of each trail. It is compulsory to use them before playing.

b.The game has three levels:

Kindergarten: The students guess the country of the pictures.

Primary School: The students answer the outer circle multiple choice questions (easy level)

Secondary School: The students answer the outer and inner multiple choice circle questions.

c.You can download the presentations and the lesson plans from the website www.agaet.com

d.The best way to play is to involve different subjects and teachers to play the game to take advantage of cross-curricular lessons.

e.Number of players: From 2 to 24 - If they are more than 8, they have to play by teams.

f.The Master of the Game will control the time (45 seconds) and check the answers from the key of answers. He/she will adjudicate any disagreement during play.



- g.**The squares of the game must be followed. A Spinner or Octahedron die will show different possibilities. Every country has a bonus and a trap square.(A bonus square has a chance to answer another question if they don't know the answer, a trap square waits for one turn)
- h.**If the player or the team answers a question from a country correctly, they receive a corresponding stamp from the Master of the game for their passport.
- i.**The player must collect 8 stamps before moving into the inner circle. The first player or team to correctly answer 16 questions in total (8 from outer circle and 8 from inner circle) moves into the centre circle "Europe" and wins the game.
- j.**The game can be finished after this point, or play can be continued until everyone has completed the game.

5. TRAILS OF THE GAME

 The ancient traditions and customs 	Say: „Chrzęszcz brzmi w trzcinie w Szczepreszynie” and WELCOME TO POLAND Poland is located in central Europe. Poland borders seven countries: Germany – in the west, the Czech Republic – in the south – west, Slovakia – in the south, Belarus I the south – east, Ukraine and Lithuania in the east and Russia in the north – east. Poland has access to the Baltic sea in the north. Tatra mountains, the highest ones in our country, are located in the south. The longest river is Wisła (the Vistula) which flows from the south to the north. Poland is divided into 16 districts and the capital of Poland is Warszawa (Warsaw).
POLAND	

38 million people live in our country. The official language is Polish. The currency is zloty. “Dąbrowski Mazurka “is the anthem of Poland. Our flag is white and red.



The emblem of our countries is an eagle with a gold crown. Poland became a part of European Union in 2004.

Cracow is a former capital of Poland. There is Wawel castle where Polish kings and famous people are buried. In Kraków (Cracow) there is also The Mariacki Church with an altar made by Wit Stworz. At the top of the Mariacki tower a trumpeter plays a bugle call every day. In Cracow there is the oldest university in Poland called the Jagiellonian University. It was founded in 1364. The founding was illustrated by a Polish painter – Jan Matejko.

The most famous Polish pianist and composer was Fryderyk Chopin. The International Piano Competition takes place in Warsaw since 1927. The winners from Poland are: Krystian Zimerman, Adam Harasiewicz and Rafał Blechacz. We have some Nobel Prize in Literature: Wisława Szymborska, Henryk Sienkiewicz, Władysław Reymont and Czesław Miłosz. Polish Oscar winner is Andrzej Wajda. The director of the film about holocaust “Schindler`s list” is Steven Spielberg. What is more Polish author – Andrzej Sapkowski who has written a book “ The Witcher” . Then a famus computer game was created which was based on that book (“The Witcher”).

The name of Polish trail is the salt trail. One of the largest salt mines is located in the south of Poland, near Cracow. It is called Wieliczka and it is the place, where the salt was extracted. The most beautiful chapel in Wieliczka is saint Kinga chapel.



Poland has very complicated history. For 123 years our country was under occupation. The second world war started in Westerplatte at the seaside. The Nazis made five concentration camps in Poland. One of them was located in Auschwitz in the town called Oświęcim.

In terms of religion most Polish are Catholics. The most famous sanctuary in Poland is Jasna Góra in Częstochowa. Karol Wojtyła – the Polish pope who became saint this year is well - known as John Paul II and was born in Wadowice.

There are some Polish people known for their influence on the world's history. To start with, the legendary leader of "Solidarność", Lech Wałęsa, the man thanks to whom Poland is a free country. Maria Skłodowska – Curie was a chemist. She discovered two chemical elements – Polonium and Radium. Poland also has current inventors - Polish student Patryk Strzelewicz and Michał Bąk invented DICE+ - electronic dice which allows board games to be played on Apple devices. There is another Polish person connected with the Apple company who is one of the founders – Steve Wozniak.

Adam Małysz is a well-known ski jumper. He won four World Cups. Another popular sportswoman is Urszula Radwańska. She is professional tennis player. A great achievement for our country was the organization of Euro (football competition) in 2012.

Another famous person in Poland is Anja Rubik – one of the greatest models in the world. One of the most recognisable men in Poland is also Jurek Owsiak – the founder of the biggest



charity organization – WOŚP. He is also an organizer on Woodstock Festival – one of the most popular music festival in Poland. Other interesting music festivals is called Open'er and it is organized by Heineken Beer Company.

Cieszyn is located in the north west of Poland and borders the Czech Republic. Cieszyn is separated into two parts - it is a twin – town. One part is Polish, the other is in Czech. One of the monuments in Cieszyn is the saint Nicolas Rotund which is depicted on the 20 zloty note. Cieszynianka is a flower from Cieszyn. A bird which is very popular in Poland is a strok. You can find it in Trójkwieś, where you can see world famous lance.

Canal du centre		BELGIUM
  	Construction began	1888
	Construction began	1888
	Date of first use	1917
	Start point	Brussels–Charleroi Canal
	End point	Grand Large, Mons
View of new canal section from the Strépy Thieu lift		

The Canal du Centre is a canal in Belgium, which, with other canals, links the waterways of the Meuse and Scheldt rivers. It has a total length of 20.9 km. It connects the artificial lake Grand Large near Nimy, with the Brussels-Charleroi Canal near Seneffe.

Route

The canal begins in the west at Mons, and passes through the towns of Nimy, Obour, Ville-sur-Haine, and Thieu. This section is 15 km long, and has a relief of 23.26m. The canal climbs by means of six locks. There are five locks with a relief of 4.2m, and a final lock with a relief of 2.26m at Thieu.

The next section of the original canal route between Thieu and Houdeng-Goegnies climbs 66m over a distance of 6790m, which is too steep a climb for canal locks. Therefore, this section contains four hydraulic boat lifts, dating from 1888 to 1917, which are now on the UNESCO World Heritage list (see Lifts on the old Canal du Centre). These lifts were designed by Edwin Clark of the British company Clark, Stansfield & Clark. For commercial traffic this stretch of the canal has, since 2002, been replaced by an enlarged parallel canal.

History: Old canal

For centuries, Belgian people have wanted an inland waterway to connect the Meuse and the Scheldt. However, the height difference of about 96m between the two rivers would require as many as 32 locks, which was not feasible. In 1879, the Ministry of Public works adopted a proposal by Edwin Clark which used boat lifts instead of locks. The first lift (Houdeng-Goegnies) was built between 1885 and 1888. It was inaugurated on June 4, 1888 by King Leopold II. The three other boat lifts were finally finished in 1917 and put into service in 1919. There were several



reasons for this delay. From 1894 to 1911, the economic need for the canal was repeatedly called into question. Then in 1914, when the three lifts were practically finished, World War I began.

History: New canal

The old canal could accommodate boats with a displacement of up to 350 tons. In 1957 the Belgian parliament passed a law providing for a major expansion of the canal, increasing the maximum displacement of a boat that could use the canal to 1,350 tonnes. In the event, it was decided to alter the course of the canal rather than to enlarge it along the full extent of its existing length. A defining feature of the enlarged canal was the Strépy-Thieu boat lift which replaced the four smaller boat lifts and one or two locks which had been part of the former canal.

The Canal du Centre was opened to boats with a displacement of 1,350 tonnes in September 2002. Between 2000 and 2004 the annual ship transits increased from 1,531 to 4,041 while the tonnage carried increased from 282,000 to 1,513,000.

The lifts on the old parallel canal remain in position, having in 1998 been designated a UNESCO World Heritage Site.

References Gallez, Alfred (1998). Ronquieres where boats go on rollers. Mons, Belgium: Hainaut Tourisme Federation. p. 34; Delmelle, Joseph (2003) [1993]. The funicular lift of Strepy-Thieu. Mons, Belgium: Hainaut Tourisme Federation. p. 36.

 Settle - Carlisle Railway	UNITED KINGDOM																								
	<table> <tr> <td>Type</td><td>Main Line</td></tr> <tr> <td>System</td><td>National Rail</td></tr> <tr> <td>Locale</td><td>North West England</td></tr> <tr> <td>Settle</td><td>54.0669°N 2.2807°W</td></tr> <tr> <td>Carlisle</td><td>54.8911°N 2.9335°W</td></tr> <tr> <td>Stations</td><td>10</td></tr> <tr> <td>Opening</td><td>1875 (freight) and 1876 (passengers)</td></tr> <tr> <td>Line length</td><td>71.75 mi (115.47 km)</td></tr> <tr> <td>No. of tracks</td><td>Double</td></tr> <tr> <td>Track gauge</td><td>Standard gauge 1,435 mm (4 ft 8 1/2 in)</td></tr> <tr> <td>Operating speed</td><td>60mph</td></tr> <tr> <td>Highest elevation</td><td>Dent (1,150 feet (350 m))</td></tr> </table>	Type	Main Line	System	National Rail	Locale	North West England	Settle	54.0669°N 2.2807°W	Carlisle	54.8911°N 2.9335°W	Stations	10	Opening	1875 (freight) and 1876 (passengers)	Line length	71.75 mi (115.47 km)	No. of tracks	Double	Track gauge	Standard gauge 1,435 mm (4 ft 8 1/2 in)	Operating speed	60mph	Highest elevation	Dent (1,150 feet (350 m))
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The Settle–Carlisle Line (S&C) is a 73-mile (117 km) long main railway line in northern England. It is also known as the Settle and Carlisle. It is a part of the National Rail network and was constructed in the 1870s. Apart from temporary diversions (such as the closure of the West Coast Main Line) all passenger trains are operated by Northern Rail.

The line runs through remote, scenic regions of the Yorkshire Dales and the North Pennines, from near the town of Settle, beginning at a junction with the line from Leeds to Morecambe, extending to the city of Carlisle close to the England/Scotland border. On the way the line passes through the town of Appleby-in-Westmorland and a number of small communities.

History

The S&C had its origins in railway politics; the expansion-minded Midland Railway company was locked in dispute with the rival London and North Western Railway over access rights to the latter's tracks to Scotland.

The Midland's access to Scotland was via the "Little North Western" route to Ingleton. The Ingleton Branch Line from Ingleton to Low Gill, where it joined the Lancaster and Carlisle Railway, was under the control of the rival LNWR. Initially the routes, although physically connected at Ingleton, were not logically connected, as the LNWR and Midland could not agree on sharing the use of Ingleton station. Instead the LNWR terminated its trains at a station at the end of Ingleton

viaduct, and Midland Railway passengers had to change into LNWR trains by means of a walk of about a mile over steep gradients between the two stations.

An agreement was reached over station access, enabling the Midland to attach through carriages to LNWR trains at Ingleton. Passengers could continue their journey north without leaving the train. The situation was not ideal, as the LNWR handled the through carriages of its rival with deliberate obstructiveness, for example attaching the coaches to slow freight trains instead of fast passenger workings.

The route through Ingleton is closed, but the major structures, Low Gill and Ingleton viaducts, remain. It was a well-engineered line suitable for express passenger running, however its potential was never realised due to the rivalry between the companies. The Midland board decided that the only solution was a separate route to Scotland. Surveying began in 1865, and in June 1866, Parliamentary approval was given to the Midland's plan. Soon after, the Overend-Gurney banking failure sparked a financial crisis in the UK. Interest rates rose sharply, several railways went bankrupt and the Midland's board, prompted by a shareholders' revolt, began to have second thoughts about a venture where the estimated cost was £2.3 million (equivalent to £190 million in 2015). As a result, in April 1869, with no work started, the company petitioned Parliament to abandon the scheme it had earlier fought for. However Parliament, under pressure



from other railways which would benefit from the scheme that would cost them nothing, refused, and construction commenced in November that year.

As this date falls between the publication of the 1st Edition 1:2500 Ordnance Survey map and its 1st Revision, the impact of construction can be observed by studying those maps.

Construction

The line was built by over 6,000 navvies, who worked in remote locations, enduring harsh weather conditions. Large camps were established to house the navvies, most of them Irish, with many becoming complete townships with post offices and schools. They were named Inkerman, Sebastapol and Jericho. The remains of one camp—Batty Green—where over 2,000 navvies lived and worked, can be seen near Ribblehead. The Midland Railway helped pay for scripture readers to counteract the effect of drunken violence in these isolated communities.

A plaque in the church at Chapel-le-Dale records the workers who died—both from disease and accidents—building the railway. The death toll is unknown but 80 people died at Batty Green alone following a smallpox epidemic.

A memorial stone was laid in 1997 in the churchyard of St Mary's Church, Mallerstang to commemorate the 25 railway builders and their families who died during the construction of this section of the line, and who were buried there in unmarked graves.



The engineer for the project was John Crossley from Leicestershire, a veteran of other Midland schemes. The terrain traversed is among the bleakest and wildest in England, and construction was halted for months at a time due to frozen ground, snowdrifts and flooding. One contractor had to give up as a result of underestimating the terrain and the weather—Dent Head has almost four times the rainfall of London. Another long-established partnership dissolved under the strain.

The line was engineered to express standards throughout—local traffic was secondary and many stations were miles from the villages they purported to serve. The railway's summit at 1,169 feet (356 m) is at Ais Gill, north of Garsdale. To keep the gradients to less than 1 in 100 (1%), a requirement for fast running using steam traction, huge engineering works were required. Even so the terrain imposed a 16-mile (26 km) climb from Settle to Blea Moor, almost all of it at 1 in 100, and known to enginemen as 'the long drag'.

The line required 14 tunnels and 22 viaducts, the most notable is the 24 arch Ribbleshead Viaduct which is 104 ft (32 m) high and 440 yards (402 m) long. The swampy ground meant that the piers had to be sunk 25 ft (8 m) below the peat and set in concrete in order to provide a suitable foundation. Soon after crossing the viaduct, the line enters Blea Moor tunnel, 2,629 yd (2,404 m) long and 500 ft (152 m) below the moor, before emerging onto Dent Head Viaduct. The summit at Aisgill is the highest point reached by main line trains in England. To maintain speed,



water troughs were laid between the tracks at Garsdale enabling steam engines to take water without losing speed.

The remains of the navies' camp at Rise Hill tunnel were investigated by Channel 4's Time Team in 2008, for a programme that was broadcast on 1 February 2009.

Operation

The line opened for freight traffic in August 1875 with the first passenger trains starting in April 1876. The cost of the line was £3.6 million (equivalent to £300 million in 2015)[7] — 50 per cent above the estimate and a colossal sum for the time.

For some time the Midland dominated the market for London-Glasgow traffic, providing more daytime trains than its rival. In 1923 The Midland was merged into the London Midland & Scottish Railway, with the LNWR also forming part of the new company. In the new company, the disadvantages of the Midland's route were clear — its steeper gradients and greater length meant it could not compete on speed from London to Glasgow, especially as Midland route trains had to make more stops to serve major cities in the Midlands and Yorkshire. The Midland had long competed on the extra comfort it provided for its passengers but this advantage was lost in the merged company.

After nationalization in 1948, the pace of rundown quickened. It was regarded as a duplicate line, and control over the through London-Glasgow route was split over several regions

which made it hard to plan popular through services. Mining subsidence affected speeds through the East Midlands and Yorkshire. In 1962, the Thames-Clyde Express travelling via the S&C took almost nine hours from London to Glasgow — over the West Coast Main Line the journey length was 7 hours 20 minutes.

In the 1963, Beeching Report into the restructuring of British Rail recommended the withdrawal of all passenger services from the line. Some smaller stations had closed in the 1950s. Although the Beeching recommendations were shelved, it is clear that closure of the line was planned as early as the late 1960s. Such closure is referred to in paragraph 40 of the official report into the accident involving two Northbound class 40 hauled goods trains, between Horton In Ribblesdale and Selside on 30 October 1968, by Lt. Colonel I.K.A. McNaughton:

"... Even if the Settle and Carlisle line were planned to form part of the long term railway network of the country, it would still come fairly low in the priority list for installation of AWS; this route, however, is planned for closure within the next few years ..."

In May 1970 all stations except for Settle and Appleby West were closed, and its passenger service cut to two trains a day in each direction, leaving mostly freight.

Few express passenger services continued to operate, The Waverley from London St Pancras to Edinburgh Waverley via Nottingham ended in 1968, while the Thames-Clyde Express from London to Glasgow Central via Leicester, lasted until 1975. Night sleepers from London to



Glasgow continued until 1976. After that a residual service from Glasgow — cut back at Nottingham (three trains each way) — survived until May 1982.

More recently the line has experienced an upturn in fortunes. Eight formerly closed stations have reopened and passenger levels have increased significantly since 1980s, with 1.2 million passengers recorded in 2012



The Via Francigena is the common name of an ancient road and pilgrim route running from France to Rome, though it is usually considered to have its starting point much further away, in the English cathedral city of Canterbury. As such, the route passes through England, France, Switzerland and Italy. The route was known in Italy as the "Via Francigena" ("the road that comes from France") or the "Via Romea Francigena" ("the road to Rome that comes from France"). In mediaeval times it was an important road and pilgrimage route for those wishing to visit the Holy See and the tombs of the apostles Peter and Paul.

In the Middle Ages, Via Francigena was the major pilgrimage route to Rome from the north. The route was first documented as the "Lombard Way", and was first called the Iter Francorum (the "Frankish Route") in the Itinerarium sancti Willibaldi of 725, a record of the travels

of Willibald, bishop of Eichstätt in Bavaria. It was "Via Francigena-Francisca" in Italy and Burgundy, the "Chemin des Anglois" in the Frankish Kingdom (after the evangelisation of England in 607) and also the "Chemin Romieux", the road to Rome.

The name Via Francigena is first mentioned in the Actum Clusio, a parchment of 876 in the Abbey of San Salvatore al Monte Amiata .

At the end of the 10th century Sigeric the Serious, the Archbishop of Canterbury, used the Via Francigena to and from Rome in order to receive his pallium; he recorded his route and his stops on the return journey, but nothing in the document suggests that the route was then new.

Later itineraries to Rome include the Leiðarvísir og borgarskipan of the Icelandic traveller Nikulás Bergsson (in 1154) and the one from Philip Augustus of France (in 1191). Two somewhat differing maps of the route appear in manuscripts of Matthew Paris, Historia Anglorum, from the 13th century.

The Via Francigena – in France given the Grande Randonnée route number GR145 – crossing the Massif de Saint Thierry, Champagne.

The Welshman Rhodri Mawr in AD 880 and his grandson Howell the Good in 945 are both known to have visited Rome towards the end of their lives, but it is not known whether they went by land or by the dangerous and pirate-infested sea route via Gibraltar. Reports of journeys before Sigeric can only be apocryphal. We may be quite certain that the Benedictine William of St-Thierry,



used the roads towards Rome on several occasions at the end of the 11th century. The return journey by sea was likely to be easier, thanks to the prevailing south-westerly winds, but tacking down to the Mediterranean would have made a very long journey indeed. A statement that a historical figure "died in Rome" may have been a historical falsity, but a metaphorical truth.

The Via Francigena was not a single road, like a Roman road, paved with stone blocks and provided at intervals with a change of horses for official travellers. Rather, it comprised several possible routes that changed over the centuries as trade and pilgrimage waxed and waned. After all, all roads lead to Rome. Depending on the time of year, the political situation, and the relative popularity of the shrines of the saints situated along the route, travellers may have used any of three or four crossings of the Alps and the Apennines. The Lombards financed the maintenance and security of the section of road through their territories as a trading route to the north from Rome, avoiding enemy-held cities such as Florence. Another important point is that unlike Roman roads, the Via Francigena did not connect cities, but relied more on abbeys.

Pilgrims to Rome carved in a relief, Fidenza Cathedral (late twelfth century)

Sigeric's itinerary

Circa 990 AD, Archbishop Sigeric journeyed from Canterbury to Rome and then back again but only documented his itinerary on the return journey. Sigeric's return journey consisted of 80 stages averaging about 20 km (12 mi) a day, for a total of some 1,700 km (1,100 mi).

Most modern-day pilgrims would wish to follow Sigeric's documented route in the reverse order, i.e. from Canterbury to Rome, and so would journey from Canterbury to the English coast before crossing the Channel to Sumeran (now called Sombres) landing at the point where the seaside village of Wissant now lies. From there the modern-day pilgrim must travel to the places Sigeric knew as "Gisne", "Teranburh", "Bruaei", "Atherats", before continuing on to Reims, Châlons-sur-Marne, Bar-sur-Aube, Langres, Besançon, Pontarlier, Lausanne and Saint-Maurice. From Saint-Maurice they must traverse the Great St. Bernard Pass to Aosta and from Aosta they must pass through Ivrea, Vercelli, Pavia, Fidenza, Pontremoli, Filattiera, Aulla, Luni, Lucca, San Gimignano, Poggibonsi, Siena, San Quirico d'Orcia, Bolsena, Viterbo and Sutri before finally reaching the city of Rome.

The Camino de Santiago, also known by the English names Way of St. James, St. James's Way, St. James's Path, St. James's Trail, Route of Santiago de Compostela, and Road to Santiago, is the name of any of the pilgrimage routes (most commonly the Camino Francés or French route) to the shrine of the apostle St. James the Great in the Cathedral of Santiago de Compostela in Galicia in northwestern Spain, where tradition has it that the remains of the saint are buried. Many take up this route as a form of spiritual path or retreat, for their spiritual growth.



The way of St. James El Camino de Santiago



SPAIN

The Way of St. James was one of the most important Christian pilgrimages during the Middle Ages, together with Rome and Jerusalem, and a pilgrimage route on which a plenary indulgence could be earned; other major pilgrimage routes include the Via Francigena to Rome and the pilgrimage to Jerusalem.

Legend holds that St. James's remains were carried by boat from Jerusalem to northern Spain where he was buried on what is now the city of Santiago de Compostela. (The name Santiago is the local Galician evolution of Vulgar Latin Sanctu Iacobi, "Saint James".)



The Way can take one of dozens of pilgrimage routes to Santiago de Compostela. Traditionally, as with most pilgrimages, the Way of Saint James began at one's home and ended at the pilgrimage site. However a few of the routes are considered main ones. During the Middle Ages, the route was highly travelled. However, the Black Death, the Protestant Reformation and political unrest in 16th century Europe led to its decline. By the 1980s, only a few pilgrims per year arrived in Santiago. Later, the route attracted a growing number of modern-day pilgrims from around the globe. The route was declared the first European Cultural Route by the Council of Europe in October 1987; it was also named one of UNESCO's World Heritage Sites.

Whenever St. James's day (25 July) falls on a Sunday, the cathedral declares a Holy or Jubilee Year. Depending on leap years, Holy Years occur in 5, 6 and 11 year intervals. The most recent were 1982, 1993, 1999, 2004 and 2010. The next will be 2021, 2027 and 2032.

History

Monument of the pilgrims, Burgos

The pilgrimage to Santiago has never ceased from the time of the discovery of St. James's remains, though there have been years of fewer pilgrims, particularly during European wars.

Pre-Christian history



The main pilgrimage route to Santiago follows an earlier Roman trade route, which continues to the Atlantic coast of Galicia, ending at Cape Finisterre. Although it is known today that Cape Finisterre, Spain's westernmost point, is not the westernmost point of Europe (Cabo da Roca in Portugal is farther west), the fact that the Romans called it Finisterrae (literally the end of the world or Land's End in Latin) indicates that they viewed it as such. At night, the Milky Way overhead seems to point the way, so the route acquired the nickname "Voie lactée" – the Milky Way in French.

The scallop shell, often found on the shores in Galicia, has long been the symbol of the Camino de Santiago. Over the centuries the scallop shell has taken on mythical, metaphorical and practical meanings, even if its relevance may actually derive from the desire of pilgrims to take home a souvenir.

Two versions of the most common myth about the origin of the symbol concern the death of Saint James, who was martyred by beheading in Jerusalem in 44 CE. According to Spanish legends, he had spent time preaching the gospel in Spain, but returned to Judaea upon seeing a vision of the Virgin Mary on the bank of the Ebro River.

Version 1: After James's death, his disciples shipped his body to the Iberian Peninsula to be buried in what is now Santiago. Off the coast of Spain, a heavy storm hit the ship, and the body

was lost to the ocean. After some time, however, it washed ashore undamaged, covered in scallops.

Version 2: After James's death his body was transported by a ship piloted by an angel, back to the Iberian Peninsula to be buried in what is now Santiago. As the ship approached land, a wedding was taking place on shore. The young groom was on horseback, and on seeing the ship approaching, his horse got spooked, and horse and rider plunged into the sea. Through miraculous intervention, the horse and rider emerged from the water alive, covered in seashells..

The scallop shell also acts as a metaphor. The grooves in the shell, which meet at a single point, represent the various routes pilgrims traveled, eventually arriving at a single destination: the tomb of James in Santiago de Compostela. The shell is also a metaphor for the pilgrim: As the waves of the ocean wash scallop shells up onto the shores of Galicia, God's hand also guides the pilgrims to Santiago.

As the symbol of the Camino de Santiago, the shell is seen very frequently along the trails. The shell is seen on posts and signs along the Camino in order to guide pilgrims along the way. The shell is even more commonly seen on the pilgrims themselves. Wearing a shell denotes that one is a traveler on the Camino de Santiago. Most pilgrims receive a shell at the beginning of their journey and either attach it to them by sewing it onto their clothes or wearing it around their neck or by simply keeping it in their backpack.



The scallop shell also served practical purposes for pilgrims on the Camino de Santiago. The shell was the right size for gathering water to drink or for eating out of as a makeshift bowl. The pilgrim's staff is a walking stick used by pilgrims to the shrine of Santiago de Compostela in Spain.

 The Silk Road 	TURKEY The Silk Road, or Silk Route, is a network of trade and cultural transmission routes that were central to cultural interaction through regions of the Asian continent connecting the West and East by merchants, pilgrims, monks, soldiers, nomads, and urban dwellers from China and India to the Mediterranean Sea during various periods of time. Extending 4,000 miles (6,437 kilometers), the Silk Road derives its name from the lucrative trade in Chinese silk carried out along its length, beginning during the Han dynasty (206 BC – 220 AD).
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The Central Asian sections of the trade routes were expanded around 114 BC by the Han dynasty, largely through the missions and explorations of Chinese imperial envoy, Zhang Qian. The



Chinese took great interest in the safety of their trade products and extended the Great Wall of China to ensure the protection of the trade route.

Trade on the Silk Road was a significant factor in the development of the civilizations of China, the Indian subcontinent, Persia, Europe, the Horn of Africa and Arabia, opening long-distance, political and economic relations between the civilizations. Though silk was certainly the major trade item from China, many other goods were traded, and religions, syncretic philosophies, and various technologies, as well as diseases, also travelled along the Silk Routes. In addition to economic trade, the Silk Road served as a means of carrying out cultural trade among the civilizations along its network.

The main traders during antiquity were the Chinese, Persians, Somalis, Greeks, Syrians, Romans, Armenians, Indians, and Bactrians, and from the 5th to the 8th century the Sogdians. During the coming of age of Islam, Arab traders became prominent.

In June 2014 UNESCO designated the Chang'an-Tianshan corridor of the Silk Road as a World Heritage Site.

Athena - Olympia		GREECE	
 		ANCIENT AGORA OF ATHENS	
		Alternate name	Forum of Athens
		Location	Greece
		Region	Attica
		Coordinates	37.975°N 23.723°E
		Material	Marble
		Founded	6th century BC
		Periods	Classical era
		Cultures	Ancient Greece
		Excavation dates	1931 until
		Archaeologists	American School of Classical Studies at Athens
		Condition	Ruined
		Ownership	Public property
		Management	Minister for Culture
		Public access	Yes

Αρχαία ΑγοράτηςΑθήνας

Ancient Agora of Athens is located in Athens.

The Ancient Agora of Classical Athens is the best-known example of an ancient Greek agora, located to the northwest of the Acropolis and bounded on the south by the hill of the Areopagus and on the west by the hill known as the AgoraiosKolonos, also called Market Hill.[1]

The agora was probably laid out in the center of the city as a public space in the 6th century BC, though Laurence Baurain-Rebillard has suggested that it dates to the 7th century. Earlier, a more primitive agora may have existed elsewhere in Athens. The final site was located at the intersection of three existing roads with the PanathenaicWay, the main road in Athens. It was organized by Peisistratus, who removed private houses from the agora, closed wells, and made it the center of Athenian government. He also built a drainage system, fountains and a temple to the Olympian gods. In the 5th and 4th century BC there were temples constructed to Hephaestus, Zeus and Apollo.

Starting in 480 BC, the Second Persian invasion of Greece caused many Athenians to flee the city, leaving it largely abandoned. The city was almost completely destroyed, but the Athenians returned following the defeat of the Persians in 478, and the Agora was rebuilt. There were no more major changes until the 2nd century BC when the east and south sides of the square were remodeled by wealthy foreign rulers.

After an unsuccessful alliance with King Mithridates VI of Pontus in 86 BC, the fortified walls of Athens were heavily damaged. They were never rebuilt to their full previous strength. The

Agora remained the center of Athens until 267 AD, when it was once again sacked, this time by invading Heruli; the weakened perimeter wall was not a sufficient defense. After fighting had ravaged much of the city, the Athenians quickly reconstructed the wall, but enclosed a much smaller area. The agora and the acropolis were left on the outside of the wall and were susceptible to further damage. This reconstructed wall is of great archaeological importance because it contains pieces of ruined buildings including Hadrian's Library and the Stoa of Attalos. This event is documented by Dexippus, a historian and statesman from Athens. In 529, Pagan philosophical schools were closed by Justinian. After centuries of periodic barbarian invasion, the agora was abandoned after the Slavic invasion of the 6th century.

Use in Antiquity

The agora was the center of political and public life in Athens. It was a large open area surrounded by buildings of various functions. The agora was utilized for commerce, political, religious and military activity. Meetings were held four times per month to enact legislation, to hear embassies, and deal with defense of the city-state. In addition, some public forums to discuss ostracism were held in the agora. The law courts were located there, and anyone who happened to be in the agora when a case was being heard would probably have been able to view the spectacle, though only those adult male citizens appointed by lot would have been able to serve as jurors. The agora was further the location of a temporary theater and of burial sites

Buildings and structures of the classical agora

Peristyle Court, Mint, Enneakrounos, South Stoa I and South Stoa II, Aiakeion, Strategeion, Agoraios Kolonos, Tholos, Agora stone, Monument of the Eponymous Heroes, Metroon (Old Bouleuterion), New Bouleuterion, Temple of Hephaestus (Hephaestion), Temple of Apollo Patroos, Stoa of Zeus, Altar of the Twelve Gods, Stoa Basileios (Royal stoa), Temple of Aphrodite Urania, Stoa of Hermes, Stoa Poikile

Olympia (Greek: Ὀλυμπία; Ancient Greek: [ˈolym̐pia]; Modern Greek: [oliˈbia] Olympía), a sanctuary of ancient Greece in Elis on the Peloponnese peninsula, is known for having been the site of the Olympic Games in classical times.

The Olympic Games were held every four years throughout Classical Antiquity, from the 8th century BC to the 4th century AD. The first Olympic Games were in honor of Zeus.

Ancient site

The sanctuary, known as the Altis, consists of an unordered arrangement of various buildings. Enclosed within the temenos (sacred enclosure) are the Temple of Hera (or Heraion/Heraeum), the Temple of Zeus, the Pelopion, and the area of the altar, where the sacrifices were made.

To the north of the sanctuary can be found the Prytaneion and the Philippeion, as well as the array of treasuries representing the various city-states. The Metroon lies to the south of these treasuries, with the Echo Stoa to the east. The hippodrome and later stadium were located east of the Echo Stoa. To the south of the sanctuary is the South Stoa and the Bouleuterion, whereas the Palaestra, the workshop of Pheidias, the Gymnasion, and the Leonidaion lie to the west.

Olympia was also known for the gigantic ivory and gold statue of Zeus that used to stand there, sculpted by Pheidias, which was named one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World by Antipater of Sidon. Very close to the Temple of Zeus which housed this statue, the studio of Pheidias was excavated in the 1950s. Evidence found there, such as sculptor's tools, corroborates this opinion. The ancient ruins sit north of the Alfeios River and south of Mount Kronos (named after the Greek deity Kronos). The Kladeos, a tributary of the Alfeios, flows around the area.

Prehistory

Remains of food and burnt offerings dating back to the 10th century BC give evidence of a long history of religious activity at the site. No buildings have survived from this earliest period of use. Also, the charred remains of a Homo heidelbergensis body were found at Olympia.

Geometric and Archaic periods



The first Olympic festival was organized on the site by the authorities of Elis in the 8th century BC – with tradition dating the first games at 776 BC. Major changes were made to the site around 700 BC, including levelling land and digging new wells. Elis' power diminished and at the beginning of the 7th century BC the sanctuary fell into the hands of the Pisatans in 676 BC. The Pisatans organized the games until the late 7th century BC.

The earliest evidence of building activity on the site dates from around 600 BC. At this time the Skiloudians, allies of the Pisatans, built the Temple of Hera. The Treasuries and the Pelopion were built during the course of the 6th century BC. The secular structures and athletic arenas were also under construction during this period including the Bouleuterion. The first stadium was constructed around 560 BC, it consisted of just a simple track. The stadium was remodeled around 500 BC with sloping sides for spectators and shifted slightly to the east. Over the course of the 6th century BC a range of sports were added to the Olympic festival. In 580 BC, Elis, in alliance with Sparta, occupied Pisa and regained the control over the sanctuary.

Classical period

Silver Tetradrachm from Olympia, 360 BC. Obverse: Head of Zeus wearing laurel wreath. Reverse: Head of the nymph Olympia wearing sphendone. ΟΛΥΜΠΙΑ to right.

The classical period, between the 5th and 4th centuries BC, was the golden age of the site at Olympia. A wide range of new religious and secular buildings and structures were constructed.

The Temple of Zeus was built in the middle of the 5th century BC. Its size, scale and ornamentation was beyond anything previously constructed on the site. Further sporting facilities, including the final iteration of the stadium, and the hippodrome (for chariot-racing) were constructed. The Prytaneion was built at the northwest side of the site in 470 BC.

In the late classical period, further structures were added to the site. The Metroon was constructed near the Treasuries c.400 BC. The erection of the Echo Stoa, around 350 BC, separated off the sanctuary from the area of the games and stadium. The South Stoa was built at the southern edge of the sanctuary at approximately the same time.

Hellenistic period

The late 4th century BC saw the erection of the Philippeion. Around 300 BC the largest building on the site, the Leonidaion, was constructed to house important visitors. Due to the increasing importance of the games, further athletic buildings were constructed including the Palaestra (3rd century BC), Gymnasion (2nd century BC) and bath houses (c.300 BC). Finally, in 200 BC, a vaulted archway was erected linking the entrance of the stadium to the sanctuary.

Roman period

During the Roman period, the games were opened up to all citizens of the Roman Empire. A programme of new buildings and extensive repairs, including to the Temple of Zeus, took place.

In 150 AD, the Nymphaeum (or Exedra) was built. New baths replaced the older Greek examples in 100 AD and an aqueduct constructed in 160 AD.

The 3rd century saw the site suffer heavy damage from a series of earthquakes. Invading tribes in 267 AD led to the center of the site being fortified with robbed material from its monuments. Despite the destruction, the Olympic festival continued to be held at the site until the last Olympiad in 393 AD, after which the Christian emperor Theodosius I implemented a ban. The Temple of Zeus was apparently destroyed around 426 AD following an edict by Theodosius II enforcing the ban on pagan festivals. The workshop of Pheidias was turned into a Basilica and the site was inhabited by a Christian community. Archaeological evidence suggests that small scale Olympic events (possibly in Christian guise) were still being held secretly until Justinian's plague and two earthquakes devastated it by the mid-6th century. Repeated floods ensured that the settlement was finally abandoned altogether in the early 7th Century.

 Stefan cel Mare   	ROMANIA Rule Prince Venerated in Canonized Major shrine Feast	Moldavian principality of Moldavia Romanian Orthodox Church July 12, 1992, Bucharest, Romania by Romanian Orthodox Church Putna Monastery July 2
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Stephen III of Moldavia, commonly known as Stephen the Great, (Romanian: Ștefan cel Mare, pronounced [ˈʃtefan t͡ʃel ˈmare] or Ștefan cel Mare și Sfânt, "Stephen the Great and Holy";

1433 – July 2, 1504) was Prince of Principality of Moldavia between 1457 and 1504, and the most prominent representative of the House of Mușat.

During his reign, he strengthened Moldavia and maintained its independence against the ambitions of Hungary, Poland, and the Ottoman Empire, which all sought to subdue the land. Stephen achieved fame in Europe for his long resistance against the Ottomans. He was victorious in 46 of his 48 battles, and was one of the first to gain a decisive victory over the Ottomans at the Battle of Vaslui, after which Pope Sixtus IV deemed him *verus christianae fidei athleta* (true Champion of Christian Faith). He was a man of religion and displayed his piety when he paid the debt of Mount Athos to the Porte, ensuring the continuity of Athos as an autonomous monastical community.

Stephen was born in Borzești and was a member of the ruling House of Mușat. His father Bogdan II had ruled Moldavia for two years (1449 to 1451) before being killed in a stealthy raid led by Stephen's uncle, Petru Aron. Bogdan II was attending a wedding of one of his boyars – who apparently was in collusion with Petru Aron – and the surprise was complete. Stephen barely escaped with his life, but his father was captured and beheaded on the spot by his stepbrother Petru Aron. Between 1451 and 1457, Moldavia was in turmoil from the civil war between Petru Aron and Alexăndrel – a nephew of Alexander the Good.

Following the outbreak of the conflict, Stephen took refuge in Transylvania, seeking the protection of military commander John Hunyadi. After that, he moved to the court of his first cousin Vlad III Dracula. In 1457, with Vlad's help, he managed to receive 6,000 horsemen as military assistance, putting them to use in a victorious battle against Petru Aron at Doljești, near Roman.[1] Following another lost battle at Orbic, Aron fled to Poland, while Stephen was crowned Prince. Two years later, he led an incursion into Poland in search of Aron, but was met with resistance. Instead, a treaty was signed between Moldavia and Poland, through which Stephen recognized King Kazimierz IV Jagiellon as his suzerain, while Aron was banned from entering Moldavia.

Main battles

Battle of Baia

The Battle of Baia was fought on December 15, 1467 against the armies of Hungarian King, Matthias Corvinus. The battle was the last Hungarian attempt to subdue the independent Moldavia, as previous attempts had ended in failure. Corvinus invaded Moldavia due to Stephen's annexation of Chilia — a fortress and harbour at the coast of the Black Sea, which at the time was

controlled by Hungarian and Wallachian forces, though it had belonged to Moldavia centuries earlier.

The conflict ended with a bitter defeat for the Hungarians, who had an army more than three times the size of the Moldavian force. This put an end to all Hungarian claims on Moldavia. Corvinus almost died after being thrice wounded by arrows and barely made his escape to Transylvania.

In 1468, Stephen campaigned in Transylvania, found Aron and had him executed.[3] Stephen and Corvinus would later negotiate a peace treaty and become allies; in 1475, Corvinus sent 1,800 soldiers that assisted Stephen in his victory at the Battle of Vaslui.

Battle of Vaslui

Coat of arms of Moldavia in 1481, at Putna Monastery.

The Battle of Vaslui (also referred as Battle of Podul Înalt or the Battle of Racova) was fought on January 10, 1475, against the Ottoman Beylerbeyi of Rumelia, Hadım Suleiman Pasha. The battle took place at Podul Înalt (the High Bridge), near the town of Vaslui, in Moldavia (now part of eastern Romania). The Ottoman troops numbered up to 120,000, facing about 40,000 Moldavian troops, plus smaller numbers of allied and mercenary troops.

Stephen inflicted on the Ottomans a decisive defeat that has been described as "the greatest ever secured by the Cross against Islam," with casualties, according to Venetian and Polish



records, reaching beyond 40,000 on the Ottoman side. Mara Brankovic (Mara Hatun), who had formerly been the younger wife of Murad II, told a Venetian envoy that the invasion had been worst ever defeat for the Ottomans. Stephen was later awarded the title "Athleta Christi" (Champion of Christ) by Pope Sixtus IV, who referred to him as "Verus christiane fidei aletha" (The true defender of the Christian faith).

According to the Polish chronicler Jan Długosz, Stephen did not celebrate his victory; instead, he fasted for forty days on bread and water and forbade anyone to attribute the victory to him, insisting that credit be given only to "The Lord".

Battle of Valea Albă

After the disaster of the Battle of Vaslui, the Sultan Mehmed II assembled a large army and entered Moldavia in June 1476. Meanwhile groups of Tartars from the Crimean Khanate (the Ottomans' recent ally) were sent to attack Moldavia. Romanian sources may state that they were repelled,. Other sources state that joint Ottoman and Crimean Tartar forces "occupied Bessarabia and took Akkerman, gaining control of southern mouth of Danube. Stephan tried to avoid open battle with the Ottomans by following a scorched-earth policy." In the process the Moldavians forces ended up being dispersed throughout the country, leaving only a small force of about 12–20,000 men, led by Ștefan cel Mare himself, to face the main Ottoman attack.

The battle began with the Moldavians luring the main Ottoman forces into a forest that was set on fire, causing some casualties to the attacking Ottoman army in the forest. According to another battle description, the defending Moldavian forces repelled several Ottoman attacks with steady fire from hand-guns. The attacking Turkish Janissaries were forced to crouch on their stomachs instead of charging headlong into the defenders positions. Seeing the imminent defeat of his forces, Mehmed charged with his personal guard against the Moldavians, managing to rally the Janissaries, and turning the tide of the battle. Turkish Janissaries penetrated inside the forest and engaged the defenders in man-to-man fighting.

The Moldavian army was utterly defeated (casualties were very high on both sides), and the chronicles say that the entire battlefield was covered with the bones of the dead, a probable source for the toponym (Valea Albă is Romanian and Akdere Turkish for "The White Valley").

Ștefan cel Mare retreated into the north-western part of Moldavia or even into the Polish Kingdom and began forming another army. The Ottomans were unable to conquer any of the major Moldavian strongholds (Suceava, Neamț, Hotin) and were constantly harassed by small scale Moldavians attacks. Soon they were also confronted with starvation, a situation made worse by an outbreak of the plague, and were driven out of the country, many of them dying while crossing the Danube river. The Sultan returned to Istanbul without considering himself defeated, but also without conquering anything.

Battle of the Cosmin Forest

After the Moldavian loss of Chilia and Cetatea Albă, the Ottoman threat seemed more evident. King John I Albert of Poland was suzerain of Moldavia, and, when Stephen asked him for military assistance, they met, in 1494 at the conference of Levoča, where together with King Ladislaus II of Hungary and Elector Johann Cicero of Brandenburg, they forged plans for an expedition against the Porte. The objective was to recapture Chilia and Cetatea Albă. However, in unexplained circumstances, Ștefan received reports from Hungary that John Albert prepared to place his own brother, the Polish prince Sigismund (later king, as Sigismund I the Old), on the Moldavian throne[citation needed]. By 1497 John Albert managed to gather 80,000 men and was preparing for the expedition when Ștefan invaded Galicia and pillaged it[citation needed]. The plans for the Ottoman invasion were put aside and John Albert went against Moldavia instead.

The campaign started on the wrong foot, with John Albert entering Moldavia at Hotin and – despite sound advice to the contrary – deciding not to take the fortress, but to go straight for the capital city of Suceava. After the abortive siege of Suceava (September 26 – October 16) – with the taking of the recently rebuilt and reinforced fortress nowhere in sight (despite having used heavy siege artillery on its walls), and facing famine, disease, bad weather plus the prospect of coming winter – John Albert was compelled to lift the siege. After some negotiations, the Poles left Suceava on October 19.

John Albert accepted Stephen's conditions for retreat, but later decided to break the arrangement. It was a mistake that Stephen was waiting for all along: on October 26 he ambushed the Poles while they were marching on a narrow road passing through a thickly wooded area known as The Cosmin Forest. Thus, John Albert was unable to deploy his forces, rendering the Polish heavy cavalry completely useless. The several phases of battle lasted for three days, with Stephen routing the invading army, which was forced to flee in disarray, harassed all the way by the forces of the prince. At the same time a Moldavian contingent intercepted on October 29 a hastily assembled Polish relief force and completely annihilated it at Lențești. However, once back in open space, the Poles were able again to take advantage of their heavy cavalry, and that part of the remaining troops which managed to retain a measure of order and discipline succeeded in crossing back into Poland – despite Stephen's last effort to engage the remnants of the king's army in a battle of annihilation when they were trying to ford the Prut river at Cernăuți.

After the failed campaign the Poles no longer threatened Moldova for the rest of Stephen's reign.

Illness and death

Putna Monastery

In 1462, during the assault of Chilia Nouă, Stephen was shot in the leg. The wound never fully healed. In 1486, during the battle of Șcheia, his horse was injured. They both fell and Stephen

was trapped under the horse. The incident aggravated his old leg injury. Over time, he summoned to his royal court many doctors, astrologists and other persons, who attempted to heal his wound. Among these were Hermann, "bacalaurio in medicina", astrologist Baptista de Vesentio, Maestro Zoano barbero from Genoa (in 1468), Isaac Beg (in 1473), Don Antonio Branca (skilled in fixing cut noses), Mateo Muriano from Venice (in 1502), and Hieronimo di Cesena from Venice (in 1503).

Towards the end of his life, Stephen suffered from gout, which immobilized his hands and legs. On November 9, 1503, Vladislav, King of Hungary wrote to the Doge of Venice: "The voivode of Moldavia is tormented by an old illness." On June 30, 1504 Stephen's wound was cauterized by the doctors present in Suceava (one of whom was Hieronimo di Cesena from Venice). The operation caused great pain to the old voivode, who died two days later, on the morning of July 2, 1504. He was buried in the Monastery of Putna.

6. PRELIMINARY ACTIVITIES MODELS FOR THE GAME

Design of introductory lesson for the game

Mariapia D'Uva-Italy

Ana María Pérez- Spain

Subject: English **Age:** All age **Time:** 60 minutes **Large classes?** Yes **Mixed level?** No

Materials: Computer provided with internet connection, digital projector and interactive whiteboard.

Organisation: Small group or pair work.

Aim: To improve cultural awareness, and to encourage the use of English in the classroom.

Description: This activity focuses the understanding of the questions and detection of the necessary skills to answer the different subjects of the game to set by themselves the training that they need.

Preparation: An explanation to remind the rules of the game and a visualization of the board of the game in a screen.

Procedure

1. The students have to test the questions of the playing cards and try to answer them without support by pairs.
2. They have to keep track of how many right and wrong answers they did and detect which are their gaps of knowledge to answer them. A Moodle activity may be a good way to monitor the results of the research.
3. Whole group discussion of the skills needed to answer the questions and the ways to research and find the information.

Notes

Some concepts may be very difficult to explain for the students in English. The teacher should encourage the use of English among peers in discussion finding strategies to reward this.

Alternatives

This activity can be done in groups following the same procedure.

No resources?

- In case of lack of internet, the students may suggest textbooks, atlas and ways to research information off-line.

Activity: Creation of a passport for the game

Mariapia D'Uva

Maria Emanuela Ianniruberto

Involved Subjects: English, History, Art, and ICT.

Involved Classes: II and III year students

Students' age: 12-14 years old

Time at disposal: three hours

<u>Materials needed:</u>	Computers and Internet connection Glue, scissors, coloured and white paper, pens, pencils Interactive whiteboard and printer
<u>Organization:</u>	Group work (four to six for each class)

	Working together with the two involved classes Choosing an appropriate workspace (the ICT or Art lab) Sharing tasks (each group has its own)
<u>Steps:</u>	1. Three groups make researches on the Internet about the passports adopted by the European countries (cover colour and shape, size, inner pages, symbols). Others make hypothesis on the possible use of such a document in the game. 2. When the Internet research is satisfying enough, the two groups exchange information: those who worked on the Net will show through the whiteboard the images and texts found whereas those who worked on the ideas for a possible use of the document will explain the best ones. 3. Group discussion about the shape, colour, size to adopt for the game document; symbols to put on the front page, spaces on the inner pages to be used for stamps. 4. Creation of a paper passport and a virtual one by using Paint or some other computer programme.

7. LESSON PLAN MODEL FOR THE GAME

INTRODUCTORY LESSON PLAN OF THE AMAZING GAME OF ANCIENT EUROPEAN TRAILS		TEACHER	
COUNTRY		SUBJECTS INVOLVED	
General		English as Second Language Social Sciences Natural Sciences	
PLAN	METHODOLOGY	MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENTS	AIMS-TARGET
1. Introduction, scaffolding and icebreakers	1.Language scaffolding 2.Check for previous knowledge 3.Brief introduction to Europe's geography 4.Brief introduction to common features among the different partners	1.Interactive Whiteboard or computer and screen 2.English dictionary 3.European Atlas book or poster	1. Behavioral: -Ability to discuss different points of view -Ability to work in group to do a collaborative task 2.Learning objectives: -Improve the knowledge of

2. Teaching-Learning Activities	1. Create a Glosser poster in collaboration with the students of the entire partner schools involved in the project about our common features and our differences. 2. Create a digital magazine with the collaboration of all of the students involved in the project featuring our school, our region and how teenagers spend their free time.	map 4.Word software.	Europe and the partner's countries through the common -Improve the skills of English language through the assignments 3.Concepts: -Geography of Europe -History of Europe 4.Outcomes: -Glosser poster -Digital magazine of the project
INTRODUCTION			TIME
1. Scaffolding 1.1.1 Check for previous knowledge of European geography and language. 2. Introduction to Europe's geography 2.1.1 Situation of the different countries in a map of Europe 3. Group discussion 3.1. Common and different features among the partner school's countries.			30 min

DEVELOPMENT	
1. Teaching-Learning Activities 3.1.1 Collaborative Glog 3.1.2 ster poster 3.1.3 Collaborative digital magazine	120 min
CLOSURE	
4. Discussion about the cultural differences in collaborative projects	30 min
ASSESSMENT OF THE ACTIVITY	
1. Glogster Poster – accuracy and quality of concepts, number of concepts 2. Digital magazine – accuracy and quality of concepts, number of concepts, accuracy of artwork	

8. BIBLIOGRAPHY

1.WIKIPEDIA THE FREE ENCICLOPEDYA

2.The content of the lesson plan and of the activities presented in the methodological miniguide belongs to the authors.



9. FOTO GALLERY

THE AMAZING GAME OF ANCIENT EUROPEAN TRAILS

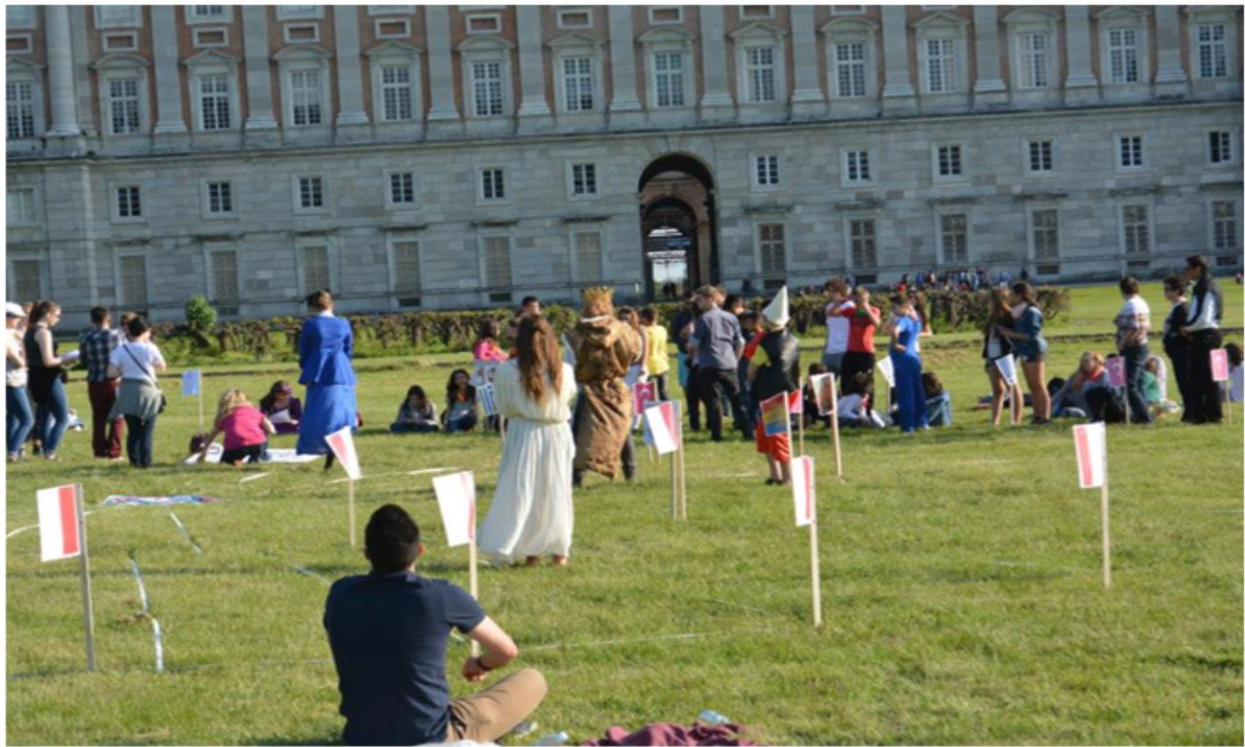
LIVE SIZE VERSION

ROYAL PALACE OF CASETA, ITALY

The Amazing Game
Ancient European Trails

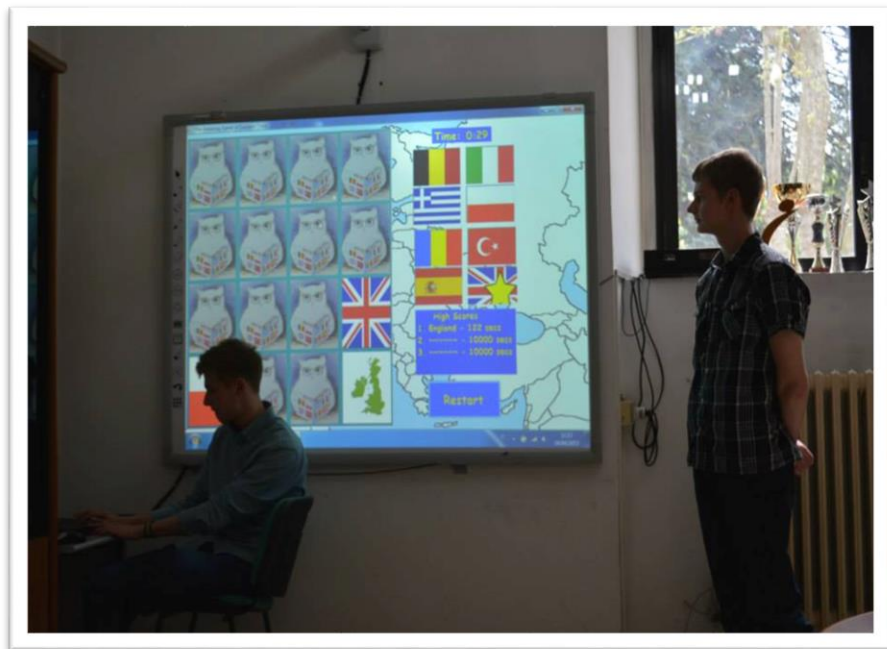
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THE AMAZING GAME OF ANCIENT EUROPEAN TRAILS COMPUTERIZED VERSION





THE AMAZING GAME OF ANCIENT EUROPEAN TRAILS

FINAL MEETING

