**Document number 72**

**Text number 0**

Classical music is art music produced by or rooted in the Western musical traditions, including both liturgical (religious) and secular music. Although a similar term is also used to refer to the period 1750-1820 (the Classical period), this article deals with a broad period from roughly the 11th century to the present day, which includes the Classical period and several other periods. The key norms of this tradition were codified between 1550 and 1900, known as the common practice period. The major periods of classical music are as follows: the early music period, which includes the medieval (500-1400) and Renaissance (1400-1600) periods; the common practice period, which includes the Baroque (1600-1750), Classical (1750-1820) and Romantic (1804-1910) periods; and the 1900s (1901-2000), which includes the modern (1890-1930), which overlaps with the late 19th century, the high modern (mid-20th century) and the modern or postmodern (1975-2015) periods. [citation needed]

**Question 0**

What term is used to refer to the period 1750-1820?

**Question 1**

What years are called the Renaissance?

**Question 2**

What years are called the Baroque period?

**Question 3**

What was the period from 1804 to 1910 called?

**Question 4**

What is the tradition on which classical music is based?

**Question 5**

What genre of music is classical music based on?

**Question 6**

What is the period 1750-1820 called?

**Question 7**

Which period is known as the common practice period?

**Question 8**

When was the modern era?

**Text number 1**

What distinguishes European art music from many other forms of non-European and popular music is, to a large extent, its system of musical notation, which has been in use since around the 16th century. Composers use Western notation to define for the performer the pitches (e.g. melodies, bass lines and/or chords), tempo, time signature and rhythm of a piece of music. This leaves less room for improvisation and ad libitum ornamentation, often heard in non-European art music and popular music styles such as jazz and blues. Another difference is that while most popular music styles are suited to the vocal form, classical music has developed highly sophisticated instrumental forms such as the concerto, symphony and sonata, and mixed vocal and instrumental forms such as opera, which are very complex because they are written down.

**Question 0**

How does European art music differ from non-European and popular music?

**Question 1**

What method do composers use to determine pitch, tempo, rhythm and beat for a performer?

**Question 2**

What are the popular styles of improvisation and ad libitum decorating?

**Question 3**

Because classical music is written down, it can reach a high level, what?

**Question 4**

How is European art music different from many other forms of music?

**Question 5**

How long has the score line system been in use?

**Question 6**

Jazz and blues use ad libitum and what other embellishments?

**Question 7**

Classical music can reach a high level of what?

**Text number 2**

The term "classical music" only appeared in the early 19th century, when an attempt was made to canonise the period from Johann Sebastian Bach to Beethoven as a clearly golden age. The earliest recorded reference to 'classical music' in the Oxford English Dictionary is around 1836.

**Question 0**

When did the term "classical music" appear?

**Question 1**

What period is called the "golden age"?

**Question 2**

Which year is the earliest mention of "classical music"?

**Question 3**

Which book contains the earliest reference to "classical music"?

**Question 4**

Which term did not appear until the early 19th century?

**Question 5**

In which "era" from Johann Sebastian Bach to Beethoven?

**Question 6**

Which year was the earliest mention of classical music?

**Question 7**

In which book was the earliest reference to classical music?

**Text number 3**

Given the wide variety of genres of classical music, ranging from medieval plainchant sung by monks to the classical and romantic orchestral symphonies of the 1700s and 1800s to the avant-garde atonal compositions for solo piano of the 20th century, it is difficult to list the characteristics that can be attributed to all these types of works. However, classical music has features that few if any other musical genres have, such as the use of printed scores and the performance of very complex instrumental works (e.g. the fugue). Although the symphony did not exist throughout classical music, from the mid-17th century to the 21st century the symphonic ensemble - and the works written for it - became a hallmark of classical music.

**Question 0**

Who sang medieval songs?

**Question 1**

The avant-garde atonal compositions were written for which instrument?

**Question 2**

What two characteristics of classical music cannot be combined with other types of music?

**Question 3**

During which period did the symphony not exist?

**Question 4**

What has become a characteristic of classical music?

**Question 5**

What didn't exist in the whole classical music era?

**Question 6**

What characterises the use of printed scores and the performance of very complex instrumental works?

**Question 7**

Who sang medieval songs?

**Text number 4**

A key feature of classical music, which distinguishes it from popular and folk music, is that the repertoire is usually written down in musical notation, resulting in a musical part or score. The score usually specifies the details of rhythm and pitch and, if two or more musicians (singers or instrumentalists) are involved, the coordination of the different parts. The literary quality of the score has enabled it to contain a high level of complexity: for example, J.S. Bach's fugues combine in a striking way boldly distinctive melodic lines that intertwine contrapuntally, yet create a coherent harmonic logic that would be impossible in the heat of live improvisation. The use of written notation also preserves the recording of the works and allows classical musicians to perform music from centuries ago. Notation allows 21st century performers to sing a 13th century Renaissance choral piece or a 17th century Baroque concerto in a way that reproduces many of the musical features (melodies, words, forms and rhythms).

**Question 0**

The fugues of J.S. Bach create a coherent harmonic logic that would be impossible in any other style of music?

**Question 1**

The score determines how the different parts are coordinated, the pitch and what other details?

**Question 2**

What has made it possible for classical musicians to perform music from centuries ago?

**Question 3**

Whose fugues manage to combine boldly distinctive melodic lines?

**Text number 5**

Nevertheless, the score does not give complete and precise instructions for the performance of a historical work. Although the tempo is written in Italian (e.g. Allegro), we do not know exactly how fast the piece should be played. Similarly, in the Baroque period, many works designed for basso continuo accompaniment do not specify which instruments play the accompaniment or how a keyboard instrument (harpsichord, lute, etc.) should play chords that are not indicated in the accompaniment part (only the figured bass symbol below the bass part is used to guide the performer playing the accompaniment). The performer and/or conductor has a number of possibilities for musical expression and interpretation in the score, including the phrasing of the melody, the duration of fermatas (sustained notes) or rests, and the use (or non-use) of effects such as vibrato or glissando (these effects are possible with a variety of string, brass, woodwind and human voices).

**Question 0**

The dots do not give complete and precise instructions on how to do what?

**Question 1**

In which era were many works designed for basso continuo accompaniment?

**Question 2**

Are vibrato and glissando possible on string, brass, woodwind and which other instruments?

**Question 3**

What are fermatas?

**Text number 6**

Although classical music in the 21st century has lost most of its tradition of musical improvisation, from baroque to romanticism, there are examples of performers who were able to improvise in the style of their era. In the Baroque era, organists improvised preludes, harpsichordists improvised chords from figured bass symbols below the bass continuo section, and both vocal and instrumentalists improvised musical embellishments. J.S. Bach was particularly known for his complex improvisations. In the classical music era, the composer-performer Mozart was renowned for his ability to improvise melodies in different styles. During the Classical era, some virtuoso soloists improvised the cadenza parts of a concerto. In the Romantic era, Beethoven improvised on the piano. For more information, see Improvisation.

**Question 0**

In the 21st century, classical music has lost most of its musical tradition. What?

**Question 1**

Who improvised preludes during the Baroque period?

**Question 2**

Who improvised musical ornaments during the Baroque period?

**Question 3**

Who was known for his complex improvisations?

**Question 4**

What was Mozart known for?

**Text number 7**

The instruments used in most classical music today were largely invented before the mid-19th century (often much earlier) and were codified in the 1700s and 1800s. They consist of orchestral or concert band instruments plus a number of other solo instruments (such as the piano, harpsichord and organ). The symphony orchestra is the most widely known instrument in classical music and includes members of the string, woodwind, wind, brass and percussion families. The concert orchestra is made up of members of the woodwind, brass and percussion families. It usually has a greater variety of woodwind and brass instruments than an orchestra, but does not have a string section. However, many concert orchestras use the double bass. Vocal practices changed a great deal during the Classical period, from the monophonic monophonic Gregorian chant of the medieval monks to the complex polyphonic choral works of the Renaissance and subsequent periods, which used several independent vocal melodies at the same time.

**Question 0**

Most of the instruments used in classical music today were invented before what period?

**Question 1**

What is the most famous instrument in classical music?

**Question 2**

The symphony orchestra includes members of the string, woodwind, percussion and what other instrumental families?

**Question 3**

What is there in a symphony orchestra that is missing in a concert orchestra?

**Question 4**

What practice has changed a lot during the classical period?

**Text number 8**

Many of the instruments used to perform medieval music still exist, but in different forms. Medieval instruments included woodwinds (which in the 21st century are made of metal), wind instruments and lute-like stringed instruments. There were also early versions of the organ, violin (or fiddle) and trombone (called the bagpipe). Medieval instruments in Europe were most commonly used alone, often accompanied by an instrument alone, or sometimes in parts. From at least the 13th century until the 15th century, instruments were divided into haut (loud, shrill, outdoor instruments) and bass (quieter, more intimate instruments).

**Question 0**

What was the medieval flute made of?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the early version of the violin?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the early version of the trombone?

**Question 3**

How were medieval tools used in Europe in general?

**Question 4**

Loud, shrill and outdoor instruments were called "haut", while quieter and more intimate instruments were called "what?".

**Text number 9**

In the early Middle Ages, vocal music in the liturgical genre, mainly Gregorian chant, was monophonic, using a single unaccompanied vocal melody line. Polyphonic song genres, using several independent vocal melodies, began to develop in the Middle Ages and became common in the late 13th and early 13th centuries.

**Question 0**

Which genre was the predominant genre of Gregorian chant in the early Middle Ages?

**Question 1**

Which genre uses several independent song melodies?

**Question 2**

When did polyphonic singing begin to develop?

**Question 3**

What does it mean to use a single unaccompanied vocal melody line?

**Text number 10**

Many instruments were created during the Renaissance, others were variations or improvements on instruments that already existed. Some have survived to the present day, while others have disappeared and have simply been recreated to allow the music of the period to be played on real instruments. As is the case today, instruments can be classified into wind, string, percussion and woodwind.

**Question 0**

In which era were many instruments born?

**Question 1**

What has been lost and then recreated to represent the music of the period?

**Question 2**

Modern musical instruments can be classified as brass, string, woodwind and what other classification?

**Text number 11**

Renaissance wind instruments were traditionally played by professionals who were members of guilds, and included the slide trumpet, wooden cornet, valveless trumpet and bagpipe. Stringed instruments included the violin, a harp-like lyre, hurdy-gurdy, sitters and lute. Keyboard instruments with strings included the harpsichord and the virginal. Percussion instruments included the triangle, the Jew's harp, the tambourine, bells, the drum pot and various drums. Woodwinds included the two-stringed flute, stringed flute, bagpipe, transverse flute and recorder.

**Question 0**

During which period did members of the professional guild traditionally play wind instruments?

**Question 1**

The stringed instruments of the Renaissance were the violin, lyre, sitar, lute and what other instrument?

**Question 2**

What kind of instrument is a virgin?

**Question 3**

What types of instruments are tambourines, bells and rumble-pots?

**Question 4**

What types of instruments are the string whistle and the receptor whistle?

**Text number 12**

Renaissance vocal music flourished in an increasingly sophisticated polyphonic style. The main liturgical forms that survived throughout the Renaissance were masses and motets, but towards the end there were other developments, especially as composers of church music began to adopt secular forms (such as the madrigal) in their own designs. Towards the end of the period we see the early dramatic precursors of opera, such as the monody, madrigal comedy and the intermedio.

**Question 0**

What Renaissance vocal music is known for is increasingly complex what?

**Question 1**

Which liturgical form, apart from motets, survived throughout the Renaissance?

**Question 2**

Monodia, madrigal comedy and intermedio are all precursors to what?

**Text number 13**

Baroque instruments included some instruments from earlier periods (e.g. hurdy-gurdy and recorder) and a number of new instruments (e.g. cello, double bass and fortepiano). Some instruments from earlier periods, such as the shawm and the wooden cornet, were discontinued. The main stringed instruments of the Baroque period were the violin, viola, viola d'amore, cello, double bass, lute, theorbo (often playing basso continuo parts), mandolin, sitter, baroque guitar, harp and hurdy-gurdy. Woodwinds included baroque flute, baroque oboe, rackett, recorder and bassoon. Brass instruments included cornet, natural horn, baroque horn, serpentine and trombone. Keyboard instruments included the piano corde, tangent piano, fortepiano (an early version of the piano), harpsichord and organ. Percussion instruments included timpani, snare drum, tambourine and castanets.

**Question 0**

When were the cello, double bass and fortepiano new instruments?

**Question 1**

What happened to the shawn and the wooden cornet during the Baroque period?

**Question 2**

What types of instruments are the chicks and the chestnuts?

**Question 3**

What kind of instrument is a snake?

**Question 4**

Which string instrument often played bass continuo parts?

**Text number 14**

One major difference between Baroque music and the classical music that followed is that the instruments used in ensembles were much less standardised. Whereas a string quartet in the Classical period consisted almost exclusively of two violins, a viola and a cello, a Baroque group accompanying a soloist or an opera might include one of several types of keyboard instruments (e.g. pipe organ, harpsichord or piano chord), additional string instruments (e.g. lute) and an indeterminate number of bass instruments playing basso continuo bass, including strings, woodwinds and brass (e.g. cello, double bass, viola, bassoon, serpentino, etc.).

**Question 0**

What was less standardised in the Baroque period?

**Question 1**

Two violins, a viola and a cello make up what kind of group?

**Question 2**

Keyboard instruments included organ, harpsichord and what other instrument?

**Question 3**

What is an example of a string instrument from the Baroque period?

**Text number 15**

The term "classical music" has two meanings: the broader meaning covers all Western art music from the Middle Ages to the present day, and the specific meaning refers to music from the 1750s to the early 1830s - the era of Mozart and Haydn. This section will discuss the more specific meaning.

**Question 0**

The 1750s to the early 1830s is the era of Mozart and which other composer?

**Question 1**

Classical music can mean all Western art music or, more precisely, from the 1750s onwards, when?

**Question 2**

The broad significance of classical music extends from the present day to what era?

**Text number 16**

Classical musicians continued to use many of the instruments of the Baroque era, such as the cello, double bass, keyboard, trombone, trombone, drum, fortepiano and organ. Some baroque instruments were discontinued (such as the theorbo and rackett), but many baroque instruments were transformed into versions still in use today, such as the baroque violin (which became the violin), the baroque oboe (which became the oboe) and the baroque horn, which became the standard valve horn.

**Question 0**

Classical musicians of which era still used many instruments?

**Question 1**

Teorbo and what other instrument of the Baroque period was left out?

**Question 2**

What modern instrument did the baroque violin become?

**Question 3**

What became of the baroque trumpet?

**Text number 17**

The stringed instruments of the classical period were the four instruments that make up the string section of the orchestra: violin, viola, cello and double bass. The woodwinds included basset clarinet, basset horn, clarinette d'amour, classical clarinet, chalumeau, flute, oboe and bassoon. Keyboard instruments included piano cello and fortepiano. Although the harpsichord was still used in the 1750s and 1760s to accompany the basso continuo, it fell into disuse at the end of the century. Brass instruments included the buccin, the ophicleide (a substitute for the snake, the precursor of the tuba) and the natural horn.

**Question 0**

Violin, cello, double bass and which other instrument make up the string section of the orchestra?

**Question 1**

The flute, oboe and bassoon are all what type of instruments?

**Question 2**

Which instrument fell out of use after the 1760s?

**Question 3**

Which instrument was the predecessor of the tuba?

**Text number 18**

The 'standard' configuration of double brass and brass in orchestras from the first half of the 19th century is usually attributed to Beethoven. The exceptions to this are his Symphony No. 4, Violin Concerto and Piano Concerto No. 4, each of which features a single flute. The composer's instrumentation usually included double flutes, oboes, clarinets, bassoons, horns and trumpets. Beethoven carefully planned the expansion of this particular sonic palette in symphonies 3, 5, 6 and 9 to innovative effect. In the Eroica Symphony, the third French horn enters the symphony to give harmonic flexibility, but also the effect of a 'chorale' brass in the trio. Piccolo, contrabassoon and trombones add to the exhilarating finale of his Symphony No. 5. The piccolo and trombone pair help produce the 'storm' and 'sunshine' of the sixth. The Ninth Symphony calls for a second pair of horns for similar reasons to the Eroica (four horns have since become standard); Beethoven's use of piccolo and contrabassoon, trombones and untuned percussion - as well as chorus and vocal soloists - is his earliest suggestion that the symphony's tonal boundaries should be extended. For several decades after Beethoven's death, symphonic instrumentation followed Beethoven's established pattern, with a few exceptions.

**Question 0**

To whom is the "standard supplement" addressed?

**Question 1**

Which Beethoven work's triumphant finale is enhanced by the whistle, contrabassoon and trombones?

**Question 2**

How long after Beethoven's death was the symphony orchestra faithful to Beethoven?

**Question 3**

What did Beethoven expand in his symphonies 3, 5, 6 and 9?

**Question 4**

Piccolo and trombone create the illusion of a storm and what in Beethoven's Sixth Symphony?

**Text number 19**

In the Romantic era, the modern piano, with its stronger, more sustained sound and wider range, took the place of the more subtle-sounding fortepiano. The orchestra retained the classical instruments and sections (strings, woodwinds, brass and percussion), but these sections were typically expanded to produce a fuller and broader sound. For example, a baroque orchestra might have two double bass players, but a romantic orchestra might have up to ten. "As the music became more expressive, the standard orchestral palette just wasn't rich enough for many Romantic composers. "New woodwind instruments were added to the orchestra, such as contrabassoon, bass clarinet and piccolo, and new percussion instruments such as xylophones, drums, cellets (a bell-like keyboard instrument), large orchestral harps, bells and triads, and even wind machines for sound effects.

**Question 0**

Which instrument was replaced by the modern piano in the Romantic era?

**Question 1**

How many double bass players were usually used in a baroque orchestra?

**Question 2**

What was not rich enough for many romantic composers?

**Question 3**

The classical sections were expanded in the Romantic era to a fuller and larger what?

**Question 4**

What is celestes?

**Text number 20**

Saxophones appear in some scores from the late 19th century onwards. In some works, the saxophone appears only as a solo instrument, for example in Maurice Ravel's orchestration of Modest Mussorgsky's Pictures at an Exhibition and Sergei Rachmaninov's Symphonic Dances, but in other works, such as Ravel's Boléro, Sergei Prokofiev's Romeo and Juliet Suites 1 and 2 and many others, the saxophone is a member of the orchestra. The euphonium appears in a few late Romantic and 20th century works, usually in parts marked 'tenor tuba', such as Gustav Holst's The Planets and Richard Strauss's Ein Heldenleben.

**Question 0**

When do saxophones first appear in a score?

**Question 1**

In which of Sergei Rachmaninoff's works was the saxophone the solo instrument?

**Question 2**

How does the saxophone work in Ravel's Bolero?

**Question 3**

Euphonium usually played the parts marked: what?

**Question 4**

Who wrote The Planets?

**Text number 21**

The Wagner tuba, a modified member of the horn family, appears in Richard Wagner's Der Ring des Nibelungen and several other works by Strauss, Béla Bartók and others; it plays a major role in Anton Bruckner's Symphony No 7 in E major. The cornets appear in Pyotr Ilyich Tchaikovsky's ballet Swan Lake, Claude Debussy's La Mer and several orchestral works by Hector Berlioz. Orchestras use freelance musicians to supplement their regular line-up, unless these instruments are played by players of another instrument (for example, a trombone player switches to a euphonium for a particular passage).

**Question 0**

What is the name of a modified member of the horn family that appears in several of Strauss's works?

**Question 1**

In which of Anton Bruckner's symphonies does Wagner's tuba play a prominent role?

**Question 2**

Who wrote the ballet Swan Lake?

**Question 3**

How do orchestras supplement their regular line-ups?

**Question 4**

In which Debussy song is there a cornet?

**Text number 22**

Electric instruments such as the electric guitar, electric bass and ondes Martenot appear occasionally in 20th and 21st century classical music. In recent decades, musicians in both classical and popular music have experimented with electronic instruments such as the synthesizer, electronic and digital techniques such as sampled or computer-generated sounds, and instruments from other cultures such as the gamelan.

**Question 0**

What type of instrument is occasionally found in the classical music styles of the 20th and 21st centuries?

**Question 1**

Besides classical music, what kind of musicians have experimented with electronic instruments?

**Question 2**

What kind of instrument is a gamelan?

**Text number 23**

Many of the instruments now associated with popular music, such as bagpipes, whistles, hurdy-gurdy and some woodwinds, were important instruments in early classical music. On the other hand, instruments such as the acoustic guitar, once associated mainly with popular music, became important in classical music in the 19th and 20th centuries.

**Question 0**

Where did bagpipes play an important role?

**Question 1**

Which instrument rose to prominence in the 19th and 20th centuries?

**Question 2**

What genre of music are vihuelas and hurdy-gurdy gurus associated with nowadays?

**Text number 24**

Although the equal temperament was gradually accepted as the dominant musical temperament in the 1700s, music from earlier periods often uses different historical temperaments. For example, music of the English Renaissance is often performed in meantone temperament.

**Question 0**

Which temperament type became accepted in the 1700s?

**Question 1**

When was the equal temperament accepted as the dominant musical temperament?

**Question 2**

With what temperament is the English Renaissance presented?

**Text number 25**

Performers who have studied classical music extensively are said to be "classically trained". This training may come from private lessons with instrument or voice teachers, or from a formal programme offered by a conservatory, college or university, such as a B.mus. or M.mus. degree (which includes private lessons from professors). In classical music, "...extensive formal musical training is required, often to the postgraduate level [a master's degree]".

**Question 0**

What have classically trained performers done on a large scale?

**Question 1**

What is included in a B.Mus. or M.Mus. degree?

**Question 2**

What level of classical music training is often required?

**Text number 26**

Performing classical music repertoire requires sight-reading and playing skills, harmonic principles, strong ear training (pitch correction and ear-ear pitch correction), knowledge of performance conventions (e.g. Baroque ornamentation) and knowledge of the style/musical idiom of a particular composer or work (e.g. Brahms symphony or Mozart concerto).

**Question 0**

What kind of literacy is required to perform classical music?

**Question 1**

What are the principles involved in performing classical music?

**Question 2**

What kind of performance requires a knowledge of the style expected of a particular composer?

**Text number 27**

Some "popular musicians", such as Billy Joel, Elton John, the Van Halen brothers, Randy Rhoads and Ritchie Blackmore, have had significant classical training. Nor is formal training limited to the classical music genre. Many rock and pop musicians have graduated from commercial music programs such as Berklee College of Music, and many jazz musicians have graduated from universities with jazz programs such as the Manhattan School of Music and McGill University.

**Question 0**

Which brothers have received significant classical training?

**Question 1**

What kind of training have Billy Joel and Elton John received?

**Question 2**

Rock and pop musicians can have a degree in which type of music?

**Text number 28**

Historically, large professional orchestras have been made up mostly or entirely of male musicians. One of the first instances of women being hired into professional orchestras was as harpists. The Vienna Philharmonic, for example, only took on women as permanent members in 1997, much later than other orchestras ranked among the top five orchestras in the world by Gramophone in 2008. The last major orchestra to appoint a woman to a permanent post was the Berlin Philharmonic. As recently as February 1996, Dieter Flury, principal flutist of the Vienna Philharmonic, told Westdeutscher Rundfunk that to include a woman would be "gambling with the emotional unity (emotionelle Geschlossenheit) that this organism currently possesses". In April 1996, the orchestra's press secretary wrote that "making up for expected absences" during maternity leave would be a problem.

**Question 0**

Which gender of musicians have historically made up the majority of professional orchestras?

**Question 1**

What was the first position for which women were hired in professional orchestras?

**Question 2**

What year did the Vienna Philharmonic first admit women as members?

**Question 3**

Which major orchestra was the last to appoint a woman to a permanent post?

**Question 4**

Who was the Vienna Philharmonic's soloist of the year 1996?

**Text number 29**

In 1997, the Vienna Philharmonic was "protested during a [US] tour" by the National Organization for Women and the International Alliance for Women in Music. Finally, "after facing increasing ridicule even in socially conservative Austria, the orchestra members met [on 28 February 1997] for an extraordinary meeting on the eve of departure and agreed to accept a woman, Anna Lelkes, as harpist". As of 2013, the orchestra has six female members, one of whom, violinist Albena Danailova, became concertmaster in 2008, the first woman to hold that position. In 2012, women still accounted for only 6% of the orchestra's membership. VPO President Clemens Hellsberg said that the VPO now uses fully screened blind performances.

**Question 0**

What year did the Vienna Philharmonic face protests in the US?

**Question 1**

Who was the first woman to become a member of the Vienna Philharmonic?

**Question 2**

What instrument did Anna Lelkes play?

**Question 3**

How many women were members of the Vienna Philharmonic in 2013?

**Question 4**

Who was the first female concertmaster of the Vienna Philharmonic?

**Text number 30**

A 2013 article in Mother Jones magazine noted that while "many prestigious orchestras have a significant number of women members - the New York Philharmonic's violin section has more women than men - and many well-known orchestras, such as the National Symphony Orchestra, the Detroit Symphony Orchestra and the Minnesota Symphony Orchestra, have women violinists as conductors", the contrabass, brass and percussion sections of major orchestras "... are still predominantly male". A 2014 BBC article noted that "... the introduction of 'blind' auditions, where a prospective player performs behind a screen to prevent the jury from using gender or racial bias, has meant that the gender balance of traditionally male-dominated symphony orchestras has gradually changed."

**Question 0**

Which gender of violinist leads the national symphony orchestra?

**Question 1**

Which gender are the double bass, brass and percussion instruments?

**Question 2**

What kind of experimentation is expected to eliminate gender or racial bias?

**Question 3**

Which section of the New York Philharmonic has more women than men?

**Text number 31**

Classical music works are often complex in terms of orchestration, counterpoint, harmony, musical development, rhythm, phrasing, texture and use of form. While most popular music styles are generally written in song form, classical music works have developed highly sophisticated musical forms such as the concerto, symphony, sonata and opera.

**Question 0**

What can be observed in the use of orchestration, harmony and form in classical repertoire?

**Question 1**

What is usually written in song forms?

**Question 2**

Concertos, symphonies, sonatas and operas are examples of which types of music?

**Text number 32**

Longer works are often divided into independent sections called movements, often with contrasting characters or moods. For example, symphonies written in the Classical period are usually divided into four movements: (1) an opening Allegro in sonata form, (2) a slow movement, (3) a minuet or scherzo, and (4) a final Allegro. These sections can be further subdivided into a hierarchy of smaller units: first into sections, then into episodes, and finally into phrases.

**Question 0**

What are the independent parts of longer works called?

**Question 1**

How many movements are symphonies written in the classical period usually divided into?

**Question 2**

What is typically the speed of the second movement of a classical work?

**Question 3**

What is still called a disintegrated movement?

**Question 4**

What is the last part of a classic work?

**Text number 33**

The major periods of classical music up to 1900 are the Early Music period, comprising the Medieval (500-1400) and Renaissance (1400-1600) periods, and the Common Practice period, comprising the Baroque (1600-1750), Classical (1750-1830) and Romantic (1804-1910) periods. From 1900 onwards, the classical periods have been calculated according to the calendar century rather than according to specific stylistic trends, which are fragmented and difficult to define. The 20th century calendar period (1901-2000) covers most of the early modern period (1890-1930), the entire high modern period (mid-20th century) and the first 25 years of the modern or postmodern period (1975-present). The 21st century has so far been characterised by the continuation of the modern/postmodern period.

**Question 0**

Which period was 500-1400?

**Question 1**

Which years define the Baroque period?

**Question 2**

How are the periods calculated from 1900 onwards?

**Question 3**

Which era has marked the 21st century?

**Question 4**

What were the years 1804-1910?

**Text number 34**

The dates are generalisations because periods and eras overlap and the categories are somewhat arbitrary, even to the extent that some authorities reverse their terminology and refer to an "era" that includes the Baroque, Classical and Romantic "periods". For example, the use of counterpoint and fugue, considered characteristic of the Baroque era (or period), was continued by Haydn, which is classified as typical of the Classical era. Beethoven, who is often described as the founder of the Romantic era, and Brahms, who is classified as a Romantic, also used counterpoint and fugue, but other features of their music define their era.

**Question 0**

Which composer continued to use counterpoint and fugue?

**Question 1**

Haydn is classified as typical of which period?

**Question 2**

Who is known as the founder of the Romantic era?

**Question 3**

Who is classified as romantic, but also uses counterpoint and fugue?

**Question 4**

Some authorities translate the terminology and refer to the common policy period as "what?".

**Text number 35**

The prefix neo is used to describe a 20th century or contemporary composition written in the style of an earlier period, such as classical or romantic. For example, Stravinsky's Pulcinella is a neo-classical composition because it is stylistically similar to works from the classical era.

**Question 0**

A contemporary composition written in the style of an earlier era is described by which prefix?

**Question 1**

In which century were neoclassical compositions written?

**Question 2**

Who wrote Pulcinella?

**Question 3**

What era does Pulcinella remind you of?

**Text number 36**

Burgh (2006) argues that Western classical music has its roots ultimately in ancient Egyptian art music through chironomy and the ancient Egyptian orchestra, which dates back to 2695 BC. This was followed by early Christian liturgical music, which in turn dates back to the ancient Greeks[citation needed] The development of individual tones and scales was done by ancient Greeks such as Aristoxenos and Pythagoras. Pythagoras created the tuning system and helped codify musical notation. Ancient Greek instruments such as the aulos (stringed instrument) and lyre (a stringed instrument resembling a small harp) eventually led to the instruments of the classical orchestra as we know them today. The early period predates the ancient musical era before the fall of the Roman Empire (476 AD). Very little music survives from this period, most of it from ancient Greece.

**Question 0**

When was the Egyptian orchestra founded?

**Question 1**

Who suggested that Western classical music has its roots in ancient Egyptian art music?

**Question 2**

What music followed the art music of ancient Egypt?

**Question 3**

Which ancient society developed individual sounds and scales?

**Question 4**

Who helped codify the music notation?

**Text number 37**

The Middle Ages cover music from the period after the fall of Rome until around 1400. Monophonic singing, also called plainsong or Gregorian chant, was the dominant form around1100 . Monophonic (polyphonic) music developed from monophonic singing throughout the late Middle Ages and Renaissance, including the more complex voicings of motets.

**Question 0**

The Middle Ages begin with the fall of which city?

**Question 1**

What name can Plainsong or Gregorian chant also be called?

**Question 2**

What does polyphonic mean?

**Question 3**

When did monophonic singing cease to be the dominant form?

**Question 4**

Polyphonic music involved a more complex pronunciation of what?

**Text number 38**

The Renaissance era lasted from 1400 to 1600. The period was characterised by a wider use of instruments, a number of interwoven melodic lines and the first bass instruments. As ballroom dancing became more common, musical forms suitable for accompanying dances began to establish themselves.

**Question 0**

When was the Renaissance?

**Question 1**

Which era was 1400-1600?

**Question 2**

In which era were the first donkey instruments used?

**Question 3**

What became more common during the Renaissance?

**Question 4**

In which era did dance music become established?

**Text number 39**

It was during this period that the notation of music in music books and other elements of notation began to take shape. This invention made it possible to separate the composition of a piece of music from its transmission; without musical notation, transmission was oral and changed each time it was transmitted. The score allowed a musical work to be performed without the composer being present. The invention of the printing press in the 15th century had far-reaching consequences for the preservation and transmission of music.

**Question 0**

Where did music notation start to take shape around this time?

**Question 1**

How was music communicated before the invention of musical notation?

**Question 2**

What did oral music have to go through every time it was transmitted?

**Question 3**

What can be performed without music?

**Question 4**

When was the mobile printing press invented?

**Text number 40**

The typical stringed instruments of the early period were the harp, lute, violin and trombone, while wind instruments included flutes (including the recorder), shawm (an early member of the oboe family), trumpet and bagpipe. Simple pipe organs existed, but were largely confined to churches, although portable versions existed. Later in the era, early versions of keyboard instruments such as the clavichord and harpsichord began to appear. Stringed instruments, such as the viola, had emerged by the 1500s, as had a wider range of brass and stringed instruments. Printing made it possible to standardise the descriptions and specifications of instruments and to guide their use.

**Question 0**

The album is part of what wind family?

**Question 1**

Sahwm was an early family member of which instrument?

**Question 2**

Where were the first pipe-organs located?

**Question 3**

When was the violence committed?

**Question 4**

What made it possible to describe and specify the instruments?

**Text number 41**

During the Common Practice period, many of the ideas that formed Western classical music were shaped, standardised or codified. It began in the Baroque period, which lasted from about 1600 to the mid-1700s. It was followed by the Classical period, which ended around 1820. The Romantic period continued into the 19th century and ended around 1910.

**Question 0**

When did many of the ideas that make up Western classical music take shape?

**Question 1**

What began in the Baroque era?

**Question 2**

What era did the classical era follow?

**Question 3**

When did the classical era end?

**Question 4**

When did the romantic era end?

**Text number 42**

Baroque music is characterised by the use of complex tonal counterpoint and basso continuo, a continuous bass line. The music became more complex compared to songs of earlier periods. The rudiments of the sonata form took shape in the canzone, as did the more formal concept of theme and variations. The tonalities of major and minor, a means of controlling dissonance and chromaticism in music, took full shape.

**Question 0**

Bass continuo and complex tonal counterpoint are typical of which type of music?

**Question 1**

What does basso continuo mean?

**Question 2**

What did music become during the Baroque period compared to earlier eras?

**Question 3**

Which form began to take shape during the Baroque period?

**Question 4**

Major and minor what are the means to control dissonance and chromaticism?

**Text number 43**

During the Baroque period, keyboard music played on harpsichord and organ became increasingly popular, and the violin family of stringed instruments took the form that is now widely known. Opera as a staged musical performance began to distinguish itself from earlier musical and dramatic forms, and vocal forms such as the cantata and the oratorio became more common. Singers began to add embellishments to melodies. Instrumental ensembles began to be differentiated and standardised by size, giving rise to early orchestras for larger ensembles, and chamber music was written for smaller instrumental groups, with parts played by individual instruments (rather than massed instruments). The concerto became widespread as an orchestral accompaniment as a medium between soloist and orchestra, although the relationship between soloist and orchestra was relatively simple.

**Question 0**

During which era did keyboard music become popular?

**Question 1**

What type of instrument is a violin family?

**Question 2**

Opera began to distinguish itself from earlier forms of what?

**Question 3**

What became more common during the Baroque period?

**Question 4**

What did the singer add to the melodies from the Baroque era onwards?

**Text number 44**

Theories of equal temperament began to be applied more widely in practice, especially as it allowed for greater chromatic possibilities in difficult to tune keyboards. Although Bach did not use equal temperament as modern pianos are usually tuned, Bach's well-tempered piano was created when he changed temperaments from the then-common meantone system to different temperaments that made modulation between all keys musically acceptable.

**Question 0**

What theories were put into practice more widely?

**Question 1**

What does equal temperament allow for in difficult to tune keyboards?

**Question 2**

What did Bach not use?

**Question 3**

A modern piano is usually a what?

**Question 4**

Which temperament system was common in Bach's time?

**Text number 45**

The Classical era, which lasted from around 1750 to 1820, established many norms of composition, performance and style, and the piano also became the dominant keyboard instrument. The basic forces required by the orchestra became somewhat established (although they increased as the possibilities of a wider range of instruments were developed over the following centuries). Chamber music included ensembles of up to eight players10 for serenades. Opera continued to evolve, with regional styles in Italy, France and the German-speaking countries. Opera buffa, a type of comic opera, grew in popularity. The symphony became a musical form in its own right, and the concerto was developed as a stage for virtuoso playing. Orchestras no longer needed a harpsichord (which had been part of the traditional continuo of the Baroque style) and were often conducted by a leading violinist (now the concertmaster).

**Question 0**

When was the classical era?

**Question 1**

Which instrument was the dominant keyboard instrument of the classical era?

**Question 2**

What was standardised during the classical era?

**Question 3**

What was the maximum number of musicians that could form a chamber orchestra in the classical period?

**Question 4**

What is an opera buffa?

**Text number 46**

Wind instruments were refined in the classical era. Although bilingual instruments such as the oboe and bassoon were standardised to some extent during the Baroque period, the monophonic clarinet family was not widely used until Mozart, when its role expanded to include orchestral, chamber and concert instruments.

**Question 0**

What kind of instrument developed during the classical era?

**Question 1**

What is the name of one of the reed family?

**Question 2**

What type of instrument was standardised to some extent during the Baroque period?

**Question 3**

Who expanded the role of one of the reapers?

**Text number 47**

The music of the Romantic era, which began roughly in the first decade of the 19th century and ended at the beginning of the 20th century, was characterised by a greater emphasis on a broader melodic line and expressive and emotional elements, in a similar vein to Romanticism in other art forms. Musical forms began to break away from those of the classical period (even when codified), and free-form pieces such as nocturnes, fantasy music and preludes were written, in which accepted notions of thematic presentation and development were ignored or reduced. The music became more chromatic, dissonant and tonally colourful, and tensions (in relation to the accepted norms of older forms) increasingly concerned key signatures. The art song (or Lied) matured in this era, as did the epic proportions of grand opera, which Richard Wagner's Ring cycle eventually surpassed.

**Question 0**

What era was characterised by a greater emphasis on extended melodic lines?

**Question 1**

When did the romantic era end?

**Question 2**

Free-form pieces such as nocturnes and preludes were a departure from what era?

**Question 3**

What tensions increased during the Romantic period?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the art song?

**Text number 48**

In the 19th century, music institutions were freed from the control of wealthy patrons, as composers and musicians were able to build a life independent of the nobility. The growing interest in music among a growing middle class across Western Europe spurred the creation of organisations to teach, perform and preserve music. The piano, which achieved its modern design during this period (thanks in part to industrial developments in metallurgy), became widely popular among the middle classes, whose demands for an instrument led to a large number of piano makers. Many symphony orchestras date from this era. Some musicians and composers were stars of their time, others, like Franz Liszt and Niccolò Paganini, did both.

**Question 0**

Who ruled the musical institutions before the 19th century?

**Question 1**

In the 19th century, composers and musicians began to build a life independent of what?

**Question 2**

Which class increased their interest in music in the 19th century?

**Question 3**

Which musical instrument became widely popular among the middle class in the 19th century?

**Question 4**

In the 19th century, many what?

**Text number 49**

In particular, the range of instruments used in orchestras grew. A wider range of percussion instruments began to appear. Brass instruments took on a greater role as the introduction of rotary valves allowed them to play a wider range of tunes. The size of the orchestra (typically around 40 players in the classical era) grew to over 100. For example, Gustav Mahler's Symphony No. 8 of 1906 was performed with over 150 players and over 400 choirs.

**Question 0**

How big did the orchestra grow?

**Question 1**

What size choirs have performed Gustav Mahler's Symphony No 8, composed in 1906?

**Question 2**

What size orchestras have performed Gustav Mahler's Symphony No 8, composed in 1906?

**Question 3**

What made it possible for brass instruments to play a wider range of notes?

**Question 4**

Which instruments were expanded?

**Text number 50**

European cultural ideas and institutions began to follow colonial expansion to the rest of the world. Particularly towards the end of the period, nationalism in music (which in some cases reflected the political sentiments of the time) also increased, as composers such as Edvard Grieg, Nikolai Rimsky-Korsakov and Antonín Dvořák incorporated the traditional music of their home countries into their compositions.

**Question 0**

What did European cultural ideas follow?

**Question 1**

What kind of music emerged towards the end of the era?

**Question 2**

What does nationalism in music sometimes echo?

**Question 3**

Edvard Grieg and Antonin Dvorak used what music in their compositions?

**Text number 51**

Classical music in the 20th century includes a wide range of post-Romantic styles composed up to 2000, as well as late Romantic, modern, high-modern and post-modern styles. Modernism (1890-1930) marked a period in which many composers rejected certain values of the era of conventional practice, such as traditional tonality, melody, instrumentation and structure. The high modern era saw the emergence of neoclassical and serial music. A few authorities have argued that high modern postmodern music began around 1930. Others have more or less equated postmodern music with 'contemporary music', composed from the late 20th century to the early 21st century.

**Question 0**

What style does 20th century classical music encompass?

**Question 1**

When did modernism happen?

**Question 2**

In which era did composers abandon the tradition of a common rehearsal period?

**Question 3**

In which era was neoclassical music born?

**Question 4**

Postmodern music is also known as what?

**Text number 52**

Almost all the composers described in classical music textbooks and whose works are widely performed as part of concert repertoire are male composers, although there have been a large number of female composers throughout classical music's history. Musicologist Marcia Citron has asked "[w]hy is music composed by women so marginal to the standard repertoire of 'classical' music?". Citron "examines the practices and attitudes that have led to the exclusion of women composers from the received 'canon' of performed music". He argues that in the 19th century, women composers typically wrote art songs intended for performance in small concerts, rather than symphonies intended for performance with orchestra in a large hall, and the latter works were considered the composers' most important genre; since women composers did not write many symphonies, they were not considered important as composers. In "...Concise Oxford History of Music, Clara Shumann [sic] is one of the only [sic] female composers mentioned". Abbey Philips notes that '[w]omen who composed/composed in the 20th century received much less attention than their male counterparts'.

**Question 0**

Which gender of composers do most music textbooks describe?

**Question 1**

Who has asked why music composed by women is so marginal in the standard repertoire of "classical" music?

**Question 2**

Why were women composers not considered important?

**Question 3**

Who is one of the only female composers mentioned?

**Question 4**

What kind of music did female composers typically write?

**Text number 53**

According to modernist views, classical music is primarily considered a written musical tradition, preserved in musical notation, and not transmitted orally, by rote or through recordings of individual performances.Although there are differences between individual performances of a classical work, a classical musical work is generally considered to transcend any interpretation of it. The use of musical notation is an effective way of communicating classical music because the written score contains the technical instructions for performing the work.

**Question 0**

What is the view that classical music is primarily a written musical tradition?

**Question 1**

What is musical notation effective for?

**Question 2**

Why is sheet music effective?

**Text number 54**

Between 1996 and 1997, a study was conducted on a large group of middle-aged students in the Cherry Creek School District in Denver, Colorado, USA. The study showed that students who actively listened to classical music before school had higher academic achievement. The study also showed that students who listened to music before taking tests also had positively elevated achievement scores. Students who listened to rock and roll or country music had moderately lower scores. The study also showed that students who listened to classical music while studying had significantly improved academic performance, while those who listened to other types of music had significantly lower academic scores. The study was conducted in several schools in the Cherry Creek School District and was administered through the University of Colorado. This study mirrors several recent studies (e.g., Mike Manthei and Steve N. Kelly of the University of Nebraska at Omaha, Donald A. Hodges and Debra S. O'Connell of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro, etc.) and others who obtained significant results through the discourse of their work.

**Question 0**

Did students who actively listened to classical music before studying score higher or lower?

**Question 1**

What happened to the many students who listened to rock and roll or country music?

**Question 2**

Who will experience a significant leap in their academic performance?

**Question 3**

Who did the research?

**Question 4**

In which years was the survey carried out?

**Text number 55**

In the 1990s, several studies and popular books wrote about what came to be called the "Mozart effect": the temporary, small increase in scores on certain tests observed as a result of listening to Mozart's works. The approach was popularised in a book by Don Campbell, based on an experiment published in Nature, which found that listening to Mozart temporarily raised students' IQ scores by 8-9 points. New York Times music columnist Alex Ross put the popularised version of the theory succinctly. have found that listening to Mozart actually makes you smarter." Advertisers marketed CDs that were claimed to have this effect. Florida passed a law requiring young children in public schools to listen to classical music every day, and in 1998 the governor of Georgia allocated $105,000 a year for each child born in Georgia to receive a cassette or CD of classical music. One of the authors of the original studies on the Mozart effect said, "I don't think it can do any harm. I am in favour of exposing children to great cultural experiences. But I think the money could be better spent on music education programmes."

**Question 0**

Which composer is the effect named after?

**Question 1**

Who wrote the book about the Mozart effect?

**Question 2**

Where was the test originally published?

**Question 3**

How many IQ points does the Mozart effect temporarily increase a student's IQ?

**Question 4**

How much money has the Governor of Georgia set aside each year to give every child a classical music CD?

**Text number 56**

Shawn Vancour argues that the commercialisation of classical music in the early 20th century hurt the music industry because of a lack of representation.

**Question 0**

What damaged the music industry in the 20th century, according to Shawn Vancour?

**Question 1**

Who argued that the commercialisation of classical music was detrimental to the music industry?

**Question 2**

Why was the commercialisation of classical music detrimental to the music industry, according to Shawn Vancour?

**Text number 57**

In many works from the golden age of animation, action and classical music go hand in hand. Notable examples include Walt Disney's Fantasia, Tom and Jerry's Johann Mouse and Warner Bros' Rabbit of Seville and What's Opera, Doc?.

**Question 0**

Works from the golden age of music respond to what?

**Question 1**

Who produced Fantasia?

**Question 2**

Who starred in the film Johann Mouse?

**Question 3**

Who produced the rabbit in Seville?

**Question 4**

Who produced What's Opera, Doc?

**Text number 58**

Similarly, in films and television, clichéd standard pieces of classical music are often used to convey sophistication or luxury: this category includes the most frequently heard Bach Cello Suite No 1, Mozart's Eine kleine Nachtmusik, Vivaldi's Four Seasons, Mussorgsky's Night on Bald Mountain (orchestrated by Rimsky-Korsakov) and Rossini's William Tell overture.

**Question 0**

What does classical music convey in film and television?

**Question 1**

Which Vivaldi piece is used as a cliché to convey opulence?

**Question 2**

Which Mozart piece is used as a cliché to convey sophistication?

**Question 3**

Who wrote William Tell Overture?

**Question 4**

Who wrote Night on Bald Mountain?

**Text number 59**

However, a written score does not usually contain explicit instructions on how the work should be interpreted in terms of production or performance, except for instructions on dynamics, tempo and expression (to some extent). This is left to the discretion of the performers, who are guided by their personal experience and musical training, their knowledge of the idiom of the work, their personal artistic taste and the body of historical performance practice.

**Question 0**

What is not usually explicitly mentioned in a written score?

**Question 1**

Who is left to interpret the written scores?

**Question 2**

What can performers use their knowledge to interpret a written score?

**Text number 60**

Some critics argue that it was only in the mid-19th century and especially in the 20th century that the score began to play such an important role. Earlier, improvisation (in preludes, cadenzas and ornaments), rhythmic flexibility (e.g. tempo rubato), improvisational deviation from the score and oral playing technique were an essential part of the style. However, in the 20th century this oral tradition and the shift of stylistic features within classical music disappeared. Instead, musicians tended to play music according to the score alone. Although the score contains the essential elements of the music, there is considerable controversy about the way the works are performed. Part of the controversy is that this score-centred approach has led to performances that emphasise metrically rigorous block rhythms (just as the music is marked on the score).

**Question 0**

Improvisation is essential before what took on great significance?

**Question 1**

When did the oral tradition disappear?

**Question 2**

There is still controversy over how the works are performed, even though the results offer what?

**Question 3**

The point-based approach places a strict emphasis on what?

**Text number 61**

Improvisation once played an important role in classical music. A remnant of this improvisational tradition in classical music is the cadenza, which is usually a snippet of concertos and solo works designed to give skilled players a chance to show off their virtuosic skills on the instrument. Traditionally, this passage is improvised by the performer, but often it is written for the performer (or sometimes by the performer) beforehand. Improvisation is also an important part of the authentic performance of Baroque operas and bel cantos (especially those of Vincenzo Bellini), and is best exemplified by the da capo aria, a form in which famous singers typically perform variations on the thematic material of the aria in the recapitulation section ("B part"/"da capo" part). An example is Beverly Sills' complex, albeit pre-written, variation on Da tempeste il legno infraanto from Handel's Giulio Cesare.

**Question 0**

What played an important role in classical music in the past?

**Question 1**

Where can you find a remnant of the improvisation tradition?

**Question 2**

What can solo artists perform during cadenza?

**Question 3**

What kind of performances of Baroque opera require improvisation?

**Question 4**

An example of improvisation in opera is Beverly Sills' variation on which part of Handel's Giulio Cesare?

**Text number 62**

Certain basic pieces of classical music are often used commercially (either in advertising or in film soundtracks). In television commercials, several passages have become clichéd, notably the opening of Richard Strauss' Also sprach Zarathustra (made famous in the film 2001: A Space Odyssey) and the opening 'O Fortuna' of Carl Orff's Carmina Burana, which is often used in horror genres; other examples include the Dies Irae from Verdi's Requiem, Edvard Grieg's In the Chamber of the Moor from Peer Gynt, the opening bars of Beethoven's Symphony No 2 and the opening bars of Beethoven's Symphony No 2. 5, Wagner's Ride of the Valkyries from Die Walküre, Rimsky-Korsakov's Flight of the Bumblebee and excerpts from Aaron Copland's Rodeo.

**Question 0**

How are classical music staples often used?

**Question 1**

Where have the TV commercials using Richard Strauss' Also sprach Zarathustra come from?

**Question 2**

Which work is often used in horror genre?

**Question 3**

Who wrote Ride of the Valkyries?

**Question 4**

Who wrote in the hall of the Mountain King?

**Text number 63**

Composers of classical music have often used folk music (music created by musicians who are not usually classically trained and often from a purely oral tradition). Some composers, such as Dvořák and Smetana, have used folk music themes to give their works a nationalistic flavour, while others, such as Bartók, have used specific themes drawn entirely from folk music sources.

**Question 0**

Folk musicians are generally not what?

**Question 1**

What kind of music comes from people trained in the oral tradition in general?

**Question 2**

What themes has Dovrak used to give it a nationalistic flavour?

**Question 3**

Who used themes taken from folk music?

**Text number 64**

Its literary transmission and respect for certain classical works has led to performers being expected to play a work in such a way that it realises in detail the composer's original intentions.In the 19th century, the number of details that composers wrote into their scores generally increased. However, the opposite trend - performers' admiration for new 'interpretations' of the composer's work - is also evident, and it is not unknown for a composer to praise a performer for having realised the original intention better than the composer could have imagined. Thus performers of classical music often achieve a high reputation for their musicianship, even if they do not themselves compose. However, composers are generally more remembered than performers.

**Question 0**

How are performers expected to play for the written transmission of a work?

**Question 1**

When did composers increase the amount of detail they wrote into their scores?

**Question 2**

Performers' admiration for new interpretations is evident when composers feel that the performer has achieved what?

**Question 3**

What do classical performers often achieve?

**Text number 65**

The primacy of the score written by the composer has also led to a relatively limited role for improvisation in classical music today, in sharp contrast to the practices of musicians of the Baroque, Classical and Romantic eras. Improvisation in the performance of classical music was common in both the Baroque and early Romantic periods, but declined sharply in the second half of the 19th century and in the 20th century. During the Classical period, Mozart and Beethoven often improvised the cadenzas of their piano concertos (and thus encouraged others to do so), but they also provided written cadenzas for other soloists. In opera, the practice of singing strictly according to the score, or come scritto, was famously popularised by soprano Maria Callas, who called it the 'straitjacket practice', suggesting that it helped to better understand the composer's intention, especially when studying music for the first time.

**Question 0**

When was improvisation common in classical music performances?

**Question 1**

When did improvisation start to decline sharply?

**Question 2**

What parts did Mozart and Beethoven often improvise?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the practice of singing strictly according to the score in opera?

**Question 4**

Who strongly assumes ome scritto?

**Text number 66**

Classical music often incorporates elements or material from popular music of the composer's era. Examples include incidental music such as Brahms' use of student drinking songs in his Academic Festive Overture, the genres represented in Kurt Weill's Three Penny Opera, and the influence of jazz on early and mid-20th century composers such as Maurice Ravel, exemplified by the 'Blues' section of his Sonata for Violin and Piano. Certain postmodern, minimalist and post-minimalist classical composers acknowledge their debt to popular music.

**Question 0**

Composer-era popular music was an incorporation of what?

**Question 1**

What did Brahms once use in his festive overtures at the Academy?

**Question 2**

What kind of music influenced Maurice Ravel?

**Question 3**

Who wrote the opera Three Penny Opera?

**Question 4**

To what kind of music do certain composers acknowledge their debt?

**Text number 67**

Numerous examples show that the effect has been the opposite, such as popular songs based on classical music, the use of the Pachelbel canon since the 1970s, and the musical crossover phenomenon where classical musicians have achieved success in the popular music scene. In heavy metal, several (electric guitar) guitarists, such as Ritchie Blackmore and Randy Rhoads, have modelled their playing style on instrumental music from the Baroque or classical periods.

**Question 0**

Pachelbel's canon has influenced popular songs since what decade?

**Question 1**

What is the phenomenon that makes classical musicians successful in popular music?

**Question 2**

Which modern musical style can be seen to have influenced music from the Baroque or Classical periods?

**Question 3**

Ritchie Blackmore and Randy Rhoads play what instrument?

**Document number 73**

**Text number 0**

The Slavs are the largest Indo-European ethno-linguistic group in Europe. They live in Central Europe, Eastern Europe, South-Eastern Europe, Northern Asia and Central Asia. Slavs speak Indo-European Slavic languages and share varying degrees of common cultural features and historical backgrounds. From the early sixth century onwards, Slavs spread to populate most of Central and Eastern Europe and South-Eastern Europe, while Slav mercenaries fighting on the Byzantine and Arab sides populated Asia Minor and even Syria. Eastern Slavs populated Siberia and Central Asia. [better source] Today, more than half of Europe is inhabited by Slavic-speaking communities, but all Slavs have migrated to other continents.

**Question 0**

What is the largest Indo-European ethno-linguistic group in Europe?

**Question 1**

In which regions of the world do Slavs live?

**Question 2**

What did the eastern Slavs inhabit?

**Question 3**

How much of Europe is inhabited by Slavic-speaking communities?

**Question 4**

Where did the Slavic mercenaries settle?

**Question 5**

What is the largest ethnic group in North Asia?

**Question 6**

Who fought the Byzantines?

**Question 7**

What were the Slavic mercenaries inhabiting?

**Question 8**

Who colonised the Arabs?

**Question 9**

How much of Central Asia is inhabited by Slavic-speaking communities?

**Text number 1**

Today's Slavs are classified as Western Slavs (mainly Poles, Czechs and Slovaks), Eastern Slavs (mainly Russians, Belarusians and Ukrainians) and Southern Slavs (mainly Serbs, Bulgarians, Croats, Bosniaks, Macedonians, Slovenes and Montenegrins), although sometimes Western and Eastern Slavs are combined into a single group called Northern Slavs. For a more comprehensive list, see Ethnocultural subdivisions. Modern Slavic peoples and ethnic groups are very diverse, both genetically and culturally, and relations between them - even within individual ethnic groups - are variable, ranging from a sense of belonging to mutual hostility.

**Question 0**

What nationalities are Western Slavs made up of?

**Question 1**

What nationalities are the East Slavs made up of?

**Question 2**

What are the nationalities of the South Slavs?

**Question 3**

Western and Eastern Slavs are sometimes combined into one group, called what?

**Question 4**

Are the northern slaves made up of southern slaves and what other slaves?

**Question 5**

Which two other groups make up the coherent group of Southern Slavs?

**Question 6**

What forms of diversity have been lost in modern nations?

**Question 7**

Who is always hostile?

**Text number 2**

The Slavic autonym has been reconstructed as protoslav \*Slověninъ, plural \*Slověne. The oldest documents written in Old Church Slavonic, dating from the 9th century, mention Словѣне Slověne as the name for the Slavs. Other early Slavic evidence includes the Old East Slavic Словѣнѣ Slověně 'East Slavic group near Novgorod'. However, the earliest written references to Slavs by this name are in other languages. Procopius, writing in Byzantine Greek, refers in the 6th century AD to Σκλάβοι Sklaboi, Σκλαβηνοί Sklabēnoi, Σκλαυηνοί Sklauenoi, Σθλαβηνοί Sthlabenoi or Σκλαβῖνοι Sklabinoi, while his contemporary Jordanes refers to the Sclaveni in Latin.

**Question 0**

\*Slověninъ, plural \*Slověne, is a Slavic autonym reconstructed with what?

**Question 1**

In which language were the old documents describing the 9th century Slavs written?

**Question 2**

Who wrote about the Slavs in Byzantine Greek in the 6th century?

**Question 3**

In what language did Jordanes of Procopius' time speak about the Slavs?

**Question 4**

What is the plural form of Slavic?

**Question 5**

Which author wrote in the old Church Slavonic language?

**Question 6**

In which century were the Slavs called "an Eastern Slavic group near Novgorod"?

**Question 7**

When did Procopius write in Latin about the Sclavenians?

**Text number 3**

The Slavic autonym \*Slověninъ is usually considered (e.g. according to Roman Jakobson) to be a derivative of the word slovo "word", which originally meant "people who speak (the same language)", i.e. people who understand each other, as opposed to the Slavic word meaning "foreign people" - němci, which meant "muttering, muttering people" (from Slavic \*němъ - "muttering, mute").

**Question 0**

What is the Slavic word for "people speaking the same language"?

**Question 1**

What is the Slavic word for "foreign people"?

**Question 2**

Who considered \*Slověninъ do to be a derivative of Slovo?

**Question 3**

Who invented the Slavic nickname?

**Question 4**

Where does slovo come from?

**Question 5**

What word did Roman Jakobson use when he called Slavs foreigners?

**Question 6**

What word did Jackobson use to mean mute?

**Text number 4**

The word slovo ("word") and the related slava ("reputation") and slukh ("hearing") are derived from the Proto-Indo-European root \*ḱlew- ("to be spoken of, reputation"), which is related to the Ancient Greek κλῆς (klês - "famous"), hence the name Pericles, and the Latin clueo ("to call") and English loud.

**Question 0**

Slovo, slava and slukh all come from what proto-Indo-European root?

**Question 1**

Which famous name was influenced by the ancient Greek κλῆς (klês - "famous")?

**Question 2**

Which three words are derived from the Proto-Indo-European root \*ḱlew- ("to be spoken of, famous")?

**Question 3**

What does the Latin word "klew" mean?

**Question 4**

What is the Latin word for famous?

**Question 5**

Where does the word "klew" come from?

**Question 6**

What is the root word for Pericles?

**Question 7**

What is the Slavic word for "loud"?

**Text number 5**

The English word slav could be derived from the medieval English word sclave, borrowed from the medieval Latin sclavus or slavus, itself a loan, and the Byzantine Greek σκλάβος sklábos "slave", itself apparently derived from a misunderstanding of the Slavic autonym (which meant a speaker of his own language). Medieval Arab historians borrowed the Byzantine term sklavinoi from Arabic as Saqaliba صقالبة (sing. Saqlabi صقلبي). The origin of this word, however, is disputed.

**Question 0**

The word slav could come from which Central European word?

**Question 1**

Which Byzantine term's origin is disputed?

**Question 2**

Byzantine Greek σκλάβος sklábos "slave", which in turn was apparently derived from what?

**Question 3**

Who borrowed the Byzantine term Sklavinoi from Arabic as Saqaliba?

**Question 4**

Where does the English word "sclave" come from?

**Question 5**

Which Latin word was the misunderstanding?

**Question 6**

Which word was borrowed from Arabic?

**Question 7**

Who disputes the origin of the word Saqaliba?

**Question 8**

Which nationality borrowed the word "Saqaliba"?

**Text number 6**

Alternative proposals for the etymology of \*Slověnin' put forward by some researchers are much less supported. Lozinski argues that the word \*slava once had the meaning of worshipper, which in this context meant 'practitioner of the common Slavic religion', and evolved into an ethnonym. S.B. Bernstein suggests that it derives from the reconstructed Proto-Indo-European word \*(s)lawos, related to the ancient Greek λαός laós "population, people", which itself has no generally accepted etymology. On the other hand, others have pointed out that the suffix -enin refers to a man from a particular place, which in this case should be a place called Slova or Slava, possibly the name of a river. Henrich Bartek 1907(-1986) argued that the old East Slavic name for the Dnieper River, Slavuta, is of Slavic origin and also of Slovenian origin.

**Question 0**

Who claims that the word \*slava once meant worshipper?

**Question 1**

Who speculates that \*slava derives from the reconstructed Proto-Indo-European \*(s)lawos?

**Question 2**

Suffix -enin means what?

**Question 3**

Who claimed that the old Eastern Slavic Slavuta, meaning the Dnieper River, is derived from Slav?

**Question 4**

Who said that Slavic evolved from ethnonymy?

**Question 5**

What was the name of the scientist who suggested that Slova could be the name of a river?

**Question 6**

When was SB Bernstein born?

**Question 7**

When did Bartek claim that the Dnieper River was of Slovene origin?

**Question 8**

Which suffix indicates the name of the river?

**Text number 7**

The earliest mention of Slavic incursions across the lower Danube can be dated to the first half of the 6th century AD, but no archaeological evidence of Slavic settlement in the Balkans can be dated with certainty before about 600 AD.

**Question 0**

The earliest records of Slavic invasions are across which river?

**Question 1**

The earliest mentions of what can be dated to the first half of the 6th century?

**Question 2**

There is no archaeological evidence of Slavic settlement in the Balkans that can be dated with certainty before when?

**Question 3**

There is no evidence of Slavic settlement before about 600 AD?

**Question 4**

When did the Slavs raid the Danube?

**Question 5**

When was archaeological evidence of Slavic settlements first discovered?

**Question 6**

After which year is all archaeological evidence of the Slavs dated?

**Question 7**

Who attacked the Slavs?

**Text number 8**

The Slavs, known as Antes and Sclaveni, first appear in Byzantine records in the early 6th century. Byzantine historians of the reign of Justinian I (527-565), such as Procopius of Caesarea, Jordanes and Theophylact Simocatta, describe tribes of these names who emerged from the Carpathian, lower Danube and Black Sea regions and invaded the Danubian provinces of the Eastern Empire.

**Question 0**

When do Slavs first appear in the Byzantine books?

**Question 1**

Under what name did the Slavs appear at the beginning of the 6th century?

**Question 2**

According to Byzantine historians, Slavic tribes originated from which regions?

**Question 3**

Which provinces of the Eastern Empire were invaded by Slavic tribes?

**Question 4**

During whose reign did Byzantine historians describe the Slavic tribes?

**Question 5**

When will the Byzantine recordings start?

**Question 6**

When did Procopius of Caesarea live?

**Question 7**

Where was Jordanes from?

**Question 8**

What was Byzantium's middle name?

**Question 9**

From which mountains did the Byzantines come?

**Text number 9**

Procopius wrote that 545 "Sclavene and Antae actually had one name in the distant past, for they were both called Spores in ancient times. "He describes their social structure and beliefs:

**Question 0**

Who wrote in 545 that "Sclavene and Antae actually had the same name in the distant past, for both were called Spori in ancient times"?"?

**Question 1**

When did Prokopios write that "Sclavene and Antae actually had one name in the distant past, as both were called Spore in ancient times"?"?

**Question 2**

Procopius said that Sclaveni and Antae were both called what?

**Question 3**

What does Procopius describe in his writings about the Sclavenians and the Antaeans?

**Question 4**

Who did Procopius write about in 545?

**Question 5**

Who used to call the area Sclaveni Spori in the old days?

**Question 6**

What year were Sclaveni and Antae called Spor?

**Question 7**

What were Sclaveni and Spori once called?

**Question 8**

What did Procopius write about in ancient times?

**Question 9**

What did Spori describe in 545?

**Text number 10**

Jordanes says that the slaves had swamps and forests for their towns. Another 6th century source tells us that they lived in almost impenetrable forests, rivers, lakes and swamps.

**Question 0**

Who will tell us that the Sclavene had swamps and forests for their cities?

**Question 1**

Who had swamps and forests for their cities?

**Question 2**

A 6th century source refers to Sclaveni living where?

**Question 3**

Who wrote that the Sclavens lived in impenetrable forests?

**Question 4**

Where did Jordanes live?

**Question 5**

Who could not penetrate the forests and rivers?

**Question 6**

When did Sclaveni live in the swamp?

**Text number 11**

The Menander Protector mentions Daurentius (577-579), who killed the Khagan Bayan I's ambassador to Avaru. The Avars asked the Slavs to accept the Avars' sovereignty, but he refused, and is reported to have said: 'Others do not conquer our land, we conquer theirs - and so it will always be for us'.

**Question 0**

Who mentions Daurentius (577-579), who killed an alien envoy of Khagan Bayan I?

**Question 1**

Who killed the ambassador of Khagan Bayan I?

**Question 2**

The Slavs were asked to accept the sovereignty of whom?

**Question 3**

Who said: "Others do not conquer our land, we conquer their land - and so it will always be for us"?

**Question 4**

Whose messenger did Daurentius slaughter?

**Question 5**

When did Protector live?

**Question 6**

What kind of ambassador did Khagan Bayan I destroy?

**Question 7**

Who did the Slavs ask to accept their autocracy?

**Question 8**

What did the Protector say about conquering the land?

**Question 9**

Who did the ambassador of the Avars slaughter?

**Text number 12**

There is no certainty about the relationship between the Slavs and the Venetian tribe east of the Vistula River in Roman times. The name may refer to both the Balts and the Slavs.

**Question 0**

Who was the uneasy relationship between the Slavs and whom?

**Question 1**

Where was the Veneti tribe located?

**Question 2**

Which name can refer to both Balts and Slavs?

**Question 3**

When was the relationship between Slavs and Venetians insecure?

**Question 4**

Where were the Slavs from in the East?

**Question 5**

With whom did the Baltic people have an unpleasant relationship?

**Question 6**

Which tribe was east of the Slavs?

**Question 7**

What was the Roman period referring to?

**Text number 13**

According to the Eastern Indigenous Theory, before the Romans became aware of them, Slavic-speaking tribes were part of the many multi-ethnic federations of Eurasia, such as the Sarmatian, Hun and Gothic empires. The Slavs emerged from obscurity with the westward migration of the Germanic peoples in the 5th and 6th centuries AD. (believed to have occurred in conjunction with the migration of peoples from Siberia and Eastern Europe - the Huns and later the Avars and Bulgars) triggered a great migration of Slavs, who settled on lands abandoned by the Germanic tribes fleeing from the Huns and their allies: west to the land between the Oder and the Elbe-Saale rivers, south to Bohemia, Moravia, most of present-day Austria, the Pannonian plain and the Balkans, and north along the upper Dnieper. Perhaps some Slavs migrated with the Vandals to Iberia and North Africa.

**Question 0**

What were the Slavic-speaking tribes before they came to the attention of the Romans?

**Question 1**

What were the Eurasian multinational federations?

**Question 2**

Who started the great migration of Slavs?

**Question 3**

Where did some Slavs move to with the vandals?

**Question 4**

Who were the Germanic tribes fleeing?

**Question 5**

Which empires were part of the Roman world?

**Question 6**

When did the Sarmatians move west?

**Question 7**

Who settled in areas abandoned by the Slavs?

**Question 8**

Who fled the Germans?

**Question 9**

According to which theory were Slavic tribes unknown to the Roman world?

**Text number 14**

Around the 6th century the Slavs appeared on the Byzantine frontiers in large numbers.[page needed] Byzantine records state that the grass did not grow again in the places through which the Slavs had marched, so great were their numbers. After the military movement, even in the Peloponnese and Asia Minor, Slav settlements were reported to have been established. This southern movement has traditionally been regarded as an invasion movement. By the end of the sixth century, the Slavs had settled the eastern Alpine regions.

**Question 0**

When did the Slavs appear on the Byzantine frontiers?

**Question 1**

On whose borders did the Slavs appear around the 6th century?

**Question 2**

Where else have Slavic settlements been reported?

**Question 3**

Where had the Slavs settled by the end of the 6th century?

**Question 4**

When were the eastern Alps settled by the Slavs?

**Question 5**

When did the Peloponnese appear on the Byzantine frontier?

**Question 6**

What could the Slavic writers not grow after their presence?

**Question 7**

Where did the Slave settle in the early 6th century?

**Question 8**

How has the southern movement of the Byzantine Empire been understood?

**Question 9**

Where did the Peloponnese appear at the beginning of the 6th century?

**Text number 15**

When their migration ended, the first state organisations emerged among the Slavs, led by a prince with a treasury and a defence force. In addition, class distinctions were beginning to emerge, and nobles pledged allegiance to either the Frankish/Holy Roman emperors or the Byzantine emperors.

**Question 0**

What happened among the Slavs when their migrations came to an end?

**Question 1**

When did the first beginnings of state organisations appear among the Slavs?

**Question 2**

Who led the early state organisations?

**Question 3**

To whom did the people of Iloslaavos pledge allegiance?

**Question 4**

To whom did the Byzantine emperors swear allegiance?

**Question 5**

What is another name for the Byzantine emperors?

**Question 6**

Where did the start of the class distinction end?

**Question 7**

Who led the Frankish Empire?

**Question 8**

What two things did each nobleman have?

**Text number 16**

In the seventh century, Samos, a Frankish merchant who supported the Slavs in their struggle against their Avar rulers, became the ruler of the first known Slavic state in central Europe, though it is unlikely to have outlived its founder and ruler. This laid the foundations for the later Slavic states that emerged on the former territory of this empire, Karantania being the oldest. The Principality of Nitra and the Principality of Moravia (see section on Greater Moravia) are also very old. At this time, there were Central Slavic groups and states, such as the Principality of Balaton, but the later expansion of the Magyar lands and the Germanisation of Austria separated the northern and southern Slavs. The first Bulgarian empire was founded in 681, while the Slavic language Old Bulgarian became the main and official language of the kingdom in 864. Bulgaria played a key role in spreading Slavic literacy and Christianity to the rest of the Slavic world.

**Question 0**

When did Samo become the ruler of the first known Slavic state?

**Question 1**

Which Frankish merchant was the ruler of the first Slavic state in Central Europe?

**Question 2**

What is the oldest Slavic state in Central Europe?

**Question 3**

When was the first Bulgarian kingdom founded?

**Question 4**

Bulgaria was a key player in the spread of which species to the rest of the Slavic world?

**Question 5**

Who supported the Avar rulers?

**Question 6**

What lived after the first Slavic ruler?

**Question 7**

Where was the first known Avar state?

**Question 8**

What became the official language of the kingdom in 681?

**Question 9**

When was Carantania founded?

**Text number 17**

In 1878, there were only three free Slavic states in the world: the Russian Empire and Serbia and Montenegro. Bulgaria was also free, but it was a de jure vassal of the Ottoman Empire until it officially declared independence in 1908. The Slavic peoples, most of whom had been denied a voice in the affairs of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, demanded national self-determination. During the First World War, representatives of Czechs, Slovaks, Poles, Serbs, Croats and Slovenes set up organisations in the Allied countries to gain sympathy and recognition. After the end of the First World War in 1918, Slavs established independent states such as Czechoslovakia, the Second Republic of Poland, Slovenia, Croatia and Serbia.

**Question 0**

What were the three free Slavic states in the world in 1878?

**Question 1**

When were the Russian Empire, Serbia and Montenegro the only free Slavic countries in the world?

**Question 2**

Whose independence was officially declared in 1908?

**Question 3**

When were independent states such as Czechoslovakia, the Second Republic of Poland and the states of Slovenia, Croatia and Serbia founded?

**Question 4**

What was Serbia's de jure vassal in 1878?

**Question 5**

When was Montenegro's independence declared?

**Question 6**

How many people were there in the Ottoman Empire?

**Question 7**

Which ended in 1878?

**Question 8**

How many Slavs lived in Czechoslovakia?

**Text number 18**

During World War II, Hitler's Generalplan Ost (General Plan East) meant killing, deporting or enslaving the Slavic and Jewish populations of occupied Eastern Europe to create Lebensraum (living space) for German settlers. The Nazi Hunger Plan and General Plan Ost would have led to the starvation to death of 80 million people in the Soviet Union. These plans, partially implemented, resulted in the deaths of an estimated 19.3 million civilians and prisoners of war.

**Question 0**

Whose plan for the East involved killing, deporting or enslaving Slavs?

**Question 1**

What would have led to 80 million people starving to death in the Soviet Union?

**Question 2**

How many people were killed and imprisoned as a result of the Nazi hunger plan and Generalplan Ost?

**Question 3**

What is the German word for dwelling?

**Question 4**

How many prisoners of war had to die because of the starvation plan?

**Question 5**

Who planned the deportation of German immigrants?

**Question 6**

In which country did 80 million people die?

**Question 7**

What is the Slavic word for living space?

**Question 8**

What plans led to 80 million people going hungry?

**Text number 19**

In Russia and the Soviet Union, the first half of the 20th century was marked by a series of wars, famines and other disasters, each of which was accompanied by large population losses. Stephen J. Lee estimates that by the end of World War II in 1945, Russia's population was about 90 million less than it might otherwise have been.

**Question 0**

What characterised the first half of the 20th century in Russia and the Soviet Union?

**Question 1**

Who estimated that Russia's population was 90 million less than it might have been in 1945?

**Question 2**

When was Russia's population estimated to be about 90 million less than it could have been?

**Question 3**

What was the period at the turn of the 20th century marked by a series of wars, famines and other disasters?

**Question 4**

When did Stephen J. Lee make his estimate of the population of Russia?

**Question 5**

How many people were killed by famine in Russia?

**Question 6**

With whom did Russia fight in the first half of the 20th century?

**Question 7**

Who ended the war in 1945?

**Question 8**

What is Stephen J. Lee's nationality?

**Text number 20**

Because the area inhabited by the Slavs was vast and diverse, there were several centres of Slavic consolidation. In the 19th century, Pan-Slavism developed as a movement of intellectuals, scholars and poets, but it rarely influenced practical politics and did not gain support in some Slavic nations. Panslavism was compromised when the Russian Empire began to use it as an ideology to justify its territorial expansion in Central Europe and the subjugation of other Slavic ethnic groups, such as Poles and Ukrainians, and the ideology became associated with Russian imperialism. The common Slavic experience of communism, combined with the repeated use of ideology in Soviet propaganda after World War II in the Eastern Bloc (Warsaw Pact), was the imposed high-level political and economic hegemony of the Soviet Union, dominated by the Russians. A major 20th century political alliance covering most of the southern Slavs was Yugoslavia, but it eventually disintegrated in the 1990s along with the Soviet Union.

**Question 0**

When did panslavism develop as a movement?

**Question 1**

Panslavism was endangered when which empire began to use it as an ideology to justify its territorial expansion?

**Question 2**

How did the Russian Empire justify its territorial expansion?

**Question 3**

Which major political alliance of the 20th century covered most of the Southern Slavs?

**Question 4**

When did Yugoslavia break up?

**Question 5**

What influenced the practical policy?

**Question 6**

When did the Russian Empire create panslavism?

**Question 7**

What did Central Europe start to conquer?

**Question 8**

What emerged in the 1990s?

**Question 9**

Who were the Poles oppressing?

**Text number 21**

The word "Slavs" was used in the national anthems of the Slovak Republic (1939-1945), Yugoslavia (1943-1992) and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (1992-2003), then Serbia and Montenegro (2003-2006).

**Question 0**

When was the word "Slavs" used in the national anthem of the Slovak Republic?

**Question 1**

When was the word "Slavs" used in the Yugoslav national anthem?

**Question 2**

When was the word "Slavs" used in the national anthem of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia?

**Question 3**

When was the word "Slavs" used in the national song of Serbia and Montenegro?

**Question 4**

When were Slavs used in the Yugoslav and Montenegrin anthems?

**Question 5**

Which word was removed from the national anthem of the Slovak Republic in 1939?

**Question 6**

Which country stopped using the word Slavs in 1943?

**Question 7**

When did the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia become Yugoslavia?

**Text number 22**

The former Soviet states and countries that were once Warsaw Pact satellite states or territories have numerous Slavic minority populations, many of them originally from the Russian SSR, the Ukrainian SSR and the Belarusian SSR. Currently, Kazakhstan has the largest Slavic minority population, the majority of whom are Russian (there are also Ukrainians, Belarusians and Poles, but to a much lesser extent).

**Question 0**

Many of the Slavic populations that were part of the Warsaw Pact originally came from where?

**Question 1**

What is the largest Slavic minority?

**Question 2**

Where is the largest Slavic minority located?

**Question 3**

What other Slavic minorities are there in Kazakhstan?

**Question 4**

Which country has the largest Ukrainian population?

**Question 5**

What was the Warsaw Pact originally part of?

**Question 6**

What is the largest population in Kazakhstan?

**Question 7**

What is an example of a satellite state?

**Question 8**

What is the smallest minority in Kazakhstan?

**Text number 23**

Panslavism, a movement that emerged in the mid-19th century, emphasised the common heritage and unity of all Slavic peoples. The main focus was on the Balkans, where southern Slavs had been ruled for centuries by other empires: the Byzantine Empire, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and Venice. The Russian Empire used pan-Slavism as a political tool, as did the Soviet Union, which gained politico-military influence and control over most of the Slavic majority peoples between 1945 and 1948 and maintained its hegemonic role until 1989-1991.

**Question 0**

What movement emerged in the mid-19th century that emphasised the common heritage and unity of all Slavic peoples?

**Question 1**

What was the focus of pan-Slavism?

**Question 2**

Who used panslavism as a political tool?

**Question 3**

When did the Soviet Union gain political-military influence and control over most of the Slavic majority nations?

**Question 4**

How long did the Soviet Union maintain its hegemonic position?

**Question 5**

Who was ruled by the southern slaves?

**Question 6**

When did Venice gain power over the Slavic peoples?

**Question 7**

What role did the Slavic peoples play between 1989 and 1991?

**Question 8**

Which region was the first to use panslavism as a political tool?

**Question 9**

What did Austria-Hungary use panslavism for?

**Text number 24**

Slavic studies began almost exclusively as a linguistic and philological study. As early as 1833, the Slavic languages were recognised as Indo-European languages.

**Question 0**

What began as an almost exclusively linguistic and philological enterprise?

**Question 1**

When were the Slavic languages recognised as Indo-European?

**Question 2**

Which languages were recognised as Indo-European?

**Question 3**

In 1833, the Slavic languages were recognised as what?

**Question 4**

When did Slavicism become a linguistic study?

**Question 5**

What kind of Indo-European studies were recognised as Indo-European studies?

**Question 6**

Where did Indo-European research begin?

**Question 7**

What were recognised as Slavic languages?

**Question 8**

When did linguistic research start?

**Text number 25**

Standard Slavonic languages that are official in at least one country: Belarus, Bosnia, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Macedonia, Montenegro, Poland, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia and Ukraine. The alphabet depends on the customary religion of each Slavic ethnic group. Orthodox use the Cyrillic alphabet, Roman Catholics use the Latin alphabet, and Bosniaks, who are Muslims, also use the Latin alphabet. However, only a few Greco-Roman and Roman Catholics use the Cyrillic alphabet. The Serbian language and the Montenegrin language use both the Cyrillic and Latin alphabets. The Belarusian language also uses a Latin alphabet called the Lacinka alphabet.

**Question 0**

What depends on which religion is customary for each Slavic ethnic group?

**Question 1**

Who uses the Cyrillic alphabet?

**Question 2**

Who uses the Latin alphabet?

**Question 3**

Who else besides Roman Catholics use Latin?

**Question 4**

What is the Latin spelling in Belarusian?

**Question 5**

What is dependent on the alphabet?

**Question 6**

What is the name of the Latin script used by Muslims?

**Question 7**

What do most Greek Romans use?

**Question 8**

What language do Ukrainians speak?

**Question 9**

In which language is the Cyrillic alphabet called Lacinka used?

**Text number 26**

Protoslavic, the supposed ancestor of all Slavic languages, is a descendant of the common Proto-Indo-European language through the Baltic Slavic phase, where it developed numerous lexical and morphophonological isoglosses with the Baltic languages. According to the Kurgan hypothesis, 'the Indo-Europeans who remained after the [Aryan] migrations became speakers of the Baltic Slavic language'.

**Question 0**

What is the supposed ancestor of all Slavic languages?

**Question 1**

With which languages did Proto-Slavic develop numerous lexical and morphophonological isoglosses?

**Question 2**

Which language did the Indo-Europeans who remained after the migrations become speakers of?

**Question 3**

Who became the speakers of the Baltic Slavic language?

**Question 4**

A Protoslavite is a descendant of what?

**Question 5**

Where does the Proto-Indo-European language come from?

**Question 6**

How did Proto-Slavic become the ancestor of all Slavic languages?

**Question 7**

What did Proto-Indo-European form with the Baltic languages?

**Question 8**

Which suggests that the Indo-Europeans who migrated became speakers of Baltic Slavic?

**Text number 27**

The Protoslav language, sometimes also called General Slavic or Late Proto-Slavic, is defined as the last phase of the language before the geographical division of the historical Slavic languages. The language was homogeneous and, on the basis of borrowings from foreign languages and Slavic translations into other languages, it cannot be said to have had recognisable dialects, suggesting a relatively compact homeland. Slavic linguistic unity was still reflected to some extent in the old Church Slavonic manuscripts, which, although based on the local Slavic speech of Thessaloniki, may still have served as the first common Slavic written language.

**Question 0**

Protoslave is sometimes called what?

**Question 1**

What is defined as the last phase of the language before the geographical division of the historical Slavic languages?

**Question 2**

The old Church Slavonic manuscripts were based on local Slavonic speech, what?

**Question 3**

What else could serve the purpose of the first common Slavic written language?

**Question 4**

What is another term for the old Church Slavonic language?

**Question 5**

What was the name of the language after the geographical division?

**Question 6**

What was the Protoslavic language with several recognisable variants?

**Question 7**

What language was influenced by the old Church Slavonic language?

**Question 8**

What is the first example of Thessaloniki?

**Text number 28**

Pagan Slavic populations were Christianised between the 6th and 10th centuries. Orthodox Christianity is predominant among eastern and southern Slavs, while Roman Catholicism is predominant among western Slavs and western southern Slavs. Religious boundaries are largely comparable to those of the East-West-Scandinavia, which began in the 1100s. The majority of contemporary Slavs who profess a religion are Orthodox and Catholic, while a small minority are Protestant. There are small groups of Slavic Muslims. Religious boundaries by nationality can be very sharp; in general, in Slavic ethnic groups, the majority of religious people share the same religion. Some Slavs are atheists or agnostics: only 19% of Czechs professed to believe in a god or gods in the 2005 Eurobarometer survey.

**Question 0**

When were the pagan Slavic populations Christianised?

**Question 1**

Which religion is predominant among the people of Eastern and Southern Slavs?

**Question 2**

Which religion is predominant among Western and Southern Slavs?

**Question 3**

When did the East-West schism start?

**Question 4**

What is the majority of modern Slavic populations that profess a religion?

**Question 5**

Which schism started in the 10th century?

**Question 6**

Which population groups are Muslims in the majority?

**Question 7**

What percentage of Slavs are atheists?

**Question 8**

When did Slavic populations become more atheistic?

**Question 9**

In which nationalities is the Protestant religion common?

**Text number 29**

Slavs are usually divided along geographical lines into three broad subgroups: each with a different and diverse background, based on the unique history, religion and culture of specific Slavic groups within them. In addition to prehistoric archaeological cultures, the subgroups have had significant cultural contacts with non-Slavic Bronze and Iron Age civilisations.

**Question 0**

Who is usually divided by geographical boundaries into three broad sub-groups?

**Question 1**

What are the three main subgroups of Slavs?

**Question 2**

With which civilisations have Slavic subgroups had significant cultural contacts?

**Question 3**

How many groups are the non-Slavic Bronze Age civilisations divided into?

**Question 4**

How is the subgroup of Western Slavs divided?

**Question 5**

Which group did the Slavs largely avoid?

**Question 6**

What do all subgroups have in common?

**Text number 30**

^1 Also considered part of the Russian^2  
Considered a transitional period for Ukrainians and Belarusians  
  
  
ethnic affiliation of the Lemkos   
  
has become an ideological conflict. It has been argued that among Lemkos, the idea of a "Carpatho-Ruthenian" nation is supported only by Lemkos living in Transcarpathia and abroad^4   
Most of the inhabitants of historical Moravia considered themselves Czechs, but a significant number declared Muravian as their nationality, which is different from Czech (although Bohemians and Moravians share the same official language  
  
).  
^5 Poles were also considered to be Polish.  
^6 There are sources indicating that Silesiansbelonged to the Poles. Part of the population of the southernmost region of Upper Silesia is sometimes considered to be Czech (controversial).

**Question 0**

Ethnic affiliation who has become an ideological conflict?

**Question 1**

The idea of a nation of "Carpathians and Ruthenians" is only supported by the Lemkos who live where?

**Question 2**

What did most people in historic Moravia consider themselves to be?

**Question 3**

Which group is considered part of the Polish community?

**Question 4**

What is the ethnicity of Russians considered to be?

**Question 5**

What do Ukrainians support on the coast?

**Question 6**

What is the same used by Bohemians and Silesians?

**Question 7**

What are Moravians considered part of?

**Question 8**

What are parts of Upper Moravia sometimes considered to be like?

**Text number 31**

^7 Census category recognised as an ethnic group. Most Slavic Muslims (especially in Bosnia, Croatia, Montenegro and Serbia) now choose Bosniak ethnicity, but some still use the term "Muslim". Bosniak and Muslim are two ethnic names for one ethnic group, and the terms may even be used interchangeably. However, a small number of people living in Bosnia and Herzegovina claim to be Bosniaks but are not necessarily Muslim by religion.

**Question 0**

Which ethnicity do most Slavic Muslims choose today?

**Question 1**

Which two groups are considered two ethnonyms of the same ethnic origin, and the terms may even be used interchangeably?

**Question 2**

In which regions are there a small number of people who claim to be Bosniaks but who are not necessarily Muslim by religion?

**Question 3**

In which areas is the term Muslim usually used?

**Question 4**

Which two terms cannot be used together?

**Question 5**

What religion do people who declare themselves Bosniaks always have?

**Question 6**

What is strange about people in Croatia declaring themselves to be Bosniaks?

**Question 7**

In which country besides Bosnia are Bosniaks always also Muslims?

**Text number 32**

^8 This identity is still used by a minority throughout the former Yugoslav republics. Diasporans living in the United States and Canada have also declared their nationality. There are numerous reasons why people prefer this affiliation, some of which are published in the article.

**Question 0**

This identity is still used by a minority in all the former republics.

**Question 1**

Do diaspora citizens who live where also declare their citizenship?

**Question 2**

In which former republics is diaspora an identity?

**Question 3**

Where in the diaspora have this citizenship been abandoned?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the minority living in the United States and Canada?

**Question 5**

What have the people of Yugoslavia rejected?

**Text number 33**

^9 Croat subgroups are Bunjevci (in Bačka), Šokci (in Slavonia and Vojvodina), Janjevci (in Kosovo), Burgenland Croats (in Austria), Bosniaks (in Hungary), Molise Croats (in Italy), Krashovans (in Romania), Muravian Croats (in the Czech Republic).

**Question 0**

Where is Bunjevci located?

**Question 1**

Where is Šokci located?

**Question 2**

Where is Janjevci located?

**Question 3**

Where are the Croats in Burgenland located?

**Question 4**

Where are the Krashovans located?

**Question 5**

What is the Benjevc subgroup?

**Question 6**

Which subgroup is located in Slavonia and Kosovo?

**Question 7**

Where are the Croats of Molise and the Croats of Moravia located?

**Question 8**

Which group lives in Burgenland?

**Question 9**

Where is Backa located?

**Text number 34**

^10 Slovenian subgroups include the Prekmurian, Hungarian Slovenian, Carinthian Slovenian, Venetian Slovenian, Resia, and the extinct Carantanian and Somogyi Slovenian.

**Question 0**

Which subgroups of Slovenes are extinct?

**Question 1**

What are the current subgroups of Slovenes?

**Question 2**

What is a subgroup of Hungarians?

**Question 3**

Which five groups are now extinct?

**Question 4**

What happened to most Slovenian subgroups?

**Question 5**

How many subgroups of Slovenians are there?

**Text number 35**

Note: In addition to ethnic groups, Slavs often identify with the geographical area in which they live. Some of the most important regional Southern Slavic groups include the following: Dalmatinci in southern Croatia, Boduli in the Adriatic islands, Vlaji in inland Dalmatia, Slavonci in eastern Croatia, Bosanci in Bosnia, Hercegovci in Herzegovina, Krajišnici in western Bosnia, but is more commonly used to refer to Croatian Serbs, most of whom are descendants of border settlements and who lived in the area of the military border until the Croatian War of Independence, Semberci in north-eastern Bosnia, Srbijanci in Serbia proper, Šumadinci in central Serbia, Vojvođani in northern Serbia, Sremci in Syrmia, Bačvani in north-western Vojvodina, Banaćani in Banat, Sandžaklije (Muslims on the Serbian-Montenegro border), Kosovci in Kosovo, Bokelji in south-western Montenegro, Trakiytsi in the Upper-Trakian lowlands, Dobrudzhantsi in north-eastern Bulgaria, Balkandzhii in the Central Balkan Mountains, Miziytsi in northern Bulgaria, Warmiaks and Mazurs in north-eastern Poland in the Warmia and Mazuria regions, Pirintsi in Blagoevgrad province, Ruptsi in the Rhodopes, etc.

**Question 0**

Croatian Serbs are mostly descendants of whom?

**Question 1**

Where is Zagorci located?

**Question 2**

Where is Istrijani located?

**Question 3**

Where is Boduli located?

**Question 4**

Where is Vlaji located?

**Question 5**

What is the only way Slavs identify themselves?

**Question 6**

What are the Slavs called in Central Croatia?

**Question 7**

Whose descendants is Vlaji?

**Question 8**

When did Western Bosnia become a military border?

**Question 9**

What are the names of the cities in the northern Bulgarian region?

**Text number 36**

Modern Slavic peoples have different mitochondrial DNA haplogroups and Y-chromosomal DNA haplogroups. However, two paternal haplogroups are predominant: R1a1a [M17] and I2a2a [L69.2=T/S163.2]. The prevalence of the R1a haplogroup ranges from 63.39% in Sorbia, 56.4% in Poland, 54% in Ukraine, 52% in Russia and Belarus, 15.2% in Macedonia, 14.7% in Bulgaria and 12.1% in Herzegovina. A correlation between R1a1a [M17] and speakers of Indo-European languages, particularly Eastern European (Russian) and Central and South Asian languages, was observed in the late 1990s. This led Spencer Wells and colleagues to conclude, in line with the Kurgan hypothesis, that R1a1a originated in the Pontic and Caspian steppes.

**Question 0**

Which two DNA haplogroups are predominant in modern Slavic peoples?

**Question 1**

What is the frequency of the R1a haplogroup in Sorbs?

**Question 2**

What is the frequency of the R1a haplogroup in Poland?

**Question 3**

What is the frequency of the R1a haplogroup in Ukraine?

**Question 4**

What is the frequency of the R1a haplogroup in Russia?

**Question 5**

When did Spencer Wells conclude that R1a1a was born in the Pontis-Caspian steppes?

**Question 6**

How common is I2a2a among Sorbs?

**Question 7**

In which population is I2a2a the least common?

**Question 8**

Who created the Kurgan hypothesis?

**Question 9**

Where does I2a2a come from?

**Text number 37**

This was followed by specific Slavic genetics studies. Rębała2007 and colleagues studied several Slavic populations with the aim of locating a protoslavic homeland. The main results of this study are as follows:

**Question 0**

When did Rębała and colleagues study several Slavic populations with the aim of locating a Proto-Slavic homeland?

**Question 1**

Who studied several Slavic populations with the aim of locating a protoslavic homeland?

**Question 2**

In 2007, Rębała and colleagues studied several Slavic populations with the aim of locating what?

**Question 3**

When was the Proto-Slavic homeland discovered?

**Question 4**

Who wanted to localise the Slavic populations?

**Question 5**

What did Rębała study to locate the Slavic population?

**Question 6**

When did specific research in Slavic genetics begin?

**Text number 38**

Marcin Woźniak and colleagues (2010) searched for a specific Slavic subgroup of R1a1a [M17]. Using haplotypes, they found a pattern among Western Slavs that turned out to correspond to the recently discovered marker M458, which defines the subclade R1a1a7. This marker correlated remarkably well with the present-day distribution of Slavic speakers. The team led by Peter Underhill that discovered M458 did not consider the possibility that it was a Slavic marker because it used an "evolutionarily efficient" mutation rate that gave a date far too old to be Slavic. Woźniak and colleagues pointed out that a germline mutation rate that gives a later date is more consistent with the archaeological record.

**Question 0**

Who was specifically looking for the Slavic subgroup of R1a1a [M17]?

**Question 1**

When did Marcin Woźniak specifically look for the Slavic subgroup of R1a1a [M17]?

**Question 2**

Who led the team that found M458?

**Question 3**

Who searched for Slavic haplotypes?

**Question 4**

When did Peter Underhill discover the mark?

**Question 5**

What did Peter Underhill suspect the M458 to be?

**Question 6**

Which is more consistent with an evolutionarily efficient mutation rate?

**Question 7**

Which brand did Wozniak discover?

**Text number 39**

Pomors are distinguished by the presence of the Y-acyl group N. It is thought to have originated in Southeast Asia and is abundant in the Uralic peoples. Its presence in the Pomors (referred to in the report as 'Northern Russians') is evidence that they are non-Slavic tribes (intermingled with the Finnish tribes of northern Eurasia). Autosomal Russians are generally similar to Central and Eastern European populations, but some northern Russians are an intermediate with Finno-Ugric groups.

**Question 0**

What are the differences in the presence of the Y haplogroup N?

**Question 1**

How do bosses stand out from each other?

**Question 2**

The Y haplogroup N is abundant in whom?

**Question 3**

Russians are generally similar to the population of which region?

**Question 4**

The Pomors are also known as what?

**Question 5**

How does Y haplogroup N differ from each other?

**Question 6**

What do Finnish tribes have high percentages?

**Question 7**

Where do the Uralic peoples come from?

**Question 8**

Where do Russians differ most from the Autochthonians?

**Question 9**

What is another name for the Uralic peoples?

**Text number 40**

On the other hand, I2a1b1 (P41.2) is typical of southern Slavic populations and is highest in Bosnia-Herzegovina (>50%). The haplogroup I2a2 is also common in north-eastern Italians. I2a2a is also abundant in Romania, Moldova and western Ukraine. According to initial studies, Hg I2a2 was thought to have originated in the western Balkans sometime after the LGM, after which it spread from the Balkans via the central Russian plateau. Ken Nordtvedt has recently divided I2a2 into two clades - N (northern) and S (southern) - according to where they originated in relation to the Danube River. He suggests that N is slightly older than S. He calculated the age of I2a2 at ~ 2550 years and suggested that the current distribution can be explained by the spread of Slavs from the north-east of the Carpathians.

**Question 0**

I2a1b1 is typical for which population?

**Question 1**

Where is I2a1b1 at its highest?

**Question 2**

The haplogroup I2a2 is commonly found in which group of people?

**Question 3**

Hg I2a2 was thought to have originated where?

**Question 4**

Who has divided I2a2 into two clades?

**Question 5**

What proportion of north-eastern Italians have I2a1b1?

**Question 6**

Where does I2a1b1 come from?

**Question 7**

What preceded l2a1b1?

**Question 8**

Who shared the LGM?

**Question 9**

How old is I2a1b1 calculated?

**Text number 41**

In 2008, biochemist Boris Arkadievich Malyarchuk (in Russian, Борис Аркадьевич Малярчук) et al. from the Institute of Northern Biological Problems of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Magadan, Russia, used a sample of Czech individuals (n=279) to determine the frequency of "mtDNA lines" of "mongoloids". Malyarchuk found that the Czech mtDNA lines were typical of "Slavic populations" with "1.8%" of Mongoloid mtDNA lines. Malyarchuk added that "Slavic populations" "almost always" contain a Mongoloid mtDNA line. According to Malyarchuk, a Mongoloid component was partially inserted into Slavic humans before the split of the "Balto-Slavs" in 2 000-3 000 BC, and Mongoloid admixture occurred among Slavs during the last 4 000 years. According to Malyarshuk, the 'Russian population' developed through 'assimilation of the pre-Slavic indigenous population of Eastern Europe', which was accompanied by 'assimilation of Finno-Ugric populations' and 'long-term' interaction with 'Siberian' and 'Central Asian' populations. Maljaršuk said that the "Mongoloid component" of other Slavs increased during the migratory waves of "Aryan populations (Huns, Avars, Bulgars and Mongols)", especially during the break-up of the "Avar Kaganate".

**Question 0**

When did Boris Arkadievich Malyarchuk use a sample of Czech individuals to determine the frequency of "monigoloid" "mtDNA" lines?

**Question 1**

Who used a sample of Czech individuals to determine the frequency of "monigoloid" "mtDNA lines"?

**Question 2**

Malyarchuk found that Czech mtDNA lines were typical of which populations?

**Question 3**

Maljaršuk said that the Mongoloid component in the Slavic people was partly added before the split of the "Baltic Slavs", in what period?

**Question 4**

Malyarchuk said that the other Slavs' "Mongoloid component" increased in waves during the migration of what populations?

**Question 5**

What was the name of the Czech person tested?

**Question 6**

What assimilates the Russian population?

**Question 7**

When did the migration of the Aryans take place?

**Question 8**

How many biochemists participated in the study?

**Question 9**

How much of the mtDNA lineage of Finno-Ugric populations is Mongoloid?

**Text number 42**

DNA samples from Russians1228 show that all but 20 (1.6%) of the Y chromosomes analysed belong to seven major haplogroups, all of which are typical of Western Eurasian populations. Together, they make up 95% of the total Y chromosome pool of Russians. Only (0.7%) belonged to haplogroups specific to East and South Asian populations. All major European haplogroups were detected in the mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) of Poles and Russians, with a similar distribution in Poles and Russians. DNA analysis did not reveal specific unique combinations of mtDNA haplotypes and their subclusters. DNA clearly shows that Poles and Russians do not differ from neighbouring European populations.

**Question 0**

How many Russians' DNA shows that their Y chromosomes are divided into seven large haplogroups, all of which are typical of West Eurasian populations?

**Question 1**

DNA samples from 1228 Russians show that all but 20 (1.6%) of the Y chromosomes analysed belong to seven major haplogroups, all of which are typical of which population?

**Question 2**

What is the total proportion of the Russian Y chromosome pool?

**Question 3**

What percentage belonged to acid groups specific to East and South Asian populations?

**Question 4**

Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) from Poles and Russians revealed which major haplogroups are present?

**Question 5**

What proportion of Poles have Y chromosomes in the main haplogroups?

**Question 6**

How many Poles were surveyed?

**Question 7**

Which group's DNA is different from that of Poles and Russians?

**Question 8**

Where do these 20 oxygen groups come from?

**Question 9**

What proportion of Poles have haplogroups originating from East Asian populations?

**Text number 43**

Throughout their history, Slavs have come into contact with non-Slavic groups. In their supposed region of origin (present-day Ukraine), they had contacts with Iranian Sarmatians and Germanic Goths. After their later spread, they began to assimilate non-Slavic peoples. In the Balkans, for example, there were Paleo-Balkan peoples such as Romanised and Hellenised (Jireček line) Illyrians, Thracians and Dacians, and Greek and Celtic Skordisks. Over time, as the number of Slavs increased, most of the descendants of the indigenous Balkan populations became Slavicised. The Thracians and Illyrians disappeared from the population during this period - although the present Albanian people claim to be descended from the Illyrians. The exceptions are Greece, where the smaller Slavs scattered there were Hellenised (helped by the return of the Greeks to Greece in the 900s and the role of the church and administration), and Romania, where the Slavs settled on their way to modern Greece, the Republic of Macedonia, Bulgaria and eastern Thrace, where the Slav population was assimilated. The Bulgarians were also assimilated by the local Slavs, but their dominance and subsequent land holdings left a nominal legacy of the Bulgarian land and people to all future generations. The Romani-speakers living in the fortified towns of Dalmatia managed to preserve their culture and language for a long time, as Dalmatian Romani was spoken until the high Middle Ages. Eventually, however, they too were assimilated into the Slavs.

**Question 0**

What is the supposed homeland of the Slavs?

**Question 1**

Who were the Slavs in contact with in Ukraine?

**Question 2**

After they had spread, they began to assimilate who?

**Question 3**

Which peoples were in the Balkans?

**Question 4**

Who disappeared from the Balkans?

**Question 5**

What are the non-Slavic groups in today's Ukraine?

**Question 6**

Which modern nation claims to be descended from the Thracians?

**Question 7**

When did the Slavs become Hellenised?

**Question 8**

Which features of the Republic of Macedonia helped to pass on its heritage to future generations?

**Question 9**

When did Dalmatian Romanticism merge with the Slavs?

**Text number 44**

In the western Balkans, the southern Slavs and Germanic Gepids mixed with the Avar conquerors, eventually leading to a Slavicised population.In central Europe, the Slavs mixed with Germanic and Celtic peoples, while the eastern Slavs encountered Uralic and Scandinavian peoples. The Scandinavian (Varangian) and Finnish peoples were involved in the early formation of the Rus state, but were completely Slavicised after a hundred years. Some Finno-Ugric tribes living in the north also merged with the expanding Russian population. At the time of the Magyars' migration, the territory of present-day Hungary was inhabited by Slavs, numbering about 200,000, and Roman-Dacians, who were either absorbed or enslaved by the Magyars. In the 1100s and 1200s, the continuous invasions of migratory Turkic tribes such as the Kipps and the Pechenegs caused a massive migration of the eastern Slav population to the safer and more forested areas of the north. In the Middle Ages, German prospectors settled in medieval Bosnia, Serbia and Bulgaria, where they were Slavicised.

**Question 0**

Where did the southern Slavs and Germanic Gepids get involved in the open spaces?

**Question 1**

In the Western Balkans, the Southern Slavs and Germanic Gepids married with whom?

**Question 2**

In Central Europe, the Slavs mixed with whom?

**Question 3**

With whom did the Eastern Slavs mix?

**Question 4**

Scandinavians (Varangians) and Finns were involved in the early formation of which state?

**Question 5**

What is another name for the Finnish peoples?

**Question 6**

Which state were the Germanic Gepids involved in forming?

**Question 7**

When was the migration of Hungarians?

**Question 8**

How many Roman-Dacians were there in the Hungarian immigration?

**Question 9**

What invasive tribes lived in the northern regions?

**Text number 45**

Polabian Slavs (Wends) settled in parts of England (Danelaw), apparently as allies of the Danes. Polabian-Pomeranian Slavs are also known to have inhabited even Norse-era Iceland. Saqaliba refers to the Slavic mercenaries and slaves of the medieval Arab world in North Africa, Sicily and Al-Andalus. The Saqaliba served as guards for the caliphs. In the 13th century, Slavic piracy intensified in the Baltic. The Wendish Crusade was launched against the Polish Slavs in 1147, as part of the Northern Crusades. Niklot, the pagan chief of the Slavic Obodrites, launched open resistance when the Holy Roman Emperor Lothair III invaded Slavic lands. In August 1160, Niklot was killed and the German colonisation of the Elbe-Oder region (Ostsiedlung) began. In the Wendland of Hanover, Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania and Lusatia, the invaders began the Germanisation process. The early forms of Germanisation were described by German monks: Helmold in the manuscript Chronicon Slavorum and Adam of Bremen in the book Gesta Hammaburgensis ecclesiae pontificum. The Polabian language survived until the early 19th century in what is now the German state of Lower Saxony. In eastern Germany, about 20% of Germans have Slavic ancestry. Similarly, in Germany, about 20% of foreign surnames are of Slavic origin.

**Question 0**

Who settled in England?

**Question 1**

Where did the polavis (wendit) settle?

**Question 2**

The Polabian-Pomeranian Slavs are also reported to have even inhabited where?

**Question 3**

What do Slavic mercenaries and slaves mean in the medieval Arab world of North Africa, Sicily and Al-Andalus?

**Question 4**

Where did Saqaliba operate?

**Question 5**

What is Iceland's middle name?

**Question 6**

What name is used to refer to the Polish-Pomeranian Slavs?

**Question 7**

Who are the guards of Saqaliban?

**Question 8**

When did the Polish Slavs settle in England?

**Question 9**

When did Niklot invade the Slavic lands?

**Text number 46**

Although the Cossacks were Slavic-speaking and Orthodox Christians, they were ethnically very diverse, including Tatars and other Turks. Many of the early members of the Terek Cossacks were Ossetians.

**Question 0**

What backgrounds did the Cossacks come from?

**Question 1**

What were many of the early members of the Terek Cossacks?

**Question 2**

Which religion did the Cossacks belong to?

**Question 3**

What is the main religion followed by Turks?

**Question 4**

What were many of the early Tatars?

**Question 5**

What did the Ossetians say?

**Question 6**

What ethnic backgrounds did the Cossacks come from?

**Text number 47**

The Gorals of southern Poland and northern Slovakia are partly descended from the Romani-speaking Flachs, who migrated to the area in the 1300s and 1700s and assimilated into the local population. The population of the Muravian Valakia is also descended from this population.

**Question 0**

Where did the Gorals live?

**Question 1**

Who descended from the Romani-speaking Vlachs?

**Question 2**

When did the Vlachs move into the area?

**Question 3**

Which population descended from the Vlachs?

**Question 4**

Who descended from the Gorals?

**Question 5**

What language did Gorals speak?

**Question 6**

When did the gorals live in southern Poland?

**Question 7**

Where do the Muravian whales live?

**Text number 48**

On the other hand, some Slavs assimilated with other populations. While most continued south, attracted by the riches of Bulgaria, some remained in the Carpathian Basin and eventually assimilated into the Hungarian or Romanian population. Romania has a large number of river names and other place names of Slavic origin [better source needed].

**Question 0**

The Slavs trapped in the Carpathian Basin merged with whom?

**Question 1**

Which country has a large number of river and place names of Slavic origin?

**Question 2**

Most of the Slavs continued south to the rich regions that became what country?

**Question 3**

Where were the Slavs who merged with the Hungarian or Romanian population?

**Question 4**

Who assimilated the Slavs in Bulgaria?

**Question 5**

What was so attractive about Hungarians?

**Question 6**

What is of Slavic origin in Bulgaria?

**Question 7**

Which pool did most Slavs end up in?

**Question 8**

Which way did the Romanians travel?

**Document number 74**

**Text number 0**

Southampton (i/saʊθˈæmptən, -hæmptən/) is the largest city in Hampshire on the south coast of England, 121 km75 south-west of London and 31 km north-west of Portsmouth. Southampton is a major port and the nearest town to the New Forest. It is located at the northernmost point of Southampton Water at the confluence of the rivers Test and Itchen, with the River Hamble joining the city south of the urban area. The town has an estimated population of 253,651. The city's name is sometimes abbreviated literally to 'So'ton' or 'Soton', and a Southampton resident is called a 'sotonite'.

**Question 0**

What is the estimated population of Southampton?

**Question 1**

Why would you invite someone living in Southampton?

**Question 2**

Which ceremonial county is Southampton in?

**Question 3**

How many miles from London is Southampton?

**Question 4**

Which way would you travel from Portsmouth to Southampton?

**Text number 1**

Major employers in Southampton include the University of Southampton, Southampton Solent University, Southampton Airport, Ordnance Survey, BBC South, NHS, ABP and Carnival UK. Southampton is renowned for its links to the RMS Titanic, Spitfire and more generally to the history of the Second World War, being one of the departure points for D-Day and more recently home to several of the world's largest cruise ships. Southampton has a large shopping centre and the WestQuay shopping centre. In October 2014, WestQuay Park was approved by the City Council as an extension to the WestQuay Watermark. Construction by Sir Robert McAlpine began in January 2015. Hammerson, the owner of the retail park, aims to employ at least 1,550 people at its premises by the end of 2016.

**Question 0**

What is the name of a major retail shopping centre in Southampton?

**Question 1**

In what month of 2014 did Southampton City Council give the green light to the WestQuay Watermark project?

**Question 2**

What war is Southampton often involved in?

**Question 3**

Which company owns WestQuay Watermark?

**Question 4**

How many people are expected to work at WestQuay Watermark by the end of 2016?

**Text number 2**

In the 2001 census, Southampton and Portsmouth were recorded as separate urban areas, but by the 2011 census they had merged to become the sixth largest built-up area in England, with a population of 855,569. This built-up area is part of the South Hampshire metropolitan area, also known as the Solent City, particularly in the media when discussing changes to local government organisation. With over 1.5 million inhabitants, the region is one of the most populous metropolitan areas in the UK.

**Question 0**

Which other city merged with Southampton after the 2001 census?

**Question 1**

What is the second name of South Hampshire?

**Question 2**

What was the population of Southampton in the 2011 census after it was merged with Portsmouth?

**Question 3**

Which metropolitan area is Portsmouth in?

**Question 4**

What is the minimum population estimate for South Hampshire?

**Text number 3**

Archaeological finds suggest that the area has been inhabited since the Stone Age. After the Romans invaded Britain in 43 AD and conquered the local British in 70 AD, the fortified settlement of Clausentum was established. It was an important trading port and defence post for Winchester, which stood on the site of the present Bitterne Manor. Clausentum was defended by a wall and two ditches, and is believed to have had a baths. Clausentum was abandoned only around 410.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Romans invade Britain?

**Question 1**

Which ancient settlement was established after the Roman invasion and the British conquest?

**Question 2**

In which archaeological period was Southampton first inhabited, according to the evidence found?

**Question 3**

What is the Clausentum area called today?

**Question 4**

How did Clausentum defend itself from the attackers in addition to the two ditches?

**Text number 4**

The Anglo-Saxons formed a new, larger settlement on the other side of Itchen, concentrated in what is now St Mary's. The settlement was known as Hamwic, which evolved into Hamtun and then Hampton. Archaeological excavations in the area have uncovered one of the finest Saxon artefacts in Europe. The county of Hampshire takes its name from this town.

**Question 0**

Who were the people who established settlement in what is now St Mary's in Southampton?

**Question 1**

What was the first name given to the settlement by the Anglo-Saxons?

**Question 2**

What name did Hamwic have in the meantime, when it evolved into Hampton?

**Question 3**

Which English county is named after Hampton?

**Question 4**

What was it about the river that separated Hamwic from the earlier settlers?

**Text number 5**

Viking raids840 contributed to the decline of Hamwic in the 9th century, and by the 10th century a fortified settlement had been established which became medieval Southampton.

**Question 0**

What kind of attacks harassed Hamwic in the 9th century?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Vikings start attacking Hamwic?

**Question 2**

In which century was a new settlement established on the site of Hamwic?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the 10th-century fortress that took the place of Hamwic?

**Text number 6**

After the Norman invasion in 1066, Southampton became the main port of transit between the then English capital Winchester and Normandy. Southampton Castle was built in the 13th century, and by the 13th century Southampton had become a leading port, particularly for the import of French wine in exchange for English cloth and wool.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Norman conquest take place?

**Question 1**

What was the capital of England at the time of the Norman conquest?

**Question 2**

Southampton was an important route between Winchester and which other parts of England in the 1100s?

**Question 3**

In which century was Southampton Castle built?

**Question 4**

What did Southampton receive in exchange for English cloth and wool in the 1200s?

**Text number 7**

The surviving remains of 13th century merchants' houses, such as King John's House and Canute's Palace, are evidence of how rich the city was at the time. In 1348, the Black Death arrived in England via merchant ships visiting Southampton.

**Question 0**

The ruins of the merchants' houses that survive today are proof that Southampton had rich people in what century?

**Question 1**

What plague spread to England because all the ships visited Southampton in the 1300s?

**Question 2**

What year did the Black Death first arrive in England?

**Question 3**

What is the name of another rich merchant's house, besides King John's, that still partly remains?

**Text number 8**

The city was sacked in 1338 by French, Genoese and Monegasque ships (under the leadership of Charles Grimaldi, who used the loot to create the Principality of Monaco). During his visit to Southampton in 1339, Edward III ordered the walls to be built 'to close the city'. Extensive rebuilding - some of the walls date from 1175 - culminated in the completion of the western walls in 1380. About half of the walls, the original towers and 13 of the six gates have survived.

**Question 0**

Who led the invasion of Southampton by the French and others in the 13th century?

**Question 1**

Which principality did Grimaldi establish with the profits from the Southampton robbery?

**Question 2**

In what year did Edward III appear in Southampton and order the walls to be built?

**Question 3**

How many of the original towers of Southampton's walls are still standing?

**Question 4**

What year is the oldest part of the original wall around the city from?

**Text number 9**

The city's walls include God's House Tower, built in 1417 and the first purpose-built artillery fortress in England. Over the years it has been used as a depot for the city's artillery, the Town Gaol and even the Southampton Dockyard. Until September 2011, it housed an archaeological museum. The walls were completed in the 15th century, but later Henry VIII built several new forts along Southampton Water and the Solent, so Southampton was no longer dependent on its fortifications.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the first masonry tower built for artillery purposes in England?

**Question 1**

In what year was the tower of the house of God built?

**Question 2**

Which museum was located in God's House Tower until 2011?

**Question 3**

Who was the English king who directed the new fortifications that meant Southampton was no longer supported by its walls?

**Question 4**

In which century did Southampton complete the wall around the city?

**Text number 10**

On the other hand, many of the medieval buildings that once stood within the city walls are now in ruins or have disappeared. Of the successive phases of Motte and Bailey Castle, only part of the Bailey Wall, just off Castle Way, remains today. The last remains of Southampton's Franciscan monastery, founded around 1233 and closed in 1538, were swept away in the 1940s. The site is now Friary House.

**Question 0**

The only remaining part of Motte and Bailey Castle can be seen near what is now Southampton Street?

**Question 1**

Around what year was the Franciscan monastery established in Southampton?

**Question 2**

In what year was Southampton Franciscan Monastery closed?

**Question 3**

In which decade were the remains of Southampton Abbey destroyed?

**Question 4**

Which landmark now stands on the site of a Franciscan monastery in Southampton?

**Text number 11**

Remnants of the medieval water supply system designed by the monks can still be seen elsewhere. Built in 1290, the system carried water from Conduit Head (the remains of which remain near Hill Lane, Shirley) to a monk's church about 1.7 km inside the city walls. The monks granted the use of the water to the town in , and1310 the ownership of the water supply system itself was transferred in1420 . Other remains can be seen at Conduit House on Commercial Road.

**Question 0**

What year was the monks' water supply system built in Southampton?

**Question 1**

Where did the monks' water supply system bring water from?

**Question 2**

What year did the monks start letting the rest of Southampton use their system for water?

**Question 3**

When did the medieval water supply system become the property of the City of Southampton?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the landmark on Commercial Road where you can see the remains of the monks' water system?

**Text number 12**

During the English Civil War in 1642, the Parliamentary garrison moved to Southampton. In March 1644, the Royalists advanced as far as Redbridge in Southampton, but were prevented from taking the town.

**Question 0**

What war was fought in England in the 1640s?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Parliamentary garrison arrive in Southampton?

**Question 2**

What is the furthest town the royalists reached on their quest to Southampton in 1644?

**Question 3**

In which month in 1644 did the royalists fail to take Redbridge?

**Text number 13**

During the Middle Ages, shipbuilding became an important industry in the city. Henry V's famous warship HMS Grace Dieu was built in Southampton. The mechanisation of the ingot-making process by Walter Taylor in the 1700s was a major step in the industrial revolution. From 1904 to 2004, Thornycroft Dockyard was a major employer in Southampton, building and repairing ships used in two world wars.

**Question 0**

Which skilled occupation was Southampton's main livelihood in the Middle Ages?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the famous warship built in Southampton for Henry V?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the man who innovated the mechanisation of ingot making?

**Question 3**

Which shipbuilding company employed a large proportion of Southampton's population between 1904 and 2004?

**Question 4**

In which historical period did Walter Taylor's improvements to block making play an important role?

**Text number 14**

Before King Henry went to the Battle of Agincourt in 1415, the leaders of the 'Southampton Conspiracy' - Richard, Earl of Cambridge, Henry Scrope, 3rd Baron Scrope of Masham and Sir Thomas Grey of Heton - were charged with treason and tried in what is now the Red Lion frontage in the High Street. They were found guilty and summarily executed outside Bargate.

**Question 0**

Which battle did King Henry go to in 1415?

**Question 1**

What group was led by the men accused of treason, including Henry Scrope and Sir Thomas Grey?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the pub where the men in the Southampton plot were convicted?

**Question 3**

What was the first name of the Earl of Cambridge?

**Question 4**

Outside which structure did the execution of the leaders of the Southampton plot take place?

**Text number 15**

Southampton has been used to embark soldiers in wars such as the 17th century wars against the French, the Crimean War and the Boer War. During the Great War, Southampton was designated Military Port No. 1 and became a major centre for the care of wounded and prisoners of war returning home. It was also a key part of the preparations for the invasion of Europe in 1944.

**Question 0**

What was Southampton used for by the army during the wars of the 1700s?

**Question 1**

In which major war of the 17th century did Southampton play a role, apart from France and the Boer War?

**Question 2**

Which war earned Southampton the title of military port No 1?

**Question 3**

Besides wounded soldiers from the Great War, what group of people were often brought to Southampton for treatment?

**Question 4**

What year did Southampton lead the preparations for the European invasion?

**Text number 16**

Southampton became a spa town in the 1740s and by the 1760s had become a popular place for sea bathing, although it did not have a good quality beach. Innovative buildings were built on West Quay specifically for this purpose, with baths that filled and emptied with the tide.

**Question 0**

When did Southampton become a spa town?

**Question 1**

Although Southampton did not have a proper beach, in what decade did Southampton become popular for sea bathing?

**Question 2**

Where were special sea-water baths built in Southampton?

**Question 3**

What change in the ocean current drove the innovative baths at West Quay?

**Text number 17**

The city expanded significantly during the Victorian period. The Southampton Docks Company was established in 1835. In October 1838, the foundation stone for the docks was laid, and the first dock opened in 1842. The structural and economic development of the docks continued over the following decades. The rail link to London was fully opened in May 1840. Southampton was subsequently known as The Gateway to the Empire.

**Question 0**

In which historic period did Southampton expand dramatically?

**Question 1**

In what year was Southampton Docks established?

**Question 2**

In which month in 1838 was the foundation stone laid for the establishment of the Southampton docks?

**Question 3**

In what year was the Southampton to London railway fully opened?

**Question 4**

What name did Southampton earn for its importance in connecting London?

**Text number 18**

In his 1854 book 'The Cruise of the Steam Yacht North Star', John Choules described Southampton like this: "I can scarcely know of a city with a more beautiful high street than Southampton, except Oxford. The High Street opens from the pier, and winds gently under various names for a mile and a half, and is very handsomely wide. The variety of styles of buildings and colours of materials provides a display of contours, light and colour that I think is rarely compared. The shops are very elegant and the streets are kept very clean. "

**Question 0**

Who wrote the book "The Steamship North Star Cruise"?

**Question 1**

Which city's only main street is more beautiful than Southampton's, according to Choules?

**Question 2**

How long was the High Street in Southampton described by Choules?

**Question 3**

What adjective did Choules use to describe the shops on Southampton's High Street?

**Question 4**

Choules praised Southampton for keeping its streets in good condition, what condition?

**Text number 19**

Pilgrims set sail from the harbour on the Mayflower in 1620. In 1912, the RMS Titanic sailed from Southampton. Four out of five of the ship's crew were Savonians, and about a third of the people who died in the accident were from the city. Since then, Southampton has been the home port for the transatlantic passenger service of Cunard's blue riband liner RMS Queen Mary and her co-pilot RMS Queen Elizabeth. In 1938, the Southampton dockyards also became the home port of Imperial Airways' flying ships. Southampton's container terminals were first opened in 1968 and have continued to expand.

**Question 0**

Which famous ship set sail from Southampton harbour on a pilgrimage?

**Question 1**

What year did the Mayflower leave Southampton?

**Question 2**

How many of the five crew members of the RMS Titanic were warriors?

**Question 3**

Which company operates passenger ships across the Atlantic, including the RMS Queen Elizabeth?

**Question 4**

What year was Southampton Container Terminals opened?

**Text number 20**

The Supermarine Spitfire was designed and developed in Southampton and evolved from the Schneider Prize-winning seaplanes of the 1920s and 1930s. Its designer, R. J. Mitchell, lived in the Portswood area of Southampton and his house is now marked by a blue plaque. Heavy bombing of the factory in September 1940 destroyed the factory and nearby houses, and civilians and workers were killed. The Second World War hit Southampton particularly hard as it was a strategically important trading port and industrial area. Before the European invasion, parts of Mulberry Harbour were built here. After D-Day, Southampton's ports were used to process military cargo to help keep Allied troops supplied, making Southampton a key target for Luftwaffe bombing raids until late 1944. Southampton harbour was featured in the television series 24: Live Another Day in episode 9: 21.00-22.00.

**Question 0**

Who designed the Supermarine Spitfire?

**Question 1**

Which area of Southampton was Mitchell from?

**Question 2**

What colour is the plaque marking the house of the Spitfire designer?

**Question 3**

In which month in 1940 did the Mitchell seaplane factory get destroyed by bombs?

**Question 4**

What troops did Southampton supply after D-Day, resulting in it being the target of several Luftwaffe air raids?

**Text number 21**

630 people lost their lives in the Southampton air raids and nearly 2,000 more were injured, not to mention thousands of buildings damaged or destroyed.

**Question 0**

How many people were killed by the bombs dropped on Southampton?

**Question 1**

How many people were wounded in the air raids on Southampton?

**Question 2**

Were there hundreds or thousands of buildings in Southampton that suffered damage from air raids?

**Text number 22**

Some Georgian architecture survived the war, but much of the city was destroyed. Since the Second World War, the city has been extensively restored. Traffic congestion in the 1920s led to the partial demolition of the medieval walls around Bargate in 1932 and 1938. However, a large part of the walls still remain.

**Question 0**

Which architectural style partly survived the war?

**Question 1**

In which post-war years was Southampton almost completely rebuilt?

**Question 2**

In which decade did Southampton start to get busy?

**Question 3**

Which landmark was demolished in the 1930s?

**Text number 23**

The Royal Charter was upgraded in 1952 from Highfield University School to the University of Southampton. Southampton was granted city status, becoming the City of Southampton in1964.

**Question 0**

In which document was the upgrade of Highfield University School announced?

**Question 1**

What is the new name of University College at Highfield?

**Question 2**

When did Southampton officially become a city?

**Question 3**

In what year did the Royal Charter give the University of Southampton its name?

**Text number 24**

After the creation of Hampshire County Council in 1888, Southampton became a county borough of Hampshire County, which meant that it had many of the characteristics of a county borough, but the administration was now divided between Southampton City Council and the new county council. A major source of confusion is that the ancient shire county and its associated assizes were known as the county of Southampton or Southamptonshire. This name was officially changed to Hampshire in , although in 1959 the county was commonly known as Hampshire or Hantscire for centuries. Southampton became a non-metropolitan area in 1974.

**Question 0**

In what year was Hampshire County Council established by law?

**Question 1**

With which organisation did the new county council share the administration of Southampton?

**Question 2**

In what year was Hampshire County officially named?

**Question 3**

Even before it was official, Hampshire was often called Hampshire, or what was the ancient variant of that name?

**Question 4**

What was Southampton named in 1974?

**Text number 25**

Southampton as a port and town has long been administratively independent of the surrounding counties; as early as the reign of King John, the town and its harbour were removed from the control of the Sheriff of the King of Hampshire, and the King granted the burgesses of Southampton the customs rights of the port of Southampton and the port of Portsmouth; this tax status was granted for an annual fee of £200 by charter of 29 June 1199 at Orival. The definition of Southampton harbour was apparently broader than it is today and included the whole area between Lymington and Langstone. The company had agents at Newport, Lymington and Portsmouth. By charter of 9 March 1446/7 granted by Henry VI (25+26 Hen. VI, m. 32), the mayors, bailiffs and burgesses of the towns and harbours of Southampton and Portsmouth became a county separate from Hampshire.

**Question 0**

Southampton's administrative independence dates back to the reign of which king?

**Question 1**

What was the annual fee paid by the burgesses of Southampton for the customs and excise rights established in the Charter of 1199?

**Question 2**

In the 1100s, the port of Southampton included all the area between Lymington and which area?

**Question 3**

Under which king in 1446/7 was a charter granted separating Southampton and Portsmouth from Hampshire?

**Question 4**

On what day was the Southampton Tax Charter signed in Orival?

**Text number 26**

The city's status was changed by Charles I's later charter, which formally separated the city from Portsmouth and recognised Southampton as a county. In the charter of 27 June 1640, the official name of the town was changed to 'The Town and County of the Town of Southampton'. These charters and royal charters, of which there were many, also defined the administration and regulation of the town and harbour, which remained the 'constitution' of the town until the later Victorian period of local government organisation, when, from about 1888, county councils were established in various parts of England and Wales, including Hampshire County Council, which now took over some of the administrative functions of the City of Southampton. Under this system, the City and County of Southampton also became a county with shared responsibility for local government. On 24 February 1964, the status changed again with the Charter of Elizabeth II, which created the City and County of the City of Southampton.

**Question 0**

In which King's charter was Southampton recognised as a county in its own right?

**Question 1**

In what year was Southampton granted a charter naming it "The Town and County of the Town of Southampton"?

**Question 2**

In which period of history did local government start to set up district councils in the region?

**Question 3**

Which council took over part of the administration of the city of Southampton after 1888?

**Question 4**

In what year was the City and County of Southampton established by Queen Elizabeth II's charter?

**Text number 27**

The town has undergone many changes in its administration over the centuries, and once again became administratively independent of Hampshire County Council when it was made a unitary authority on 1 April 1997 under the Local Government Reorganisation Act 1992. The county remains part of Hampshire's ceremonial county.

**Question 0**

From which county did the City of Southampton become administratively independent in April 1997?

**Question 1**

What was the official name given to Southampton in the April 1997 local government reorganisation?

**Question 2**

Which law led to the reorganisation of local government on 1 April 1997?

**Question 3**

Which ceremonial county does Southampton still belong to?

**Text number 28**

Southampton City Council is made up of 3 councillors from each of the 16 wards48. Council elections are held in early May to elect a third of the seats (one councillor per ward) for a four-year term, so elections are held in three of the four years. Since the 2015 council elections, the composition of the council has been as follows:

**Question 0**

How many councillors are there on Southampton City Council?

**Question 1**

How many wards are there in Southampton?

**Question 2**

How many councillors are there in each borough of Southampton?

**Question 3**

In which month are the council elections taking place?

**Question 4**

How many years every four years does Southampton hold a council election?

**Text number 29**

The city has three MPs: Royston Smith (Conservative) from the Southampton Itchen constituency, which covers the east of the city; Dr Alan Whitehead (Labour) from Southampton Test, which covers the west of the city; and Caroline Nokes (Conservative) from the Romsey and Southampton North constituency, which covers the north of the city.

**Question 0**

How many representatives does Southampton have in Parliament?

**Question 1**

What is Royston Smith's constituency?

**Question 2**

Who is the MP for Southampton Test?

**Question 3**

Which political party does Caroline Nokes belong to?

**Question 4**

Which Southampton orientation area does Dr Alan Whitehead represent?

**Text number 30**

The city has a mayor and is one of the cities in England and Wales16 that has a deputy mayor, the Sheriff of Ceremonies. The current and 793rd Mayor of Southampton is Linda Norris. Catherine McEwing is the current and 578th Sheriff. The town crier from 2004 until his death in 2004 was 2014John Melody, who served as the town's Master of Ceremonies and had a decibel104 crier.

**Question 0**

How many cities in England and Wales have a deputy mayor who acts as a ceremonial sheriff?

**Question 1**

Who is the current Mayor of Southampton?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the 578th Sheriff of Southampton?

**Question 3**

When did Southampton Councillor John Melody die?

**Question 4**

How many decibels could John Melody reach in his scream?

**Text number 31**

Southampton City Council has developed twinning relationships with Le Havre in France (since 1973), Rems-Murr-Kreis in Germany (since 1991), Trieste in Italy (since 2002), Hampton in Virginia, USA, Qingdao in China (since 1998) and Busan in South Korea (since 1978).

**Question 0**

With which French city does Southampton City Council have a town twinning relationship?

**Question 1**

With which Italian city did Southampton City Council enter into a twinning agreement in 2002?

**Question 2**

What is the only city in the US with a twinning relationship with Southampton City Council?

**Question 3**

What year did Southampton City Council contact Busan, South Korea?

**Question 4**

In which country is Southampton City Council twinned with Rems-Murr-Kreis?

**Text number 32**

Southampton's geography is influenced by the sea and rivers. The city lies at the northern tip of Southampton Water, a deep-water estuary formed at the end of the last Ice Age. This is where the Test and Itchen rivers meet. The Test - with its salt marshes that make it ideal for salmon fishing - flows along the western edge of the city, while the Itchen bisects Southampton to the east and west. The city centre lies between the two rivers.

**Question 0**

Where is Southampton Water at the tip of Southampton?

**Question 1**

Which river joins the Test?

**Question 2**

Which river is excellent for salmon fishing?

**Question 3**

Which river divides the city of Southampton into east and west?

**Question 4**

Which area of Southampton lies between the Itchen and Test rivers?

**Text number 33**

Town Quay is the original public pier, dating back to the 13th century. The present eastern quays were built in the 1830s when the mudflats between the Itchen and Test estuaries were restored. The western docks date from the 1930s, when the Southern Railway Company commissioned a major earthmoving and dredging programme. Most of the material used for the redevelopment came from the dredging of the Southampton waterway to enable the port to continue to handle large vessels.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the public pier that has been in Southampton since the 13th century?

**Question 1**

In which decade were the eastern ports we see today created?

**Question 2**

Which company commissioned the software that created Western Docks?

**Question 3**

From which water body was the dredged material used for the restoration?

**Question 4**

In which decade did the Southern Railway Company commission the programme to create the Western Docks?

**Text number 34**

Southampton Water has a double tide with two tidal crests, making it easier for large vessels to navigate. This is not due to the presence of the Isle of Wight, as is commonly assumed, but to the shape and depth of the English Channel. In this area, the general flow of water is distorted by more local conditions extending into France.

**Question 0**

How many tidal peaks are there in Southampton Water?

**Question 1**

Which island do many people believe is causing the double tide in Southampton Water?

**Question 2**

Which body of water is responsible for the unusual double tide?

**Question 3**

Which sizes of vessels can navigate more easily on Southampton Water because of the double tide?

**Question 4**

What feature of the English Channel, apart from its shape, affects the flow of water in Southampton Water?

**Text number 35**

The River Test runs along the western boundary of the city, separating it from the New Forest. Southampton has bridges over the River Test, including the Redbridge road and railway bridges to the south and the M27 motorway to the north. The River Itchen flows through the centre of the city and is bridged in several places. The northernmost bridge, the first to be built, is in Mansbridge, where the A27 crosses the Itchen. The original bridge is closed to road traffic but is still standing and open to pedestrians and cyclists. The river has been re-bridged at Swaythling, where the Woodmill Bridge separates the tidal and tidal sections. Further south is the Cobden Bridge, which is significant because it was opened as a toll-free bridge (originally called the Cobden Free Bridge) and was never a toll bridge. Below the Cobden Bridge is the Northam Railway Bridge and then the Northam Road Bridge, which was the UK's first large span concrete bridge. Itchen's southernmost and newest bridge is the Itchen Bridge, which is a toll bridge.

**Question 0**

Which Southampton borough border is crossed by the River Test?

**Question 1**

Which forest is on the opposite bank of the River Test from Southampton?

**Question 2**

Which motorway crosses the River Test in the north?

**Question 3**

Where was the first bridge over the River Itchen built?

**Question 4**

Which Swaythling bridge crosses the point between the tidal and non-tidal sections of the River Itchen?

**Text number 36**

Southampton is divided into boroughs, suburbs, constituencies, parishes and other less formal areas. The city has a number of parks and green spaces, the largest of which is Southampton Common, an acre148 in size, parts of which are used for annual summer fairs, circuses and carnivals. The Common includes the Hawthorns Urban Wildlife Centre, on the former site of Southampton Zoo, wading pools and several lakes and ponds.

**Question 0**

What is the largest park in Southampton?

**Question 1**

How many hectares is Southampton Common?

**Question 2**

Which wildlife centre is on Southampton Common?

**Question 3**

What related attraction was located on the same site before the Urban Wildlife Centre?

**Text number 37**

The Council's properties are located in the Weston, Thornhill and Townhill Park areas. The city ranks 96th out of all local authorities in England 354.

**Question 0**

How many local authorities are there in England?

**Question 1**

In addition to Thornhill and Townhill Park, which other boroughs have a Council area?

**Question 2**

Where does Southampton rank in the list of the poorest local authorities in England?

**Text number 38**

Like the rest of the UK, Southampton has an oceanic climate (Köppen Cfb). Its southern, low-lying and sheltered location means that it is one of the warmest and sunniest cities in the UK. It has held the record for the highest June temperature in the UK, at 35.6°C ( 96.1°F) since 1976.

**Question 0**

What is the climate like in Southampton?

**Question 1**

What is the highest temperature record in Southampton for the month?

**Question 2**

What was the highest temperature record for June in degrees Celsius?

**Question 3**

What year did Southampton set the record for the highest temperature in June?

**Question 4**

What is a record 35.6 degrees Celsius converted to Fahrenheit?

**Text number 39**

Southampton city centre is located above a large hot water reservoir that provides geothermal energy to some of the city's buildings. This energy is processed at a plant in the West Quay area of Southampton city centre, the only geothermal power station in the UK. The plant generates private electricity for the Port of Southampton and hot water for Southampton's district heating system, which is used by a number of buildings, including the West Quay shopping centre. In a 2006 British Gas study on carbon emissions from major UK cities, Southampton was ranked as one of the lowest carbon emitting cities in the UK.

**Question 0**

Which geothermal energy source is located below Southampton city centre?

**Question 1**

In which area of Southampton is a geothermal power plant located in an aquifer?

**Question 2**

Which district gets its hot water from geothermal energy through the West Quay plant?

**Question 3**

Which non-profit company sponsored a carbon emissions study in 2006?

**Question 4**

In a 2006 study, Southampton was found to be one of the lowest emitters of carbon dioxide of which major geographical area's major cities?

**Text number 40**

In the 2001 census, 92.4% of the city's population was white - including 1% white Irish - 3.8% were South Asian, 1.0% black, 1.3% Chinese or other ethnic groups and 1.5% mixed race.

**Question 0**

Which race makes up the vast majority of Southampton's population?

**Question 1**

What percentage of Southampton's population is black according to the 2001 census?

**Question 2**

What percentage of Southampton's population is mixed race according to the 2001 census?

**Question 3**

According to the 2001 census, what proportion of the white population were white Irish?

**Question 4**

According to the 2001 census, 3.8% of Southampton residents are of what type?

**Text number 41**

An estimated 236,900 people lived within Southampton's city boundaries in 2011. The city has a significant Polish population, estimated at up to 20,000.

**Question 0**

What was the estimated population of Southampton within the city boundaries in 2011?

**Question 1**

Which nationality is the majority of Southampton residents?

**Question 2**

What is the highest estimate of the Polish population in the city of Southampton?

**Text number 42**

There are 119 500 men and 117,400 women in the city. The 20-24 age group is the most populous, with an estimated 32 300 people in this age group. The next largest age group is 25-29, with 24 700 people, and then 30-34, with 17 800. In terms of population, Southampton is the largest single city in the South East of England and the second largest on the South Coast after Plymouth.

**Question 0**

Are there more men or women in Southampton?

**Question 1**

Which age group has the most people from Southampton?

**Question 2**

How many people aged 30-34 live in Southampton?

**Question 3**

How many women live in Southampton?

**Question 4**

What is the only city on the south coast with a single summer holiday larger than Southampton?

**Text number 43**

Between 1996 and 2004, the city's population grew by 4.9 per cent - the tenth highest in England. In 2005, according to government statistics, Southampton was the third most densely populated city in the country after London and Portsmouth. Hampshire County Council expects the city's population to grow by a further 2% between 2006 and 2013, increasing the total population of 4,200 by around one million. The largest increase is expected to be among the elderly.

**Question 0**

By what percentage did Southampton's population increase between 1996 and 2004?

**Question 1**

Apart from Portsmouth, what is the only city in England that is more densely populated than Southampton?

**Question 2**

Which organisation predicts a population growth of 2% between 2006 and 2013?

**Question 3**

Which age group is projected to grow the most in Southampton?

**Question 4**

How many more people would there be in Southampton if the population increased by 2%, as the Council expects?

**Text number 44**

In March 2007, Southampton had 120,305 jobs and 3,570 jobseekers' allowance claimants, representing around 2.4percent of the city's population. The average for England as a whole was 2.5 per cent.

**Question 0**

How many jobs were there in Southampton in March 2007?

**Question 1**

How many Southampton residents applied for Jobseeker's Allowance in March 2007?

**Question 2**

What percentage of Southampton residents applied for jobseeker's allowance in March 2007?

**Question 3**

What is the average percentage of jobseekers in England who apply for jobseeker's allowance?

**Text number 45**

Just over a quarter of jobs in the city are in the health and education sector. Another 19percent is in real estate and other business, and the third largest sector is wholesale and retail trade, which accounts for 16.2 percent.Between 1995 and 2004, the number of jobs in Southampton has grown by 18.5percent.

**Question 0**

Which sector provides around a quarter of jobs in Southampton?

**Question 1**

What percentage of jobs in Southampton are available in the real estate/other business sector?

**Question 2**

What is the third largest job-providing sector in Southampton?

**Question 3**

By what percentage did the number of jobs in Southampton increase between 1995 and 2004?

**Question 4**

What percentage of jobs in Southampton are in wholesale and retail trade?

**Text number 46**

In January 2007, the average annual salary in the city was £22,267. This was £1,700 lower than the national average and £3,800 lower than the South East England average.

**Question 0**

What was the average annual salary in Southampton in January 2007?

**Question 1**

How much below the national average is the average annual salary in Southampton?

**Question 2**

How far below the average annual wage is Southampton below the South East of England?

**Text number 47**

Southampton has always been a port city, and the ports have long been the city's main source of employment. It is particularly a port for cruise ships; its heyday was in the first half of the 20th century and especially during the inter-war period, when it handled almost half of the UK's passenger traffic. Today, it remains home to luxury cruise ships, the largest freight port on the Channel coast and the fourth largest port in the UK in terms of tonnage, with several container terminals. Unlike some other ports, such as Liverpool, London and Bristol, where industry and ports have largely moved out of the city centres, leaving room for redevelopment, Southampton has retained much of its in-town industry. While there are still active and expanding port areas to the west of the city centre, which have been further developed with the opening of the fourth cruise terminal in 2009, some of the eastern port areas have been redeveloped; a good example is Ocean Village, which includes a local marina and a small entertainment centre. Southampton is home not only to the cruise operator Carnival UK but also to the headquarters of the Maritime and Coastguard Agency and the Department for Transport's Marine Accident Investigation Branch.

**Question 0**

How much of the UK passenger traffic in Southampton was handled during the inter-war period?

**Question 1**

What types of passenger ships make up the majority of traffic in the Port of Southampton?

**Question 2**

By which unit of measurement is Southampton the fourth largest port in the UK?

**Question 3**

In what year was Southampton's fourth cruise terminal opened in the Western Docklands?

**Question 4**

Which Department for Transport is headquartered in Southampton?

**Text number 48**

In the second half of the 20th century, the city also became home to more diversified industries, such as aircraft and car manufacturing, cables, electrical products and petrochemicals. These industries exist today alongside the city's old industries such as ports, grain mills and tobacco processing.

**Question 0**

In which century did Southampton become more diverse in terms of industries?

**Question 1**

Does Southampton manufacture cars and what other means of transport?

**Question 2**

What kind of engineering is supported by Southampton's industry?

**Question 3**

Besides ports and grain mills, what crops have long been processed in Southampton?

**Text number 49**

University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust is one of the largest employers in the city. It provides local hospital services for 500,000 people in the Southampton area and regional specialist services for over 3 million people across the South of England. The Trust owns and manages Southampton General Hospital, Princess Anne Hospital and the palliative care service at Countess Mountbatten House, part of the Moorgreen Hospital site in the village of West End, just outside the city.

**Question 0**

How many people in the Southampton area receive hospital services from University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust?

**Question 1**

How many people in the South of England depend on NHS Foundation Trust specialist services?

**Question 2**

What services does the NHS Foundation Trust provide at Countess Mountbatten House?

**Question 3**

Which hospital does Countess Mountbatten House belong to?

**Question 4**

In which village is the Moorgreen Hospital located?

**Text number 50**

Other major employers in the city include Ordnance Survey, the UK's national mapping agency, which has its headquarters in a new building on the outskirts of the city, opened in February 2011. Lloyd's Register Group has announced plans to relocate its London maritime operations to a purpose-built facility on the University of Southampton site. The Swaythling site is home to Ford's Southampton assembly plant, where the majority of Ford Transit models are manufactured. The closure of the plant in 2013 was announced in 2012, resulting in the loss of hundreds of jobs.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the UK National Mapping Institute?

**Question 1**

In what year was Ordnance Survey's new headquarters opened in Southampton?

**Question 2**

Which company announced plans to move its maritime activities to the University of Southampton?

**Question 3**

In which area of Southampton is Ford's assembly plant located?

**Question 4**

What model does Ford make at its Southampton plant?

**Text number 51**

Southampton's largest shopping centre and the 35th largest in the UK is the WestQuay Shopping Centre, which opened in September 2000 and is home to major retailers such as John Lewis and Marks and Spencer. The centre was the second phase of the West Quay development on the site of the former Pirelli submarine cable factory; the first phase was the West Quay Retail Park, while the third phase (Watermark Westquay) was suspended due to the recession. Work has restarted in 2015, with plans for the third phase including shops, apartments, a hotel and a public square along the city walls on the Western Esplanade. Southampton has also been granted planning permission for a large casino. The redevelopment of the West Quay area included the opening on 12 February 2009 of a new store for Swedish home products retailer IKEA. Marlands is a smaller shopping centre, built in the 1990s, located close to the north side of West Quay. Southampton currently has two disused shopping centres: the 1970s Eaststreet Shopping Centre and the 1980s Bargate Shopping Centre. Neither has ever been commercially successful; the former is due to be redeveloped as a Morrison's supermarket and the latter's future is uncertain. The East Street area has also been designated as a Specialist Retail Area, designed to promote smaller retailers alongside the Debenhams chain. In 2007, Southampton was ranked 13th in the UK for shopping facilities.

**Question 0**

What is the largest shopping centre in Southampton?

**Question 1**

What is WestQuay's ranking among the largest shopping centres in the UK?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the third phase of the West Quay project, which was halted by the recession?

**Question 3**

In what year was the development of Watermark Westquay restarted?

**Question 4**

Which popular Swedish company opened a new store in West Quay in 2009?

**Text number 52**

Southampton's strong economy is encouraging redevelopment, and major projects such as the city's first skyscrapers on the waterfront have been proposed. The proposed three towers will be multi-storey23 and will be surrounded by smaller apartment blocks, office blocks and shops. There are also plans for a 15-storey hotel at Ocean Village Marina and a 21-storey hotel in the north-east corner of the city centre as part of a £100 million development project.

**Question 0**

What kind of tall buildings are planned for the Southampton waterfront?

**Question 1**

How many storeys high are each of the three proposed towers?

**Question 2**

Which Southampton marina can get a 15-storey hotel?

**Question 3**

What factor is very strong in Southampton that encourages the city to rebuild?

**Question 4**

What is the estimated budget for the plan to build new hotels?

**Text number 53**

According to 2004 figures, Southampton accounts for around £4.2 billion a year of the region's economy. Most of this comes from the service sector and the rest from the city's manufacturing sector. This figure has almost doubled since 1995.

**Question 0**

How much does Southampton contribute to the region's economy each year, according to the 2004 census?

**Question 1**

Which sector accounts for the largest share of Southampton's economy?

**Question 2**

In 2004, Southampton's share of the regional economy had almost doubled compared to 2004.

**Text number 54**

The city has the longest surviving medieval walled palace in England and several museums, including Tudor House Museum, which reopened on 30 July 2011 after extensive restoration and improvements, the Southampton Maritime Museum, God's House Tower, an archaeological museum of the city's heritage housed in one of the tower's walls, a medieval merchants' house and the Solent Sky, which focuses on aviation. The SeaCity Museum, located in the western wing of the city centre, formerly home to Hampshire Police Station and the Magistrates' Court, focuses on Southampton's commercial history and the RMS Titanic. The museum received half a million pounds from the National Lottery Fund and has attracted interest from a number of private investors, with a budgeted value of £28 million.

**Question 0**

Which museum reopened on 30 July 2011 after a huge renovation?

**Question 1**

What is the name of one of the museums in the walls of the Southampton Tower?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the Southampton Aviation Museum?

**Question 3**

What is the impressive budget of the SeaCity Museum?

**Question 4**

Which organisation invested half a million pounds in the SeaCity museum?

**Text number 55**

The annual Southampton Boat Show takes place every September and features over 600 exhibitors. It lasts just over a week at Mayflower Park on the city's waterfront, where it has been held since 1968 . The boat show itself is the culmination of the Sea City event, which takes place annually from April to September and celebrates Southampton's links with the sea.

**Question 0**

In which month is the Southampton Boat Show held each year?

**Question 1**

Where is the boat show taking place in the waterfront park?

**Question 2**

When was the boat show first held at Mayflower Park?

**Question 3**

Which Southampton festival culminates in the Boat Show?

**Question 4**

How many exhibitors can boat show participants expect to see?

**Text number 56**

The city's largest theatre is the 2,300Mayflower Theatre (formerly known as the Gaumont), the largest theatre in southern England outside London, which has presented West End shows such as Les Misérables, The Rocky Horror Show and Chitty Chitty Bang Bang, and is a regular visitor to the Welsh National Opera and English National Ballet. The University of Southampton's Highfield campus is also home to the Nuffield Theatre, the city's main theatre. It won The Stage Award for Best Regional Theatre in 2015. The theatre also hosts touring theatres and local performing arts societies (such as the Southampton Operatic Society, The Maskers and University Players).

**Question 0**

What is the biggest theatre in Southampton?

**Question 1**

How many people can fit in the Mayflower?

**Question 2**

What was the former name of the Mayflower Theatre?

**Question 3**

Which famous ballet company has performed at the Mayflower?

**Question 4**

Which Southampton theatre won The Stage Award for best regional theatre in 2015?

**Text number 57**

There are many innovative art galleries in the city. The City of Southampton Art Gallery at the Civic Centre is one of the best known, and as well as having a nationally significant designated collection, it has a number of permanent and touring exhibitions. The Millais Gallery at Southampton Solent University, the John Hansard Gallery at the University of Southampton and smaller galleries such as the Art House on Above Bar Street offer a variety of views. There is also an art gallery in the town's Bargate, run by the arts organisation 'a space'. A space also runs the Art Vaults project, which creatively uses a number of Southampton's medieval vaults, halls and cellars as stages for contemporary art installations.

**Question 0**

Which Southampton gallery has a named collection?

**Question 1**

What is the arts organisation, spelt with a small initials, responsible for the art gallery in Southampton's Bargate district?

**Question 2**

Which project, also run by the space, will showcase art in Southampton's medieval buildings?

**Question 3**

Which art gallery is part of Southampton Solent University?

**Text number 58**

Southampton has two major live music venues, the Mayflower Theatre (formerly the Gaumont Theatre) and the Guildhall. The Guildhall has hosted a wide range of popular artists including Pink Floyd, David Bowie, Delirious?, Manic Street Preachers, The Killers, Kaiser Chiefs, Amy Winehouse, Lostprophets, The Midnight Beast, Modestep and All Time Low. There are also classical concerts by the Bournemouth Symphony Orchestra, Southampton City Orchestra, Southampton Concert Orchestra, Southampton Philharmonic Choir and Southampton Choral Society.

**Question 0**

What is Southampton's other big live music venue besides the Mayflower?

**Question 1**

Which legendary band with a colour in its name has played at the Guildhall?

**Question 2**

Which orchestra starting with B has played at the Guildhall?

**Question 3**

Which regional choir has sung at the Guildhall?

**Text number 59**

The city also has a number of smaller music venues such as Brook, The Talking Heads, The Soul Cellar, The Joiners and Turner Sims, as well as smaller 'club circuit' venues such as Hampton's and Lennon's, and several public houses such as Platform Tavern, Dolphin, Blue Keys and many others. Joiners has hosted Oasis, Radiohead, Green Day, Suede, PJ Harvey, Manic Street Preachers, Coldplay, The Verve, Libertines and Franz Ferdinand, while Hampton's and Lennon's have hosted Kate Nash, Scouting for Girls and Band of Skulls. The Junk nightclub has been nominated as the best small nightclub in the UK and hosts many of dance music's top artists.

**Question 0**

Which Southampton nightclub was nominated as the best small nightclub in the UK?

**Question 1**

What kind of music does Junk play?

**Question 2**

Which small music venue in Southampton is named after a water sprite?

**Text number 60**

The city is home or birthplace to many of today's musicians, including R'n'B singer Craig David, Coldplay drummer Will Champion, former Holloways singer Rob Skipper and 1980s pop star Howard Jones. Several rock bands were formed in Southampton, including Band of Skulls, The Delays, Bury Tomorrow, Heart in Hand, Thomas Tantrum (split in 2011) and Kids Can't Fly (split in 2014). James Zabiela, a respected and recognised name in dance music, also hails from Southampton.

**Question 0**

Which popular RnB singer is from Southampton?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the Coldplay drummer from Southampton?

**Question 2**

Which band did Southampton's Rob Skipper sing for?

**Question 3**

Which band, which broke up in 2014, was formed in Southampton?

**Question 4**

What genre of music is James Zabiela known for?

**Text number 61**

Local media include the Southern Daily Echo newspaper, based in Redbridge, and BBC South, whose regional headquarters are located in the city centre opposite the Civic Centre. From there the BBC broadcasts South Today, the local television news programme, and BBC Radio Solent. The local ITV licensee is Meridian, whose headquarters are in Whiteley, about 14 km from the city. Until December 2004, the station's studios were located in the Northam area of the town on land reclaimed from the River Itchen. That's Solent is a local television station which began broadcasting in November 2014, based in and serving Southampton and Portsmouth.

**Question 0**

What programme with a direction in the title is broadcast from Southampton by the BBC?

**Question 1**

What is the name of your local ITV station?

**Question 2**

Where is Meridian's headquarters located?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the local TV channel in Southampton?

**Question 4**

At the end of what year did That's Solent start broadcasting?

**Text number 62**

Southampton also has community2 FM radio stations, the Queens Award-winning Unity 101 Community Radio (www.unity101.org), which has been broadcasting full-time on 101.1 FM since 2006 to Asian and ethnic communities, and Voice FM (http://www.voicefmradio.co.uk) in St Mary's, which has been broadcasting full-time on 103.9 FM since September 2011 and plays a wide range of music from rock to dance music and Top 40. The third station, Awaaz FM (www.awaazfm.co.uk), is an internet-only radio station that also serves the Asian and ethnic communities.

**Question 0**

How many community FM radio stations are there in Southampton?

**Question 1**

Which local FM station won the Queens Award?

**Text number 63**

Commercial radio stations broadcasting in the city include The Breeze, formerly The Saint, which currently broadcasts adult contemporary music, Capital, formerly Power FM and Galaxy, which broadcast popular music, Wave 105 and Heart Hampshire, the latter formerly Ocean FM, both of which broadcast adult contemporary music, and 106 Jack FM (www.jackradio.com), formerly The Coast 106. In addition, the University of Southampton has a radio station called SURGE, which broadcasts in the AM band and via the internet.

**Question 0**

What is the new name of the station formerly known as The Saint?

**Question 1**

What kind of music does The Breeze play?

**Question 2**

What was the old name of Heart Hampshire?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the University of Southampton radio station?

**Question 4**

What kind of music does Wave 105 play?

**Text number 64**

Southampton is the home town of Southampton Football Club, which plays its Premier League football at St Mary's Stadium, which moved in 2001 from its 103-year-old former stadium, "The Dell". It was promoted to the First Division of English football for the first time in 1966 and remained there for eight years. The team won the FA Cup by beating Manchester United in 1976, returned to the First Division two years later and stayed there for 27 years (becoming a founding member of the Premier League in 1992) before being relegated in 2005. The club was promoted back to the Premier League in 2012 after a short season in the third tier and serious financial difficulties. In 2015, "The Saints" finished seventh in the Premier League, their highest finish in 30 years, after a remarkable season under new manager Ronald Koeman. Their highest league finish came in 1984, when they were second in the old First Division. They were also runners-up in the Football League Cup final in 1979 and the FA Cup final in 2003. Well-known former managers include Ted Bates, Lawrie McMenemy, Chris Nicholl, Ian Branfoot and Gordon Strachan. Portsmouth F.C., only about 30 miles away, have a strong rivalry ("South Coast derby").

**Question 0**

What is the nickname of Southampton football club?

**Question 1**

Which stadium has The Saints played in since 2001?

**Question 2**

In what year did Southampton Football Club first rise to the top level of English football?

**Question 3**

Who did The Saints beat in 1976 to win the FA Cup?

**Question 4**

Which league did Southampton Football Club become a founder member of in 1992?

**Text number 65**

The two local Sunday football leagues in the Southampton area are the City of Southampton Sunday Football League and the Southampton and District Sunday Football League.

**Question 0**

What day of the week is in the name of Southampton's local football league?

**Question 1**

How many local Sunday football leagues are there in Southampton?

**Question 2**

What is the name of a local league with "City" in its name?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the local league with "District" in its name?

**Text number 66**

Hampshire County Cricket Club plays at the Rose Bowl in the West End, close to the city centre, having previously played at the County Cricket Ground and the Antelope Ground, both close to the city centre. There is also the Southampton Evening Cricket League.

**Question 0**

Where does Hampshire County Cricket Club play?

**Question 1**

In which part of the city is the Rose Bowl located?

**Question 2**

Which other cricket ground did the Hampshire County Cricket Club play at apart from the County Cricket Ground?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the second cricket league in Southampton besides Hampshire County Cricket Club?

**Text number 67**

Southampton Hockey Club, founded in 1938, is now one of Hampshire's largest and most prestigious clubs, with weekly senior7 men's and senior5 women's teams, as well as boys' and girls' teams.6

**Question 0**

What is the name of the Southampton hockey club?

**Question 1**

In what year was Southampton Hockey Club founded?

**Question 2**

How many senior men's hockey teams does your club play each week?

**Question 3**

On a weekly basis, how many senior women's teams does Southampton Hockey Club have?

**Question 4**

How old do children have to be to play in a hockey club?

**Text number 68**

The city also offers good opportunities for men's and women's rugby, with several teams in and around the city, the oldest of which is Trojans RFC, who were promoted to the 2nd Division of the South West London League in 2008/2009. A notable former player is Anthony Allen, who played as a centre for Leicester Tigers. Tottonians also play in the London South West 2nd Division, while Southampton RFC play in the Hampshire 1st Division in 2009/10 alongside Millbrook RFC and Eastleigh RFC. Many teams have mini and mid teams from under 7s to under 16s for both boys and girls.

**Question 0**

What is Southampton's oldest rugby team?

**Question 1**

In which division did Trojans RFC finish in 2008-9?

**Question 2**

Which famous Trojans RFC player also played for Leicester Tigers?

**Question 3**

Which position did Allen play for Leicester Tigers?

**Question 4**

Which division do the Tottonians belong to?

**Text number 69**

There are several marinas in the city, offering opportunities for sailing and water sports. From 1977 to 2001, the Whitbread Around the World Yacht Race, now known as the Volvo Ocean Race, was sailed at Southampton's Ocean Village marina.

**Question 0**

What is it about Southampton that is so rich in water sports and sailing?

**Question 1**

Which competition named after a car company was held in Southampton?

**Question 2**

What was the former name of the Volvo Ocean Race?

**Question 3**

In which Southampton marina was the sailing competition held from 1977 to 2001?

**Text number 70**

The city is also home to the Southampton Sports Centre, a hub of public sporting and outdoor activities, including an Alpine Centre, a theme park and an athletics centre used by professional athletes. There are also a further 11 leisure facilities currently maintained by the Council's leisure managers. However, these have been sold to a company called Park Wood Leisure.

**Question 0**

Which facility is Southampton's centre for public sports and outdoor activities?

**Question 1**

How many other leisure facilities are run by Council leaders?

**Question 2**

To which company did the Council's leisure leaders sell the licences?

**Text number 71**

Southampton was named the UK's fittest city in 2006 by Men's Fitness magazine. The results were based on the prevalence of heart disease, levels of junk food and alcohol consumption and gym membership. In 2007, the city had dropped one place behind London, but was still in first place for the number of parks and green spaces available for physical activity, and the city's residents watched the least amount of television in the country. Before the war, the Banister Court Stadium was used for sprint races. It returned in the 1940s after the Second World War, and the Saints ran until the stadium closed at the end of 1963.

**Question 0**

Which magazine named Southampton the "UK's fittest city" in 2006?

**Question 1**

How many places did Southampton lose in the 2007 "fittest city" ranking?

**Question 2**

Who was the "UK's fittest city" before Southampton in 2007?

**Question 3**

Where were speedway races held in the pre-war period?

**Question 4**

What year did Banister Court Stadium close its doors for good?

**Text number 72**

Southampton is also home to one of the UK's most successful American university football teams, the Southampton Stags, who play at the Wide Lane Sports Facility in Eastleigh.

**Question 0**

Which American university football team is based in Southampton?

**Question 1**

Which sports hall do the Southampton Stags play in?

**Question 2**

Where is the Wide Lane Sports Facility located?

**Text number 73**

Southampton is policed by Hampshire Constabulary. Southampton's police headquarters is a new eight-storey, purpose-built building which cost £30 million to construct. Located on Southern Road, the building opened in Se2011 and is close to Southampton Central Railway Station. Previously, Southampton Central Office was located in the west wing of the Civic Centre, but ageing facilities and plans for a new museum in the old police station and magistrates' court forced the move. Other police stations are in Portswood, Banister Park, Bitternes and Shirley, and a British Transport Police station at Southampton Central Station.

**Question 0**

Who is responsible for policing Southampton?

**Question 1**

How much did it cost to build the Southampton Police Operations Centre?

**Question 2**

On which street in Southampton is the city police headquarters?

**Question 3**

In what year was the brand new, eight-storey police headquarters opened?

**Question 4**

Which train station is near the police building?

**Text number 74**

Fire safety in Southampton is the responsibility of Hampshire Fire and Rescue Service. There are three fire stations in the city - St Mary's, Hightown and Redbridge.

**Question 0**

Who will deal with the fires in Southampton?

**Question 1**

How many fire stations are there in Southampton city?

**Question 2**

What is Southampton's third fire station, along with Hightown and Redbridge?

**Text number 75**

According to Hampshire Constabulary figures, Southampton is now safer than ever before, with violent crime falling dramatically year on year over the last three years. Data from the Southampton Safer City Partnership shows that all crime has fallen in recent years and the crime detection rate has risen. Government figures show that Southampton's crime rate is higher than the national average. The comparison of crime statistics is somewhat controversial because of inconsistencies in recording methods between different police forces. In Hampshire, for example, all reported incidents are recorded and all information is retained. However, in neighbouring Dorset, cancelled or false crime reports are not recorded, thus reducing the apparent crime figures. The national average for violence against the person is 16.7 incidents per 1,000 population, while the Southampton average is 42.4 incidents per 1,000 population. In the vehicle theft category, the national average is 7.6 per 1,000 population, compared to 28.4 per 1,000 population in Southampton. Overall, the city records 202 crimes per 1000 inhabitants. Figures from Hampshire Constabulary for 2009/10 show that Southampton has recorded fewer crimes than in the previous year.

**Question 0**

How many crime reports are made for every 1 000 Southampton residents?

**Question 1**

Did Hampshire Constabulary record fewer or more crime cases in 2009/10 than in the previous year?

**Question 2**

For how many consecutive years has violent crime in Southampton decreased?

**Question 3**

Is Southampton's crime rate higher or lower than the national average?

**Question 4**

Which statistics are being disputed because different police forces record crimes differently?

**Text number 76**

The city has a strong higher education sector. The University of Southampton and the University of Southampton Solent have a combined student population of over 40,000.

**Question 0**

Is Southampton's higher education sector weak or strong?

**Question 1**

What is the combined student population of the two largest universities in Southampton?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the university with "Solent" in its name?

**Text number 77**

The University of Southampton, founded in 1862 and granted a Royal Charter as a university in 1952, has over 100 students. 22,000 The university is ranked among the top 100 research universities in the world in the Academic Ranking of World Universities 2010. In the 2010 THES - QS World University Rankings, the University of Southampton is ranked among the top 80 universities in the world. The University considers itself one of the top five research universities in the UK. The University has a global reputation in engineering, oceanography, chemistry, cancer research, sound and vibration research, computer science and electronics, optoelectronics and textile conservation at the Textile Conservation Centre (which will close in October 2009.) The University is also home to the National Oceanography Centre, Southampton (NOCS), a Natural Environment Research Council-funded marine research centre.

**Question 0**

In what year was the University of Southampton founded?

**Question 1**

When was the University of Southampton granted the title of University by Royal Charter?

**Question 2**

How many students are there at the University of Southampton?

**Question 3**

What is the abbreviation for the University of Southampton's research centre NOCS?

**Question 4**

Which organisation ranked the University of Southampton among the top 80 universities in the world in 2010?

**Text number 78**

The University of Southampton Solent has 17,000 students and is strong in education, design, consultancy, research and other services for business and industry. It also hosts the Warsash Maritime Academy, which provides training and certification for the international maritime and offshore oil industry.

**Question 0**

How many students study at the University of Southampton Solent?

**Question 1**

Which specialist academy is hosted by Southampton Solent University?

**Question 2**

What other fields does Warsash Maritime Academy prepare students for besides international shipping?

**Text number 79**

In addition to St Anne's and King Edward's, there are two secondary schools, Itchen College and Richard Taunton Sixth Form College. Many Southampton students travel outside the city, for example to Barton Peveril College. Southampton City College is a city-based further education college. The college offers a range of vocational courses for school leavers, as well as ESOL programmes and Access courses for adult learners.

**Question 0**

How many independent secondary schools are there in Southampton?

**Question 1**

Which higher education institution offers vocational courses and ESOL programmes?

**Question 2**

What courses does Southampton City College offer for adult learners?

**Question 3**

Which college, with the initials BPC, is located outside the city but is still popular with Southampton students?

**Question 4**

Which sixth form college named after which person?

**Text number 80**

More than 40% of schoolchildren in the city who responded to the survey claimed to have been bullied. More than 2,000participants said verbal bullying was the most common form of bullying, although physical bullying was a close second for boys.

**Question 0**

What percentage of pupils surveyed said they had been bullied?

**Question 1**

How many pupils took part in the bullying survey?

**Question 2**

Which form of bullying was the most common according to the survey?

**Question 3**

What was the second most common form of bullying experienced by the boys surveyed?

**Text number 81**

It has been revealed that Southampton has the worst behaved secondary schools in the UK. The suspension rate is three times the national average, with a drop-out rate of around 1 in 14 children, the highest in the country for physical or verbal attacks on staff.

**Question 0**

Which level of schools in Southampton are the worst behaved in the UK?

**Question 1**

How many times the national average are Southampton's secondary school drop-out rates?

**Question 2**

How many of the 14 or so pupils are subject to early school leaving?

**Question 3**

Apart from physical assaults on staff, what other type of abuse are Southampton students more guilty of than anywhere else in the country?

**Text number 82**

Southampton is a major port in the UK, with good transport links to the rest of the country. Just north of the city runs the M27 motorway, which links the southern coast of England. The M3 motorway connects the city to London and, at Winchester, via a link to the A34 (part of the European E05), to the Midlands and the north. The M271 motorway is a spur of the M27 motorway, linking it to the Western Docks and the city centre.

**Question 0**

Which motorway north of Southampton connects the south coast of England?

**Question 1**

Which motorway connects Southampton to London?

**Question 2**

Which town is located on the A34, where the M3 connects to the North and the Midlands?

**Question 3**

Which fork of the M27 connects it to Southampton city centre and Western Docks?

**Question 4**

Are Southampton's transport routes around the UK good or bad?

**Text number 83**

Southampton is also served by a rail network, which is used both by freight to and from ports and by passenger services as part of the national rail system. The city's main railway station is Southampton Central. Rail services run east to Portsmouth, north to Winchester, the Midlands and London, and west to Bournemouth, Poole, Dorchester, Weymouth, Salisbury, Bristol and Cardiff. The route to London was opened by the London and South Western Railway Company in 1840. Both it and its successor, Southern Railway (UK), played a major role in the creation of the modern port after they acquired and developed the city's ports.

**Question 0**

Southampton railways provide freight services and what other important services?

**Question 1**

What is the name of Southampton Central Station?

**Question 2**

Which city east of Southampton is served by rail?

**Question 3**

In which direction do trains run on the Southampton - Winchester route?

**Question 4**

What year was the opening of the Southampton to London rail link?

**Text number 84**

Local train services run through the central, southern and eastern parts of the city, operated by South West Trains, with stations at Swaythling, St Denys, Millbrook, Redbridge, Bitterne, Sholing and Woolston. In July 2009, Hampshire County Council announced plans to introduce a tram service from Hythe (along the currently freight-only Fawley line) via Totton to Southampton Central Station and on to Fareham via St Denys and Swanwick. The proposal follows a failed plan to bring light rail to the Portsmouth and Gosport areas in 2005.

**Question 0**

Apart from Southampton South and Southampton East, which other sections have local train services?

**Question 1**

Which company operates the Southampton local train service?

**Question 2**

Which organisation announced plans in July 2009 to expand rail services in Southampton?

**Question 3**

What year did the proposal to extend light rail services to Portsmouth and Gosport fail?

**Question 4**

What is the current destination of the freight-only line used by Hampshire County Council to extend passenger services?

**Text number 85**

A separate company, the Didcot, Newbury and Southampton Railway, attempted to open a second railway to the north in the 1880s, and some construction work was carried out in the Hill Lane area, including the surviving embankment.

**Question 0**

Which rival railway company tried to open a railway in the 1880s?

**Question 1**

In which direction did the Didcot, Newbury and Southampton Railway want to expand?

**Question 2**

What remains of the Hill Lane area as evidence of the Didcot, Newbury and Southampton Railway?

**Text number 86**

Southampton Airport is a regional airport located in the town of Eastleigh, north of the city. It offers flights to the UK and nearby European destinations, and is linked to the city by a frequent train service from Southampton Airport (Parkway) railway station and bus services.

**Question 0**

In which city is Southampton Airport located?

**Question 1**

Which way from Southampton to Eastleigh Airport?

**Question 2**

If passengers do not wish to travel by train to the airport, what other transport options are available?

**Question 3**

Which train station do you need to take the train to Southampton Airport from?

**Text number 87**

Many of the world's biggest cruise ships, including the record-breaking Royal Caribbean and Carnival Corporation & plc, are regulars in Southampton waters. The latter is headquartered in Southampton and its brands include Princess Cruises, P&O Cruises and Cunard Line.

**Question 0**

Which cruise line is headquartered in Southampton?

**Question 1**

Apart from Carnival, what other major cruise line parks its record-breaking cruise ships in Southampton's waters?

**Question 2**

What other brands does Carnival Corporation own besides P&O Cruises and Cunard Line?

**Text number 88**

The city has a special connection with the Cunard Line and its fleet of ships. This was particularly evident on 11 November 2008, when the Cunard RMS Queen Elizabeth 2 left the city for the last time after a day of celebrations amid a spectacular fireworks display. Cunard ships are regularly launched in the city, for example Queen Victoria was named after the Duchess of Cornwall in December 2007, and the Queen named the Queen Elizabeth in the city in October 2011. The Duchess of Cambridge performed the naming ceremony of the Royal Princess on 13 June 2013.

**Question 0**

Which cruise ship brand is particularly important for Southampton?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the ship that left Southampton on its last voyage on 11 November 2008?

**Question 2**

Who christened Cunard's Queen Victoria in December 2007?

**Question 3**

In what year was Queen Elizabeth named after the Queen?

**Question 4**

Which ship was christened by the Duchess of Cambridge on 13 June 2013?

**Text number 89**

At certain times of the year, Queen Mary 2, Queen Elizabeth and Queen Victoria may visit Southampton at the same time in what is commonly referred to as the 'arrival of the three queens'. '.

**Question 0**

Why is Southampton hosting an event where three ships named after queens visit the city?

**Question 1**

Which of the "three queens" has a number in its name?

**Question 2**

Which third ship, in addition to Queen Mary 2 and Queen Victoria, must be present for the "Arrival of the Three Queens"?

**Text number 90**

Southampton's importance to the cruise industry was highlighted at P&O Cruises' 175th anniversary celebrations, when all seven of the company's ships visited Southampton in one day. Adonia, Arcadia, Aurora, Azura, Oceana, Oriana and Ventura left the city in a procession on 3 July 2012.

**Question 0**

Which cruise ship celebrated its anniversary in Southampton in July 2012?

**Question 1**

What anniversary did P&O celebrate in Southampton?

**Question 2**

How many P&O ships visited Southampton on the day of the 175th anniversary celebrations?

**Question 3**

Which of P&O's seven cruise ships begins with the letter V?

**Question 4**

Besides Oriana, what is the other P&O line supplier with the same letter in its name?

**Text number 91**

Although no longer a base for cross-Channel ferries, Southampton is the terminus for three internal ferry services, all operating from the Town Quay terminals. Two of these, the car ferry service and the fast catamaran passenger ferry service, provide connections to East Cowes and Cowes on the Isle of Wight and are operated by Red Funnel. The third ferry is the Hythe Ferry, which operates a passenger service to Hythe on the other side of Southampton Water.

**Question 0**

How many internal ferry services does Southampton offer?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the pier where all three ferries have terminals?

**Question 2**

How many ferries operate to the Isle of Wight?

**Question 3**

Which company operates ferries to and from East Cowes?

**Question 4**

Which waterway does the Hythe Ferry cross to get from Southampton to Hythe?

**Text number 92**

Southampton used to run several ferries to the mainland, including San Sebastian, Lisbon, Tangier and Casablanca. The ferry port was built in the 1960s. However, several of these were moved to Portsmouth and by 1996, there were no more ferries from Southampton except for the car ferries to the Isle of Wight. The Southampton ferry port land was sold and the site was developed for retail and housing. Princess Alexandra Dock was converted into a marina. New car reception areas now fill the Eastern Docks, which used to house passengers, dry docks and trains.

**Question 0**

In which decade was a ferry port built in Southampton to transport people to exotic destinations on the continent?

**Question 1**

By what year did the ferries stop running from Southampton to the Isle of Wight, with the exception of the ferry from Southampton to the Isle of Wight?

**Question 2**

What was built on the site of the Southampton ferry port?

**Question 3**

What has become of Princess Alexandra Dock?

**Question 4**

What place that was once full of passengers, dry docks and trains is now a storage area for new cars?

**Text number 93**

Most local public transport is now buses. The main bus companies are First Southampton and Bluestar. Other operators include Brijan Tours, Stagecoach and Xelabus. Another major service provider is the Uni-link bus service (which runs from early morning until midnight), which has been commissioned by the University of Southampton to provide transport from the university to the city. Previously operated by Enterprise, it is now operated by Bluestar. City-link provides free buses. City-link runs from the Red Funnel ferry terminal at Town Quay via WestQuay to the Central Station and is operated by Bluestar. Southampton Dial a Ride, a door-to-door minibus service for residents who cannot access public transport. This service is funded by the council and operated by SCA Support Services.

**Question 0**

Which public transport mode do most people in Southampton use today?

**Question 1**

What is the other main bus operator in Southampton besides First Southampton?

**Question 2**

Which bus service was commissioned by the University of Southampton to transport people between the city and the university?

**Question 3**

What time does Uni-link stop the service to the university each evening?

**Question 4**

Which operator used to run the Uni link before Bluestar?

**Text number 94**

There are two main bus stations. First is the largest operator using stops around Pound Tree Road. This leaves the second terminus at West Quay for other operators to use. Uni-link runs past West Quay in both directions, with Wilts & Dorset dropping off and picking up passengers there, and stopping at a number of roadside stops. Some Bluestar services also operate this way, while others stop at Bargate and some go around West Quay and stop at the Hanover Buildings. The tram system ran from 1879 to 1949.

**Question 0**

Which way does the First stop around to make the terminal available to other buses?

**Question 1**

Which bus line runs past West Quay in both directions?

**Question 2**

Which operator drops off and picks up passengers at West Quay?

**Question 3**

When did the tram system stop operating in Southampton?

**Question 4**

Where do the buses around West Quay stop?

**Document number 75**

**Text number 0**

A treaty is a treaty of international law concluded by the actors of international law, i.e. sovereign states and international organisations. A treaty may also be called a (international) agreement, protocol, treaty, convention, treaty, or exchange of letters, among other things. Whatever the terminology, all these forms of treaty are equally regarded as treaties under international law and the rules are the same.

**Question 0**

Who are the actors of international law?

**Question 1**

What is an agreement made by actors in international law?

**Question 2**

How are different forms of contracts treated in international law compared to treaties?

**Question 3**

How would you compare the rules of the treaty and the rules of the union under international law?

**Text number 1**

Treaties can be loosely compared to contracts: both are means by which willing parties enter into obligations with each other, and if a party fails to fulfil its obligations, it can be held liable under international law.

**Question 0**

What must a party to a contract do to avoid liability under international law?

**Question 1**

What is comparable to an international treaty in national law?

**Question 2**

On what basis can a party to a contract be held liable for failing to comply with its obligations?

**Question 3**

How should a contracting party approach the fulfilment of its legal obligations under the agreement?

**Question 4**

What do we call the voluntary burdens imposed on both the parties to contracts and agreements?

**Text number 2**

A treaty is a formal, explicit written agreement that states use to legally bind themselves. A treaty is a formal document in which the agreement is expressed in words, and it is also the objective result of a solemn ceremony that recognises the parties and the relationships they have defined.

**Question 0**

How are the agreements in the contract expressed?

**Question 1**

How are the countries that conclude the agreement bound?

**Question 2**

What is an official document expressing an agreement between two countries?

**Question 3**

What is the objective result of a solemn occasion that recognises the defined relations between its participants?

**Question 4**

Who is responsible for the legally binding obligations of the parties to the contract?

**Text number 3**

Since the end of the 19th century, most treaties have followed a fairly consistent format. A treaty usually begins with a preamble describing the parties and their common objectives in implementing the treaty, and a summary of the events (such as the war) leading up to the treaty. Modern preambles are sometimes structured as one very long sentence, formulated in several paragraphs for readability, each paragraph beginning with a verb (to want, to recognise, to have, etc.).

**Question 0**

What do most of the treaties signed after the end of the 19th century have in common?

**Question 1**

What is the start of a typical contract?

**Question 2**

Why are long sentences in a modern introduction formulated in several paragraphs?

**Question 3**

Each paragraph of a modern introduction typically begins with which part of speech?

**Question 4**

In addition to describing the parties and their common objectives, what else is typically summarised in a modern preamble?

**Text number 4**

The full names or sovereign titles of the contracting parties are often included in the preamble, as are the full names and titles of their representatives, together with a standard statement of how their representatives have submitted (or exchanged) their full credentials (i.e. the official documents appointing them to act on behalf of their states) and declared them to be valid or appropriate.

**Question 0**

Which term describes a general clause in a contract stating that the parties' representatives have declared full powers?

**Question 1**

What are the official documents appointing the party's representative to act on its behalf?

**Question 2**

What else is mentioned in the preamble of the agreement besides the full names of the parties to the agreement?

**Question 3**

How to find the full powers of the parties' representatives to conclude an agreement?

**Question 4**

Who is usually mentioned in the preamble of the agreement other than the parties themselves?

**Text number 5**

The introduction is followed by numbered articles containing the content of the actual agreement between the parties. Each article heading usually contains one paragraph. In long agreements, the articles may be further grouped into chapter headings.

**Question 0**

What follows the preamble to the agreement?

**Question 1**

What do the numbered articles of the Treaty contain?

**Question 2**

What does each article title usually contain?

**Question 3**

How could the articles of the Long Treaty be grouped?

**Question 4**

In what kind of treaty can the numbered articles of the treaty be grouped by chapter headings?

**Text number 6**

Whatever the subject matter, modern treaties usually contain articles stipulating where the final, certified copies of the treaty are to be deposited and how any subsequent disputes over interpretation are to be settled amicably.

**Question 0**

What type of dispute resolution is typically set out in the agreement?

**Question 1**

Which part of the contract usually contains information on the location of the final authentic copies of the contract?

**Question 2**

The parties to a contract may have disputes over aspects of the articles of the contract?

**Question 3**

Which paragraphs are shown in the location of most modern contracts?

**Question 4**

Modern agreements typically outline procedures for the peaceful settlement of which issue?

**Text number 7**

The conclusion of the contract, an eschatocol (or closing protocol), is often expressed by a clause such as "in witness whereof" or "in faith whereof", the parties have affixed their signatures, followed by the words "DONE AT", then the place(s) of execution of the contract and the date(s) of execution. The date is usually written in the most formal, longest form possible. For example, the Charter of the United Nations is "done at San Francisco this twenty-sixth day of June in the year one thousand nine hundred and forty-five". If the Treaty is drawn up in several copies in different languages, this fact is always mentioned, followed by the fact that the versions drawn up in the different languages are equally authentic.

**Question 0**

What is the official name of the Final Protocol to the Agreement?

**Question 1**

What typically follows after signing a contract?

**Question 2**

How is the date usually written in the contract?

**Question 3**

What are the different versions of the agreement, which are drawn up in several languages?

**Question 4**

A clause such as "on what security" or "in trust for" typically indicates what is meant by the contract?

**Text number 8**

The signatures of the parties' representatives are at the very end. When the text of a contract is reprinted at a later date, for example in a collection of contracts currently in force, the supplier often adds the dates when the contract was ratified by the parties and when it entered into force for each party.

**Question 0**

Whose signatures are at the end of the contract?

**Question 1**

Where can the text of the contract be reprinted?

**Question 2**

Who often adds the dates when the treaty was ratified and entered into force to the reprint?

**Question 3**

What must both parties have done for the agreement to enter into force?

**Question 4**

Even if the treaty had been signed and ratified on the same day, what could it have done on different days?

**Text number 9**

Bilateral agreements are concluded between two countries or entities. However, there can be more than two parties to a bilateral agreement, for example bilateral agreements between Switzerland and the European Union (EU) following Switzerland's rejection of the Agreement on the European Economic Area. Each of these agreements has seventeen parties. However, these are still bilateral and not multilateral agreements. The parties are divided into two groups: Switzerland ("on the one hand") and the EU and its Member States ("on the other hand"). The agreement sets out rights and obligations between Switzerland and the EU and its Member States separately - it does not set out rights and obligations between the EU and its Member States.

**Question 0**

How many bilateral agreements are concluded between countries or communities?

**Question 1**

Can there be more than two parties to a bilateral agreement?

**Question 2**

Bilateral agreements between Switzerland and the European Union followed Switzerland's rejection of the what?

**Question 3**

Will a bilateral agreement between Switzerland and the European Union create rights or obligations between the EU and its Member States?

**Question 4**

The agreement between Switzerland and the European Union is an example of what kind of agreement?

**Text number 10**

Several countries sign a multilateral agreement. The agreement sets out the rights and obligations between each party and each of the other parties. Multilateral agreements are often regional. "Mutual guarantee" treaties are international agreements, such as the Locarno Treaty, which guarantees each signatory a guarantee against attack by another party.

**Question 0**

What is a multi-country agreement?

**Question 1**

Between which parties does a multilateral agreement create rights and obligations?

**Question 2**

The Locarno Treaty guarantees each signatory that the other signatory will not receive what?

**Question 3**

What kind of agreement is a mutual guarantee?

**Question 4**

Multilateral agreements are often concluded by countries that have the same what?

**Text number 11**

The reservations are mainly reservations concerning the State's approval of the agreement. Reservations are unilateral statements intended to exclude or modify a legal obligation and its effects on the reserving State. Reservations must be included at the time of signature or ratification of the treaty, i.e. "a party cannot add a reservation after it has already acceded to the treaty".

**Question 0**

What are the conditions for the State to accept the agreement?

**Question 1**

What are unilateral statements intended to exclude or modify a legal obligation and its effects on the State?

**Question 2**

When should reservations be included in the contract?

**Question 3**

What can the parties to an agreement not do after they have already joined the agreement?

**Question 4**

A contracting party making a reservation can include a clause in the contract to make a statement about its legal obligations or their effects.

**Text number 12**

Originally, international law did not accept reservations to treaties, but rejected them unless all parties to the treaty accepted the same reservations. However, in order to allow as many states as possible to accede to treaties, the rule on reservations has become more permissive. Although some treaties still expressly prohibit reservations, they are now generally permitted to the extent that they do not conflict with the object and purpose of the treaty.

**Question 0**

A more permissive rule as to what was created to allow as many countries as possible to join treaties?

**Question 1**

Reservations are usually allowed, as long as they are not what?

**Question 2**

How does international law initially react to treaty reservations?

**Question 3**

Originally, reservations were rejected under international law unless accepted by the parties to the treaty?

**Question 4**

Since they are generally accepted in international law, the treaty must prohibit reservations, how can their acceptance be prevented?

**Text number 13**

When a State limits its treaty obligations by reservations, the other States parties to the treaty have the option to accept, oppose or oppose and object to the reservations. If a State accepts reservations (or does not accept them at all), both the reserving State and the accepting State are released from the legal obligation of the reservation with regard to their mutual legal obligations (acceptance of the reservation does not alter the legal obligations of the accepting State with regard to the other contracting parties). If a State objects to the reservation, the parts of the treaty to which the reservation relates are excluded altogether and no longer create legal obligations for the reserving and accepting States, again only in relation to each other. If a State objects and opposes the reservation, there are no legal obligations between the two States under that treaty. The objecting and opposing state refuses, in principle, to recognize that the reserving state is a party to the treaty at all.

**Question 0**

When a country adds reservations to an agreement, how can the other contracting parties react to these reservations?

**Question 1**

Who is not affected when the other party accepts a party's reservation?

**Question 2**

What happens to the parts of the contract affected by the rejected reservation when they concern the reserving and rejecting parties?

**Question 3**

What are the legal obligations between two contracting states if one objects and opposes the reservations of the other?

**Question 4**

If a Contracting State objects and opposes the reservations of another State, it is essentially refusing to recognise what?

**Text number 14**

An existing agreement can be amended in three ways. Firstly, a formal amendment requires the States Parties to go through the ratification process again. The renegotiation of treaty provisions can be long and drawn out, and often some parties to the original treaty will not become parties to the amended treaty. In determining the legal obligations of States, one of which is a party to the original treaty and the other to the amended treaty, States are only bound by the terms that they have both agreed to. Agreements may also be amended informally by the Executive Council when the amendments are only procedural. A technical change in customary international law may also modify an agreement if the behaviour of States indicates that legal obligations under the agreement are being reinterpreted. Minor amendments to a treaty may be adopted by procesión, but procesión is generally limited to amendments that correct obvious errors in the adopted text, i.e. where the adopted text does not correctly reflect the intention of the parties that adopted it.

**Question 0**

How many ways are there to change an existing agreement?

**Question 1**

What do the States Parties to the Treaty have to repeat in order to accept a formal amendment to the Treaty?

**Question 2**

Which revision process is usually reserved for changes to correct obvious errors in the text?

**Question 3**

What are the terms of the original contract and the amended contract?

**Question 4**

Apart from the often long and drawn-out process of renegotiating contracts, what are the negative consequences of the process?

**Text number 15**

In international law and international relations, a protocol is usually a treaty or international agreement that supplements a previous treaty or international agreement. A protocol may amend a previous agreement or add new provisions. The parties to an earlier treaty do not have to accept the protocol. Sometimes this is made clearer by calling it an "optional protocol", especially when many parties to the first agreement do not support it.

**Question 0**

What is an agreement that supplements a previous agreement in international law?

**Question 1**

A protocol can either amend a previous agreement or do what?

**Question 2**

Are the parties to the agreement obliged to accept a subsequent protocol?

**Question 3**

Why do we sometimes call an agreement a supplementary agreement, especially when only a few parties to the agreement support the protocol?

**Question 4**

A protocol can be used to add additional provisions to the contract or otherwise do what?

**Text number 16**

For example, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) provided the framework for the development of binding greenhouse gas emission limits, while the Kyoto Protocol contained specific provisions and rules agreed later.

**Question 0**

Which agreement is the Kyoto Protocol linked to?

**Question 1**

Which protocol was added to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change?

**Question 2**

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change set the framework for what?

**Question 3**

While the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change provided a framework for developing greenhouse gas emission limits, the Kyoto Protocol included what?

**Question 4**

The agreement, which included specific provisions relating to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, is an example of an agreement that complements the Treaty?

**Text number 17**

Treaties can be seen as "self-executing", since the mere act of becoming a contracting party brings the treaty and all its obligations into force. Other treaties may be non-self-executing and require "implementing legislation", i.e. the amendment of the national law of the contracting state to enable it to fulfil its treaty obligations. An example of a treaty requiring such legislation would be a treaty providing that a contracting party may prosecute locally for certain offences.

**Question 0**

What is called a treaty, all obligations of which are implemented simply by joining it?

**Question 1**

What do non-self-executing agreements usually require a party to do in order to fulfil its obligations?

**Question 2**

What is the "implementing legislation" that a party to an agreement needs in order to fulfil its obligations under the agreement?

**Question 3**

An agreement that requires a party to prosecute locally for certain offences is an example of what type of agreement?

**Question 4**

What does signing a self-executing contract automatically do to a party?

**Text number 18**

The division between the two is often not clear-cut, and is often politicised by government disagreements over the treaty, since an agreement that is not enforceable in itself cannot be implemented without a proper amendment to national law. If an agreement requires implementing legislation, a state may default if its legislature has not passed the necessary national laws.

**Question 0**

What kind of agreement cannot be implemented without a proper amendment to national law?

**Question 1**

A Contracting State may fail to fulfil its obligations under a treaty that is not self-executing if its legislature fails to do what?

**Question 2**

Which institution of a contracting party must act to fulfil the obligations of a contracting party arising from an agreement that is not self-executing?

**Question 3**

The often unclear division between a self-executing agreement and a non-self-executing agreement can lead to a situation where the agreement is what if there are disagreements within the party?

**Question 4**

An agreement can be politicised by internal disagreements between the parties, as the division between a self-executing agreement and a non-self-executing agreement can often be described as follows.

**Text number 19**

The language of contracts, like any law or agreement, must be interpreted when the wording does not seem clear or when it is not immediately clear how it should be applied in a situation that may be unforeseen. According to the Vienna Convention, contracts must be interpreted "in good faith" in accordance with the "ordinary meaning to be given to the provisions of the contract in the context and in the light of its object and purpose". International legal experts also often invoke the "principle of maximum effectiveness", according to which the language of a contract has the greatest possible force and effect in determining the obligations between the parties.

**Question 0**

What principle do legal experts often invoke when interpreting the language of treaties?

**Question 1**

According to the principle of maximum effectiveness, what effect does the language of the contract have on the creation of obligations between the contracting parties?

**Question 2**

Where does it say that contracts must be interpreted "in good faith" in accordance with the "ordinary meaning given to the terms of the contract in their context and in the light of its object and purpose"?

**Question 3**

Which feature of a contract is often interpreted when it is not clear?

**Question 4**

What other than unclear language can give rise to the need to interpret the language of the contract?

**Text number 20**

No party to a contract can impose its interpretation of the contract on other parties. However, consent may be implied if the other parties do not expressly object to this initially unilateral interpretation, in particular if the State concerned has acted in accordance with its view of the treaty without complaint. The agreement of all the parties to a particular interpretation has the legal effect of adding a new clause to the treaty - this is commonly referred to as "authentic interpretation".

**Question 0**

What can one party to a contract not do to other parties?

**Question 1**

What can be assumed if the other parties do not expressly deny the party's initially unilateral interpretation of the contract?

**Question 2**

A party's unilateral consent to the interpretation of a treaty may be implied if that state has acted in accordance with its view of the treaty without the consent of the other party.

**Question 3**

What legal effect does it have if all parties to a contract accept a particular interpretation of the contract?

**Question 4**

What is the legal effect of adding another clause to a contract when all parties to the contract agree to a particular interpretation of the contract?

**Text number 21**

International courts and arbitrators are often called upon to resolve major disputes over the interpretation of treaties. In order to clarify the meaning in context, these legal bodies can examine the preparatory work involved in negotiating and drafting the treaty, as well as the final, signed treaty itself.

**Question 0**

Which international courts and arbitrators are often called upon to rule on contracts?

**Question 1**

What legal bodies can be used to resolve disputes over the interpretation of the Treaties?

**Question 2**

What else can the arbitrators look at in addition to the final, signed agreement to determine the meaning of the agreement in context?

**Question 3**

Why would an international court review the preparatory work for the negotiation and drafting of a treaty?

**Question 4**

In addition to the preparatory work involved in drafting and negotiating the agreement, what can arbitrators consider when resolving a dispute over the interpretation of an agreement?

**Text number 22**

An important part of concluding an agreement is that signing it implies recognition that the other party is a sovereign state and that the agreement is enforceable under international law. Thus, states can be very cautious about calling an agreement a treaty. For example, in the United States, agreements between states are called compacts and agreements between states and the federal government or government agencies are called memoranda of understanding.

**Question 0**

What is the name given to agreements between US states?

**Question 1**

What are state-federal agreements in the United States called?

**Question 2**

What is the name given to agreements between federal agencies in the United States?

**Question 3**

Nations may be wary of calling an agreement a treaty because it implies that the other party recognises that it is a what?

**Question 4**

On what basis do all parties to the agreement recognise that the provisions of the agreement are enforceable?

**Text number 23**

Another situation may be that one party wants to create an obligation under international law, but the other party does not. This factor has influenced the discussions between North Korea and the United States on security assurances and nuclear proliferation.

**Question 0**

The parties to a contract may disagree on whether they want to create an obligation and under what?

**Question 1**

Which two countries' discussions have been influenced by the other side's desire to create an obligation under international law?

**Question 2**

The discussions between North Korea and the United States have been influenced by the other side's desire to create obligations under international law on which two issues?

**Question 3**

North Korea and the United States have been characterised by disagreement over what the two sides want to establish in terms of security guarantees and nuclear proliferation?

**Text number 24**

The terminology can also be confusing because a treaty can and usually is called something other than a basic treaty, such as a convention, a protocol or simply a treaty. On the other hand, some legal instruments, such as the Treaty of Waitangi, are internationally considered to be instruments of national law.

**Question 0**

What is the Waitangi agreement considered internationally?

**Question 1**

What other terms can be used to describe the agreement?

**Question 2**

What common terminology problem can sometimes cause confusion around a contract?

**Question 3**

What is an example of a treaty that is internationally considered to be an instrument of national law?

**Question 4**

Convention, protocol and treaty are examples of different ones, which may cause confusion about the treaty?

**Text number 25**

Contracts do not necessarily bind the signatories permanently. Because international law traditionally considers obligations to arise only with the consent of states, many treaties explicitly allow for withdrawal by a state, provided it follows certain notification procedures. For example, the Drugs Convention provides that a treaty ceases to be in force if the number of contracting parties falls below 40 as a result of denunciations. The Convention has therefore been denounced. Many conventions explicitly prohibit withdrawal. Article 56 of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties provides that if a contract does not state whether or not it may be terminated, it may be presumed beyond reasonable doubt that it cannot be terminated unilaterally unless:

**Question 0**

What does a state traditionally have to do to create an obligation in international law?

**Question 1**

What is the only obstacle to withdrawal in many contracts?

**Question 2**

Are the agreements permanently binding on the signatories?

**Question 3**

Which contract will be terminated if the number of parties falls below 40 as a result of redundancies?

**Question 4**

Which article of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties states that treaties cannot be unilaterally terminated?

**Text number 26**

The possibility of withdrawal depends on the terms of the contract and its working documents. For example, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights has not been considered to be withdrawable. When North Korea announced its intention to do so, the United Nations Secretary-General, as Registrar, noted that the original signatories to the KP had not ignored the possibility of expressly providing for withdrawal, but rather had deliberately chosen not to do so. Therefore, withdrawal was not possible.

**Question 0**

What is an example of an agreement that cannot be broken?

**Question 1**

Which country announced its intention to withdraw from the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights?

**Question 2**

Who informed the North Korea, as controller, that the original signatories of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights had deliberately prevented the withdrawal?

**Question 3**

Which two factors determine whether it is possible to withdraw from the agreement?

**Question 4**

The terms and drafting documents of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights were both factors in determining which aspect of the treaty was related to North Korea's stated intentions?

**Text number 27**

In practice, sovereignty allows any state to withdraw from any treaty at any time. The question of whether this is permissible really depends on how other states react to the withdrawal; for example, another state may impose sanctions or go to war over a breach of the treaty.

**Question 0**

What is the practical factor that allows the State to withdraw from any contract at any time?

**Question 1**

What really determines whether withdrawal from the agreement is allowed?

**Question 2**

How could a country react to another country's withdrawal from an agreement?

**Question 3**

While withdrawal from a contract may not be possible in theory, when might it be possible?

**Question 4**

When can the State withdraw from a contract on grounds of sovereignty?

**Text number 28**

If a contracting party withdraws successfully, its obligations under the agreement are considered terminated, and the withdrawal of a contracting party from a bilateral agreement naturally terminates the agreement. When a State withdraws from a multilateral agreement, the agreement in question otherwise remains in force among the other parties, unless of course it should or can be interpreted otherwise among the remaining States parties to the agreement [referred to].

**Question 0**

What happens to the State's contractual obligations when it withdraws from a contract?

**Question 1**

What kind of agreement ends with the withdrawal of only one party?

**Question 2**

What happens to the rights and obligations of the other parties to a multilateral agreement when only one party withdraws?

**Question 3**

After which government action is its contractual obligations deemed to have ended?

**Question 4**

Under what conditions could the withdrawal of a single country lead to the termination of a multilateral agreement?

**Text number 29**

If a Contracting Party is in material breach of its contractual obligations, the other Contracting Parties may invoke this breach as grounds for suspending temporarily the performance of its contractual obligations towards that Contracting Party. A material breach may also be invoked as grounds for termination of the contract.

**Question 0**

What can be invoked as grounds for the definitive termination of the contract?

**Question 1**

In addition to terminating the contract itself, what action could the other parties take if one party materially breaches or defaults on its obligations?

**Question 2**

What can be the consequence of a material breach of contractual obligations in addition to the suspension of contractual obligations towards the breaching party?

**Question 3**

Who can claim that a material breach of contract by a party to a contract suspends its obligations towards that party?

**Question 4**

What interim measures can the parties to the agreement take if a party is in material breach of its obligations?

**Text number 30**

However, a breach of contract does not automatically suspend or terminate the contractual relationship. It depends on how the other parties react to the breach and how they choose to respond to it. Sometimes contracts provide that a court or other independent arbitrator must determine the seriousness of the breach. The advantage of such an arbitral body is that it prevents a party from suspending or terminating its own obligations prematurely and perhaps unduly because of an alleged material breach by another party.

**Question 0**

What can a court or arbitrator be asked to determine for breach of contract?

**Question 1**

On what basis is the gravity of the infringement determined, can a party be prevented from suspending its obligations prematurely because of an alleged material breach by another party?

**Question 2**

Does a material breach necessarily suspend or terminate contractual relations?

**Question 3**

What determines whether a breach automatically suspends or terminates the contractual relationship?

**Question 4**

A breach of contract does not necessarily affect contractual relations, depending on how serious the other parties consider the breach to be and what other factors?

**Text number 31**

Contracts sometimes include provisions on termination itself, which means that the contract will automatically terminate if certain conditions are met. Some contracts are intended to bind the contracting parties only temporarily and expire on a certain date. Other contracts may terminate automatically if the contract is intended to remain in force only under certain conditions[citation needed].

**Question 0**

Some contracts contain provisions on what happens if certain conditions are met?

**Question 1**

What provisions can the agreement contain if it is only intended to be temporarily binding?

**Question 2**

What can lead to the termination of the contract by itself, in addition to the expiry of the contract?

**Question 3**

What happens to a contract that is designed to end under certain conditions when those conditions are actually met?

**Question 4**

What can we assume the parties to a contract intended the obligations of the contract to be if the contract has an expiry date?

**Text number 32**

A party may claim that the contract should be terminated, even in the absence of an express provision, if there is a fundamental change of circumstances. Such a change is sufficient if it is unexpected, if it has undermined the "essential basis" of the party's consent, if it radically alters the scope of the obligations between the parties and if the obligations still have to be performed. A party may not base this requirement on a change resulting from its own breach of contract. Nor can this requirement be used to invalidate treaties that have established or redrawn political boundaries [citation needed].

**Question 0**

What could lead a party to a contract to claim that the contract should be terminated, even though there is no express provision for termination?

**Question 1**

A party cannot substantiate its claim of a material change in circumstances if the change is caused by what?

**Question 2**

The argument of a fundamental change of circumstances cannot invalidate agreements which confirm or restate what?

**Question 3**

Which radical change in the obligations between the parties to a contract is a necessary condition for a fundamental change of circumstances to be considered as a ground for terminating the contract?

**Question 4**

The change in circumstances must have occurred at the time of the adoption of the contract in order to be considered a fundamental change.

**Text number 33**

The Islamic prophet Muhammad carried out a siege against the Banu Qaynuqa tribe known as the Banu Qaynuqa invasion in February 624 Muhammad ordered his followers to attack the Jews of Banu Qaynuqa for allegedly violating the treaty known as the Constitution of Medina by stripping a Muslim woman of her clothes, which resulted in her being stripped naked. This led to a chain of revenge killings, and hostility between the Muslims and the Banu Qaynuqa grew, leading to the siege of their fortress.122 The tribe eventually surrendered to Muhammad, who initially wanted to kill the members of the Banu Qaynuqa, but eventually gave in to Abdullah ibn Ubayy's demand and agreed to expel the Qaynuqa.

**Question 0**

The Islamic prophet Muhammad carried out a siege against which tribe in February 624?

**Question 1**

Muhammad ordered his followers to attack the Jews of Banu Qaynuqa because they had allegedly broken what treaty?

**Question 2**

Whose demand prompted the Prophet Muhammad to expel the Jews of Banu Qaynuqa instead of killing them?

**Question 3**

The pinching of a Muslim woman's clothes, which resulted in her being what, was an act alleged to violate the Medina constitution?

**Question 4**

What was the chaining of the Jews of Banu Qaynuqa for allegedly violating the Medinan constitution?

**Text number 34**

Muhammad also ordered a second siege during the attack on Banu Qurayza, because according to Muslim tradition the angel Gabriel had told him to do so. Al-Waqidi claims that Muhammad had a pact with the tribe that was broken. Stillman and Watt dispute al-Waqidi's authenticity. Muslim writers have often criticised al-Waqidi, claiming that he is unreliable. 600-900 members of the Banu Qurayza were beheaded after their surrender (according to Tabar and Ibn Hisham). According to another source, all the men and one woman were beheaded (according to Sunni hadiths). Two Muslims were killed

**Question 0**

According to Muslim tradition, which angel told Muhammad to order the siege of Banu Qurayza?

**Question 1**

Who claims that Muhammad had a contract with Banu Qurayza that was torn to shreds?

**Question 2**

According to Tabar and Ibn Hisham, how many members of the Banu Qurayza were beheaded after their surrender to Muhammad and his followers?

**Question 3**

According to the Sunni hadith, which members of the Banu Qurayza were beheaded after they had surrendered to Muhammad and his followers?

**Question 4**

How many Muslims died during the Banu Qurayza attack?

**Text number 35**

There are a number of reasons why an otherwise valid and agreed contract may be rejected as a binding international agreement, most of which relate to problems that have arisen during the drafting of the contract. For example, the successive Japan-Korea treaties of 1905, 1907 and 1910 were objected to and confirmed as "already invalid" in the 1965 Treaty on Basic Relations between Japan and the Republic of Korea.

**Question 0**

When do most of the problems that can lead to an otherwise valid agreement being rejected as a binding international treaty arise?

**Question 1**

Which agreements between Japan and Korea are examples of agreements that were declared null and void?

**Question 2**

Which treaty confirmed the successive treaties between Japan and Korea in 1905, 1907 and 1910 as "already annulled"?

**Question 3**

Which two countries signed a treaty declaring the previous treaties between them of 1905, 1907 and 1910 already null and void?

**Question 4**

An otherwise valid and agreed contract can be rejected for a number of reasons, most of which relate to problems that arose at the time the contract was concluded.

**Text number 36**

A contracting party's consent to a contract is invalid if it is given by an agent or body not competent under the national law of that country. States are reluctant to investigate the internal affairs and procedures of other States, so a "manifest breach" is required which would be "objectively obvious to all States concerned". There is a strong international presumption that the Head of State has acted within his or her proper powers. It appears that no treaty has ever been effectively invalidated on the basis of this provision.[citation needed].

**Question 0**

A party's consent to a contract is invalid if it is given by an agent or body not authorised to do so on what grounds?

**Question 1**

Why is there a strong international presumption that the head of state acted in the context of the agreement?

**Question 2**

What is required to invalidate a party's consent because it does not wish to investigate the internal affairs and processes of other states?

**Question 3**

An apparent breach is required to invalidate a party's consent to an agreement because of an international reluctance to examine what considerations other states have?

**Question 4**

How can a party's consent to a contract be considered to be given if it is given by an agent who does not have the power to give it under national law?

**Text number 37**

Consent is also invalid if it is given by an agent who, during the negotiations, has disregarded the restrictions imposed on him by his master, if these restrictions were communicated to the other parties to the contract before signing.[citation needed].

**Question 0**

If the representative of a State ignores the limitations imposed on him by his sovereignty, what can be considered as the consent of that State to the agreement?

**Question 1**

Who can impose restrictions on the representative during contract negotiations?

**Question 2**

What must be true of the limitations which the sovereign State has not taken into account in order for the State's consent to the treaty to be considered invalid?

**Question 3**

Who must be informed of the restrictions imposed by the sovereign State on its representative, which the latter has not taken into account, before the signature of the agreement, in order for the State's consent to be considered invalid?

**Text number 38**

According to the introduction to The Law of Treaties, treaties are the source of international law. If an act, or the lack of it, is condemned in international law, the act does not acquire international legality even if it is recognised in domestic law. This means that in the case of a conflict with domestic law, international law always prevails.

**Question 0**

Which treaty states in its preamble that treaties are a source of international law?

**Question 1**

Which takes precedence in a conflict between international and national law?

**Question 2**

What is the source of international law, starting with the introduction to The Law of Treaties?

**Question 3**

Which law does not make an act or lack of act legal if it is condemned under international law?

**Question 4**

Under which law can an act or the absence of an act not be legalised, even if it is legalised under domestic law?

**Text number 39**

Articles 46-53 of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties define the only ways in which treaties can be declared null and void, i.e. unenforceable and invalid under international law. A treaty is invalidated either because of the circumstances in which the contracting State has acceded to the treaty or because of the content of the treaty itself. Annulment is different from revocation, suspension or denunciation (discussed above), since they all involve a modification of the consent of the parties to a previously existing treaty, rather than the annulment of the consent in the first place.

**Question 0**

Which articles of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties provide for the ways in which contracts can be annulled?

**Question 1**

Apart from the fact that a contracting state has acceded to a treaty, why can a treaty be annulled?

**Question 2**

In addition to the content of the contract itself, why can a contract that has been negotiated be annulled?

**Question 3**

A treaty can be considered what if it is considered unenforceable and invalid under international law?

**Question 4**

What procedures simply modify the consent of the parties to a previously existing agreement, rather than invalidating it altogether?

**Text number 40**

State consent can be invalidated if, at the time the agreement was concluded, there was an incorrect understanding of the fact or situation that formed the "essential basis" for the State's consent. Consent will not be invalidated if the misunderstanding was due to the State's own actions or if the truth should have been obvious.

**Question 0**

Which state cannot invalidate that state's consent to the agreement?

**Question 1**

Consent to a contract is not invalidated if what should have been obvious?

**Question 2**

What can be invalidated if there was an incorrect understanding of a fact or situation at the time the contract was concluded?

**Question 3**

A mistaken belief about a fact or situation can only invalidate a state's consent to a contract if the mistaken belief is also true.

**Question 4**

What can invalidate the State's consent if it was an "essential basis" for the State's consent to the agreement?

**Text number 41**

Consent will also be invalidated if it is obtained by fraudulent conduct by one party or if the other party has directly or indirectly "bribed" its representative. The coercion of either a representative or the State itself by the threat or use of force, if used to obtain the consent of that State to an agreement, invalidates consent.

**Question 0**

What kind of conduct by one party can invalidate the consent of the other party?

**Question 1**

What type of action taken by a State agent, directly or indirectly, by another party to the contract can invalidate the State's consent?

**Question 2**

What happens if coercion of an agent or the State itself leads to it not agreeing to the agreement?

**Question 3**

Does the coercion of a State or of any State by the threat or use of force, if used to obtain the consent of that State to an agreement, invalidate that consent?

**Question 4**

What must be true if a contracting party is forced to use force by threat or use of force to invalidate a state's consent to an agreement?

**Text number 42**

An agreement is void if it is in conflict with a mandatory norm. These norms, unlike other principles of customary law, are recognised as such that they cannot be breached and therefore cannot be modified by contractual obligations. They are limited to universally accepted prohibitions such as those on the use of aggressive force, genocide and other crimes against humanity, piracy, hostilities against civilian populations, racial discrimination and apartheid, slavery and torture, which means that no state can legally assume the obligation to commit or permit such acts.

**Question 0**

What is an agreement if it violates a mandatory norm?

**Question 1**

What is the norm that does not allow violations and therefore cannot be modified by contractual obligations?

**Question 2**

How do acts such as genocide and piracy relate to contract law?

**Question 3**

What distinguishes imperative norms from other principles of customary law?

**Question 4**

What is an example of a universally prohibited act that no state can legally commit to or cannot authorise by treaty?

**Text number 43**

According to the United Nations Charter, treaties must be registered with the UN in order to be invoked before the UN or enforced before its judicial body, the International Court of Justice. This was done to prevent the proliferation of secret treaties concluded in the 19th and 20th centuries. Paragraph 103 of the Charter also states that obligations under the Charter take precedence over competing obligations under other treaties.

**Question 0**

What is the United Nations judiciary?

**Question 1**

Which document states that treaties must be registered in the United Nations in order to be invoked in the United Nations or enforced in an international court?

**Question 2**

Why does the Charter of the United Nations stipulate that treaties must be registered at the United Nations?

**Question 3**

In which centuries did the proliferation of secret treaties lead to the inclusion in the United Nations Charter of the obligation to register the treaties invoked before it?

**Question 4**

Where in the United Nations Charter does it state that the Charter obligations of its members take precedence over competing obligations under other treaties?

**Text number 44**

Once adopted, treaties and their amendments must follow the formal legal procedures of the United Nations, as applied by the Office of Legal Affairs, including signature, ratification and entry into force.

**Question 0**

Which body's formal legal procedures must be followed after the adoption of the Treaties and their amendments?

**Question 1**

Which UN office is responsible for the application of formal legal procedures?

**Question 2**

When must all treaties and amendments to them follow the formal legal procedures of the United Nations?

**Question 3**

In addition to signature and ratification, what is the United Nations legal procedure to be followed for all treaties once they have been adopted?

**Question 4**

What are the three formal United Nations legal procedures that all treaties must follow once they have been adopted?

**Text number 45**

Some have compared the UN to the pre-Constitutional federal government of the United States in terms of its function and effectiveness, comparing modern contract law to the historic federal treaty.

**Question 0**

The United Nations has been compared to which government in terms of function and efficiency?

**Question 1**

How does the United Nations compare with the federal government that preceded the US Constitution?

**Question 2**

Comparing the United Nations to the federal government that preceded the US Constitution gives us a comparison between what modern and historical legal subject?

**Question 3**

Modern contract law can be compared in function and effectiveness to the historic Articles of Confederation by comparing the pre-constitutional US federal government to which modern institution?

**Question 4**

Which legal document formed the basis of the federal government before the US Constitution?

**Text number 46**

The Brazilian Federal Constitution states that the power to conclude treaties belongs to the President and that such treaties must be approved by Congress (Articles 84(VIII) and 49(I)). In practice, this has been interpreted to mean that the executive branch is free to negotiate and sign a treaty, but its ratification by the President requires prior approval by Congress. In addition, the Federal Supreme Court has held that once ratified and entered into force, the treaty must be incorporated into national law by a presidential decree published in the Federal Register in order to be in force in Brazil and to be enforceable by the Brazilian authorities.

**Question 0**

Where in the Brazilian Federal Constitution does it state that the power to make treaties belongs to the President and that such treaties must be approved by Congress?

**Question 1**

In practice, the Brazilian President has to obtain the prior approval of which body to negotiate and sign the agreement?

**Question 2**

Which Brazilian institution has decided that the treaty must be incorporated into national law by presidential decree?

**Question 3**

To be valid in Brazil, a presidential decree must be published to transpose the treaty, and where must it be published to be valid?

**Question 4**

Which agency has the right to conclude contracts under the Brazilian Federal Constitution?

**Text number 47**

The Federal Supreme Court has ruled that treaties are subject to constitutional review and have the same hierarchical status as ordinary legislation (in Portuguese "leis ordinárias" or "ordinary laws"). A more recent Supreme Court ruling in 2008 changed this system somewhat, stating that treaties containing human rights provisions are above ordinary law, although they remain below the Constitution. In addition, the 45th Amendment to the Constitution provides that human rights treaties approved by Congress through a special procedure have the same hierarchical status as a constitutional amendment. The hierarchical status of treaties in relation to domestic law is relevant to the discussion of whether (and how) the latter can override the former and vice versa.

**Question 0**

The Brazilian Federal Supreme Court has ruled that contracts have what status in relation to ordinary law?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Brazilian Supreme Court rule that treaties containing human rights provisions are above ordinary law?

**Question 2**

Which amendment to the Brazilian Constitution provides that human rights treaties approved by special congressional procedure have the same status as a constitutional amendment?

**Question 3**

The hierarchical position of treaties in relation to Brazilian national law determines whether the latter can do what the former can do to the latter and vice versa.

**Question 4**

What is the Portuguese term for ordinary laws?

**Text number 48**

The Brazilian federal constitution does not have a supremacy clause with the same effect as the US constitution, which is interesting for the debate on the relationship between treaties and state legislation.

**Question 0**

What clause is there in the US Constitution that is not in the Brazilian Constitution and has the same effect?

**Question 1**

Is the supremacy clause in the federal constitution relevant when discussing the relationship between treaties and what other types of legislation?

**Question 2**

Which clause of the US Constitution is relevant when discussing the relationship between treaties and US law?

**Question 3**

There is no overriding clause in the Brazilian Constitution that has any relevance in the relationship between state law and which other legal treaties?

**Text number 49**

In the United States, the term "contract" has a different, narrower legal meaning than in international law. US law distinguishes what are called treaties from executive agreements, agreements between Congress and the executive branch, and exclusive executive agreements. All four categories are equally treaties under international law; they differ only in terms of US domestic law. The differences relate primarily to the manner in which they are adopted. Treaties require the advice and consent of two-thirds of the Senators present, while executive agreements can be implemented by the President alone. Some treaties give the President the power to fill in the gaps with executive agreements rather than new treaties or protocols. Agreements between Congress and the executive branch require the approval of a majority of both the House of Representatives and the Senate, either before or after the President has signed the agreement.

**Question 0**

State treaties, executive agreements, congressional-executive agreements and exclusive executive agreements are the same in international law, but different in what respect?

**Question 1**

What is the primary distinction in US law between treaties, executive agreements, congressional-executive agreements and exclusive executive agreements?

**Question 2**

What percentage of US Senators must give their advice and consent for the US to enter into an agreement?

**Question 3**

What kind of deal can the US President make alone?

**Question 4**

Which type of agreement requires the approval of a majority of both the House and the Senate before or after the signing of the agreement by the President of the United States?

**Text number 50**

Currently, international agreements are implemented through executive agreements rather than 10:1 agreements. Although it is relatively easy to conclude executive agreements, the President often chooses the formal agreement procedure over an executive agreement in order to obtain Congressional support for matters that require Congress to pass implementing legislation or appropriations, and for agreements that impose long-term and complex legal obligations on the United States. For example, an agreement between the United States, Iran and other countries is not a treaty.

**Question 0**

What is the relationship between executive agreements and contracts in the US?

**Question 1**

What is it about the process of approving executive agreements that makes the US President prefer them to treaties?

**Question 2**

The US President may prefer a formal treaty procedure for issues that require congressional action. What?

**Question 3**

The US President may prefer a formal treaty procedure for agreements that impose legal obligations on the US, and what kind of legal obligations?

**Question 4**

An international agreement between the United States, other countries and which disputed country is not a treaty?

**Text number 51**

The Supreme Court ruled in the Head Money Cases that "contracts" do not take precedence over acts of Congress and can be repealed or amended (for US law) by any subsequent act of Congress, just like any other ordinary law. The Supreme Court also ruled in Reid v. Covert that any unconstitutional contract provision is void under US law.

**Question 0**

In which cases has the US Supreme Court ruled that treaties do not prevail over congressional laws?

**Question 1**

The US Supreme Court ruled that treaties can be set aside or modified in what ways under US law?

**Question 2**

In which Supreme Court case was it held that a treaty provision that is unconstitutional in the United States is invalid under US law?

**Question 3**

The US Supreme Court ruled that treaties can be repealed or amended under US law just like any subsequent act of Congress?

**Question 4**

What is considered an unconstitutional treaty provision under US law?

**Text number 52**

In India, legislative subjects are divided into three lists - Union List, State List and Concurrent List . In the normal legislative process, subjects on the Union List can only be legislated on by the Indian Parliament, while subjects on the State List can only be legislated on by state legislatures. While for parallel subjects, both the Centre and the State can legislate. However, for the implementation of international agreements, Parliament can legislate on any subject that overrides the general division of the lists of subjects.

**Question 0**

Into which three lists are the legislative issues in India divided?

**Question 1**

What types of legislation can both the central legislature and state legislatures legislate on?

**Question 2**

What is India's central legislative body?

**Question 3**

What subject laws can the Indian Parliament enact to implement international treaties to override the allocation of a general list of subjects?

**Question 4**

What subjects can only be regulated by the central legislature in India?

**Text number 53**

Treaties were an important part of European colonisation, and in many parts of the world Europeans sought to legitimise their sovereignty by signing treaties with indigenous peoples. In most cases, these treaties were highly disadvantageous for the indigenous peoples, who often did not understand the consequences of the treaty they had signed.

**Question 0**

What was an important part of the colonisation of Europe?

**Question 1**

With whom did the Europeans try to make agreements to legitimise their sovereignty during colonisation?

**Question 2**

What kind of conditions do most indigenous peoples enjoy in treaties in relation to Europeans?

**Question 3**

What aspect of indigenous agreements with Europeans was generally not understood by indigenous peoples?

**Question 4**

What were the Europeans trying to legitimise all over the world by signing treaties with indigenous peoples?

**Text number 54**

In some rare cases, such as Ethiopia and Qing dynasty China, local governments were able to use treaties to at least mitigate the effects of European colonisation. This required learning the intricacies of European diplomatic manners and then using treaties to prevent a power from overstepping its treaties or playing different powers off against each other.

**Question 0**

In which two rare cases were local governments able to mitigate the effects of European colonialism through treaties?

**Question 1**

What did the Ethiopians learn so that they could use treaties to prevent the European superpower from going beyond its agreements?

**Question 2**

Both Ethiopia and Qing dynasty China learned the intricacies of European diplomatic customs to mitigate what with treaties?

**Question 3**

Apart from preventing a great power from exceeding its treaty, how was Ethiopia able to mitigate the effects of European colonisation?

**Question 4**

Ethiopia and Qing Dynasty China were both able to prevent European powers from concluding their agreements?

**Text number 55**

In other cases, such as New Zealand and Canada, treaties allowed indigenous peoples to retain a minimum degree of self-determination. In the case of indigenous peoples in Australia, unlike the Māori in New Zealand, there was never a treaty with indigenous peoples that entitled Europeans to land ownership under the terra nullius principle (later overturned in Mabo v. Queensland, where the concept of indigenous title was introduced long after colonisation had already taken place). Such treaties between colonial rulers and indigenous peoples are an important part of the political discourse of the late 20th and early 21st centuries, and the treaties under discussion have an international status, as the UN treaty study has shown.

**Question 0**

What were the indigenous peoples able to preserve through minimum treaties?

**Question 1**

Which of New Zealand's indigenous peoples made the treaty that entitled Europeans to land ownership?

**Question 2**

Which doctrine was overturned in Mabo v. Queensland, which established the concept of indigenous property rights?

**Question 3**

In which case was the concept of original ownership established?

**Question 4**

Treaties between indigenous peoples and which other groups were an important part of the political debate in the late 20th and early 21st centuries?

**Text number 56**

Prior to 1871, the United States government regularly made treaties with Indians, but the Indian Appropriations Act of March 3, 1871 (ch. 120, 16 Stat. 563) had an amendment (25 U.S.C. § 71) that effectively stopped the President from making treaties by providing that no Indian nation or tribe shall be recognized as a sovereign nation, tribe, or power with which the United States may treat. The federal government continued to establish similar treaty relations with Indian tribes after 1871 through treaties, statutes, and executive orders.

**Question 0**

Which statute provided that no Indian nation shall be recognized as an independent nation with which the United States may enter into treaty?

**Question 1**

How did the US federal government organise treaty relations with Indian tribes after the Indian Appropriations Act of 3 March 1871?

**Question 2**

Before what year did the United States make regular treaties with the Indians?

**Question 3**

An addition was added to the Indian Appropriations Act of 1871 that no Indian people shall be recognised as what?

**Question 4**

The Indian Allotment Amendment of 1871 provided that the US government could not do what with the Indian people?

**Document number 76**

**Text number 0**

Josip Broz Tito (in Cyrillic: Јосип Броз Тито, pronounced [jǒsip brôːz tîto]; born Josip Broz; 7 May 1892[nb 1] - 4 May 1980) was a Yugoslav revolutionary and statesman who served in various positions from 1943 until his death in 1980. During the Second World War he led the Partisans, often considered the most powerful resistance movement in occupied Europe. Although his presidency has been criticised for authoritarianism and concerns have been raised about the repression of political opponents, Tito was seen by most as a "benevolent dictator" for his economic and diplomatic policies. He was a popular public figure both in Yugoslavia and abroad. His domestic policies, seen as a unifying symbol, preserved peaceful coexistence between the peoples of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. He gained further international attention as the leader of the Non-Aligned Movement, working alongside India's Jawaharlal Nehru, Egypt's Gamal Abdel Nasser and Indonesia's Sukarno.

**Question 0**

In what year did Josip Broz Tito die?

**Question 1**

Which resistance movement was he a leader of during the Second World War?

**Question 2**

Which country is Tito seen as the unifier of?

**Question 3**

With which Egyptian leader did Tito collaborate in the non-aligned movement?

**Question 4**

Which Indonesian leader did Tito collaborate with in the non-aligned movement?

**Text number 1**

He served as General Secretary (later Chairman of the Presidium) of the Communist League of Yugoslavia (1939-80) and led the Yugoslav guerrilla movement, the Partisans, during World War II (1941-45). After the war, he was Prime Minister of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (1944-63) and President (later President for Life) (1953-80). From 1943 until his death in 1980, he was Marshal of Yugoslavia and served as Commander-in-Chief of the Yugoslav Army, the Yugoslav People's Army (JNA). Josip Broz Tito had a very good reputation abroad in both blocks of the Cold War and received some foreign98 decorations, such as the Medal of Honour and the Order of the Bath.

**Question 0**

What was Tito's position in the Yugoslav Communist League?

**Question 1**

What was Tito's position in the Yugoslav government in 1944-63?

**Question 2**

How many foreign decorations did he receive?

**Question 3**

What foreign decorations did Tito receive?

**Question 4**

In what years did Tito lead the partisans?

**Text number 2**

Josip Broz was born to a Croatian father and a Slovenian mother in the village of Kumrovec, Croatia. He was called up for military service, where he excelled and became the youngest sergeant-major in the Austrian and Hungarian armies. When Josip was seriously wounded and captured by the Imperial Russians during the First World War, he was sent to a labour camp in the Ural Mountains. He took part in the October Revolution and later joined a Red Guard unit in Omsk. On his return home, Broz found himself in the newly formed Kingdom of Yugoslavia, where he joined the Communist Party of Yugoslavia (CPJ).

**Question 0**

What ethnicity was Tito's mother?

**Question 1**

What was the ethnic origin of Tito's father?

**Question 2**

Who imprisoned him during the First World War?

**Question 3**

Which unit did Tito join in Omsk?

**Question 4**

Which party did he join in Yugoslavia?

**Text number 3**

Tito was the chief architect of the second Yugoslavia, a socialist federation that lasted from 19431991-1992. Although he was one of the founders of the Kominform, he soon became the first member of the Kominform to challenge Soviet hegemony and the only one who managed to leave the Kominform and start his own socialist programme. Tito advocated independent paths to socialism (sometimes called "national communism"). In 1951, he introduced a system of self-government that separated Yugoslavia from the other socialist countries. The shift towards a model of market socialism brought economic growth in the 1950s and 1960s and recession in the 1970s. His domestic policies included suppressing nationalist sentiment and promoting 'brotherhood and unity' among the six Yugoslav nations. After Tito's death in 1980, tensions between the Yugoslav republics arose and in 1991 the country fell apart, plunging into a series of wars and unrest that lasted throughout the rest of the decade and continues to affect most of the former Yugoslav republics. He remains a highly controversial figure in the Balkans.

**Question 0**

When did the second Yugoslavia start?

**Question 1**

Which group did Tito set up?

**Question 2**

When did Tito introduce the system of self-government that distinguished Yugoslavia from other socialist countries?

**Question 3**

When did Yugoslavia break up?

**Text number 4**

Josip Broz was born on 7 May 1892 in Kumrovec in the northern part of Croatia, in the Hrvatsko Zagorje region of Austria-Hungary.He was the seventh child of Franjo and Marija Broz. His father Franjo Broz (26 November 1860 - 16 December 1936) was Croatian and his mother Marija (25 March 1864 - 14 January 1918) was Slovenian. His parents married on 21 January 1891. After spending part of his childhood with his maternal grandfather Martin Javeršek in the Slovenian village of Podsreda, he entered the Kumrovec primary school in 1900, where he failed the 2nd grade and graduated in 1905. In 1907 he moved away from the countryside and started work as a machinist's apprentice in Sisak. There he became acquainted with the labour movement and celebrated the first Labour Day - Labour Day - on 1 May. In 1910, he joined the Union of Metalworkers and at the same time the Social Democratic Party of Croatia and Slavonia. Between 1911 and 1913 Broz worked for short periods in Kamnik (1911-1912, factory 'Titan'), Cenkov, Munich and Mannheim, where he worked at the Benz car factory; then he went to Wiener Neustadt in Austria and worked as a test driver for Daimler.

**Question 0**

Where was Josip Broz born?

**Question 1**

What year was Broz born?

**Question 2**

What was the ethnic origin of Broz's father?

**Question 3**

What ethnicity was Broz's mother?

**Question 4**

What grade did he fail with?

**Text number 5**

In the autumn of 1913, he was conscripted into the Austro-Hungarian army. He was sent to NCO school and became a sergeant, serving with the 25th Croatian Regiment in Zagreb. In May 1914, Broz won the silver medal in the Army Fencing Competition in Budapest. When World War I broke out in 1914, he was sent to Rauma, where he was arrested for anti-war propaganda and imprisoned in the Petrovaradin Fortress. In January 1915 he was sent to the Eastern Front in Galicia to fight against Russia. He distinguished himself as a skilled soldier and became the youngest sergeant-major in the Austro-Hungarian army. He was recommended for the Silver Medal of Valour for his bravery against the enemy, but was taken prisoner of war before it could be officially awarded. At Bukovina on 25 March 1915, he was seriously wounded and captured by the Russians.

**Question 0**

When was he called up for the army?

**Question 1**

What post in the army did he join after office school?

**Question 2**

In which competition did he win a silver medal?

**Question 3**

What was he arrested for?

**Question 4**

Where was Tito seriously wounded and captured by the Russians?

**Text number 6**

After 13 months in hospital, Broz was sent to a labour camp in the Ural Mountains, where he was chosen by the prisoners to run the camp. In February 1917, rebelling workers broke into the prison and released the prisoners. Broz later joined the Bolshevik group. In April 1917 he was arrested again, but managed to escape and take part in the July Days demonstrations in Petrograd (St Petersburg) on 16-17 July 1917. On his way to Finland, Broz was captured and imprisoned in the St Petersburg-Paul Fortress for three weeks. He was again sent to Kungur, but escaped from the train. He hid with a Russian family in Omsk, Siberia, where he met his future wife Pelagia Belousova. After the October Revolution, he joined a Red Guard unit in Omsk. After the White counterattack, he fled to Kyrgyzstan and later returned to Omsk, where he married Belousova. In the spring of 1918, he joined the Yugoslav section of the Russian Communist Party. In June of that year, Broz left Omsk to seek work and support his family, working for a year as a mechanic near Omsk.

**Question 0**

How long was Broz in hospital?

**Question 1**

Where was the Broz work camp?

**Question 2**

What was he chosen to do at the labour camp?

**Question 3**

Where did Broz flee to after the white counterattack?

**Question 4**

Where did Broz marry Belousova?

**Text number 7**

In January 1920, Tito and his wife made the long and difficult journey home to Yugoslavia, where he arrived in September. On his return, Broz joined the Yugoslav Communist Party. The CPY's influence in the political life of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia grew rapidly. In the 1920 elections, the Communists won seats59 in parliament and became the third strongest party. They won numerous local elections and gained support in the second largest city of Zagreb by electing Svetozar Delić as mayor. The young communist assassinated Yugoslav Interior Minister Milorad Drašković on 2 August 1921, after which the CPY was declared illegal under Yugoslavia's 1921 State Security Law. In 1920 and 1921, all mandates won by the Communists were annulled. Broz continued to work underground despite government pressure on the communists. At the beginning of 1921, he moved to Veliko Trojstvo, near Bjelovar, and found work as a machinist. In 1925 Broz moved to Kraljevica, where he started working in a shipyard. He was elected trade union leader and a year later he led a strike at the shipyard. He was fired and moved to Belgrade, where he worked at the train carriage factory in Smederevska Palanka. He was elected workers' commissioner, but was immediately dismissed when his CPY membership was revealed. Broz then moved to Zagreb, where he was appointed secretary of the Croatian Metalworkers' Union. In 1928 he became secretary of the Zagreb branch of the CPY. In the same year he was arrested, charged in court with illegal communist activities and imprisoned. During his five years in Lepoglava prison, he met Moša Pijade, who became his ideological mentor. After his release, he lived incognito and adopted several surnames, including 'Walter' and 'Tito'.

**Question 0**

How many seats did the communists win in Yugoslavia in 1920?

**Question 1**

Who was elected mayor of Zagreb after the communists won 59 parliamentary seats?

**Question 2**

Where did Broz move to in 1921?

**Question 3**

How long was he in prison in Lepoglava?

**Question 4**

Who became his ideological mentor in prison?

**Text number 8**

1934The Zagreb Provincial Committee sent Tito to Vienna, where the entire Central Committee of the Communist Party of Yugoslavia had gone. He was appointed to the committee and began to appoint his allies, including Edvard Kardelj, Milovan Đilas, Aleksandar Ranković and Boris Kidrič. In 1935 Tito travelled to the Soviet Union and worked for a year in the Comintern's Balkan Department. He was a member of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union and the Soviet secret police (NKVD). Tito was also involved in recruiting volunteers for the Dimitrov Battalion, which served in the Spanish Civil War. In 1936, the Comintern sent 'Comrade Walter' (aka Tito) back to Yugoslavia to purge the Communist Party there. In 1937, Stalin assassinated CPY General Secretary Milan Gorkić in Moscow. Tito was then appointed General Secretary of the still illegal CPY.

**Question 0**

When was Tito sent to Vienna?

**Question 1**

Who did Stalin assassinate in 1937?

**Question 2**

Where was the CPY General Secretary assassinated?

**Question 3**

Who became CPY Secretary General after the previous Secretary General was assassinated?

**Question 4**

Who is known as "Comrade Walter"?

**Text number 9**

On 6 April 1941, German troops, assisted by Hungary and Italy, launched an invasion of Yugoslavia. On 10 April 1941, Slavko Kvaternik declared an independent Croatian state, and Tito responded by setting up a military committee within the Central Committee of the Yugoslav Communist Party. The armed forces of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, attacked from all sides, quickly crumbled. After King Peter II and other members of the government had fled the country on 17 April 1941, the remaining government and army representatives met with German officials in Belgrade. They quickly agreed to end military resistance. On 1 May 1941, Tito issued a pamphlet calling on the people to unite in the fight against the occupation. On 27 June 1941, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Yugoslavia appointed Tito commander-in-chief of all the military forces of national liberation. On 1 July 1941, the Comintern sent precise instructions calling for immediate action.

**Question 0**

When did German troops start the invasion of Yugoslavia?

**Question 1**

Which king fled the country in 1941?

**Question 2**

What did Tito use to get his people to join the fight against the occupation in 1941?

**Question 3**

What was Tito appointed to do by the Central Committee in 1941?

**Question 4**

Where did government and military officials meet German officials in 1941?

**Text number 10**

Despite conflicts with the rival monarchist Chetnik movement, Tito's partisans managed to liberate territories, especially the "Republic of Užice". During this period, Tito held talks with the Chetnik leader Draža Mihailović on 19 September and 27 October 1941. Tito is reported to have ordered his troops to help the fleeing Jews, and over 2,000 Jews fought directly for Tito.

**Question 0**

Who managed to liberate territories despite the conflicts?

**Question 1**

With whom did the partisans have conflicts?

**Question 2**

With which Chechen leader did Tito hold talks?

**Question 3**

Which group did Tito order his troops to assist?

**Question 4**

In 2000, which members of which group fought directly for Tito?

**Text number 11**

On 21 December 1941, the partisans formed the First Proletarian Brigade (commanded by Koča Popović) and on 1 March 1942, Tito formed the Second Proletarian Brigade. In the liberated areas, the partisans organised People's Committees, which functioned as a civil government. The Anti-Fascist Council for National Liberation of Yugoslavia (AVNOJ) met in Bihać on 26-27 November 1942 and in Jajce on 29 November 1943. At these two sessions, the resistance laid the foundations for the post-war organisation of the country and decided on the Federal State of the Nations of Yugoslavia. In Jajce, a 67-member 'Presidium' was elected, which established a nine-member National Liberation Committee (five Communist members) as a de facto provisional government. Tito was appointed chairman of the National Liberation Committee.

**Question 0**

When did the partisans form the first proletarian brigade?

**Question 1**

When did Tito create the second proletarian brigade?

**Question 2**

To what position was Tito appointed in the National Committee for Freedom?

**Question 3**

Where was the 67-member "presidency" located?

**Question 4**

How many members were in the Jajce "presidency"?

**Text number 12**

As the possibility of an Allied invasion of the Balkans increased, the Axis began to direct more resources towards the destruction of the main partisan forces and their senior leadership. This meant, among other things, a concerted German effort to personally capture Josip Broz Tito. On 25 May 1944, he managed to escape from the Germans after the Drvar raid (Operation Rösselsprung), an air raid outside Drvar headquarters in Bosnia.

**Question 0**

Who directed the resources to destroy the partisans?

**Question 1**

Who was the Allies' opponent?

**Question 2**

Which group wanted to capture Tito personally?

**Question 3**

Where did Tito manage to avoid the Germans in 1944?

**Question 4**

What kind of invasion took place in Bosnia?

**Text number 13**

When the partisans managed to withstand and avoid these powerful Axis attacks between January and June 1943, and the extent of Chechen cooperation became apparent, the Allied leaders switched their support from Draža Mihailović to Tito. King Peter II, US President Franklin Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill joined Soviet Prime Minister Joseph Stalin in formally recognising Tito and the partisans at the Tehran Conference. This led to Allied aid being parachuted behind the Axis lines to assist the partisans. On 17 June 1944, the Treaty of Vis (Viški sporazum) was signed on the Dalmatian island of Vis, which sought to unite the government of Tito (AVNOJ) and the exiled government of King Peter II. In June 1944, the Balkan Air Force was established to supervise operations, mainly in support of his troops.

**Question 0**

Who attacked the partisans in 1943?

**Question 1**

From whom did the Allied leaders exchange their support for Tito?

**Question 2**

Which Soviet prime minister recognised Tito?

**Question 3**

On what occasion did Stalin recognise Tito?

**Question 4**

When was the Balkan Air Force established?

**Text number 14**

In the first post-war years, Tito was widely regarded as a communist leader who was very loyal to Moscow, and was often considered second only to Stalin in the Eastern Bloc. In fact, the alliance between Stalin and Tito was uneasy from the start, as Stalin considered Tito too independent.

**Question 0**

To whom was Tito considered loyal?

**Question 1**

Who was Tito considered to be the second in the Eastern Bloc?

**Question 2**

With whom did Tito have an uneasy alliance from the start?

**Question 3**

Who thought Tito was too independent?

**Question 4**

Who was considered loyal to Moscow?

**Text number 15**

On 12 September 1944, King Peter II called on all Yugoslavs to rally to Tito's leadership, stating that those who did not were "traitors", at which point all Allied authorities (including the government-in-exile) recognised Tito as Prime Minister of Yugoslavia and Commander-in-Chief of the Yugoslav forces. On 28 September 1944, the Soviet Telegraphic Service (TASS) announced that Tito had signed an agreement with the Soviet Union allowing the 'temporary entry' of Soviet troops into Yugoslav territory, which would enable the Red Army to assist in operations in north-east Yugoslavia. As the Allied advance secured their strategically important right flank, the partisans prepared and executed a massive general offensive that succeeded in breaking the German lines and forcing them to retreat behind the Yugoslav borders. After the Partisan victory and the end of hostilities in Europe, all external forces were ordered to leave Yugoslav territory.

**Question 0**

In 1944, who called on all the Yugoslavs to unite under Tito?

**Question 1**

With whom did Tito sign a treaty on 28 September 1944?

**Question 2**

Who was allowed "temporary access" to Yugoslav territory?

**Question 3**

Who assisted in the operations in the north-east of Yugoslavia?

**Question 4**

Who carried out the massive attack and managed to break through the German lines?

**Text number 16**

In the last days of the Second World War in Yugoslavia, partisan units were responsible for atrocities after Bleiburg's repatriation, and later charges of guilt were brought against the Yugoslav leadership led by Tito. At the time, Josip Broz Tito repeatedly appealed to the retreating column to surrender, offered amnesty and sought to avoid a disorganised surrender. On 14 May, he sent a telegram to the Supreme Command of the Slovenian Partisan Army prohibiting in the 'strongest terms' the execution of prisoners of war and ordering that any suspects be referred to a military tribunal.

**Question 0**

Who offered amnesty to the retreating column?

**Question 1**

Who sent a telegram to the Supreme Headquarters forbidding the execution of prisoners of war?

**Question 2**

Who was responsible for the atrocities in Yugoslavia in the last days of the Second World War?

**Question 3**

What did Tito offer the retreating column?

**Question 4**

Where were the potential suspects transferred to?

**Text number 17**

On 7 March 1945, Josip Broz Tito assembled in Belgrade the provisional government of the Democratic Federal Yugoslavia (Demokratska Federativna Jugoslavija, DFY), whose provisional name allowed for either a republic or a monarchy. This government was headed by Tito as interim Yugoslav Prime Minister and included representatives of the royal government-in-exile, including Ivan Šubašić. Under an agreement between the resistance leaders and the government-in-exile, post-war elections were held to determine the form of government. In November 1945, the Republican Popular Front, led by the Communist Party of Yugoslavia in Tito, won the elections by an overwhelming majority, as the monarchists boycotted the vote. Tito apparently enjoyed huge popular support at the time, as he was widely seen as the liberator of Yugoslavia. In the immediate post-war period, the Yugoslav regime succeeded in uniting a country severely affected by extremist nationalist unrest and the destruction caused by the war, while at the same time succeeding in suppressing nationalist sentiments among the various peoples in favour of tolerance and the common goal of Yugoslavia. After an overwhelming electoral victory, Tito was confirmed as Prime Minister and Foreign Minister of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. The country was soon renamed the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (FPRY) (later definitively the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (SFRY)). The Constituent Assembly of Yugoslavia formally deposed King Peter II on 29 November 1945. Shortly afterwards, the Assembly drew up a new constitution for the republic.

**Question 0**

Where did the provisional government of the Federal Democratic Republic of Yugoslavia meet?

**Question 1**

When was the provisional government of the Federal Democratic Republic of Yugoslavia formed?

**Question 2**

Who formed the provisional government of the Federal Democratic Republic of Yugoslavia?

**Question 3**

Who was considered the liberator of Yugoslavia?

**Question 4**

Who was officially deposed by the Constituent Assembly of Yugoslavia on 29 November 1945?

**Text number 18**

Yugoslavia organised the Partisan Movement into the Yugoslav People's Army (Jugoslavenska narodna armija, JNA), which became the fourth strongest army in Europe at the time. The new secret police force was also established as the State Security Administration (Uprava državne bezbednosti/sigurnosti/varnosti, UDBA) and a security agency, the People's Security Department (Organ Zaštite Naroda (Armije), OZNA). The Yugoslav intelligence service was responsible for the capture and prosecution of a large number of Nazi collaborators, controversially including Catholic priests, as the Croatian Catholic clergy were widely implicated in the Ustaša regime. Draža Mihailović was found guilty of collaboration, treason and war crimes and executed by firing squad in July 1946.

**Question 0**

What was the new secret police formed?

**Question 1**

Who was tasked with bringing a large number of Nazi collaborators to trial?

**Question 2**

Who were the most controversial among those accused of Nazi collaboration?

**Question 3**

Who was found guilty of collaboration, treason?

**Question 4**

How was Draza executed?

**Text number 19**

Prime Minister Josip Broz Tito met with Aloysius Stepinac, President of the Yugoslav Bishops' Conference, on 4 June 1945, two days after his release from prison. They could not reach an agreement on the state of the Catholic Church. Under Stepinac's leadership, the Bishops' Conference issued a letter in September 1945 condemning the alleged war crimes of the partisans. The following year, Stepinac was arrested and prosecuted. In October 1946, at its first special session in 75 years, the Vatican excommunicated Tito and the Yugoslav government for having sentenced Stepinac to 16 years in prison on charges of aiding the Ustaše terror and supporting the forced conversion of Serbs to Catholicism. Stepinac was given preferential treatment because of his status and his sentence was soon reduced to house arrest and the Archbishop was offered the possibility of emigration. At the end of the Informbiro period, the reforms made Yugoslavia much freer in religious terms than the Eastern Bloc countries.

**Question 0**

Who was the President of the Bishops' Conference of Yugoslavia?

**Question 1**

How long after his release from prison did TIto participate in the Yugoslav Bishops' Conference?

**Question 2**

What was the subject of the bishops' conference's bone of contention?

**Question 3**

Under whose leadership did the Bishops' Conference publish a letter condemning the alleged war crimes of the partisans?

**Question 4**

Where was Stepinac's sentence reduced to?

**Text number 20**

Unlike the other new communist states of Eastern Central Europe, Yugoslavia was liberated from Axis rule with little direct support from the Red Army. Tito's leading role in the liberation of Yugoslavia greatly strengthened his position within his party and among the Yugoslav people, but it also led him to emphasise that Yugoslavia had more room to pursue its own interests than the other leaders of the bloc, who had more reason (and pressure) to recognise the efforts of the Soviet Union to help them liberate their own countries from Axis control. Although Tito was formally an ally of Stalin after World War II, the Soviet Union had established a spy ring with the Yugoslav party as early as 1945, leading to an uneasy alliance[citation needed].

**Question 0**

Who played a leading role in the liberation of Yugoslavia?

**Question 1**

Whose official ally was Tito after the Second World War?

**Question 2**

Who set up a spy ring in the Yugoslav party?

**Question 3**

In what year was a spy ring set up in the Yugoslav party?

**Question 4**

From what power did Yugoslavia free itself?

**Text number 21**

Immediately after the Second World War, several armed incidents took place between Yugoslavia and the Western Allies. After the war, Yugoslavia took control of the Italian region of Istria and the cities of Zadar and Rijeka. The Yugoslav leadership also sought to incorporate Trieste into the country, which the Western Allies opposed. This led to several armed incidents, notably attacks by Yugoslav fighter planes on US transport aircraft, which provoked bitter criticism in the West. Between 1945 and 1948, at least four US aircraft were shot down.[better source] Stalin opposed these provocations, believing that the Soviet Union was not ready to face the West in open warfare so soon after the defeats of World War II and at a time when the United States had operational nuclear weapons, while the Soviet Union had not yet conducted its first test. Moreover, Tito openly supported the Communist side in the Greek civil war, while Stalin kept his distance, having agreed with Churchill that he would not pursue Soviet interests there, although he did politically support the Greek Communist struggle, as he demonstrated at several UN Security Council meetings. In 1948, motivated by the desire to create a strong independent economy, Tito formulated his economic development plan independently of Moscow, leading to a diplomatic escalation, followed by a bitter exchange of letters in which Tito asserted that

**Question 0**

What Italian territory was given to Yugoslavia after the war?

**Question 1**

Which region did the Yugoslav leadership want to incorporate into Yugoslavia?

**Question 2**

How many American aircraft were shot down between 1945 and 1948?

**Question 3**

Who openly supported the communist side in the Greek civil war?

**Question 4**

In which year will Tito model his economic development plans independently of Moscow?

**Text number 22**

The Soviet reply of 4 May reproached Tito and the Communist Party of Yugoslavia (CPJ) for not admitting and correcting their mistakes, and accused them of being too proud of their success against the Germans, claiming that the Red Army had saved them from destruction. Tito's reply of 17 May suggested that the matter should be resolved at the June meeting of the Kominform. However, Tito did not attend the second Cominform meeting for fear of an open attack on Yugoslavia. 1949The crisis was close to escalating into an armed conflict as Hungarian and Soviet troops had massed on Yugoslavia's northern border. On 28 June, the other member states expelled Yugoslavia, citing 'nationalist elements' who had 'succeeded in gaining a dominant position in the leadership of the CPY over the last five or six months'. In Moscow, it was assumed that once it was known that Tito had lost the approval of the Soviet Union, he would collapse. "I wag my little finger and Tito is no more," Stalin said. The expulsion effectively expelled Yugoslavia from the International League of Socialist States, and other socialist states in Eastern Europe subsequently carried out purges of alleged 'Tito's'. Stalin took the matter personally and organised several assassination attempts against Tito, none of which succeeded. In correspondence between the two leaders, Tito wrote openly:

**Question 0**

Tito did not attend this second meeting.

**Question 1**

What year did the crisis almost escalate into armed conflict?

**Question 2**

What were the names of those who were cleansed in other Eastern European socialist countries?

**Question 3**

Who made several assassination attempts against Tito?

**Text number 23**

One important consequence of the tensions between Yugoslavia and the Soviet Union was that Tito fought the Stalinists in Yugoslavia using Stalinist methods. In other words, Aleksandar Ranković and the State Security Service (UBDA) used the same inhuman methods against their opponents as Stalin used against his own in the Soviet Union. Not all those accused of political crimes were convicted, and no one was sentenced to death for their pro-Soviet sentiments. However, this repression, which lasted until 1956, was accompanied by significant violations of human rights.

**Question 0**

Whose methods did Tito use to fight the Stalinists in Yugoslavia?

**Question 1**

Who used inhumane methods against opponents through the UBDA?

**Question 2**

How long did it take to suppress the UBDA?

**Question 3**

The UBDA's activities were caused by tensions between Yugoslavia and which country?

**Question 4**

What is the second name of UBDA?

**Text number 24**

Tito's alienation from the Soviet Union enabled Yugoslavia to receive US aid through the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA), the same US aid agency that administered the Marshall Plan. However, it refused to ally itself with the West, which was a common consequence of receiving American aid at the time. After Stalin's death in 1953, relations with the Soviet Union relaxed and he also began to receive aid from COMECON. In this way, Tito exploited the East-West confrontation. Instead of choosing sides, he was involved in launching a movement of non-aligned countries that would act as a 'third way' for countries that wanted to remain outside the East-West divide.

**Question 0**

Which country gave aid to Yugoslavia after Tito's estrangement from the Soviet Union?

**Question 1**

Which agency distributed aid to Yugoslavia?

**Question 2**

Which plan is also managed by the Court of Auditors?

**Question 3**

Which of the leaders feared that accepting American aid meant allying with the West?

**Question 4**

What year did Stalin die?

**Text number 25**

The event was significant not only for Yugoslavia and Tito, but also for the global development of socialism, as it was the first major split between communist states that challenged the Comintern's claims that socialism was a unified force that would eventually rule the world, as Tito became the first (and only successful) socialist leader to challenge the Comintern's Stalinist leadership. This disagreement with the Soviet Union brought Tito much international recognition, but also ushered in a period of instability, often referred to as the Informbiro period. Moscow branded Tito's form of communism as "Titoism" and encouraged purges against suspected Titoists throughout the Eastern Bloc.

**Question 0**

What name refers to the instability that existed during the Tito-Soviet split?

**Question 1**

What was Tito's form of communism?

**Question 2**

Who encouraged the purges against Titoit?

**Question 3**

In which area did the Titoites clean-up take place?

**Question 4**

Who became the first leader to defy Stalin's leadership?

**Text number 26**

On 26 June, the National Assembly supported the crucial bill on "self-government" (samoupravljanje) drafted by Milovan Đilas and Tito: a kind of cooperative autonomous socialist experiment that introduced profit-sharing and workplace democracy in previously state-owned enterprises, which were then transferred to direct social ownership by the workers. 1950 On 13 January 1953, they confirmed that the law of self-government was the basis of the entire Yugoslav social order. Tito also succeeded Ivan Ribar as President of Yugoslavia on 14 January 1953. After Stalin's death, Tito declined the Soviet invitation to visit him to discuss the normalisation of relations between the two nations. Nikita Khrushchev and Nikolai Bulganin visited Tito in Belgrade in 1955 and apologised for the abuses of the Stalin regime. Tito visited the Soviet Union in 1956, signalling to the world that hostilities between Yugoslavia and the Soviet Union were easing. However, relations between the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia reached a new low in the late 1960s. Commenting on the crisis, Tito said:

**Question 0**

What year did the National Assembly support the crucial bill on "self-government"?

**Question 1**

Who wrote the bill with Tito for "self-government"?

**Question 2**

Who followed Tito as president of Yugoslavia?

**Question 3**

Whose invitation did Tito turn down after Stalin's death?

**Question 4**

When did Tito visit the Soviet Union to show that hostility towards his country was on the wane?

**Text number 27**

The Tito-Stalin parting had far-reaching effects on countries outside the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia. For example, it has been cited as one of the reasons for the Slánský trial in Czechoslovakia, where high-ranking14 communist officials were purged and some of them executed. Stalin put pressure on Czechoslovakia to carry out the purges in order to prevent the spread of the idea of a 'national path to socialism', which Tito advocated.

**Question 0**

How many high-ranking communists were cleared in the Slansky trial?

**Question 1**

How many communists were executed in the Slansky trial?

**Question 2**

Which country did Stalin put pressure on to be cleansed?

**Question 3**

Who advocated the "national road to socialism"?

**Question 4**

Who pressured Czechoslovakia to carry out the purges?

**Text number 28**

Under Tito's leadership, Yugoslavia became a founding member of the Non-Aligned Movement. In 1961, Tito co-founded the movement with Egypt's Gamal Abdel Nasser, India's Jawaharlal Nehru, Indonesia's Sukarno and Ghana's Kwame Nkrumah in an initiative known as the Five (Tito, Nehru, Nasser, Sukarno, Nkrumah), thus establishing strong ties with Third World countries. This action greatly improved Yugoslavia's diplomatic standing. Josip Broz Tito became the first Secretary-General of the Non-Aligned Movement on 1 September 1961.

**Question 0**

Under whose leadership did Yugoslavia become a founding member of the Non-Aligned Movement?

**Question 1**

What year was Tito involved in setting up the Non-Aligned Movement?

**Question 2**

Which country was Nasser leading in 1961?

**Question 3**

Which Indonesian leader co-founded the Non-Aligned Movement with Tito?

**Question 4**

Who became the first General Secretary of the Non-Aligned Movement?

**Text number 29**

Tito's foreign policy led to relations with various governments, including visits ( 1954and 1956 ) with the Ethiopian Emperor Haile Selassie, in whose honour a street was named.

**Question 0**

When did Tito first visit Emperor Haile Selassie?

**Question 1**

When was the last time Tito visited Emperor Selassie?

**Question 2**

Which country is ruled by Emperor Selassie?

**Question 3**

Which country has a street named after Tito?

**Question 4**

Who is the Emperor of Ethiopia in 1954?

**Text number 30**

Tito was known for pursuing a neutral foreign policy during the Cold War and for establishing close relations with developing countries. Tito's strong belief in self-determination caused an early falling out with Stalin and, as a result, the Eastern Bloc. His public speeches often repeated that a policy of neutrality and cooperation with all countries would be natural, as long as these countries did not use their influence to pressure Yugoslavia to take sides. Relations with the United States and the countries of Western Europe were generally warm.

**Question 0**

During which period did Tito pursue a policy of neutrality?

**Question 1**

With whom did Tito's belief in self-determination cause discord?

**Question 2**

Which countries did Tito develop relations with?

**Question 3**

Who believed strongly in self-determination and therefore opposed Stalin?

**Question 4**

Tito had warm relations with the United States and what other western region?

**Text number 31**

Yugoslavia's travel policy was liberal, allowing foreigners to travel freely through the country and its citizens to travel around the world, while in most communist countries it was restricted. Many [in number] Yugoslav citizens worked throughout Western Europe. Tito met many world leaders during his reign, including Soviet rulers Joseph Stalin, Nikita Khrushchev and Leonid Brezhnev, Egypt's Gamal Abdel Nasser, Indian politicians Jawaharlal Nehru and Indira Gandhi, British Prime Ministers Winston Churchill, James Callaghan and Margaret Thatcher, US Presidents Dwight D. Eisenhower, John F. Kennedy, Richard Nixon, Gerald Ford and Jimmy Carter; Other political leaders, dignitaries and heads of state whom Tito met at least once during his life included Che Guevara, Fidel Castro, Yasser Arafat, Willy Brandt, Helmut Schmidt and Georges Pompidou, Queen Elizabeth II, Hua Guofeng, Kim Il Sung, Sukarno, Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, Suharto, Idi Amin, Haile Selassie, Kenneth Kaunda, Gaddafi, Erich Honecker, Nicolae Ceaușescu, János Kádár and Urho Kekkonen. He also met numerous celebrities.

**Question 0**

Which country was Nasser the leader of?

**Question 1**

Which country was Nehru the leader of?

**Question 2**

Gandhi was the leader of which country?

**Question 3**

Eisenhower was president of which country?

**Question 4**

What country was Nixon president of?

**Text number 32**

Tito visited India from 22 December 1954 to 8 January 1955. On his return, he lifted many restrictions on churches and spiritual institutions in Yugoslavia.

**Question 0**

When did Tito first visit India?

**Question 1**

When did Tito leave India?

**Question 2**

On his return, where did Tito lift many restrictions on churches in Yugoslavia?

**Question 3**

Where did Tito visit between 1954 and 1955?

**Question 4**

On his return from India, Tito lifted restrictions on which institutions?

**Text number 33**

Tito also developed warm relations with Burma during the U Nun and visited the country in 1955 and again in 1959, although the new leader Ne Win did not treat him in the same way in 1959.

**Question 0**

What country did U Nu lead?

**Question 1**

Who was the leader of Burma in 1955?

**Question 2**

Who followed U Nui in Burma?

**Question 3**

What country did Ne Win lead?

**Question 4**

Who was the leader of Burma in 1959?

**Text number 34**

Because of its neutrality, Yugoslavia was a rare country among the communist countries to have diplomatic relations with right-wing, anti-communist governments. For example, Yugoslavia was the only communist country to have an embassy in Alfredo Stroessner's Paraguay. One notable exception to Yugoslavia's neutrality towards anti-communist countries was Chile under Pinochet; Yugoslavia was one of many countries that cut diplomatic relations with Chile after the ouster of Salvador Allende. Yugoslavia also provided military aid and arms supplies to staunchly anti-communist governments, such as Guatemala under Kjell Eugenio Laugerud García.

**Question 0**

Which was the only communist country allowed to have an embassy in Stroessner's Paraguay?

**Question 1**

Yugoslavia was the only communist country with an embassy in where?

**Question 2**

What country did Pinochet rule?

**Question 3**

Who did Pinochet overthrow?

**Question 4**

Which country was led by Kjell Eugenio Laugerud Garcia?

**Text number 35**

On 7 April 1963, the country was officially renamed the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. The reforms encouraged private enterprise and considerably eased restrictions on freedom of speech and religious expression. Tito then embarked on a tour of America. In Chile, two government ministers resigned as a result of his visit. In the autumn of 1960, Tito met President Dwight D. Eisenhower at the United Nations General Assembly. Tito and Eisenhower discussed a wide range of issues from arms control to economic development. When Eisenhower pointed out that Yugoslavia's neutrality was 'neutral on his side', Tito replied that neutrality did not mean passivity but 'not on either side'.

**Question 0**

When did Yugoslavia change its name to the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia?

**Question 1**

Two government ministers resigned because of Tito's visit in which area?

**Question 2**

Where did Eisenhower meet Tito in 1960?

**Question 3**

Who said that impartiality does not mean passivity but "not taking a stand"?

**Question 4**

When did Tito meet Eisenhower at the UN?

**Text number 36**

The 1966 agreement with the Vatican, partly facilitated by the death of the anti-communist Archbishop of Zagreb, Aloysius Stepinac, in 1960, and the changes in the Church's attitude to anti-communism brought about by the Second Vatican Council, gave the Roman Catholic Church in Yugoslavia new freedoms, particularly in the holding of catechumenate and the opening of seminaries. The agreement also eased tensions that had prevented the appointment of new bishops in Yugoslavia since 1945. Tito's new socialism faced opposition from traditional communists, culminating in a conspiracy led by Aleksandar Ranković. In the same year, Tito declared that the communists must henceforth plan the course of Yugoslavia by force of their arguments (which meant abandoning Leninist orthodoxy and developing liberal communism). The power of the State Security Administration (UDBA) was reduced and its staff reduced to 5,000.

**Question 0**

Which anti-communist archbishop died in 1960?

**Question 1**

Which branch of the Roman Catholic Church gained new freedom with the death of Stepinac?

**Question 2**

Which agency's staff was reduced to 5,000 after Lennin's orthodox thinking was abandoned?

**Question 3**

Which acronym describes the national security administration?

**Question 4**

Which ideology did Tito abandon as part of his new socialism?

**Text number 37**

On 1 January 1967, Yugoslavia became the first communist country to open its borders to all foreign visitors and abolish visa requirements. In the same year, Tito actively promoted a peaceful solution to the Arab-Israeli conflict. His plan was for the Arabs to recognise the State of Israel in exchange for the territories it had acquired.

**Question 0**

Who was the first communist country to open its borders to all foreign visitors?

**Question 1**

In what year did the first communist country open its borders to all foreign visitors?

**Question 2**

When did Tito start to promote a peaceful solution to the Arab-Israeli conflict?

**Question 3**

Whose plan called for the Arabs to recognise the State of Israel in exchange for the territories Israel had acquired?

**Question 4**

In what year did Tito start working on the Arab-Israeli peace process?

**Text number 38**

In 1968, Tito offered the leader of Czechoslovakia, Alexander Dubček, the opportunity to fly to Prague on three hours' notice if Dubček needed help to defeat the Soviet Union. In April 1969, Tito dismissed Generals Ivan Gošnjak and Rade Hamović after the invasion of Czechoslovakia because the Yugoslav army was not prepared to respond to a similar invasion of Yugoslavia.

**Question 0**

What country was Dubcek running?

**Question 1**

How much time did Tito give Dubcek to fly to Prague?

**Question 2**

Where did Tito send Dubcek in 1968?

**Question 3**

Who removed Generals Gosnjak and Hamovic?

**Question 4**

Which army was unprepared for the invasion of Czechoslovakia?

**Text number 39**

In 1971, the Federal Assembly re-elected Tito as President of Yugoslavia for the sixth time. In his speech to the Federal Assembly, he proposed sweeping20 constitutional changes that would provide an updated framework on which the country would be based. The amendments provided for a collective presidency, a 22-member body composed of elected representatives of six republics and two autonomous provinces. The body would have a single president and the presidency would rotate among the six republics. When the Federal Assembly could not agree on legislation, the collective presidency would have the power to decide by decree. The amendments also provided for a stronger cabinet with considerable powers to initiate and implement legislative initiatives independently of the Communist Party. Džemal Bijedić was elected Prime Minister. The new amendments sought to decentralise the country by granting greater autonomy to republics and provinces. Only foreign affairs, defence, internal security, monetary affairs, free trade within Yugoslavia and development loans for poor regions would remain within the competence of the federal state. Control of education, health and housing would be entirely in the hands of the governments of the republics and autonomous provinces.

**Question 0**

In what year was Tito elected president of Yugoslavia for the sixth time?

**Question 1**

Who elected Tito president in 1971?

**Question 2**

How many major constitutional amendments did Tito make in 1971?

**Question 3**

Who was elected Prime Minister of Yugoslavia in 1971?

**Question 4**

Which aspect of the Yugoslav government would retain control of foreign affairs, defence and internal security?

**Text number 40**

For the Western communists, Tito's greatest strength had been to suppress nationalist rebellions and preserve the unity of the country as a whole. Tito's call for unity and the methods he used to achieve it kept the Yugoslav people together. This ability was put to the test on several occasions during his reign, notably during the Croatian Spring (also known as Masovni pokret, maspok, meaning 'mass movement'), when the government suppressed both public demonstrations and dissent within the Communist Party. Despite this repression, much of the maspok's demands were later implemented in the new constitution, which Tito himself strongly supported in the face of opposition from the Serbian branch of the party. On 16 May 1974, the new constitution was adopted, and the ageing Tito became president for life, a position he held for five years.

**Question 0**

Whose calls for unity are the Western communists calling for to keep Yugoslavia together?

**Question 1**

What was called a "mass movement"?

**Question 2**

When was the new Yugoslav Constitution adopted?

**Question 3**

Who was appointed president for life of Yugoslavia in 1974?

**Question 4**

How long did the person nominated as "president for life" serve?

**Text number 41**

Tito's visits to the United States avoided most of the Northeast, because Yugoslav immigrants bitter at Yugoslav communism were large minorities. State visits were usually highly secured to keep him away from protesters, who often burned the Yugoslav flag. During a visit to the United Nations in the late 1970s, emigrants shouted "Tito the murderer" outside his New York hotel, which he protested about to US authorities.

**Question 0**

What flag did Tito protesters often burn?

**Question 1**

What were the protesters shouting when Tito visited the United Nations in the late 1970s?

**Question 2**

Which authorities made complaints to TIto about the protesters?

**Question 3**

Which American state did Tito visit when he saw the UN?

**Question 4**

The security measures for Tito's visit were unusually high to keep him away from which people?

**Text number 42**

After the constitutional changes of 1974-2001, Tito began to reduce his role in the day-to-day running of the state. He continued to travel abroad and receive foreign visitors, visiting Beijing in 1977 and reconciling with the Chinese leadership, which had once branded him a revisionist. President Hua Guofeng, for his part, visited Yugoslavia in 1979. In 1978, Tito travelled to the United States. During his visit, tight security measures were imposed in Washington D.C. because of demonstrations by anti-communist Croat, Serb and Albanian groups.

**Question 0**

Where did Tito go in 1977 to mediate with the Chinese leadership?

**Question 1**

In what year did Tito go to China to mediate with the Chinese leadership?

**Question 2**

Which Chinese leader travelled to Yugoslavia in 1979?

**Question 3**

After the constitutional changes of that year, Tito reduced his role in the day-to-day running of the state.

**Question 4**

In what year did Tito travel to Washington D.C. in the United States amid protests from anti-communist Croat, Serb and Albanian groups?

**Text number 43**

Tito became increasingly ill during 1979. During this period, Vila Srna was built for his use near Morović in Morović for his convalescence. On 7 and 11 January 1980, Tito was admitted to the SR Medical Centre in Ljubljana, the capital of Slovenia, for circulatory problems in his legs. His left leg was amputated shortly afterwards due to arterial thrombosis, and he died of gangrene at the Ljubljana Medical Centre at 3.05 p.m. on 4 May 1980, three days before his 88th birthday. His funeral was attended by many world statesmen. The number of politicians and state delegations attending made it the largest state funeral in history at the time, a concentration of dignitaries that would not have been possible before the funerals of Pope John Paul II in 2005 and Nelson Mandela in 2013. Four kings, 31 presidents, six princes, 22 prime ministers and 47 foreign ministers attended the funeral. They came from both sides of the Cold War, from 128 different countries out of the then 154 UN member states.

**Question 0**

During which year did Tito become increasingly ill?

**Question 1**

What was built near Morovic for Tito to use if he recovered?

**Question 2**

Where was Tito taken on 7 January and 11 January 1980 for circulatory problems?

**Question 3**

When did Tito die?

**Question 4**

What was the cause of Tito's death?

**Text number 44**

Tito was buried in a mausoleum in Belgrade, part of a monument on the grounds of the Museum of Yugoslav History (formerly the "Museum of 25 May" and the "Museum of the Revolution"). The actual mausoleum is called the House of Flowers (Kuća Cveća), and many people visit it as a shrine to "better times". The museum houses the gifts Tito received during his presidency. The collection also includes original prints of Francisco Goya's Los Caprichos and many others. The Serbian government is planning to merge the museum with the Serbian Museum of History. With Tito's death, speculation began as to whether his successors could continue to hold Yugoslavia together. Ethnic divisions and conflicts grew and eventually erupted in a series of wars in Yugoslavia a decade after his death.

**Question 0**

In which city was Tito buried?

**Question 1**

Which museum was formerly called the "Museum of 25 May"?

**Question 2**

What name was given to the mausoleum of Tito?

**Question 3**

Who made the original edition of Los Caprichos?

**Question 4**

After whose death, speculation began as to whether his successors would be able to keep Yugoslavia together?

**Text number 45**

During Tito's lifetime, and especially in the first year after his death, several places were named after him. Several of these places have since reverted to their original names, such as Podgorica, formerly Titograd (although Podgorica International Airport is still known as TGD), and Užice, formerly Titovo Užice, which reverted to its original name in 1992. The streets of the capital Belgrade have also all reverted to their original pre-World War II and pre-communist names. In 2004, the Broz statue of Antun Augustinčić in his hometown of Kumrovec was cut down in an explosion. It was later repaired. In 2008, two demonstrations were held in Zagreb's Marsalkka Tito Square, organised by a group called Circle for the Square (Krug za Trg) to force the city government to rename the square to its previous name, while a counter-demonstration organised by the Citizens' Initiative against Ustasism (Građanska inicijativa protiv ustaštva) accused Circle for the Square of historical revisionism and neo-fascism. Croatian President Stjepan Mesić criticised the demonstration for changing the name. The main (and longest) street in the Croatian coastal town of Opatija still bears the name of Marshal Tito, as do streets in numerous Serbian towns, mainly in the north of the country. One of the main streets in central Sarajevo is called Marshal Tito Street, and the statue of Tito in the park in front of the university campus in Marijin Dvor (former JNA barracks "Maršal Tito") is a place where Bosnians and Sarajevans still remember and honour Tito today (photo right). The world's largest monument to Tito, some 10 metres high, is located in Tito Square (Titov trg in Slovenian), the central square of Velenje in Slovenia. One of the most important bridges in Maribor, Slovenia's second largest city, is the Tito Bridge (Titov most). The central square of Koper, Slovenia's largest port city, is also called Tito Square.

**Question 0**

What name was changed to Titograd?

**Question 1**

When did Uziece revert to its original name?

**Question 2**

Where was Antun Augustincic born?

**Question 3**

Which country is Stejpan Mesic president of?

**Question 4**

Where is the largest monument in Tito?

**Text number 46**

Every year, Montenegro, Macedonia and Serbia organise the "Brotherhood and Unity" relay race, which ends in May25 at the "House of Flowers" in Belgrade, Tito's final resting place. At the same time, runners from Slovenia, Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina will set off for Kumrovec, Tito's birthplace in northern Croatia. The races are a relic from the days of Yugoslavia, when young people made a similar annual trek on foot across Yugoslavia, ending with a huge celebration in Belgrade.

**Question 0**

Where will the annual "Brotherhood and Unity" competition end?

**Question 1**

Where is Tito's final resting place?

**Question 2**

Where is Tito's birthplace in Croatia?

**Question 3**

How often is the "Brotherhood and Unity" competition organised?

**Question 4**

On what day in May will the "Brotherhood and Unity" competition end?

**Text number 47**

In the years after the break-up of Yugoslavia, some historians noted that human rights were suppressed in Yugoslavia under Tito, especially in the first decade until the separation of Tito and Stalin. On 4 October 2011, the Constitutional Court of Slovenia ruled that the naming of a street in Ljubljana after Tito in 2009 was unconstitutional. Although several public areas in Slovenia (named during the Yugoslav era) already bear Tito's name, the Court ruled that renaming a new street was unconstitutional:

**Question 0**

In 2009, what year did a Slovenian court rule that naming a street after Tito was unconstitutional?

**Question 1**

Where was the street named after Tito that was declared unconstitutional?

**Question 2**

Several public areas in Slovenia are in the name of this person.

**Question 3**

Under which ruler was human rights suppressed in Yugoslavia, according to historians?

**Text number 48**

However, the Court made it explicitly clear that the purpose of the review was not to "pass judgment on Tito as a person or on his specific actions, nor to weigh up the facts and circumstances historically". There are several streets and squares in Slovenia named after Tito, notably Vito Square in Velenje, where there is a 10-metre statue.

**Question 0**

Tito Square is located in which Slovenian city?

**Question 1**

How tall is the statue in Tito Square?

**Question 2**

Where is the 10-metre statue of Tito?

**Question 3**

Where is Velenje located?

**Text number 49**

Tito has also been named as responsible for the systematic extermination of the German population (Danish Swabians) of Vojvodina through deportations and mass executions after the collapse of the German occupation of Yugoslavia at the end of World War II, contrary to his attitude towards other Yugoslav nationalities.

**Question 0**

What is the ethnic origin of the Danish Swabians?

**Question 1**

Where is the Danish-Swedish population located?

**Question 2**

In which city were mass evictions of the Swedish population of the Danube organised?

**Question 3**

Which group of people occupied Yugoslavia at the end of World War II?

**Question 4**

At the end of which world war did the Germans occupy Yugoslavia?

**Text number 50**

Tito had numerous affairs and was married several times. In 1918 he was taken as a prisoner of war to Omsk, Russia. There he met Pelagia Belousova, then 13 years old, whom he married a year later, and she moved with him to Yugoslavia. Pelagija bore him five children, but only their son Žarko Leon (born on 4 February 1924) survived. When Tito was imprisoned in 1928, he returned to Russia. After a divorce in 1936, he later remarried.

**Question 0**

Where in Russia was Tito taken as a prisoner of war in 1918?

**Question 1**

When was Tito brought to Russia as a prisoner of war?

**Question 2**

How old was Pelagija Belousava when Tito met her?

**Question 3**

How many children did Pelagia give birth to Tito?

**Question 4**

Who was Tito's only surviving child?

**Text number 51**

While staying at the Hotel Lux in Moscow in 1936, Tito met Austrian comrade Lucia Bauer. They married in October 1936, but records of this marriage were later deleted.

**Question 0**

Where is Hotel Lux located in Russia?

**Question 1**

When did Tito stay at Hotel Lux?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the Austrian comrade whom Tito met in Moscow in 1936?

**Question 3**

When did Tito marry Lucia Bauer?

**Question 4**

Tito's marriage to which person was later removed from the archives?

**Text number 52**

His next relationship was with Herta Haas, whom he married in 1940. Broz left for Belgrade after the April war and left Haas pregnant. In May 1941 she gave birth to their son Aleksandar "Mišo" Broz. Throughout his relationship with Haas, Tito had led a liberal life, and had a parallel relationship with Davorjanka Paunović, who, under the code name 'Zdenka', acted as a courier for the resistance and later became his personal secretary. Haas and Tito parted unexpectedly in 1943 in Jajce during the second meeting of the AVNOJ, after Haas had reportedly attacked Tito and Davorjana. The last time Haas saw Broz was in 1946. Davorjanka died of tuberculosis in 1946, and Tito insisted that he be buried in the backyard of his Belgrade apartment, Beli Dvor.

**Question 0**

Who did Tito marry in 1940?

**Question 1**

When did Haas give birth to Tito's son?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the son Tito and Haas had together?

**Question 3**

Who did Tito have a parallel life with during his marriage to Haas?

**Question 4**

When did Davorjanka die of tuberculosis?

**Text number 53**

His most famous wife was Jovanka Broz. Tito had just turned 59, while she was 27, when they finally married in April 1952, with Aleksandar Ranković, the head of state security, as best man. The marriage was somewhat unexpected, as Tito had in fact rejected her some years earlier when his confidant Ivan Krajacic initially brought him together. She was in her twenties at the time, and Tito, not liking her energetic personality, chose the more mature opera singer Zinka Kunc to replace her. Not easily discouraged, Jovanka continued to work at the Beli Dvor, where she managed the staff and eventually got another chance after Tito and Zinka's strange relationship failed. As the only female partner he married while in power, Jovanka also went down in history as Yugoslavia's first woman. However, their relationship was not a happy one. It had experienced many, often public, ups and downs, with infidelity and even allegations that the latter couple were preparing a coup. According to some unofficial reports, Tito and Jovanka even officially divorced in the late 1970s, shortly before Tito's death. However, Jovanka was officially present at Tito's funeral as Tito's wife and later claimed inheritance rights. The couple had no children.

**Question 0**

Who was Tito's most famous wife?

**Question 1**

How old was Jovanka Broz when she married Tito?

**Question 2**

What year did Tito and Jovanka get married?

**Question 3**

Who was the best man at Jovanka and Tito's wedding?

**Question 4**

Who went down in history as the first woman in Yugoslavia?

**Text number 54**

Tito's notable grandchildren include Aleksandra Broz, a prominent theatre director in Croatia, Svetlana Broz, a cardiologist and writer in Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Josip "Joška" Broz, Edvard Broz and Natali Klasevski, an artisan in Bosnia-Herzegovina.

**Question 0**

Which of Tito's grandchildren is a theatre director?

**Question 1**

Which of Tito's grandchildren is a cardiologist and writer?

**Question 2**

Where does Svetlana Broz live?

**Question 3**

Where does Leksandra Broz live?

**Question 4**

Where does Edvard Broz live?

**Text number 55**

As president, Tito had access to a vast (state-owned) fortune to go with the office, and a luxurious lifestyle. In Belgrade he lived in his official residence, Beli dvor, and had a separate private home. Since 1949, the Brijuni Islands were the site of a state summer residence. The pavilion was designed by Jože Plečnik and included a zoo. Almost 100 foreign heads of state visited Tito during his island residency, as well as film stars such as Elizabeth Taylor, Richard Burton, Sophia Loren, Carlo Ponti and Gina Lollobrigida.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the official residence in Belgrade?

**Question 1**

On which islands was the state summer residence located from 1949 onwards?

**Question 2**

Who designed the state summer house pavilion?

**Question 3**

In which city was Tito's official residence?

**Question 4**

Which island of Tito did film stars like Elizabeth Taylor visit?

**Text number 56**

Another residence was located on Lake Bled, and in Karađorđevo "diplomatic hunts" were held. By 1974, the Yugoslav president had 32 larger and smaller official residences, the yacht Galeb ("seagull"), a Boeing 727 as the presidential aircraft and a blue train. After Tito's death, the President's Boeing 727 was sold to Aviogenex, the Galeb remained docked in Montenegro, and the Blue Train was kept in a Serbian train depot for more than two decades. Although Tito held the presidency for by far the longest time, the associated assets were not private and much of it is still in the hands of Yugoslavia's successor states, public property or high-ranking officials.

**Question 0**

Where in the world were "diplomatic hunts" held?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the yacht that the President of Yugoslavia used?

**Question 2**

Which company bought the President's Boeing 727 after Tito's death?

**Question 3**

Where did Galeb dock after Tito's death?

**Question 4**

What is the English translation of the word Galeb?

**Text number 57**

In terms of language skills, Tito replied that he spoke Serbo-Croatian, German, Russian and some English. One biographer also stated that he spoke "Serbo-Croatian ..." Russian, Czech, Slovenian ... German (with a Viennese accent) ... understands and reads French and Italian ... [and] also speaks Kirghiz. "

**Question 0**

According to the biographer, what accent did Tito use when speaking German?

**Question 1**

How much English did Tito speak?

**Question 2**

What languages does Tito speak besides Serbo-Croatian, German, Russian, Czech, Slovene, English, French and Italian?

**Text number 58**

In his youth, Tito attended Catholic Sunday school and later became an altar boy. After a priest hit him and yelled at him when he had trouble helping the priest take off his vestments, Tito stopped going to church. As an adult, he often declared himself an atheist.

**Question 0**

What did Tito profess as a religious adult?

**Question 1**

What kind of religious education did Tito attend as a child?

**Question 2**

What did the priest do to Tito as a child when he had trouble taking off his priestly clothes?

**Question 3**

What place of worship would Tito refuse to go to after being shouted at by a priest as a child?

**Text number 59**

Each federal entity renamed a historically significant city from World War II to include Tito's name. The largest of these was Titograd, now Podgorica, the capital of Montenegro. With the exception of Titograd, the cities were renamed simply by adding the adjective "Titon" ("Titov"). The cities were:

**Question 0**

What is the name of the largest city renamed after Tito?

**Question 1**

What is the current name of Titograd?

**Question 2**

What is the capital of Podgorica?

**Question 3**

Whose name was added to the name of every historically significant city from the Second World War?

**Text number 60**

In the years after Tito's death, and even today, some have denied his identity. Tito's personal physician Aleksandar Matunović wrote a book about Tito in which he also questioned Tito's true origins, stating that Tito's habits and lifestyle could only mean that he was from an aristocratic family. The Serbian journalist Vladan Dinić (born 1949 ), in his book Tito nije tito, mentions several possible alternative identities for Tito.

**Question 0**

What was the name of Tito's personal doctor?

**Question 1**

Who wrote the book about Tito that questions his true origins?

**Question 2**

Which Serbian journalist includes several alternative identities for Tito?

**Question 3**

In what year was Vladan Dinic born?

**Question 4**

Dinic gives several alternative identities for which person?

**Text number 61**

There was much media coverage in 2013 of an unclassified NSA investigation in Cryptologic Spectrum, which found that Tito did not speak the language as his mother tongue and that it had features of other Slavic languages (Russian and Polish). The study also hypothesised that "someone other than a Yugoslav, perhaps Russian or Polish" had assumed Tito's identity. The report also mentions Draža Mihailović's impressions of Tito's Russian origin.

**Question 0**

What year was the Cryptologic Spectrum magazine study published?

**Question 1**

Which organisation created Cryptologic Spectrum?

**Question 2**

According to Cryptologic Spectrum, what other Slavic languages did Tito speak?

**Question 3**

Cryptologic Spectrum also notes whose impressions of Tito's Russian origins?

**Text number 62**

However, the Croatian experts completely refuted the NSA report. The report failed to recognise that Tito was a native speaker of the very distinctive local Zagorje Kajavian dialect. The acute accent, which occurs only in Croatian dialects and which Tito pronounces perfectly, is the strongest evidence that Tito belongs to the Kajkavian dialect.

**Question 0**

Which country's experts refuted the NSA report?

**Question 1**

What local dialect did Tito speak?

**Question 2**

The Croatian experts refuted the report of which group on Tito's ethnic origin?

**Question 3**

Tito's sharp accent is only found in which dialects?

**Text number 63**

Since the Communist Party was banned in Yugoslavia from 30 December 1920, Josip Broz used many fake names when he worked within the party, such as "Rudi", "Walter" and "Tito". Broz himself explains:

**Question 0**

Since when was the Communist Party banned in Yugoslavia?

**Question 1**

Which party was banned in Yugoslavia in 1920?

**Question 2**

"Rudi", "Walter" and "Tito" are the names adopted by which person?

**Question 3**

On what day in 1920 was the Communist Party banned in Yugoslavia?

**Question 4**

What was Tito's former name?

**Text number 64**

Josip Broz Tito received a total of 119 awards and decorations from 60 countries around the world (59 countries and Yugoslavia).21 decorations came from Yugoslavia itself, 18 times, and the Order of the National Hero three times. Of the 98 international awards and decorations, 92 were awarded once and three twice (the Order of the White Lion, Polonia Restituta and Karl Marx). The most important awards were the French Order of Honour and the National Cross of Merit, the British Order of the Bath, the Soviet Order of Lenin, the Japanese Cross of Chrysanthemum, the Order of Merit of the Federal Republic of Germany and the Italian Cross of Merit.

**Question 0**

How many awards and decorations did Josip Broz Tito receive?

**Question 1**

How many of Tito's awards came from Yugoslavia itself?

**Question 2**

Which government awards the Medal of Honour and the National Cross of Merit?

**Question 3**

Which government awards the Spa Order?

**Question 4**

Which government awards the Chrysanthemum Cross?

**Text number 65**

However, the decorations were rarely on display. After Tito's separation from Stalin and his inauguration as president in 1948 and 1953, Tito rarely wore his uniform except when he was present at military events, and then (with rare exceptions) he wore only his Yugoslav ribbons for obvious practical reasons. The awards were not displayed in their entirety until his funeral in 1980. Tito's reputation as one of the Allied leaders of the Second World War and his diplomatic role as founder of the Non-Aligned Movement were the primary reasons for the positive international recognition.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Tito-Stalin rift take place?

**Question 1**

What year was Tito inaugurated as president?

**Question 2**

What year was Tito's funeral?

**Question 3**

Who was the founder of the Non-Aligned Movement?

**Question 4**

Who became President of Yugoslavia in 1953?

**Text number 66**

Josip Broz Tito's other foreign awards and decorations include the Cross of Merit, the Order of Manuel Amador Guerrero, the Order of Prince Henry, the Order of Independence, the Cross of Merit, the Order of the Nile, the Order of the Condor of the Andes, the Order of the Star of Romania, Order of the Golden Lion of the House of Nassau, War Cross, Order of the Cross of Grunwald, Czechoslovak War Cross, Order of Merit for Services to the Republic of Austria, Military Order of the White Lion, Nishan-e-Pakistan, Order of Al Rafidain, Carol I:The Order of St. Nicholas, The Order of St. George Dimitrov, The Order of Karl Marx, The Order of Manuel Amador Guerrero, The Order of Michael the Bold, The Order of Pahlavi, The Order of Sukhbaatar, The Order of Suvorov, The Order of the Liberator, The Order of the October Revolution, The Order of the Queen of Sheba, The Order of the White Rose of Finland, The Cross of the Partisan, The Royal Order of Cambodia, The Star of Friendship of the People and Thiri Thudhamma Thingaha.[referred to ]

**Question 0**

Which country's star was awarded to Tito?

**Question 1**

Which country's medal of honour was Tito awarded for services to the Republic?

**Question 2**

Tito got Queen of where?

**Question 3**

Which country's Order of the White Rose was awarded to Tito?

**Question 4**

Which country's royal decoration was Tito awarded?

**Document number 77**

**Text number 0**

The Marshall Islands, officially known as the Republic of the Marshall Islands (Marshallese: Aolepān Aorōkin M̧ajeļ),[1] is an island nation located near the equator in the Pacific Ocean, just west of the International Date Line. Geographically, the country is part of the larger Micronesian archipelago. The country's population of 53,158(2011 census) is scattered over coral atolls29 comprising 1,156 individual islands and islets. The islands share maritime boundaries with the Federated States of Micronesia to the west, Wake Island to the north,[note 2] Kiribati to the southeast and Nauru to the south. About 27 797 of the islanders (according to the 2011 census) live in Majuro, where the capital is located.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the Marshall Islands in its native language?

**Question 1**

What is the latitude of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

How many people live in the Marshall Islands in 2011?

**Question 3**

Which country borders the Marshall Islands to the west?

**Question 4**

On which island is the capital of the Marshall Islands located?

**Question 5**

What is the official name of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 6**

In which ocean are the Marshall Islands located?

**Question 7**

How many people lived in the Marshall Islands in 2011?

**Question 8**

How many coral atolls are there in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 9**

On which island is the capital of the Marshall Islands located?

**Text number 1**

The Marshall Islands were gradually settled by Micronesian settlers in the 2nd millennium BC, and navigation between the islands was made possible by the use of traditional stick charts. Europeans first explored the islands of the archipelago in the 1520s, when the Spanish explorer Alonso de Salazar sighted the atoll in August1526 . Subsequently, Spanish and English ships made other exploratory voyages. The islands are named after the British explorer John Marshall, who visited the islands in 1788. The islands were historically known to the inhabitants as 'jolet jen Anij' (God's gifts).

**Question 0**

Who were the original settlers of what became Marshall Island?

**Question 1**

How did the original settlers of the area move between the islands?

**Question 2**

In what year did a European explorer first see the Marshall Islands?

**Question 3**

Who was the first explorer to see the Marshall Islands?

**Question 4**

Who are the Marshall Islands named after?

**Question 5**

During which period were the Marshall Islands first settled?

**Question 6**

In which decade did Europeans first visit the Marshall Islands?

**Question 7**

In what month and year did a European first arrive in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 8**

Who are the Marshall Islands named after?

**Text number 2**

The islands were recognised by the European powers as part of the Spanish East Indies in 1874. However, Spain sold the islands to the German Empire in 1884 and they became part of German New Guinea in 1885. In World War I, the Marshall Islands were occupied by the Empire of Japan, and in 1919 the League of Nations merged them with other former German territories to form the South Pacific Mandate. In World War II, the United States invaded the islands in the Gilbert and Marshall Islands Campaign. The Marshall Islands were then merged with the other Pacific islands to form the Pacific Islands Trust Territory, administered by the United States. Self-government was achieved in 1979 and full self-determination in 1986, with the conclusion of a Compact of Free Association with the United States. The Marshall Islands have been a member of the United Nations since 1991.

**Question 0**

In what year did the major European countries officially recognise the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

Which country bought the Marshall Islands in 1884?

**Question 2**

Which group did the Marshall Islands belong to after the First World War?

**Question 3**

Who took over the Marshall Islands in World War II?

**Question 4**

In what year did the Marshall Islands achieve full sovereignty?

**Question 5**

Which European country owned the Marshall Islands in 1874?

**Question 6**

Who bought the Marshall Islands from the Spanish in 1884?

**Question 7**

Who occupied the Marshall Islands during the First World War?

**Question 8**

In what year was the South Pacific Mandate established?

**Question 9**

In what year did the Marshall Islands become a sovereign state?

**Text number 3**

Politically, the Marshall Islands is a presidential republic in free association with the US, with the US providing defence, subsidies and access to US agencies such as the FCC and USPS. With few natural resources, the islands' prosperity is based on a service economy and some fishing and agriculture; US subsidies account for a large share of their GDP. The country uses the US dollar as its currency.

**Question 0**

Which term describes the Marshall Islands' governance?

**Question 1**

With which country are the Marshall Islands closely related?

**Question 2**

What is the main focus of the Marshall Islands economy?

**Question 3**

What does the Marshall Islands get from the United States?

**Question 4**

What is the currency of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 5**

Which US agency operates in the Marshall Islands besides the USPS?

**Question 6**

What is the most important component of the Marshall Islands economy?

**Question 7**

What is the official currency of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 8**

What is the administrative structure of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 9**

Which country's aid is an important part of the Marshall Islands' economy?

**Text number 4**

The majority of Marshallese citizens are from the Marshall Islands, but there are also small numbers of immigrants from the United States, China, the Philippines and other Pacific islands. The two official languages are Marshallese, which belongs to the Malay-Polynesian language group, and English. Almost the entire population of the islands practises a religion, and three quarters of the country belongs to either the United Church of Christ - Congregational in the Marshall Islands (UCCCMI) or the Assemblies of God.

**Question 0**

What is the ethnicity of the majority of people living in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

Which language family does Marshallese belong to?

**Question 2**

What does UCCCMI stand for?

**Question 3**

Besides the UCCCMI, what is the other major religious denomination in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 4**

Which non-Asian nation do some of the people living in the Marshall Islands come from?

**Question 5**

What is the ancestry of most Marshall Islanders?

**Question 6**

What is the official language of the Marshall Islands in addition to Marshallese?

**Question 7**

Which language group does Marshallese belong to?

**Question 8**

What percentage of the Marshall Islands population is religious?

**Question 9**

What is the main religion of the Marshall Islands, along with the United Church of Christ and the UCCCMI?

**Text number 5**

The Micronesians settled the Marshall Islands in the 2nd millennium BC, but there are no historical or oral records from that time. Over time, Marshall Islanders learned to navigate long ocean voyages by canoe using traditional stick charts.

**Question 0**

Who arrived in the Marshall Islands in the second millennium BC?

**Question 1**

What did not exist when the Micronesians arrived in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

What ship did the early settlers of the Marshall Islands travel on?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the object used by early settlers in the Marshall Islands as a rudimentary map for navigation?

**Question 4**

Who first settled the Marshall Islands?

**Question 5**

When were the Marshall Islands first settled?

**Question 6**

What means of transport did the inhabitants of the Marshall Islands use to travel by water?

**Question 7**

What navigational tools did the Marshall Islanders use?

**Text number 6**

The Spanish explorer Alonso de Salazar was the first European to see the islands in 1526, and he commanded the Santa Maria de la Victoria, the only surviving ship of the Loaisa expedition. On 21 August, he sighted an island (probably Taongi) at 14° north latitude, which he named San Bartolome.

**Question 0**

Who was the first European to see the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

What was Alonso de Salazar's nationality?

**Question 2**

What year did Salazar visit the Marshall Islands?

**Question 3**

What was the name of Alonso de Salazar's ship?

**Question 4**

What did Alonso de Salazar call the island he saw?

**Question 5**

Who was the first person from Europe to observe the Marshall Islands?

**Question 6**

Which country was the first European to discover the Marshall Islands?

**Question 7**

What year was the first European to see the Marshall Islands?

**Question 8**

What was the name of Alonso de Salazar's ship?

**Question 9**

Which of the Marshall Islands was Salazar most likely to see?

**Text number 7**

On 21 September 1529, Álvaro de Saavedra Cerón was in command of the Spanish ship Florida in her second attempt to cross the Pacific from the Maluku Islands. He stopped off a group of islands, where the locals threw stones at his ship. These islands, which he named Los Pintados, may have been Ujelang. On 1 October, he found another group of islands where he landed for eight days, exchanged gifts with the locals and took water. These islands, which he named Los Jardines, may have been Enewetak or Bikini Atoll.

**Question 0**

Whose ship was called the Florida?

**Question 1**

Where did Cerón try to cross the Pacific?

**Question 2**

What name did Cerón give to the islands where people threw stones at his ship?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the islands reached by Cerón in October 1529?

**Question 4**

What are two possible modern names for the islands of Cerón called Los Jardines?

**Question 5**

Who was in charge of the ship called the Florida?

**Question 6**

Where did the Cerón expedition start?

**Question 7**

What name did Cerón give to the island, which may have been Ujelang?

**Question 8**

Which group of islands could have been Bikini Atoll or Enewetak?

**Question 9**

How long did Cerón spend in Los Jardines?

**Text number 8**

On 9 January 1530, the Spanish expedition ship San Pedro and two other ships led by Miguel López de Legazpi discovered an island, possibly Mejit, 10° north latitude, which they named Los Barbudos. The Spanish landed and traded with the local inhabitants. On 10 January, the Spaniards discovered another island, which they named 'Placeres', possibly Ailuk; ten leagues away they discovered another island, which they named 'Pajares' (possibly Jemo). On 12 January, they sighted another island at 10° north latitude, which they called "Corrales" (possibly Wotho). On 15 January, the Spaniards sighted another shallow island, possibly Ujelang, 10° N, whose inhabitants they described as "Barbudo". Subsequently, ships such as San Jeronimo, Los Reyes and Todos los Santos also visited the islands in different years.

**Question 0**

What name did Miguel Lopez de Legazpi give to the island that Miguel Lopez de Legazpi reached on 9 January 1530?

**Question 1**

What is thought to be the modern name of the island of Los Barbudos in Legazp?

**Question 2**

On what day did the Legazpi expedition see the island it named Placeres?

**Question 3**

What name did the expedition give to the island they saw on 12 January?

**Question 4**

What was the location of Corrales?

**Question 5**

Who led the expedition that included the ship San Pedro?

**Question 6**

What did Miguel López de Legazpi call the island he discovered on 9 January 1530?

**Question 7**

What did the Spanish call the island that might have been Ailuk?

**Question 8**

On what day did the Spaniards see the island they named Corrales?

**Question 9**

Which island could the Spaniards have spotted on 15 January?

**Text number 9**

Captain John Charles Marshall and Thomas Gilbert visited the islands in 1788. The islands were named after Marshall on Western maps, although the natives have historically called their homes "jolet jen Anij" (gifts from God). Around 1820, the Russian explorer Adam Johann von Krusenstern and the French explorer Louis Isidore Duperrey named the islands after John Marshall and drew maps of the islands. The name was later repeated on British maps. In 1824, the crew of the American whaling ship Globe mutinied and some of the crew landed on Mulgrave Island. A year later, the American schooner Dolphin arrived and picked up two boys who were the last survivors of a massacre by the natives because of their brutal treatment of women:2.

**Question 0**

Who arrived in the Marshall Islands in 1788?

**Question 1**

What do the people of the Marshall Islands call their country?

**Question 2**

Which Russian was involved in the naming of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 3**

Which French citizen was involved in the naming of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 4**

On which island did Globe arrive in 1824?

**Question 5**

Who followed John Charles Marshall to the Marshall Islands?

**Question 6**

What year did Marshall and Gilbert go to the islands?

**Question 7**

What is the traditional name of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 8**

What is the English translation of the traditional name of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 9**

On which island did the rebellious American whalers land in 1824?

**Text number 10**

Several ships visiting the islands were attacked and their crews killed. In 1834, Captain DonSette and his crew were killed. Similarly, in 1845, a native was punished for theft by the Naiad monarch with such violence that the ship was attacked by the natives. Later that year, the crew of a whaling ship were killed. In 1852, the Glencoe and Sea Nymph, both in San Francisco, were attacked and all but one of the crew were killed. The violence was generally seen as a response to mistreatment of the natives in response to petty theft, which was common practice. In 1857, two missionaries successfully settled on Ebon and lived among the natives until at least 1870:3

**Question 0**

Who was the leader of the group attacked by the Marshall Islanders in 1834?

**Question 1**

Which ship was attacked in 1845?

**Question 2**

Which ships were attacked in 1852?

**Question 3**

What year did the missionaries arrive in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 4**

On which island did the missionaries live with the Marshall Islanders?

**Question 5**

Who was the captain of the crew killed in 1834?

**Question 6**

What year did the natives attack the Naiad ship?

**Question 7**

What type of ship was the Naiad?

**Question 8**

Which city did the sea nymph sail from?

**Question 9**

Where were the missionaries living in 1857?

**Text number 11**

Although the Spanish Empire had a residual claim to the Marshall Islands in 1874, when it began to claim sovereignty over the Caroline Islands, it did not seek to prevent the German Empire from gaining a foothold there. Nor did Britain oppose a German protectorate in the Marshall Islands in return for German recognition of British rights to the Gilbert and Ellice Islands. On 13 October 1885, the SMS Nautilus, commanded by Captain Rötger, brought German envoys to Jaluit. On 15 October they signed a treaty with Kabua, who had previously been recognised by the Germans as 'King of the Ralik Islands'.

**Question 0**

Which nation had sovereignty over the Marshall Islands in 1874?

**Question 1**

Which nation formed the protectorate of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

Which nation claimed its rights to the Gilbert and Ellice Islands?

**Question 3**

On which ship did the German ambassadors arrive in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 4**

What title did the Germans give Kabua?

**Text number 12**

Seven other chiefs from seven other islands then signed the agreement in German and Marshallese, and the final copy, certified by Rötger on 1 November, was sent to the German Foreign Ministry. The Germans erected a sign in Jaluit proclaiming "Imperial German Protectorate". It is thought that the crisis with Spain over the Caroline Islands, which almost led to war, was in fact a 'sham to cover up the acquisition of the Marshall Islands', which went almost unnoticed at the time, even though the islands were Micronesia's largest source of copra. Spain sold the islands to Germany in 1884 through the Pope.

**Question 0**

On what day was the final agreement signed between the Marshall Islands chiefs and the Germans?

**Question 1**

What was the role of the Marshall Islands in Germany?

**Question 2**

Which nation ruled the Caroline Islands?

**Question 3**

What major resource was available in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 4**

In what year did Germany buy the Marshalls from Spain?

**Text number 13**

A German trading company, the Jaluit Gesellschaft, managed the islands from 1887 to 1905. It recruited islanders as workers and treated them badly. After the German-Spanish Treaty of 1899, in which Germany acquired the Caroline Islands, Palau and the Marianas from Spain, Germany ceded all the Micronesian islands, including the Marshall Islands, to the German governor of New Guinea.

**Question 0**

Which company ran the Marshall Islands in the late 19th century?

**Question 1**

When did the Jaluit Society's administration of the islands end?

**Question 2**

Which document was signed in 1899?

**Question 3**

Which islands plus the Marianas and Palau were obtained from Spain in 1899?

**Question 4**

Which official administers the German FSM territories?

**Text number 14**

Catholic missionary Father A. Erdland, a member of the Sacred Heart Jesu parish in Hiltrup, Germany, lived in Jaluit from about 1904 to 1914. He was very interested in the islands and studied the Marshallese culture and language. He published a 376-page monograph on the islands in 1914. Father H. Linckens, another missionary of the Society of the Sacred Heart of Jesus, visited the Marshall Islands for several weeks in 1904 and 1911. He published a small work on Catholic missionary work and the people of the Marshall Islands in that year. 1912

**Question 0**

Which Catholic group did Father Erdland belong to?

**Question 1**

What year did Father Erdland leave the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

What year was the last time Father Linckens visited Marshall?

**Question 3**

When was Father Linckens' book published?

**Question 4**

What year did Father Linckens first travel to the Marshall Islands?

**Text number 15**

During and before German rule, Japanese traders and fishermen occasionally visited the Marshall Islands, although contact with the islanders was irregular. After the Meiji Restoration (1868), the Japanese government adopted a policy aimed at making the Japanese Empire a major economic and military power in East Asia.

**Question 0**

What major historical event took place in Japan in 1868?

**Question 1**

In which areas did the Japanese try to build their power after 1868?

**Question 2**

What kind of Japanese visited Marshall besides fishermen?

**Text number 16**

In 1914, Japan joined the Entente in World War I and occupied several colonies of the German Empire, including several in Micronesia. Japanese troops occupied Enewetak Atoll on 29 September 1914 and Jaluit Atoll, the administrative centre of the Marshall Islands, on 30 September 1914. After the war, on 28 June 1919, Germany signed (under protest) the Treaty of Versailles. It renounced all its Pacific possessions, including the Marshall Islands. On 17 December 1920, the Council of the League of Nations adopted the South Pacific Mandate, under which Japan took over all the former German colonies in the Pacific north of the equator. The administrative centre of the Marshall Islands archipelago remained Jaluit.

**Question 0**

On what day did the Japanese land at Enewetak?

**Question 1**

Which military alliance did Japan join in the First World War?

**Question 2**

What did the Japanese occupy on 30 September 1914?

**Question 3**

On what day was the Treaty of Versailles signed?

**Question 4**

When was Japan's South Pacific Mandate adopted?

**Text number 17**

The German Empire had primarily economic interests in Micronesia. Japan's interests were in land. Although the Marshall Islands were small in area and limited in resources, taking control of the area would go some way to alleviating Japan's problem of a growing population with less and less land to offer. During its colonial years, Japan migrated more Japanese1,000 to the Marshall Islands than Japanese, although they never exceeded the number of indigenous people, as in the Marianas and Palau.

**Question 0**

How many Japanese moved to the Marshall Islands when it was a Japanese colony?

**Question 1**

What was Germany's primary interest in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

What was Japan's primary interest in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 3**

Which island, apart from the Mariana Islands, had more Japanese settlers than natives?

**Text number 18**

The Japanese expanded government and appointed local leaders, undermining the authority of the local traditional leaders. Japan also tried to change the social organisation of the islands from a matrilineal system to a Japanese patriarchal system, but failed. Moreover, in the 1930s, one third of all land up to the high water mark was declared to be the property of the Japanese government. Before the ban on foreign traders, Catholic and Protestant missionaries were allowed to operate in the archipelago. Indigenous people were educated in Japanese schools, learning Japanese language and culture. This policy was the government's strategy not only in the Marshall Islands but also in all other Micronesian mandated territories. On 27 March 1933, Japan submitted its notice of withdrawal to the League of Nations, but continued to control the islands and in the late 1930s began building air bases for several atolls. The Marshall Islands occupied an important geographical position as the easternmost point of the Japanese defence perimeter at the beginning of the Second World War.

**Question 0**

What was the traditional social organisation of the inhabitants of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

Which social organisation system was in use in Japan?

**Question 2**

On what day did the Japanese secede from the League of Nations?

**Question 3**

What language was taught in schools to Marshall Islanders during Japanese colonial rule?

**Question 4**

Which denomination of missionaries were allowed to work in Marshall alongside Protestants?

**Text number 19**

In the months leading up to the attack on Pearl Harbor, Kwajalein Atoll was the administrative centre for the Japanese 6th Fleet, tasked with defending the Marshall Islands.

**Question 0**

Which Japanese naval base was on the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

On which atoll was the 6th Fleet Division located?

**Question 2**

What was the mission of the 6th Fleet?

**Text number 20**

During the Gilbert and Marshall Islands campaign in World War II, the United States invaded and occupied the islands in 1944, destroying or isolating Japanese garrisons. In just one month in 1944, the Americans occupied Kwajalein Atoll, Majuro and Enewetak, and in the next two months the rest of the Marshall Islands except Wotje, Mili, Maloelap and Jaluit.

**Question 0**

During which conflict did the United States occupy the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the campaign during which the United States occupied the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

In what year did the United States occupy the Marshall Islands?

**Question 3**

How many months did it take before the US occupied Kwajalein Atoll, Majuro and Enewetak?

**Question 4**

Which areas of the Marshall Islands, apart from Mil, Maloelap and Jaluit, were not occupied during the first three months of the US campaign?

**Text number 21**

The battle in the Marshall Islands caused irreparable damage, especially to Japanese bases. During the American bombardment, the population of the islands suffered from lack of food and various injuries. The US invasions began in mid-1943, and caused half of the 5,100 Japanese garrison on Mili to starve to death by August 1945.

**Question 0**

In what year did the American air raids on the Marshalls begin?

**Question 1**

How big was the Japanese garrison at Mill?

**Question 2**

How much of the Japanese garrison in Milan died of starvation?

**Question 3**

What did the American bombing cause to the people of the Marshall Islands, apart from injuries?

**Text number 22**

After being invaded and occupied by the United States during World War II, the Marshall Islands and several other island groups in Micronesia formally passed to the United States under the auspices of the United Nations in 1947, as part of the Pacific Islands Trust Territory established under Security Council Resolution 21.

**Question 0**

During which conflict did the United States occupy the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

Which UN Security Council resolution gave the United States control of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

In what year was the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands established?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the wider region that includes the Marshall Islands?

**Text number 23**

In the early years of the Cold War, from 1946 to 1958, the United States tested 67 nuclear weapons at its Pacific test sites in the Marshall Islands, including the largest atmospheric nuclear test ever conducted in the United States, code-named Castle Bravo. "The bombs had a total yield of 108,496 kilotons, more than 7,200 times more powerful than nuclear weapons used during World War II." The 1952 test of the first US hydrogen bomb, codenamed 'Ivy Mike', destroyed the island of Elugelab on Enewetak Atoll. In 1956, the US Atomic Energy Commission considered the Marshall Islands 'by far the most contaminated place in the world'.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Cold War start?

**Question 1**

How many nuclear weapons were tested in the Marshall Islands between 1946 and 1958?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the largest US atmospheric nuclear test?

**Question 3**

What was the power of the Castle Bravo bombs in kilotons?

**Question 4**

Which of the Marshall Islands was destroyed in the US hydrogen bomb test?

**Text number 24**

Nuclear requirements between the US and the Marshall Islands remain in force and the health effects of nuclear testing are still present. Project 4.1 was a medical study conducted by the US on the residents of Bikini Atoll who were exposed to radioactive fallout. 1956As of August 1998, at least $759 million was paid to the people of the Marshall Islands to compensate them for their exposure to US nuclear weapons tests.

**Question 0**

What was the name of the US study on the Bikini Atoll nuclear fallout?

**Question 1**

When did the United States start compensating the people of the Marshall Islands for their exposure to nuclear weapons?

**Question 2**

How much money, in millions of dollars, did the United States pay to the people of the Marshall Islands in compensation for nuclear testing between 1956 and 1998?

**Text number 25**

The Free Association Agreement with the United States entered into force in 1986, giving the Republic of the Marshall Islands the right to self-determination. The agreement provided for island assistance and US defence in return for continued US military use of the missile test range at Kwajalein Atoll. The independence process was formally completed under international law in 1990, when the UN formally ended the trusteeship under Security Council Resolution 683.

**Question 0**

Which document granted sovereignty to the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Marshall Islands gain sovereignty?

**Question 2**

Where in the Marshall Islands does the US have a missile test range?

**Question 3**

When did the UN's advocacy for the Marshall Islands end?

**Question 4**

Which Security Council resolution ended UN lobbying in the Marshall Islands?

**Text number 26**

In 2008, extreme waves and high tides caused widespread flooding in the capital Majuro and other urban centres 3 feet ( 0.91m) above sea level. On Christmas morning 2008, the government declared a state of emergency. In 2013, strong waves once again breached the city walls of Majuro.

**Question 0**

What is the capital of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

On what day in 2008 did the Marshall Islands government declare a state of emergency?

**Question 2**

How high were the floods in 2008, measured in metres?

**Question 3**

What caused the 2008 floods?

**Question 4**

What year did the waves hit the capital's walls?

**Text number 27**

In 2013, the northern atolls of the Marshall Islands experienced a drought. Because of the drought, 6,000 people drank less than a litre1 (0.22 imp gal; 0.26 US gal) of water a day. This led to the failure of food harvests and the spread of diseases such as diarrhoea, pink eye and influenza. These emergencies led the US President to declare a state of emergency for the islands. This declaration activated the support of US government agencies, based on a "free association agreement" between the Republic and the United States, which provides humanitarian and other vital assistance.

**Question 0**

Which part of the Marshall Islands experienced drought in 2013?

**Question 1**

How many people were affected by drought in 2013?

**Question 2**

How many litres of water were used daily by residents in drought-affected areas?

**Question 3**

Besides pink eye and flu, what other health problems did the drought cause?

**Question 4**

Which official declared a state of emergency in the Marshall Islands because of the drought?

**Text number 28**

After the 2013 emergencies, the US Obama administration encouraged Secretary of State Tony de Brum to turn the crises into an opportunity to promote action on climate change. De Brum called for renewed commitment and international leadership to prevent further climate disasters from striking his country and other equally vulnerable countries. The Marshall Islands hosted the 44th Pacific Islands Forum Summit in September 2013. De Brum proposed a Majuro Climate Leadership Declaration to launch concrete action on climate change.

**Question 0**

Who was the Foreign Minister of the Marshall Islands in 2013?

**Question 1**

In which month and year was the 44th Pacific Islands Forum Summit held?

**Question 2**

Which document was presented by Foreign Minister de Brum at the 44th Pacific Islands Forum Summit?

**Question 3**

Which environmental issue was addressed in Majuro's climate leadership declaration?

**Question 4**

Who encouraged de Brum to tackle climate issues?

**Text number 29**

The government of the Marshall Islands operates under a mixed parliamentary-presidential system, as provided for in the Marshall Islands Constitution. Elections are held every four years by universal suffrage (all citizens over 18), and each of the twenty-four constituencies (see below) elects one or more representatives (senators) to the RMI's unicameral lower house of the legislature, the Nitijela. (The capital Majuro elects five senators.) The 33 senators in the Nitijela elect the president, who is both head of state and head of government. Four of the five Marshallese presidents elected since the constitution was adopted in Marshall in 1979 are traditional chiefs.

**Question 0**

What is the system of government in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

How old do you have to be to vote in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

How often do elections take place in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the Marshall Islands legislature?

**Question 4**

When was the last constitution adopted in the Marshall Islands?

**Text number 30**

Nitijela has the legislative power. The upper house of parliament, the Iroij Council, is an advisory body consisting of twelve tribal chiefs. The executive is made up of the President and the President's Cabinet, which consists of ten ministers appointed by the President with the approval of the Nitijela. The country's 24 constituencies correspond to populated islands and atolls. There are currently four political parties in the Marshall Islands: the Aelon̄ Kein Ad (AKA), the United People's Party (UPP), the Kien Eo Am (KEA) and the United Democratic Party (UDP). The government is divided between the AKA and the UDP. The following senators are in the legislature:

**Question 0**

What is the name of the House of Lords in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

Who makes up the House of Lords in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

How many ministers are in the President's cabinet?

**Question 3**

Which party currently controls Marshall Islands, alongside the United Democratic Party?

**Question 4**

How many constituencies are there in the Marshall Islands?

**Text number 31**

The Compact of Free Association with the United States gives the United States exclusive responsibility for the international defence of the Marshall Islands. It allows islanders to live and work in the US and to set up economic and technical assistance programmes.

**Question 0**

Which document regulates the defence of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

Which country is responsible for the defence of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

What kind of assistance does the FTA offer beyond financial assistance?

**Text number 32**

The Marshall Islands were admitted to membership of the United Nations on the basis of a recommendation by the Security Council on 9 August 1991 (Resolution 704) and the approval of the General Assembly on 17 September 1991 (Resolution 46/3). In the international policy of the United Nations, the Marshall Islands has often voted consistently with the United States on General Assembly resolutions.

**Question 0**

When did the UN Security Council recommend that the Marshall Islands join the UN?

**Question 1**

When did the UN General Assembly approve the accession of the Marshall Islands to the UN?

**Question 2**

With which country does the Marshall Islands vote the same way in the General Assembly?

**Question 3**

Which Security Council resolution recommended that the Marshall Islands become a member of the UN?

**Text number 33**

On 28 April 2015, the Iranian navy seized the MV Maersk Tigris flying the flag of the Marshall Islands near the Strait of Hormuz. The vessel had been chartered by the German company Rickmers Ship Management, which reported that the vessel was not carrying any special cargo or military weapons. According to the Pentagon, the vessel was reportedly under the control of the Iranian Revolutionary Guard Corps. Tensions in the region escalated as the Saudi-led coalition escalated its attacks in Yemen. The Pentagon said that the destroyer USS Farragut and a maritime reconnaissance aircraft were dispatched after receiving a distress call from the Tigris, and it was also reported that all members of the crew34 were arrested. US defence authorities have said they are reviewing US defence commitments to the Marshall Islands government following recent events and also condemned the shots fired on the bridge as "inappropriate". In May 2015, it was reported that Tehran would release the ship after paying the penalty.

**Question 0**

On what day did the Iranian navy hijack a Marshall Islands ship?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the Marshall Islands ship seized by Iran?

**Question 2**

Who chartered the hijacked ship in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 3**

How many crew members were on board the MV Maersk Tigris?

**Question 4**

Near which body of water was the Maersk Tigris seized?

**Text number 34**

The islands lie roughly halfway between Hawaii and Australia, north of Nauru and Kiribati, east of the Federated States of Micronesia and south of the US territory of Wake Island, to which it is entitled. The atolls and islands form two groups, Ratak (sunrise) and Ralik (sunset). These two island chains lie roughly parallel from northwest to southeast and cover about 750,000 square miles ( 1,900,000km2) of sea, but only about 70 square miles ( 180km2) of land. Each includes 15-18 islands and atolls. There are a total of atolls29 and five separate islands.

**Question 0**

Which country lies to the west of the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

What US territory does the Marshall Islands claim for itself?

**Question 2**

How many square kilometres of sea do the Marshall Islands cover?

**Question 3**

How many square kilometres of land do the Marshall Islands cover?

**Question 4**

How many atolls are in the Marshall Islands?

**Text number 35**

In October 2011, the government declared that almost 2 000 000 772,000 square kilometres of marine area would be set aside as a shark sanctuary. This will be the largest shark sanctuary in the world, expanding the global marine area under shark protection from 2,700,000 square kilometres to 4,600,000 square kilometres (1,042,000 square metres1,776,000). In protected waters, all shark fishing is prohibited and all by-catches must be released. However, some have questioned the Marshall Islands' ability to enforce this zone.

**Question 0**

How large is the shark sanctuary of the Marshall Islands in square kilometres?

**Question 1**

In what month and year did the Marshall Islands declare the world's largest shark sanctuary?

**Question 2**

How many square kilometres of ocean around the world are protected from sharks?

**Question 3**

What is prohibited in shark sanctuaries?

**Text number 36**

The Marshall Islands also claims the island of Wake. Although Wake has been under US control since 1899, the Marshallese government uses the name Enen-kio.

**Question 0**

Which island is held by the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

Who controls Wake Island?

**Question 2**

What year did the United States take over Wake Island?

**Question 3**

What does the Marshall Islands government call Wake Island?

**Text number 37**

The climate is hot and humid, with a rainy season from May to November. Many Pacific typhoons begin as tropical storms in the Marshall Islands and intensify as they move westwards towards the Mariana Islands and the Philippines.

**Question 0**

When does the wet season start in Marshall?

**Question 1**

In which month will the Marshall Islands' wet season end?

**Question 2**

Typhoons sometimes start what is happening in Marshall?

**Question 3**

Where do typhoons that start in the Marshall Islands sometimes end up alongside the Marianas Islands?

**Text number 38**

As the Marshall Islands are very low-lying, they are threatened by the potential effects of sea-level rise. According to the President of Nauru, the Marshall Islands are the most threatened nation in the world due to flooding caused by climate change.

**Question 0**

What is the characteristic that makes Marshalls vulnerable to damage from sea level rise?

**Question 1**

Who said the Marshallese are the most endangered nation in the world?

**Question 2**

Why are the Marshall Islands the most endangered nation on Earth?

**Text number 39**

The population has outstripped the supply of fresh water, usually rainwater. The northern atolls receive 50 inches (1,300mm) of rain per year, the southern atolls about twice as much. The threat of drought is commonplace throughout the island chains.

**Question 0**

How many millimetres of rain do the northern atolls of the Marshall Islands receive?

**Question 1**

What is the main source of freshwater in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 2**

What often threatens the Marshall Islands?

**Question 3**

How much more do the southern atolls get rain than the northern ones?

**Text number 40**

The Marshall Islands joined the International Labour Organization in 2007, which means that Marshall Islands labour laws are in line with international standards. This can have an impact on business conditions in the islands.

**Question 0**

Which body did the Marshall Islands join in 2007?

**Question 1**

What is the significance of the Marshall Islands joining the International Labour Organisation?

**Question 2**

What can be the benefits of the Marshall Islands joining the International Labour Organisation?

**Text number 41**

US government aid is a pillar of the economy. Under the terms of the revised Compact of Free Association, the United States has committed to provide assistance to the Marshall Islands (RMI) in the amount of USD 57.7 million per year until 2013, and then USD 62.7 million until 2023, when annual payments from the US and RMI Contribution Fund will begin.

**Question 0**

How much money did the Marshall Islands receive from the United States each year until 2013?

**Question 1**

How much money will the United States give to the Marshall Islands each year until 2023?

**Question 2**

Which document specifies how much money is transferred from the United States to the Marshall Islands?

**Question 3**

What will be created in 2023?

**Text number 42**

The US military operates the Ronald Reagan Missile Defence Test Range on Kwajalein Atoll. Marshall landowners receive rent from the base.

**Question 0**

On which atoll is the missile test facility located?

**Question 1**

Who is the missile test facility named after?

**Question 2**

What is the official name of the missile testing facility?

**Question 3**

Which organisation operates the missile test range?

**Text number 43**

Agricultural production is concentrated on small farms. The main commercial crops are coconuts, tomatoes, melons and breadfruit.Agricultural production is concentrated on small farms.

**Question 0**

What other crops are grown in Marshall besides coconuts, tomatoes and melons?

**Question 1**

Where does most agricultural production take place?

**Text number 44**

In 1999, a private company built a tuna curing plant employing over 400 workers, most of them women. However, the plant was closed in2005 after a failed attempt to convert it to tuna steak production, requiring half as many workers. Operating costs exceeded revenues, and the factory owners tried to work with the government to prevent the closure. However, government officials with a personal interest in the financial stake in the factory refused to help. After the plant closed, it was taken over by the government, which had acted as guarantor of a $2 million loan to the company[citation needed].

**Question 0**

What year was the tuna purification plant built?

**Question 1**

How many people worked in the tuna filleting plant?

**Question 2**

What year was the tuna factory closed?

**Question 3**

What was the tuna filleting plant trying to produce before it closed?

**Question 4**

What was the amount of the loan for the tuna factory under the responsibility of the Marshall Islands government?

**Text number 45**

Witon Barry (of the Tobolar Copra processing plant in Majuro, capital of the Marshall Islands) reported on 15 September 2007 that electricity authorities, private companies and entrepreneurs have been experimenting with coconut oil as an alternative to diesel fuel for vehicles, generators and ships. Tropical Pacific islands are rich in coconuts. The meat of the coconut, the copra, is used to produce coconut oil (1 litre for every 6-10 coconuts). In 2009, a kilowatt57 solar power plant was installed, the largest in the Pacific at the time, including New Zealand. It is estimated that 330 kW of solar power and 450 kW of wind power would be needed to make the Marshall Islands College of the Marshall Islands energy self-sufficient. The Marshalls Energy Company (MEC), a government-owned entity, supplies the islands with electricity. In 2008, 420 solar home systems were installed on the Ailinglaplap atoll, each of 200 Wp, sufficient for limited electricity use.

**Question 0**

Who did Witon Barry work for?

**Question 1**

Where was Tobolari's Copra factory located?

**Question 2**

What is a copra?

**Question 3**

How many coconuts are needed to produce 1 litre of coconut oil?

**Question 4**

How many kilowatts of electricity does a solar power plant built in 2009 produce?

**Text number 46**

Historical population figures are not known. In 1862 the population was estimated at about 10,000 . In 1960 the total population was about 15,000. In July 2011, the population of the island was estimated at about 72,191. More than two-thirds of the population live in the capital Majuro and in Ebeye, a secondary urban centre on Kwajalein Atoll. This does not include many residents who have migrated elsewhere, mainly to the United States. Thanks to the Free Association Agreement, they are free to move to the US and work there. Some 4 300 Marshall Islanders have moved to Springdale, Arkansas, which is the largest concentration of indigenous people outside the island.

**Question 0**

How many people lived in the Marshall Islands in 1862?

**Question 1**

How many people lived in the Marshall Islands in 1960?

**Question 2**

How many people lived in the Marshall Islands in July 2011?

**Question 3**

On which atoll is Ebeye located?

**Question 4**

Which city has the largest population of Marshall Islanders outside the Marshall Islands?

**Text number 47**

Most of the inhabitants are of Micronesian origin, having migrated from Asia several thousand years ago to Marshall Islands. A minority of Marshallese have recent Asian ancestry, mainly Japanese. About half of the country's population lives in the capital Majuro and on the densely populated island of Ebeye. The outer islands are sparsely populated due to lack of employment opportunities and economic development. Life in the outer atolls is generally traditional.

**Question 0**

What are the ethnic origins of most Marshall Islanders?

**Question 1**

Which continent are the marshals from?

**Question 2**

How much of the population lives in Majuro or Ebeye?

**Question 3**

What kind of Asian ancestry do some people in the Marshall Islands have?

**Question 4**

When did the Marshallese migrate from the Asian continent?

**Text number 48**

The main religious groups in the Republic of the Marshall Islands include the United Church of Christ (formerly the Congregational Church), which accounts for 51.5% of the population, the Assemblies of God (24.2%), the Roman Catholic Church (8.4%) and the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (Mormons) (8%). 3%; also represented are Bukot Nan Jesus (also known as Assembly of God Part Two), 2.2%; Baptists, 1.0%; Seventh-day Adventists, 0.9%; Full Gospel, 0.7%; and the Baha'i Faith, 0.6%; persons with no religious affiliation of any kind are a very small percentage of the population. Majuro also has a small Ahmadiyya Muslim community, and the first mosque was opened in the capital in September 2012.

**Question 0**

What was the former name of the United Church of Christ?

**Question 1**

What percentage of Marshall Islanders belong to a church of God?

**Question 2**

What percentage of the population of the Marshall Islands are Mormons?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Marshall Islanders worship in God's church in Part Two?

**Question 4**

When was Majuro's first mosque opened?

**Text number 49**

The Marshall Islands Ministry of Education runs the Marshall Islands state schools. There are two institutions of higher education in the Marshall Islands, the College of the Marshall Islands and the University of the South Pacific.

**Question 0**

Who runs the state schools in the Marshall Islands?

**Question 1**

Which higher education institution is there in the Marshall Islands besides the University of the South Pacific?

**Text number 50**

The Marshall Islands are served by Marshall Islands International Airport in Majuro, Bucholz Army Airport in Kwajalein, and other small airports and airstrips.

**Question 0**

Where is Marshall Islands International Airport located?

**Question 1**

Which airport operates in Kwajalein?

**Document number 78**

**Text number 0**

Szlachta ([ˈʂlaxta] ( listen), formerly nobility) was a legally privileged noble class born in the Kingdom of Poland. It acquired considerable institutional privileges between 1333 and 1370 during the reign of King Casimir III the Great.211 In 1413, following preliminary personal alliances between the Grand Duchy of Lithuania and the Polish Crown Kingdom, the existing Lithuanian nobility formally joined this class.211 As the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth (1569-1795) developed and expanded territorially, its membership grew to include the leaders of the duchy's Prussian, Podolia and Ruthenian lands.

**Question 0**

What class of slackta was there in Poland?

**Question 1**

During whose reign did the Slachta enjoy institutional privileges?

**Question 2**

Which two kingdoms shared the initial personal covenants?

**Question 3**

When did the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth flourish?

**Question 4**

What is one of the leaders of the Polish-Lithuanian joint weaith.

**Text number 1**

The origins of the Szlachta are shrouded in mystery and mystery, and various theories have been put forward.207 Traditionally, its members were landowners, often owning "manor houses" or so-called folwarks. The nobility negotiated for themselves considerable and increasing political and legal privileges throughout their history, until the Polish Commonwealth degenerated in the late 1700s.

**Question 0**

What is another name for folwarks?

**Question 1**

Was the szlachta obscure and mysterious or obvious and proud.

**Question 2**

At what time did the decline in Polish common wealth occur.

**Question 3**

How much the Commonwealth increased before it decreased.

**Text number 2**

During the Polish partitions of 1772-1795, its members began to lose these legal privileges and social status. From then until 1918, the legal status of the nobility was essentially dependent on the policies of the three partitioning powers - the Russian Empire, the Kingdom of Prussia and the Habsburg monarchy. The legal privileges of the Szlachta were legally abolished in the Second Republic of Poland by the Constitution of March 1921.

**Question 0**

When during the partitions of Poland the szlachta lost its legal and social status.

**Question 1**

Which was one name for the power on which the szlachta depended.

**Question 2**

When the March Constitution was implemented.

**Question 3**

What did Mach's constitution do?

**Question 4**

In which republic did the szlachta lose its legal privileges.

**Text number 3**

The traditional Polish saying that all Polish nobles were social equals, regardless of their economic status or official position, is enshrined in the Polish proverb:

**Question 0**

What was the concept of all Polish nobles?

**Question 1**

From which ethnic saying does this tradition originate?

**Question 2**

Did it matter how much money a person had to polish the nobility?

**Text number 4**

The term szlachta is derived from the Old Highland German word slahta (Geschlecht in modern German), which means "(noble) family", just as many other Polish words related to nobility are derived from German words - for example, the Polish "rycerz" ("knight", related to the German "Ritter") and the Polish "herb" ("coat of arms", German "Erbe", "inheritance").

**Question 0**

What is the German word from which the term szlachta comes?

**Question 1**

What does slahta mean?

**Question 2**

What is the Polish name of the knight?

**Question 3**

The German name for the knight?

**Question 4**

Where does the word her come from in German?

**Text number 5**

The 17th century Poles assumed that "szlachta" came from the German "schlachten" ("to slaughter" or "butcher"); the German "Schlacht" ("battle") also suggests this. Early Polish historians speculated that the term might have been derived from the name of the legendary Proto-Polish chieftain Lech, mentioned in Polish and Czech writings.

**Question 0**

Where did the 17th century Poles think the term szlachta came from?

**Question 1**

What does schlachtan mean in German?

**Question 2**

Which German word is also suggestive, derived from the word szlachta?

**Question 3**

What does schlacht mean?

**Question 4**

Polish believed Szlachta derived from the name who?

**Text number 6**

Some influential Polish nobles were called "magnates" (Polish singular: "magnat", plural: "magnaci") and "możnyi" ("magnate", "oligarchi"; plural: "możni"); see Polish and Lithuanian magnates.

**Question 0**

What was also referred to in the case of some influential Polish nobles?

**Question 1**

What is the unit of magnates?

**Question 2**

What is another name used to refer to Polish nobles?

**Question 3**

What is the plural of mozny?

**Question 4**

In which country other than Poland were Polish nobles likely to be found?

**Text number 7**

The Polish term "szlachta" meant the formalised, hereditary noble class of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. In the official Latin documents of the old Commonwealth, the hereditary szlachta were referred to as 'nobilitas' and were equivalent in legal status to the English nobility.

**Question 0**

What was the term used to describe the common wealth of the Lithuanian nobility in Poland?

**Question 1**

Which two adjectives best describe szlachta?

**Question 2**

Who is called a nobilitas?

**Question 3**

What is the legal status of a nobilitas?

**Text number 8**

Today, the word szlachta in Polish simply means "nobility". In its broadest sense, it can also mean some of the non-hereditary honorary titles that some European monarchs now confer. Sometimes non-aristocratic landowners of the 19th century were called szlachta out of politeness or by mistake, when they owned estates even though they were not noble by birth. In the narrow sense, szlachta means the nobility of the old commonwealth.

**Question 0**

What is a simple word to translate the term szlachta?

**Question 1**

What was the name given to non-noble landowners?

**Question 2**

Why were non-nobles and nobles called by the same term?

**Question 3**

What does szlachta mainly mean?

**Text number 9**

In the past, a certain misunderstanding sometimes led to "szlachta" being mistakenly translated as "nobles" instead of "gentry".206 :xvi This erroneous practice started because the economic status of some szlachta members was lower than that of nobles in other European countries (see also the Diet of the Kingdom on wealth and nobility). The szlachta included the near-rich and powerful enough to be magnaats down to bandits, who had no nobility, no land, no castle, no money, no village and no peasants :xvi.

**Question 0**

Why is szlachta mistranslated?

**Question 1**

Who was worse, the European countries or Szlachta?

**Text number 10**

Because some szlachta were poorer than some non-aristocratic gentry, some particularly impoverished szlachta were forced to become tenants of wealthier gentry. In doing so, however, these szlachtta retained all their constitutional rights, since nobility was not determined by wealth or lifestyle (which the nobility could acquire), but by hereditary legal status.

**Question 0**

What ultimately defined the nobility?

**Question 1**

What did some impoverished szlachti have to do?

**Question 2**

Did the tenants of a wealthier family lose their nobility?

**Question 3**

What was the one noble thing the poor szlachta did?

**Text number 11**

Although szlachta is old, its origin has always been considered unclear.207 As a result, its members often called it odwieczna (perennial).:207 Two popular historical theories of origin put forward by its members and by earlier historians and chroniclers concerned descent from ancient Iranian tribes known as the Sarmatians, or from Japheth, one of Noah's sons (in contrast, the peasants were said to be descendants of another Noah's son, Ham - and thus subject to the curse of Ham's bondage - and the Jews to be descendants of Shem). Other fanciful theories suggest that it was founded by Julius Caesar, Alexander the Great:207 or by regional leaders who had not confused their ancestral roots with those of "slaves, captives and strangers":208.

**Question 0**

Was the origin of szlachta clear or obscure?

**Question 1**

What did they use to indicate the origin of szlactha?

**Question 2**

What was one historical theory of szlachta origin?

**Question 3**

Who was the other regional leader involved in the creation of Szlachta?

**Question 4**

What was important and unique about the regional directors?

**Text number 12**

Another theory is that it originated from a non-Slavic warrior class:42, 64-66, which formed a separate element known as Lechici/Lekhi (Lechitów):430 :482 in ancient Polish tribal groups (Indo-European caste systems). According to this hypothesis, this upper class was not of Slavic origin:482 and was of different origin from the Slavic peasants (kmiecie; Lat. cmethones):430 :118 which they ruled:482. The Szlachta were distinct from the rural population. The nobles' sense of distinction led to practices that in later times would be characterized as racism:233 Szlachta were nobles in the Aryan sense - "noble" as opposed to the people over whom they ruled after coming into contact with them:482 Szlachta traced their ancestry to Lech/Lekh, who probably founded the Polish Empire around the fifth century. :482 Lechia was the name of ancient Poland, and the Szlachta's own name for themselves was Lechici/Lekhi.:482 The exact counterpart of the Szlachta society was the Meerassee system of property in South India - an egalitarian aristocracy that settled as conquerors among a distinct race.:484 The Polish state was similar to the Roman Empire in that full civil rights were limited to the Szlachti. The szlachta was a caste, a military caste, as in Hindu society.

**Question 0**

What was the name of an element separate from the non-Slavic warrior class?

**Question 1**

What was the upper class in this theory?

**Question 2**

When did they find the Kingdom of Poland?

**Question 3**

What is the caste system like in Hindu society?

**Question 4**

Who shares the same caste system as a Hindu?

**Text number 13**

The documents relating to the reigns of Raciborz and Albert are the earliest surviving records of the use of the clan name and the clamour that defined the honorary status of Polish knights. The names of the knightly lineage did not begin to be associated with heraldic devices until later in the Middle Ages and the early modern period. The Polish clan name and cry ritualized the right of ius militare, i.e. the power to lead an army, and had been used for some time before 1244 to define the status of a knight (Górecki 1992, pp. 183-185).

**Question 0**

What is the earliest surviving use of a clan name for Polish knights?

**Question 1**

What did the knightly genealogies have to do with heraldic devices?

**Question 2**

Polish anem and crying ritualized what?

**Question 3**

What had the power to command an army been used for in 1244?

**Text number 14**

Around the 1300s, there was little difference between knights and szlachta in Poland. Members of the szlachta had a personal duty to defend the country (pospolite ruszenie) and thus became the most privileged social class in the kingdom. Membership of the class was based almost exclusively on inheritance.

**Question 0**

At what time were knights and szlachta very similar?

**Question 1**

What was the personal duty of the Slachs?

**Text number 15**

For the early Polish tribes, geography contributed to long-standing traditions. Polish tribes were internalised and organised around a unifying religious cult, governed by the wiec, the assembly of free tribesmen. Later, when security required consolidation of power, an elected prince was elected to govern. Electoral rights were generally limited to the elite.

**Question 0**

What has contributed to long-standing traditions?

**Question 1**

What ruled the Polish tribes?

**Question 2**

What was wiec?

**Question 3**

When power had to be consolidated, what was chosen to govern?

**Question 4**

What was the limit of the government's role?

**Text number 16**

Tribes were ruled by clans (ród), which consisted of people related to each other by blood or marriage and theoretically descended from a common ancestor, giving the ród/clan a well-developed sense of belonging. (See gens.) The starosta (or starszyna) had judicial and military power over the ród clan, although this power was often exercised in the assembly of elders. Fortresses called grόd were built where the religious cult was strong, where trials were held and where clans gathered when threatened. An opol was an area under the control of a single tribe (Manteuffel 1982, p. 44).

**Question 0**

What ruled the tribes?

**Question 1**

What did the clans have in common?

**Question 2**

What gave them a sense of solidarity?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the fortress?

**Question 4**

What was the territory occupied by one tribe?

**Text number 17**

Mieszko I of Poland (c. 935 - 25 May 992) established an elite order of knights in his army, on whom he relied for his success in uniting the Lekkite tribes and maintaining the unity of his state. There is also documented evidence of Mieszko I's successors, showing that they too used such a military force.

**Question 0**

Who created the elite of the Order of the Knight?

**Question 1**

How long did Poland's Miesko I rule?

**Question 2**

Where did Poland succeed, apart from uniting the tribes of the Larches?

**Question 3**

Who also founded this club?

**Text number 18**

The second class of knights was granted land by the Prince, which gave them the financial means to serve the Prince militarily. Before the 1400s, Polish nobles were known as 'rycerz', a term very similar to the English 'knight', but with the crucial difference that the status of 'rycerz' was almost strictly hereditary; the class of all such persons was known as 'rycerstwo'. This second class of rycerstwo, which represented the wealthiest Polish families and itinerant knights seeking fortunes abroad, gradually became a separate class of rycerstwo from the elite groups of Mieszko I and his successors, which became szlachta/nobility ('szlachta' is the actual term for the Polish nobility from around the 15th century onwards). This rycerstwo/nobility were given additional privileges, which gave them a privileged status. They were exempted from special burdens and duties under a duke's law, as a result of which only rycerstwo (military prowess and high/ noble birth) could serve as civil servants in the state administration.

**Question 0**

What was the name of a Polish nobleman before the 1400s?

**Question 1**

Which is about the same as the English version of rycerz?

**Question 2**

What kind of people did the rycerstwo class represent?

**Question 3**

What is positive about the szlachta class?

**Question 4**

What did the Duke's law implement for rycerstwo/nobility?

**Text number 19**

The period of partition from 1138 AD to 1314 AD, which included almost 200 years of feudal fragmentation and was caused by Bolesław III dividing Poland among his sons, was the emergence of a social structure that led to the economic rise of the great landowners (możni/Magnate, both ecclesiastical and lay) from the rycerstwo from which they originated. The earlier social structure consisted of Polish tribes united into the historic Polish nation under the rule of the Piast dynasty, which appeared around 850 AD.

**Question 0**

When was the time of the distribution?

**Question 1**

What caused the breakdown in the period?

**Question 2**

What was the origin of the earlier social structure of the tribe?

**Question 3**

When was the Piast dynasty born?

**Question 4**

Which dynasty ruled the Polish people?

**Text number 20**

Some możn (magnates), descended from former tribal dynasties, considered themselves co-owners of the Piast kingdoms, even though the Piast tried to deprive them of their independence. These możni (magnates) constantly sought to undermine the power of the principality:75, 76 The Chronicle of Gall Anonymus mentions the concern of the nobility when the Palatine Sieciech 'raised the lower class nobles above the nobles' and entrusted them with state offices (Manteuffel 1982, p. 149).

**Question 0**

What did some Mozni consider themselves?

**Question 1**

What did the great men do to the kingdoms of the Piasties?

**Question 2**

Who constantly sought to undermine the princely power?

**Text number 21**

In Propriia and Samogitia in Lithuania, before the Kingdom of Lithuania was founded by Mindaugas, the nobles were called die beste leuten in German sources. In Lithuanian, the nobles were called ponai. The higher nobility were called 'kunigai' or 'kunigaikščiai' (duke) - a loanword from the Scandinavian konung. They were established local leaders and warlords. As the state developed, they gradually became subordinate to the higher dukes and later to the King of Lithuania. With the expansion of the Lithuanian duchy in the mid-14th century to the Ruthenian regions, a new term was coined to designate the nobility as Bajorai - Ruthenian (now Ukrainian and Belarusian) boyars. This word is used in Lithuanian to this day to designate the nobility, not only our own but also those of other countries.

**Question 0**

What were the names of the nobles in German?

**Question 1**

What were the names of the nobles in Lithuanian?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the higher nobility?

**Question 3**

To whom was the king subordinate?

**Question 4**

What word is used to designate the nobility?

**Text number 22**

After the Horodło League, the Lithuanian nobility gained equal status with the Polish szlachta, and over time became increasingly polonised, although they retained their national consciousness and in most cases the recognition of their Lithuanian ancestry. Some Lithuanian nobles claimed in the 16th century that they were of Roman origin and that Lithuanian was just a modified Latin language. This led to a paradox: the Polish nobility claimed to be from the Sarmatian tribes, but the Sarmatians were considered enemies of the Romans. Thus a new Roman-Sarmatian theory was born. Strong cultural ties with the Polish nobility led to the emergence in the 16th century of a new term for the Lithuanian nobility, šlėkta, which was a direct borrowing from the Polish word szlachta. In terms of historical truth, the Lithuanians should also have used this term šlėkta (szlachta) to designate their own nobility, but Lithuanian linguists denied the use of this Polish loanword. This refusal to use the word szlachta (šlėkta in the Lithuanian text) complicates all designations.

**Question 0**

What other group had equal status with the Lithuanian nobility?

**Question 1**

Which Polish szlachta became more?

**Question 2**

What was it that a Lithuanian nobleman claimed that caused the paradox?

**Question 3**

What is the new term used for the Lithuanian nobility?

**Question 4**

Who banned the use of the word slekta?

**Text number 23**

The polonisation process took a long time. Initially it involved only the highest members of the nobility, but gradually it affected a wider section of the population. The greatest impact on Lithuania's lower nobility occurred after the Russian Empire had imposed various sanctions, such as the removal of the Lithuanian Gubernyas from their names a few years after the November Uprising. After the January Uprising, the sanctions went further, with Russian officials declaring that 'Lithuanians are Russians seduced by Poles and Catholicism', and began to intensify the Russification and ban the printing of books in Lithuanian.

**Question 0**

Who was the first to participate in the polonisation?

**Question 1**

Who imposed different sanctions on people?

**Question 2**

What was an example of the imposition of sanctions on Lithuanians?

**Question 3**

What were the sanctions announced by the Russian authorities?

**Question 4**

Which language was banned from being printed in books?

**Text number 24**

In Ruthenia, the nobility gradually moved towards the multicultural and multilingual Grand Duchy of Lithuania after the accession of the principalities of Halych and Volhynia. Many noble families intermarried with Lithuanian families.

**Question 0**

To which group did the Ruthenian nobility show their loyalty?

**Question 1**

What were the people like in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania?

**Question 2**

What eventually became part of the Grand Duchy of Lithuania?

**Question 3**

What did Ruthenian and Lithuanian families have in common?

**Text number 25**

The rights of the Orthodox nobility were nominally the same as those of the Polish and Lithuanian nobility, but the cultural pressure to convert to the Catholic religion was considerably eased by the Union of Brest1596 . See for example the careers of Senator Adam Kisiel and Jerzy Franciszek Kulczycki.

**Question 0**

What other rights did Orthodox nobles have?

**Question 1**

What social pressure pushed people down?

**Question 2**

It greatly eased the cultural pressure against Catholicism.

**Question 3**

I in the Brest League was

**Text number 26**

In the Kingdom of Poland and later in the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, nobility (nobilitacja) can be equated with a person who was given legal status as a szlachtana (member of the Polish nobility). Initially this privilege could be granted by the monarch, but from 1641 this right was reserved for the Sejm. In most cases, the person to be ennobled joined an already existing noble szlachta clan and assumed the indelible coat of arms of that clan.

**Question 0**

Before 1641, privileged nobility was granted by what?

**Question 1**

Which court was overturned by the sijm?

**Question 2**

What would be given to the crowned?

**Question 3**

Who was granted the privilege of nobility after 1641?

**Question 4**

Which clan was given the privileged throne?

**Text number 27**

According to heraldic sources, the total number of legal titles of nobility granted between the 13th and mid-19th centuries is estimated at around 800. This represents an average of only about two knighthoods per year, or only 0.000 000 14 - 0.000 001 per historical population. Compare: historical demography of Poland.

**Question 0**

At what time was the total legal number of nobility 800?

**Question 1**

What is the average nobility between the 14th and min 18th century.

**Question 2**

What are the sources of information on the total number of authorisations?

**Text number 28**

According to heraldic sources, over the history of the Kingdom of Poland and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth from the 13th century onwards, there are1,600 estimated total legal noble births (half of which took place in the last years of the late 1700s).

**Question 0**

What was the maximum number of knighthoods in the history of Poland and the Polish Commonwealth?

**Question 1**

When will theys tart save the nobles?

**Question 2**

When were most noble births carried out?

**Text number 29**

At the end of the 13th century, in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania, Vytautas the Great reformed the Grand Duchy's army: instead of calling all men to arms, he created a force of professional warriors, the Bajorai ("nobles"; see the similar term "boyar"). As there were not enough nobles, Vytautas trained suitable men and freed them from their work on the land and other duties; in return for their military service to the Grand Duchy, they were granted land to be worked by hired men (veldams). The newly created noble families usually took the Lithuanian pagan first names of their noble ancestors as their surnames; this was the case, for example, with the Goštautai, Radvilos, Astikai and Kęsgailos families. These families received their coat of arms under the Horodlo Covenant (1413).

**Question 0**

Who reformed the Grand Duchy's army?

**Question 1**

vytautas created what for compromising professional warriors?

**Question 2**

What were the names of the newly created noble families?

**Question 3**

What is an example of a noble surname?

**Question 4**

Who gave the coat of arms to the others?

**Text number 30**

The significant legislative changes in the position of the szlachta, as identified by Robert Bideleux and Ian Jeffries, consist of the 1374 exemption from land tax, the 1425 guarantee against 'arbitrary arrest and/or confiscation of property' of its members, the 1454 requirement that military forces and new taxes had to be approved by the provincial sejm, and the 1496-1611 acts providing for the rights of the common people.

**Question 0**

Who defined the major legislative changes?

**Question 1**

What is one exception was part of the major changes in the legislation?

**Question 2**

What did the 1425 requirement contain?

**Question 3**

What were the decrees issued between 1496 and 1611?

**Text number 31**

Nobles were born into a noble family, adopted by a noble family (this was abolished in 1633) or ennobled by the king or the Sejm for various reasons (bravery in battle, service to the state, etc. - but this was the rarest way to obtain noble status). Many nobles were in fact usurpers, ordinary people who moved to another part of the country and falsely pretended to be nobles. Hieronim Nekanda Trepka condemned hundreds of such fake nobles in his Liber generationis plebeanorium (or Liber chamorum) in the first half of the 16th century. The law forbade nobles from owning noble estates and promised an estate to anyone who denounced them. Trepka was an impoverished nobleman who lived a city life and collected hundreds of such stories in the hope of acquiring any such estate. It does not appear that he ever succeeded in proving such a thing at court. Many sheikhs over the centuries issued decrees trying to resolve this issue, but with little success. It is not known what proportion of the Polish noble population came from the 'lower' social classes, but most historians agree that nobles of such low origin formed a 'significant' part of the szlachta.

**Question 0**

What was the rarest rarity to become a nobleman?

**Question 1**

Many nobles actually acted surprisingly in what way?

**Question 2**

Who denounced the many nobles?

**Question 3**

When did the denunciation of many nobles take place?

**Question 4**

What did the nobles lose when they were denounced?

**Text number 32**

The Polish nobility enjoyed many rights that the noble classes of other countries did not, and usually each new monarch granted them more privileges. These privileges became the basis of the golden freedom of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. Although Poland had a king, Poland was called a noble community because the king was elected by all willing members of the hereditary nobility, and Poland was considered the property of this class, not of the king or the ruling dynasty. This situation arose partly because the male descendants of the old royal dynasty (first the Piasts, then the Jagiellons) became extinct and the nobility chose the Polish king from among the female descendants of the dynasty.

**Question 0**

The Polish nobility had many positive aspects compared to others, such as what?

**Question 1**

What was the common property of the nobility?

**Question 2**

Who elected the king?

**Question 3**

In which country did you partly grow up?

**Question 4**

The choice of nobility oh the Kingdom of Poland was chosen by my who?

**Text number 33**

Successive Polish kings granted privileges to the nobility when they were elected to the throne (the privileges were specified in the elected king's Pacta conventa) and at other times in exchange for temporary permission to collect extra tax or pospolite ruszenie.

**Question 0**

When did kings grant privileges to nobles?

**Question 1**

What were the privileges of kings?

**Question 2**

What was also in exchange during the crown election?

**Question 3**

What did the nobles receive from the king during the election?

**Text number 34**

1355In 1355Buda, King Casimir III the Great granted the first country-wide privileges to the nobility in exchange for their agreement that, if Casimir had no male heirs, the throne would pass to his nephew, Louis I of Hungary. He decreed that the nobility would no longer have to pay 'extra' taxes or spend their own money on military expeditions abroad. He also promised that when the royal court travelled, the king and the court would pay all expenses instead of using the services of the local nobility.

**Question 0**

When did King Casimir of Buda give an heir to his nephew?

**Question 1**

Who established the first country-wide privilege for nobles?

**Question 2**

Who is the nephew of Casimer III the Great, King of Buda?

**Question 3**

What did King Casimer of Buda promise?

**Question 4**

Who would pay for the travel or the royal courts?

**Text number 35**

King Louis of Hungary1374 accepted the privilege of Koszyce (in Polish "przywilej koszycki" or "ugoda koszycka") in Košice to guarantee the Polish throne to his daughter Jadwiga. He broadened the definition of who was a member of the nobility, exempting the entire class from all but one tax (łanowy, which was limited to two grosze łan (the old measure of the size of the country)). In addition, the king's right to levy taxes was abolished; no new taxes could be levied without the consent of the nobility. From now on, district courts (in Polish 'urzędy ziemskie') were also reserved exclusively for the local nobility, as Koszyce's privilege prohibited the king from granting official positions and large Polish castles to foreign knights. In addition, this privilege obliged the king to pay compensation to nobles wounded or captured in wars fought outside Poland's borders.

**Question 0**

When did King Louis of Hungary accept Koszyce's privilege?

**Question 1**

Why did King Louis accept the privilege?

**Question 2**

What did King Louis of Hungary do to the nobility?

**Question 3**

What happened to the right of kings to raise taxes?

**Question 4**

What could the king do to nobles who were injured or imprisoned during the war?

**Text number 36**

King 1422Władysław II Jagiełło established the inviolability of the property of the nobles by the privilege of Czerwiński (in Polish "przywilej czerwiński") (their property could not be confiscated except by court order) and transferred some of the fiscal powers to the Royal Council (later the Polish Senate), including the right to mint coins.

**Question 0**

Who confirmed the inviolability of the property of the nobles?

**Question 1**

When was the right to the inviolability of the property of the nobility established?

**Question 2**

What happened to the right to mint coins?

**Text number 37**

In 1430, Jedlnia's privileges, confirmed in Kraków in 1433 (in Polish: "przywileje jedlneńsko-krakowskie"), based in part on his earlier Brześć Kujawski privilege (25. On 25 April 1425), King Władysław II Jagiełło granted nobles a guarantee against arbitrary arrest, similar to the English Magna Carta Habeas corpus, known from its proper Latin title as "neminem captivabimus (nisi jure victum)". From then on, no member of the nobility could be captured without the permission of the court: the king could not punish or imprison any noble at his pleasure. In return for King Władysław's leniency, the nobles guaranteed that his throne would be inherited by one of his sons (who would be obliged to respect the privileges previously granted to the nobles). On 2 May 1447, the same king granted Wilno a privilege which gave Lithuanian boyars the same rights as Polish szlachte.

**Question 0**

Where did the affirmation of Jedlnia's privileges take place?

**Question 1**

What was the main basis for Jedi privileges?

**Question 2**

What was similar to the English magna cartas habeas corpus?

**Question 3**

What does a court need to imprison a member of the nobility?

**Question 4**

What was the nobleman's guarantee that his sons would inherit his throne?

**Text number 38**

In 1454, King Casimir IV granted the Statute of Nieszawa (Polish: statuty cerkwicko-nieszawskie), which clarified the legal basis of the voivodship sejm (local parliaments). The king could only pass new laws, raise taxes or convene a mass assembly (pospolite ruszenie) with the consent of the sejm, and the nobility were protected against legal abuses. The Nieszawa Code also limited the power of the magnaats, as the sejm (national parliament) was given the right to elect a number of officials, including judges, voivodes and castellans. These privileges were demanded by the szlachs as compensation for their participation in the Thirteen Years' War.

**Question 0**

When were the Nieszawa Statutes granted?

**Question 1**

What do the statues of Nieszawa clarify?

**Question 2**

What were the nobility protected from?

**Question 3**

Whose power was limited?

**Question 4**

Why did the szlachta demand privileges?

**Text number 39**

The first "free royal elections" (in Polish "wolna elekcja") were held in 1492. (Although some earlier Polish kings had been elected with the help of bodies that had helped put Casimir II on the throne, for example, setting a precedent for free elections. ) In the free elections of 1492, which were won by John Albert I, only senators voted. During the Jagiellonian dynasty, elections were restricted to members of the royal family in question; later elections were no longer restricted.

**Question 0**

When were the first free elections held?

**Question 1**

What was different about the later elections compared to the first free elections?

**Question 2**

Who only voted in the 1492 elections?

**Question 3**

Who won the 1492 elections?

**Question 4**

Which dynasty was in power during the 1492 elections?

**Text number 40**

On 26 April 1496, King John I Albert granted the Piotrków Privilege (in Polish: "Przywilej piotrkowski", "konstytucja piotrkowska" or "statuty piotrkowskie"), which increased the feudal power of the nobility over the serfs. It tied the peasant to the land, as only one son (not the eldest) could leave the village, townsmen (in Polish 'mieszczaństwo') were not allowed to own land, and only nobles could be in the church hierarchy.

**Question 0**

Who granted Piotrkow privilege?

**Question 1**

When was Piotrkow's privilege granted?

**Question 2**

What happened to the feudal power of the nobility?

**Question 3**

Who was allowed to leave the village?

**Question 4**

What were the citizens forbidden to do?

**Text number 41**

On 23 October 1501 at Mielnik, the Union of Poland and Lithuania was renewed by the Union of Mielnik (unia mielnicka, unia piotrkowsko-mielnicka). There the tradition of the Coronation Sejm (Polish: Sejm koronacyjny) was established. Once again, the middle class (middle by wealth, not by position) tried to reduce the power of the magnaats by a law that allowed them to be prosecuted before the Senate for misconduct. However, the Mielno Law of 25 October (Polish: Przywilej mielnicki) strengthened the Polish Senate, ruled by the magnates, rather than the lower nobility. The nobles were given the right to disobey the king or his representatives - in Latin 'non praestanda oboedientia' - and to form confederations, or armed rebellion against the king or state officials, if they felt that the law or their legal privileges were being violated.

**Question 0**

When did Mielnik's Polish-Lithuanian alliance reform?

**Question 1**

Where is Mielnik's Polish-Lithuanian alliance refromed?

**Question 2**

Where was the coronation ceremony held?

**Question 3**

What did Milno do?

**Question 4**

What right was given to the nobles?

**Text number 42**

On 3 May 1505, King Alexander I Jagiellon issued the decree "Nihil novi nisi commune consensu" (Latin: "I will accept nothing new except by common consent"), which prohibited the king from passing new laws without the consent of the nobility's representatives in the Sejm and Senate, thus considerably strengthening the political position of the nobility. In principle, this law transferred legislative power from the King to the Sejm. This date generally marks the beginning of the first period of the Rzeczpospolita, or Szlachta-led 'Commonwealth'.

**Question 0**

When was the law "Nihil novi nisi commune consensu" adopted?

**Question 1**

Who issued the act "Nihil novi nisi commune consensu"?

**Question 2**

What did the "Nihil novi nisi commune consensu" law do?

**Question 3**

What happened to the political position?

**Question 4**

What has happened to legislative power?

**Text number 43**

It was around this time that the "execution movement" (in Polish "egzekucja praw" - "law enforcement") began to emerge. Its members sought to curb the power of the great men sitting in the Sejm and to strengthen the power of the king and the country. At the Sejm in Piotrków in 1562, they forced the magnaats to return many leased crown lands to the king and the king to establish a standing army (wojsko kwarciane). One of the most famous members of this movement was Jan Zamoyski. After his death in 1605, the movement lost its political power.

**Question 0**

What was the name of the movement, also known as law enforcement?

**Question 1**

What were the intentions of the executioners?

**Question 2**

What did the Piotrków Sejm force the Magnats to do?

**Question 3**

When did Jan Zamoyski. die?

**Question 4**

What happened when Jan Zamoyski died?

**Text number 44**

Until the death of the last king of the Jagellonian dynasty, Sigismund II Augustus, monarchs could only be chosen from within the royal family. From 1573, however, virtually any Polish nobleman or foreigner of royal lineage could become monarch of Poland and Lithuania. Each newly elected king had to sign two documents - the Pacta conventa ('Agreed Pact'), which confirmed the promises made by the king before his election, and the Henry's Articles (artykuły henrykowskie, named after the first freely elected king, Henry Valois). The latter document served as the de facto Polish constitution and contained the basic laws of the Commonwealth:

**Question 0**

Who was the last king of the Jagellonian dynasty?

**Question 1**

What stopped after the death of Sigismund II Augustus?

**Question 2**

Who might have become a Polish-Lithuanian monarch after 1573?

**Question 3**

How many documents does the newly elected king have to sign?

**Question 4**

What was in Henry's articles and the Pacta conventa?

**Text number 45**

In 1578, King Stephen Batory set up the Crown Tribunal to reduce the enormous pressure on the royal court. This placed much of the monarch's judicial power in the hands of elected szlachta representatives, further strengthening the noble class. In 1581, a similar court was established in Lithuania, the Court of Lithuania, alongside the Crown Court.

**Question 0**

When was the Crown Court established?

**Question 1**

Who created the Crown Court?

**Question 2**

What should the Crown Court have done?

**Question 3**

Where was a lot of power invested as a result of the Crown Court?

**Question 4**

Who eventually joined the Crown Court?

**Text number 46**

For many centuries, wealthy and influential members of the szlachta sought to gain legal privileges over their peers. Few szlachas were wealthy enough to be known as magnaats (the "Crimsons", from the crimson colour of their boots). A good magnaat had to be able to trace his noble ancestors back several generations and own at least 20 villages or estates. He should also hold an important position in the commonwealth.

**Question 0**

What did the influential Slavic leaders want?

**Question 1**

What were the most szlachtas class?

**Question 2**

What is another name for magnates?

**Question 3**

Good magnacs own what?

**Question 4**

Who is properly in the highest office in the Commonwealth?

**Text number 47**

Some historians estimate that the number of magnates was 1% of the number of szlachtas. Of the million or so szlachta, out of tens of thousands of families, only 200-300 can be classified as Grand Magnates, with nationwide property and influence, and 30-40 of them can be considered to have had a significant influence on Polish politics.

**Question 0**

Historians estimate how many magnates form szlachta?

**Question 1**

How many of the million slacks were magnates?

**Question 2**

How many out of a million people could have a significant political impact?

**Text number 48**

Magnaats often received gifts from monarchs, which significantly increased their wealth. Often these gifts were only temporary leases which were never returned by the magnates (in the 16th century, anti-magnate opposition among the Slachs was known as the ruch egzekucji praw - the law enforcement movement - which demanded that all such property be returned to its rightful owner, the king).

**Question 0**

Who did the manna often receive gifts from?

**Question 1**

What significantly increased the wealth of the magnates?

**Question 2**

Under what conditions were these gifts given?

**Question 3**

What did the magnates eventually do with the gifts?

**Text number 49**

One of the most important achievements of the great estates was the right to set up ordynacja (majorat-like) in the late 1500s, which ensured that the family that gained wealth and power could more easily retain it. Ordynacja of the Radziwiłł, Zamoyski, Potocki or Lubomirski families often competed with the king's estates and were important power bases for the magnates.

**Question 0**

For which group was the right to create ordynacja important?

**Question 1**

When did the right to create ordynacja's happened?

**Question 2**

What did the right to create ordynacj mean?

**Question 3**

What did powerful families do on the estates of kings?

**Question 4**

What was the important power base of the magnates?

**Text number 50**

The sovereignty of the Szlachtes ended with the 1795 partitions of Poland, and until 1918 their legal status depended on the policies of the Russian Empire, the Kingdom of Prussia or the Habsburg monarchy.

**Question 0**

When did the sovereignty of Szlachta end?

**Question 1**

Who ended the sovereignty of Slachta?

**Question 2**

Whose legal status was dependent on the sovereignty of the Russian Empire until 1918?

**Text number 51**

In 1840, Nicholas I reduced 64 000 szlachta to the status of common people. Despite this, 62.8% of the Russian nobility were schlach in 1858 and 46.1% in 1897. Serfdom was abolished in Russian Poland on 19 February 1864. It was deliberately enacted in a way that would destroy the szlachta. It was the only region where peasants paid the market price for their land in exchange (the national average was 34% above the market price). All land taken from Polish peasants after 1846 had to be returned without redemption payments. Former serfs were only allowed to sell land to other peasants, not to the szlachta. 90 % of the former serfs of the empire who actually received land after 1861 were in the eight western provinces. Apart from Romania, Polish landless or domestic serfs were the only ones who received land after the abolition of serfdom. All this was to punish the Szlachta forces for their part in the uprisings of 1830 and 1863. By 1864, 80% of the szlachta were déclassé, 1/4 of the petty nobility were worse off than the average serf. 48.9 % of Russian Polish land was held by peasants, while the nobility still held 46 %. In the Second Republic of Poland, the privileges of the nobility were legally abolished by the March Constitution of 1921 and were not granted as such in any future Polish law.

**Question 0**

Who turned 64 000 slacks into ordinary?

**Question 1**

Who was the Szlachta of all Russian nobles in 1858?

**Question 2**

When and who abolished serfdom?

**Question 3**

Who could former serfs sell their land to?

**Question 4**

How much land was owned by peasants?

**Text number 52**

The Polish nobility was in many ways different from the nobility of other countries. The main difference was that while in most European countries the nobility lost power as the ruler sought absolute monarchy, in Poland the opposite process took place: the nobility actually gained power at the expense of the king, and the political system developed into an oligarchy.

**Question 0**

What was the difference between the Polish nobility and others?

**Question 1**

What happened to the nobles at the expense of the king?

**Question 2**

How did the political system eventually evolve?

**Question 3**

What did the ruler seek?

**Text number 53**

The Polish nobility was also more numerous than the nobility of any other European country, constituting about 10-12% of the total population of the historic Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, as well as about 10-12% of ethnic Poles in the ethnic Polish lands (part of the Commonwealth), but up to 25% of all Poles worldwide (the szlachta may have spent more resources on travel and/or conquest), while in some poorer areas (e.g. Mazowsze, the region around Warsaw) it was close to 30%. However, according to the Szlachta, in 1791 the total population was about 8% (down from 6.6% in the 16th century) and the Roman Catholic (mostly Polish) population was at most 16%. It should be noted, however, that the Polish szlachta generally included most of the local nobility of the Polish regions incorporated into Lithuania (Ruthenian peasants, Livonian nobles, etc.). By contrast, the nobility of other European countries, with the exception of Spain, accounted for only 1 to 3 %, but the era of the sovereign rule of the Polish nobility ended earlier than in other countries (with the exception of France), but already in 1795 (see the partition of Poland), and from then on its legitimacy and future fate depended on the laws and procedures of the Russian Empire, the Kingdom of Prussia or the Habsburg monarchy. Gradually, their privileges were further restricted until they were abolished altogether by the Polish March Constitution of 1921.

**Question 0**

What proportion of the total population had polished common wealth?

**Question 1**

What was the total population of szalchta in 1791?

**Question 2**

Polish szlachta usually included who?

**Question 3**

How many nobles made up the other European countries besides Poland and Lithuania?

**Question 4**

Which privileges of the Russian Empire, the Kingdom of Prussia or the Habsburg monarchy were abolished?

**Text number 54**

There were several routes to social advancement and nobility. The Polish nobility was not a tightly closed, closed class. Many people of low birth, including townspeople, peasants and Jews, were able to rise and rise to official nobility in Polish society. Each szlachcic had enormous influence over the country's politics, in some cases even greater than that of citizens in modern democracies. Between 1652 and 1791, any nobleman could nullify any meeting of a particular sejm (commonwealth parliament) or sejmiki (local parliament of the commonwealth) by exercising his personal right of liberum veto (Latin for 'not to allow'), except in the case of confederation sejmiki or confederation sejmiki.

**Question 0**

What class of Polish nobility did they belong to?

**Question 1**

Who could rise to Polish nobility?

**Question 2**

How much influence did each Szlachcic have on politics?

**Question 3**

Who could invalidate all the procedures of a particular sejm?

**Question 4**

What is called annulment of the procedure?

**Text number 55**

All children of Polish nobility inherit their noble status from their noble mother and father. Any person could receive the title of nobility (nobilitacja) for special services rendered to the state. A foreign nobleman could be nationalised as a Polish nobleman (in Polish 'indygenat') by the King of Poland (later, from 1641, only by the General Sejm).

**Question 0**

From whom do children inherit the Polish nobility?

**Question 1**

What does an individual do to achieve nobility?

**Question 2**

Who could nationalise a Polish nobleman?

**Question 3**

What is another name for nobility?

**Question 4**

What is another name for the Polish nobility?

**Text number 56**

At least in theory, all Polish nobles were socially equal. In theory, they were also legally equal. Those with the values of 'real power' were more privileged, but these values were not hereditary. Those in positions of honour were higher in the 'ritual' hierarchy, but these values were also conferred for life. Some positions became hereditary, with both privileges and titles. Nobles who were not directly barons of the crown but who held land from other lords were only 'de iure' nobles.

**Question 0**

How were all Polish noblemen treated in theory?

**Question 1**

What was unique about dignity?

**Question 2**

If someone is highly valued, in what other way is he highly valued?

**Question 3**

The nobles held land in the form of whom?

**Text number 57**

Note that the Polish landed gentry (ziemianie or ziemiaństwo) consisted of all the nobles who owned land: the magnates, of course, the middle nobility and the smaller nobility who owned at least part of the village. Since manorial lordships could also be exercised by the bourgeoisie of certain privileged royal towns, not all landowners had hereditary nobility.

**Question 0**

Who could put together a Polish governorate?

**Question 1**

What is another name for a Polish governor?

**Question 2**

Did everyone have a noble title?

**Text number 58**

Coats of arms were very important to the Polish nobility. The Polish heraldic system evolved alongside its Central European neighbours, but in many ways it differed from the heraldry of other European countries. Polish knightly families had counterparts, connections or roots in Moravia (e.g. Poraj) and Germany (e.g. Junosza).

**Question 0**

What was very important to the Polish nobility?

**Question 1**

What kind of system were the coats of arms?

**Question 2**

how did the Polish nobility compare with other heraldic countries?

**Question 3**

Where did the Polish knighthood originate?

**Text number 59**

The main difference is that, unlike in other European heraldic systems, Jews, Muslim Tatars or other minorities were given the title of nobility. Most families with a common origin also have a common coat of arms. They also shared a coat of arms with families adopted into the clan (their coat of arms was often formally changed at the time of nobility). Sometimes, unrelated families were wrongly linked to the clan on the basis of the similarity of their coats of arms. Often, noble families also claimed to be inaccurate clan members. It is logical that the number of coats of arms in this system was relatively small, not exceeding 200 in the late Middle Ages (40 000 in the late 1700s).

**Question 0**

What is the main difference between the countries?

**Question 1**

Who else would the coat of arms be shared with?

**Question 2**

How would unrelated families be incorporated into the clan?

**Question 3**

Will the number of weapons decrease in the late Middle Ages?

**Text number 60**

Nor has Poland developed a tradition of separating the coat of arms proper from the women's coat of arms. In general, men inherit the coat of arms from their fathers. The brisure was also rarely used.

**Question 0**

What was rarely used?

**Question 1**

Where have the actual coat of arms and the rosette for women not evolved?

**Question 2**

Where did men usually get their coats of arms?

**Text number 61**

The prevailing mentality and ideology of the Slachs was expressed in "Sarmatism", a name derived from the myth that the Slachs were descended from the mighty ancient Sarmatian people. This belief system became an important part of the Slachta culture and influenced all aspects of their lives. It was popularised by poets who celebrated traditional village life, peace and pacifism. It was also reflected in oriental-style clothing (żupan, kontusz, sukmana, pas kontuszowy, delia) and made the sabre-like sabla an almost obligatory part of the everyday dress of the szlachta. Sarmatism helped to integrate the multi-ethnic nobility, creating an almost nationalistic sense of unity and pride in the 'golden freedom' (złota wolność) of the Slachta. Knowledge of Latin was widespread, and most Slachta freely mixed Polish and Latin vocabulary (the latter 'macaronisms' - from the word 'macaroni') in everyday conversation.

**Question 0**

What was the name of the prevailing mentality and ideology?

**Question 1**

Where does the name sarmatism come from?

**Question 2**

How did Sarmatism influence the Slachta culture?

**Question 3**

What was also shaved as a result of the sarmatism?

**Question 4**

What languages were freely mixed?

**Text number 62**

Before the Reformation, Poland's nobility was mostly either Roman Catholic or Orthodox, with a small number of Muslims. However, many families soon embraced the reformed faith. After the Counter-Revolution, when the Roman Catholic Church regained power in Poland, the nobility became almost exclusively Catholic, although Roman Catholicism was not the majority religion in the Commonwealth (the Catholic and Orthodox churches each accounted for about 40% of the total population, with the remaining 20% being Jewish or Protestant). In the 17th century, many of Jacob Frank's followers joined the ranks of Polish nobility of Jewish origin. Although Jewish religion was generally not a pretext to prevent or deprive nobility, some laws favoured religious conversion from Judaism to Christianity (see: Neophyte) by rewarding it with nobility.

**Question 0**

Which two religions were the most common?

**Question 1**

What was the minority group of the Polish nobility?

**Question 2**

What was rewarding about converting from Judaism to Christianity?

**Question 3**

What happened after the Roman Catholic Church regained power in Poland?

**Question 4**

What was the smallest amount of religion in the nobility?

**Document number 79**

**Text number 0**

Publius Vergilius Maro (classical Latin: [ˈpuː.blɪ.ʊs wɛrˈɡɪ.lɪ.ʊs ˈma.roː]; 15 October 70 BC - 21 September 19 BC. ), in English usually Vergilius or Virgil /ˈvɜːrdʒᵻl/, was an ancient Roman poet from the time of Augustus. He is known for three major works of Latin literature, the Eclogues (or Buccolics), the Georgics and the epic poem Aeneid. He is sometimes associated with a number of smaller poems, collected in the Vergiliana appendix.

**Question 0**

During which period was Vigil a poet?

**Question 1**

How many major literary works is Virgil known for?

**Question 2**

Which major Latin epic is Virgil known for?

**Question 3**

What is Virgil's full name?

**Question 4**

Which collection of trivial poems is sometimes considered to be by Virgil?

**Question 5**

Which work did Virgil write first?

**Question 6**

When did Virgil finish the Aeneid?

**Question 7**

When did August start?

**Question 8**

How many of Virgil's poems still exist today?

**Question 9**

What is Virgil's most famous work?

**Question 10**

How many chapters are there in the Aeneid?

**Question 11**

What is Virgil's least known work?

**Question 12**

When did Virgil publish his last poem?

**Question 13**

What is the longest book by Virgil?

**Question 14**

Into which language was the Aeneid first translated?

**Text number 1**

Virgil is traditionally considered one of Rome's greatest poets. His Aeneid has been considered the national epic of ancient Rome from the time of its composition to the present day. Inspired by Homer's Iliad and Odyssey, the Aeneid follows the Trojan refugee Aeneas as she struggles to fulfil her destiny and reach the shores of Italy - in Roman mythology, the founding period of Rome. Virgil's works have had a wide and profound influence on Western literature, particularly Dante's Divine Comedy, in which Virgil appears as Dante's guide through hell and purgatory.

**Question 0**

Which of Virgil's works is considered a national epic of ancient Rome?

**Question 1**

Which works did Virgil use as a model for the Aeneid?

**Question 2**

Who is the main character in Aide?

**Question 3**

What was Aeneas trying to achieve in Aeneid?

**Question 4**

Who is Dante's guide through hell and purgatory in Divine Comedy?

**Question 5**

Where was Dante born?

**Question 6**

What is Dante's goal in Divine Comedy?

**Question 7**

In which period did Dante write the Divine Comedy?

**Question 8**

What is the title of Homer's most famous epic?

**Question 9**

Where was Virgil born?

**Question 10**

Which of Homer's works is longer, the Iliad or the Odyssey?

**Question 11**

Where did Virgil write his works?

**Question 12**

What was Dante's nationality?

**Question 13**

What is the Iliad about?

**Text number 2**

The Vergilian biographical tradition is believed to be based on the lost biography of Varius, Vergil's editor, which was included in the biography of Suetonius and the commentaries of Servius and Donatus, two of the great commentators on Vergil's poetry. While the commentaries undoubtedly record much factual information about Virgil, some of their evidence can be shown to be based on inferences and allegories about his poetry; thus the Vergilian biographical tradition remains problematic.

**Question 0**

Who was Virgil's editor?

**Question 1**

Whose two comments did Suetonius include in his biography of Virgil?

**Question 2**

What do the comments rely on when they get some information about Vergilius?

**Question 3**

Is Virgil's biographical tradition easy to study or is it problematic?

**Question 4**

Who provided Donatus' comments?

**Question 5**

How many people did Virgil write biographies about?

**Question 6**

What was Varius most famous for?

**Question 7**

Who wrote the biography of Servius?

**Question 8**

Who wrote the most about Virgil?

**Text number 3**

According to tradition, Virgil was born in the Andes village of Mantua, near Cisalpine Gaul. Analysis of his name has led to beliefs that he was descended from earlier Roman colonists. Modern speculation is ultimately unsupported by narrative evidence from his own writings or his later biographers. Macrobius says that Virgil's father was of humble origins; however, scholars generally believe that Virgil came from a family of equestrian landowners who could afford to give him an education. He attended schools in Cremona, Mediolanum, Rome and Naples. After considering a career in rhetoric and jurisprudence for a while, the young Virgil turned his talents to poetry.

**Question 0**

In which village is Virgil traditionally said to have been born?

**Question 1**

In which cities did Virgil go to school?

**Question 2**

What other career was Virgil considering?

**Question 3**

What kind of family do scholars think Virgil usually belonged to?

**Question 4**

Does Macrobius believe that Virgil's father came from a noble or a humble background?

**Question 5**

Where was Virgil's father born?

**Question 6**

What kind of family did Macrobius have?

**Question 7**

In which city did Virgil live the longest?

**Question 8**

Where was Macrobius born?

**Question 9**

What kind of career did Virgil's father have?

**Text number 4**

According to commentators, Virgil received his first education at the age of five, and later went to Cremona, Milan and finally Rome to study rhetoric, medicine and astronomy, which he soon abandoned in favour of philosophy. From Virgil's admiring references to the Neoclassical writers Pollio and Cinna, it has been inferred that he was for a time associated with the Neoclassical circles of Catullus. According to Servius, however, Virgil was regarded by his schoolmates as extremely shy and reserved, and was nicknamed 'Parthenias' or 'maiden' because of his social aloofness. Virgil seems to have suffered from poor health throughout his life and lived a sort of invalid's life. According to Catalepton, he began writing poetry while at the school of Siro Epicurus in Naples. The small works attributed to the young Virgil by commentators have survived under the name Appendix Vergiliana, but scholars consider them largely forgeries. One of them, the Catalepton, consists of fourteen short poems, some of which may have been written by Virgil, and another, a short narrative poem called Culex ('The Mosquito'), was attributed to Virgil as early as the 1st century AD.

**Question 0**

Which three studies did Virgil abandon for philosophy?

**Question 1**

What kind of social standing did Virgil have among his schoolmates?

**Question 2**

What was Virgil's nickname?

**Question 3**

How did Virgil earn his nickname "Parthenias" or "maiden"?

**Question 4**

Which short narrative poem was thought to have been written by Virgil as early as the 1st century AD?

**Question 5**

What did Cinna study?

**Question 6**

What did his friends think of Catullus?

**Question 7**

What was the problem with Servius?

**Question 8**

How many stanzas are there in the poem Culex?

**Question 9**

Where did Pollio live?

**Text number 5**

According to the biographical tradition, Virgil began the hexametric eclogues (or bucolic) in 42 BC, and the collection is believed to have been published around 39-38 BC, although this is disputed. The Eclogues (Greek for 'selections') are a group of ten poems roughly modelled on the bucolic hexameter ('pastoral') poetry of the Hellenistic poet Theocritus. After his victory at the Battle of Philippi in 42 BC, the Theocritus, a play by the Greek philosopher Tocritus, was written in the style of the Theocritus. Octavian tried to pay his veterans from towns in northern Italy with expropriated land, including, according to tradition, a farm near Mantua owned by Virgil. Traditionally, Virgil's motive for writing the eclogues has been thought to be the loss of his family estate and an attempt to regain his property through poetic appeals. This is now considered an implausible conclusion which is not supported by the interpretations of the Eclogues. In Eclogues 1 and 9, Virgil does indeed dramatise the conflicting emotions caused by the brutality of the expropriation of the land using a pastoral idiom, but he does not provide incontrovertible evidence of the supposed biographical event. Although some readers have identified the poet himself with various characters and their phases, whether it is the gratitude of an old country boy to a new god (Ecl. 1), the frustrated love of a country singer for a distant boy (his master's pet, Ecl. 2), or the songwriter's claim to have composed several eclogues (Ecl. 5), modern scholars largely reject such attempts to extract biographical details from works of fiction, preferring to interpret the author's characters and themes as descriptions of contemporary life and thought. The ten eclogues present traditional pastoral themes from a fresh perspective. Eclogues 1 and 9 deal with land confiscation and its effects in rural Italy, while 2 and 3 are pastoral and erotic, dealing with both homosexual love (eclogue 2) and attraction to people of all genders (eclogue 3). The so-called "messianic eclogue "4 addressed to Asinius Pollio uses the imagery of the Golden Age at the birth of a child (who the child was to be is debated), 5 and 8 depict the myth of Daphnis in a song contest, 6 the cosmic and mythological song of Silenus, 7 a passionate poetry contest and 10 the sufferings of the contemporary elegiac poet Cornelius Gallus. Virgil [who?] is believed in the Eclogues to have established the Arcadian poetic ideal, which still resonates in Western literature and the visual arts, and to have laid the foundations for the development of Calpurnius Siculus, Nemesias and later writers in the direction of the Latin pastoral.

**Question 0**

Which Hellenistic poet was known for the poetry of the bucolic hexameter?

**Question 1**

Who was trying to pay veterans on land that may have belonged to Virgil?

**Question 2**

Which work was motivated by the loss of the Vergilius family farm and the attempt to regain their fortune through poetry?

**Question 3**

Who was Eclogue 4 addressed to?

**Question 4**

Where in the Eclogues is homosexual love discussed?

**Question 5**

In which language did Virgil write his works?

**Question 6**

When did Theocritus publish his last work?

**Question 7**

What was the subject on which Virgil wrote most often?

**Question 8**

Where did Octavianus live?

**Question 9**

How many books of poetry did Cornelius Gallus write?

**Text number 6**

Sometime after the publication of the Eclogues (probably before 37 BC) Virgil joined the circle of Maecenas, Octavian's able agent, who sought to counter Antony's sympathies among the leading families by rallying Roman literary figures to Octavian's side. Virgil became acquainted with many other leading literary figures of the period, including Horace, in whose poems he is often mentioned, and Varius Rufus, who later helped to complete the Aeneid.

**Question 0**

Who helped finish the Aeneid?

**Question 1**

When are the eclogues likely to have been published?

**Question 2**

What was the name of Octavian's agents?

**Question 3**

Which leading literary figure often mentioned Virgo in his poems?

**Question 4**

Who invited Virgil to the Maecenas?

**Question 5**

Which Roman was the most prolific writer of the time?

**Question 6**

What was Octavian's favourite hobby?

**Question 7**

What was Virgil most proud of?

**Question 8**

How many poems did Horace write?

**Text number 7**

At Maecenas' insistence (according to tradition), Virgil spent the following years (perhaps 37-29 BC) writing a long didactic hexameter poem, Georgics (from the Greek for "Working the Earth"), which he dedicated to Maecenas. The ostensible subject of the Georgics is instruction in farm management methods. In dealing with this subject, Virgil follows the didactic tradition ('how to') of the works and days of the Greek poet Hesiod and of many later Hellenistic poets. The four books of the Georgics focus on the cultivation of crops and trees (1 and 2), on animal husbandry and horses (3), and on beekeeping and the properties of bees (4). Famous passages include the beloved Laus Italiae in Book 2, the description of the temple prologue in Book 3 and the description of the plague at the end of Book 3. The book ends4 with a long mythological story in the form of an epyllion, which vividly describes Aristaeus' discovery of beekeeping and the story of Orpheus' journey to the underworld. Ancient scholars, such as Servius, speculated that the Aristaeus episode replaced, at the emperor's request, a long section praising Virgil's friend, the poet Gallus, who was disgraced by Augustus and committed suicide in 26 BC.

**Question 0**

On which long didactic hexameter poem did Virgil work for several years?

**Question 1**

To whom was Georgics dedicated?

**Question 2**

The topic of George is teaching about what methods?

**Question 3**

Which of Virgil's poet friends committed suicide in 26 BC?

**Question 4**

Who shamed Gallus?

**Question 5**

Who invented how to grow crops?

**Question 6**

How many poems did Hesiod write?

**Question 7**

What did the poet Gallus write about most?

**Question 8**

What was Maecenas' profession?

**Question 9**

What kind of poems did Hesiod write?

**Text number 8**

The tone of the Georgics varies between optimism and pessimism, which has prompted critical debate about the poet's intentions, but the work lays the groundwork for later didactic poetry. Virgil and Maecenas are said to have taken turns reading The Georgics to Octavian after he returned from defeating Antony and Cleopatra at the battle of Actium in 31 BC.

**Question 0**

In which battle did Octavian defeat Antony and Cleopatra?

**Question 1**

When did Octavian return from the Battle of Actium?

**Question 2**

Who took turns with Virgil to read the Georgics to Octavian?

**Question 3**

When was Georgics published?

**Question 4**

Who wrote Georgics?

**Question 5**

Where were Georgians written?

**Question 6**

What did most of Virgil's writings consist of?

**Question 7**

Who funded the writing of the Georgics?

**Text number 9**

The Aeneid is widely regarded as Virgil's finest work and one of the most important poems in the history of Western literature. Virgil worked on the Aeneid during the last eleven years of his life29 (-19 BC), and, according to Propertius, was commissioned by Augustus. The epic poem consists of a series of books12 written in dactylic hexameter, describing the journey of Aeneas, a warrior fleeing the sack of Troy, to Italy, his battle with the Italian prince Turnus and the founding of the city from which Rome would rise. The first six books of the Aeneid describe Aeneas' journey from Troy to Rome. In writing his epic, Virgil used a number of models; Homer, the most important author of the classical epic, is omnipresent, but Virgil also makes particular reference to the Latin poet Ennius and the Hellenistic poet Apollonius of Rhodes. Although the Aeneid is strictly epic, it often seeks to expand the genre by incorporating elements from other genres, such as tragedy and epic poetry. Ancient commentators noted that Virgil seems to have divided the Aeneid into two parts on the basis of Homer's poetry; the first six books were seen as using the Odyssey as a model, while the last six books were associated with the Iliad.

**Question 0**

Which of Virgil's works is generally considered his finest?

**Question 1**

Who commissioned the Aeneid according to Propertius?

**Question 2**

How many books does the Aeneid contain?

**Question 3**

Which of Homer's works is the first six books of the Aeneid based on?

**Question 4**

To which of Homer's works are the last six books of the Aeneid related?

**Question 5**

How old was Virgil when he died?

**Question 6**

Which poet published the most works?

**Question 7**

Who ordered the Iliad?

**Question 8**

Which of Homer's works was longer, the Iliad or the Odyssey?

**Text number 10**

Book 1 (at the beginning of the Odysseus episode) begins with a storm that Juno, Aeneas' enemy throughout the poem, is stirring up against the fleet. The storm drives the hero to the coast of Carthage, historically Rome's deadliest enemy. Queen Dido welcomes the Roman ancestor and, under the influence of the gods, falls deeply in love with him. In Book 2, Aeneas tells the enraptured Carthaginians at a banquet about the Trojan raid, the death of his wife and his flight, and in Book 3 he tells them about his wanderings in the Mediterranean in search of a suitable new home. Jupiter4 reminds the lingering Aeneas of her duty to found a new city, and she slips away from Carthage, leaving Dido to commit suicide, cursing Aeneas and summoning revenge in symbolic anticipation of the fierce wars between Carthage and Rome. In Book 5, Anchises, Aeneas' father, dies and is given a funeral. After arriving in Cumae, Italy, in Book 6, Aeneas turns to the Sibyl of Cumae, who leads him through the underworld, where Aeneas meets the dead Anchises, who reveals to his son the fate of Rome.

**Question 0**

Who is Aeneas' enemy throughout the Aeneid?

**Question 1**

Which queen committed suicide in Aeneid 4?

**Question 2**

In which book does Aeneas' father die?

**Question 3**

Who will reveal the fate of Rome to Aeneas?

**Question 4**

Who will guide Aeneas through the underworld?

**Question 5**

Who is Jupiter's enemy in the Aeneid?

**Question 6**

Where did Aeneas' father die?

**Question 7**

How many days did Aeneas travel through the underworld?

**Question 8**

How did Aeneas' wife die?

**Question 9**

What was the fate of Rome according to Anchises?

**Text number 11**

The book (which begins the first half of the Iliad) begins with a speech to the muse, telling of Aeneas' arrival in Italy and his betrothal to Lavinia, daughter of King Latinus. Lavinia had already been promised to Turnus, king of the Rutulians, who is roused to war by the furious Allecto and Amata, Lavinia's mother. In Book 8, Aeneas allies himself with King Evander, who occupies the future site of Rome, and receives new armour and a shield depicting the history of Rome. Book 9 tells of the attack of Nisus and Euryalus against the Rutulians, Book 10 of the death of Evander's young son Pallas, and Book 11 of the death of the Volscian warrior princess Camilla and the decision to settle the war with a duel between Aeneas and Turnus. The Aeneid ends with the capture of the city of Latinus, the death of Amata and the defeat and killing of Turnus by Aeneas,12 whose pleas for mercy are rejected. The final book ends with a scene of Turnus' soul lamenting as he flees to the underworld.

**Question 0**

To whom is Aeneas betrothed?

**Question 1**

Which king does Aeneas ally himself with in Book 8 of Aeneid?

**Question 2**

Who had already been promised Lavinia?

**Question 3**

Who will raise the war on Raivo Allecto and Amata Lavinia's mother?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the muse?

**Question 5**

How old was Pallas when he died?

**Question 6**

How did Camilla die?

**Question 7**

How many years did the war last?

**Question 8**

Who promised Lavinia to Turnus?

**Text number 12**

Critics of the Aeneid focus on a wide range of issues. In particular, there is a debate about the tone of the poem as a whole; some see it as ultimately pessimistic and politically subversive of Augustus' regime, while others see it as a celebration of the new imperial dynasty. Virgil draws on the symbolism of Augustus' regime, and some scholars see strong links between Augustus and Aeneas, one as the founder of Rome and the other as the re-founder. A strong teleology, a striving towards a climax, has been identified in the poem. The Aeneid is full of predictions about the future of Rome, the deeds of Augustus, his ancestors and famous Romans, and the Carthaginian wars; the Aeneid even describes Augustus' victory at Actium against Mark Antony and Cleopatra VII in 31 BC. Another area of study is the character of Aeneas. As the protagonist of the poem, Aeneas seems constantly torn between his emotions and his commitment to fulfilling his prophetic duty to found Rome; critics note the breakdown of Aeneas' emotional control in the final sections of the poem, where the 'pious' and 'righteous' Aeneas mercilessly slaughters Turnus.

**Question 0**

When did Augustus defeat Mark Antony and Ceopatra VII at Actium?

**Question 1**

Who is the main character in Aide?

**Question 2**

Who will Aeneas slaughter mercilessly?

**Question 3**

Who is the founder of Rome that some scholars believe is strongly associated with Aeneas?

**Question 4**

When was the Aeneid published?

**Question 5**

Where did Aeneas defeat Turnus?

**Question 6**

Where did Augustus live?

**Question 7**

How did Augustus fight at Actium?

**Question 8**

Which part of Aeneid is the longest?

**Text number 13**

Aeneis seems to have been a great success. Virgil is said to have recited books 2,4 , and 6 to Augustus, and the book apparently caused Augustus' sister Octavia to faint. Although there are scholarly doubts about the veracity of this claim, it has served as a basis for later art, such as Jean-Baptiste Wicari's Virgil Reading the Aeneid.

**Question 0**

Which book was said to have caused Augustus' sister to faint?

**Question 1**

What was the title of Jean-Baptiste Wicari's work inspired by the Aeneid?

**Question 2**

To whom did Virgil recite Aeneid 2, 4 and 6?

**Question 3**

How many paintings did Jean-Baptiste Wicar base on the life of Virgil?

**Question 4**

Did the critics call the painting "Virgil reading from the Aeneid" a great success or a failure?

**Question 5**

How many poems did Augustus commission from Virgil?

**Question 6**

What was the name of the scholar who cast doubt on the claims that Augustus' sister fainted when Virgil recited the Aeneid?

**Question 7**

Which is the longest book of Aeneid?

**Text number 14**

According to tradition, Virgil travelled to Greece around 19 BC to check on the Aeneid. After meeting Augustus in Athens and deciding to return home, Virgil fell ill with a fever while visiting a town near Megara. After travelling by ship to Italy, weakened by illness, Virgil died in the port of Brundisium on 21 September 19 BC. Augustus ordered Virgil's literary executors, Lucius Varius Rufus and Plotius Tucca, to ignore Virgil's own wish to burn the poem and instead order it to be published with as few editorial changes as possible. As a result, the existing text of the Aeneid may contain errors that Virgil intended to correct before publication. The only obvious flaws, however, are a few verses that are metrically incomplete (i.e. not a full dactylic hexameter line). Some scholars have argued that Virgil deliberately left these metrically incomplete lines for dramatic effect. Other alleged incompletenesses are the subject of scholarly debate.

**Question 0**

Where does tradition say Virgil travelled to in 19 BC to reform the Aeneid?

**Question 1**

Where did Virgil die?

**Question 2**

When did Virgil die?

**Question 3**

Who were Virgil's literary executors?

**Question 4**

Which of Virgil's wishes were ignored by Lucius Varius Rufus and Plotius Tucca?

**Question 5**

Where did Augustus die?

**Question 6**

When was the Aeneid published?

**Question 7**

Where did Augustus die?

**Question 8**

Where was the Aeneid first published?

**Question 9**

How many unfinished lines are there in the Aeneid?

**Text number 15**

Virgil's works revolutionised Latin poetry almost as soon as they were published. The Eclogues, the Georgics and, above all, the Aeneid became standard texts in school curricula, familiar to all educated Romans. Poets who followed Virgil often referred to his works intertextually to create meanings for their own poetry. In Amores 1.1.1-2, the Augustan poet Ovid parodied the opening lines of the Aeneid, and his summary of the Aeneid in Metamorphoses 14, the so-called 'mini-Aeneid', has been considered a particularly significant example of a post-Virgilian response to the epic genre. Lucan's epic Bellum Civile has been seen as an anti-Virgilian epic that abandons the divine mechanism, deals with historical events and departs sharply from Virgil's epic practice. The Flavian poet Statius, in his 12-volume epic Thebaid, is closely associated with Virgil's poetry; in his epilogue he advises his poem not to 'compete with the divine Aeneid, but to follow from afar and always respect its footsteps'. In Silius Italicus, Virgil finds one of his most ardent admirers. In almost every line of his Punica epic, Silius refers to Virgil. Indeed, Silius is known to have bought Virgil's tomb and worshipped the poet. Partly thanks to his so-called 'messianic' fourth eclogue - later interpreted as predicting the birth of Jesus Christ - Virgil was later in antiquity considered to have the magical powers of a seer; the Sortes Vergilianae, the process by which Virgil's poetry was used as an aid to divination, dates back to the time of Hadrian and continued into the Middle Ages. Similarly, in his Saturnalia, Macrobius believes that Virgil's work is the embodiment of human knowledge and experience, reflecting the Greek view of Homer. Virgil also found commentators in antiquity. Servius, a commentator of the 4th century AD, based his work on Donatus' commentary. Servius' commentary provides us with a wealth of information about Virgil's life, sources and references; however, many modern scholars find the variable quality of his work and often simplistic interpretations frustrating.

**Question 0**

Who was one of Virgil's most ardent admirers, referring to Virgil in almost every line of his epic?

**Question 1**

.what was the name of the epic of Silius Italicus, in which Virgil was referred to in almost every line?

**Question 2**

Who bought Virgil's tomb?

**Question 3**

Which of Virgil's works was later widely interpreted as having predicted the birth of Jesus Christ?

**Question 4**

Which of Virgil's works was least known?

**Question 5**

Who was the first poet to refer to Virgil in his work?

**Question 6**

In which era did Statius live?

**Question 7**

Who did Silius Italicus buy Virgil's tomb from?

**Question 8**

When was the 12-character epic Thebaid written?

**Text number 16**

Even as the Western Roman Empire collapsed, literate people recognised that Virgil was a master poet. Gregory of Tours read Virgil, whom he quotes in several passages, as well as some other Latin poets, although he warns that 'we should not tell their false tales, lest we be condemned to eternal death'.

**Question 0**

Who warned: "We must not tell their false stories, lest we be condemned to eternal death"?

**Question 1**

Literate men recognised Virgil as a master poet, even though which empire collapsed?

**Question 2**

Did literate people recognise Virgil as a master or a novice poet?

**Question 3**

What was Gregorius Tours' occupation?

**Question 4**

Where did Gregorius of Tours live?

**Question 5**

Who was connected to the fables in Virgil's work?

**Question 6**

In which language did Gregory of Tours write?

**Text number 17**

Dante made Virgil his guide to hell and most of purgatory in The Divine Comedy. Dante also mentions Virgil in De vulgari eloquentia as one of the four regulati poetae (ii, vi,7 ), along with Ovid, Lucan and Statius.

**Question 0**

In which of Dante's works did Virgil guide you through hell and purgatory?

**Question 1**

Who was the author of The Divine Comedy?

**Question 2**

Who was Dante's guide through purgatory and hell in the Divine Comedy?

**Question 3**

How many books did Dante write?

**Question 4**

Who was Dante's favourite author?

**Question 5**

What was Dante's longest book?

**Question 6**

Which poet was better known, Lucan or Statius?

**Text number 18**

In the Middle Ages, Virgil's reputation was such that it inspired legends linking him to magic and divination. From at least the 3rd century onwards, Christian thinkers interpreted Eclogues 4, which describes the birth of a son to usher in the Golden Age, as a prophecy of the birth of Jesus. Thus Virgil began to be seen on the same level as the Hebrew prophets of the Bible as proclaimers of Christianity.

**Question 0**

Which work by Virgil is said by some to have predicted the birth of Jesus?

**Question 1**

What religion did some people consider Virgil to be a preacher of?

**Question 2**

During which period did Virgil's fame inspire legends linking him to magic and divination?

**Question 3**

What did Virgil write most about?

**Question 4**

Who was the first to predict the birth of Jesus?

**Question 5**

What religion did Virgil follow?

**Question 6**

When did Virgil predict that Jesus would be born?

**Text number 19**

Possibly as early as the second century AD, Virgil's works were considered to have magical properties and were used for divination. In the so-called 'Sortes Vergilianae' (Virgil's lotuses), passages were randomly selected and interpreted to answer questions. In the 13th century, starting around Naples but eventually spreading to much of Europe, a tradition developed in which Virgil was regarded as a great magician. Legends about Virgil and his magical powers remained popular for more than two hundred years, and probably became as important as his writings themselves. Such was Virgil's legacy in medieval Wales that the Welsh version of his name, Fferyllt or Pheryllt, became the common name for a magician, and is preserved in the modern Welsh word for apothecary, fferyllydd.

**Question 0**

What started the tradition that Virgil was a great magician?

**Question 1**

How long did legends about Virgil's magical powers remain popular?

**Question 2**

What is the modern Welsh word for phramacist?

**Question 3**

Where did Virgil's name become a generic term for a magician?

**Question 4**

When did Virgil's reputation as a great magician begin?

**Question 5**

Where did the tradition that Virgil was a great magician last the longest?

**Question 6**

How long did it take for legends of Virgil's magical powers to spread across Europe?

**Question 7**

Where did Virgil write his poems?

**Question 8**

Which part of the world did Virgil write most about?

**Question 9**

When were Virgil's works most popular?

**Text number 20**

The legend of Virgil's basket originated in the Middle Ages, and is often seen in art and mentioned in literature as part of the topos of Woman Power, which shows the disturbing power of a woman's attraction to men. In this story, Virgil fell in love with a beautiful woman, sometimes described as the emperor's daughter or mistress, called Lucretius. She tricked him into agreeing to meet her at his house, where he was to sneak in at night by climbing into a large basket lowered from the window. When he did so, he was only half lifted up the wall and left trapped until the next day, when he was exposed to public ridicule. The story was similar to the one in which Phyllis rode on Aristotle's back. Among other artists, Lucas van Leyden made a woodcut and later an engraving of the scene.

**Question 0**

During which period was the legend Virgil born in his basket?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the beautiful woman who enchanted Virgil?

**Question 2**

What was the storyline behind Virgil's stay in the middle of the basket?

**Question 3**

Which artist made a woodcut and later an engraving of Virgil and his basket?

**Question 4**

When did Lucas van Leyden live?

**Question 5**

What was Phyllis known as?

**Question 6**

Who was one of the authors who wrote about Virgil in his basket?

**Question 7**

What art form did most artists use to depict Virgil in his basket?

**Question 8**

When did Phyllis ride Aristotle?

**Text number 21**

Known as the "Tomb of Virgil", the structure is located at the mouth of an ancient Roman tunnel (also known as the "grotta vecchia") in Piedigrotta, two kilometres from the centre of Naples, near the port of Mergellina, on the road leading north along the coast to Pozzuoli. Virgil was the object of literary admiration and veneration even before his death, but in the Middle Ages his name was associated with miraculous powers and his tomb was the object of pilgrimage and worship for a couple of centuries.

**Question 0**

During what period was Virgil's name associated with miraculous powers?

**Question 1**

In which district is the "Tomb of Virgil" located?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the entrance to the ancient Roman tunnel where the "Tomb of Virgil" is located?

**Question 3**

Where did Virgil die?

**Question 4**

Where did the pilgrims pass on their way to Virgil's tomb?

**Question 5**

Where did most of the pilgrims come from?

**Question 6**

When were Virgil's books most read?

**Text number 22**

In the late Empire and the Middle Ages, Virgil was spelled Virgilius. Two explanations are generally given for this change. One is due to a false etymology of the word virgo ("maiden" in Latin), which was due to Virgil's excessive, "maiden-like" modesty. Alternatively, some argue that Virgil was changed to Virgil by analogy with the Latin word virga ('rod') because Virgil was believed to have magical or prophetic powers in the Middle Ages (this explanation, however, is found in only a few manuscripts and was probably not widespread). In Norman schools (following French practice), it was customary to anglicise Latin names by omitting their Latin endings, so Virgil was Virgil. In the 19th century, some German-educated classical scholars in the United States suggested the change to Vergil, as it is closer to his original name and is also the traditional German spelling. Modern usage allows both, although the Oxford style guide recommends Vergil to avoid confusion with the 8th century grammarian Virgilius Maro Grammaticus. Some post-Renaissance writers liked to use the title "Mantua's swan"[citation needed].

**Question 0**

What other spelling besides Virgil is allowed in current usage?

**Question 1**

During what period was Virgil written by Virgil?

**Question 2**

In which century did some German-educated classicists in the United States propose to change the vernacular into Vergil?

**Question 3**

Which style guide recommends the use of Virgil to avoid confusion with Virgilius Maro Grammaticus?

**Question 4**

Why was Virgil called the "Swan of Mantua"?

**Question 5**

Who gave Virgil magical powers in the Middle Ages?

**Question 6**

When was the Oxford Style Guide written?

**Question 7**

In which language was the Oxford Style Guide originally written?

**Question 8**

In which country was the Oxford Style Guide written?

**Document number 80**

**Text number 0**

The Alps (/ælps/; Italian: Alpi [ˈalpi]; French: Alpes [alp]; German: Alpen [ˈʔalpm̩]; Slovene: Alpe [ˈáːlpɛ]) are the highest and most extensive mountain system in Europe, stretching for about 1,200 kilometres through eight Alpine countries: Austria, France, Germany, Italy, Liechtenstein, Monaco, Slovenia and Switzerland. The Caucasus is higher and the Ural Mountains longer, but both are partly in Asia. The mountains were formed over tens of millions of years when the continental plates of Africa and Eurasia collided. The extreme shortening caused by this event resulted in the marine sedimentary rocks being pushed and folded to form high mountain peaks such as Mont Blanc and the Matterhorn. Mont Blanc crosses the border between France and Italy and, at 4 810 m, is the highest mountain in the Alps. The Alpine region has around 100 peaks over 4 000 metres high, known as the 'four thousand peaks'.

**Question 0**

In which country are the Alps located?

**Question 1**

How many kilometres do the Alps stretch?

**Question 2**

How long did it take for the Alps to form?

**Question 3**

What is the highest mountain in the Alps?

**Question 4**

The Alpine region is also known as the what?

**Text number 1**

In the mountains, rainfall varies widely and the climatic conditions are made up of different zones. Wild animals such as rock pigs live on the highest peaks of the mountains, up to 3,400 m, and plants such as edelweiss grow in rocky areas at both lower and higher altitudes. There is evidence of human habitation in the Alps dating back to the Palaeolithic period.

**Question 0**

What affects Europe's climate?

**Question 1**

What kind of animal lives on higher peaks?

**Question 2**

Which plant grows in mountain rocky areas?

**Question 3**

What is the earliest evidence of human habitation in the Alps?

**Text number 2**

In 1991, a mummified man was found in a glacier on the Austrian-Italian border, and was found to be 5 000 years old. By the 6th century BC, the Celtic La Tène culture was well established. Hannibal famously crossed the Alps with a herd of elephants, and the Romans inhabited the area. In 1800, Napoleon crossed one of the mountain passes with an army of 40 000 men. The 1700s and 1800s saw a flood of naturalists, writers and artists, especially the Romantics, and then the golden age of alpinism, when mountaineers began to climb to the summits. During the Second World War, Adolf Hitler maintained a base in the Bavarian Alps throughout the war.

**Question 0**

How old was the mummified man found in a boring place between Austria and Italy?

**Question 1**

Which culture was established in the 6th century BC?

**Question 2**

Who famously crossed the Alps with a herd of elephants?

**Question 3**

Who was the person who led an army of 40 000 across the mountain passes?

**Question 4**

Where was Adolf Hitler's base during the Second World War?

**Text number 3**

The Alpine region has a strong cultural identity. Traditional farming, cheese and woodworking cultures still exist in Alpine villages, although tourism started to grow in the early 20th century and expanded strongly after the Second World War, becoming the dominant industry by the end of the century. Winter Olympics have been held in the Swiss, French, Italian, Austrian and German Alps. Today, the region is home to 14 million people and is visited by 120 million visitors a year.

**Question 0**

How many people live in the Alps?

**Question 1**

How many visitors come to the Alps each year?

**Question 2**

What is the dominant industry in the Alpine region?

**Text number 4**

The English word Alps comes from the Latin word Alpes (via French). Maurus Servius Honoratus, an ancient commentator on Virgil, says in his commentary (A. X 13) that the Celts called all high mountains Alps. The term may be common to the Italo-Celtic languages, since the Celtic languages have terms for high mountains derived from the Alps.

**Question 0**

The English word Alps comes from what Latin word?

**Question 1**

Who says that the Celts call all high mountains the Alps?

**Question 2**

Which languages have Alpine-derived terms for high mountains?

**Text number 5**

This may be in line with the theory that the Greek Alpes is a name of non-Indo-European origin (common to the major mountains and mountain ranges of the Mediterranean). According to the Old English Dictionary, the Latin Alpes may possibly derive from the pre-Indo-European word \*alb 'hill'; 'Albania' is a related derivation. Albania, which does not originate from the region known as Albania, has been used as the name of several mountainous regions throughout Europe. In Roman times, 'Albania' was the name of the Eastern Caucasus, and in English 'Albania' (or 'Albany') is sometimes used as the name of Scotland.

**Question 0**

There is a theory that Alpes is a name in Greek that has what origin?

**Question 1**

What is the name of several mountain areas across Europe?

**Question 2**

What was the name of Albania in Roman times?

**Question 3**

Albania was sometimes used in English as a name for what?

**Text number 6**

It is likely that the words alb ('white') and albus have a common origin, stemming from the association of the tops of high mountains or steep hills with snow.

**Question 0**

Which words are likely to have a common origin?

**Question 1**

Where do Alb and Albus come from?

**Question 2**

Alb can also mean what?

**Text number 7**

In modern languages, the term alp, alm, albe or alpe refers to the alpine pastures below the glaciers, not the peaks. Alpine means high mountain pasture, where cows are taken to graze in the summer months and where there are hay meadows, and the term 'alpine' is a misnomer. The names of mountain tops vary from nation to nation and from language to language: in German-speaking areas, for example, the words horn, kogel, gipfel, spitz and berg are used; in French-speaking areas, mont, pic, dent and aiguille; and in Italian-speaking areas, monte, picco or cima.

**Question 0**

What does the term alp, alm, albe or alpe refer to in modern languages?

**Question 1**

What is a high mountain pasture where cows are taken to graze during the summer months?

**Question 2**

In which regions are words such as horn, kogel, gipfel, spitz and berd used?

**Question 3**

Mont, pic, dent and aiguille are words used in which regions?

**Text number 8**

The Alps are a crescent-shaped geographical feature in central Europe, extending in an 800 km arc from east to west and 200 km wide. The average height of the mountain peaks is 2.5 km (1.6 mi). The mountain range extends from the Mediterranean northwards to above the Po basin and extends through France from Grenoble eastwards through central and southern Switzerland. The mountain range continues towards Vienna in Austria and eastwards to the Adriatic Sea and Slovenia. In the south it descends into northern Italy and in the north it extends to the southern border of Bavaria in Germany. In places like Chiasso in Switzerland and Neuschwanstein in Bavaria, the boundary between the mountains and the plains is clear, but in other places, such as Geneva, it is less so. The countries with the most alpine areas are Switzerland, France, Austria and Italy.

**Question 0**

What are the crescent-shaped geographical features of Central Europe?

**Question 1**

What is the average height of an Alpine peak?

**Question 2**

How far do the Alps extend?

**Question 3**

Switzerland, France, Austria and Italy have the most what?

**Text number 9**

The highest part of the region is divided by the glacial valley of the Rhone Valley, with the Penn Alps from Mont Blanc to the Matterhorn and Monte Rosa to the south and the Bernese Alps to the north. The eastern part, in Austria and Slovenia, has lower peaks than the central and western parts.

**Question 0**

The highest part of the Alps is divided by what?

**Question 1**

Where are the smaller peaks?

**Question 2**

In which part of the mountains are the Bernese Alps located?

**Text number 10**

The different nomenclature of the Alpine region makes it difficult to classify mountains and sub-regions, but the general classification is Eastern Alps and Western Alps, with the border between them in eastern Switzerland, near the Splügen Pass, according to geologist Stefan Schmid.

**Question 0**

What makes it difficult to classify mountains and sub-regions?

**Question 1**

Who invented the general classification?

**Question 2**

Where is the border between the Eastern Alps and the Western Alps close?

**Text number 11**

The highest peaks in the Western Alps are Mont Blanc (4 810 m) and the highest peak in the Eastern Alps is Piz Bernina (4 049 m). The second highest major peaks are Monte Rosa, 4 634 m (15 200 ft) and Ortler, 3 905 m (12 810 ft).

**Question 0**

Where is the highest peak in the Western Alps?

**Question 1**

How high is the summit of Mont Blanc?

**Question 2**

Where is the highest peak in the Eastern Alps?

**Question 3**

How high is the summit of Piz Bernina?

**Text number 12**

A series of lower mountains running parallel to the main chain of the Alps, including the French Prealps in France and the Jura Mountains in Switzerland and France. The Alpine secondary chain follows the watershed from the Mediterranean to the Wienerwald and crosses many of the highest and most famous peaks in the Alps. Between Colle di Cadibona and Col de Tende it runs west, turns north-west and then north near Colle della Maddalena. On reaching the Swiss border, the main line heads roughly east-northeast and follows this line until it ends near Vienna.

**Question 0**

Where are the French prealps located?

**Question 1**

Which mountains are in Switzerland and France?

**Question 2**

What follows the watershed from the Mediterranean to the Wienerwald?

**Question 3**

What is the approximate direction east-northeast when it is blunted by Switzerland?

**Text number 13**

The Alps have been crossed for war and trade, by pilgrims, students and tourists. Crossings by road, train or on foot are known as 'passes' and are generally mountain hollows with valleys leading from the plateau and the hilly zones that precede the mountains. In the Middle Ages, religious orders established funeral homes on the summits of many of the main soli. The most important passes are the Col de l'Iseran (the highest), the Brenner Pass, Mont-Cenis, the Great St Bernard Pass, the Col de Tende, the Gotthard Pass, the Semmering Pass and the Stelvio Pass.

**Question 0**

What has been surpassed in terms of war and trade?

**Question 1**

What religious organisations were founded in the Middle Ages?

**Question 2**

Where were hospices set up?

**Question 3**

What is the highest of the main Alpine passes?

**Text number 14**

The Brenner Pass, which crosses the Italian-Austrian border and separates the Ötztal and Zillertal Alps, has been used as a trade route since the 13th century. The Semmering is the lowest of the alpine passes, at 985 metres high, and crosses the road between Lower Austria and Styria. It has been in continuous use since the 13th century, when a hospice was built there. A railway with a 1.6 km tunnel was built in the mid-19th century along the route of the pass. The Great St Bernard Pass is one of the highest in the Alps, with a summit of 2 469 metres. The pass crosses the Italian-Swiss border from the Pennine Alps eastwards on the flank of Mont Blanc. Napoleon Bonaparte used the pass to cross with 40,000 soldiers in 1800. The Gotthard Pass crosses central Switzerland and Ticino. In the late 19th century, a 14-kilometre-long Gotthard tunnel was built to link Lucerne in Switzerland with Milan in Italy. The Mont Cenis Pass has been an important commercial route between Western Europe and Italy. It has now been replaced by the Fréjus road and rail tunnel. The Stelvio Pass in northern Italy is one of the highest Alpine passes at 2 756 metres, built in the 1820s. The highest pass in the Alps is the Col de l'Isera in Savoij (France) at 2 770 m.

**Question 0**

What is the difference between the Otztal Alps and the Zillertal Alps?

**Question 1**

How long has the Brenner Pass been used as a trade route?

**Question 2**

At what altitude is the lowest pass in the Alps?

**Question 3**

Who crossed the Great St Bernard Pass with 40 000 soldiers?

**Question 4**

Where is the highest point in the Alps?

**Text number 15**

Important geological concepts were created when naturalists began to study the rock formations of the Alps in the 1700s. In the mid-19th century, the now-defunct geosyncline theory was used to explain the occurrence of 'folded' mountain chains, but by the mid-20th century, plate tectonics theory became widely accepted.

**Question 0**

Who started exploring the rock formations of the Alps -

**Question 1**

When did rock formations begin to be studied in the Alps?

**Question 2**

What was used in the mid-19th century to explain the occurrence of "folded" mountain ranges?

**Question 3**

Which theory was more widely accepted by the mid-20th century?

**Text number 16**

The formation of the Alps (Alpine orogeny) was an episodic process that started around 300 million years ago. In the Palaeozoic, the Panga supercontinent consisted of a single tectonic plate; it broke up into separate plates in the Mesozoic, and the Tethys Sea developed between Laurasia and Gondwana in the Jurassic. Later, the Tethys was squeezed between the colliding plates, causing the formation of the mountain ranges known as the Alpine belt from Gibraltar through the Himalayas to Indonesia - a process that began at the end of the Mesozoic Era and continues to the present day. The formation of the Alps was part of this orogenic process, resulting from the collision of the African and Eurasian plates, which began at the end of the Cretaceous period.

**Question 0**

When did the formation of the Alps begin?

**Question 1**

What did the Pangaea supercontinent consist of during the Palaeozoic era?

**Question 2**

When did one continental plate break up into separate plates?

**Question 3**

Over what period of time did the Tethys Sea develop?

**Question 4**

When did the collision of the African and Eurasian continental plates begin?

**Text number 17**

Under extreme compressive stresses and pressures, the marine sedimentary rocks were uplifted, creating the typical recumbent buoys and thrust clusters. As the uplifted peaks eroded, a marine flysch sediment layer was deposited in the southern basin, and as the orogeny progressed, sediments were incorporated into younger nappes (warps). The coarse sediments caused by continuous uplift and erosion were later deposited as molasse in the southern areas. The molasse areas of Switzerland and Bavaria were well developed, where flysch uplift continued.

**Question 0**

What rose under extreme compressive stress and pressure?

**Question 1**

When was the marine flysch sediment layer deposited in the southern basin?

**Question 2**

What has subsequently been deposited as molasses in the southern regions?

**Question 3**

Switzerland and Bavaria further increased what?

**Text number 18**

Alpine orogeny continued in continuous cycles until the Palaeogene, causing differences in polar structures, and late orogeny caused the development of the Jura Mountains. The tectonic events of the Triassic, Jurassic and Cretaceous caused different paleogeographic regions. Alps are divided into different lithologies (rock type composition) and nappe structures according to the orogenic events that affected them. The geological division distinguishes between the western, eastern and southern Alps: the Helveticum in the north, the Penninicum and Austroalpine system in the centre and the southern Alps south of the Periadriatic margin.

**Question 0**

What caused the development of the Jura Mountains?

**Question 1**

What explains the different palaeogeographical ranges in the Triassic, Jurassic and Cretaceous periods?

**Question 2**

What is another word for rock composition?

**Question 3**

Which geological sub-region is located in the north?

**Text number 19**

According to geologist Stefan Schmid, the Western Alps experienced a metamorphic event in the Cenozoic Era, while the peaks of the Austro-Alps experienced an event in the Cretaceous, which is why the nappe formations of the two regions are clearly different. The Flysch deposits of the Southern Alps of Lombardy are likely to have been formed in the Cretaceous or later.

**Question 0**

What is Stefan Schmid's profession?

**Question 1**

What happened to the Western Alps during the chaotic period?

**Question 2**

When did the Austroalpine peaks experience their event?

**Question 3**

What are the differences between the peaks of the Western Alps and the Austro-Alps?

**Question 4**

When are Flysch deposits likely to have occurred in the southern Lombardy Alps?

**Text number 20**

The peaks in France, Italy and Switzerland are located in the "Houillière zone", which consists of subsoil with sediments dating back to the Mesozoic era. High 'massifs' with external sedimentary cover are more common in the western Alps, influenced by the thin-crustal thrust of the Neogene, while there are relatively few high peak massifs in the eastern Alps. Similarly, the Swiss peaks extending into western Switzerland (Helvetic nappes) are composed of thin sedimentary strata detached from the former bedrock.

**Question 0**

Where are the peaks of France, Italy and Switzerland located?

**Question 1**

Which are more common in the Western Alps?

**Question 2**

Which region has few high mountain ranges compared to the Western Alps?

**Text number 21**

Put simply, the Alpine structure is made up of rock layers of European, African and oceanic (Tethyan) origin. The lowest nappe structure is of continental European origin, above which are stacked marine sedimentary nappe with African continental plate nappe on top. The Matterhorn is an example of ongoing orogeny, and shows signs of major folding. The top of the mountain consists of gneisses from the African plate, while at the base of the mountain, below the glaciated area, there is European basement rock. The Tethyan sequence of marine sediments and their oceanic basement lies between the African and European plate rocks.

**Question 0**

What are the rock layers from Europe, Africa and the ocean made of?

**Question 1**

What is the origin of the nappe structure of the base?

**Question 2**

Where does the top of the nappies come from?

**Question 3**

What is an example of an ongoing orogeny?

**Text number 22**

The core areas of the Alpine orogenic belt have been folded and fractured, with erosion creating the steep vertical peaks characteristic of the Swiss Alps, which rise seemingly directly from the southern areas. Peaks such as Mont Blanc and the Matterhorn, as well as the high peaks of the Pennine Alps, the Briançonnais and the Hohe Tauern, are composed of rock layers of different orogenies, including basement rock exposures.

**Question 0**

What happened to the Alpine orogenic zone that gave it its steep vertical peak?

**Question 1**

What are the peaks of Mont Blanc, the Matterhorn and the Pennine Alps made of?

**Question 2**

What are the common features of the Alpine orogenic zone?

**Text number 23**

The Union Internationale des Associations d'Alpinisme (UIAA) has defined a list of 82 "official" alpine peaks of at least 4 000 metres. This list includes not only mountains but also little-known sub-peaks, which are considered important mountaineering destinations. Listed below are 22 "four thousand peaks" that are at least 500 metres (1 640 ft) high.

**Question 0**

Which group has compiled the list of 82 official 4 000-metre Apline summits?

**Question 1**

What else is on the list of 82 official Apline peaks other than the mountains?

**Question 2**

The list of twenty-two summits includes summits of at least how much importance?

**Text number 24**

Although Mont Blanc was first climbed in 1786, most of the four thousand metre peaks in the Alps were climbed in the first half of the 19th century; the ascent of the Matterhorn in 1865 marked the end of the golden age of alpinism. Karl Blodig (1859-1956) was one of the first to successfully climb all the major peaks of 4000 metres. He completed his ascent in 1911.

**Question 0**

When was Mont Blanc first climbed?

**Question 1**

When were the majority of Alpine quadrennialists climbers?

**Question 2**

When did the Matterhorn climb take place?

**Question 3**

What did the Matterhorn climb mean?

**Question 4**

Who was among the first to successfully climb all the major 4000-metre peaks?

**Text number 25**

The first British ascent of Mont Blanc took place in 1788; the first ascent by a female climber in 1819. By the mid-1850s, Swiss climbers had reached most of the peaks and were eagerly sought after as mountain guides. Edward Whymper reached the summit of the Matterhorn in 1865 (after seven attempts), and in 1938 the Eiger Nordwand (Eiger North Face) was first climbed, the last of the six great north faces of the Alps.

**Question 0**

When was the first British ascent of Mont Blanc?

**Question 1**

When was the first woman to climb Mont Blanc?

**Question 2**

When did Swiss mountaineers reach most of the summits?

**Question 3**

What year did Edward Whymper reach the summit of the Matterhorn?

**Question 4**

When were the last of the six great north faces of the Alps climbed?

**Text number 26**

The Alps are a source of minerals that have been mined for thousands of years. During the Hallstatt culture in the 800s and 600s BC, Celtic tribes mined copper, and later the Romans mined gold for coins in the Bad Gastein area. Erzberg in Styria produces high-quality iron ore for the steel industry. Crystals, such as sino-pebble, amethyst and quartz, are largely found in the Alpine region. The Slovenian deposits of sino-ore are an important source of sino-ore pigments.

**Question 0**

What has been mined in the Alps for thousands of years?

**Question 1**

What did the Celtic tribes mine from the Alps?

**Question 2**

What were the Romans mining in the Bad Gastein area?

**Question 3**

What does Erzberd in Styria offer?

**Question 4**

In which area are there deposits of minerals?

**Text number 27**

Alpine crystals have been studied and collected for hundreds of years, and were first classified in the 1700s. Leonhard Euler studied the shapes of crystals, and by the 19th century crystal hunting was common in alpine regions. David Friedrich Wiser amassed a collection of 8,000 crystals, which he studied and documented. In the 20th century, Robert Parker wrote a famous work on the mountain crystals of the Swiss Alps; at the same time, a commission was set up to monitor and standardise the naming of Alpine minerals.

**Question 0**

How long have alpine crystals been studied and collected?

**Question 1**

When did alpine crystals start to be classified?

**Question 2**

Who studied the shapes of crystals?

**Question 3**

What was common in the Alpine regions in the 19th century?

**Question 4**

Who collected the 8000 crystals?

**Text number 28**

Severe erosion caused by glaciation occurred in the mountains during the Miocene period, as observed by the naturalist Louis Agassiz in the mid-19th century. He published an article in which he argued that the Alps were covered in ice at different times - a theory he developed after examining rocks near his home in Neuchâtel, which he believed to have originated in the western Bernese highlands. His work made him known as the 'father of the ice age concept', although other naturalists before him had similar ideas.

**Question 0**

Where have mountains caused erosion?

**Question 1**

What was the cause of the severe erosion?

**Question 2**

Who noticed the severe erosion of the mountains?

**Question 3**

What was Louis Agassiz known as?

**Text number 29**

Agassiz studied glacier movement in the 1840s at the Unteraar glacier, where he observed the glacier moving 100 metres a year, and it was moving faster in the centre than at the edges. Other scientists continued his work, and now there is a permanent laboratory inside the glacier below Jungfraujoch, dedicated exclusively to the study of alpine glaciers.

**Question 0**

Where did Agassiz study in the 1840s?

**Question 1**

Agassiz observed that the Unteraar glacier moved how much per year?

**Question 2**

In which part of the Unteraar glacier did the glacier move faster?

**Text number 30**

Glaciers collect rocks and sediment as they flow. This causes erosion and the formation of valleys over time. The Inn valley is an example of a valley shaped by glaciers during the ice ages, with a typical terraced structure caused by erosion. The eroded rocks of the last glacial period are found at the bottom of the valley, while the upper part of the valley consists of erosion from previous glacial periods. Glacial valleys are characterised by steep walls (reliefs); valleys with lower reliefs and steep slopes are remnants of glacial troughs or previously filled valleys. The margins, centres and termini of glaciers are covered by moraine, piles of rock accumulated during glacier movement.

**Question 0**

What is an example of a valley shaped by glaciers during the ice ages?

**Question 1**

What's at the bottom of the Inn Valley?

**Question 2**

What is the upper part of the Inn Valley made up of?

**Question 3**

What are moraine?

**Question 4**

Where have the mounds accumulated?

**Text number 31**

Alpine glaciers can be straight ice streams, long, fan-shaped rivers (Piedmont glaciers) and ice sheets hanging from the vertical slopes of mountain peaks. The stress of movement causes the ice to crack and craze loudly, which may explain why the mountains were believed to be inhabited by dragons in the Middle Ages. The cracking creates unpredictable and dangerous crevasses, often invisible under new snowfall, which pose the greatest danger to mountaineers.

**Question 0**

How are Piedmont's glaciers formed?

**Question 1**

What causes ice to crack and crack loudly?

**Question 2**

What causes ice to crack?

**Text number 32**

The glaciers end in an ice cave (Rhone Glacier), a lake or river, or a snowmelt flowing into a meadow. Sometimes a piece of the glacier breaks off or cracks, causing flooding, property damage and loss of life. In the 17th century, an avalanche killed around 2500 people in a village on the French-Italian border. In the 19th century, an avalanche destroyed 120 houses in a village near Zermatt.

**Question 0**

What causes flooding, property damage and loss of life?

**Question 1**

What killed around 2500 people in the 17th century?

**Question 2**

How many homes in a village near Zermatt were destroyed by an avalanche in the 19th century?

**Text number 33**

High precipitation causes glaciers to drop to permafrost in some areas, while in other, drier areas, glaciers remain at around 3 500 metres. The glacier-covered area of 1 817 square kilometres (702 sq mi) in the Alps in 1876 had shrunk to 1 342 square kilometres (1 342 km2 ) by 1973, resulting in a reduction in river run-off. Since 1850, 40% of Austrian glaciers and 30% of Swiss glaciers have disappeared.

**Question 0**

What causes glaciers to sink to permafrost levels in some areas?

**Question 1**

How much did the glaciers covering the Alps shrink between 1876 and 1973?

**Question 2**

What led to the loss of territory to glaciers over the Alps?

**Question 3**

How much of the Austrian glaciation disappeared?

**Question 4**

How much glaciation disappeared in Switzerland?

**Text number 34**

The Alps provide drinking water, irrigation and hydropower for the lowlands of Europe. Although the Alps cover only about 11% of Europe, they provide up to 90% of the water for the European lowlands, especially in dry areas and during the summer months. Cities like Milan depend on Alpine run-off for 80% of their water. River water is used by more than 500 hydroelectric power plants, generating up to 2,900 kilowatts of electricity.

**Question 0**

Where does Europe get drinking water, irrigation and hydropower?

**Question 1**

How much of Europe do the Alps cover?

**Question 2**

How much water do the Alps supply to the European lowlands?

**Question 3**

How much does Milan's water depend on Alpine run-off?

**Question 4**

How many hydropower plants use river water?

**Text number 35**

Switzerland is the source of major European rivers such as the Rhine, Rhone, Inn, Ticino and Po, all of which originate in the Alps and flow into neighbouring countries, eventually flowing into the North Sea, the Mediterranean, the Adriatic and the Black Sea. The major tributaries of other rivers, such as the Danube, flow into them and originate in the Alps. The Rhone is the second largest source of fresh water to the Mediterranean after the Nile, originating from glacial meltwater, flowing into Lake Geneva and from there to France, where it is used for cooling nuclear power plants, among other things. The Rhine originates in an area of 30 square kilometres in Switzerland and accounts for almost 60% of the water exported from the country. The tributary valleys, some of which are complex, channel water into the main valleys, which can flood during the snowmelt season, causing rapid run-off, resulting in debris flows and swollen rivers.

**Question 0**

From which country do the Rhine, Rhone, Inn, Ticino and Po flow?

**Question 1**

Where do the large tributaries flowing through the Danube originate?

**Question 2**

Which river is the second largest source of freshwater in the Mediterranean after the Nile?

**Question 3**

What name does The Rhone start with?

**Question 4**

Where does Rei come from?

**Text number 36**

Rivers form lakes, such as Lake Geneva, a crescent-shaped lake that crosses the Swiss border with Lausanne on the Swiss side and Evian-les-Bains on the French side. In Germany, the medieval chapel of St Bartholomew was built on the south side of Königssee, accessible only by boat or by climbing over the adjacent peaks.

**Question 0**

Where is the medieval chapel of St Bartholomew?

**Question 1**

On which side of the Konigssee River was the St Bartholomew's Chapel built?

**Question 2**

What are rivers?

**Text number 37**

Scientists have studied the effects of climate change and water use. For example, more water is being diverted every year for snowmaking at ski resorts, but the effects of this are not yet known. In addition, the reduction of glaciated areas, combined with wetter than expected winters, may in the future affect Alpine rivers and lowland water supplies.

**Question 0**

Who has studied the impacts of climate change and water use?

**Question 1**

For what purpose is the water from the rivers used?

**Question 2**

What are the effects of diverting water from rivers?

**Text number 38**

The Alps are a classic example of what happens when a temperate area at lower altitudes gives way to higher terrain. High altitude areas around the world with cold climates similar to those at the poles have been called alpine regions. The rise from sea level to the upper parts of the atmosphere causes the temperature to fall (see adiabatic flow rate). The effect of mountain ranges on prevailing winds is to transport warm air from the lower zone to the upper zone, where its volume increases but the temperature decreases proportionally, often accompanied by snowfall or rain. The height of the Alps is sufficient to divide Europe's weather patterns into wet north and dry south, as moisture is absorbed from the air as it flows over the high peaks.

**Question 0**

What are some classic examples of what happens when a temperate area at lower elevations gives way to higher terrain?

**Question 1**

What is the name given to places around the world that have a cold climate similar to the polar regions?

**Question 2**

What causes the temperature to drop?

**Question 3**

What is enough to divide Europe's weather patterns into wet north and dry south?

**Text number 39**

Severe Alpine weather has been studied since the 1700s, especially weather patterns such as seasonal foehn winds. In the early 20th century, numerous weather stations were set up in the mountains to provide continuous information to climatologists. Some valleys are quite dry, such as the Aosta Valley in Italy, Maurienne in France, Valais in Switzerland and North Tyrol.

**Question 0**

Since when has severe weather in the Alps been studied?

**Question 1**

In particular, what part of the weather has been studied?

**Question 2**

What was placed in the mountains in the early 1900s?

**Question 3**

Where is Aosta Valley located?

**Question 4**

Where is Valais located?

**Text number 40**

In areas that are not dry and where it rains a lot, there are occasional floods due to rapid melting and run-off of snow. Average precipitation in the Alps ranges from a low of 2 600 mm (100 in) per year to 3 600 mm (140 in) per year, with higher precipitation occurring at higher altitudes. At altitudes of 1 000-3 000 m, snowfall starts in November and accumulates until April-May, when melting begins. Snow depths vary between 2 400 and 3 000 m, above which snow is permanent and temperatures hover around freezing even in July and August. High water levels in streams and rivers are at their highest in June and July, when snow melts at even higher altitudes.

**Question 0**

Which areas experience periodic flooding due to rapid melting and run-off of snow?

**Question 1**

What are the ranges of average precipitation in the Alps?

**Question 2**

Where is the highest rainfall?

**Question 3**

At what altitude does snowfall start in November?

**Text number 41**

The Alps are divided into five climate zones, each with different vegetation. The climate, vegetation and fauna vary between different parts of the mountain range or zones. The lowest zone is the colline zone, which, depending on the location, lies between 500 and 1 000 m above sea level. The montane zone extends from 800 to 1 700 m, followed by the subalpine zone from 1 600 to 2 400 m (5 249 to 7 874 ft). The alpine zone, which extends from the tree line to the snow line, is followed by the glacial zone, which covers the glaciated areas of the mountain. Climatic conditions vary within the same zones; for example, weather conditions are colder and harsher in the upper part of the mountain valley, which extends directly from the peaks, than in the valley floor, where weather conditions are generally milder and where there is less snowfall.

**Question 0**

How many zones are the Alps divided into?

**Question 1**

What is the lowest zone of the Alps?

**Question 2**

Where is the lowest zone of the Alps?

**Question 3**

Where does the mountain belt extend?

**Question 4**

Where does the zone below the Alps extend?

**Text number 42**

Various climate change models have projected climate change in the Alps into the 22nd century, and expect rising temperature trends to affect snowfall, snow cover, glaciation and river run-off.

**Question 0**

What is predicted for the Alps in the 22nd century?

**Question 1**

What influences snowfall, snow cover, glaciation and river run-off?

**Question 2**

What have been the different models?

**Text number 43**

Thirteen thousand plant species have been identified in the Alpine regions. Alpine plants are grouped by habitat and soil type, which can be calcareous or non-calcareous. Habitats range from meadows, marshes, woodlands (deciduous and coniferous) to clayey siliceous and moraine, and rocky slopes and ridges. The natural vegetation boundary in terms of altitude is determined by the presence of the main deciduous trees: oak, beech, ash and sycamore. These plants do not reach exactly the same altitude and often do not grow together, but their upper limit corresponds accurately enough to the change from a temperate to a colder climate, as is also shown by the change in the occurrence of wild herbaceous vegetation. In the northern part of the Alps, this limit is generally around 1 200 m above sea level, but on the southern slopes it often rises to 1 500 m and sometimes up to 1 700 m.

**Question 0**

How many plant species have been identified in Alpine regions?

**Question 1**

How are alpine plants grouped?

**Question 2**

Oak, beech, ash and sycamore maple make up which tree group?

**Text number 44**

Above the forestry is often a strip of short pine trees (Pinus mugo), which in turn is replaced by an alpine rose, a dwarf shrub, typically Rhododendron ferrugineum (on acid soils) or Rhododendron hirsutum (on alkaline soils). Although the Alpenrose prefers acid soils, these plants occur throughout the region. Above the tree line is an area defined as 'alpine', where alpine meadow plants occur that are well adapted to the harsh conditions of cold temperatures, drought and high altitudes. The alpine region varies greatly due to spatial variations in tree cover.

**Question 0**

What is often above forestry?

**Question 1**

What kind of soil does Alpenrose prefer?

**Question 2**

What is the area above the tree line?

**Question 3**

Why does the surface area of an Alpine region vary so much?

**Text number 45**

Alpine plants, such as alpine angelica, grow in abundance in meadows above Lauterbrunnen Valley, for example. Named after the Illyrian king Gentius, 40 species of this early spring flower grow in the Alps at altitudes of 1 500-2 400 metres (4 921-7 874 ft). D. H. Lawrence described the Swiss gentian flowers as "darkening the daylight hours with the smoky blueness of Pluto's gloom". Gentian plants tend to 'appear' repeatedly, with spring flowering occurring at progressively later times as they move from lower meadows to higher meadows where the snow melts much later than in the valleys. On the highest rocky slopes, spring flowers bloom in summer.

**Question 0**

What grows in abundance in the meadows above Lauterbrunnen Valley, for example?

**Question 1**

What are the Gentians named after?

**Question 2**

How many species of early spring-flowering flowers grow in the Alps?

**Text number 46**

In these higher places, plants tend to form separate cushions. Several species of flowering plants have been found in the Alps at altitudes above 4 000 m, such as Ranunculus glacialis, Androsace alpina and Saxifraga biflora. Eritrichium nanum, commonly known as the King of the Alps, is the most elusive species of alpine flower, growing on rocky ridges at altitudes of 2 600-3 750 m (8 530-12 303 ft). Perhaps the best known of the alpine plants is edelweiss, which grows in rocky areas and can be found as low as 1 400 m and as high as 3 400 m. Plants growing at higher altitudes have adapted to the conditions by specialisation, such as growing on rocky slopes sheltered from the wind.

**Question 0**

What do plants usually form at higher altitudes?

**Question 1**

Ranunculus glacialis has been found from how far away in the Alps?

**Question 2**

By what name is Eritrichium nanum commonly known?

**Question 3**

What is the most famous alpine plant?

**Text number 47**

Extreme and stressful climatic conditions allow the growth of plant species with secondary metabolites important for medicinal purposes. Origanum vulgare, Prunella vulgaris, Solanum nigrum and Urtica dioica are some of the most useful medicinal species in the Alps.

**Question 0**

What enables the growth of plant species with secondary metabolites that are important for medicinal purposes?

**Question 1**

What are the beneficial properties of Origanum Vulgare?

**Question 2**

Where can I find Urtica dioica?

**Text number 48**

Human intervention has almost wiped out trees in many areas and, with the exception of the beech forests of the Austrian Alps, deciduous forests are rare after the massive deforestation of the 1600s and 1800s. The vegetation has changed since the second half of the 20th century, with high alpine meadows no longer being harvested for hay or grazed, which may eventually lead to forest regeneration. In some areas, modern mechanical ski slope construction has destroyed the underlying tundra, from which the vegetation cannot recover outside the ski season, while in areas where ski slopes are still constructed in a natural way, fragile ground layers are preserved.

**Question 0**

What has almost wiped out trees in many areas?

**Question 1**

What has rarely been found since the extreme deforestation of the 1600s and 1900s?

**Question 2**

What has changed since the second half of the 20th century?

**Question 3**

What has been destroyed by the mechanical construction of ski slopes?

**Text number 49**

The Alps are home to 30 000 species of animals, from the smallest snow leopards to brown bears, many of which are so well adapted to harsh cold conditions and high altitudes that some survive only in certain microclimates, either directly above or below the snow line.

**Question 0**

How many animal species live in the Alps?

**Question 1**

What have wild animals done to survive the harsh conditions in the Alps?

**Question 2**

Some wild species can only survive in a certain environment?

**Text number 50**

The largest mammal living at the highest altitudes is the alpine goat, which has been seen at altitudes of up to 3 000 metres. The goat lives in caves and descends to feed on succulent alpine grasses. Smaller than deer, chamois, classified as antelopes, are found throughout the Alps, living above the tree line and are common throughout the Alpine region. Brown bears still live in the eastern part of the Alps. In Switzerland, the canton of Bern is named after bears, but the last bear was recorded as having died above Kleine Scheidegg in 1792 by three hunters from Grindelwald.

**Question 0**

What is the largest mammal that lives at the highest altitudes?

**Question 1**

How high have Alpine hares been seen?

**Question 2**

Where do deer live?

**Question 3**

Which animals living in the Alps are classified as antelopes?

**Question 4**

What year was the last brown bear killed?

**Text number 51**

Many rodents, such as moles, live underground. Groundhogs live almost exclusively above the tree line at altitudes of up to 2 700 metres. They hibernate in large groups during the warm winter and are found in all areas of the Alps, in large colonies that they build under alpine pastures. Golden eagles and bearded vultures are the largest birds found in the Alps, nesting high on rocky cliffs and are found at altitudes of up to 2 400 m. The most common bird is the alpine vulture, which can be seen in climbers' huts or on the Jungfraujoch, a high altitude tourist attraction.

**Question 0**

Where do many rodents live?

**Question 1**

Where do the marmots live?

**Question 2**

Where do marmots build their nests?

**Question 3**

What is the most common bird found in the Alps?

**Text number 52**

Reptiles such as puffins and vipers live right up to the snow line; because they cannot tolerate cold temperatures, they hibernate underground and absorb heat at the edges of cliffs. High altitude alpine salamanders have adapted to living above the snow line by giving birth to fully developed chicks instead of laying eggs. Trout are found in streams up to the snow line. Molluscs, such as the wood duck, live above the snow line. Snails, once harvested for food, are now protected.

**Question 0**

Why do reptiles only live until the snowline?

**Question 1**

What do reptiles do because they can't stand cold temperatures?

**Question 2**

How have Alpine salamanders adapted to life above the snow line?

**Question 3**

What can be in streams up to the snowline?

**Text number 53**

The Alps are home to several species of butterflies, some of which are thought to have evolved in the same habitat up to 120 million years ago, long before the Alps were formed. Blue butterflies can often be seen drinking from melting snow; some species of blue butterflies fly up to 1800 metres. The butterflies tend to be large, such as the swallowtail butterflies of the genus Parnassius, whose habitat extends to 1 800 metres. Twelve species of beetles have habitats right up to the snow line, the most beautiful being Rosalia alpina, which was once collected for its colours but is now protected. Spiders, such as the great wolf spider, live above the snow line and can be seen at altitudes of up to 400 metres. Scorpions are found in the Italian Alps.

**Question 0**

How long are some butterfly species thought to have evolved from the same habitat?

**Question 1**

What can you generally see from melting snow?

**Question 2**

The habitat of swallowtail butterflies of the genus Parnassius varies even how much?

**Question 3**

What species of beetles were collected for their colours before they were protected?

**Text number 54**

Some species of butterflies and insects show that they have been indigenous to the area since as long ago as the Alpine orogeny. In the 1970s, dinosaur tracks were discovered at Emosson in Valais, Switzerland, which probably date back to the Triassic period.

**Question 0**

Some species of butterflies and insects show signs of what?

**Question 1**

How long ago did the evidence suggest that moths and insects must have been indigenous?

**Question 2**

Where is Emosson located?

**Question 3**

When were dinosaur tracks found in Emosson?

**Text number 55**

Around 10 000 years ago, as the ice melted after the last ice age, Late Palaeolithic communities emerged on the shores and caves of the lake. Evidence of human habitation has been found in the Vercors cave deposit near Grenoble, and in Austria the Mondsee culture area shows evidence of houses built on piles to keep them dry. Vertical stones have been found in the French and Italian Alps. The rock carvings of Valcamonica are more than 5,000 years old, with over 200,000 drawings and engravings found at the site.

**Question 0**

When were Late Palaeolithic communities established on the shores of the lake?

**Question 1**

What has been discovered in the caves near Vercors?

**Question 2**

Why were houses built on piles?

**Question 3**

What has been found in the French and Italian Alps?

**Question 4**

How old are the rock carvings of Valcamonica?

**Text number 56**

In 1991, hikers discovered a Neolithic body mummy, known as Ötzi the Iceman, in the Similaun Glacier. His clothing and equipment suggest that he lived in an alpine farming community, while his place and manner of death - an arrowhead was found on his shoulder - suggest that he was travelling from one place to another. Analysis of Ötzi's mitochondrial DNA has shown that he belongs to subclass K1, which cannot be classified in any of the three current branches of that subclass. The new subclass has been provisionally named K1ö after Ötz.

**Question 0**

Who was Otzi the Iceman?

**Question 1**

When was Otzi the Iceman discovered?

**Question 2**

Where was Otzi the Iceman found?

**Text number 57**

The Celtic tribes settled in Switzerland between 1000 and 1500 BC. The Raetians lived in the eastern regions, while the Helvetians lived in the west, and the Allobrogians settled in the Rhone valley and Savoy. Celtic tribes mined salt, among other things, in Salzburg, Austria, where a mine manager discovered evidence of the Hallstatt culture in the 19th century. In the sixth century BC. The La Tène culture had established itself in the region and became known for its highly decorated weapons and jewellery. The Celts were the most widespread mountain tribe - they had strong, tall and fair-skinned warriors who knew how to use iron weapons, which gave them an advantage in warfare.

**Question 0**

When did the Celtic tribes settle in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

In which region did the Rhaetians live?

**Question 2**

In which region did the Helvetians live?

**Question 3**

What did the Celtic tribes mine?

**Question 4**

What were the most widespread mountain tribes?

**Text number 58**

During the Second Red War in 218 BC, the Carthaginian general Hannibal probably crossed the Alps with an army of 38 000 infantry, 8 000 cavalry and 37 war horses. This was one of the most famous military feats of ancient warfare, although there is no evidence of the actual crossing or the place of crossing. However, the Romans had built roads along the mountain passes, which were still used in the Middle Ages to cross the mountains, and Roman road signs can still be found along the passes.

**Question 0**

When was the second Red War fought?

**Question 1**

Who was the Carthaginian general?

**Question 2**

What did the Romans build along the mountain road?

**Question 3**

What else can you find on a mountain pass?

**Text number 59**

The expansion of Rome led to the defeat of Allobrog in 121 BC and the Gallic Wars in 58 BC. Julius Caesar defeated the Helvetians. The Raetians continued to resist, but were eventually conquered when the Romans turned north to the Danube Valley in Austria and defeated the brigands. The Romans built settlements in the Alps; cities such as Aosta (named after Augustus) in Italy, Martigny and Lausanne in Switzerland and Partenkirchen in Bavaria have remains of Roman baths, villas, arenas and temples. Much of the Alpine region was gradually colonised by Germanic tribes (Lombards, Alemanni, Bavarians and Franks) from the 6th to the 13th century, intermingling with local Celtic tribes.

**Question 0**

What caused Allobrog's defeat?

**Question 1**

When was Allobrog defeated?

**Question 2**

When did Julius Caesar defeat the Helvetians?

**Question 3**

Which tribes inhabited a large part of the Alpine region?

**Text number 60**

Christianity was introduced by the Romans, and monasteries and churches were established in the highlands. The Frankish expansion of the Carolingian Empire and the expansion of Bavaria in the eastern Alps brought with it feudalism and the building of castles to support a growing number of duchies and kingdoms. The Castello del Buonconsiglio in Trento, Italy, still has intricate frescoes in its tower hall, which are excellent examples of Gothic art. Château de Chillon in Switzerland is a surviving example of medieval architecture.

**Question 0**

Who founded Christianity in the region?

**Question 1**

What did the Franks and the expansion of Bavaria bring?

**Question 2**

In which area are there still artistic frescoes?

**Question 3**

What has survived as an example of medieval architecture?

**Text number 61**

Much of the Middle Ages was a time of power struggles between rival dynasties such as the House of Savoy, the Visconti in northern Italy and the Habsburgs of Austria and Slovenia. To protect themselves from Habsburg invasions, the four cantons in the centre of Switzerland drew up a charter in 1291, considered a declaration of independence from neighbouring states. After several battles in the 1200s, 1300s, 1300s and 1400s, more cantons joined the alliance, and by the 1500s Switzerland had established itself as a separate state.

**Question 0**

What happened in much of the Middle Ages?

**Question 1**

Where did the Visconis come from?

**Question 2**

Which dynasty originated in Austria and Slovenia?

**Question 3**

Which country was an established separate state in the 16th century?

**Text number 62**

During the Napoleonic Wars in the late 1700s and early 1800s, Napoleon annexed territories previously ruled by the Habsburgs and Savoyards. In 1798 he founded the Republic of Hell in Switzerland; two years later he led an army across the St Bernard Pass and conquered almost all the Alpine regions.

**Question 0**

What wars were fought in the late 17th and early 19th centuries?

**Question 1**

Who annexed the territories previously ruled by the Habsburgs and the Savoyards?

**Question 2**

When was the Republic of Hell founded?

**Question 3**

Where was the Republic of Hell founded?

**Text number 63**

After the fall of Napoleon, many Alpine countries developed strong defensive measures to prevent a new invasion. Thus, in Savoy, a series of fortifications were built in the Maurienne valley to protect the main Alpine passes, such as the Col du Mont-Cenis, which Charlemagne and his father even crossed to defeat the Lombards. Later, it became very popular indeed after the construction of a paved road commissioned by Napoleon Bonaparte. The Barrière de l'Esseillon is a series of fortifications of heavy batteries built on a steep slope with a perfect view of the valley, the gorge on one side and the steep mountains on the other.

**Question 0**

When did many Alpine countries develop strong protection to prevent a new invasion?

**Question 1**

Who built several forts in the Maurienne Valley?

**Question 2**

Why were a series of forts built in the Maurienne Valley?

**Question 3**

Who ordered the construction of the paved road?

**Text number 64**

In the 19th century, the monasteries built in the Middle Ages on the high Alpine mountains as shelters and pilgrimage sites for tourists became tourist attractions. The Benedictines had built monasteries in Lucerne and Oberammergau in Switzerland, the Sisterites in Tyrol and Lake Constance and the Augustinians in the Savoy and one in the centre of Interlaken in Switzerland. The hospice of St Bernard the Great, built in the 900s or 900s at the top of the Great Bernard Pass, was from the beginning a refuge for tourists and a place of pilgrimage. In the 19th century it became a tourist destination, visited by the writer Charles Dickens and the mountaineer Edward Whymper, among others.

**Question 0**

Where did tourist destinations come from in the 19th century?

**Question 1**

Who built the monasteries in Lucerne, Switzerland and Oberammergau?

**Question 2**

Who had monasteries in Savo and one in the centre of Interlaken?

**Question 3**

When was Great St. Bernard Hospice built?

**Text number 65**

In the Drachloch (Dragon's Hole) cave above the village of Vattis in the canton of St Gallen, radiocarbon-dated charcoal dating back some 50 000 years was found, proving that the high peaks were visited by prehistoric people. The seven bear skulls in the cave may have been buried by the same prehistoric people. However, apart from a few notable examples, the peaks were mostly ignored and long left to the exclusive attention of the inhabitants of the adjacent valleys. Mountain peaks were considered to be terrifying, the abodes of dragons and demons, to the extent that people were blindfolded when crossing the Alpine passes. The glaciers remained a mystery, and many still believed that the highest regions were inhabited by dragons.

**Question 0**

How old was the coal placed in Drachloch Cave?

**Question 1**

What does the discovery of charcoal in Dragon's Hole prove?

**Question 2**

What might the same prehistoric people have buried?

**Question 3**

People were blindfolded to cross what?

**Text number 66**

Charles VII of France ordered his chamberlains to climb Mont Aiguille in 1356. The knight reached the summit of Rocciamelone, where he left a bronze triptych of three crosses, which he performed using a ladder to cross the ice. In 1949, Antoine1492 de Ville climbed Mont Aiguille, but failed to reach the summit, describing the experience as 'terrifying and horrifying'. Leonardo da Vinci was fascinated by the variations in light at higher altitudes and climbed a mountain - scholars are unsure which mountain; some believe it may have been Monte Rosa. From his description of the 'blue of the sky, like the blue of gentian', it is thought that he had reached a considerable height. Four men from Chamonix had almost reached the summit of Mont Blanc in the 1700s, but were afflicted with altitude sickness and snow blindness.

**Question 0**

Where was Charles VII from?

**Question 1**

What did Charles VII's chamberlain tell him to do?

**Question 2**

What did the knight leave at the top of Rocciamelone?

**Question 3**

When did Antioine de Ville climb Mont Aiguille?

**Question 4**

When did the four men from Chamonix almost reach the summit of Mont Blanc?

**Text number 67**

Conrad Gessner was the first naturalist to climb the mountains in the 1500s to study them and wrote that he found "the theatre of the Lord" in the mountains. As the 19th century approached, more naturalists began to come to study, explore and conquer the high mountains. They were followed by artists, writers and painters. Two of the first men to explore areas of ice and snow were Horace-Bénédict de Saussure (1740-1799) in the Pennine Alps and the Benedictine monk Placidus a Spescha of Disentis (1752-1833). Born in Geneva, Saussure fell in love with the mountains at an early age; he left his legal career to become a natural scientist and spent many years wandering in the Bernese Oberland, Savoy, Piedmont and Valais, studying glaciers and geology, becoming an early proponent of the theory of rock uplift. In 1787, Saussure took part in the third ascent of Mont Blanc - today all the peaks have been climbed.

**Question 0**

Who was the first naturalist to climb a mountain?

**Question 1**

Where was Horace-Benedict de Saussure born?

**Question 2**

Who took part in the third ascent of Mont Blanc?

**Text number 68**

Jean-Jacques Rousseau was the first of many to present the Alps as a charming and beautiful place, rejecting the notion that the mountains were a hellish wilderness inhabited by demons. Rousseau's view of the purity of the Alps was later emphasised by the publication of Albrecht von Haller's poem Die Alpen, which described the mountains as a mythically pure region. In the late 1700s, the first wave of Romantics, including Goethe and Turner, came to admire the landscape; Wordsworth visited the region in 1790 and wrote of his experiences in The Prelude. Schiller later wrote the play William Tell, in which he romanticised Swiss independence. After the end of the Napoleonic Wars, the Alps began to see an influx of poets, artists and musicians as visitors came to experience the sublime effects of monumental nature.

**Question 0**

Who was the first of many to introduce the Alps as a charming and beautiful place?

**Question 1**

Who wrote the poem Die Alpen?

**Question 2**

When did poets, artists and musicians arrive in the Alps?

**Question 3**

What did visitors come to experience in the Alps?

**Text number 69**

In 1816, Byron, Percy Bysshe Shelley and his wife Mary Shelley visited Geneva, and all three drew inspiration for their writings from the landscape. During these visits, Shelley wrote the poem 'Mont Blanc', Byron wrote 'The Prisoner of Chillon' and the dramatic poem 'Manfred', and Mary Shelley, who found the scenery overwhelming, got the idea for her novel 'Frankenstein' in her villa on the shores of Lake Geneva in the middle of a thunderstorm. When Coleridge travelled to Chamonix, he declared in the guest book of the Hotel de Londres near Montenvers, under the name 'Atheos', in defiance of Shelley, who had signed himself: 'Who could be an atheist in this valley of wonders?' By the middle of the 19th century, scientists began to arrive in droves to study the geology and ecology of the area.

**Question 0**

Which area's landscapes inspired Percy and Mary Shelley?

**Question 1**

Which poem did Shelley write during his visits to Geneva?

**Question 2**

When did scientists start arriving in large numbers to study the geology and ecology of the Alpine region?

**Text number 70**

Austrian-born Adolf Hitler had a lifelong romantic interest in the Alps, and in the 1930s he established a home on the Obersalzberg outside Berchtesgaden. He first visited the area in , and in 1923 he had strong ties there for the rest of his life. At the end of the Second World War, the US Army occupied Obersalzberg to prevent Hitler from withdrawing with the Wehrmacht into the mountains.

**Question 0**

Where was Adolf Hitler born?

**Question 1**

What was Adolf Hitler's lifelong romantic crush?

**Question 2**

Where did Adolf Hitler set up home in the 1930s?

**Question 3**

When did Adolf Hitler first visit the Alps?

**Text number 71**

By 1940, the Third Reich had occupied many Alpine countries. Austria had undergone a political coup d'état, making it part of the Third Reich; France had been conquered and Italy was under a fascist regime. Switzerland was the only country that fortunately escaped invasion. The Swiss Confederation mobilised its troops - the country adheres to the doctrine of 'armed neutrality', which requires all men to have military training - and General Eisenhower estimated their number at around 850 000 men. The Swiss commanders, having walled off the infrastructure leading to the country and threatened to destroy bridges, railway tunnels and passes in the event of a Nazi attack, withdrew to the heart of the mountain peaks, where conditions were more severe and a military invasion would mean difficult and prolonged fighting.

**Question 0**

Who occupied many Alpine countries by 1940?

**Question 1**

In which country was there a political coup that made it part of the Third Reich?

**Question 2**

Which was the only country to escape the invasion of the Third Reich?

**Question 3**

Who wired the infrastructure leading to Switzerland?

**Text number 72**

Ski troops were trained for the war, and battles were fought in mountainous areas, such as the Battle of Riva Ridge in Italy, where the American 10th Mountain Division met stiff resistance in February 1945. At the end of the war, a considerable amount of Nazi plunder was found stored in Austria, where Hitler had hoped to retreat as the war drew to a close. The salt mines surrounding the Altaussee area, where American troops found 75 kilos of gold coins stored in one mine, were used to store looted art, jewels and currency; vast quantities of looted art were found and returned to their owners.

**Question 0**

Who was trained for war?

**Question 1**

Where was the battle of Riva Ridge fought?

**Question 2**

Where was the considerable amount of Nazi loot found at the end of the war?

**Question 3**

Where did American troops find 75 kilos of gold coins?

**Text number 73**

The region has a population of 14 million and is divided into eight countries. On the mountain fringes, plains and lowlands, the economy is made up of industry and service sector jobs, while in the higher areas and in the mountains, agriculture remains an essential part of the economy. Agriculture and forestry are still the mainstays of Alpine culture, and are the livelihoods that generate exports to the cities and sustain the mountain ecology.

**Question 0**

What is the population of the Alpine region?

**Question 1**

What does the mountainside economy consist of?

**Question 2**

Agriculture and forestry are still the pillars of what?

**Text number 74**

Much of Alpine culture has survived unchanged from the Middle Ages, when survival skills became paramount in the mountain valleys and the highest villages, leading to strong traditions in carpentry, woodcarving, baking, pastry-making and cheese-making.

**Question 0**

How much has not changed since the Middle Ages?

**Question 1**

When were survival skills most important in mountain valleys?

**Question 2**

What is one of the strongest traditions of Alpine culture?

**Text number 75**

Farming had been a traditional livelihood for centuries, although its importance declined in the 20th century with the advent of tourism. Pasture and grazing land is limited due to the steep and rocky topography of the Alps. In mid-June, the cows are moved to the highest pastures near the snow line, where they are watched over by herders who live at high altitude and often live in stone huts or wooden huts during the summer. Villagers celebrate the day the cows are taken out to pasture and the day they return in mid-September. The Alpanschluss or Désalpes ('Descent from the Alps') is celebrated by decorating the cows with wreaths and huge cowbells, and farmers dress in traditional costumes.

**Question 0**

What has been the traditional occupation for centuries?

**Question 1**

What reduced the dominance of agriculture in the 20th century?

**Question 2**

Why is there limited grazing land?

**Question 3**

When are cows moved to the highest pastures near the snow line?

**Text number 76**

Cheese-making is an old tradition in most Alpine countries. A wheel of Emmental cheese in Switzerland can weigh up to 45 kilos, and a wheel of Beaufort cheese from Savoie can weigh up to 70 kilos. Traditionally, cow owners receive a share from the cheese makers corresponding to the proportion of milk produced by their cows during the summer months in the high Alps. Haymaking is an important agricultural activity in mountain villages, which has become somewhat mechanised in recent years, although the slopes are so steep that scythe mowers are usually needed to cut the grass. Hay is usually brought in twice a year, often on public holidays. Alpine festivals vary from country to country and often include the presentation of local costumes such as dirndl and trachten, the playing of alpine horns, wrestling matches, some pagan traditions such as Walpurgis Night, and in many areas a carnival before Lent.

**Question 0**

What is an age-old tradition in most Alpine countries?

**Question 1**

How much can an Emmental cheese wheel weigh?

**Question 2**

What are the important agricultural activities in mountain villages?

**Question 3**

How many times a year is hay usually imported?

**Question 4**

When is Carnival celebrated?

**Text number 77**

In the high villages, people live in medieval-style houses that can withstand the cold winters. The kitchen is separated from the living area (called the stube, or heated area by the stove), and the bedrooms on the second floor benefit from rising heat. A typical Swiss chalet was born in the Bernese Oberland. Chalets often face south or downhill, are built of solid wood and have steep pitched roofs to allow accumulated snow to slide off easily. Stairs leading to the upper floors are sometimes built outside, and balconies are sometimes enclosed.

**Question 0**

How do people in high villages build their homes?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the area of the home heated by the stove?

**Question 2**

Where does the typical Swiss chalet come from?

**Question 3**

In which direction are chalets often oriented?

**Question 4**

What are chalets built from?

**Text number 78**

The food is moved from the kitchen to the living room, where there is a dining table. Some meals are shared, such as a fondue, where a pot is placed in the middle of the table for everyone to dip their food into. Other meals are still served in the traditional way on carved wooden plates. Furniture is traditionally carved with great skill, and in many Alpine countries carpentry skills are passed down from generation to generation.

**Question 0**

Where does food go from the kitchen?

**Question 1**

Where is the dining table placed?

**Question 2**

On what are meals traditionally served?

**Question 3**

How is furniture traditionally carved?

**Text number 79**

Roofs are traditionally built of alpine stone, such as slate, gneiss or schist. Such huts are typically found in the higher parts of valleys, such as the Maurienne valley in the Savoij, where snowfall in the cold months is important. The roof slope can be up to 40 %, allowing snow to remain on top and thus act as a cold barrier. In low-lying areas where forests are widespread, wooden roof tiles are traditionally used. They are usually made of spruce and are called 'tavaillons'. Alpine regions are multicultural and linguistically diverse. Dialects are common and vary from valley to valley and region to region. In the Slavic Alps alone, dialects have been identified. 19 Some of the French dialects spoken in the French, Swiss and Italian Alps in the Aosta Valley are of Arpitan origin, while the old Provençal dialect is spoken in the southern part of the western region; German dialects are derived from Germanic tribal languages. Romani, spoken by 2% of the population in south-eastern Switzerland, is an ancient Rae-Roman language, derived from Latin, remnants of ancient Celtic languages and perhaps Etruscan.

**Question 0**

What are roofs traditionally built from?

**Question 1**

Where to find chalets typically used for roofing??

**Question 2**

How much can the roof pitch be higher?

**Question 3**

How many dialects have been identified in the Slavic Alps?

**Question 4**

What language is spoken by two per cent of the population of south-eastern Switzerland?

**Text number 80**

Today, the Alps are one of the world's most popular tourist destinations, with many resorts such as Oberstdorf in Bavaria, Saalbach in Austria, Davos in Switzerland, Chamonix in France and Cortina d'Ampezzo in Italy attracting over a million visitors every year. With more than 120 million visitors a year, tourism is an integral part of the Alpine economy, much of which comes from winter sports, although summer visitors are an important part of the tourism industry.

**Question 0**

What is one of the world's most popular tourist destinations?

**Question 1**

Where is Saalbach located?

**Question 2**

How many people visit the Alps each year?

**Question 3**

What is an essential part of the Alpine economy?

**Text number 81**

The tourist industry began in the early 19th century, when foreigners visited the Alps, travelling to the foothills to enjoy the scenery and staying in spas. Large hotels were built in the Belle Époque era. In the early 20th century, the cogwheelers brought tourists higher and higher, and the Jungfraubahn terminated at the Jungfraujoch, well above the eternal snow line, after passing through a tunnel in the Eiger. During this period, winter sports gradually became popular: in 1882 the first figure skating championships were held in St Moritz, and skiing became a popular sport for English tourists in the early 20th century, when the first ski lift was installed above Grindelwald in 1908.

**Question 0**

When did the tourism industry start?

**Question 1**

When were large hotels built in the Alps?

**Question 2**

When were cogwheels built in the Alps?

**Question 3**

When were the first figure skating championships held?

**Question 4**

Where were the first figure skating championships held?

**Text number 82**

In the first half of the 20th century, the Winter Olympics were held three times in Alpine regions: the 1924 Winter Olympics in Chamonix, France, the 1928 Winter Olympics in St. Moritz, Switzerland, and the 1936 Winter Olympics in Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany. The Winter Games were cancelled during the Second World War, but since then they have been held in St Moritz (1948), Cortina d'Ampezzo (1956), Innsbruck, Austria (1964 and 1976), Grenoble, France (1968), Albertville, France (1992) and Turin (2006). 1930The Lauberhorn Rennen (Lauberhorn Race) was first held on the Lauberhorn above Wengen; the equally demanding Hahnenkamm was first held in the same year in Kitzbühl, Austria. Both races are still held every January on consecutive weekends. The Lauberhorn is a 4.5-kilometre, more strenuous downhill race, and is dangerous for competitors who reach speeds of 130 km/h within seconds of leaving the starting gate.

**Question 0**

Where was the Winter Olympics held in 1924?

**Question 1**

Where was the Winter Olympics held in 1928?

**Question 2**

Where was the Winter Olympics held in 1936?

**Question 3**

When was the Lauberhorn Race first held on the Lauberhorn above Wengen?

**Question 4**

When was the Winter Olympics held in Albertville, France?

**Text number 83**

In the post-World War I period, ski lifts were built in Swiss and Austrian towns to accommodate winter visitors, but summer tourism was still important. By the mid-20th century, the popularity of skiing increased considerably as skiing became more accessible, and in the 1970s, several new villages were built in France, such as Les Menuires, which were almost exclusively dedicated to skiing. Until then, Austria and Switzerland had been the traditional and most popular winter sports destinations, but in the late 20th century and early 2000s France, Italy and the Tyrol began to attract more winter visitors. From 1980 to the present day, ski lifts have been modernised and snow machines have been installed in many resorts, raising concerns about the disappearance of traditional alpine culture and questions about sustainability as the winter ski industry continues to develop rapidly and the number of summer tourists declines.

**Question 0**

When were ski lifts built in Swiss and Austrian towns?

**Question 1**

When were several new villages built in France almost exclusively for skiing?

**Question 2**

Where is Les Menuires located?

**Text number 84**

The region has 4 200 km of roads, used by 6 million vehicles. Train services are well established in the Alps, with 120 km of track for every 1 000 km2 in a country like Switzerland. Most of Europe's highest railways are located there. In addition, a 57 km Alpine tunnel is planned, linking the Lötschberg and Gotthard tunnels built in the 19th century.

**Question 0**

How many roads are there in the Alpine region?

**Question 1**

How many vehicles use your roads?

**Question 2**

Where are most of Europe's highest railways located?

**Question 3**

How long is the tunnel between Lotschberg and Gotthard supposed to be?

**Text number 85**

Some high mountain villages, such as Avoriaz (France), Wengen and Zermatt (Switzerland), are accessible only by cable car or cogwheel and are car-free. Other Alpine villages are considering establishing car-free areas or limiting the number of cars, due to the resilience of the fragile Alpine landscape.

**Question 0**

Where is the village of Avoriaz located?

**Question 1**

Where are the villages of Wengen and Zermatt?

**Question 2**

Why are villages considering car-free zones?

**Text number 86**

The low-lying areas of the Alps and larger towns have good motorways and main roads, but the higher passes and byways, some of the highest in Europe, can be dangerous even in summer because of steep slopes. Many passes are closed in winter. There are several airports around (and some within) the Alps, and long-distance train connections from all neighbouring countries provide easy access for large numbers of travellers from abroad.

**Question 0**

When are many Alpine passes closed?

**Question 1**

What serves the lower Alpine regions and larger cities well?

**Question 2**

What can be treacherous even in summer because of the steep slopes?

**Document number 81**

**Text number 0**

A gene is a locus (or region) of DNA that encodes a functional RNA or protein product, and is the molecular unit of heredity.Glossary The transmission of genes to an organism's offspring is the basis of the inheritance of phenotypic traits. Most biological traits are influenced by polygenes (many different genes) and gene-environment interactions. Some genetic traits are immediately visible, such as eye colour or number of limbs, and some are not, such as blood type, risk of certain diseases or the thousands of basic biochemical processes that make up life.

**Question 0**

What is a gene?

**Question 1**

What is the basis for the inheritance of phenotypic traits?

**Question 2**

What is the influence of most biological traits?

**Question 3**

What is one immediately visible genetic trait?

**Question 4**

What is one invisible genetic trait?

**Text number 1**

Genes can get mutations in their sequence, leading to different variants, called alleles, in a population. These alleles encode slightly different versions of a protein, which give rise to different phenotypic traits. The term "having a gene" (e.g. "good genes", "hair colour gene") usually refers to having a different allele of a gene. Genes evolve by natural selection, i.e. the survival of the strongest allele.

**Question 0**

What do mutations in the gene sequence lead to?

**Question 1**

What do alleles do?

**Question 2**

What do alleles cause?

**Question 3**

What is typically meant by "gene" or "good gene"?

**Question 4**

What makes genes evolve?

**Text number 2**

The concept of a gene is constantly being refined as new phenomena are discovered. For example, the regulatory regions of a gene may be distant from its coding regions, and the coding regions may be divided into several exons. Some viruses store their genome on RNA instead of DNA, and some gene products are functional non-coding RNAs. Thus, the broad, modern definition of a gene is any discrete locus of an inherited genome sequence that affects the characteristics of an organism by being expressed as a functional product or through regulation of gene expression.

**Question 0**

Where can gene regulatory regions be far from?

**Question 1**

How can the coding regions be divided?

**Question 2**

Where do some viruses store their genome instead of DNA?

**Question 3**

What are some gene products?

**Question 4**

What is the broad, modern definition of a gene?

**Text number 3**

Gregor Mendel (1822-1884) first proposed that there are separate heritable units. Between 1857 and 1864, he studied inheritance patterns in 8000 common edible pea plants and followed the transmission of distinct traits from parents to offspring. He described these mathematically as a combination of 2n, where n is the number of different traits in the original peas. Although he did not use the term gene, he explained his results as discrete heritable units that give rise to observable physical traits. This description anticipated the difference between genotype (the genetic material of an organism) and phenotype (the visible characteristics of an organism). Mendel was also the first to demonstrate independent speciation, the distinction between dominant and recessive traits, the distinction between heterozygote and homozygote, and the phenomenon of discontinuous inheritance.

**Question 0**

Who first proposed the existence of separate heritable units?

**Question 1**

If a distinct property of edible peas is described mathematically as a 2n combination, what does n mean?

**Question 2**

What is one thing that Gregor Mendel was the first to point out?

**Question 3**

What is the second thing that Gregor Mendel first pointed out?

**Question 4**

How did Gregor Mendel explain his results?

**Text number 4**

Before Mendel's work, the prevailing theory of heredity was the theory of mixed inheritance, according to which both parents participated in the fertilisation process and the parents' traits were mixed and blended when the offspring were born. Charles Darwin developed what he called the pangenesis theory of heredity, which used the term gemmule to describe hypothetical particles that would mix during reproduction. Although Mendel's work went largely unacknowledged after it was first published in 1866, it was 'rediscovered' in 1900 by three European scientists, Hugo de Vries, Carl Correns and Erich von Tschermak, who claimed to have reached similar conclusions in their own research.

**Question 0**

What was the prevailing theory of heredity before Mendel's work?

**Question 1**

Who developed the theory of inheritance known as pangenesis?

**Question 2**

What does the term gemmule describe?

**Question 3**

In what year was Mendel's work first published?

**Question 4**

Which three scientists claimed to have reached conclusions similar to Mendel's?

**Text number 5**

The word gene is derived (via pangeen) from the ancient Greek word γένος (génos), meaning "race, offspring". The gene was coined in 1909 by the Danish botanist Wilhelm Johannsen to describe the basic physical and functional unit of heredity, while the related word genetics was first used by William Bateson in 1905.

**Question 0**

From which ancient Greek word does the word "gene" come?

**Question 1**

What does the ancient Greek word "génos" mean?

**Question 2**

Which Danish botanist invented the word "gene"?

**Question 3**

What was the word "gene" used for in 1909?

**Question 4**

Who first used the word "genetics" in 1905?

**Text number 6**

Progress in understanding genes and genomes was made throughout the 20th century. Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) was shown to be the molecular repository of genetic information in experiments in the 1940s and 1950s. Rosalind Franklin studied the structure of DNA using X-ray crystallography, which led to the publication by James D. Watson and Francis Crick of a model of a double-stranded DNA molecule with paired nucleotide bases that demonstrated a convincing hypothesis about the mechanism of genetic replication. Together, these studies established the central dogma of molecular biology that proteins are translated from RNA, which is transcribed from DNA. Exceptions to this dogma have since been demonstrated, such as the reverse transcription of retroviruses. Modern research in genetics at the DNA level is called molecular genetics.

**Question 0**

What proved to be the molecular repository of genetic information in experiments carried out in the 1940s and 1950s?

**Question 1**

Who studied the structure of DNA using X-ray crystallography?

**Question 2**

Which two scientists published a model of a double-stranded DNA molecule?

**Question 3**

What is one exception to the central dogma of molecular biology?

**Question 4**

What is modern genetics research at the DNA level?

**Text number 7**

In 1972, Walter Fiers and his team at the University of Ghent were the first to determine the sequence of a gene: the gene for the master protein of the bacteriophage MS2. In 1977, Frederick Sanger developed chain-end DNA sequencing, which improved the efficiency of sequencing and made it a routine laboratory tool. An automated version of Sanger's method was used in the early stages of the human genome project.

**Question 0**

When was the first sequence of the gene determined?

**Question 1**

What was the first sequenced gene?

**Question 2**

Who developed chain-end DNA sequencing in 1977?

**Question 3**

What did the development of a chain-end DNA sequencing method do to the sequencing process?

**Question 4**

Which project used an automated version of the Sanger method in its early stages?

**Text number 8**

Julian Huxley introduced theories developed in the 1930s and 1940s that combined molecular genetics and Darwinian evolution, known as modern evolutionary synthesis. This concept has since been refined by evolutionary biologists, such as George C. Williams' gene-centred view of evolution. He proposed an evolutionary concept of the gene as a unit of natural selection by definition: "that which segregates and recombines with considerable frequency. "24 In this view, the molecular gene is transmitted as a unit, and the evolutionary gene is inherited as a unit. Similar ideas, emphasising the central role of genes in evolution, were popularised by Richard Dawkins.

**Question 0**

When were the theories developed to combine molecular genetics and Darwinian evolution?

**Question 1**

What are the theories that combine molecular genetics and Darwinian evolution called?

**Question 2**

Who proposed the evolutionary concept of the gene as a unit of natural selection?

**Question 3**

What is the definition of the concept of the gene as a unit of natural selection?

**Question 4**

Who popularises ideas that emphasise the central role of genes in evolution?

**Text number 9**

The vast majority of living organisms encode their genes in long strands of DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid). DNA consists of a chain of four different types of nucleotide subunits, each consisting of five carbonic acid sugars (2'-deoxyribose), a phosphate group and one of four bases, adenine, cytosine, guanine and thymine.:2.1

**Question 0**

What do the vast majority of living organisms code their genes into?

**Question 1**

What is DNA made of?

**Question 2**

Which type of sugar forms part of the DNA molecule?

**Question 3**

What four bases are used in nucleotide subunits?

**Question 4**

What else is DNA made up of besides sugar and the four bases?

**Text number 10**

The two DNA strands wrap around each other to form a DNA double helix, with the phosphate sugar backbone wrapping around the outer ring and the bases pointing inwards to form an adenine base pair with thymine and guanine cytosine. The specificity of the base pairs is due to the fact that adenine and thymine form two hydrogen bonds, while cytosine and guanine form three hydrogen bonds. The two strands of the double helix must therefore be complementary, and their base order must correspond to each other, so that the adenines of one strand are paired with the thymines of the other, and so on.:4.1

**Question 0**

What is the backbone of the DNA double helix?

**Question 1**

Which base pair is formed with thymine?

**Question 2**

With which base does guanine pair?

**Question 3**

What causes the specificity of base pairs?

**Question 4**

For the specificity of base pairs, what must be true between two strands in a double helix?

**Text number 11**

Due to the chemical composition of the pentose residues in the bases, the DNA strands are oriented. At one end of the DNA polymer is the exposed hydroxyl group of the deoxyribose; this is called the 3' end of the molecule. At the other end is an exposed phosphate group; this is the 5' end. The two strands of the double helix run in opposite directions. Nucleic acid synthesis, including DNA replication and transcription, occurs in the 5'→3' direction because new nucleotides are added by a dehydration reaction that uses the exposed 3'-hydroxyl as the nucleophile:27.2

**Question 0**

What causes DNA strands to align?

**Question 1**

What is called a 3' end?

**Question 2**

What is called a 5' end?

**Question 3**

What type of synthesis occurs in the 5'→3' direction?

**Question 4**

Why do DNA replication and transcription occur in the 5'→3' direction?

**Text number 12**

The expression of genes encoded in DNA starts with the transcription of the gene into RNA, another type of nucleic acid very similar to DNA, but with monomers containing sugar ribose instead of deoxyribose. RNA also contains the base uracil instead of thymine. RNA molecules are not as stable as DNA and are typically single-stranded. Protein-coding genes consist of a series of three-nucleotide sequences called codons, which act as "words" in a genetic "language". The genetic code defines the correspondence between codons and amino acids during protein translation. The genetic code is virtually the same for all known organisms.:4.1.

**Question 0**

How does the expression of genes encoded in DNA start?

**Question 1**

What is RNA?

**Question 2**

What is the base in RNA instead of thymine?

**Question 3**

What are codons?

**Question 4**

What determines the correspondence between codons and amino acids during protein translation?

**Text number 13**

The total number of genes in an organism or cell is called the genome, which can be stored on one or more chromosomes. A chromosome consists of a single, very long strand of DNA encoded with thousands of genes.:4.2 The region of a chromosome where a particular gene is located is called its locus. Each locus contains one allele of a gene; however, members of a population may have different alleles in the locus, each with a slightly different gene sequence.

**Question 0**

What is the total number of genes in an organism or cell?

**Question 1**

What is a chromosome made of?

**Question 2**

What is encoded on the chromosome?

**Question 3**

What is the region of the chromosome where a particular gene is located?

**Question 4**

What does each log contain?

**Text number 14**

Most eukaryotic genes are stored in large, linear chromosomes. The chromosomes are packed into the nucleus along with storage proteins called histones, which form a unit called a nucleosome. DNA packed and compressed in this way is called chromatin.:4.2 The way in which DNA is stored in histones, as well as chemical changes in the histone itself, control whether a particular region of DNA is available for gene expression. In addition to genes, eukaryotic chromosomes contain sequences involved in ensuring that DNA is replicated without end-region degradation and sorted into daughter cells during cell division: replication bases, telomeres and centromeres. 4.2 Replication bases are the sequence regions where DNA replication is initiated to make two copies of a chromosome. Telomeres are long stretches of repetitive sequence that cover the ends of linear chromosomes and prevent the degradation of coding and regulatory regions during DNA replication. Telomere length decreases each time the genome is replicated and has been implicated in the ageing process. The centromere is required to bind spindle fibres so that sister chromatids can segregate into daughter cells during cell division:18.2

**Question 0**

Where are most of the eukaryotic genes stored?

**Question 1**

What are called chromosomes that are packed into the nucleus with histones?

**Question 2**

What regulates the way DNA is stored in the histone and the chemical changes in the histone itself?

**Question 3**

What are replication platforms?

**Question 4**

What are the long repeating sequences at the ends of linear chromosomes called?

**Text number 15**

Prokaryotes (bacteria and archaea) usually store their genome on one large, round chromosome. Similarly, some eukaryotic organelles contain a remaining round chromosome with a small number of genes:14.4 Prokaryotes sometimes supplement their chromosomes with extra small circles of DNA, called plasmids, which usually encode only a few genes and are transferable between individuals. For example, antibiotic resistance genes are usually encoded in bacterial plasmids and can be transferred between individual cells, even between cells of different species, through horizontal gene transfer.

**Question 0**

What are prokaryotes?

**Question 1**

How do prokaryotes store their genome?

**Question 2**

What types of chromosomes do some eukaryotic organelles contain?

**Question 3**

What are called small circles of DNA that code for only a few genes and are transferable between individuals?

**Question 4**

What enables the transfer of antibiotic resistance genes between individual cells?

**Text number 16**

While prokaryotic chromosomes are relatively gene-rich, eukaryotic chromosomes often contain regions of DNA with no clear function. Simple unicellular eukaryotes have relatively little such DNA, while the genome of complex multicellular organisms such as humans contains the majority of DNA with no identified function. This DNA is often referred to as "junk DNA". However, recent analyses show that although protein-coding DNA accounts for only 2% of the human genome, around 80% of the bases in the genome can be expressed, so the term "junk DNA" may be a misnomer.

**Question 0**

Which organisms have a relatively dense chromosome with a lot of genes?

**Question 1**

In which types of organisms are regions of DNA often found that have no clear function?

**Question 2**

What is called "junk DNA"?

**Question 3**

How much of the human genome consists of DNA that codes for proteins?

**Question 4**

What percentage of the bases in the human genome are expressed by protein-coding DNA?

**Text number 17**

The structure of a gene consists of many parts, of which the actual protein-coding sequence is often only a small part. These include regions of DNA that are not transcribed and untranscribed regions of RNA.

**Question 0**

How much of a gene's structure is often a protein-coding sequence?

**Question 1**

What often plays only a small part in the structure of a gene?

**Question 2**

What is one of the many elements that make up the structure of a gene?

**Question 3**

What is the second part of the gene's structure?

**Question 4**

What elements make up the structure of a gene?

**Text number 18**

First, all genes contain a regulatory sequence next to an open reading frame that is required for their expression. For genes to be expressed, they need a promoter sequence. Transcription factors and RNA polymerase recognise the promoter and bind to it to initiate transcription:7.1 A gene can have more than one promoter, resulting in messenger RNA (mRNA), which differ in how far they extend at the 5' end. Promoter regions have a consensus sequence, but highly transcribed genes have "strong" promoter sequences that bind well to the transcription machinery, while others have "weak" promoters that bind poorly and initiate transcription less frequently.7.2 Eukaryotic promoter regions are much more complex and difficult to identify than prokaryotic promoters.7.3

**Question 0**

What do all genes contain, what is required for their expression?

**Question 1**

How is a promoter sequence identified?

**Question 2**

What happens when genes have more than one promoter?

**Question 3**

What does a "strong" promoter sequence do?

**Question 4**

What does a "weak" promoter sequence do?

**Text number 19**

In addition, genes may have regulatory regions several kilobases above or below the open reading frame. These act by binding to transcription factors, which then cause the DNA to loop so that the regulatory sequence (and the bound transcription factor) comes close to the binding site of the RNA polymerase. For example, enhancers increase transcription by binding an activator protein, which then helps recruit the RNA polymerase to the promoter; conversely, repressors bind repressor proteins and make the DNA less available for RNA polymerase.

**Question 0**

How do regulatory areas work?

**Question 1**

What happens when the regulatory region binds to transcription factors?

**Question 2**

How do boosters increase transcription?

**Question 3**

What happens after the enhancer binds the activator protein?

**Question 4**

What causes DNA to be less available to RNA polymerase?

**Text number 20**

Both ends of the transcribed pre-mRNA have untranslated regions containing the ribosome binding site, terminator, start and end codons. In addition, most eukaryotic open reading frames contain untranslated introns that are deleted prior to exon translation. Sequences at the ends of the introns determine the splice sites that generate the final mature mRNA, which encodes a protein or RNA product.

**Question 0**

What is at both ends of the transcribed pre-mRNA?

**Question 1**

Where are the ribosome binding site, terminator, start and end codons located in the transcribed pre-mRNA?

**Question 2**

What do most eukaryotic open reading frames contain?

**Question 3**

What determines the splice sites to produce the final mature mRNA?

**Question 4**

What codes for a protein or RNA product?

**Text number 21**

Many prokaryotic genes are organised into operons with multiple protein-coding sequences that are transcribed as a single unit. The products of operon genes typically have related functions and participate in the same regulatory network.:7.3

**Question 0**

Where are most prokaryotic genes arranged?

**Question 1**

What are multiple protein coding sequences transcribed into?

**Question 2**

What are the typical functions of operon gene products?

**Question 3**

What kind of network do operon gene products typically participate in?

**Question 4**

What kind of coding sequences do prokaryotic genes typically have?

**Text number 22**

It is difficult to determine exactly which part of the DNA sequence makes up a gene. Gene regulatory regions, such as enhancers, do not necessarily need to be close to the coding sequence in a linear molecule, because the intervening DNA can be rotated so that the gene and its regulatory region are close together. Similarly, the introns of a gene can be much larger than its exons. Regulatory regions can even be located on completely different chromosomes and act in a trans fashion so that regulatory regions on one chromosome can communicate with target genes on another chromosome.

**Question 0**

What is an example of a gene regulatory region that does not need to be close to the coding sequence?

**Question 1**

Why do some gene regulatory regions not need to be close to the coding sequence?

**Question 2**

Which part of a gene can be much larger than its exons?

**Question 3**

How do the regulatory regions on different chromosomes work so that regions on different chromosomes can be linked?

**Question 4**

Where to find regulatory areas?

**Text number 23**

Early work in molecular genetics proposed a model whereby one gene produces one protein. This model has been refined since the discovery of genes that can encode multiple proteins through alternative splicing, and coding sequences that are divided into a short segment of the genome and whose mRNAs are spliced together by trans splicing.

**Question 0**

What model does the early work in molecular genetics suggest?

**Question 1**

What discovery helped to clarify the model that one gene produces one protein?

**Question 2**

How do genes code for multiple proteins?

**Question 3**

How are the alternative splices and coding sequences distributed?

**Question 4**

In order for a gene to encode multiple proteins, how should its mRNAs be arranged?

**Text number 24**

To account for the complexity of these diverse phenomena, a broad functional definition is sometimes used, where a gene is defined as a combination of genome sequences that encode a coherent set of potentially overlapping functional products. In this definition, genes are classified according to their functional products (proteins or RNA) rather than their specific DNA sites, and regulatory elements are classified as gene-related regions.

**Question 0**

What kind of definition can be used to conveniently grasp the complexity of different phenomena?

**Question 1**

What is the broad definition of a gene?

**Question 2**

Where does the typical definition of a gene classify genes?

**Question 3**

How does the broad functional definition of a gene classify genes?

**Question 4**

What does the broad definition of a gene classify as gene-related regions?

**Text number 25**

In all organisms, two steps are needed to read the information encoded in the DNA of a gene and to produce the protein it specifies. First, the gene's DNA is transcribed into messenger RNA (mRNA):6.1 Second, this mRNA is translated into protein:6.2 Genes encoding RNA still have to go through the first step, but are not translated into protein. The process of producing a biologically functional molecule from either RNA or protein is called gene expression, and the resulting molecule is called a gene product.

**Question 0**

How many steps are needed to read the encoded information in the DNA of a gene and produce the specified protein?

**Question 1**

What is the first step in reading the information encoded in the DNA of a gene and producing the protein it specifies?

**Question 2**

What is the second step, where the information encoded in the gene's DNA is read and the protein it specifies is produced?

**Question 3**

Which step do the genes that code for RNA still need to go through?

**Question 4**

What is the process of producing a biologically functional RNA or protein molecule?

**Text number 26**

The nucleotide sequence of a gene's DNA determines the amino acid sequence of the protein by means of the genetic code. Sequences of three nucleotides, called codons, each correspond to a specific amino acid. :6 In addition, a "start codon" and three "end codons" indicate the beginning and end of the protein coding region. There are 64 possible codons (four possible nucleotides at each of the three positions, so there are 43 possible codons) and only 20 common amino acids, so the code is redundant and several codons can specify the same amino acid. The correspondence between codons and amino acids is almost universal in all known living organisms.

**Question 0**

What determines the amino acid sequence of a protein?

**Question 1**

What are called three-nucleotide sequences?

**Question 2**

What does each code correspond to?

**Question 3**

What indicates the start and end of the protein coding region?

**Question 4**

How many possible codons are there?

**Text number 27**

Transcription produces a single-stranded RNA molecule, known as messenger RNA, whose nucleotide sequence is complementary to the DNA from which it was transcribed. 6.1 mRNA acts as a mediator between the DNA gene and its final protein product. The DNA of the gene is used as a template to generate complementary mRNA. MRNA matches the sequence of the coding strand of the gene DNA because it is synthesized as the complement of the template strand. Transcription is carried out by an enzyme called RNA polymerase, which reads the template strand in the 3'-5' direction and synthesises the RNA in the 5'-3' direction. To initiate transcription, the polymerase first recognises the promoter region of the gene and binds to it. Thus, an important mechanism of gene regulation is the blocking or isolation of the promoter region, either by tightly binding repressor molecules that physically block the polymerase, or by rearranging the DNA so that the promoter region is not available:7

**Question 0**

What does the transcription produce?

**Question 1**

How does the nucleotide sequence of mRNA differ from DNA?

**Question 2**

What is used as a template to produce complementary mRNA?

**Question 3**

Why does mRNA correspond to the sequence of the DNA coding strand of a gene?

**Question 4**

What is the enzyme that performs transcription?

**Text number 28**

In prokaryotes, transcription occurs in the cytoplasm; for very long transcripts, translation can start at the 5' end of the RNA while the 3' end is still being transcribed. In eukaryotes, transcription occurs in the nucleus, where the cell's DNA is stored. The RNA molecule produced by the polymerase is called primary transcription and undergoes post-transcriptional modifications before it is taken to the cytoplasm for translation. One of these changes is intron splicing, which is a sequence in the transcribed region that does not code for a protein. Alternative cleavage mechanisms can result in mature transcripts of the same gene containing different sequences and thus encoding different proteins. This is an important form of regulation in eukaryotic cells and also occurs in some prokaryotes.:7.5

**Question 0**

Where does transcription occur in prokaryotes?

**Question 1**

If the transcription is very long, where in the RNA can translation start?

**Question 2**

In which eukaryotes does transcription occur?

**Question 3**

Where does a eukaryote store cellular DNA?

**Question 4**

What is the RNA molecule produced by the polymerase?

**Text number 29**

Translation is the process of using a mature mRNA molecule as a model to synthesize a new protein.:6.2 Translation is carried out by ribosomes, large RNA-protein complexes that are responsible for carrying out chemical reactions to add new amino acids to the growing polypeptide chain by forming peptide bonds. The genetic code is read three nucleotides at a time as units called codons, interacting with specialised RNA molecules called transfer RNA (tRNA). Each tRNA has three unpaired bases, called anticodons, which are complementary to the mRNA codon. The tRNA is also covalently attached to the amino acid defined by the complement codon. When tRNA binds to its complementary codon in the mRNA strand, the ribosome attaches its amino acid cargo to a new polypeptide chain synthesized from the amino terminal to the carboxyl terminal. During and after synthesis, most new proteins must fold into their active three-dimensional structure before they can carry out their cellular functions:3

**Question 0**

What is the process of using a mature mRNA molecule as a model for synthesising a new protein?

**Question 1**

What is the ribosome made of?

**Question 2**

What is the ribosome responsible for?

**Question 3**

How is the genetic code read?

**Question 4**

How many unpaired bases are there in each tRNA?

**Text number 30**

Genes are regulated so that they are expressed only when needed, because expression uses limited resources.7 A cell regulates the expression of its genes depending on its external environment (e.g. available nutrients, temperature and other stress factors), its internal environment (e.g. cell division cycle, metabolism, infection status) and its specific role if it is in a multicellular organism. Gene expression can be regulated at any stage: from transcription initiation to RNA processing and protein post-translational modification. Regulation of genes for lactose metabolism in E. coli (lac operon) was the first such mechanism, described in 1961.

**Question 0**

When are genes expressed?

**Question 1**

What are some examples of the external environment of a cell?

**Question 2**

What are some examples of the intracellular environment?

**Question 3**

At what point can gene expression be regulated?

**Question 4**

Which example of post-translational modification of a protein was first described in 1961?

**Text number 31**

A typical protein-coding gene is first copied into RNA, which is an intermediate in the production of the final protein product.6.1 In other cases, RNA molecules are actual functional products, such as in the synthesis of ribosomal RNA and transfer RNA. Some RNAs, called ribozymes, are capable of enzymatic activity, and microRNA has a regulatory role. The DNA sequences from which such RNAs are transcribed are called non-coding RNA genes.

**Question 0**

What is first copied into RNA as an intermediate in the manufacture of the final protein product?

**Question 1**

What are the actual functional products in some cases?

**Question 2**

What kind of synthesis occurs when RNA molecules are actual functional products?

**Question 3**

What are ribozymes able to do?

**Question 4**

What are the DNA sequences from which ribozymes are transcribed?

**Text number 32**

Some viruses store their entire genome in the form of RNA and contain no DNA at all. Because they use RNA to store their genes, their cell hosts can synthesise their proteins immediately after infection and without any delay for transcription. On the other hand, RNA retroviruses, such as HIV, require reverse transcription of their genome from RNA to DNA before their proteins can be synthesised. RNA-mediated epigenetic inheritance has also been observed in plants and very rarely in animals.

**Question 0**

In what form do some viruses store their entire genome?

**Question 1**

Why do some viral cell hosts not need to wait for transcription to synthesise their proteins?

**Question 2**

What is one type of RNA retrovirus?

**Question 3**

What kind of transcription does the HIV genome require before its proteins can be synthesised?

**Question 4**

Where else has RNA-mediated epigenetic inheritance been observed other than in viruses?

**Text number 33**

Organisms inherit their genes from their parents. Sexual organisms simply inherit a perfect copy of their parents' genome. Sexual organisms have two copies of each chromosome because they inherit one complete set from each parent:1

**Question 0**

Where do organisms get their genes from?

**Question 1**

How much of the genome of an unrelated organism is inherited from its parents?

**Question 2**

How many pieces of each chromosome are there in a sex organism?

**Question 3**

How many sets of chromosomes does a sexual organism inherit from each parent?

**Question 4**

Why are there two copies of each chromosome in the reproductive organs?

**Text number 34**

According to Mendelian inheritance, variations in an organism's phenotype (observable physical and behavioural characteristics) are partly due to variations in its genotype (a particular set of genes). Each gene determines a particular trait, and different sequences (alleles) of the gene give rise to different phenotypes. Most eukaryotic organisms (such as the pea plants Mendel studied) have two alleles for each trait, one of which is inherited from each parent.:20

**Question 0**

According to Mendelian inheritance, what is part of the reason for variation in the phenotype of an organism?

**Question 1**

What characteristics does the phenotype of an organism describe?

**Question 2**

What is a genotype?

**Question 3**

What defines a particular trait with a different allele sequence?

**Question 4**

How many alleles do most eukaryotic organisms have for each trait?

**Text number 35**

Alleles at a locus can be dominant or recessive; dominant alleles give rise to the corresponding phenotype when paired with any other allele of the same trait, while recessive alleles give rise to the corresponding phenotype only when paired with another copy of the same allele. For example, if the allele determining long stems in pea plants is dominant over the allele determining short stems, pea plants that inherit one long allele from one parent and one short allele from the other parent will also have long stems. Mendel's work showed that alleles are selected independently in the production of gametes, or germ cells, which ensures variation in the next generation. Although Mendelian inheritance remains a good model for many of the traits determined by individual genes (including several known genetic disorders), it does not include the physical processes of DNA replication and cell division.

**Question 0**

Where can alleles be located to be either dominant or recessive?

**Question 1**

What do dominant alleles do when combined with another allele of the same trait?

**Question 2**

When do recessive alleles give rise to the corresponding phenotype?

**Question 3**

When do alleles sort independently?

**Question 4**

What are gametes?

**Text number 36**

The growth, development and reproduction of organisms is based on cell division, a process in which one cell divides into two usually identical daughter cells. This requires that a duplicate copy of each gene in the genome is first made in a process called DNA replication:5.2 Copies are made by specialised enzymes called DNA polymerases, which 'read' one strand of double-stranded DNA, the so-called template strand, and synthesise a new complementary strand. Because the double helix of DNA is held together by base pairs, the sequence of one strand completely determines the sequence of its complement; thus, the enzyme only needs to read one strand to make a faithful copy. The DNA replication process is semi-conservative, i.e. the genome copy of each daughter cell contains one original and one new synthesized DNA strand.:5.2

**Question 0**

What is the basis for the growth, development and reproduction of organisms?

**Question 1**

What two cells are created in cell division?

**Question 2**

Which specialised enzyme is responsible for DNA replication?

**Question 3**

Why does the sequence of one strand completely determine the sequence of its complement?

**Question 4**

Which word describes the DNA replication process?

**Text number 37**

Once DNA replication is complete, the cell must physically separate the two copies of the genome and divide into two separate membrane-bound cells.18.2 In prokaryotes (bacteria and archaea), this usually occurs by a relatively simple process called binary fission, in which each round genome attaches to the cell membrane and divides into daughter cells as the membrane invaginates and splits the cytoplasm into two membrane-bound parts. Binary fission is very fast compared to the cell division rates of eukaryotes. Eukaryotic cell division is a more complex process called the cell cycle; DNA replication occurs in what is called the S phase of the cycle, while the process of chromosome segregation and cytoplasmic division occurs in the M phase.:18.1

**Question 0**

What is one thing a cell must do when DNA replication is complete?

**Question 1**

What is the second thing a cell must do when DNA replication is complete?

**Question 2**

What is the shape of each genome in a binary fission?

**Question 3**

When does each genome divide into daughter cells?

**Question 4**

Compared to the rate of cell division in eukaryotes, how fast does binary division occur?

**Text number 38**

The replication and transfer of genetic material from one generation to the next is the basis of molecular inheritance and the link between the classical and molecular picture of genes. Organisms inherit the traits of their parents because the cells of their offspring contain copies of the genes present in the cells of their parents. In asexually reproducing organisms, the offspring is a genetic copy or clone of the parent organism. In sexually reproducing organisms, a specialized form of cell division, meiosis, produces cells called gametes or gametes, which are haploid, i.e. contain only one copy of each gene.:20.2 Gametes produced by females are called oocytes or ova, and gametes produced by males are called spermatozoa. Two gametes fuse together to form a diploid fertilized oocyte, which is a single cell with two sets of genes, one copy of each gene from the mother and one from the father.:20

**Question 0**

What is the basis for the replication and transfer of genetic material from one generation of cells to another?

**Question 1**

Why do organisms inherit the characteristics of their parents?

**Question 2**

In which type of organism is the offspring a genetic copy or clone of the parent organism?

**Question 3**

In which organism does a specialised form of cell division called meiosis produce cells called gametes?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the gametes produced by females?

**Text number 39**

During the process of meiotic cell division, genetic recombination or cross-linking can sometimes occur, where the length of DNA on one chromatid is replaced by a sister chromatid of the same length. This has no effect if the alleles of the chromatids are the same, but if they are different, it leads to the re-sorting of otherwise related alleles.:5.5 Mendel's principle of independent sorting states that the two genes for each trait in the parent are independently sorted into gametes; which allele the organism inherits for one trait is unrelated to which allele it inherits for the other trait. In fact, this is true only for genes that are not on the same chromosome or are very far apart on the same chromosome. The closer two genes are to each other on the same chromosome, the more closely they are related in gametes and the more often they occur together; genes that are very close together will in principle never diverge because it is highly unlikely that a crossover point will occur between them. This is called genetic linkage.

**Question 0**

When can an event called genetic recombination or cross-breeding ever occur?

**Question 1**

If the alleles of the chromatids are the same, what is the effect of genetic recombination?

**Question 2**

If the alleles of the chromatids are different, what is the effect of genetic recombination?

**Question 3**

According to which Mendelian principle do the two genes of a parent sort independently into gametes?

**Question 4**

Which point in the genetic linkage is extremely unlikely?

**Text number 40**

DNA replication is for the most part very accurate, but errors (mutations) do occur.7.6 In eukaryotic cells, the number of errors can be as high as 10-8 nucleotides per replication, while in some RNA viruses it can be as low as 10-3. This means that every human genome accumulates 1-2 new mutations per generation. Small mutations can be caused by DNA replication and the after-effect of DNA damage, and include point mutations, where one base is changed, and frameshift mutations, where one base is added or deleted. Either of these mutations can alter the gene by a missense (changing the codon to encode a different amino acid) or nonsense (premature stop codon) mutation. Larger mutations can result from recombination defects that cause chromosomal aberrations such as duplication, deletion, rearrangement or inversion of large parts of the chromosome. In addition, DNA repair mechanisms that normally correct mutations can cause errors when repairing physical damage to a molecule is more important than restoring an exact copy, for example when repairing double strand breaks.:5.4

**Question 0**

What is it called when DNA replication errors occur?

**Question 1**

What is the lowest error rate in eukaryotic cells?

**Question 2**

What is the maximum level of error that can occur in some RNA viruses?

**Question 3**

What can cause small mutations?

**Question 4**

What can cause higher mutations?

**Text number 41**

When a population of a species contains several different alleles of a gene, it is called polymorphic. Most of the different alleles are functionally equivalent, but some alleles can still give rise to different phenotypic traits. The most common allele of a gene is called a wild type, and rare alleles are called mutants. Genetic variation in the relative frequencies of different alleles in a population is due to both natural selection and genetic drift. A wild-type allele is not necessarily the ancestor of rarer alleles, nor is it necessarily smarter.

**Question 0**

What is it called when several alleles of a different gene are present in a population of a species?

**Question 1**

What can some alleles give rise to?

**Question 2**

What is the most common allele of the gene?

**Question 3**

What are rare alleles called?

**Question 4**

What is one reason for the genetic variation in the relative frequencies of different alleles in a population?

**Text number 42**

Most mutations within genes are neutral, i.e. they have no effect on the phenotype of the organism (silent mutations). Some mutations do not change the amino acid sequence because several codons encode the same amino acid (synonymous mutations). Other mutations may be neutral if they lead to changes in the amino acid sequence, but the protein still functions in the same way with the new amino acid (e.g. conservative mutations). However, many mutations are harmful or even lethal, and natural selection removes them from populations. Genetic disorders are the result of deleterious mutations and can be caused by spontaneous mutation in the affected individual or be hereditary. A small proportion of mutations are beneficial, i.e. they improve the fitness of the organism, and they are very important for evolution because directional selection leads to adaptive evolution.:7.6

**Question 0**

What are called mutations that have no effect on the phenotype of an organism?

**Question 1**

What are called mutations that do not change the amino acid sequence?

**Question 2**

What are mutations called that lead to changes in the amino acid sequence but leave the protein functioning in the same way?

**Question 3**

What is the result of harmful mutations?

**Question 4**

What does the directional selection of beneficial mutations lead to?

**Text number 43**

Genes that share the most recent common ancestor and thus a common evolutionary ancestor are called homologues. These genes are either the result of gene duplication in the genome of an organism, in which case they are called paralogous genes, or they are the result of gene differentiation after speciation, in which case they are called orthologous genes:7.6 and often perform the same or similar functions in related organisms. It is often assumed that the functions of orthologous genes are more similar to those of paralogous genes, although the difference is minimal.

**Question 0**

What are genes called that have the most recent common ancestor?

**Question 1**

What is one of the reasons for homologies?

**Question 2**

What is the name given to genes that result from replication in the genome of an organism?

**Question 3**

What is the name given to genes that are the result of gene differentiation after speciation?

**Text number 44**

The relationship between genes can be measured by comparing the sequence alignment of their DNA.7.6 The degree of sequence similarity between homologous genes is called the conserved sequence. Most changes in the sequence of a gene do not affect its function, so genes accumulate mutations over time through neutral molecular evolution. In addition, any selection on a gene causes its sequence to diverge at different rates. Genes targeted by stabilising selection are constrained and therefore change more slowly, while genes targeted by directional selection change sequence more rapidly. Sequence differences between genes can be used in phylogenetic analyses to study how the genes in question evolved and how the organisms from which they originated are related to each other.

**Question 0**

What is measured by comparing the DNA sequence alignment of genes?

**Question 1**

What is the degree of sequence similarity between homologous genes?

**Question 2**

How do genes typically accumulate mutations over time?

**Question 3**

In which type of selection do genes change more slowly?

**Question 4**

For which analyses can sequence differences between genes be used?

**Text number 45**

The most common source of new genes in eukaryotic lineages is gene duplication, which creates copy number variation in an existing gene in the genome. The resulting genes (paralogs) can then differ in sequence and function. The groups of genes thus formed form a gene family. Gene duplication and loss within a family is common and is a major source of evolutionary biodiversity. Sometimes gene duplication can lead to a non-functioning copy of a gene, or a functioning copy can be subject to mutations that result in loss of gene function; such non-functioning genes are called pseudogenes.:7.6

**Question 0**

What is the most common source of new genes in eukaryotic lineages?

**Question 1**

What causes copy number variation in an existing gene in the genome?

**Question 2**

What is the name given to the genes that result from the replication of eukaryotic genes?

**Question 3**

What kind of copy can sometimes lead to gene duplication?

**Question 4**

What are functional copies of a gene that have lost their function because of a mutation?

**Text number 46**

De novo genes, or "orphan genes", whose sequence is not similar to existing genes, are extremely rare. Estimates of the number of de novo genes in the human genome range from 18 to 60. Such genes are typically shorter and simpler in structure than most eukaryotic genes, with few or no introns. The two primary sources of orphan protein-coding genes are gene duplication followed by very rapid sequence change, where the original relationship cannot be detected by sequence comparisons, and the formation of "cryptic" transcription start site mutations, where a new open reading frame is read into a region of the genome that did not previously encode a protein.

**Question 0**

What is a gene whose sequence is not similar to existing genes?

**Question 1**

What is the estimate of the number of orphan genes in the human genome?

**Question 2**

How do orphan gene lengths differ from the lengths of most eukaryotic genes?

**Question 3**

How does the structure of orphan genes differ from that of most eukaryotic genes?

**Question 4**

What is one of the primary sources of orphan protein-coding genes?

**Text number 47**

Horizontal gene transfer refers to the transfer of genetic material through a mechanism other than reproduction. This mechanism is a common source of new genes in prokaryotes, and is sometimes thought to contribute more to genetic variation than gene duplication. It is a common way to spread antibiotic resistance, virulence and adaptive metabolism. Although horizontal gene transfer is rare in eukaryotes, probable examples have been found in protist and algal genomes containing genes of bacterial origin.

**Question 0**

What is genetic material transmitted by a mechanism other than reproduction?

**Question 1**

In which type of organism is horizontal gene transfer a common source of new genes?

**Question 2**

What is one trait for which horizontal gene transfer is a common mode of spread?

**Question 3**

In which organisms is horizontal gene transfer rare?

**Question 4**

What is one example of horizontal gene transfer in eukaryotes?

**Text number 48**

The size of the genome and the number of genes it encodes varies greatly between organisms. The smallest genomes occur in viruses (which may have few protein2 coding genes) and viroids (which function as a single non-coding RNA gene). In contrast, plants can have very large genomes, and rice contains > 46 000 protein-coding genes. The total number of protein-coding genes (the global proteome) is estimated at 5 million sequences.

**Question 0**

What is one characteristic that varies greatly between organisms?

**Question 1**

Which organisms have the smallest genomes?

**Question 2**

What is the smallest number of protein-coding genes a virus can have?

**Question 3**

Which organism functions as a single non-coding RNA gene?

**Question 4**

What is the estimate of the total number of protein-coding genes on Earth?

**Text number 49**

Although the number of base pairs in human DNA has been known since the 1960s, the estimated number of genes has changed over time as gene definitions and detection methods have been refined. Initial theoretical estimates of the number of human genes were as high as 2,000,000. Early experimental measurements indicated that there were between 50,000 and 100,000 transcribed genes (expressed sequence tags). Later sequencing of the Human Genome Project showed that many of these transcripts were alternative variants of the same genes, and the total number of protein-coding genes was revised downwards to ~20 000, and included genes encoded in the mitochondrion13. Only 1-2% of the human genome consists of protein-coding genes, the rest being 'non-coding' DNA such as introns, retrotransposons and non-coding RNAs.

**Question 0**

Since when has the number of base pairs in human DNA been known?

**Question 1**

What was the largest original theoretical prediction of the number of human genes?

**Question 2**

According to the Human Genome Project, what variants were many of the transcripts measured?

**Question 3**

How many genes have been encoded in the mitochondrial genome since the Human Genome Project?

**Question 4**

What percentage of the human genome consists of protein-coding genes?

**Text number 50**

Essential genes are a set of genes that are believed to be critical for the survival of an organism. This definition assumes that all essential nutrients are abundantly available and that there is no environmental stress. Only a small proportion of the genes in an organism are essential. In the bacteria Escherichia coli and Bacillus subtilis, between 250 and 400 genes are estimated to be essential, which is less than 10% of their genes. Half of these genes are orthologs in both organisms and are largely involved in protein synthesis. In the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, the number of essential genes is slightly higher at 1000 genes (~20% of their genes). Although the number is more difficult to measure in higher eukaryotes, mice and humans are estimated to have around 2000 essential genes (~10% of their genes).

**Question 0**

What are the genes that are thought to be crucial for the survival of an organism?

**Question 1**

What is not an essential gene by definition?

**Question 2**

How many genes are necessary for Escherichia coli?

**Question 3**

How many of the essential genes in Escherichia coli are orthologs?

**Question 4**

How many essential genes does Saccharomyces cerevisiae have?

**Text number 51**

The housekeeping genes are required to carry out basic cellular functions, so they are expressed at a relatively stable level (constitutively). Because their expression is continuous, housekeeping genes are used as experimental controls to analyse gene expression. Not all essential genes are housekeeping genes, as some essential genes are developmentally regulated or are expressed at specific times in the life cycle of an organism.

**Question 0**

What kind of genes are needed to carry out basic cellular functions?

**Question 1**

At what relative level are economic genes expressed?

**Question 2**

When studying gene expression, which genes are used as controls in experiments?

**Question 3**

How are some key genes regulated?

**Question 4**

When are some key genes expressed?

**Text number 52**

The Genome Nomenclature Committee (HGNC) has established a genome nomenclature for each known human gene in the form of an accepted gene name and symbol (abbreviation) that can be used in the database maintained by the HGNC. The symbols are chosen to be unique and each gene has only one symbol (although the approved symbols sometimes change). Symbols are preferably kept consistent with other members of the gene family and homologues in other species, especially the mouse, as it is a common model organism.

**Question 0**

Which committee has compiled a gene nomenclature for each known human gene?

**Question 1**

How can genetic nomenclature be used?

**Question 2**

How many symbols does each gene have?

**Question 3**

With which symbols do you prefer to be aligned?

**Question 4**

In which model does the mouse play a role?

**Text number 53**

Genetic engineering is the modification of the genome of an organism through biotechnology. Since the 1970s, various techniques have been developed to insert, delete and modify an organism's genes. More recently developed genome engineering techniques use modified nuclease enzymes to create targeted DNA repairs in the chromosome that either break or modify a gene when a break is repaired. Synthetic biology is also sometimes referred to as synthetic biology, which refers to the broad genetic engineering of an organism.

**Question 0**

What is called modifying the genome of an organism through biotechnology?

**Question 1**

When did techniques for adding, removing and modifying genes start to be developed?

**Question 2**

What kind of enzymes do recently developed genome technologies use?

**Question 3**

What kind of DNA repair has been created using modern genetic techniques?

**Question 4**

Which term refers to the broad genetic engineering of an organism?

**Text number 54**

Genetic engineering is now a routine research tool using model organisms. For example, genes can be easily inserted into bacteria, and knockout mouse lines in which a particular gene is disrupted are used to study gene function. Many organisms have been genetically modified for agricultural, industrial biotechnology and medical applications.

**Question 0**

What has become a common research tool in model organisms?

**Question 1**

What are researchers studying by inserting genes into mice with a particular gene disrupted?

**Question 2**

For what purpose have organisms been modified?

**Question 3**

What else have organisms been modified for?

**Question 4**

What is another application for which organisms have been modified?

**Text number 55**

In the case of multicellular organisms, typically an embryo is modified to grow into an adult genetically modified organism. However, the genomes of the cells of an adult organism can be modified using gene therapy techniques to treat genetic diseases.

**Question 0**

What kind of organisms is an embryo usually designed for?

**Question 1**

What techniques can be used to modify the genome of an adult organism to treat a genetic disease?

**Question 2**

What part of an organism is usually created that becomes an evolved genetically modified organism?

**Question 3**

What can be changed in the adult organism using gene therapy techniques?

**Question 4**

What can be treated with genetic engineering?

**Document number 82**

**Text number 0**

Guinea-Bissau (i/ˈɡɪni bɪˈsaʊ/, GI-nee-bi-SOW), officially the Republic of Guinea-Bissau (Portuguese: República da Guiné-Bissau, pronounced [ʁeˈpublikɐ dɐ ɡiˈnɛ biˈsaw]), is a country in West Africa. It has an area of 36,125 square kilometres (13,948 sq mi) and an estimated population of 1,704,000.

**Question 0**

What is the official name of Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

Where is Guinea-Bissau located?

**Question 2**

How many square kilometres is Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 3**

What is the estimated population of Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 4**

How many kilometres does Guinea-Bissau cover?

**Text number 1**

Guinea-Bissau was once part of the Kingdom of Gabon and part of the Kingdom of Mali. Part of this kingdom survived until the 17th century, while some parts were under the Portuguese Empire from the 16th century onwards. In the 19th century it became Portuguese Guinea. With independence declared in 1974 and recognised in 1973, the country added Bissau, its capital, to its name to avoid confusion with Guinea (formerly French Guinea). Guinea-Bissau has been politically unstable since independence, and no elected president has managed to serve a full five-year term.

**Question 0**

To which kingdom did Guinea-Bissau once belong?

**Question 1**

To which kingdom did Guinea-Bissau once belong?

**Question 2**

In what year did Guinea-Bissau declare independence?

**Question 3**

From which country did Guinea-Bissau seek to distinguish itself?

**Question 4**

What has happened in Guinea-Bissau since independence?

**Text number 2**

Only 14% of the population speaks Portuguese, which was established as an official language during the colonial period. Almost half of the population (44%) speak Criollo, a creole language based on Portuguese, and the rest speak various African mother tongues. The main religions are African traditional religions and Islam, with a minority of Christians (mostly Roman Catholics). The country's GDP per capita is one of the lowest in the world.

**Question 0**

What percentage of the population speaks Portuguese?

**Question 1**

What percentage of the population speaks Criollo?

**Question 2**

What are the two main religions?

**Question 3**

What is the state of their GDP?

**Question 4**

What is minority religion?

**Text number 3**

Guinea-Bissau is a member of the United Nations, the African Union, the Economic Community of West African States, the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation, the Latin Union, the Community of Portuguese-speaking Countries, the Community of French-speaking Countries and the South Atlantic Zone of Peace and Cooperation.

**Question 0**

To which Islamic organisation does Guinea-Bissau belong?

**Question 1**

To which Portuguese organisation does Guinea-Bissau belong?

**Question 2**

To which West African Organisation does Guinea-Bissau belong?

**Question 3**

To which South Atlantic Organisation does Guinea-Bissau belong?

**Question 4**

To which Latin organisation does Guinea-Bissau belong?

**Text number 4**

Guinea-Bissau was once part of the Kingdom of Gabon, which was part of the Kingdom of Mali; part of this kingdom survived until the 17th century. The Portuguese considered other parts of what is now the country as part of their kingdom. Portuguese Guinea was known as the slave coast because it was an important area from which Europeans exported African slaves to the Western Hemisphere. In the past, the Arabs had traded slaves to the north of Africa and the Middle East.

**Question 0**

Which area was known as the Slave Coast?

**Question 1**

Who took African slaves to the Western Hemisphere?

**Question 2**

To which kingdom did Guinea-Bissau once belong?

**Question 3**

How long did the Malian Empire last?

**Question 4**

Who trafficked slaves to the Middle East?

**Text number 5**

Early reports of Europeans arriving in the region include the 1455 voyage of the Venetian Alvise Cadamosto, the 1479-1480 voyage of the Flemish-French merchant Eustache de la Fosse and the voyage of Diogo Cão. This Portuguese explorer reached the Congo and Bakongo rivers in the 1480s and laid the foundations for what is now Angola, some 4,200 km from Guinea-Bissau on the African coast.

**Question 0**

When did Alvise Cadamosto travel?

**Question 1**

When did Eustache de la Fosse travel?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the Portuguese explorer?

**Question 3**

Which river did Diogo Cao reach in the 1480s?

**Question 4**

Which country is about 4200 km from Guinea-Bissau?

**Text number 6**

Although the rivers and coastline of this region were among the first places where the Portuguese settled trading posts in the 16th century, it was not until the 19th century that they explored inland. Guinea's local African rulers, some of whom became very wealthy from the slave trade, controlled the inland trade and did not allow Europeans inland. They kept them in fortified coastal villages where they were traded. African communities that fought the slave traders were also suspicious of European adventurers and potential settlers. In Guinea, the Portuguese were largely confined to the ports of Bissau and Cacheu. A small number of European settlers established isolated farms along the inland rivers of Bissau.

**Question 0**

Which regions were the first Portuguese colonies?

**Question 1**

When did the Portuguese first set up trading posts in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 2**

When did the Portuguese explore the interior of Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 3**

Who dominated Guinea-Bissau's internal trade during this period?

**Question 4**

Which ports were the Portuguese restricted to?

**Text number 7**

For a brief period in the 1790s, the British tried to establish a rival foothold on the island of Bolama. But by the 19th century, the Portuguese were secure enough in Bissau to consider the neighbouring coast as their special territory to the north as well, in what is now southern Senegal.

**Question 0**

Who was trying to gain a foothold in Bolama's rival?

**Question 1**

When did they try to get Bolama into a rival position?

**Question 2**

Who kept Bolamaa as a country in the 19th century?

**Question 3**

What other area did the Portuguese consider to be a special area?

**Question 4**

What rival did the Portuguese fend off in Guinea-Bissau?

**Text number 8**

The African Guinean and Cape Verdean Independence Party (PAIGC1956), led by Amílcar Cabral, launched an armed rebellion in 1956. Unlike guerrilla movements in other Portuguese colonies, the PAIGC quickly extended its military control over large parts of the region, aided by the jungle terrain, easily accessible border crossings with neighbouring allies and large quantities of arms from Cuba, China, the Soviet Union and leftist African countries. Cuba also agreed to supply artillery experts, doctors and technicians. The PAIGC even managed to acquire a significant anti-aircraft capability to defend itself against air attacks. By 1973, the PAIGC controlled much of Guinea, although the movement suffered a setback in January 1973 when Cabral was assassinated.

**Question 0**

Which group started the armed rebellion in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

When did the armed rebellion start?

**Question 2**

Who was the leader of the armed rebellion?

**Question 3**

Who supplied doctors and technicians to the rebels?

**Question 4**

When was Cabral murdered?

**Text number 9**

Independence was unilaterally declared on 24 September 1973. Independence was universally recognised on 25 April 1974, following a socialist-inspired military coup in Portugal that overthrew the Estado Novo government in Lisbon.

**Question 0**

When was independence declared?

**Question 1**

When was independence considered universal?

**Question 2**

What event caused the recognition to become universal?

**Question 3**

Where did the coup take place?

**Question 4**

Who was ousted in the coup?

**Text number 10**

Luís Cabral, brother of Amílcar Cabral and founder of PAIGC, was appointed Guinea-Bissau's first president. After independence, the PAIGC killed thousands of local Guinean soldiers who had fought alongside the Portuguese army against guerrilla forces. Some fled and settled in Portugal or other African countries. One of the massacres took place in the town of Bissorã. In 1980, the PAIGC admitted in its newspaper Nó Pintcha (29 November 1980) that many Guinean soldiers had been executed and buried in unmarked mass graves in the forests of Cumerá, Portogole and Mansabá.

**Question 0**

Who was Guinea-Bissau's first president?

**Question 1**

How many Guinean soldiers were killed by PAIGC?

**Question 2**

Where did one of the massacres take place?

**Question 3**

When did the PAIGC admit the executions?

**Question 4**

Where were the soldiers buried?

**Text number 11**

The country was ruled by a Revolutionary Council until 1984. The first multiparty elections were held in 1994. A military uprising in May 1998 led to a civil war in Guinea-Bissau and the ousting of the President in June 1999. Elections were held again in 2000 and Kumba Ialá was elected President.

**Question 0**

Who ruled the country before 1984?

**Question 1**

When were the first multiparty elections held?

**Question 2**

What led to the civil war in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 3**

When was the President ousted?

**Question 4**

Who was elected president in the 2000 elections?

**Text number 12**

In September 2003, a military coup took place. The military arrested Ialán, accusing him of 'failing to solve problems'. Parliamentary elections were held several times after a postponement in March 2004. A rebellion by military groups in October 2004 led to the death of the head of the armed forces and caused widespread unrest.

**Question 0**

When was the military coup?

**Question 1**

Who was arrested by the army?

**Question 2**

When were the parliamentary elections held?

**Question 3**

When did the rebellion of the military groups take place?

**Question 4**

Who died in the uprising?

**Text number 13**

In June 2005, presidential elections were held for the first time since the coup that deposed Ialá. Ialá returned as a PRS candidate, claiming to be the country's legitimate president, but the election was won by former president João Bernardo Vieira, who had been ousted in the 1999 coup. Vieira defeated Malam Bacai Sanha in the election results. Sanhá initially refused to concede, claiming that electoral fraud and fraud occurred in two constituencies, including the capital Bissau.

**Question 0**

When were presidential elections held after the coup?

**Question 1**

Who was running at the time claiming to be the legitimate president of the country?

**Question 2**

Who won the election?

**Question 3**

Who did Vieira beat in the election results?

**Question 4**

When was Vieira, the former president, ousted?

**Text number 14**

Although foreign election observers described the 2005 elections as "peaceful and orderly" overall, there were reports of weapons being brought into the country before the elections and some "disturbances" during the campaign, such as attacks on government offices by unknown gunmen.

**Question 0**

What was announced for the country before the elections?

**Question 1**

What kind of "glitches" were reported during the campaign?

**Question 2**

How did foreign election observers describe the elections?

**Question 3**

What year were the elections held?

**Question 4**

Are the election observers local or foreign?

**Text number 15**

Three years later, PAIGC won a strong majority of 67,100 seats in the November 2008 parliamentary elections. In November 2008, the armed forces attacked President Vieira's official residence and killed a guard, but the President was not injured.

**Question 0**

When were the parliamentary elections held?

**Question 1**

Who won a strong majority in the elections?

**Question 2**

How many seats did PAIGC win in the elections?

**Question 3**

Whose home was attacked by members of the armed forces?

**Question 4**

When did the attack on the residence take place?

**Text number 16**

However, Vieira was assassinated on 2 March 2009 by a group of soldiers who, according to preliminary reports, were avenging the death of the Chief of Staff, General Batista Tagme Na Wai. Tagme was killed on Sunday 1 March 2009 in an explosion that was the target of an assassination. The country's military leaders promised to respect the constitutional succession. The Speaker of the National Assembly, Raimundo Pereira, was appointed interim President until national elections on 28 June 2009. They were won by Malam Bacai Sanhá.

**Question 0**

Who was murdered on 2 March 2009?

**Question 1**

Who was murdered on 1 March 2009?

**Question 2**

Who promised to respect the constitutional order of succession?

**Question 3**

Who was appointed interim president?

**Question 4**

Who won the elections in June 2009?

**Text number 17**

On the evening of 12 April 2012, members of the country's army staged a coup and arrested the interim president and the leading presidential candidate. The former Deputy Chief of General Staff, General Mamadu Ture Kuruma, took over the country in a transitional period and began negotiations with opposition parties.

**Question 0**

When was the coup staged?

**Question 1**

Who organised the coup?

**Question 2**

Who took control of the country after the coup?

**Question 3**

Who did Kuruma negotiate with?

**Question 4**

What was Kuruma's former position?

**Text number 18**

Guinea-Bissau is a republic. In the past, the administration was very centralised. A multi-party administration was only established in mid-1991. The President is the Head of State and the Prime Minister is the Head of Government. Since 1974, no president has managed to serve a full five-year term.

**Question 0**

Which country is listed as a republic?

**Question 1**

When had government been very centralised?

**Question 2**

When was the multiparty administration set up?

**Question 3**

Who is the head of state?

**Question 4**

Who is the head of government?

**Text number 19**

At the legislative level, the Assembleia Nacional Popular (National People's Assembly) is made up of 100 deputies in a single chamber. They are elected by popular vote from multi-member constituencies for a four-year term. The judiciary is governed by the Tribunal Supremo da Justiça (Supreme Court of Justice), composed of nine judges appointed by the President, acting under the authority of the President.

**Question 0**

How many members does the legislature have?

**Question 1**

Is the legislature bicameral or unicameral?

**Question 2**

How long will members be legislators?

**Question 3**

What is the head of the judiciary?

**Question 4**

How many judges are on the Supreme Court?

**Text number 20**

João Bernardo "Nino" Vieira was elected President of Guinea-Bissau in 2005 as an independent, and the CNE (Comité Nacional de Eleições) declared him the winner of the second round. Mr Vieira returned to power in 2005, six years after he had been ousted during the civil war. Prior to that, he had been in power for 19 years, having seized power in a bloodless 1980 coup. In that coup he overthrew the government of Luís Cabral.

**Question 0**

Who was elected president in 2005?

**Question 1**

Which body announced who won the presidency?

**Question 2**

How long had it been since Vieira was last president?

**Question 3**

In which year did Vieira first come to power?

**Question 4**

Whose government did Vieira overthrow in 1980?

**Text number 21**

He was killed on 2 March 2009, possibly by soldiers in revenge for the assassination of the Chief of Staff, General Batista Tagme Na Waie, who died in the blast. Vieira's death did not cause widespread violence, but according to Swisspeace there were signs of unrest in the country. Malam Bacai Sanhá was elected after a transitional period. Sanhá was the PAIGC presidential candidate to replace Vieira, who was assassinated in the 2009 elections, while Kumba Ialá was the PRS presidential candidate.

**Question 0**

What was NOT triggered by Vieira's death?

**Question 1**

When was Vieira killed?

**Question 2**

Who was the PAIGC candidate in the 2009 elections?

**Question 3**

Who was the PRS candidate in the 2009 elections?

**Question 4**

Who won the 2009 elections?

**Text number 22**

In 2012, President Rachide Sambu-balde Malam Bacai Sanhá died. He was a member of the PAIGC (African Party for the Independence of Guinea and Cape Verde), one of the two main political parties in Guinea-Bissau, together with the PRS (Party for Social Reform). There are more than 20 smaller parties.

**Question 0**

When did President Sanha die?

**Question 1**

Which party did Sanha belong to?

**Question 2**

What is the other major political party besides PAIGC?

**Question 3**

How many small political parties are there?

**Question 4**

What position did Sanha hold in 2012?

**Text number 23**

Guinea-Bissau is divided into eight regions (regiões) and one autonomous sector (sector autónomo). These in turn are divided into sectors. 37 The regions are as follows:

**Question 0**

How many regions are there in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

How many independent sectors are there in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 2**

How many subdivided sectors are there in Guinea-Bissau?

**Text number 24**

Guinea-Bissau is bordered by Senegal to the north, Guinea to the south and east, and the Atlantic Ocean to the west. It lies mainly between latitudes 11° and 13° N (with a small area south of 11°) and longitudes 13° and 17° W.

**Question 0**

Which country is on the northern border of Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

Which country is on the southern border of Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 2**

What is west of Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 3**

Between which latitudes is Guinea-Bissau mostly located?

**Question 4**

Between which meridians is Guinea-Bissau most often located?

**Text number 25**

The country has an area of 36,125 square kilometres (13 948 sq mi), larger than Taiwan or Belgium. It lies at a low altitude, with its highest point at 300 metres. The terrain is mostly low coastal plain, with Guinean mangrove forests in the eastern part rising into a Guinean forest-savannah mosaic. The monsoonal rainy season alternates with periods of hot, dry harmattan winds from the Sahara. The Bijagos archipelago lies off the mainland.

**Question 0**

Guinea-Bissau is bigger than which two countries?

**Question 1**

How high is the highest point in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 2**

Which archipelago is located off the mainland?

**Question 3**

How many square kilometres is Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 4**

Where does Guinea-Bissau get its hot, dry winds?

**Text number 26**

Guinea-Bissau is warm year-round, with little temperature variation, averaging 26.3 °C (79.3 °F). The average rainfall in Bissau is 2,024 mm (79.7 inches), but it is almost entirely distributed over the rainy season, which runs from June to September-October. From December to April, the country is in a drought.

**Question 0**

What is the average rainfall in Bissau, in millimetres?

**Question 1**

When is the rainy season in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 2**

What does the country experience from December to April?

**Question 3**

When is Guinea-Bissau warm?

**Question 4**

What is the average temperature in Guinea-Bissau?

**Text number 27**

Guinea-Bissau has one of the lowest GDPs per capita in the world and one of the lowest human development indices in the world. More than two thirds of the population live below the poverty line. The economy is mainly dependent on agriculture, with fish, cashew nuts and peanuts being its main exports.

**Question 0**

What proportion of the population lives below the poverty line?

**Question 1**

What are Guinea-Bissau's main exports?

**Question 2**

According to which per capita index is Guinea-Bissau one of the lowest in the world?

**Question 3**

On which index is Guinea-Bissau one of the lowest in the world?

**Question 4**

Which region in Guinea-Bissau is dependent on agriculture?

**Text number 28**

Prolonged political instability has led to a deterioration in economic activity, worsening social conditions and increasing macroeconomic imbalances. On average, it takes longer to register a new business in Guinea-Bissau (233 days or about 33 weeks) than in any other country in the world except Suriname [The Economist, Pocket World in Figures, 2008 Edition, London: Profile Books].

**Question 0**

Political instability has led to what kind of economic activity?

**Question 1**

Political instability has led to what description of social conditions?

**Question 2**

What kind of imbalances have increased as a result of instability?

**Question 3**

How long does it take to register a company in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 4**

In which country does it take longer to register a company than in Guinea-Bissau?

**Text number 29**

Guinea-Bissau has started to make economic progress since the signing of the Stability Pact by the country's main political parties, which led to an IMF-supported structural reform programme. The main challenges for the country in the coming period are fiscal discipline, rebuilding the public administration, improving the economic climate for private investment and promoting economic diversification. Following the country's independence from Portugal in 1974, following the Portuguese colonial war and the Carnation Revolution, the rapid emigration of Portuguese civil, military and political authorities caused considerable damage to the country's economic infrastructure, social order and standard of living.

**Question 0**

What did the main political parties sign up to help the economy?

**Question 1**

Which organisation supported the restructuring programme?

**Question 2**

When did Guinea-Bissau become independent?

**Question 3**

Which country left Guinea-Bissau in 1974?

**Question 4**

What happened in Portugal that contributed to the independence of Guinea-Bissau?

**Text number 30**

After several years of economic recession and political instability, Guinea-Bissau switched to the CFA franc in 1997, which brought some internal monetary stability. The civil war in 1998 and 1999 and the military coup in September 2003 again disrupted economic activity, leaving a significant part of the economic and social infrastructure in ruins and contributing to already widespread poverty. Following parliamentary elections in March 2004 and presidential elections in July 2005, the country is trying to recover from a long period of instability, although the political situation remains fragile.

**Question 0**

In what year did Guinea-Bissau begin to achieve some internal monetary stability in the country?

**Question 1**

What did the government do in 1997 to increase the stability of monetary policy?

**Question 2**

In which years was the civil war fought?

**Question 3**

When was the military coup in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 4**

When were the parliamentary elections held?

**Text number 31**

In 2005, drug traffickers operating from Latin America began using Guinea-Bissau and several neighbouring countries in West Africa as transhipment points for cocaine to Europe. A United Nations official described the country as at risk of becoming a "drug state". The government and military have done little to stop the drug trade, which increased after the 2012 coup.

**Question 0**

When did drug traffickers start using Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

Where did drug traffickers come from?

**Question 2**

What was the final destination of the drugs transiting through Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 3**

Who described Guinea-Bissau as being in danger of becoming a "drug state"?

**Question 4**

Who has done little to stop drug smuggling in the country?

**Text number 32**

According to the 2010 revision of the UN World Population Prospects, Guinea-Bissau's population was 1,515,000 in 2010, up from 518,000 in 1950. In 2010, 41.3% of the population was under 15 years of age, 55.4% between 15 and 65 and 3.3% aged 65 or over.

**Question 0**

What was the population of Guinea-Bissau in 1950?

**Question 1**

What was the population of Guinea-Bissau in 2010?

**Question 2**

What is the source of the demographic data?

**Question 3**

What percentage of the population was under 15 years old?

**Question 4**

What percentage of the population was aged 65 or over?

**Text number 33**

Portuguese are a very small proportion of the population of Guinea-Bissau. After the independence of Guinea-Bissau, most Portuguese left the country. There is a small Chinese population. They include traders of Portuguese-Chinese descent and traders from the former Portuguese colony of Macau in Asia.

**Question 0**

Which natives make up a very small percentage of the population?

**Question 1**

Who left the country after the independence of Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 2**

Which ethnic group has a very small population in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the former Portuguese colony in Asia?

**Question 4**

What is the ancestry of the Chinese population of Guinea-Bissau?

**Text number 34**

14% of the population speak Portuguese, the official language of the government and national communication during centuries of colonial rule, while 44% speak Criol, a Portuguese-based Creole language that is effectively the national language for inter-group communication. The remainder speak a variety of African mother tongues, which are the languages of the ethnic groups themselves.

**Question 0**

What percentage of the population speaks Criol?

**Question 1**

What is the official language of Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 2**

How long was Guinea-Bissau under colonial rule?

**Question 3**

What kind of language is Criole?

**Text number 35**

Most Portuguese and mestizos speak some African language and Criol as a second language. French is also taught in schools, as Guinea-Bissau is surrounded by French-speaking countries. Guinea-Bissau is a full member of Francophonie.

**Question 0**

What is the second language of most Portuguese speakers in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

Why is French taught in school?

**Question 2**

Where is Guinea-Bissau a full member?

**Question 3**

Who speaks both African languages and Criole?

**Text number 36**

Throughout the 20th century, most Bissauans practised some form of animism. In the early 2000s, many have embraced Islam, which is now practised by 50% of the country's population. The majority of Muslims in Guinea-Bissau are Sunni Muslims, with around 2% belonging to the Ahmadiyya sect.

**Question 0**

What religion was the majority of people in the 20th century?

**Question 1**

Which religion did the population adopt in the early 2000s?

**Question 2**

What percentage of the population practises Islam today?

**Question 3**

To which religion do the majority of Muslims in Guinea-Bissau belong?

**Question 4**

Which sect does 2% of the population belong to?

**Text number 37**

Around 10% of the country's population belongs to the Christian community, and 40% still believe in indigenous peoples. However, these statistics can be misleading, as many residents practice syncretic forms of Islam and Christianity, which combine Islamic and Christian practices with traditional African beliefs.

**Question 0**

What percentage of the population are Christians?

**Question 1**

What proportion of the population still adheres to indigenous beliefs?

**Question 2**

What forms of Islam and Christianity are practised by many residents?

**Question 3**

What do many residents associate with Islamic and Christian practices?

**Text number 38**

The prevalence of HIV infection in the adult population is 1.8%. Only 20% of infected pregnant women receive antiretroviral treatment to prevent transmission to newborns.

**Question 0**

Which infection has a very low prevalence in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

What proportion of the adult population is infected with HIV?

**Question 2**

How many pregnant women infected with HIV are receiving antiretroviral treatment?

**Question 3**

What does retrovirus coverage help prevent?

**Question 4**

Who gets retrovirus?

**Text number 39**

Malaria kills more people; 9% of the population have reported being infected, and it causes three times more deaths than AIDS. In 2008, less than half of children under five were sleeping under malaria bed nets or receiving antimalarial drugs.

**Question 0**

What kills more people than AIDS?

**Question 1**

What percentage of the population is affected by malaria?

**Question 2**

How many more deaths are caused by malaria than AIDS?

**Question 3**

How many children under the age of five slept under anti-malaria nets in 2008?

**Question 4**

What medicines were many young children not receiving in 2008?

**Text number 40**

Despite lower figures in surrounding countries, in November 2012 cholera was reported to be on the rise, with 1 500 cases reported and nine deaths. The 2008 cholera outbreak in Guinea-Bissau affected14,222 people and killed225 .

**Question 0**

Which type of disease has been reported to be increasing in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

How many people died from cholera, according to a report published in November 2012?

**Question 2**

How many people died of cholera in the 2008 epidemic?

**Question 3**

Which cholera cases have reported declining cholera rates?

**Question 4**

How many people were affected by the 2008 cholera epidemic?

**Text number 41**

In 2010, the maternal mortality rate per 100 000 births in Guinea-Bissau was 1 000. In 2008 and 1990 it was 804,3966. The under-five mortality rate per 1,000 live births was 195 and the neonatal mortality rate as a percentage of under-five mortality was 24. The number of midwives per 1,000 live births was 3 ; one in eighteen pregnant women die as a result of pregnancy. According to a 2013 UNICEF report, 50% of women in Guinea-Bissau had undergone female genital mutilation. In 2010, Guinea-Bissau had the seventh highest maternal mortality rate in the world.

**Question 0**

What was the maternal mortality rate per 100 000 births in 2010?

**Question 1**

What was the maternal mortality rate per 100 000 births in 1990?

**Question 2**

How many midwives are listed per 1000 live births?

**Question 3**

How many pregnant women die as a result of pregnancy?

**Question 4**

According to UNICEF, what percentage of women in Guinea-Bissau had undergone female genital mutilation?

**Text number 42**

Education is compulsory from the age of 7 to 13. Boys have a higher school attendance rate than girls. In 1998, the primary school enrolment rate was 53.5%, with a higher rate for males (67.7%) than females (40%).

**Question 0**

At what age is training compulsory?

**Question 1**

Which gender has a higher enrolment rate?

**Question 2**

What was the gross enrolment rate in primary education in 1998?

**Question 3**

What was the gross primary school enrolment rate for men?

**Question 4**

What was the gross enrolment rate of women in primary school?

**Text number 43**

Guinea-Bissau has several secondary schools (both general and technical) and several universities, with the addition of an institutionally independent law faculty and a medical faculty.

**Question 0**

What kind of secondary education institutions are there in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

Which institutions have been added to the Faculty of Law?

**Question 2**

Which institutions have been added to the medical faculty?

**Question 3**

What two words are used to describe the faculties of law and medicine?

**Text number 44**

Guinea-Bissau music is usually associated with the polyrhythmic gumbe genre, which is the country's main musical export. However, civil unrest and other factors have combined over the years to keep gumbe and other genres out of the mainstream, even in generally syncretic African countries.

**Question 0**

What type of music is usually associated with Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

What is considered the country's most important music export?

**Question 2**

What major factor has kept gumbe away from the mainstream audience?

**Question 3**

From which types of countries has gumbe been kept out?

**Text number 45**

The calabash is the most important instrument in Guinea-Bissau and is used in very fast and rhythmically complex dance music. The lyrics are almost always in Guinea-Bissau Creole, a Portuguese-based Creole language, and are often humorous and topical, dealing with current events and controversies, especially AIDS.

**Question 0**

What is Guinea-Bissau's preferred instrument?

**Question 1**

What kind of music is the calabash used for?

**Question 2**

In which language are the lyrics usually sung?

**Question 3**

What are typical song lyrics about?

**Question 4**

What is the main contradiction in the lyrics of the songs?

**Text number 46**

The word gumbe is sometimes commonly used to refer to the music of any country, although it refers specifically to a unique style that combines the folk music traditions of around ten countries. Tina and tinga are other popular genres, while broader folk traditions include ceremonial music used for funerals, initiations and other rituals, as well as Balanta brosca and kussundé, Mandinga djambado and the kundere sound of the Bissagos Islands.

**Question 0**

What is sometimes used as a generic term for all Guinea-Bissau music?

**Question 1**

How many countries' folk music traditions does Gumbe bring together?

**Question 2**

What are two other popular music genres other than gumbe?

**Question 3**

What is the sound from the Bissagos Islands?

**Question 4**

What is the tradition of festive music for funerals?

**Text number 47**

The diet of people living near the coast includes rice and inland millet. Fish, shellfish, fruit and vegetables are commonly eaten alongside cereals, milk, cheese and whey. The Portuguese encouraged the production of peanuts. Vigna subterranea (Bambara groundnut) and Macrotyloma geocarpum (Hausa groundnut) are also cultivated. Black-eyed peas are also part of the diet. Palm oil is harvested.

**Question 0**

Which cereal is the staple food of the people of coastal Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

Which cereal is the staple food of the people of Guinea-Bissau's interior?

**Question 2**

Who promoted peanut production in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 3**

What kind of oil is collected?

**Question 4**

What type of pea is part of the Guinea-Bissau diet?

**Text number 48**

Soups and stews are common dishes. Common ingredients include sweet potato, sweet potato, cassava, onion, tomato and plantain. Spices, paprika and chillies such as Aframomum melegueta (Guinea pepper) seeds are used in cooking.

**Question 0**

What are the common dishes in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

What are the common ingredients in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 2**

What are spices, peppers and chillies used for?

**Question 3**

What is another name for guinea pepper?

**Question 4**

What are Guinea peppers used for?

**Text number 49**

Flora Gomes is an internationally renowned film director; her most famous film is Nha Fala (English: My Voice). Gomes' Mortu Nega (Death Forbidden) (1988) was the first fiction film and the second feature film ever made in Guinea-Bissau. (The first feature film was director Umban u'Kest's N'tturudu in 1987.) Mortu Nega won the prestigious Oumarou Ganda Award at FESPACO 1989. Mortu Nega is in Greek with English subtitles. In 1992, Gomes directed Udju Azul di Yonta, which was screened at the Cannes Film Festival's Un Certain Regard section in 1992. Gomes has also served on the boards of several film festivals focusing on Africa.

**Question 0**

Who is an internationally renowned film director from Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 1**

What is Flora Gomes' most famous film?

**Question 2**

What year was the first feature film made in Guinea-Bissau?

**Question 3**

Who directed Guinea-Bissau's first feature film?

**Question 4**

Which award did the Mortu Nega film win?

**Document number 83**

**Text number 0**

This article covers the east-west numbered streets of Manhattan, New York. Larger streets have their own linked articles; smaller streets are covered here. The streets do not run exactly east-west because the grid plan is aligned with the Hudson River rather than the Cardinals. "West" is approximately degrees 29points to the right of west.

**Question 0**

According to which grid plan is aligned instead of cardinal directions?

**Question 1**

How many degrees north of the true west is "west"?

**Question 2**

Is this article about east-west or north-south streets?

**Question 3**

Which streets have their own linked articles?

**Text number 1**

The numbered streets are cross-traffic. In general, even-numbered streets are one-way eastbound and odd-numbered streets are one-way westbound. There are several exceptions where the opposite is true. Most of the wider streets have two-way traffic, as do a few narrow streets.

**Question 0**

Which streets are one-way eastbound?

**Question 1**

In which direction are odd-numbered streets one-way?

**Question 2**

Do most wide streets have one-way or two-way traffic?

**Text number 2**

Street names change from west to east (for example, from East 10th Street to West 10th Street) on Broadway below 8th Street and on Fifth Avenue from 8th Street upwards.

**Question 0**

What's happening on Broadway below 8th Street?

**Question 1**

What happens on Fifth Avenue from 8th Street onwards?

**Question 2**

Do street names change from west to east or north to south?

**Text number 3**

Although the numbered streets begin north of East Houston Street in the East Village, they generally do not extend west into Greenwich Village, where streets already existed at the time the grid plan was drawn up in the 1811 Commissioners' Plan. On streets that continue farther west, the direction changes before the Hudson River. The grid covers the entire length of the island from 14th Street north.

**Question 0**

The grid covers the length of the island from which starting point?

**Question 1**

From which street on the north side do the numbered streets start?

**Question 2**

In which village is East Houston Street located?

**Question 3**

Which village already had streets when the grid plan was drawn up?

**Question 4**

Who created the network plan?

**Text number 4**

220th Street is the highest street on Manhattan Island. Marble Hill is also in the borough of Manhattan, so the highest street number in the borough is 228th Street. However, the numbering continues in the Bronx up to 263rd Street. The lowest numbered street is East First Street - which runs in Alphabet City near East Houston Street - and First Place in Battery Park City.

**Question 0**

What is the highest street on Manhattan Island?

**Question 1**

What is the highest street number in Manhattan?

**Question 2**

What is the highest street number in the Bronx?

**Question 3**

Where is First Place located?

**Question 4**

Where is East First Street located?

**Text number 5**

East 1st Street starts just north of East Houston Street on Avenue A and continues to the Bowery. Peretz Square, a small triangular park where Houston Street, First Street and First Avenue meet, is where the grid begins.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the point where the net gets caught?

**Question 1**

What is the shape of the park where Houston Street, First Street and First Avenue meet?

**Question 2**

Which street starts just north of East Houston Street on Avenue A?

**Question 3**

East 1st Street starts just north of East Houston Street at Avenue A and continues to where?

**Text number 6**

East 2nd Street starts just north of East Houston Street on Avenue C and continues to the Bowery. The east end of East 3rd, 4th, 5th and 7th Streets is Avenue D, and East 6th Street continues east to join FDR Drive.

**Question 0**

East 6th Street continues east and connects to where on Drive?

**Question 1**

Where is the east end of East 3rd, 4th, 5th and 7th Street?

**Question 2**

Which Avenue is the starting point of East 2nd Street?

**Question 3**

Which street starts just north of East Huston Street and continues to the Bowery?

**Text number 7**

The western end of these streets is the Bowery and Third Avenue, except for 3rd Street (formerly Amity Place; Sixth Avenue) and 4th Street (to 13th Street), which continue west and north to Greenwich Village. Great Jones Street connects East 3rd and West 3rd.

**Question 0**

What was the name of 3rd Street before?

**Question 1**

Which village do 3rd and 4th Street extend into?

**Question 2**

Which street connects East 3rd and West 3rd?

**Question 3**

The west end of these streets is Third Avenue and where?

**Text number 8**

East 5th Street continues west to Cooper Square, but cuts off between Avenues B and C at The Earth School, Public School364 and between First Avenue and Avenue A at the Village View Apartments.

**Question 0**

Which apartments interrupt East 5th Street between First Avenue and Avenue A?

**Question 1**

What is the number of the public school that cuts off East 5th Street?

**Question 2**

Which school is interrupting East 5th Street?

**Question 3**

East 5th Street goes west to which stop?

**Text number 9**

8th and 9th Streets run parallel starting at Avenue D, stopping at Tompkins Square Park on Avenue B, continuing on Avenue A and continuing to Sixth Avenue. West 8th Street is an important local shopping street. Between Avenue A and Third Avenue, 8th Street is called St Mark's Place, but is included in the length below.

**Question 0**

West 8th Street is an important local street for which activity?

**Question 1**

What is the name of 8th Street between Avenue A and Third Avenue?

**Question 2**

Where do 8th and 9th Street start?

**Question 3**

Where do 8th and 9th Streets end?

**Question 4**

Which park intersects 8th and 9th Streets at Avenue B?

**Text number 10**

10th Street (40°44′03″N 74°00′11″W / 40.7342580°N 74.0029670°W / 40.7342580; -74.0029670) begins at FDR Drive and Avenue C. West of Sixth Avenue, it turns about 40 degrees south to join the Greenwich Village street grid and continues to West Street along the Hudson River. As West 4th Street turns north at Sixth Avenue, it intersects with West Village's 10th, 11th, 12th and 13th Streets. The M8 bus operates on 10th Street in both directions between Avenue D and Avenue A and eastbound between West Street and Sixth Avenue. 10th Street has an eastbound bike lane from West Street to the East River. In 2009, bicycle signs and markings were installed on the two-way section of 10th Street between Avenue A and the East River, but it still does not have a dedicated bike lane. West 10th Street was previously named Amos Street after Richard Amos. At the Hudson River end of West 10th Street was once Newgate Prison, New York's first prison and the second prison in the United States.

**Question 0**

Which bus operates on 10th Street between Avenues D and A and West Street and Sixth Avenue?

**Question 1**

Is there a dedicated bike lane on the two-way section of 10th Street?

**Question 2**

At the end of which road was Newgate prison once located?

**Question 3**

Which prison was New York's first?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the second prison in the United States?

**Text number 11**

11th Street is in two parts. It is interrupted by the Grace Church block between Broadway and Fourth Avenue. East 11th Street runs from Fourth Avenue to Avenue C, passing Webster Hall. West 11th Street runs from Broadway to West Street. At the corner of 11th Street and 6th Avenue stood the Old Grapevine tavern from the 1700s until its demolition in the early 1900s.

**Question 0**

Which street runs from Broadway to West Street?

**Question 1**

When was the Old Grapevine chapel demolished?

**Question 2**

On the corner of 11th Street and 6th Avenue in the 1700s was what tavern?

**Question 3**

Which church connects 11th Street between Broadway and Fourth Avenue?

**Text number 12**

13th Street consists of three parts. The first is a dead end from Avenue C. The second begins at a dead end just before Avenue B and runs to Greenwich Avenue, and the third is from Eighth Avenue to Tenth Avenue.

**Question 0**

How many sections is 13th Street divided into?

**Question 1**

Which street on the first part of 13th Street is a dead end?

**Question 2**

Where does the second part of 13th Street end?

**Question 3**

What is the third part of which street between Eighth Avenue and Tenth Avenue?

**Text number 13**

14th Street is Manhattan's numbered main street. It starts at Avenue C and ends at West Street. It is 3.4 km ( 2.1mi) long and has six subway stations:

**Question 0**

Where does 14th Street start?

**Question 1**

Where does 14th Street end?

**Question 2**

How many subway stations are there on 14th Street?

**Question 3**

What is the length of 14th Street in kilometres?

**Text number 14**

15th Street starts at FDR Drive and 16th Street starts at the dead end halfway between FDR Drive and Avenue C. Both stop at Avenue C and continue from First Avenue to West Street, which stops again at Union Square, and 16th Street also stops at Stuyvesant Square.

**Question 0**

Where does 15th Street start?

**Question 1**

Which road starts at the dead end halfway between FDR Drive and Avenue C?

**Question 2**

Where does 16th Street stop?

**Question 3**

Which plaza stops both 15th and 16th Street?

**Text number 15**

On 17th Street (40°44′08″N 73°59′12″W / 40.735532°N 73.986575°W / 40.735532; -73.986575), traffic is one-way on the street from east to west, except for the section between Broadway and Park Avenue South, where traffic travels in both directions. It forms the northern boundary of both Union Square (between Broadway and Park Avenue South) and Stuyvesant Square. Composer Antonín Dvořák's New York home was located at 327 East 17th Street, near Perlman Place. Beth Israel Medical Center demolished the house after receiving approval in 1991 for an application to demolish the house and replace it with an AIDS hospital. Time Magazine opened at 141 East 17th Street.

**Question 0**

What is unusual about the traffic between Broadway and Park Avenue South on 17th Street?

**Question 1**

Does traffic on 17th Street usually go one-way or two-way?

**Question 2**

What was the job of the person who lived at 327 East 17th Street?

**Question 3**

Where did Time Magazine start?

**Question 4**

What replaced Antonin Dvorak's New York home after it was demolished?

**Text number 16**

At the intersection of 18th Street and Seventh Avenue is a local subway station, served by IRT Broadway - Seventh Avenue Line 1 2 trains. 18th Street used to have a station on the IRT Lexington Avenue line at the Park Avenue South intersection.

**Question 0**

What's at the intersection of 18th Street and Seventh Avenue?

**Question 1**

On which train line do 1 2 trains run?

**Question 2**

Which 18th Street train station used to be at the Park Avenue South intersection?

**Text number 17**

20th Street starts at Avenue C, and 21st and 22nd Streets start at First Avenue. The last block of 20th, 21st and 22nd Streets, between Tenth Avenue and Eleventh Avenue, is in the opposite direction of the rest of the street. 20th Street is very wide from Avenue C to First Avenue.

**Question 0**

Where does 10th Street start?

**Question 1**

On which street do 21st and 22nd start?

**Question 2**

What's different on 20th Street between Avenue C and First Avenue?

**Question 3**

Which street is much wider from Avenue C to First Avenue?

**Question 4**

How does traffic flow in the last block of 20th, 21st and 22nd streets?

**Text number 18**

21st Street between Second and Third Avenues is also known as Police Officer Anthony Sanchez Way. North of Gramercy Park, between Gramercy Park East and Gramercy Park West, 21st Street is known as Gramercy Park North.

**Question 0**

Which street is also known as Police Officer Anthony Sanchez Way?

**Question 1**

What is 21st Street north of Gramercy Park known as?

**Question 2**

Which street between 21st Street is known as Police Officer Anthony Sanchez Way?

**Question 3**

Which police officer does the 21st Street section refer to?

**Text number 19**

23rd Street is the second main street in Manhattan. It starts at FDR Drive and ends at Eleventh Avenue. It has a length of 3.1 km/1.9 m. It is two-way. 23rd Street has five local subway stations:

**Question 0**

Where does 23rd Street start?

**Question 1**

Where does 23rd Street end?

**Question 2**

What is the length of 23rd Street in kilometres?

**Question 3**

Is traffic moving one-way or two-way on 23rd Street?

**Question 4**

How many local subway stations are there on 23rd Street?

**Text number 20**

24th Street is divided into two parts. 24th Street starts at First Avenue and ends at Madison Avenue for Madison Square Park. 25th Street, a three-part street, starts at FDR Drive, is a pedestrian street between Third Avenue and Lexington Avenue, and ends at Madison. West 24th and 25th Streets then continue from Fifth Avenue to Eleventh Avenue (25th) or Twelfth Avenue (24th).

**Question 0**

Which street is the pedestrian street between Third Avenue and Lexington Avenue?

**Question 1**

Where does 24th Street start?

**Question 2**

Which park is at 24th Street and Madison Avenue?

**Question 3**

Where does 25th Street end?

**Question 4**

Where do 24th and 25th streets continue after the interruption?

**Text number 21**

27th Street is a one-way street that runs from Second Avenue to the West Side Highway, stopping between Eighth Avenue and Tenth Avenue. It is particularly known for the strip between Tenth and Eleventh Avenues, known as Club Row because of the numerous nightclubs and lounges.

**Question 0**

On which street is Club Row located?

**Question 1**

Which area is known for its many nightclubs and lounges?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the strip of 27th Street between Tenth and Eleventh Avenues?

**Question 3**

Is 27th Street one-way or two-way?

**Question 4**

Where does 27th Street start?

**Text number 22**

In recent years, West 27th Street nightclubs have suffered from fierce competition from the Manhattan Meatpacking District some fifteen blocks south and other downtown Manhattan venues.

**Question 0**

How many blocks south of 27th Street is Manhattan's Meatpacking District?

**Question 1**

Which 27th Street shops are competing with other downtown Manhattan locations?

**Question 2**

Which direction is the Manhattan Meatpacking District from West 27th Street?

**Text number 23**

To the east, 27th Street runs through Chelsea Park between Tenth and Ninth Avenues, and the Fashion Institute of Technology (FIT) is located at the corner of Eighth Avenue. On Madison Avenue, between 26th and 27th Streets, on the site of the old Madison Square Garden, is the New York Life Building, designed by Cass Gilbert in 1928 and built in 1928, with a striking gold pyramid atop its square tower. Twenty-seventh Street runs for a block north of Madison Square Park and ends at Bellevue Hospital Center on First Avenue.

**Question 0**

The Fashion Institute is on the corner of 27th Street and what Avenue?

**Question 1**

What year was the New York Life Building built?

**Question 2**

Who designed the New York Life Building?

**Question 3**

Which hospital is located at the end of 27th Street?

**Question 4**

Through which park does 27th Street run between Ninth Avenue and Tenth Avenue?

**Text number 24**

31st Street begins on the West Side at the West Side Yard, while 32nd Street, which includes the officially named Korean Way between Fifth Avenue and Broadway in Manhattan's Koreatown, begins at the entrance to Penn Station and Madison Square Garden. On the East Side, both streets end at Second Avenue at the Kips Bay Towers and NYU Medical Center, located between 30th Street and 34th Street. St. Francis of Assisi Catholic Church is located at 135-139 West 31st Street. At 210 West is the St. John the Baptist Capuchin Monastery, which is part of the St. John the Baptist Church on 30th Street. At the corner of Broadway and West 31st Street is the Grand Hotel. The former Hotel Pierrepont was located at 43 West 32nd Street, the Continental NYC tower is at the corner of Sixth Avenue and 32nd Street. 29 East 32nd Street was the site of the first building owned by the Grolier Club from 1890 to 1917.

**Question 0**

Where does 31st Street start?

**Question 1**

Which church is located at 135-139 West 31st Street?

**Question 2**

Who owned the building at 29 East 32nd Street between 1890 and 1917?

**Question 3**

Which business is located at the corner of Broadway and West 31st Street?

**Question 4**

Which religious centre is located at 210 West?

**Text number 25**

35th Street runs from FDR Drive to Eleventh Avenue. Notable destinations include the East River Ferry, LaptopMD headquarters, Mercy College Manhattan campus and the Jacob K. Javits Convention Center.

**Question 0**

Where does 35th Street start?

**Question 1**

Where does 35th Street end?

**Question 2**

On which street is the LaptopMD headquarters located?

**Question 3**

On which street is the Jacob K. Javits Convention Center located?

**Question 4**

Which street runs from FDR Drive to Eleventh Avenue?

**Text number 26**

The section of East 58th Street at 40°45′40,3″N 73°57′56,9″W / 40.761194°N 73.965806°W / 40.761194; -73.965806 Located between Lexington and Second Avenue, known as Designers' Way, it is home to a number of high-end interior design and furnishing stores, including

**Question 0**

What is the stretch of East 58th Street between Lexington Avenue and Second Avenue?

**Question 1**

Which part of Eat 58th Street has high-end interior design shops?

**Question 2**

Designers' Way is located on East 58th Street between Lexington and which other Avenue?

**Text number 27**

90th Street is divided into two parts. The first segment, West 90th Street, begins at Riverside Drive and ends at Central Park West, or West Drive when open, in Central Park on the Upper West Side. The second segment, East 90th Street, begins at East Drive, at the Engineers Gate in Central Park. When East Drive is closed, East 90th Street begins at Fifth Avenue on the Upper East Side and curves to the right at FDR Drive, becoming East End Avenue. Our Lady of Good Counsel Church, located on East 90th Street between Third Avenue and Second Avenue, across from Ruppert Towers (1601 and 1619 Third Avenue) and Ruppert Park. Asphalt Green, located on East 90th Street between York Avenue and East End Avenue.

**Question 0**

Which street starts at East Drive, the Engineers' Gate in Central Park?

**Question 1**

Which church is located on East 90th Street between Second and Third Avenues?

**Question 2**

Which towers are located at 1601 and 1619 Third Avenue?

**Question 3**

What is on East 90th Street between York Avenue and East End Avenue?

**Text number 28**

112th Street starts in Morningside Heights and runs from Riverside Drive to Amsterdam Avenue, where it meets the steps of St. John's Cathedral. The street continues along the eastern edge of Morningside Park and continues through Harlem before ending at First Avenue next to Thomas Jefferson Park in East Harlem. Places of interest include:

**Question 0**

Where does 112th Street start?

**Question 1**

Which street runs from Riverside Drive to Amsterdam Avenue?

**Question 2**

Which road leads to the steps of St John's Cathedral?

**Text number 29**

114th Street is the southern boundary of Columbia University's Morningside Heights campus, and is home to the Butler Library, the largest library at the university.

**Question 0**

What is the largest library at Columbia University?

**Question 1**

Which university's Morningside Heights campus has 114th Street as its southern boundary?

**Question 2**

114th Street runs along the boundary of which Columbia University Morningside Heights campus?

**Text number 30**

Above 114th Street between Amsterdam Avenue and Morningside Drive is a private internal pedestrian bridge connecting two buildings on the St. Luke's-Roosevelt Hospital Center campus.

**Question 0**

Which street has a private internal pedestrian bridge between Amsterdam Avenue and Morningside Drive?

**Question 1**

Aove 114th Street is a private pedestrian bridge connecting two buildings by which organization?

**Question 2**

Which road is spanned by the bridge that connects the two buildings of St. Luke's-Roosevelt Hospital Center?

**Text number 31**

40°48′27″N 73°57′18″W / 40.8076°N 73.9549°W / 40.8076; -73.9549 120th Street runs through the Morningside Heights, Harlem and Spanish Harlem neighborhoods. It begins at Riverside Drive at the Interchurch Center. It then runs east between the campuses of Barnard College and Union Theological Seminary, crosses Broadway and runs between the campuses of Columbia University and Teacher's College. The street is interrupted by Morningside Park. It then continues east and eventually runs along the southern edge of Marcus Garvey Park, passing 58 West, the former residence of Maya Angelou. Once it crosses Pleasant Avenue, it becomes a two-way street and continues almost to the East River, where it turns north and becomes Paladino Avenue, and for pedestrians it continues as a bridge over FDR Drive.

**Question 0**

Where does 120th Street start?

**Question 1**

At the beginning of which street is the Interchurch Center?

**Question 2**

Morningside Park cuts off which street?

**Question 3**

Who used to live at 58 West?

**Question 4**

120th Street turns into Paladino Avenue and the pedestrian bridge over which road?

**Text number 32**

40°48′32″N 73°57′14″W / 40.8088°N 73.9540°W / 40.8088; -73.9540 122nd Street is divided by Marcus Garvey Memorial Park and Morningside Park into three non-compatible segments, E 122nd Street, W 122nd Street and W 122nd Street Seminary Row.

**Question 0**

Which memorial park shares 122nd Street?

**Question 1**

Which park shares 122nd Street with Marcus Garvey Memorial Park?

**Question 2**

How many segments is 122nd Street divided into?

**Question 3**

Are the three segments of 122nd Street adjacent or not?

**Text number 33**

E 122nd Street runs four blocks (2,250 feet (690 m)) west from the intersection of Second Avenue to the intersection of Madison Avenue at Marcus Garvey Memorial Park. This segment runs in East Harlem and crosses portions of Third Avenue, Lexington and Park (Fourth Avenue).

**Question 0**

How many blocks west of Second Avenue does E 122nd Street run?

**Question 1**

Which park is the end of E 122nd Street?

**Question 2**

At which intersection does E 122nd Street end?

**Question 3**

What is the second name of Fourth Avenue?

**Question 4**

Which part of the street intersects with Third Avenue, Lexington and Park and runs through East Harlem?

**Text number 34**

W 122nd Street runs six blocks (3,280 feet (1,000 m)) west from the Mount Morris Park West intersection at Marcus Garvey Memorial Park to the Morningside Avenue intersection at Morningside Park. This segment runs through the Mount Morris Historic District and crosses Lenox Avenue (Sixth Avenue), Seventh Avenue, Frederick Douglass Boulevard (Eighth Avenue), and portions of Manhattan Avenue.

**Question 0**

At which intersection does W 122nd Street end?

**Question 1**

Which park is the end of W 122nd Street?

**Question 2**

How many blocks west of the Mount Morris Park intersection is W 122nd Street?

**Question 3**

Which historic district does W 122nd Street run through?

**Question 4**

What is the alternative name for Sixth Avenue?

**Text number 35**

W 122nd Street Seminary Row runs three blocks (460 m) west from the intersection of Amsterdam Avenue (Tenth Avenue) to the intersection of Riverside Drive. On the east side of Amsterdam, Seminary Row curves south along Morningside Park and splits off at Morningside Drive (Ninth Avenue). Seminary Row runs through Morningside Heights, the neighborhood surrounding Columbia University, and crosses parts of Broadway and Claremont Avenue.

**Question 0**

What is another name for Tenth Avenue?

**Question 1**

At which intersection does W 122nd Street end?

**Question 2**

What is another name for Ninth Avenue?

**Question 3**

What area surrounds Columbia University?

**Text number 36**

Seminary Row is named after the Union Theological Seminary and the Jewish Theological Seminary, which it adjoins. Seminary Row also passes the Manhattan School of Music, Riverside Church, Sakura Park, Grant's Tomb and Morningside Park.

**Question 0**

What other seminary besides Union Theological Seminary is on Seminary Row?

**Question 1**

What seminar other than the Jewish Theological Seminary touches Seminary Row?

**Question 2**

Which way past the two seminaries, the Manhattan School of Music, Riverside Church and Grant's Tomb?

**Text number 37**

In the film Taxi Driver, the main character Travis Bickle mentions 122nd Street as the place where a fellow taxi driver was attacked with a knife. Another character named Wizard refers to the street and the surrounding Harlem neighborhood as "Mau Mau Land," which is slang for an area populated by a black majority.

**Question 0**

Who is the main character in Taxi Driver?

**Question 1**

Which street is mentioned in the film Taxi Driver as the place where a taxi driver is beaten up?

**Question 2**

Which character in the film Taxi Driver thought 122nd Street was "Mau Mau land"?

**Question 3**

What name does Wizard call 122nd Street in the Taxi Driver book, which shows that the area is populated by a majority of blacks?

**Question 4**

Which district surrounds 122nd Street?

**Text number 38**

40°48′47″N 73°57′27″W / 40.813°N 73.9575°W / 40.813; -73.9575 La Salle Street is a street in West Harlem that runs just two blocks between Amsterdam Avenue and Claremont Avenue. West of Convent Avenue, 125th Street was rerouted to old Manhattan Avenue. The original 125th Street west of Convent Avenue was gobbled up to create the super-blocks that now house low-income housing projects. La Salle Street is the only remnant of the original alignment.

**Question 0**

Which street in West Harlem runs just two blocks between Amersterdam Avenue and Claremont Avenue?

**Question 1**

La Salle Street runs between Amsterdam Avenue and which other Avenue?

**Question 2**

In which district does La Salle Street pass?

**Question 3**

Which street was gobbled up for low-income housing projects?

**Question 4**

Which street is the only area left of the route to old Manhattan Avenue?

**Text number 39**

40°48′52″N 73°56′53″W / 40.814583°N 73.947944°W / 40.814583; -73.947944 132nd Street runs east-west above Central Park and is located in Harlem south of Hamilton Heights.The main portion of 132nd Street runs east from Frederick Douglass Boulevard to the north end of Park Avenue, where there is a southbound interchange with Harlem River Drive. After the intersection of St. Nicholas Park and City College, there is still a small stretch of West 132nd Street between Broadway and Twelfth Avenue.

**Question 0**

Between Broadway and Twelfth Avenue, which is a small stretch of road?

**Question 1**

Which main road runs eastbound from Frederick Douglass Boulevard to Park Avenue?

**Question 2**

Which street is the exit and entrance to the southbound Harlem River Drive?

**Question 3**

West 132nd Street is intersected by St. Nicholas Park and which college?

**Question 4**

West 132nd Street is cut off by City College and which park?

**Text number 40**

The 132nd Street Community Garden is located on 132nd Street in the Adam Clayton Powell Jr. Boulevard and Malcolm X Boulevard. In 1997, the plot received a garden overhaul; the Borough President's office funded the installation of a $100,000 water distribution system that keeps many of the trees green. The garden also features a goldfish pond and several benches. Neighbourhood spirit is alive in gardens like this, planted and tended by local residents.

**Question 0**

Who looks after the 132nd Street Community Garden?

**Question 1**

132nd Street Community Garden is located between Malcom X Boulevard and which other boulevard?

**Question 2**

What year was the water supply system in the garden redone?

**Question 3**

Who funded the 132nd Street Community Garden water supply system?

**Question 4**

How much did the 132nd Street Community Garden water system cost?

**Text number 41**

The Manhattanville Bus Depot (formerly known as the 132nd Street Bus Depot) is located at West 132nd and 133rd Streets between Broadway and Riverside Drive in the Manhattanville neighborhood.

**Question 0**

What is the current name of the 132nd Street Bus Depot?

**Question 1**

What was the Manhattanville bus depot formerly known as?

**Question 2**

In which borough is the Manhattanville bus depot located?

**Question 3**

The former 132nd Street bus depot is located between Broadway and which other station in Manhattanville?

**Text number 42**

155th Street is a major thoroughfare that is considered the boundary between Harlem and Washington Heights. It is the northernmost of the streets mapped in the Commissioner's Plan of 1811155 that created the numbered street grid of Manhattan.

**Question 0**

How many cross streets are shown on the 1811 Commissioner's plan?

**Question 1**

Which street is the northernmost of the streets mapped in the 1811 Commissioner's Plan?

**Question 2**

Which street forms the boundary between Harlem and Washington Heights?

**Question 3**

Which document established the numbered street grid in Manhattan?

**Question 4**

155th Street is the boundary between Harlem and which other part of the city?

**Text number 43**

155th Street starts on the west side of Riverside Drive and crosses Broadway, Amsterdam Avenue and St. Nicholas Avenue. At St. Nicholas Place, the terrain drops steeply, and 155th Street runs along a 1,600-foot (490 m) viaduct, a city landmark built in 1893, which descends toward the Harlem River and continues to the Macombs Dam Bridge, which crosses (but does not intersect) Harlem River Drive. A separate, unconnected section of 155th Street runs under the viaduct, connecting Bradhurst Avenue and Harlem River Drive.

**Question 0**

Where does 155th Street start?

**Question 1**

155th Street intersects with Broadway, Amsterdam Avenue and which other Avenue?

**Question 2**

How many metres long is the viaduct that 155th Street crosses?

**Question 3**

What year was the 155th Street viaduct built?

**Question 4**

Part of 155th Street connects Harlem River Drive and which Avenue?

**Text number 44**

181st Street is a major thoroughfare through the Washington Heights neighborhood. It runs from the Washington Bridge on the east to Henry Hudson Parkway on the west, near the George Washington Bridge and the Hudson River. The western end is called Plaza Lafayette.

**Question 0**

What part of the city does 181st Street run through?

**Question 1**

What is the west end of 181st Street?

**Question 2**

Does Plaza Lafayette refer to the east or west end of 181st Street?

**Question 3**

Which river is 181st Street near?

**Question 4**

Which road runs from the Washington Bridge to the Henry Hudson Parkway?

**Text number 45**

West of Fort Washington Avenue, 181st Street is a largely residential street bordering Hudson Heights, with a few shops serving local residents. East of Fort Washington Avenue, the street becomes increasingly commercial, dominated entirely by retail as it reaches Broadway and continues as such to the Harlem River. It is the main shopping area in the area.

**Question 0**

In which direction is 181st Street largely residential?

**Question 1**

Which way is 181st Street mostly commercial?

**Question 2**

Which street forms the western boundary of the shopping area?

**Question 3**

Which river touches a large shopping area near 181st Street?

**Text number 46**

181st Street is served by two New York City subway lines: the 181st Street station at Fort Washington Avenue on the IND Eighth Avenue line (A trains) and the 181st Street station at St. Nicholas Avenue on the IRT Broadway - Seventh Avenue line (1 trains). The stations are approximately 500 meters (550 yd) apart and are not connected. The George Washington Bridge bus terminal is a few blocks south on Fort Washington Avenue. 181st Street is also the last south/west interchange on the Trans-Manhattan Expressway (I-95) in New York City just before crossing the George Washington Bridge into New Jersey.

**Question 0**

How many subway lines serve 181st Street?

**Question 1**

How many metres are the two 181st Street subway stations from each other?

**Question 2**

Which street is the George Wasington Bridge bus terminal on?

**Question 3**

Which road is the last south/west exit of the Trans-Manhattan Expressway?

**Text number 47**

187th Street crosses Washington Heights and runs from Laurel Hill Terrace on the east to Chittenden Avenue on the west near the George Washington Bridge and the Hudson River. The street is interrupted by a long staircase on the east side of Fort Washington Avenue that leads to the Broadway Valley. West of there, it is mostly lined with store fronts and serves as the main shopping area in the Hudson Heights neighborhood.

**Question 0**

187th Street runs from Laurel Hill Terrace on the east to which street on the west?

**Question 1**

Where does 187th Street stop?

**Question 2**

Where do the stairs that cut off 187th Street lead to?

**Question 3**

Which district's main shopping area is the 187th Street area?

**Text number 48**

From east to west, 187th Street intersects Laurel Hill Terrace, Amsterdam Avenue, Audubon Avenue, St. Nicholas Avenue, Wadsworth Avenue, Broadway, Bennett Avenue, Overlook Terrace, Fort Washington Avenue, Pinehurst Avenue, Cabrini Boulevard and Chittenden Avenue.

**Question 0**

What is the easternmost intersection of 187th Street?

**Question 1**

What is the westernmost intersection of 187th Street?

**Question 2**

Which street does Wadsworth Avenue intersect with?

**Text number 49**

187th Street's many institutions include the Mount Sinai Jewish Center, the Dombrov Shtiebel and the Yeshiva University campus. The local public elementary school, P.S. 187, is located on Cabrini Boulevard, just north of 187th Street.

**Question 0**

Which school is located on Cabrini Boulevard?

**Question 1**

What street is Dombrov Shtiebel on?

**Question 2**

Which university campus is located on 187th Street?

**Question 3**

Which street is north of Cabrini Boulevard?

**Question 4**

On which street is the Mount Sinai Jewish Center located?

**Document number 84**

**Text number 0**

The brain is the nerve centre of all vertebrates and most invertebrates. Only a few invertebrates, such as sponges, jellyfish, adult marine molluscs and starfish, do not have brains; instead they have fragmented or localised neural networks. The brain is located in the head, usually close to the primary sense organs that sense such things as sight, hearing, balance, taste and smell. The brain is the most complex organ in the vertebrate body. In a typical human, the cerebral cortex (most of it) contains an estimated 15 to 33 billion nerve cells, each of which is connected by synapses to several thousand other nerve cells. Neurons communicate with each other via long protoplasmic fibres called axons, which carry signal impulses called action potentials to distant parts of the brain or body, targeting specific recipient cells.

**Question 0**

What is the centre of the nervous system of all creatures?

**Question 1**

What is the most complex organ in the animal body?

**Question 2**

How many neurons are there in the human cerebral cortex?

**Question 3**

Nerve cells in the brain interact with each other by fibres called what?

**Question 4**

What are some invertebrates that have no brain?

**Text number 1**

Physiologically, the brain's role is to centrally control other organs in the body. The brain influences the rest of the body both by creating patterns of muscle activity and by controlling the secretion of chemicals called hormones. This centralised control enables rapid and coordinated responses to changes in the environment. Some basic types of reactivity, such as reflexes, can be mediated by the spinal cord or peripheral ganglia, but sophisticated and appropriate control of behaviour based on complex sensations requires the information integration capabilities of the central brain.

**Question 0**

Which organ in the body controls the secretion of hormones?

**Question 1**

What kind of responsiveness can be used without a brain?

**Question 2**

Reflexes require only one of two which structures in the body?

**Text number 2**

The function of individual brain cells is now understood in some detail, but how they work together in ensembles of millions of cells has not yet been solved. Recent models in modern neuroscience treat the brain as a biological computer, which is mechanistically very different from an electronic computer, but similar in the sense that it acquires information about the world around it, stores it and processes it in many different ways, analogous to a computer's central processing unit (CPU).

**Question 0**

What part of the computer brain is most like?

**Text number 3**

This article compares brain characteristics across the whole range of animal species, with the main focus on vertebrates. It discusses the human brain insofar as it shares characteristics with other brains. The ways in which the human brain differs from other brains are discussed in the Human Brain article. Several topics that could be covered here are instead covered in this article, as much more can be said about them in the human context. The most important of these is brain disease and the effects of brain damage, which are discussed in the Human Brain article because the most common human brain diseases either do not occur in other species or occur in different ways.

**Question 0**

What are animals with a backbone called?

**Text number 4**

Brain shape and size vary greatly between species, and it is often difficult to identify common features. However, there are some principles of brain architecture that apply to a wide range of species. Some parts of the brain architecture are common to almost all animal species, while others distinguish 'evolved' brains from more primitive ones or vertebrates from invertebrates.

**Question 0**

What are animals without a backbone called?

**Text number 5**

The simplest way to learn about brain anatomy is by visual inspection, but many more sophisticated techniques have been developed. Brain tissue is too soft in its natural state to be worked on, but it can be hardened by immersion in alcohol or other fixative and then cut into pieces for examination of the inner parts. Visually, the inside of the brain is made up of what is known as grey matter, dark in colour with lighter white matter in between. Further information can be obtained by staining slices of brain tissue with different chemicals that highlight areas where certain types of molecules are present in high concentrations. It is also possible to study the microstructure of brain tissue under a microscope and trace the pattern of connections from one brain region to another.

**Question 0**

What is the easiest way to learn about the anatomy of the brain?

**Question 1**

Brain tissue is naturally soft, but it can be stiffened by what fluid?

**Question 2**

Which colours are the two main areas of the brain?

**Question 3**

What instrument can you use to study the microstructure of the brain?

**Question 4**

What colour is the grey matter in the brain?

**Text number 6**

The brains of all species are mainly made up of two broad categories of cells: neurons and glial cells. There are several types of glial cells (also called glia or neuroglia) and they have several critical functions, such as structural support, metabolic support, insulation and developmental control. However, neurons are generally considered to be the most important cells in the brain. What makes neurons unique is their ability to send signals to specific target cells over long distances. They send these signals by means of an axon, a thin protoplasmic filament that extends from the cell body and is usually extended by numerous branches to other regions, sometimes close, sometimes far away in the brain or body. The length of an axon can be exceptionally long: for example, if a cortical pyramidal cell (excitatory neuron) were enlarged so that its cell body was the size of a human body, its axon, when similarly enlarged, would become a cable a few centimetres in diameter, stretching over a kilometre. These axons transmit signals as electrochemical pulses, called action potentials, which last less than a thousandth of a second and travel along the axon at a speed of 1-100 metres per second. Some neurons emit action potentials continuously, at 10-100 per second, usually in irregular patterns; other neurons are silent most of the time but emit an occasional action potential burst.

**Question 0**

The brains of organisms are mainly made up of which two cell types?

**Question 1**

Glial cells are also called what?

**Question 2**

Which of the two broad classes of cells: neurons and glial cells, send signals to other cells?

**Question 3**

Axons send signals called what?

**Question 4**

What is the typical speed at which axons send their electrical signals?

**Text number 7**

Axons transmit signals to other neurons through specialised connections called synapses. A single axon can form up to several thousand synaptic connections with other cells. When an action potential passing along an axon reaches a synapse, it triggers the release of a chemical called a neurotransmitter. The neurotransmitter binds to receptor molecules on the membrane of the target cell.

**Question 0**

Axons send signals to other neurons through connections called what?

**Question 1**

The neurotransmitter binds to which target cell?

**Question 2**

How many other cells can an axon be attached to?

**Text number 8**

Synapses are key functional elements of the brain. Communication between cells is an essential function of the brain, and synapses are the sites where communication takes place. It is estimated that there are about 100 trillion synapses in the human brain; even the fruit fly brain has several million synapses. These synapses have very different functions: some are excitatory (stimulating the target cell), others inhibitory, and still others act by activating secondary messaging systems that alter the internal chemistry of their target cells in complex ways. A large proportion of synapses are dynamically malleable, i.e. they can change their intensity in ways that are controlled by the patterns of signals that pass through them. It is generally believed that synapse activity-dependent modification is the primary mechanism of learning and memory in the brain.

**Question 0**

How many synapses are there supposed to be in the human brain?

**Question 1**

How many synapses are there in the fruit fly brain?

**Question 2**

What is called a synapse, which is designed to excite the target cell?

**Question 3**

What is the primary function of the brain?

**Text number 9**

Most of the brain's space is taken up by axons, which are often bundled together in what are known as nerve fibres. An axon is wrapped in myelin, a fatty insulating myelin sheath that greatly increases the speed of signal propagation (there are also unmyelinated axons). Myelin is white, which is why parts of the brain containing only nerve fibres appear as a pale white substance, in contrast to the dark grey substance that marks areas with many nerve cell cell fragments.

**Question 0**

What are called grouped axons?

**Question 1**

Where to wrap an axon that can significantly increase the speed of signals?

**Question 2**

What colour is myelin in the brain?

**Question 3**

Most of the brain's space is made up of which structures?

**Question 4**

What is the grey matter in the brain made of?

**Text number 10**

With the exception of a few primitive organisms such as fungi (which have no nervous system) and molluscs (which have a nervous system consisting of a fragmented network of nerves), all living multicellular animals are bipedal, i.e. animals with a bilaterally symmetrical body shape (i.e. left and right sides are roughly mirror images of each other). All bipeds are believed to be descended from a common ancestor that appeared early in the Cambrian period 485-540 million years ago, and it is assumed that this common ancestor was a simple tubeworm with a segmented body. At a schematic level, this basic worm shape is still reflected in the body and nervous system structure of all modern bipeds, including vertebrates. The basic bivalve body form is a tube with a hollow intestinal cavity from mouth to anus and a nerve cord with an extension (ganglion) towards each body segment, with a particularly large ganglion at the front, called the brain. In some species, such as nematodes, the brain is small and simple; in others, such as vertebrates, it is the most complex organ in the body. Some species of worms, such as leeches, also have an enlarged ganglion at the back end of the neural node, called the 'tail brain'.

**Question 0**

What are creatures with a diffuse nervous system called?

**Question 1**

Bilaterians are animals with what?

**Question 2**

How long ago was the Cambrian period?

**Question 3**

What is called an enlarged nerve fibre?

**Question 4**

Which type of creature also has a nerve node at the back end of the nerve node?

**Text number 11**

There are a few existing bicoloured animals that do not have identifiable brains, such as echinoderms, tunicates and acoelomorphs (a group of primitive flatworms). It has not been definitively established whether the existence of these brainless species indicates that the earliest bipedal animals had no brain, or whether their ancestors evolved in a way that led to the loss of the pre-existing brain structure.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the group of primitive flatworms?

**Question 1**

What are some brainless bipeds?

**Text number 12**

Two groups of invertebrates have particularly complex brains: arthropods (insects, crustaceans, arachnids and others) and cephalopods (octopuses, squid and similar molluscs). The brain of arthropods and cephalopods consists of two parallel nerve fibres that extend through the body of the animal. Arthropods have a trigeminal midbrain and large optic lobes behind each eye for processing the visual brain. Cephalopods, such as octopuses and squid, have the largest brains of all invertebrates.

**Question 0**

Which two groups of invertebrates have complex brains?

**Question 1**

Arthropods and cephalopods have brains that originate from which pair?

**Question 2**

Which two animals are the invertebrates with the largest brains?

**Text number 13**

There are several invertebrate species whose brains have been intensively studied because their characteristics are well suited to experimental work:

**Question 0**

Which brain is easier to work on, vertebrates or invertebrates?

**Text number 14**

The first vertebrates appeared more than 500 million years ago (Mya) in the Cambrian period, and may have resembled the shape of the modern hagfish. Sharks appeared around 450 Mya, amphibians around 400 Mya, reptiles around 350 Mya and mammals around 200 Mya. Each species has an equally long evolutionary history, but the brains of modern kiwis, lampreys, sharks, amphibians, reptiles and mammals show a gradual variation in size and complexity that roughly follows an evolutionary sequence. All these brains share the same basic anatomical elements, but many of them are rudimentary in bullfishes, whereas in mammals the anterior part (telencephalon) is highly developed and enlarged.

**Question 0**

How long ago did the first vertebrate organisms appear?

**Question 1**

During which scientific period did vertebrates appear?

**Question 2**

Sharks appeared around how many Mya?

**Question 3**

What is the anterior part of the mammalian brain?

**Question 4**

At how many mya did mammals first appear?

**Text number 15**

The simplest way to compare brains is by their size. The relationship between brain size, body size and other variables has been studied in many vertebrate species. As a rule, brain size increases with body size, but not in a simple linear relationship. In general, smaller animals tend to have larger brains, measured as a proportion of body size. In mammals, the relationship between brain volume and body mass follows essentially a power law with an exponent of about 0.75. This formula describes the basic trend, but each mammalian family deviates from it to some extent, partly reflecting the complexity of their behaviour. For example, the primate brain is 5-10 times larger than the formula predicts. Predators tend to have larger brains than their prey relative to body size.

**Question 0**

Do predators have bigger or smaller brains than prey?

**Question 1**

In mammals, brain volume and body mass obey a power law whose exponent is what?

**Question 2**

Which group of animals has a brain 5-10 times larger than the formula predicts?

**Text number 16**

All vertebrate brains share a common basic shape, which is most apparent in the early stages of embryonic development. In its earliest form, the brain appears as three swellings at the front of the neural tube; these swellings eventually form the forebrain, midbrain and hindbrain (prosencephalon, mesencephalon and rhombencephalon). In the earliest stages of brain development, these three areas are roughly equal in size. In many classes of vertebrates, such as fish and amphibians, these three parts remain the same size as adults, but in mammals the forebrain becomes much larger than the other parts and the midbrain very small.

**Question 0**

What is called forebrain during development?

**Question 1**

What is called midbrain development?

**Question 2**

What is called the back of the head during development?

**Question 3**

Which animal group's forebrain grows the largest?

**Question 4**

During development, the brain is made up of three swellings, located in front of which?

**Text number 17**

The vertebrate brain is very soft tissue. The living brain tissue is pinkish outside and mostly white inside, but with slight variations in colour. The vertebrate brain is surrounded by a system of connective tissue called the meninges, which separate the skull from the brain. Blood vessels enter the central nervous system through holes in the layers of the meninges. The cells in the vascular walls are tightly interconnected to form a blood-brain barrier that blocks the passage of many toxins and pathogens (but also blocks the passage of antibodies and some drugs, which poses particular challenges in the treatment of brain diseases).

**Question 0**

What colour is living brain tissue?

**Question 1**

What colour are the brains inside?

**Question 2**

Which tissue system surrounds the brain?

**Question 3**

What structure separates the meninges from the brain?

**Question 4**

What is a blood-brain barrier made of?

**Text number 18**

Neuroanatomists generally divide the vertebrate brain into six main regions: the telencephalon (cerebral hemispheres), the diencephalon (thalamus and hypothalamus), the mesencephalon (midbrain), the cerebellum, the pons and the medulla oblongata. Each of these areas has a complex internal structure. Some parts, such as the cortex and cerebellum, are made up of layers that are folded or twisted to fit into the space available. Other parts, such as the thalamus and hypothalamus, are made up of clusters of many small nuclei. In the vertebrate brain, thousands of distinct regions can be identified based on subtle differences in neural structure, chemistry and connectivity.

**Question 0**

What are people who study the anatomy of the central nervous system called?

**Question 1**

What are the hemispheres of the brain?

**Question 2**

What are the thalamus and hypothalamus in the brain?

**Question 3**

What is called the midbrain area of the brain?

**Question 4**

What parts of the brain are made up of clusters of small nuclei?

**Text number 19**

Although all vertebrate brains have the same basic components, some branches of vertebrate evolution have led to significant distortions in brain geometry, particularly in the forebrain. In the shark brain, the basic components appear straight, but in teleost fish (most modern fish species) the forebrain is "turned", like a sock on the back. In birds, too, there are major changes in the structure of the forebrain. These distortions can make it difficult to match parts of the brain of one species with parts of the brain of another.

**Question 0**

What types of fish have their forebrain turned?

**Question 1**

Which part of the brain has led to many distortions in different species?

**Text number 20**

The most obvious difference between the brains of mammals and other vertebrates is their size. On average, the brain of a mammal is about twice as large as that of a bird of the same size and ten times larger than that of a reptile of the same size.

**Question 0**

How many times larger is a mammal's brain than a bird's in relation to the size of its body?

**Question 1**

How many times larger is a mammal's brain in relation to the size of its body?

**Question 2**

What is the main difference between the brain of mammals and other vertebrates?

**Text number 21**

But size is not the only difference: there are also significant differences in shape. The hind and mid-brains of mammals are generally similar to those of other vertebrates, but the dramatic differences are seen in the forebrain, which is much larger and also has a different structure. The cerebral cortex is the part of the brain that most strongly distinguishes mammals from each other. In non-mammalian vertebrates, the surface of the brain is lined by a relatively simple three-layered structure called the pallium. In mammals, the pallium develops into a complex six-layered structure called the neocortex or isocortex. Several areas at the edge of the neocortex, such as the hippocampus and amygdala, are also much more extensively developed in mammals than in other vertebrates.

**Question 0**

Which part of the brain most strongly distinguishes mammals from other vertebrates?

**Question 1**

What is called the three-layered structure covering the non-mammalian brain?

**Question 2**

Mammals have pallium, which is related to what?

**Question 3**

The hippocampus and amygdala are inside which structure?

**Text number 22**

The development of the cerebral cortex brings with it changes in other brain areas. The superior colliculus, which plays a major role in the visual control of behaviour in most vertebrates, shrinks in mammals and many of its functions become the responsibility of visual areas of the cortex. The mammalian cerebellum has a large part (the neocerebellum) dedicated to supporting the cortex and has no counterpart in other vertebrates.

**Question 0**

The superior colliculus is involved in which vertebrate sensory control?

**Question 1**

What is the larger part of the mammalian cerebellum?

**Question 2**

The neocerebellum supports what other part of the brain?

**Text number 23**

The brains of humans and other primates have the same structures as the brains of other mammals, but they tend to be larger in relation to body size. The most widely accepted way of comparing brain size between species is through the so-called encephalisation quotient (EQ), which takes into account the non-linearity of the brain-body relationship. The average human has an EQ of 7-8, while most other primates have an EQ of 2-3. Dolphins have higher EQs than other primates, but almost all other mammals have significantly lower EQs.

**Question 0**

What is most commonly used to compare brain size between different creatures?

**Question 1**

What is the average human EQ?

**Question 2**

What is the EQ range of the primates?

**Text number 24**

Most of the expansion of the primate brain is due to massive enlargement of the cerebral cortex, particularly the prefrontal cortex and parts of the visual cortex. The primate visual processing network comprises at least distinct30 brain areas with a complex network of interconnections. It is estimated that visual processing areas occupy more than half of the total surface area of the primate cortex. The prefrontal cortex is responsible for planning, working memory, motivation, attention and executive control, among other things. It occupies a much larger part of the primate brain than in other species and a particularly large part of the human brain.

**Question 0**

Primates have a visual processing network with how many brain areas?

**Question 1**

How much of the surface area of the neocortex or primate cortex is taken up by visual processing areas?

**Question 2**

Planning, motivation and attention are driven by which area?

**Question 3**

Which animals have the largest prefrontal cortex?

**Text number 25**

The early stages of vertebrate nervous system development are similar in all species. As the embryo transforms from a round cell fragment into a worm-like structure, a narrow strip of ectoderm along the midline of the back becomes a neural plate, the precursor of the nervous system. The neural plate folds inwards to form a neural groove, and then the lips flanking the groove fuse together to form the neural tube, a hollow conduit of cells with a fluid-filled ventricle at its centre. At the anterior end, the ventricles and the filament swell to form three vesicles, which are the precursors of the forebrain, midbrain and hindbrain. In the next stage, the forebrain divides into two vesicles called the telencephalon (containing the cortex, basal ganglia and associated structures) and the diencephalon (containing the thalamus and hypothalamus). At about the same time, the posterior brain is divided into the metencephalon (containing the cerebellum and pons) and the myelencephalon (containing the longitudinal nucleus pulposus). Each of these regions has proliferative zones where neurons and glial cells are generated; the resulting cells then migrate, sometimes over long distances, to their final locations.

**Question 0**

What is the precursor of the vertebrate nervous system?

**Question 1**

A nerve tract is a hollow wire of cells with a what in the middle?

**Question 2**

During development, the forebrain divides into vesicles, called why?

**Question 3**

What is a cortical vesicle?

**Question 4**

The thalamus and hypothalamus are included in which vesicle?

**Text number 26**

When a neuron is in place, it spreads dendrites and axons to the surrounding area. Axons grow in a particularly complex way because they usually extend far from the cell body and need to reach specific sites. The tip of a growing axon consists of a protoplasmic cloud called a growth cone, which is filled with chemical receptors. These receptors sense the local environment and cause the growth cone to attract or repel various cellular elements, pulling it in a specific direction at each point along its path. As a result of this route-finding process, the growth cone travels through the brain until it reaches its destination, where other chemical cues prompt it to begin synapse formation. Considering the whole brain, thousands of genes create products that influence the pathfinding of axons.

**Question 0**

The axon's growth cone is made up of a nodule, which consists of what?

**Question 1**

Which two structures does a neuron extend when it is stationary during development?

**Text number 27**

In humans and many other mammals, new nerve cells are mainly created before birth, and there are significantly more nerve cells in the infant brain than in the adult brain. However, there are some areas where new neurons continue to be generated throughout life. Two areas where adult neurogenesis is well established are the olfactory bulb, which is involved in olfaction, and the dentate gyrus of the hippocampus, where there is evidence that new neurons play a role in storing newly acquired memories. However, with these exceptions, the neurons that are present in early childhood are those that are present throughout life. Glial cells are different: like most cell types in the body, they are generated throughout life.

**Question 0**

What type of brain cells are more in a child's brain than in an adult's?

**Question 1**

What sense is the olfactory bulb associated with?

**Question 2**

Which region of the hippocampus plays a role in storing new memories?

**Question 3**

What types of cells are produced in the brain throughout life?

**Question 4**

Neurogenesis is the process of what?

**Text number 28**

Brain function depends on the ability of neurons to transmit electrochemical signals to other cells and to respond appropriately to electrochemical signals from other cells. The electrical properties of neurons are regulated by a variety of biochemical and metabolic processes, in particular by interactions between neurotransmitters and receptors at synapses.

**Question 0**

What controls the electrical properties of neurons?

**Question 1**

What kind of signals do neurons transmit from each other?

**Text number 29**

Neurotransmitters are chemicals that are released at synapses when they are activated by an action potential - neurotransmitters attach to receptor molecules on the membrane of the target cell of the synapse, thereby changing the electrical or chemical properties of the receptor molecules. With few exceptions, every nerve cell in the brain releases the same chemical neurotransmitter or neurotransmitter combination in all its synaptic connections with other nerve cells; this rule is called Dale's principle. A neuron can therefore be characterised by the neurotransmitters it releases. The vast majority of psychoactive drugs act by altering specific neurotransmitter systems. This is the case with cannabinoids, nicotine, heroin, cocaine, alcohol, fluoxetine, chlorpromazine and many other drugs.

**Question 0**

Chemicals called neurotransmitters are released in which part of the brain?

**Question 1**

Where do neurotransmitters attach?

**Question 2**

Neurons that release the same chemicals obey what rule?

**Text number 30**

The two neurotransmitters most commonly used in the vertebrate brain are glutamate, which almost always has an excitatory effect on target neurons, and gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA), which almost always has an inhibitory effect. Nerve cells that use these neurotransmitters are found in almost all parts of the brain. Because of their prevalence, drugs that act on glutamate or GABA tend to have broad and powerful effects. Some general anaesthetics act by reducing the effects of glutamate; most sedatives have a sedative effect by enhancing the effects of GABA.

**Question 0**

GABA is short for what?

**Question 1**

Which of the two neurotransmitters is usually inhibitory?

**Question 2**

What is known as the neurotransmitter that usually excites the targets?

**Question 3**

Which of the two common neurotransmitters are affected by sedatives?

**Text number 31**

There are dozens of other chemical neurotransmitters that are used in more restricted areas of the brain, often in areas dedicated to a specific function. For example, serotonin - the primary target of antidepressants and many nutrients - is derived exclusively from a small area of the brainstem called the raphe nucleus. Noradrenaline, which is involved in arousal, comes exclusively from a nearby small area called the locus coeruleus. Other neurotransmitters, such as acetylcholine and dopamine, have multiple sources in the brain, but are not as ubiquitous as glutamate and GABA.

**Question 0**

Which part of the brain does serotonin come from?

**Question 1**

Antidepressants typically affect which chemicals in the brain?

**Question 2**

Which brain chemical is involved in arousal?

**Question 3**

Noradrenaline comes from an area of the brain known as the what?

**Text number 32**

Brain tissue generates electrical fields as a side effect of the electrochemical processes used by neurons to transmit messages when it is active. When a large number of neurons show synchronised activity, the electric fields they produce can be large enough to be detected outside the skull by electroencephalography (EEG) or magnetoencephalography (MEG). EEG recordings, as well as recordings made using electrodes implanted in the brains of animals such as rats, show that the brain of a living animal is constantly active, even during sleep. Each part of the brain has a mixture of rhythmic and non-rhythmic activity, which can vary according to behavioural state. The mammalian cortex tends to display large slow delta waves during sleep, faster alpha waves when the animal is awake but inattentive, and chaotic-looking irregular activity when the animal is actively engaged in a task. During an epileptic seizure, the brain's inhibitory control mechanisms fail and electrical activity rises to pathological levels, causing the EEG to show large wave and spike patterns not seen in the healthy brain. Relating these population-level patterns to the computational functions of individual neurons is one of the current research priorities in neurophysiology.

**Question 0**

What does an EEG of the brain mean?

**Question 1**

Brain MEG is short for what?

**Question 2**

What test is used to determine if the brain is active even during sleep?

**Question 3**

What kind of brain waves are seen in mammals during sleep?

**Question 4**

What kind of brainwaves can be detected when a creature is awake but inattentive?

**Text number 33**

All vertebrates have a blood-brain barrier that allows metabolism in the brain to work differently from the rest of the body. Glial cells play an important role in brain metabolism by regulating the chemical composition of the fluid surrounding neurons, including the concentration of ions and nutrients.

**Question 0**

Which types of cells play a huge role in brain metabolism?

**Question 1**

Glial cells control what's inside the brain?

**Text number 34**

Brain tissue consumes a lot of energy relative to its volume, so large brains place high metabolic demands on animals. The need to limit body weight, for example for flight, has apparently led to a reduction in brain size in some species, such as bats. Most of the energy consumed by the brain goes into maintaining the electrical charge (membrane potential) of neurons. Most vertebrates use 2-8% of their basal metabolic rate for the brain. In primates, however, this proportion is much higher - in humans it is 20-25%. Brain energy expenditure does not vary much over time, but active areas of the cortex consume slightly more energy than inactive areas; this forms the basis of functional brain imaging techniques such as PET, fMRI and NIRS. The brain typically derives most of its energy from oxygen-dependent glucose (i.e. blood sugar) metabolism, but ketones are an important alternative energy source, with medium-chain fatty acids (caprylic and heptanoic acids), lactate, acetate and possibly amino acids contributing.

**Question 0**

Where does the brain usually get most of its energy from inside the body?

**Question 1**

What percentage of the energy used by the human brain for metabolism?

**Question 2**

What are other sources of energy for the brain other than glucose?

**Question 3**

How much of the metabolism of most vertebrates goes to the brain?

**Text number 35**

From an evolutionary biological point of view, the brain's role is to provide consistent guidance for the animal's actions. A centralised brain allows muscle groups to work together in complex patterns; it also allows stimuli to one part of the body to trigger responses in other parts of the body, and it can prevent different parts of the body from interfering with each other.

**Question 0**

What is the role of the brain in evolutionary biology?

**Text number 36**

The invention of electronic computers in the 1940s and the development of mathematical information theory led to the idea that the brain could potentially be understood as an information processing system. This concept formed the basis for the field of cybernetics, which eventually gave rise to what is now known as computational neuroscience. The earliest attempts at cybernetics were somewhat crude, treating the brain mainly as a digital computer, as in John von Neumann's 1958 book The Computer and the Brain. However, the accumulation over the years of knowledge about the electrical responses of brain cells recorded from behavioural animals has steadily moved the theoretical concepts in an increasingly realistic direction.

**Question 0**

In which decade were computers invented?

**Question 1**

Neuroscience has its origins in the history of which discipline?

**Question 2**

Who wrote the book The Computer and the Brain?

**Question 3**

When was John von Neumann's book The Computer and the Brain published?

**Text number 37**

The core of the cognitive approach is to try to understand how the brain works in terms of information flow and algorithm execution. One of the most influential early contributions was the 1959 paper What the frog's eye tells the frog's brain: it studied the visual responses of frog retinal and optic nerve cells and concluded that some frog optic nerve cells are wired to combine elementary responses in a way that causes them to act as 'fault detectors'. A few years later, David Hubel and Torsten Wiesel discovered cells in the primary visual cortex of monkeys that are activated when sharp edges move in certain areas of the visual field - a discovery that won them the Nobel Prize. Further studies in higher visual areas found cells that detect binocular disparity, colour, motion and shape, and areas further away from the primary visual cortex respond in increasingly complex ways. Other studies in non-visual brain regions have found cells with a wide range of response correlates, some related to memory and others to abstract cognition, such as spatial cognition.

**Question 0**

The scientific article What the frog's eye tells the frog's brain was published in what year?

**Question 1**

Who won the Nobel Prize for the discovery that monkey visual cortex cells are activated when sharp edges are moved?

**Text number 38**

Moreover, even single neurons appear to be complex and capable of performing computations. Brain models that do not capture this are therefore probably too abstract to represent brain activity; models that attempt to capture this are very computationally expensive and probably unfeasible with current computational resources. However, the Human Brain Project aims to build a realistic, detailed computational model of the whole human brain. It remains to be seen how well it will succeed within the project's timeframe, and its reasonableness has been debated in the public domain, with high-profile scientists on both sides of the controversy.

**Question 0**

What is the name of a project that attempts to build a realistic and detailed computer model of the human brain?

**Text number 39**

One of the primary functions of the brain is to extract biologically relevant information from sensory data. The human brain receives information about light, sound, atmospheric chemistry, temperature, head orientation, limb position, circulatory chemistry and more. Other animals may have other senses, such as the infrared heat sense in snakes, the magnetic field sense in some birds or the electric field sense in some fish species. In addition, other animals may develop existing sensory systems in new ways, such as bats that have adapted their sense of hearing into a kind of echolocation. In one way or another, all these sensory modalities are initially detected by specialised sensors that project signals to the brain.

**Question 0**

What kind of animal has a sense adapted for sonar?

**Question 1**

What kind of animal uses infrared heat for sensing?

**Question 2**

What is the group of animals that can detect magnetic fields?

**Question 3**

What is the group of creatures that can sense electric fields?

**Text number 40**

Each sensory system starts with specialised receptor cells, such as light-sensitive neurons in the retina of the eye, vibration-sensitive neurons in the inner ear or pressure-sensitive neurons in the skin. The axons of sensory receptor cells travel to the spinal cord or brain, where they transmit their signals to a first-order sensory nucleus dedicated to a particular sensory modality. This primary sensory nucleus sends information to higher sensory areas dedicated to the same modality. Finally, signals are sent via a pathway station in the thalamus to the cortex, where they are processed to extract biologically relevant features and combined with signals from other sensory systems.

**Question 0**

The neurons that receive light are located in which part of the eye?

**Question 1**

Are there sensitive neurons in which part of the ear?

**Question 2**

Signals are sent from the thalamus to which part of the brain?

**Text number 41**

Motor systems are areas of the brain that are directly or indirectly involved in the production of body movements, i.e. muscle activation. With the exception of the muscles that control the eye, which are controlled by nuclei in the midbrain, all voluntary muscles in the body are directly innervated by motor neurons in the spinal cord and occipital lobe. The spinal cord motoneurons are controlled both by the spinal cord's own neural circuits and by inputs from the brain. The spinal cord's internal circuits carry out many reflex responses and contain the pattern generators for rhythmic movements such as walking or swimming. The connections that descend from the brain allow for more sophisticated control.

**Question 0**

What part of the body is controlled by the nuclei in the midbrain?

**Question 1**

What controls all the muscles controlled by the body's motor neurons?

**Text number 42**

There are several motor areas in the brain that are directly reflected in the spinal cord. At the lowest level are motor areas in the brain stem and hemisphere that control stereotyped movements such as walking, breathing or swallowing. At a higher level are areas in the midbrain, such as the red nucleus, which is responsible for coordinating movements of the hands and feet. At an even higher level is the primary motor cortex, a strip of tissue located at the back of the frontal lobe. The primary motor cortex sends projections to subcortical motor areas, but it also sends a massive projection directly to the spinal cord via the pyramidal tract. This direct corticospinal projection allows precise voluntary control of fine details of movement. Other motor-related brain areas have secondary effects that are projected to primary motor areas. The most important secondary areas are the premotor cortex, basal ganglia and cerebellum.

**Question 0**

Which motor areas of the brain control breathing and swallowing?

**Question 1**

Which areas are at the lowest level of the brain and spinal cord?

**Question 2**

The red nucleus controls which part(s) of the body?

**Question 3**

What is the strip of tissue at the edge of the frontal lobe called?

**Question 4**

How does the primary motor cortex send signals to the spinal cord?

**Text number 43**

In addition to all of the above, the brain and spinal cord have extensive circuitry to control the autonomic nervous system, which works by secreting hormones and regulating the 'smooth' muscles of the gut. The autonomic nervous system influences heart rate, digestion, respiratory rate, salivation, sweating, urination, sexual arousal and many other processes. Most of its functions are not under direct voluntary control.

**Question 0**

The brain and spinal cord work together to control which body system?

**Question 1**

Which system in your body regulates your heart rate?

**Question 2**

Which body system regulates salivation?

**Question 3**

What are most often called autonomic nervous system processes?

**Question 4**

Which body system controls urination?

**Text number 44**

The central part of the waking system is the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN), a small part of the hypothalamus located directly above the junction of the optic nerves in the eyes. The SCN contains the body's central biological clock. Its nerve cells have activity levels that rise and fall in approximately 24-hour periods, or circadian rhythms: these activity fluctuations are due to rhythmic changes in the expression of certain 'clock genes'. The SCN continues to keep the clock even when it is detached from the brain and placed in a container of warm nutrient solution, but it normally receives optic nerve input via the retinohypothalamus (RHT), where daily cycles of light and darkness calibrate the clock.

**Question 0**

Nervous system SCN is an abbreviation for what?

**Question 1**

The suprachiasmatic nucleus is a small part of what part of the brain?

**Question 2**

Which part of the arousal system controls the body's biological clock?

**Question 3**

RHT is short for what?

**Question 4**

The SCN receives information from the optic nerves through what?

**Text number 45**

SCN projects target areas of the hypothalamus, brainstem and midbrain involved in sleep-wake cycles. An important part of the system is the reticular formation, a group of nerve cell clusters scattered in the nucleus of the lower brain. Reticular neurons send signals to the thalamus, which in turn sends signals that regulate activity levels to all parts of the cortex. Damage to the reticular formation can cause a permanent coma.

**Question 0**

What is called a group of scattered clusters of neurons in the nucleus of the lower brain?

**Question 1**

Reticular neurons transmit signals to which part of the brain?

**Question 2**

Damage to the reticular formation can cause what?

**Question 3**

SCN transmits signals to areas that do what?

**Text number 46**

Sleep is associated with major changes in brain function. Until the 1950s, it was widely believed that the brain virtually shut down during sleep, but today we know that this is far from the case; it continues to function, but in a very different pattern. There are two types of sleep: REM sleep (sleep with dreams) and NREM sleep (non-REM sleep, usually without dreams), which recur in slightly different patterns throughout the sleep cycle. Three types of brain activity patterns can be measured: REM, light NREM and deep NREM. During deep NREM sleep, also called slow wave sleep, cortical activity takes the form of large synchronised waves, while during wakefulness it is noisy and out of sync. Levels of the neurotransmitters noradrenaline and serotonin fall during slow-wave sleep and drop to almost zero during REM sleep; acetylcholine levels show the opposite pattern.

**Question 0**

There are two types of sleep, what are they called?

**Question 1**

What kind of dream is a dream?

**Question 2**

What are the three types of brain activity that can be measured?

**Question 3**

The slow wave euphoria is also known as what?

**Question 4**

At what point during sleep do serotonin and noradrenaline levels drop?

**Text number 47**

The survival of any animal requires that a range of body condition parameters be kept within a limited range: these include temperature, water content, circulating salinity, blood glucose and oxygen levels. The ability of an animal to regulate the internal environment of its body - the milieu intérieur, as the pioneering physiologist Claude Bernard called it - is called homeostasis (Greek for 'standing still'). Maintaining homeostasis is a key function of the brain. The basic principle of homeostasis is negative feedback: whenever a parameter deviates from its set value, sensors produce an error signal that triggers a response that causes the parameter to move back towards its optimal value. (This principle is widely used in engineering, for example to control temperature with a thermostat. )

**Question 0**

What is homeostasis?

**Question 1**

Homeostasis is Greek for what phrase?

**Question 2**

Which physiologist uses the term milieu interieur?

**Question 3**

Homeostasis is like which home tool?

**Text number 48**

In vertebrates, the most important part of the brain is the hypothalamus, a small area at the base of the forebrain, the size of which does not correspond to its complexity or importance. The hypothalamus is a collection of small nuclei, most of which are involved in basic biological functions. Some of these functions are related to arousal or social interaction, such as sexuality, aggression or maternal behaviour, but many are related to homeostasis. Several hypothalamic nuclei receive information from sensors located on the vascular membranes that transmit information about temperature, sodium, glucose, blood oxygen and other parameters. These hypothalamic nuclei send output signals to motor areas that can generate actions to correct deficits. Some of the outputs also go to the pituitary gland, a small gland attached to the brain just below the hypothalamus. The pituitary secretes hormones into the bloodstream, where they circulate throughout the body and cause changes in cellular function.

**Question 0**

The hypothalamus is located at the base of what?

**Question 1**

What is the most important part of the vertebrate brain?

**Question 2**

What is called a collection of small nuclei at the base of the forebrain?

**Question 3**

Which gland is the gland directly below the hypothalamus?

**Question 4**

The pituitary gland sends hormones through what in the body?

**Text number 49**

Most organisms studied so far use reward and punishment mechanisms: for example, worms and insects can change their behaviour in search of food or to avoid danger. In vertebrates, the reward and punishment system is implemented by specific brain structures, at the core of which are the basal ganglia, a set of interconnected regions at the base of the forebrain. There is considerable evidence that the basal ganglia are the central site where decisions are made: the basal ganglia exert continuous inhibitory control over most motor systems in the brain; when this inhibition is released, the motor system is given permission to perform the action that has been programmed to perform it. Rewards and punishments work by changing the relationship between the inputs received by the basal ganglia and the decision signals they send. The reward mechanism is better understood than the punishment mechanism because of the intensive research on its role in drug abuse. Studies have shown that the neurotransmitter dopamine plays a key role: addictive drugs such as cocaine, amphetamine and nicotine either increase dopamine levels or enhance the effects of dopamine in the brain.

**Question 0**

What is called a set of interconnected areas at the base of the forebrain?

**Question 1**

The base case is thought to be the central place where what is done?

**Question 2**

Which neurotransmitter plays a major role in drug abuse?

**Question 3**

Which of the two systems, reward or punishment, is better understood?

**Text number 50**

Almost all animals are capable of changing their behaviour as a result of experience - even the most primitive reptiles. Because behaviour is driven by brain activity, behavioural changes must somehow correspond to changes in the brain. According to theorists as far back as Santiago Ramón y Cajal, the most plausible explanation is that learning and memory occur as changes in the synaptic connections between neurons. Until 1970, however, there was no experimental evidence to support the synaptic plasticity hypothesis. In Tim1971 Bliss and Terje Lømo published a paper on what is now called long-term potentiation: the paper showed clear evidence of activity-induced synaptic changes that lasted for at least several days. Since then, technological advances have made it much easier to perform these types of experiments, and thousands of studies have been carried out to elucidate the mechanism of synaptic changes and to reveal other types of activity-induced synaptic changes in a variety of brain regions, including the cortex, hippocampus, nuclei and cerebellum. Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and physical activity appear to play a beneficial role in this process.

**Question 0**

What year did Tim Bliss and Terje Lomo publish an article on long-term potential?

**Question 1**

BDNF is short for what term?

**Question 2**

Learning and memory expressed as changes in synaptic connections was first theorised by whom?

**Text number 51**

Neuroscience encompasses all approaches to understanding the brain and other nervous systems. Psychology aims to understand the mind and behaviour, and neurology is the branch of medicine that diagnoses and treats diseases of the nervous system. The brain is also the main organ studied in psychiatry, the field of medicine that aims to study, prevent and treat mental disorders. Cognitive science aims to combine neuroscience and psychology with other fields dealing with the brain, such as computer science (artificial intelligence and related fields) and philosophy.

**Question 0**

Which discipline studies the brain and the central nervous system?

**Question 1**

What is the science of trying to understand mind and behaviour?

**Question 2**

Which discipline aims to diagnose and treat diseases of the nervous system?

**Question 3**

Psychiatry is a discipline that does what?

**Question 4**

Cognitive science aims to combine which two disciplines with other disciplines?

**Text number 52**

The oldest way to study the brain is anatomical, and until the mid-20th century much of the progress in neuroscience came from the development of better cell staining and better microscopes. Neuroanatomists studied the large-scale structure of the brain and the microscopic structure of neurons and their parts, especially synapses. Among other things, they use a variety of staining techniques that reveal the structure, chemistry and connectivity of neurons. In recent years, the development of immunostaining techniques has made it possible to study neurons that express specific groups of genes. Functional neuroanatomy also uses medical imaging techniques to relate variations in human brain structure to differences in cognition or behaviour.

**Question 0**

What is the oldest known method for studying the brain?

**Question 1**

What do neuroanatomists study?

**Question 2**

What kind of research uses medical imaging techniques to correlate changes in brain structure?

**Question 3**

Until what century was brain research mostly anatomical?

**Text number 53**

Neurophysiologists study the chemical, pharmacological and electrical properties of the brain: their primary tools are drugs and recording devices. Thousands of experimentally developed drugs affect the nervous system, some in very specific ways. Brain activity can be recorded using electrodes, either glued to the scalp, as in EEG studies, or implanted in the brains of animals for extracellular recordings to detect the action potentials generated by individual neurons. As there are no pain receptors in the brain, these techniques make it possible to record brain activity from awake and behaving animals without causing them suffering. The same techniques have sometimes been used to study brain activity in human patients with intractable epilepsy, in cases where there has been a medical need to implant electrodes to localise the brain area responsible for epileptic seizures. Functional imaging techniques, such as functional MRI, are also used to study brain activity; these techniques have been used mainly in humans because they require the conscious subject to remain immobile for long periods of time, but have the major advantage of being non-invasive.

**Question 0**

What do neurophysiologists study?

**Question 1**

What are the most common tools used by neurophysiologists?

**Question 2**

What kind of receptors are missing in the brain?

**Question 3**

Electrodes are often glued to what as in EEG studies?

**Text number 54**

Another approach to brain function is to study the consequences of damage to specific brain areas. Although the brain is protected by the skull and meninges, surrounded by cerebrospinal fluid and insulated from the bloodstream by the blood-brain barrier, the delicate nature of the brain makes it vulnerable to a wide range of diseases and different types of damage. In humans, the effects of strokes and other brain injuries have been a key source of information about brain function. However, because the nature of the damage cannot be controlled experimentally, this information is often difficult to interpret. In animal experiments, most often involving rats, it is possible to use electrodes or locally injected chemicals to induce precise lesions and then study the behavioural consequences.

**Question 0**

What kind of fluid surrounds the brain?

**Question 1**

What feature distinguishes the brain from the circulatory system?

**Question 2**

What are the two main structures that protect the brain?

**Question 3**

What type of disease is often studied to understand brain damage?

**Question 4**

What type of animal is most commonly used to study brain damage?

**Text number 55**

Computational neuroscience involves two approaches: first, using computers to study the brain and second, studying how the brain performs computation. On the one hand, it is possible to write a computer program that simulates the activity of a group of neurons using sets of equations that describe their electrochemical activity; such simulations are called biologically realistic neural networks. On the other hand, it is possible to study neural computing algorithms by simulating or mathematically analysing the behaviour of simplified "units" that have some properties of neurons but do not contain much of their biological complexity. Both computer scientists and neuroscientists study the computational functions of the brain.

**Question 0**

Which two studies does computational neuroscience focus on?

**Text number 56**

In recent years, brain research has increasingly applied genetic and genomic techniques and focused on the role of neurotrophic factors and physical activity in neuroplasticity. Mice are the most common experimental subjects because of the availability of technical tools. It is now relatively easy to "knock out" or mutate a wide range of genes and study their effects on brain function. More sophisticated approaches are also being used: for example, Cre-Lox recombination makes it possible to activate or deactivate genes in specific parts of the brain at specific times.

**Question 0**

What are the most common subjects in brain research?

**Text number 57**

The oldest discovered brains have been found in Armenia in the Areni-1 cave complex. The brain, estimated to be more than 5 000 years old, was found in the skull of a 12-14 year old girl. Although the brain had shrunk, it was well preserved thanks to the climate in the cave.

**Question 0**

Where were the oldest brains found?

**Question 1**

How old were the oldest brains found thought to be?

**Question 2**

The oldest known brain was found in how old a person?

**Question 3**

The oldest brains found in the cave were from which sex?

**Text number 58**

Early philosophers disagreed about whether the soul was located in the brain or the heart. Aristotle favoured the heart and thought that the brain's function was only to cool the blood. Democritus, the inventor of the atomic theory of matter, argued that the soul was tripartite: the intellect was in the head, the emotions in the heart and lust near the liver. Hippocrates, the 'father of medicine', spoke unequivocally in favour of the brain. In a treatise on epilepsy, he wrote:

**Question 0**

In which two organs of the body was the seal of the soul said to be?

**Question 1**

Aristotle thought that the soul is located in which organ?

**Question 2**

Who invented atomic theory?

**Question 3**

Who in history has been called the "father of medicine"?

**Question 4**

Which historical philosopher has argued for a tripartite soul?

**Text number 59**

The Roman physician Galenos also spoke about the importance of the brain and presented in-depth theories on how it works. Galen explained the anatomical relationships between the brain, nerves and muscles and showed that all the muscles of the body are connected to the brain by a branching network of nerves. He proposed that nerves mechanically activate muscles by transporting a mysterious substance he called pneumata psychikon, usually translated as 'animal spirits'. Galen's ideas were widely known in the Middle Ages, but were not developed until the Renaissance, when detailed anatomical research continued and was combined with the theoretical speculations of René Descartes and his followers. Descartes, like Galen, thought of the nervous system in hydraulic terms. He believed that the highest cognitive functions were performed by the non-physical res cogitans, but that most human and all animal behaviour could be explained mechanically.

**Question 0**

Galen the physician was from which historical country?

**Question 1**

At what point in history did the anatomical study of nerves increase significantly?

**Question 2**

Who coined the term pneumata psychikon?

**Question 3**

Penumata psychikon is usually translated as: what?

**Text number 60**

However, the first real advance towards a modern understanding of how the nervous system works came from Luigi Galvan's research, when he discovered that a static electric shock to a nerve exposed in a dead frog caused its leg to contract. Since then, every major advance in our understanding of the nervous system has followed more or less directly from the development of new research techniques. Until the early years of the 20th century, the main advances came from new methods of staining cells. Particularly decisive was the invention of Golgi staining, which (when used correctly) stains only a small part of the neuron but stains the whole cell, including the cell body, dendrites and axon. Without such staining, brain tissue appears under the microscope as an impenetrable jumble of protoplasmic fibres, from which it is impossible to determine any structure. In the hands of Camillo Golgi, and in particular the Spanish neuroanatomist Santiago Ramón y Cajal, the new staining revealed hundreds of different types of neurons, each with its own unique dendritic structure and connectivity pattern.

**Question 0**

Who found out that an electric shock to the bare nerve of a dead frog caused contractions?

**Question 1**

The tool that was invented to stain only tiny fractions of neurons was called what?

**Question 2**

What nationality was Santiago Ramon y Cajal?

**Text number 61**

In the first half of the 20th century, the development of electronics made it possible to study the electrical properties of nerve cells, culminating in the work of Alan Hodgkin, Andrew Huxley and others on the biophysics of action potentials, and Bernard Katz and others on the electrochemistry of synapses. These studies complemented the anatomical picture with a view of the brain as a dynamic entity. In line with this new understanding, Charles Sherrington in 1942 visualised the functioning of the waking brain:

**Question 0**

Which two main researchers in the first half of the 20th century worked on the electrical properties of nerve cells?

**Text number 62**

In the second half of the 20th century, advances in chemistry, electron microscopy, genetics, computer science, functional brain imaging and other fields gradually opened new windows into brain structure and function. In the United States, the 1990s were officially designated the "Decade of the Brain" to commemorate advances in brain research and to promote its funding.

**Question 0**

What decade of history was officially called the "decade of the brain"?

**Text number 63**

In the 21st century, these trends have continued and several new approaches have emerged, such as multi-electrode recording, which allows the simultaneous recording of the activity of several brain cells; genetic engineering, which allows the experimental modification of molecular components of the brain; genomics, which allows variations in brain structure to be related to variations in DNA properties; and neuroimaging.

**Question 0**

Multi-electrode storage allows what?

**Question 1**

Genetic engineering enables what?

**Question 2**

What can genomics be used to study?

**Question 3**

In which century was the multi-electrode recording invented?

**Question 4**

In which century was genetic engineering first discovered?

**Document number 85**

**Text number 0**

The Middle East (French: Proche-Orient) is a geographical term that roughly covers Western Asia. Although the term has different definitions in different academic circles, it was originally used to refer to the largest possible extent of the Ottoman Empire. In English, the term has fallen into disuse and has been replaced by the term Middle East.

**Question 0**

What is the geographical term that roughly covers West Asia?

**Question 1**

The term Middle East originally referred to most of which empire?

**Question 2**

The term Middle East is not used in which language?

**Question 3**

What has replaced the term Middle East?

**Text number 1**

Encyclopædia Britannica defines the Middle East as comprising Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Cyprus, Egypt, Georgia, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syria, Turkey, the United Arab Emirates, the West Bank and Yemen. The United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) defines the region in the same way, but includes Afghanistan and excludes the North African countries and the Palestinian territories. According to the National Geographic Society, the terms Middle East and Near East refer to the same areas and are "generally accepted to include the Arabian Peninsula countries, Cyprus, Egypt, Iraq, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Cyprus, Syria, the Palestinian Territories and Turkey".

**Question 0**

which defines the Middle East as comprising Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Cyprus and Egypt. Georgia, Iran, Iraq, Iraq, Isreal, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syria, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, West Bank and Yemen?

**Question 1**

The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations also includes which country in the definition of the Middle East?

**Question 2**

Which group thinks the terms Middle East and Middle East mean the same thing?

**Text number 2**

In the early 19th century, the Ottoman Empire included the entire Balkan peninsula north to the southern edge of the Hungarian plain, but by 1914 it had lost all but Constantinople and eastern Thrace with the rise of Balkan nationalism, with the independence of Greece, Serbia, the Danubian principalities and Bulgaria. 1912The Ottomans retained the territory comprising Albania, Macedonia and Thrace, which was lost in the two Balkan wars of 1912-13.

**Question 0**

In the early 19th century, which empire included the entire Balkan peninsula from the north to the southern edge of the Hungarian plain?

**Question 1**

When did the Ottoman Empire lose its entire empire except Constantinople and Eastern Thrace?

**Question 2**

With the rise of which Greece, Serbia, the Danube Principalities and Bulgaria became independent?

**Question 3**

Until what year did the Ottomans hold the territory of Albania, Macedonia and Thrace?

**Question 4**

When did the Ottomans lose Albania, Macedonia and Thrace?

**Text number 3**

The Ottoman Empire, believed to be on the verge of collapse, was described in the press as "the sick man of Europe". The Balkan states, with the partial exception of Bosnia and Albania, were predominantly Christian. 1894The Ottomans attacked the Armenians specifically on the grounds that they were a non-Muslim people and as such a potential threat to the Muslim empire in which they lived. The Hamidian massacres sparked outrage throughout the Christian world. In the United States, Julia Ward Howe, now an elderly woman who had written the Battle Hymn of the Republic, jumped into the war of words and joined the Red Cross. Minority relations in the Ottoman Empire and the partition of the former Ottoman lands was known as the 'Eastern Question' because the Ottomans were located east of Europe.

**Question 0**

How was the Ottoman Empire portrayed in the press?

**Question 1**

The Balkan states were mainly under which religion?

**Question 2**

When did the Ottomans strike the Armenians?

**Question 3**

On what basis did the Ottomans attack the Armenians?

**Question 4**

What caused the indignation of the whole Christian world?

**Text number 4**

Now it was time to define the eastern part of the eastern question. Around the middle of the 19th century, the term "Middle East" began to be used to describe the part of the East that is closest to Europe. At the same time, the term "Far East" appeared to refer to Japan, China, Korea, Indonesia and Vietnam, in short, the East Indies. The "Middle East" meant mainly the Levant, which was part of the Ottoman Gate or government. Those who used the term had little choice as to its meaning. They could not set foot on the shores of most of the southern and central Mediterranean from the Gulf of Sidra to Albania without the permission of the Ottoman Empire.

**Question 0**

When did "Middle East" begin to be used to describe the eastern region closest to Europe?

**Question 1**

In short, the term Far East appeared to designate this region...

**Question 2**

"Middle East", applied to this mainly well-known region.

**Question 3**

What was the jurisdiction of the Levant?

**Question 4**

What did it take to walk on the beaches of most of the southern and central Mediterranean?

**Text number 5**

Some areas outside the Ottoman Gate were included. One of them was North Africa west of Egypt. It was occupied by the Barbary Coast pirate kingdoms, which were de facto independent from the 1700s onwards. The former part of the empire at its peak. Iran was included because it was not easily accessible except through the Ottoman Empire or neighbouring Russia. In the 1890s, the term tended to focus on conflicts in the Balkans and Armenia. The disappearance of the sick man of Europe left considerable ambiguity as to what was meant by the Middle East. Today, it is generally used only in historical contexts to describe the countries of West Asia from the Mediterranean to Iran (or including Iran). In short, there is no universally understood fixed list of peoples, languages or historical commodities that have been defined as belonging to it.

**Question 0**

What was one of the territories occupied by the pirate kingdoms?

**Question 1**

Where did the pirate kingdoms come from?

**Question 2**

Why was Iran included in the regional collection?

**Question 3**

What was the focus of the term Middle East in the 1890s?

**Question 4**

The loss of which left considerable ambiguity as to what was meant by "Middle East".

**Text number 6**

The geographic terms "Middle East" and "Far East", referring to areas within or adjacent to the former British Empire and the neighbouring colonies of the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and Germany, fit together as a pair based on the opposites of far and near, suggesting that they were coined together. They appear together in mid-19th century newspapers. Both terms were used before then in their local British and American meanings: near or far east of a field, village or shire.

**Question 0**

The terms "Middle East" and "Far East", which refer to the areas of the world within or adjacent to the territory of the former British Empire and its neighbouring colonies, fit together as a pair on what grounds?

**Question 1**

When do the terms "Middle East" and "Far East" appear together in newspapers?

**Question 2**

The term Middle East and Far East was used in the British and American senses to refer to what?

**Text number 7**

There was a linguistic tendency to use such terms. The Romans had used them in Near Gaul/Far Gaul, Near Spain/Far Spain, etc. Before them, the Greeks had a custom, which can be seen in the oldest known Linear B inscription in Europe, referring to the names of the near province and far province of the Kingdom of Pylos. Usually these terms were used to refer to a geographical feature such as a mountain range or a river.

**Question 0**

Who used the terms near Gaul?

**Question 1**

Using these terms, which culture appears in line B?

**Question 2**

Usually the terms were given when referring to what?

**Text number 8**

Ptolemy's geography divided Asia along similar lines. In the north, there is a "Skytia on this side of the Himalayas" and a "Skytia behind the Himalayas". In the south, there is 'India on this side of the Ganges' and 'India behind the Ganges'. Beyond the Ganges and the Himalayas (including the Tien Shan) were Serica and Serae (parts of China) and some other recognisable Far Eastern places familiar to travellers and geographers but not to the European public.

**Question 0**

What divided Asia on a similar basis?

**Question 1**

Where is "Skytia on this side of the Himalayas"?

**Question 2**

Where is "India on this side of the Ganges"?

**Question 3**

Where is "Skytia beyond the Himalayas"?

**Question 4**

Where did Asia begin?

**Text number 9**

By the time of John Seller's Atlas Maritima in 1670, "India beyond the Ganges" had become the "East Indies", comprising China, Korea, Southeast Asia and the Pacific islands on a map as distorted as Ptolemy's, even though some 1500 years had passed. That 'East', in turn, was simply an English translation of the Latin words Oriens and Orientalis, 'land of the rising sun', which have been used since Roman times for 'East'. In Jodocus Hondius' map of the world, the whole of Asia from the Caspian Sea to the Pacific is marked in 1590 as India Orientalis, which soon appears in the English translation as East India.

**Question 0**

When was John Seller's Atlas Maritima?

**Question 1**

What had become of "India beyond the Ganges"?

**Question 2**

Which included China, Korea, South East Asia and the Pacific Islands?

**Question 3**

What was just the English translation of the Latin words Oriens and Orientalis, "land of the rising sun"?

**Question 4**

In what year did Jodocus Hondius draw up his world map?

**Text number 10**

Elizabeth I of England, primarily interested in trade with the East, set up the first trading companies in distant regions in collaboration with English merchants and used her own jargon. Their aim was to win trade concessions through trade agreements. In 1581, the Queen set up the Company of Merchants of the Levant (the Levant Company for short), soon known as The Turkey Company. In 1582, the ship The Great Susan carried the first ambassador, William Harebone, to the Ottoman Gate (government of the Ottoman Empire) in Constantinople. Compared to Anatolia, Levant also means 'land of the rising sun', but where Anatolia has always meant only the territory now occupied by the Turkish Republic, Levant meant any territory ruled by the Ottoman Porte. The East India Company (short for the much longer official name) was established in 1600 to trade in the East Indies.

**Question 0**

Where was Elizabeth I from?

**Question 1**

What was Elizabeth primarily interested in?

**Question 2**

Who did Elizabeth I work with?

**Question 3**

What was the aim of the first trading companies?

**Question 4**

Which company was founded in the 1600s to trade with the East Indies?

**Text number 11**

Western historians have been happy to write about the decline of the Ottoman Empire, as if there had been a stable and undisputed state with that name. The borders did expand and contract, but they were always dynamic and 'questionable' from the start. The Ottoman Empire was created from the lands of the former Eastern Roman Empire in its violent destruction. The last Roman emperor died in hand-to-hand combat in the streets of his capital Constantinople, defeated by an Ottoman army in May 1453. The victors inherited his remaining territories in the Balkans.

**Question 0**

What has appealed to Western historians?

**Question 1**

What was always questionable from the beginning of the Ottoman Empire?

**Question 2**

Where was the Ottoman Empire created from?

**Question 3**

How did Rome's last emperor die?

**Question 4**

Where was the capital of the Roman emperor?

**Text number 12**

The populations of these countries did not accept the Turkish regime. To them, the Turks were foreigners with completely different customs, way of life and language. Interregnums without unrest were rare. The Hungarians had broken away from the Turkish rule in 1688. Serbia was born out of the Serbian Revolution of 1815-1833. The Greek War of Independence of 1821-1832 created modern Greece, which regained most of the ancient Greek lands, but did not gain Constantinople. The Ottoman gateway was constantly under attack from somewhere in its empire, mainly in the Balkans. In addition, American and British warships had to attack Barbary pirates on several occasions in the early 19th century to stop their piracy and recover thousands of enslaved Europeans and Americans.

**Question 0**

What did the population not accept?

**Question 1**

By what year had the Hungarians broken away from Turkish rule?

**Question 2**

What created Serbia?

**Question 3**

When was the Serbian revolution?

**Question 4**

When was the Greek War of Independence?

**Text number 13**

1853In the Russian Empire, the existence of the Ottoman Empire began to be questioned on behalf of the Slavic Balkan states. The result was the Crimean War of 1853-1856, in which the British and French Empires supported the Ottoman Empire in its struggle against the Russian Empire's invasions. Eventually, the Ottoman Empire lost control of the Balkans.

**Question 0**

When did the Russian Empire begin to question the existence of the Ottoman Empire?

**Question 1**

When was the Crimean War?

**Question 2**

Who did the British and French support during the Crimean War?

**Question 3**

What was the Ottoman Empire fighting against in the Crimean War?

**Question 4**

Which region did the Ottoman Empire eventually lose control of?

**Text number 14**

Until around 1855, the words Middle East and Far East did not refer to any particular region. Far East, an expression containing the noun east, defined by the adjective far away, could mean any place in the 'far east' of the speaker's home area. For example, the Ottoman Empire was as much the Far East as the East Indies. The Crimean War brought a change in vocabulary, with the introduction of more familiar terms in the late 19th century. The Russian Empire had entered a more aggressive phase, becoming militarily active against the Ottoman Empire and also China, with the explicit aim of territorial expansion. The British government redefined its policy on the basis that the two countries under attack were essential to the balance of power. It therefore took up arms against the Russians in both places, and one of the results was the Crimean War. During that war, the British imperial administration began to promulgate a new vocabulary, giving a specific territorial meaning to 'Middle East', the Ottoman Empire, and 'Far East', the East Indies. The two terms were now compound nouns, often presented with a hyphen.

**Question 0**

Until what year did the words near-east and far-east not refer to any particular region?

**Question 1**

What caused the change in vocabulary?

**Question 2**

The Russian Empire became militarily more active against whom?

**Question 3**

Who decided that two countries under attack were necessary for the balance of power?

**Question 4**

Which empire started to promulgate the new vocabulary?

**Text number 15**

A reprint of a letter sent earlier to The Times appeared in Littel's Living Age in 1855. The author of the letter, Thomas Taylor Meadows, "an official Chinese interpreter of 10 years' active service" and a member of the Oriental Club, was responding to another interpreter's suggestion that the British Empire was wasting its resources on a false threat from Russia to China. Towards the end of the letter he said:

**Question 0**

When was the reprint of the letter to The Times published in Littel's Living Age?

**Question 1**

Who was the author of the letter sent to the Times?

**Question 2**

To which Thomas Taylor Meadows replied?

**Text number 16**

Much of the colonial administration belonged to this club, founded by the Duke of Wellington. Meadows' terminology must represent the use of that administration. If the term was not used for the first time, the letter to the Times was certainly one of the earliest introductions of this vocabulary to the general public. They immediately became popular, displacing "Levant" and "East India", which gradually retreated into minor use and then began to change their meaning.

**Question 0**

What was one of the earliest representations of this vocabulary?

**Question 1**

What was said must be representative of the use of that administration?

**Question 2**

Who had formed a club that included a large part of the colonial administration?

**Text number 17**

"Middle East" remained popular in diplomatic, commercial and journalistic circles, but a variant soon developed among scholars, suits and their associates: the "Middle East", returning to the classic and now more scientific distinction between "nearer" and "further". They undoubtedly saw the need to distinguish the biblical lands from those of the Ottoman Empire. Christians saw the land as the land of the Old and New Testaments, where Christianity had developed. What eventually became biblical archaeology was a field of study that scholars sought to define on the basis of archaeology.

**Question 0**

What remained popular in diplomatic, commercial and journalistic circles?

**Question 1**

What differences soon emerged between the scholars and the clothiers and their companions?

**Question 2**

What was to distinguish the Ottoman Empire from the landscape?

**Question 3**

How did Christians see the country?

**Question 4**

How did the researchers try to define it?

**Text number 18**

For example, The London Review of (1861Telford and Barber, unsigned) criticised several works by Rawlinson, Layard and others and defined them as self-made:

**Question 0**

When was the London Review?

**Question 1**

Rawlinson, Layard and others criticised what?

**Question 2**

Who wrote The London Review in 1861?

**Text number 19**

The regions they listed were Assyria, Chaldea, Mesopotamia, Persia, Armenia, Egypt, Arabia, Syria, Palestine, Ethiopia, the Caucasus, Libya, Anatolia and Abyssinia. India is explicitly excluded. The Balkans are not mentioned.

**Question 0**

Which area was specifically excluded?

**Question 1**

What area is not mentioned?

**Question 2**

What were Assyria, Chaldea, Mesopotamia, Persia, Armenia, Egypt, Arabia, Syria, Palestine, Ethiopia, Caucasus, Libya, Anatolia and Abyssinia?

**Text number 20**

Hogarth then goes into detail about where and why, but does not mention any more of the classics. His analysis is geopolitical. In his map, the Middle East is delineated by regular lines, as if it had been measured. They include Iran, the Balkans but not the Danube countries, Egypt but not the rest of North Africa. With the exception of the Balkans, the area corresponds to the later Middle East. It differs from the then Ottoman Empire in that it includes Greece and Iran. Hogarth gives no indication that he was familiar with the original conception of the Middle East.

**Question 0**

What does Hogarth say in detail?

**Question 1**

What does Hogarth not mention?

**Question 2**

What is Hogarth's analysis?

**Text number 21**

In the last years of the 19th century, the term "Middle East" came into considerable disrepute in the eyes of the English-speaking public, as did the Ottoman Empire itself. This was due to the Hamidian massacres, in which Armenians were killed because they were Christians, but it seemed to spill over into the protracted conflicts in the Balkans. For a time, the "Middle East" meant primarily the Balkans. The subtitle of Robert Hichens' book The Near East (1913) is Dalmatia, Greece and Constantinople.

**Question 0**

When did the term "Middle East" get a bad rap?

**Question 1**

In whose eyes did the term "Middle East" acquire a remarkably bad reputation?

**Question 2**

What was the reason for the transfer of responsibility?

**Question 3**

What was the reason for the massacres of Armenians in Hamidian?

**Question 4**

When was Robert Hickens' book written?

**Text number 22**

This change is reflected in the reports of influential British travellers to the Balkans. In 1894, the journalist Sir Henry Norman, 1st Baronet, travelled to the Far East and subsequently wrote a book, The Peoples and Politics of the Far East, which appeared in 1895 By the Far East he meant Siberia, China, Japan, Korea, Siam and Malaya. As the book was a great success, he went with his wife to the Balkans in 1896 to develop details for a sequel, The People and Politics of the Near East, which Scribners planned to publish in 1897. Mrs Norman, herself a writer, wrote glowing letters about the home of Mme Zakki, 'the wife of a Turkish minister', and about a person she described as a cultured woman living in a country home full of books. The natives of the Balkans were a 'semi-civilised people'.

**Question 0**

The reports that made the change obvious?

**Question 1**

Where did Sir Henry Norman travel in 1894?

**Question 2**

Which book did Sir Henry Norman write after travelling to the Far East?

**Question 3**

What year was Sir Henry Norman's book published?

**Text number 23**

The book was never published. Instead, the Normans headed for New York. Norman published the gist of his planned travel book, curiously interspersed with anti-Ottoman invective, in an article in Scribner's Magazine in June 1896. The empire had been reduced from an enlightened civilisation that ruled the barbarians for their own good to something far inferior. The difference was the Hamidian massacres, which were going on even while the couple were travelling in the Balkans. Now, according to Norman, the empire had been established by a 'Muslim horde' from Asia, stopped by 'fearless Hungary'. Moreover, "Greece shook off the turbaned destroyer of her people" and so on. The Russians were suddenly the liberators of the oppressed Balkan states. Describing the Armenians as revolutionaries in the name of freedom who expected to be saved by the intervention of Christian Europe, he says that "but their hope was vain". England had 'turned her back'. Norman concluded his exhortation with the words 'in the Balkans you learn to hate the Turks'. Norman made sure Gladstone read the article. Prince Nicolas of Montenegro wrote a letter thanking him for the article.

**Question 0**

Where did the Normans go instead of publishing a book?

**Question 1**

When did Norman publish parts of his planned travel book?

**Question 2**

In which newspaper did Norman publish his work?

**Question 3**

Who were the liberators of the oppressed Balkan states?

**Question 4**

Who did Norman say "turned his back"?

**Text number 24**

In this article, Norman uses the term "Middle East" to refer to the countries involved in the "Eastern Question", i.e. all the Balkan countries. The countries and territories mentioned are Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina (which was a Muslim country and which he felt should be repressed), Macedonia, Montenegro, Albania and Romania. The rest of the Ottoman territory is reduced to 'East'.

**Question 0**

What does Norman mean in the article when he says "Middle East"?

**Question 1**

To which other Ottoman region will it be reduced?

**Question 2**

"East" refers to what?

**Text number 25**

If Norman was obviously trying to change British policy, perhaps William Miller (1864-1945), a journalist and Middle East expert, did the most work. In essence, he signed the death warrant, so to speak, of the age of empires. The fall of the Ottoman Empire eventually enveloped all other empires. In Travel and Politics in the Near East (1898), Miller claimed to have made four trips to the Balkans, in 1894, 1896, 1897 and 1898, and to be essentially an expert on the 'Middle East', by which he primarily meant the Balkans. Apart from the fact that he went to Oxford and played rugby, not much other biographical detail is given. He was effectively (regardless of whether he had any formal connections) the top man in British intelligence in the Middle East.

**Question 0**

What was William Miller's life expectancy?

**Question 1**

Which expert was William Miller?

**Question 2**

What did William Miller do, so to speak?

**Question 3**

Where did Miller go to school?

**Text number 26**

These were fighting words from a country that once insisted that Europe needed Turkey and was prepared to shed blood for it. Miller appeals to the people for his authority, to Europe's 'collective wisdom', and introduces a concept that will come up many times in the coming decades in cold conditions:

**Question 0**

Miller's words were considered what?

**Question 1**

Which country was seen as needing Europe?

**Question 2**

What was Miller referring to?

**Text number 27**

If the British Empire was now going to side with the Russian Empire, the Ottoman Empire had no choice but to maintain relations with the Austrian and Hungarian Empires, which were supported by the German Empire. Within a few years, these alliances became the Triple Alliance and the Triple Alliance (which had already been formed in 1882), which were partly the cause of the First World War. By its end in 1918, three empires had been defeated, a fourth was in the process of collapsing in revolution, and the other two, Britain and France, were forced to succumb to revolutions launched under the auspices of their own ideologies.

**Question 0**

The Ottoman Empire had no choice but to develop its relations with which country?

**Question 1**

Who supported the Austro-Hungarian Empire?

**Question 2**

Whose side was the British Empire on?

**Question 3**

What partly led to the formation of the Triple Alliance and the Triple Union?

**Question 4**

By what year had the three empires disappeared?

**Text number 28**

In 1916, as millions of Europeans were falling victim to an imperialist war in the trenches of Eastern and Western Europe over the "Eastern Question", Arnold J. Toynbee, the Hegelian historian of all civilisation, began to take a metaphysical view of the Middle East. Mere geography was not enough to explain the terms, he believed. If the Ottoman Empire had been a sick man:

**Question 0**

In what year did Arnold J. Toynbee begin to take a metaphysical approach to the Middle East?

**Question 1**

Who was the Hegelian historian of civilisation?

**Question 2**

What did Arnold J Toynbee believe in?

**Text number 29**

After the death of the Middle East, new nations rose from the ashes, notably the Republic of Turkey. Paradoxically, it was now allied with the West rather than the East. Its founder, Mustafa Kemal, a former Ottoman officer of high rank, was determined to bring about this social revolution which, among other changes, freed women from the secrecy rules still in force in most Arabic-speaking countries. The disappearance of the political Middle East now left a gap into which the Middle East stepped.

**Question 0**

What was able to rise from the death of the Middle East?

**Question 1**

What great nation was able to rise from the ashes of the Middle East?

**Question 2**

How did the Republic of Turkey take the same line?

**Question 3**

Who was the founder of the Turkish Republic?

**Question 4**

Who was a former high-ranking Ottoman officer?

**Text number 30**

The term Middle East was common in the 19th century as a noun and adjective in almost all contexts except diplomacy and archaeology. Countless places seem to have had a Middle East from gardens to regions, including the United States. The term 'Middle East', coined to mean the territories of the Ottoman Empire as early as the Crimean War, had left a geographical gap. The East Indies or 'Far East' ultimately derived from Ptolemy's 'India beyond the Ganges'. The Ottoman Empire ended at the eastern border of Iraq. "India on this side of the Ganges" and Iran were excluded. Archaeologists counted Iran as "Middle East" because of the discovery of Old Persian cuneiform writing there. This usage did not please diplomats; India was left in a state of ambiguity. They needed a regional term.

**Question 0**

When was the term Middle East common as a noun and adjective?

**Question 1**

The Middle East was not a general diplomacy and what other context?

**Question 2**

Where does "Far East" come from?

**Question 3**

Where did the Ottoman Empire end?

**Question 4**

Why did archaeologists put Iran in the "Middle East"?

**Text number 31**

The term Middle East seems to have been used as an area of international affairs in diplomatic circles in Britain and the United States, quite independently of each other, because of concerns about the security of the same country: Iran, then known in the West as Persia. In 1900, Thomas Edward Gordon published an article entitled The Problem of the Middle East, which began as follows:

**Question 0**

Where did the term Middle East as an area of international affairs begin?

**Question 1**

What was Iran known as in the West?

**Question 2**

When did Thomas Edward Gordon publish "The Problem of the Middle East"?

**Question 3**

Which article was published by Thomas Edward Gordon?

**Question 4**

Who has published the Middle East problem?

**Text number 32**

The threat that prompted diplomat and soldier Gordon to publish the article was the continuation of the construction of the railway from Russia to the Persian Gulf. Gordon, a published author, had not used the term before, but he used it from now on.

**Question 0**

What was the threat that prompted Gordon to publish his article?

**Question 1**

Who was a diplomat and a soldier?

**Question 2**

Who hadn't used the term Middle East in publications before?

**Text number 33**

Another strategic personality in American diplomatic and military circles, Alfred Thayer Mahan, who was concerned about the maritime vulnerability of the trade routes in the Gulf and Indian Ocean, commented in 1902:

**Question 0**

Who was in the American diplomatic and military circles?

**Question 1**

What was Alfred Thayer Mahan worried about?

**Question 2**

When did Alfred Thayer Mahan comment on trade routes?

**Text number 34**

Apparently the sailor could not get in touch with the soldier, as Mahan believed he had coined the term Middle East. However, it was already there in plain sight.

**Question 0**

Who was not in contact with the soldier?

**Question 1**

What did Mahan believe he was reforming?

**Question 2**

What had already been there to see?

**Text number 35**

Until after the First World War, the Middle East and the Near East coexisted, but were not always considered separate. Bertram Lenox Simpson, a colonial officer who eventually died in China, in his 1910 book The Conflict of Colour, uses the terms together as 'Middle East and Near East'. The entire super-region consisted of 'India, Afghanistan, Persia, Arabistan, Asia Minor, and last but not least, Egypt'. Simpson (pseudonym Weale) explains that this whole area 'is politically one region - despite the divisions into which it is academically divided'. His own term resurrects the 'Middle East' as the opposite of the 'Far East'.

**Question 0**

Until when did the Middle East and the Near East coexist?

**Question 1**

Who was the colonial officer killed in China?

**Question 2**

Who wrote the book "The Conflict of Color" in 1910?

**Question 3**

What was Simpson's pen name?

**Text number 36**

The basis of Simpson's unity is colour and colonialist subjugation. His colour chart identifies a spectrum of black, brown and yellow that had been traditional at the time since the late 19th century. In addition to these, there was the "great white race", which the moderate Simpson tones down as simply the white race. The Great Whites still appeared in the 1920s in the works of James Henry Breasted, which were taught as the gospel of ancient history throughout the first half of the 20th century. The red wavelength was mainly of interest in America. Simpson coined the term "The Problem of the Nearer East", which had nothing to do with the Ottomans and everything to do with British colonialism. Simpson wrote about the white man:

**Question 0**

What is Simpson's unity based on?

**Question 1**

At what time did the white white teeth appear?

**Question 2**

In whose works did the great whites appear?

**Question 3**

What was the main interest in America?

**Text number 37**

These areas were inhabited by 'brown men', yellow men in the Far East and black men in Africa. The colour issue was only resolved when Kenya became independent in 1963, ending the last vestige of the British Empire.

**Question 0**

Who occupied these areas?

**Question 1**

Where is the yellow?

**Question 2**

Where were the blacks?

**Question 3**

When did Kenya become independent?

**Question 4**

The colour issue was not resolved until when?

**Text number 38**

This view reveals the somewhat altruistic Christian purpose of the British Empire, but it was paradoxical from the start, as Simpson and most other writers pointed out. The Ottomans were portrayed as slave traders, but at the same time as the US and British navies were striking out against Barbary pirates for freedom, their own countries were engaged in a vibrant African slave trade. Charles George Gordon is known as the saint of all British colonial officers. He was a devout Christian and spent his time between missions living with the poor and donating his wages to them. He won the trust of the Ottomans as a junior officer in the Crimean War. Later in his career, he became a senior official in the Ottoman Empire, serving as governor of Egypt in the service of the Ottoman Khedive, conducting campaigns against slave traders and slavery in Egypt and Sudan.

**Question 0**

How were the Ottomans described?

**Question 1**

Who is known as the saint of all British colonial officers?

**Question 2**

What did Charles George Gordon do for fun?

**Question 3**

When did he win the Ottomans' trust?

**Question 4**

What did he become later in his career?

**Text number 39**

The term "Middle East" was in use for a few years before the First World War. It proved less acceptable to the colonialist perspective, which saw the whole region as a single entity. Captain1916 T.C. Fowle, Captain T.C. Fowle of the 40th Patani (British Indian Forces) wrote about a trip he had made from Karachi to Syria just before the war. There is no mention of the 'Middle East' in the book. Instead, the whole region is considered the 'Middle East'. ' The former parts of the Middle East on his trip are now 'Turkish' and not Ottoman.

**Question 0**

When did the term "Middle East" come into use?

**Question 1**

What proved less acceptable from a colonial point of view?

**Question 2**

When did Captain T.C. Fowle write about his journey from Karachi to Syria?

**Question 3**

Who were the 40th Patanis?

**Question 4**

Where in Fowle's book is the whole area considered?

**Text number 40**

Later, with the shame of the "Middle East", the "Middle East" prevailed in diplomatic and military circles. In some circles, however, "Middle East" is still used at the discretion of the defining agency or academic institution. They are generally not considered as distinct regions as in their original definition.

**Question 0**

What was the "Middle East" shame?

**Question 1**

What goes on in some circles at the discretion of a prescriptive agency or academic institution?

**Question 2**

Which term was a disgrace in diplomatic and military circles?

**Text number 41**

Although racial and colonial definitions of the Middle East are no longer considered ideologically sound, there is still a sense of unity. In much of the Middle East, but by no means all of it, the dominance of Islam provides a degree of unity, as does the passing coincidence of geographical continuity. Otherwise, there is little basis beyond history and convention to unite peoples with multiple, often independent languages, governments, loyalties and customs.

**Question 0**

What kind of sentiments still prevail, even though racial and colonial definitions of the Middle East no longer make ideological sense?

**Question 1**

Which definitions of the Middle East no longer make ideological sense?

**Question 2**

What are the racial and colonial definitions of the Middle East?

**Text number 42**

After decades of intense warfare and political turmoil in the 20th century, the terms "Middle East", "Far East" and "Middle East" remained in use by experts, especially in the new field of political science. A new wave of diplomats often came from these programmes. Archaeology was overshadowed on the international stage by international relations, even though it was of great intellectual interest to the major universities. Their domain became the ancient Middle East, which could no longer be trusted to be the Middle East. The Ottoman Empire had disappeared, along with all the other empires of the 19th century, and had been replaced by independent republics. Someone had to reconcile the present with the past. This task was inherited by the various specialised agencies set up to deal with certain aspects of international relations which were now so complex that they exceeded the scope and capacity of the diplomatic corps in the old sense. The ancient Middle East is frozen in time. The living Middle East is primarily what the agencies say it is. In most cases, this single term is inadequate to describe the geographical scope of their activities. The result is multiple definitions.

**Question 0**

When did the terms "Middle East", "Far East" and "Middle East" come to be used by experts?

**Question 1**

Where did the new wave of diplomats often come from?

**Question 2**

Where does archaeology rank on the international stage?

**Question 3**

What replaced the fallen empires of the 19th century?

**Text number 43**

The United States is the main remaining state that has demonstrated formal responsibility for the region known as the Middle East. Within the administration, the State Department has been the most influential in propagating the Middle East regional system. The countries of the former 19th century empires have generally abandoned the term and the subdivision in favour of the Middle East, North Africa and Asia in various forms. In many cases, such as France, no separate regional territorial divisions were used. Each country has its own French diplomatic machine, although regional terms such as Proche-Orient and Moyen-Orient can be used in a descriptive sense. The most influential agencies in the United States that still use the Middle East as a working concept are.

**Question 0**

What is the main remaining nation that has assigned official responsibilities to the region known as the Middle East?

**Question 1**

What has the State Department contributed most to its proclamation?

**Question 2**

Who has abandoned the term Middle East?

**Text number 44**

The Bureau of Near Eastern Affairs under the US State Department is perhaps the most influential agency that still uses the term Middle East. Under the Secretary of State, it carries out official US diplomacy, which Secretary Clinton also calls statecraft. The name of the office is traditional and historic. But there is no separate Middle East. All official Middle East business is referred to this office.

**Question 0**

The Middle East Affairs Office is which department?

**Question 1**

What is perhaps the most influential agency that still uses the term Middle East?

**Question 2**

Secretary Clinton also calls the implementation of formal US diplomacy a "why".

**Text number 45**

The Near East South Asia Center for Strategic Studies (NESA), a US Department of Defense training institute for the Middle East, works closely with the State Department's definition of the Middle East. It organises courses, seminars and workshops for government officials and military officers working or working in the region. As the name suggests, the region is a combination of State Department regions; however, NESA is careful to identify the State Department region. Since its Middle East region is not distinct from the State Department region, it is not mentioned in the table. However, its name is not entirely accurate. For example, its region includes Mauritania, which is part of the State Department's Africa (Sub-Saharan Africa) region.

**Question 0**

Who is working closely with the definition of the Middle East?

**Question 1**

What is NESA?

**Question 2**

What does NESA teach?

**Text number 46**

The Washington Institute for Near East Policy (WINEP) is a non-profit organisation that researches and advises on Middle East policy. It considers the target countries to be the Middle East, but uses the term Middle East to be consistent with State Department policy. Its views are independent. WINEP lumps the countries of North West Africa together under the heading of "North Africa". Details can be found in Policy Focus No 65.

**Question 0**

What is WINEP?

**Question 1**

What is the WINEPS destination country?

**Question 2**

How does WINEP bundle together the countries of North West Africa?

**Text number 47**

The Library of Congress (LoC) is an institution established by Congress to provide a research library for the US government and to serve as the national library. It is overseen by the Joint Committee on the Library of Congress and the Librarian of Congress. The Middle East is a separate subject area and a subdivision of the Africa and Middle East Division. The Middle East includes the Hebrew section, which includes only Israel, but includes eleven modern and ancient languages related to Judaism, including Yiddish, a European pidgin language. The Middle East is otherwise almost identical to the Near East, except that it extends in part into Central Asia and the Caucasus, areas that the State Department considers to be part of Asia.

**Question 0**

What does LoC mean?

**Question 1**

What is the Library of Congress?

**Question 2**

Who controls the Library of Congress?

**Text number 48**

The United Nations forms a number of regional sections, as appropriate to its different activities. But few of them include the Middle East, and it is poorly defined. UNICEF recognises the "Middle East and North Africa" region, where the Middle East borders the Red Sea to the west and includes Iran to the east. Unesco does not recognise the Middle East or the Near East, but divides the countries into three regions: the Arab States, Asia and the Pacific and Africa. This division "does not necessarily reflect a geographical situation" but "refers to the implementation of regional activities". The United Nations Statistics Division defines West Asia as including those countries included in the rest of the Middle East. The UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) describes its entire area of operation as the Middle East, but then defines many of its members as other regions; for example, Cyprus, Malta and Turkey are included in both the European and Middle Eastern regions. The FAO's overall territory extends further into Central Asia than the territory of most organisations.

**Question 0**

Who will form several regional chambers to suit its different activities?

**Question 1**

Who recognises the Middle East and North Africa region?

**Question 2**

The United Nations Statistics Division defines West Asia as containing what?

**Question 3**

How does the Food and Agriculture Organisation describe its entire area of activity?

**Text number 49**

The Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) is a quasi-independent agency of the US government. It appears to have several directors. On the one hand, its director is appointed by the President. It plays an important role in providing intelligence to the President. On the other hand, it is subject to congressional oversight through a committee. The CIA was first created under the National Security Act of 1947 from the Office of Strategic Services (OSS), which provided both military intelligence and covert military operations to the military during the World War II crisis. Since then, there have been many revisions and redefinitions. Although the CIA's name reflects the original advisory intent of Presidents Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry S. Truman, the government's need for strategic services has thwarted that intent from the beginning. In countless articles, novels and other media, the press has sought to create various popular myths about the agency; for example, that this agency has replaced all intelligence activities other than the OSS or that it contains the core intelligence capability of the United States. Strategic services are formally provided by some 17 agencies, known as the Intelligence Community. The Army's intelligence services did not end; in fact, all branches of the armed services retained their intelligence services. This community is currently run (in addition to all other management) by the Office of the Director of National Intelligence.

**Question 0**

What is the quasi-independent agency of the US government?

**Question 1**

The CIA seems to have what?

**Question 2**

Who appoints the director of the CIA?

**Question 3**

Who oversees the CIA?

**Text number 50**

In these complex circumstances, regional names are less useful. They are historical rather than accurate measures of activity. The CIA's Directorate of Intelligence, one of the CIA's four directorates, includes the Near East and South Asia Analysis Agency (NESA). Its mission is defined as 'support to the countries of the Middle East and North Africa, and to the South Asian countries of India, Pakistan and Afghanistan'. The overall list of countries is in fact the same as the State Department's Middle East, but the names do not correspond. NESA's Middle East is the same as the Middle East as defined in The World Factbook, published online by the CIA. Its list of countries is limited to the Red Sea and includes the entire eastern shore of the Mediterranean, including Israel, Turkey, the small nations of the Caucasus, Iran and the Arabian Peninsula states.

**Question 0**

NESA's Middle East is the same as the Middle East, which is defined as where?

**Question 1**

What does NESA stand for?

**Question 2**

Whose role is defined as "support for the countries of the Middle East and North Africa"?

**Text number 51**

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID), an independent agency under the State Department created to replace the Marshall Plan to define and distribute foreign aid, does not use the term Middle East. Its definition of the Middle East corresponds to that of the State Department, which officially prefers to use the term Middle East.

**Question 0**

What is USAID?

**Question 1**

What is the independent agency under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs responsible for defining and distributing foreign aid?

**Question 2**

What term does USAID not use?

**Text number 52**

The UK Foreign and Commonwealth Office recognises the Middle East and North Africa region, but not the Middle East. The original Middle East included the Middle East to the Red Sea, India was moved to Asia and Oceania and North Africa was partnered to the Atlantic.

**Question 0**

The UK's Foreign and Commonwealth Office recognises what?

**Question 1**

Which territory is not recognised by the UK's Foreign and Commonwealth Office?

**Question 2**

What consumed the Middle East all the way to the Red Sea?

**Text number 53**

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Hellenic Republic maintains "bilateral relations" with countries in the Mediterranean and Middle East region, but has not defined the Middle East region. Similarly, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Turkey does not use the term Middle East. Its regions include, among others, the Middle East and the Balkans.

**Question 0**

What does the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Hellenic Republic do?

**Question 1**

What term is not used by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Turkey?

**Question 2**

Which republic includes countries such as the Middle East and the Balkans?

**Text number 54**

Ancient Middle East is a term that emerged in the 20th century to establish the geographical application of the Middle East to ancient history.The Middle East can take on different meanings, but the ancient Middle East always has the same meaning: ancient peoples, people and languages living in a fertile crescent stretching from the Nile Valley through Anatolia south to the borders of Mesopotamia.

**Question 0**

What is a 20th century term that aims to establish the geographical application of the Middle East to ancient history?

**Question 1**

What do ancient peoples, people and languages that lived in the Fertile Crescent always refer to?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the stretch of land that runs from the Nile Valley through Anatolia?

**Text number 55**

But this verbal recourse did not protect the "ancient Middle East" from attacks by the "Middle East". For example, the pinnacle of the use of 'Ancient Near East' for biblical scholars was Ancient Near Eastern Texts relating to the Old Testament by James Bennett Pritchard, the first edition of which was dated 1950.The last major book by Leonard Woolley, the British archaeologist, ancient Ur digger and colleague of T. E. Lawrence and Arthur Evans, was The Art of the Middle East, Including Persia, Mesopotamia and Palestine, published in 1961. Woolley had completed it in 1960, two weeks before his death. The geographical areas are the same in both cases.

**Question 0**

James Bennett Pritchard wrote what?

**Question 1**

When did James Bennett Pritchard write his textbook?

**Question 2**

Who was the British archaeologist?

**Question 3**

Who excavated the ancient Uri?

**Text number 56**

In parallel with the growth of agencies specialising in or supporting political science in the second half of the 20th century, resources have been accumulated for teaching and research, typically in universities. Most liberal arts universities have library and museum collections. These are not new, but their development as 'centres' of national and international interest in the second half of the twentieth century has nevertheless created larger databases that were not available to earlier scholars. Many of these focus on the ancient Near East, or the Near East in the sense of the ancient Near East.

**Question 0**

What do most liberal arts universities have?

**Question 1**

What has grown in the same way in the 20th century?

**Question 2**

What are these resources being collected for?

**Text number 57**

One such institution is the Centre for the Study of Ancient Documents (CSAD), established by Oxford University in the UK. Among its many activities, CSAD has "a long-term project to create a library of digitised images of Greek inscriptions". It organises these by region. The Egypt and Middle East region includes Egypt, Cyprus, Persia and Afghanistan, but excludes Asia Minor (a separate region).

**Question 0**

What does CSAD stand for?

**Question 1**

Who founded CSAD?

**Question 2**

Where is Oxford University?

**Text number 58**

A large number of experts on the modern Middle East began their training in university departments of the Middle East. Similarly, in journals related to these specialisms, the words Middle East or Middle Eastern are used. In these numerous institutions and publications, Middle East means Middle East. Expertise on the modern Middle East is almost never confused or conflated with research on the ancient Middle East, although the abbreviation "Middle East" is often used for "ancient Middle East" without any reference to the modern period. For example, "Near Eastern languages" in the ancient sense includes languages such as Sumerian and Akkadian. In the modern sense, it probably refers to any or all Arabic languages.

**Question 0**

Where did a large number of experts on the modern Middle East start their training?

**Question 1**

What is the importance of the Middle East in numerous institutions and publications?

**Question 2**

What almost never gets mixed up or confused with the study of the ancient Near East?

**Question 3**

Where do languages such as Sumerian and Akkadian belong?

**Document number 86**

**Text number 0**

Zhejiang (help-info), formerly romanized as Chekiang, is an eastern coastal province of China. Zhejiang is bordered on the north by Jiangsu province and Shanghai municipality, on the northwest by Anhui province, on the west by Jiangxi province and on the south by Fujian province; to the east is the East China Sea, beyond which lie the Ryukyu Islands of Japan.

**Question 0**

What was the former name of Zhejiang?

**Question 1**

In which province does Zhejiang border in the north-west?

**Question 2**

In which province in the west does Zhejiang border?

**Question 3**

In which province in the south does Zhejiang border?

**Question 4**

Which water body is located east of Zhejiang?

**Question 5**

What was Zhejiang ever romanized as?

**Question 6**

In which province does Zhejiang border in the south-west?

**Question 7**

In which province in the south-east does Zhejiang border?

**Question 8**

Which province does Zhejiang border in the north-east?

**Question 9**

Which water body is located west of Zhejiang?

**Text number 1**

The name of the province comes from the Zhe River (浙江, Zhè Jiāng), the former name of the Qiantang River, which flows past Hangzhou and whose mouth forms Hangzhou Bay. It has generally been interpreted to mean "crooked" or "bent river" in the Chinese sense of 折, but is more likely a phonosemantic compound formed by adding 氵 (the "water" radical used in river names) to the phonetic 折:hen (pinyin zhé, but reconstructed from Old Chinese \*tet), thus preserving the local Yue proto-Wu name, which is similar to Yuhang, Kuaiji, and Jiang.

**Question 0**

What is the former name of the Qiantang River?

**Question 1**

What is the mouth of the Qiantang River?

**Question 2**

What does Zhe mean in Chinese?

**Question 3**

From which river is Zhejiang province named?

**Question 4**

Past which flows the Qiantang River?

**Question 5**

What is the current name of the Qiantang River?

**Question 6**

What is the former name of the Zhe River?

**Question 7**

What does Zhe mean in Japanese?

**Question 8**

Which lake is Zhejiang province named after?

**Question 9**

Which side does the Qiantang Ocean flow past?

**Text number 2**

Zhejiang was the site of the Neolithic cultures of Hemudu and Liangzhou. DNA analysis of human remains from archaeological sites of prehistoric peoples along the Yangtze River in 2007 shows a high prevalence of haplogroup O1 in the Liangzhu culture, linking them to the Austronesian and Tai-Kadai peoples.

**Question 0**

What kind of cultures were Hemudu and Liangzhu?

**Question 1**

Where were the Hemudu and LIangzhu cultures located?

**Question 2**

What year was the analysis of DNA from the human remains of the Liangzhu culture?

**Question 3**

Which culture did DNA analysis link Austronesians and Thai-Kadai people to?

**Question 4**

Which haplogroup was revealed in the DNA analysis of the Liangzhu culture?

**Question 5**

What is the culture like in Hemudu and Liangzhou?

**Question 6**

Where was the location of the Hemudu and LIangzhu cultures moved to?

**Question 7**

What happened in 2006?

**Question 8**

Which culture did the Austronesians and Tai-Kadai people not associate with in the DNA analysis?

**Question 9**

What haplogroup did the DNA analysis of the Liangzhu culture not reveal?

**Text number 3**

The region of modern Zhejiang was outside the great sphere of influence of the Shang civilisation in the second millennium BC. Instead, this region was inhabited by peoples collectively known as the Sata Yue, including Dongyue and Ouyue. The Yue kingdom began to appear in chronicles and records written during the spring and autumn. According to chronicles, the Yue kingdom was located in the northern part of Zhejiang. Shiji claims that its leaders were descended from Yu the Great, the founder of Shang. Evidence suggests that Baiyue and the Kingdom of Yue had their own culture and history, which differed from those of the Northern and Central China Kingdoms, whose culture and history were carefully recorded in chronicles and historical records during the Spring and Autumn Period and the Qin Dynasty. The Song of the Yue Boatman (Chinese 越人歌, p Yuèrén Gē, lit. 'Song of the Yue Man') was translated into Chinese and written by authors in northern or inner China in the Hebei and Henan regions around 528 BC. The song reveals that the Yue people spoke a language that was incompatible with the dialects spoken in northern and central China. The Yue people seem to have had their own written script. The Goujian sword has a bird-worm cuneiform inscription. Yuenü (Chinese: 越女; pinyin: Yuènǚ; Wade-Giles: Yüeh-nü; literally: "Yue woman") was a swordwoman from the Yue state. To curb the growth of the Wu Kingdom, Chu pursued a policy of strengthening Yue. Under King Goujian, Yue recovered from its early defeats and fully annexed the lands of its rivals in 473 BC. The Yue kings then moved their capital centre from its original home around Mount Kuaiji in present-day Shaoxing to the former capital of Wu in present-day Suzhou. Since the southern power had no force to turn against Yue, Chu opposed it directly and succeeded in 333 BC in destroying it. The Qin Empire annexed the former lands of Yue in 222 BC and organised them into a command, named after Kuaiji in Zhejiang, but initially headquartered at Wu in Jiangsu.

**Question 0**

Who inhabited the Zhejiang regions in the 2nd millennium BC?

**Question 1**

When did the Yue kingdom start to appear?

**Question 2**

Where was the Yue kingdom located according to the chronicles?

**Question 3**

Who does Shiji claim his leaders are descended from?

**Question 4**

What does the sword of Goujian bear?

**Question 5**

Who inhabited the Zhejiang regions in the 1st millennium BC?

**Question 6**

When did the Yue Empire end?

**Question 7**

Where was the Yue kingdom located according to the new chronicles?

**Question 8**

From whom does Shiji reject the fact that its leaders are descended?

**Question 9**

What does the Goujian sword not have?

**Text number 4**

Kuaiji Command was the initial base of the rebellion against the empire of Xiang Liang and Xiang Yun Qin, which initially succeeded in restoring the Kingdom of Chu, but eventually fell to the Han. Under the later Han, control of the area was restored to the settlements below Mount Kuaiji, but power over the interior of Minyue was nominal at best, and its Yue inhabitants largely retained their own political and social structures.

**Question 0**

What was the original power base of Xiang Liang and Xiang Yu's rebellion?

**Question 1**

Who did Chu's empire finally fall to?

**Question 2**

In the later Han Mountains, on which mountain did control of the area revert to the settlement below?

**Question 3**

Who led the rebellion against the Qin Empire with Xiang Liang?

**Question 4**

Against what empire are Xiang Liang and Xiang Yu rebelling?

**Question 5**

What was not the original power base of Xiang Liang and Xiang Yu's rebellion?

**Question 6**

To whom did Chu's empire never fall?

**Question 7**

On which mountain in the early stages of the Han did control of the area revert to the settlement below?

**Question 8**

Who led the rebellion against the Qin Empire with Xiang Liang?

**Question 9**

Which kingdom did Xiang Liang and Xiang Yu ally with?

**Text number 5**

At the beginning of the Three Kingdoms period (220-280 AD), Zhejiang was home to the warlords Yan Baihu and Wang Lang before Sun Ce and Sun Quan overthrew them and established the Kingdom of Wu. Despite the fact that their court was moved from Kuaiyi to Jianye (now Nanjing), they continued to develop the region and benefited from the influx of refugees fleeing the unrest in northern China. Industrial furnaces were established and trade took place as far away as Manchuria and Funan (South Vietnam).

**Question 0**

When did the era of the Three Kingdoms begin?

**Question 1**

What was the home of the warlord Yan Baihu?

**Question 2**

Which empire did Sun Ce and Sun Quan eventually found?

**Question 3**

Where was their court in Cairo moved to?

**Question 4**

How far did the trade extend beyond Manchuria?

**Question 5**

When did the Three Kingdoms era end?

**Question 6**

What was not the home of warlord Yan Baihu?

**Question 7**

What empire did Sun Ce and Sun Quan never establish?

**Question 8**

Where was their court in Kuaij demolished?

**Question 9**

Where, alongside Mantsuria, did the trade never go?

**Text number 6**

Zhejiang was part of Wu during the Three Kingdoms. Wu (229-280), commonly known as East Wu or Sun Wu, had been the most economically developed state among the Three Kingdoms (220-280 AD). According to the historical novel Romance of the Three Kingdoms, Zhejiang had the best equipped, strong naval force. The story describes how the states of Wei (魏) and Shu (蜀) avoided direct confrontation with Wu due to lack of material resources. In armed military confrontations with Wu, the two states relied heavily on the tactics of camouflage and deception by stealing Wu's military resources such as arrows and bows.

**Question 0**

When was Zhejiang part of Wu?

**Question 1**

What is another name for Wulle or Eastern Wulle?

**Question 2**

What was the most developed country in the Three Kingdoms?

**Question 3**

In which historical novel does it say that Zhejiang had the best equipped, strong navy?

**Question 4**

Which country avoided direct conflict with Wu besides Wei?

**Question 5**

When was Zhejiang part of Lu?

**Question 6**

What is another name for Western Wulle?

**Question 7**

Which was the least developed country in the three kingdoms?

**Question 8**

In which historical novel does it say that Zhejiang had the worst equipped, weakest navy?

**Question 9**

Which country did not avoid direct conflict with Wu, along with Wei?

**Text number 7**

Despite the continuing prominence of Nanjing (then known as Jiankang), the settlement of Qiantang (formerly Hangzhou) remained one of the three major metropolitan centres in the south, generating significant tax revenues for the imperial centres of northern China. The other two southern centres were Jiankang and Chengdu. In 589, Qiangtang's status was raised and its name changed to Hangzhou.

**Question 0**

What was the former name of Nanjing?

**Question 1**

What was Hangzhou's former name?

**Question 2**

What was the other major metropolitan centre in the south, apart from Qiantang and Jiankang?

**Question 3**

In what year was the status of Qiantang raised and its name changed to Hangzhou?

**Question 4**

How many major metropolitan centres were there in the South at that time?

**Question 5**

What is the current name of Nanjing?

**Question 6**

What was Jiankang previously known as?

**Question 7**

What is the current name of Hangzhou?

**Question 8**

What happened in 578?

**Text number 8**

After the fall of Wu and the turmoil of the Wu Hu rebellion against the Jin dynasty (265-420), most of the Chinese elite had collaborated with non-Chinese rulers and military conquerors in the north. Some may have lost their social privileges and fled to areas south of the Yangtze River. Some Chinese refugees from northern China may have settled in areas near Hangzhou. For example, the clan of Zhuge Liang (181-234), a Shu Han State Chancellor from the Central Plain of North China during the Three Kingdoms, gathered in the suburbs of Hangzhou to form an exclusive closed Zhuge village (Zhege Cun), consisting of villagers all with the surname 'Zhuge'. The village has deliberately isolated itself from the surrounding communities for centuries until today, and only recently did it come into the public eye. It suggests that a small number of influential, elite Chinese refugees from the Central Plains may have sought refuge south of the Yangtze River. However, given the mountainous geography and relative scarcity of agricultural land in Zhejiang, most of these refugees may have settled in some areas of southern China outside Zhejiang where fertile agricultural land and metropolitan resources were available, mainly in northern Jiangsu, western Fujian, Jiangxi, Hunan, Anhui and provinces where there had been less coherent and organised regional governments. Sichuan's metropolitan areas were another refugee focus, as Shu State had long been established and was dominated by the political and military elites of central and northern Sichuan and China. Some refugees from northern China may have found a settlement in southern China, depending on their social status and military power in the north. The Jin trunk state or the southern dynasties competed with some of the Chinese elites of the central plains and south of the Yangtze River.

**Question 0**

When was the Jin Dynasty?

**Question 1**

Where did the Zhuge Liang clan meet?

**Question 2**

When did Zhuge Village become isolated?

**Question 3**

What kind of geography is there in Zhejiang?

**Question 4**

When did Zhuge Liang reside?

**Question 5**

Which dynasty ended in 265?

**Question 6**

Which dynasty began in 420?

**Question 7**

What kind of geography is not in Zhejiang?

**Question 8**

When did Zhuge Village reveal itself?

**Question 9**

Who died in 181?

**Text number 9**

Zhejiang, as the heartland of Jiangnan (Yangtze Delta), was the richest region during the Six Dynasties (220 or 222-589), Sui and Tang. When it was annexed to the Sui Dynasty, its economic wealth was exploited in the Sui Dynasty's efforts to expand north and south, particularly into Korea and Vietnam. The plan led the Sui Dynasty to renovate and expand the network that became the Great Canal of China. The canal regularly transported grain and natural resources from Zhejiang via its capital Hangzhou (and its hinterland on both the banks of the Zhe River and Hangzhou Bay) and Suzhou to the North China Plain. Instability caused by the Korean War led to the defeat of the Tang by the Sui, who then led the country's centuries-long golden age. Zhejiang was an important economic centre in the eastern district of Jiangnan, and was considered particularly prosperous. Throughout the Tang Dynasty, the Great Canal had remained efficient, transporting grain and material resources to the North China Plain and the metropolitan centres of the empire. With the collapse of the Tang Dynasty, Zhejiang formed the bulk of the territory of the Wuyue Regional Kingdom.

**Question 0**

When did the six dynasties end?

**Question 1**

What was the richest region during the Six Dynasties?

**Question 2**

Which dynasty restored and expanded the network that became China's great canal?

**Question 3**

Which river was one of the great inland canals of China?

**Question 4**

When did the Five Dynasties end?

**Question 5**

What ended in 220?

**Question 6**

What started in 579?

**Question 7**

Which ocean was one of the great inland canals of China?

**Text number 10**

The Song dynasty restored unity around 960 . During the Song, the prosperity of southern China began to overtake that of northern China. When the north was lost to the Jurchen Jin dynasty after the Jingkang Incident1127 , Hangzhou was the capital of the southern Song under the name Lin'an. It was renowned for its wealth and beauty, and may have been the largest city in the world at the time. Since then, North Zhejiang and its neighbouring city of South Jiangsu have been synonymous with luxury and opulence in Chinese culture. The Mongol invasion and the establishment of the Yuan Dynasty in 1279 ended Hangzhou's political influence, but its economy continued to flourish. Marco Polo visited the city, which he called 'Kinsay' (Chinese Jingshin, meaning 'capital'), claiming it was 'the finest and noblest city in the world'.

**Question 0**

When did the Song dynasty restore unity around?

**Question 1**

When was the north lost to Jurchen's Jin dynasty?

**Question 2**

What was Hangzhou known as when it was the capital of Southern Song?

**Question 3**

When was the Yuan Dynasty founded?

**Question 4**

Why did Marco Polo invite Lin'an when he visited it?

**Question 5**

What happened in 950?

**Question 6**

Who broke up in 960?

**Question 7**

What happened in 1126?

**Question 8**

When was the southern region lost to the Jurchen Jin dynasty?

**Text number 11**

Celadon green pottery had been produced in the region since the 3rd century Jin Dynasty, but it re-emerged - particularly in Longquan - during the Southern Song and Yuan periods. Longquan green pottery is characterised by a thick, sticky, blue-green glaze covering an otherwise undecorated light grey porcelain, which is delicately potted. Yuan's Longquan celadon features a thinner, greener glaze on increasingly larger vessels, with decoration and shapes derived from Middle Eastern ceramics and metalware. These were produced in large quantities for China's export trade to Southeast Asia, the Middle East and (in the Ming period) Europe. By the Ming period, however, the quality of production was seriously lacking. During this period, the Longquan kilns declined and were eventually replaced in popularity and pottery production by the kilns of Jingdezhen in Jiangxi.

**Question 0**

What was green pottery made of?

**Question 1**

What colour shade is characteristic of Longquan greenery?

**Question 2**

At what point did Longquan pottery decline?

**Question 3**

Which ovens replaced Longquan ovens in popularity and production?

**Question 4**

Which ornaments are the Yuan Longquan celadons from?

**Question 5**

What was blueware ceramics made of?

**Question 6**

What was red clay pottery made of?

**Question 7**

At what time did Longquan pottery rise?

**Question 8**

Which ovens did not displace Longquan ovens in popularity and production?

**Question 9**

What are the origins of Yuan Longquan's non-celadon ornaments?

**Text number 12**

"In 1727, the to-min or 'idle people' of Cheh Kiang province (a Ningpo name that still exists), the yoh-hu or 'music people' of Shanxi province, the si-min or 'little people' of Kiang Su (Jiangsu) province and the Tanka people or 'egg people' of Canton (who are still the boat people of Canton today) were freed from their social disabilities and allowed to count themselves as free men. "Cheh Kiang" is another novelization of Zhejiang. The Duomin (Chinese: 惰民; pinyin: duò mín; Wade-Giles: to-min) are a marginalized caste in this province.

**Question 0**

What does 'to-min' mean?

**Question 1**

What does 'yoh-hu' mean?

**Question 2**

What does 'si-min' mean?

**Question 3**

What does Tanka mean?

**Question 4**

What is "Keh Chiang"?

**Question 5**

What does 'mo-min' mean?

**Question 6**

What does 'yoh-hue' mean?

**Question 7**

What does 'se-min' mean?

**Question 8**

What does Tonka mean?

**Question 9**

What does Keh Chyng mean in Latin?

**Text number 13**

During the First Opium War, the British navy defeated the Eight Banners at Ningbo and Dinghai. Ningbo became one of five Chinese treaty ports opened to virtually unlimited foreign trade, under the terms of the Treaty of Nanking signed in 1843. Much of Zhejiang came under the control of the Taiping Sky Kingdom during the Taiping Rebellion, resulting in considerable loss of life in the province. In 1876, Wenzhou became Zhejiang's second treaty port.

**Question 0**

During which war did the British navy defeat the Eight Banners at Ningbo and Dinghai?

**Question 1**

When was the Treaty of Nanking signed?

**Question 2**

Which became one of the five Chinese treaty ports under the terms of the Nanking agreement?

**Question 3**

What control did much of Zhejiang come under during the Taiping Rebellion?

**Question 4**

When did Wenzhou become Zhejiang's second contract port?

**Question 5**

During which war was the British navy defeated by the Eight Banners at Ningbo and Dinghai?

**Question 6**

When was the Nanking agreement rejected?

**Question 7**

What did not become one of the five Chinese treaty ports under the terms of the Nanking agreement?

**Question 8**

What did a large part of Zhejiang abandon during the Taiping uprising?

**Question 9**

When did Wenzhou become Zhejiang's third contract port?

**Text number 14**

During the Second Sino-Japanese War, which led to World War II, Japan occupied much of Zhejiang and placed it under the control of the Japanese puppet state known as the Reorganized National Government of China. After the Doolittle raid, most of the American B-25 fighters that had crashed in China eventually reached safety with the help of Chinese civilians and soldiers. However, the Chinese who helped them paid dearly for protecting the Americans. The Imperial Japanese Army launched the Zhejiang-Jiangxi campaign to deter the Chinese from helping the downed American pilots. The Japanese killed an estimated 250,000 civilians in their search for Doolittle's men.

**Question 0**

What war did the second Sino-Japanese war lead to?

**Question 1**

Who occupied much of Zhejiang during the Second Sino-Japanese War?

**Question 2**

How many civilians were killed by the Japanese in their search for Doolittle's men?

**Question 3**

What kind of American crews landed in China after the Doolittle invasion?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the Japanese puppet state that occupied Zhejiang?

**Question 5**

What war did the Third Sino-Japanese War lead to?

**Question 6**

What led to the First World War?

**Question 7**

Who did not occupy any part of Zhejiang during the Second Sino-Japanese War?

**Question 8**

How many estimated civilians were rescued by the Japanese in their search for Doolittle's men?

**Text number 15**

After the People's Republic of China took control of mainland China in 1949, the government of the Republic of China in Taiwan continued to control the Dachen Islands off the coast of Zhejiang in Taiwan until 1955, when it even established a rival Zhejiang provincial government there, creating a situation similar to that of the current Fujian province. During the Cultural Revolution (1966-76), Zhejiang was in a state of chaos and disunity, and its economy had stagnated, especially during the revolutionary boom (1966-69). Agricultural policies that favoured grain production over industrial and cash crops added to the province's economic difficulties. Mao's policy of self-sufficiency and the reduction of maritime trade cut off the lifelines of the port cities of Ningbo and Wenzhou. Although Mao invested heavily in railways in China's interior, no major railways were built in southern Zhejiang, where transport remained poor.

**Question 0**

When did the People's Republic of China take control of mainland China?

**Question 1**

When did the Republic of China rule the Dachen Islands?

**Question 2**

When was the Cultural Revolution?

**Question 3**

When was the high tide of the Cultural Revolution?

**Question 4**

What production did agricultural policy favour over industrial and cash crops?

**Question 5**

What happened in 1944?

**Question 6**

What happened in 1956?

**Question 7**

What happened between 1955 and 1977?

**Question 8**

When was the low tide of the Cultural Revolution?

**Text number 16**

Zhejiang benefited less from central government investment than some other provinces because of its lack of natural resources, its location, its vulnerability to potential sea inundation and its average economic base. However, Zhejiang has been at the centre of China's capitalist development and has led the country in developing a market economy and private enterprises. The northeastern Zhejiang region, part of the Yangtze Delta, is flat, more developed and industrialised.

**Question 0**

What kind of resources does Zhejiang lack?

**Question 1**

What is Zhejiang's location vulnerable to from the sea?

**Question 2**

What has been the development in Zhejiang?

**Question 3**

Which part of Zhejiang is part of the Yangtze Delta?

**Question 4**

What is the geography of north-eastern Zhejiang?

**Question 5**

What kind of natural resources are abundant in Zhejiang?

**Question 6**

What is the location of Zhejiang not exposed to the sea?

**Question 7**

What kind of development has Zhejiang never been?

**Question 8**

Which part of Zhejiang is not part of the Yangtze Delta?

**Question 9**

What is the geography of south-eastern Zhejiang?

**Text number 17**

Zhejiang is mostly made up of hills, which account for about 70% of its total land area. Elevations are generally highest in the south and west, with the province's highest peak, Huangmaojian Peak ( 1,929m or 6,329ft), located there. Other notable mountains include Yandang, Tianmu, Tiantai and Mogan, ranging in elevation from 700 to 1,500 metres (2,300 to 4,900 feet).

**Question 0**

What does Zhejiang mainly consist of?

**Question 1**

What percentage of Zhejiang is hilly?

**Question 2**

What is the highest peak in the province?

**Question 3**

How high is Huangmaojian Peak in metres?

**Question 4**

How high is Huangmaojian Peak in feet?

**Question 5**

What does Zhejiang not mostly consist of?

**Question 6**

What percentage of Zhejiang is flat?

**Question 7**

What is the lowest peak in the province?

**Question 8**

How low is Huangmaojian Peak in metres?

**Question 9**

How low is Huangmaojian Peak in feet?

**Text number 18**

There are valleys and plains along the coast and rivers. The northern part of the province lies south of the Yangtze Delta and consists of the plains around the cities of Hangzhou, Jiaxing and Huzhou, where the Great Canal of China runs from the northern border to the city of Hangzhou. Another relatively flat area lies along the Qu River around the cities of Quzhou and Jinhua. The most important rivers are the Qiangtang and Ou rivers. Most rivers carve valleys in the highlands and are rich in rapids and other features associated with such topography. Well-known lakes include Hangzhou West Lake and Jiaxing South Lake.

**Question 0**

Where is the northern part of the province just south of?

**Question 1**

Where does China's Grand Canal end?

**Question 2**

Besides the Qiangtang River, what is the most important river in the province?

**Question 3**

What is Hangzhou's famous lake?

**Question 4**

What is the well-known Jiaxing Lake?

**Question 5**

Which is the northern part of the province?

**Question 6**

Where does Japan's Grand Canal end?

**Question 7**

Besides the Qiangtang River, what is the smallest river in the province?

**Question 8**

What is not known as Hangzhou Lake?

**Question 9**

What is not known as Jiaxing Lake?

**Text number 19**

Zhejiang's rugged coastline has more than three thousand islands. The largest, Zhoushan Island, is the third largest island in mainland China after Hainan and Chongming. There are also many bays in the area, of which Hangzhou Bay is the largest. Zhejiang has a humid subtropical climate with four distinct seasons. Spring starts in March, with rainy and variable weather. Summer from June to September is long, hot, rainy and humid. Autumn is usually dry, warm and sunny. Winters are short but cold, except in the south. The average annual temperature is around 15-19 °C, the average temperature in January is around 2-8 °C and the average temperature in July is around 27-30 °C. The average temperature in January is around 1,5-8 °C and the average temperature in July is around 1,5-8 °C. Annual rainfall is around 1 000-1 900 mm. In early summer there is heavy rainfall, and in late summer Zhejiang is threatened by typhoons directly from the Pacific Ocean.

**Question 0**

How many islands are there on the rugged coast of Zhejiang?

**Question 1**

What is the largest island near Zhejiang?

**Question 2**

What is the largest bay in Zhejiang?

**Question 3**

How many different seasons are there in Zhejiang?

**Question 4**

When does spring start in Zhejiang?

**Question 5**

How many islands are there that are not on the rugged coast of Zhejiang?

**Question 6**

What is the smallest bay in Zhejiang?

**Question 7**

How many seasons does Zhejiang never have?

**Text number 20**

Zhejiang's eleven prefecture-level counties are divided into 90 county-level districts (36 counties, 20 county-level cities, 33 counties and one autonomous county). These in turn are divided into city-level districts1,570 (761 cities, 505 towns, 14 ethnic towns and 290 sub-districts). Hengdian is part of Jinhua District, which is the largest film and TV drama filming location in China. Hengdian is known as "China's Hollywood".

**Question 0**

How many prefecture-level regions are there in Zhejiang?

**Question 1**

How many county-level regions are there in Zhejiang?

**Question 2**

How many city-level districts are there in Zhejiang?

**Question 3**

What is the biggest film and TV drama location in China?

**Question 4**

What is called "China's Hollywood"?

**Question 5**

How many non-prefectural areas are there in Zhejiang?

**Question 6**

How many extra-provincial regions are there in Zhejiang?

**Question 7**

How many city-level districts are there in Zhejiang?

**Question 8**

What is called "China's New York"?

**Text number 21**

Zhejiang politics is based on a system of two parties and a government, like all other governments in mainland China. The Governor of Zhejiang is the highest official in the Zhejiang People's Government. However, under the provincial two-party system of government, the governor is subordinate to the Secretary of the Provincial Committee of the Communist Party of China (CPC), colloquially known as the Zhejiang CPC Party Chief.

**Question 0**

How is Zhejiang's policy structured?

**Question 1**

Who is the highest official in the Zhejiang People's Government?

**Question 2**

Who does the Governor report to?

**Question 3**

Who is the Secretary of the Provincial Committee of the Communist Party of China (CPC) in Zhejiang Province?

**Question 4**

What kind of party-government system is the system of all mainland Chinese governments?

**Question 5**

How is Zhejiang's policy not structured?

**Question 6**

Who is the lowest official in the Zhejiang People's Government?

**Question 7**

To whom is the governor not subordinate?

**Question 8**

What is the secretary of the Zhejiang Communist Party (CPC) Provincial Committee who is not known in the province?

**Question 9**

What kind of party-government system has never existed in mainland China's governing bodies?

**Text number 22**

Several political figures who have held the highest political office of the Zhejiang Communist Party Secretary have played a key role in various events in the history of the People's Republic of China. Tan Zhenlin (term 1949-1952), the incumbent Party Secretary, was one of the leading voices against Mao's Cultural Revolution during the so-called February Counterrevolution of 1967. Jiang Hua (1956-1968), was "chief judge" of the Special Court against the Gang of Four in 1980. Since the 1990s, the three provincial Party secretaries have risen to the national level. They include General Secretary of the Chinese People's Congress and President Xi Jinping (2002-2007 term), People's Congress Chairman and former Vice Premier Zhang Dejiang (1998-2002 term) and Zhao Hongzhu (2007-2012 term), who is Deputy Secretary of the Central Commission for Discipline Inspection, the highest anti-corruption body in China. Of the 14 party secretaries in Zhejiang since 1949, none is from the province.

**Question 0**

When did Tan Zhenlin serve as secretary of the Zhenjiang Communist Party?

**Question 1**

Who was the first Party Secretary of the Zhenjiang Communist Party?

**Question 2**

When was the so-called February counter-current?

**Question 3**

When was Jiang Hua in office?

**Question 4**

When was the gang of four prosecuted?

**Question 5**

What happened in 1948?

**Question 6**

What was the March countercurrent in 1967?

**Question 7**

When was the October counter-current?

**Question 8**

When was the Gang of Five prosecuted?

**Text number 23**

The province is traditionally known as the "land of fish and rice". As the name suggests, rice is the main crop, followed by wheat; North Zhejiang is also the centre of China's aquaculture, and Zhoushan Fishing Area is the country's largest fishing area. The main cash crops are jute and cotton, and the province is also China's leading tea-producing region (the famous Longjing tea is a product of Hangzhou). Zhejiang's cities have been famous for handicrafts such as silk, for which it ranks second among the provinces. Its many trading cities link the cities to the countryside.

**Question 0**

What is the traditional name of the province?

**Question 1**

What is the most important crop in the province?

**Question 2**

What is the second main crop in the province?

**Question 3**

Which part of Zhejiang is the centre of aquaculture in China?

**Question 4**

What is the largest fishing area in the country?

**Question 5**

By what name will the province never be known?

**Question 6**

What is not the most important crop in the province?

**Question 7**

What is the least important crop in the province?

**Question 8**

Which part of Zhejiang is not the centre of aquaculture in China?

**Question 9**

What is the smallest fishing area in the country?

**Text number 24**

Ningbo, Wenzhou, Taizhou and Zhoushan are important trading ports. The Hangzhou Bay Bridge between Haiyan County and Cixi is the longest bridge in the world crossing a continuous stretch of sea water.

**Question 0**

What is an important commercial port alongside Ningbo, Wenzhou and Taizhou?

**Question 1**

What is the bridge between Haiyan County and Cix?

**Question 2**

What is the longest bridge in the world crossing a continuous stretch of sea water?

**Question 3**

What are the ports like in Taizhou and Ningbo?

**Question 4**

The Hangzhou Bay Bridge passes through Haiyan County and where else?

**Question 5**

What is not an important commercial port alongside Ningbo, Wenzhou and Taizhou?

**Question 6**

Which bridge does not go to Haiyan County?

**Question 7**

Which bridge does not go to Cix?

**Question 8**

What kind of ports are Taizhou and Ningbo not?

**Text number 25**

Zhejiang's main manufacturing industries are electromechanical, textiles, chemicals, food processing and building materials. In recent years, Zhejiang has followed its own development model, known as the "Zhejiang Model", based on prioritising and encouraging entrepreneurship, emphasising small enterprises responsive to market whims, large public investment in infrastructure and mass production of low-cost goods for both domestic consumption and export. As a result, Zhejiang has made itself one of the richest provinces and the "Zhejiang spirit" has become something of a legend in China. However, some economists are now concerned that this model is not sustainable because it is inefficient and places excessive demands on raw materials and public services, and that it is also a dead end because Zhejiang's myriad small businesses, which produce cheap goods in bulk, are unable to move into more advanced or technologically advanced industries. Zhejiang's economic centre is shifting from Hangzhou in northern Zhejiang to the south-east of Wenzhou and Taizhou. The per capita disposable income of urban residents in Zhejiang was 24 611 yuan (US$ 3 603) in 2009, with an annual real growth rate of 8.3%. The net per capita income of rural residents was 10 007 yuan (1 465 USD), with an annual real growth rate of 8.1%. Zhejiang's nominal GDP in 2011 was 3.20 trillion yuan (USD 506 billion) and GDP per capita was 44 335 yuan (USD 6 490). In 2009, the value of Zhejiang's primary, secondary and tertiary industries was 116.2 billion yuan (17 billion USD), 1.1843 trillion yuan (173.4 billion USD) and 982.7 billion yuan (143.9 billion USD) respectively.

**Question 0**

What is Zhejiang's own development model?

**Question 1**

What is the Zhejiang model, based on prioritisation and incentives?

**Question 2**

Which way is the economic heart of Zhejiang heading?

**Question 3**

What was the annual real growth rate of urban residents in Zhejiang in 2009?

**Question 4**

What was Zhejiang's nominal GDP in yuan in 2011?

**Question 5**

What Zhejiang's own development model has not been taken into account?

**Question 6**

Which Zhejiang model is based on discouraging?

**Question 7**

Which way is the economic heart of Zhejiang moving?

**Question 8**

What was the annual real growth rate of urban residents in Zhejiang in 2008?

**Question 9**

What was Zhejiang's nominal GDP in yuan in 2001?

**Text number 26**

On Thursday 15 September 2011, more than 500 people from Hongxiao village protested against the large-scale death of fish in a nearby river. Angry protesters stormed the factory site of Zhejiang Jinko Solar Company, overturning eight company vehicles and destroying offices before police arrived to disperse the crowd. Protests continued over the next two nights, with fights reported, according to authorities. Chen Hongming, deputy chief of the Haining Environmental Protection Bureau, said the factory's waste management had failed pollution tests since April. The factory had been warned by the environmental supervision authority but had failed to effectively monitor pollution, Chen added.

**Question 0**

What day of the week was 15 September 2011?

**Question 1**

Which village protested against the large-scale death of fish in a nearby river on 15 September 2011?

**Question 2**

How many company vehicles were overturned by angry protesters at Zhejiang Jinko Solar?

**Question 3**

How many nights did the protests continue after the first day?

**Question 4**

Who was the deputy head of the Haining Environmental Protection Agency at the time?

**Question 5**

What day of the week was 14 September 2011?

**Question 6**

What happened on 15 September 2001?

**Question 7**

When did humans accept the large-scale death of fish?

**Question 8**

What are 50 people protesting against?

**Text number 27**

Han Chinese make up the majority of the population, with the largest Han sub-group being Wu Chinese speakers. There are also 400,000 ethnic minorities, including about 200,000 She Chinese and 20,000 Hui Chinese. Jingning She Autonomous County in Lishui is the only She Autonomous County in China.

**Question 0**

What are the vast majority of Chinese people like?

**Question 1**

Which varieties of Chinese are spoken by the largest Han sub-group?

**Question 2**

How many ethnic minorities are there?

**Question 3**

How many She-people are there?

**Question 4**

Where is the only She county in China?

**Question 5**

What kind of Japanese make up the vast majority of the population?

**Question 6**

What varieties of Chinese does the smallest Han subgroup speak?

**Question 7**

How many members of the ethnic majority are there?

**Question 8**

How many not-She people are there?

**Question 9**

Where is the only She-circle in Japan?

**Text number 28**

The predominant religions in Zhejiang are Chinese folk religions, Taoist traditions and Chinese Buddhism. According to surveys conducted in 2007 and 2009, 23.02% of the population believe in and participate in ancestor cults, while 2.62% of the population profess Christianity, down from 3.92% in 2004. The reports did not provide figures for other types of religion. 74.36% of the population may either be irreligious or participate in the worship of nature gods, Buddhism, Confucianism, Taoism, folk sects and a small minority of Muslims.

**Question 0**

What is the other dominant religion in Zhejiang, apart from Chinese folk religions and Taoist tradition?

**Question 1**

According to surveys conducted in 2007 and 2009, what percentage of the population believes in ancestor cults?

**Question 2**

According to surveys conducted in 2007 and 2009, what percentage of the population consider themselves Christians?

**Question 3**

What percentage of the population professed to be Christians in 2004?

**Question 4**

What percentage of the population can be irreligious?

**Question 5**

What is the other dominant religion in Zhejiang, apart from Japanese folk religions and Taoist tradition?

**Question 6**

According to surveys in 2007 and 2009, what percentage of the population does not believe in ancestor cults?

**Question 7**

What percentage of the population professed to be Christians in 2007?

**Question 8**

What percentage of the population is non-religious?

**Text number 29**

The Zhejiang government recognized the folk religion as a "civil religion" and began registering more than twenty thousand folk religion associations. 2015 Buddhism has a prominent position since its arrival in Zhejiang 1800 years ago.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Zhejiang government recognise folk religion as a "civil religion"?

**Question 1**

When did Buddhism arrive in Zhejiang?

**Question 2**

What has played an important role in Zhejiang since its arrival 1800 years ago?

**Question 3**

At what point in 2015 did the Zhejiang government recognise folk religion as a "civil religion"?

**Question 4**

How many thousands of folk religious organisations were registered in Zhejiang in 2015?

**Question 5**

In what year did the Zhejiang government reject folk religion as a "civil religion"?

**Question 6**

When did Buddhism leave Zhejiang?

**Question 7**

What has been an important part of Zhejiang since its departure 1800 years ago?

**Question 8**

At what point in 2013 did the Zhejiang government recognise folk religion as a "civil religion"?

**Question 9**

How many hundreds of folk religious organisations were registered in Zhejiang in 2015?

**Text number 30**

Catholicism arrived in the province years ago, 400 years ago, and Protestantism 150 years ago. Zhejiang is one of the provinces in China with the highest number of Protestants, especially in the city of Wenzhou. In 1999, Zhejiang's Protestant population accounted for 2.8% of the provincial population, a small percentage but higher than the national average.

**Question 0**

How many years ago did Catholicism arrive in the province?

**Question 1**

How many years ago did Protestantism arrive in the province?

**Question 2**

Where are Protestants particularly prominent in Zhejiang?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Zhejiang was Protestant in 1999?

**Question 4**

Which religion came to Zhejiang 400 years ago?

**Question 5**

How many years ago did Catholicism leave the province?

**Question 6**

How many years ago did Protestantism leave the province?

**Question 7**

Where are Protestants not significant in Zhejiang?

**Question 8**

What percentage of Zhejiang was Protestant in 1998?

**Question 9**

Which religion came to Zhejiang 500 years ago?

**Text number 31**

The rapid development of religions in Zhejiang has prompted the Local Committee for Ethnic and Religious Affairs to take measures to rationalise them2014, known locally as either "Three Repairs and One Demolition" or "Special Treatment of Illegally Built Religious and Folk Religion Sites". These provisions have led to the demolition of churches and folk temples or the removal of crosses from church roofs and towers. The Sanjiang church was a case in point.

**Question 0**

When did the rapid development of religions in Zhejiang prompt the Local Committee for Ethnic and Religious Affairs to take steps to rationalise them?

**Question 1**

What was the second name of these measures, according to the locality, apart from "Three corrections and one demolition"?

**Question 2**

These regulations have led to the dismantling of churches and what else?

**Question 3**

What have these provisions led to in the abolition of churches?

**Question 4**

What was an example of all this?

**Question 5**

When did the local Ethnic and Religious Affairs Committee take steps to rationalise religions, given the slow development of religions in Zhejiang?

**Question 6**

According to the site, in addition to "Five corrections and two demolitions", what was the other name of these measures?

**Question 7**

These provisions have not led to the dismantling of churches and what else?

**Question 8**

Where have these regulations led to the proliferation of churches?

**Question 9**

What was not an exemplary case of all this?

**Text number 32**

Islam arrived in Zhejiang years1,400 years ago. Today, Islam is practised by a small number of people, including almost all Hui Chinese living in Zhejiang. Another religion present in the province is She Shamanism (practised by the She ethnic minority).

**Question 0**

How long ago did Islam arrive in Zhejiang?

**Question 1**

What religion do the Hui Chinese in Zhejiang practice?

**Question 2**

How many of the Hui Chinese living in Zhejiang practice Islam?

**Question 3**

What is the ethnic minority She practises in Zhejiang?

**Question 4**

Which religion came to Zhejiang 1400 years ago?

**Question 5**

How long ago did Islam leave Zhejiang?

**Question 6**

What religion do the Hui Chinese living in Zhejiang not practice?

**Question 7**

How many Hui Chinese living in Zhejiang do not practice Islam?

**Question 8**

What ethnic minority does she not practice in Zhejiang?

**Question 9**

Which religion left Zhejiang 1400 years ago?

**Text number 33**

Zhejiang is mountainous and has therefore fostered the development of many different local cultures. Linguistically, Zhejiang is very diverse. Most of Zhejiang's people speak Wu, but the dialects of Wu are very different, especially in the south, where one valley speaks a dialect that the valley a few kilometres away does not understand at all. Other varieties of Chinese are also spoken, mainly on the border; Mandarin and Huizhou dialects are spoken on the Anhui border, while Min dialects are spoken on the Fujian border (see Hangzhou dialect, Shaoxing dialect, Ningbo dialect, Wenzhou dialect, Taizhou dialect, Jinhua dialect and Quzhou dialect for more information).

**Question 0**

How linguistically diverse is Zhejiang?

**Question 1**

What do most people in Zhejiang speak?

**Question 2**

Where is the border between Mandarin and Huizhou dialect?

**Question 3**

What dialects are spoken at the border where?

**Question 4**

What is the geography of Zhejiang?

**Question 5**

How similar is Zhejiang linguistically?

**Question 6**

What do Zhejiang residents not speak?

**Question 7**

Mandarin and Huizhou dialects are spoken within which region?

**Question 8**

Min dialects are not spoken at the border where?

**Question 9**

What kind of geography is Zhejiang never considered?

**Text number 34**

Throughout history, the region has used several languages to improve communication. The dialects spoken in Hangzhou, Shaoxing and Ningbo have historically taken on this role. Since the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949, Mandarin Chinese, which is not intelligible with any of the local dialects, has become the standard language of communication throughout China. As a result, most of the population speaks and understands Mandarin to some extent and can change the code if necessary. Most of the educated population can speak Mandarin in 1978. Urban dwellers tend to be more fluent in Mandarin than rural dwellers. However, the Zhejiang accent can be detected in almost all residents of the region who communicate in Mandarin, and the home dialect remains an important part of the daily life and cultural identity of most Zhejiang residents.

**Question 0**

When was the People's Republic of China established?

**Question 1**

Which language has been considered the standard language of communication in China since 1949?

**Question 2**

Since when does the majority of the educated population speak Mandarin Chinese?

**Question 3**

What kind of residents tend to be more fluent in Mandarin than those in rural areas?

**Question 4**

Throughout history, there have been several what area allows for better communication?

**Question 5**

When was the People's Republic of China abolished?

**Question 6**

Which language has not been promoted as the standard language of communication throughout China since 1949?

**Question 7**

Since when does an educated minority of the population speak Mandarin Chinese?

**Question 8**

What kind of residents tend not to speak Mandarin as fluently as those in rural areas?

**Question 9**

Throughout history there have been several what in the region allows for poorer communication?

**Text number 35**

Zhejiang is home to Yueju (越劇), one of the most important forms of Chinese opera. Yueju originated in Shengzhou and is traditionally performed only by actors in both male and female roles. Other important opera traditions include Yongju (Ningbo), Shaoju (Shaoxing), Ouju (Wenzhou), Wuju (Jinhua), Taizhou Luantan (Taizhou) and Zhuji Luantan (Zhuji).

**Question 0**

What is one of the most famous forms of Chinese opera?

**Question 1**

Where does Yueju come from?

**Question 2**

Who traditionally plays Yueju?

**Question 3**

Who plays the male roles in Yueju?

**Question 4**

Who plays the female roles in Yueju?

**Question 5**

What is one of the least known forms of Chinese opera?

**Question 6**

Where did Yueju end?

**Question 7**

Who never plays Yueju?

**Question 8**

Who doesn't play male roles in Yueju?

**Question 9**

Who doesn't play female roles in Yueju?

**Text number 36**

Longjing tea (also called Dragon's Well tea), which originated in Hangzhou, is one of the most, if not the most, revered Chinese teas. Hangzhou is also famous for its silk umbrellas and hand-held showerheads. Zhejiang cuisine (which is divided into many traditions, including Hangzhou cuisine) is one of the eight great traditions of Chinese cuisine.

**Question 0**

What is the name of Longjing-teen?

**Question 1**

Where does Longjing tea come from?

**Question 2**

What kind of umbrellas are Hangzhou known for?

**Question 3**

What kind of fans are Hangzhou known for?

**Question 4**

Zhejiang cuisine is one of the many great traditions of Chinese cuisine?

**Question 5**

What is Shortjing tea?

**Question 6**

Where is Longjing tea banned from?

**Question 7**

What kind of clothes is Hangzhou known for?

**Question 8**

What kind of shoes is Hangzhou known for?

**Question 9**

Zhejiang cuisine is one of the many great traditions of Japanese cuisine?

**Text number 37**

Since ancient times, northern Zhejiang and neighbouring southern Jiangsu have been famous for their wealth and opulence, and the mere addition of the place names of northern Zhejiang (Hangzhou, Jiaxing, etc.) to the poems gave a dreamlike impression that many famous poets have followed. The reputation of Hangzhou in particular (as well as Suzhou in the neighbouring province of Jiangsu) has led to the popular saying: 'Above is heaven, below is Suzhou and Hangzhou' (上有天堂，下有苏杭), a saying that remains a source of pride for the inhabitants of these two still prosperous cities.

**Question 0**

What are the neighbours south of northern Zhejiang?

**Question 1**

What is the northern neighbour of southern Jiangsu?

**Question 2**

Northern Zhejiang and southern Jiangsu are famous for their abundance and what else?

**Question 3**

The addition of the names of Northern Zhejiang to the poetry was influenced by what?

**Question 4**

Where did reputation lead to popular saying?

**Question 5**

What are the neighbours in the north of Zhejiang in the east?

**Question 6**

What are the neighbouring countries south of Jiangsu in the west?

**Question 7**

Southern Zhejiang and northern Jiangsu are famous for their abundance and what else?

**Question 8**

The addition of the names of South Hejang to the poetry made an impact on what?

**Question 9**

What said "Below is heaven"

**Document number 87**

**Text number 0**

The Ministry of Defence (MoD) is the UK Government department responsible for implementing the defence policy set out by Her Majesty's Government and is the headquarters of the UK Armed Forces.

**Question 0**

Which government's Ministry of Defence is mentioned here?

**Question 1**

What is MoD?

**Question 2**

Who is in charge of UK defence policy?

**Question 3**

What is the headquarters of the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 4**

What is another name for Her Majesty's Government?

**Question 5**

What is Her Majesty's Government Headquarters?

**Question 6**

Who will implement the position of Her Majesty's Government?

**Question 7**

Where is Her Majesty's Government Headquarters?

**Question 8**

What are the British armed forces doing?

**Text number 1**

According to the Ministry of Defence, its main objectives are to defend the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and its interests and to strengthen international peace and stability. With the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War, the Ministry of Defence does not see conventional military threats in the short term; rather, it has identified weapons of mass destruction, international terrorism and failed and failing states as the main threats to the UK's interests. The Ministry of Defence is also responsible for the day-to-day running of the armed forces, contingency planning and defence procurement.

**Question 0**

What does the Ministry of Defence want to strengthen?

**Question 1**

Which two regions make up the United Kingdom?

**Question 2**

What does the Ministry of Defence defend?

**Question 3**

What threats has the Ministry of Defence identified?

**Question 4**

What does the Ministry of Defence manage?

**Question 5**

What will be strengthened in the Soviet Union after the Cold War?

**Question 6**

What does Northern Ireland see as a short-term threat?

**Question 7**

What has Northern Ireland identified as a threat to international peace and stability?

**Question 8**

What does Northern Ireland need to deal with on a daily basis?

**Question 9**

What is the one thing the Soviet Union wants to defend?

**Text number 2**

In the 1920s and 1930s, British officials and politicians concluded, based on the state's performance during the First World War, that there should be greater coordination between the three services that make up the British armed forces - the British Army, the Royal Navy and the Royal Air Force. David Lloyd George's coalition government rejected the creation of a single Ministry of Defence in 1921, but a Committee of Chiefs of Staff was set up in 1923 to allow for inter-service coordination. When rearmament became a concern in the 1930s, Stanley Baldwin created the post of Minister for Defence Coordination. Lord Chatfield held the post until the fall of the Neville Chamberlain government in 1940; his success was limited by the fact that he had no control over existing units and limited political influence.

**Question 0**

Which three units make up the UK Armed Forces?

**Question 1**

What did David Lloyd George's coalition government reject in 1921?

**Question 2**

When was the Committee of Chiefs of Staff established?

**Question 3**

Who created the post of Minister for Defence Coordination?

**Question 4**

What was Lord Chatfield's post until 1940?

**Question 5**

When did David Lloyd George's coalition government reject the creation of a Royal Navy?

**Question 6**

Why was a group of British civil servants formed in 1923?

**Question 7**

What did Neville Chamberlain create in the 1920s?

**Question 8**

When was the Royal Air Force abolished?

**Question 9**

Which three services were restricted by political influence in 1923?

**Text number 3**

When Winston Churchill formed his government in 1940, he created the post of Minister of Defence to oversee the Chiefs of Staff Committee at ministerial level and coordinate defence matters. The post was held by the Prime Minister until the Ministry of Defence Act of 1946 ... was introduced by the government of Clement Attlee. The new Ministry was headed by the Minister for Defence, who had a seat in the Cabinet. The three existing ministers - the Minister for War, the First Lord of the Admiralty and the Minister for Air - continued to have direct control of their respective departments but no longer sat in the Cabinet.

**Question 0**

Who created the post of Defence Minister?

**Question 1**

When was the Ministry of Defence Act introduced?

**Question 2**

When did Winstron Churchill form his government?

**Question 3**

Under the 1946 Act, the new ministry was headed by the Minister of Defence, who had what?

**Question 4**

Who stopped attending Cabinet meetings after the 1946 Ministry of Defence Act was passed?

**Question 5**

Who set up the Committee of Chiefs of Staff?

**Question 6**

Who was the Minister of War?

**Question 7**

How long was someone in the post of Secretary of War?

**Question 8**

When was the State Secretary Act introduced?

**Question 9**

What did Winston Churchill have as Defence Secretary?

**Text number 4**

Between 1946 and 1964, the functions of the modern Ministry of Defence were carried out by five ministries: the Admiralty, the War Ministry, the Air Ministry, the Air Ministry and the former Ministry of Defence. These ministries were merged in 1964; the defence functions of the Ministry of Aviation were merged into the Ministry of Defence in 1971.

**Question 0**

In what years did five ministries of finance do the work of a modern Ministry of Defence?

**Question 1**

What were the five ministries that did the work of a modern Ministry of Defence?

**Question 2**

When were the defence functions of the Ministry of Aircraft Maintenance merged into the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 3**

In which year did all the former ministries (except the Ministry of Aviation) merge?

**Question 4**

What work was the War Office doing in 1971?

**Question 5**

Which five defence activities were merged in 1971?

**Question 6**

What did the Ministry of Aircraft Maintenance do between 1946 and 1964?

**Question 7**

Where were the defence functions of the Ministry of Aircraft Maintenance merged into in 1964?

**Question 8**

What happened to the War Office in 1971?

**Text number 5**

Ministers and Chiefs of Defence Staff are supported by a team of civilian, scientific and military experts. The most senior official in the Ministry of Defence is the Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Defence (commonly known as the "Permanent Secretary"). His role is to ensure that the Ministry of Defence functions effectively as a government department.

**Question 0**

Who are the civil, scientific and military advisers supporting?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Defence?

**Question 2**

Where is the Secretary of State the highest civil servant?

**Question 3**

What is the role of the permanent secretary?

**Question 4**

Who supports the permanent secretary?

**Question 5**

What is the Defence Minister's middle name?

**Question 6**

What is the role of the Commander-in-Chief of the Defence Forces?

**Question 7**

Where does the Minister of Defence have the highest ranking civil servant?

**Question 8**

What does the Chief of Defence Forces do?

**Text number 6**

The current Chief of Defence Staff, the professional head of the UK Armed Forces, is General Sir Nicholas Houghton, the late Green Howards. He is supported by the Deputy Chief of Defence Staff, the professional heads of the three branches of the UK Armed Forces and the Commander of the Joint Forces.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the person who is the current Chief of Defence Staff?

**Question 1**

Who is the professional leader of the British armed forces?

**Question 2**

Which three services' professional heads support the Chief of Defence Staff?

**Question 3**

Which person at the Joint Force Command Centre supports the Chief of Defence Staff?

**Question 4**

Who is the commander of the joint force?

**Question 5**

What is the title of HM Chief of the Armed Forces?

**Question 6**

Which three unit commanders support the Joint Force Commander?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the person who used to command the Joint Forces Command?

**Question 8**

Who is the professional head of the British armed forces staff?

**Text number 7**

There are also three Deputy Chiefs of Defence Staff with specific responsibilities: the Deputy Chief of Defence Staff (Resources), the Deputy Chief of Training (Personnel and Training) and the Deputy Chief of Training (Operations). The Chief Medical Officer represents the Armed Forces medical staff at the Armed Forces Staff and is the clinical director of the unit concerned.

**Question 0**

How many Deputy Chiefs of Defence Staff are there?

**Question 1**

Who are the three Deputy Chiefs of Defence Staff?

**Question 2**

Who represents the medical services of the Defence Forces at the Defence Staff?

**Question 3**

Who runs the medical services of the armed forces?

**Question 4**

How many Ministry of Defence medical units are there?

**Question 5**

Which three categories are covered by the Armed Forces Medical Services?

**Question 6**

Who is responsible for the Deputy Chief of Defence Staff?

**Question 7**

Who is the deputy director of CDS?

**Question 8**

Where is the Deputy Chief Medical Officer, represented by the Chief Medical Officer?

**Text number 8**

In addition, there are several Deputy Chiefs of Defence Staff, including the Deputy Chief of Defence Staff (Reserves and Cadets) and the Secretary of State for Defence of the Royal Household, who is also the Deputy Chief of Defence Staff (Personnel).

**Question 0**

One of the deputy chiefs of staff of the armed forces is a reservist and what?

**Question 1**

The HR manager is also known as the what?

**Question 2**

Where is the Minister for Defence in the Royal House?

**Question 3**

Who are the two Deputy Chiefs of Defence?

**Question 4**

Who is the Deputy Chief of Staff of the Defence Forces for Reserves and Cadets?

**Question 5**

Which of the two groups is the Minister of Defence responsible for?

**Question 6**

In which household is the Deputy Chief of Defence Staff for reservists and cadets?

**Question 7**

How many secretaries are there in the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 8**

Who is also responsible for the reservists and cadets in the royal household?

**Text number 9**

The 1998 Strategic Defence Review and the 2003 White Paper Delivering Security in a Changing World outlined the following posture for the UK Armed Forces:

**Question 0**

What year was the Strategic Defence Review conducted?

**Question 1**

Which article was published in 2003?

**Question 2**

Which part of the British government were covered by the two publications listed?

**Question 3**

In what year was the UK Armed Forces established?

**Question 4**

What did the British armed forces write in 1998?

**Question 5**

What did the British armed forces write in 2003?

**Question 6**

What did the British armed forces put forward in these two publications?

**Question 7**

What was the subject of a document produced by the UK armed forces in 2003?

**Text number 10**

The Ministry of Defence has since been seen as a leading player in developing the concept of organising post-Cold War "defence diplomacy". As a result of the 2010 Strategic Defence and Security Review, Prime Minister David Cameron signed a 50-year agreement with French President Nicolas Sarkozy under which the two countries would cooperate closely on military matters. The UK is in the process of establishing air and naval bases in the Gulf, based in the UAE and Bahrain. A presence in Oman is also being considered.

**Question 0**

In which concept is the Ministry of Defence considered a leader?

**Question 1**

Who was the British Prime Minister in 2010?

**Question 2**

Who was the President of France in 2010?

**Question 3**

In which two countries is the UK installing military bases?

**Question 4**

In which other country will the UK establish a military base?

**Question 5**

What is France setting up in the Gulf?

**Question 6**

Where will France also deploy air and naval bases?

**Question 7**

For which concept is France considered the leader?

**Question 8**

What did Oman sign with France?

**Question 9**

What would the agreement allow Oman and France to do?

**Text number 11**

The Strategic Defence and Security Review included £178 billion of investment in new equipment and capabilities in 2015. The review defined defence policy, setting out four main tasks for the armed forces:

**Question 0**

What was the value of the investment in new equipment and capacity?

**Question 1**

What year was the £178 billion investment made?

**Question 2**

How many priority tasks were included in the 2015 review?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the annual statement published by the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 4**

How much did the Strategic Defence and Security Review cost?

**Question 5**

How much is the government investing in the four priorities?

**Question 6**

What is the Defence Policy of the Defence Forces in 2015?

**Question 7**

When did the armed forces participate in the four priority missions?

**Question 8**

What was the aim of the Strategic Defence and Security Review set by the Defence Forces?

**Text number 12**

Since the end of the Cold War, the threat of direct conventional military confrontation with other states has been replaced by terrorism. Sir Richard Dannatt predicted that in the near future British forces will be involved in combating "predatory non-state actors" in an "era of continuing conflict". He told the Chatham House think tank that the fight against al-Qaeda and other militant Islamist groups is "likely to be the battle of our generation".

**Question 0**

What was the new threat that emerged after the end of the Cold War?

**Question 1**

What was the Cold War battle for Dannatt?

**Question 2**

What was the Cold War era called?

**Question 3**

What has replaced the threat of terrorism?

**Question 4**

What does Chatham House predict al-Qaeda will fight in the future?

**Question 5**

Who was involved with terrorism in the Cold War?

**Text number 13**

Dannatt criticises the remnants of the "Cold War mentality", whereby military spending is based on countering a direct conventional strategic threat. He said that currently only 10% of the MoD's equipment programme budget for 2003-2018 was to be invested in the "land environment" - at a time when Britain was fighting land wars in Afghanistan and Iraq.

**Question 0**

Military spending based on conventional threats has been rejected by what?

**Question 1**

How much of the Ministry of Defence's equipment budget is invested in the "land environment"?

**Question 2**

Where was Britain involved in a land war, when some people thought that land wars were basically a thing of the past?

**Question 3**

Which years make up this period in terms of military budget figures?

**Question 4**

What percentage of Iraq's budget was spent in 2003 on fighting the direct threat?

**Question 5**

Which two countries also took part in the Cold War?

**Question 6**

What is it called when Iraq was criticised for its military budget to stop the threat?

**Question 7**

During which period was Britain involved in the Cold War?

**Question 8**

Where was 10% of the Iraqi military budget to be invested?

**Text number 14**

The third report of the Defence Committee, "Defence Equipment 2009", quotes an article published on the Financial Times website, according to which the Chief of Defence Equipment, General Sir Kevin O'Donoghue, had issued an internal memo instructing the Chief of Defence Equipment and Support (DE&S) staff to reprioritize the approval process to focus on supporting current operations over the next three years, deterrence-related programs, programs that reflect defense-related obligations both treaty and international, and programs for which production contracts have already been awarded. The report also identifies concerns about possible cuts to the defence science and technology research budget, the impact of inappropriate assessment of defence inflation in budgetary processes, the underfunding of the equipment programme and general concerns about striking the right balance between the short-term priority (current operations) and the long-term consequences of not investing in the delivery of the UK's future defence capabilities for future combat forces and campaigns. The then Defence Secretary, Bob Ainsworth MP, confirmed this reprioritisation of the focus on current operations and had not ruled out "major changes" in defence spending. In the same article, the Chief of Naval Staff and Chief of Naval Staff, Admiral Sir Mark Stanhope of the Royal Navy, admitted that there was not enough money in the defence budget and that it was preparing for difficult decisions and possible cuts. According to figures published in the London Evening Standard, the defence budget for 2009 is "over-spent by more than 10%" (figures cannot be verified), and according to the paper this had led Gordon Brown to say that defence spending must be cut. The Ministry of Defence has invested in information technology to reduce costs and improve services for its staff.

**Question 0**

Who was the Chief of Defence Materiel in 2009?

**Question 1**

Which department does the Chief of Defence Equipment supervise?

**Question 2**

Which programme was mentioned as underfunded?

**Question 3**

Who was the Minister of Defence in 2009?

**Question 4**

According to which publication was the 2009 defence budget over-budgeted by more than 10%?

**Question 5**

Who is the director of the London Evening Standard?

**Question 6**

What did the Ministry of Defence say about the defence science and technology budget?

**Question 7**

What has the equipment programme done with its budget in 2009, according to an internal memo?

**Question 8**

What has the equipment programme invested in to cut costs and improve staff services?

**Question 9**

What did former Defence Secretary Mark Stanhope not rule out for personnel spending?

**Text number 15**

The Ministry of Defence is one of the UK's largest landowners, owning 227,300 hectares of land and coastline (either freehold or leasehold) worth "around £20 billion" in April 2014. The Ministry of Defence also has rights of use over 222 000 hectares. In total, this represents about 1.8% of the UK's land area. The total annual cost of maintaining the defence establishment is 'in excess of GBP 3,3 billion'.

**Question 0**

How much land does the Ministry of Defence own?

**Question 1**

What is the value of the land owned by the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 2**

What percentage of total UK land does the Ministry of Defence own or have the right to use?

**Question 3**

How much does it cost each year to maintain a defence establishment?

**Question 4**

Who is one of the biggest landowners in the UK?

**Question 5**

Who is one of the UK's biggest debt holders?

**Question 6**

How much debt does the Ministry of Defence own?

**Question 7**

What is the annual cost of supporting access rights for UK citizens?

**Question 8**

What proportion of the UK population has access?

**Question 9**

What is the total cost of subsidising the land ownership rights of UK citizens?

**Text number 16**

Defence areas are divided into training areas and firing ranges (84.0%), research and development (5.4%), airfields (3.4%), barracks and camps (2.5%), storage and supply depots (1.6%) and others (3.0%). These are largely managed by the Defence Infrastructure Organisation.

**Question 0**

What percentage of the defence establishment's real estate is training areas and ranges?

**Question 1**

What constitutes the smallest part of the defence space?

**Question 2**

What percentage of defence sites are airfields?

**Question 3**

Who manages the defence zone?

**Question 4**

What percentage of the defence establishment are barracks and camps?

**Question 5**

What organisation is managing the airports?

**Question 6**

What percentage of storage and maintenance depots are part of airports?

**Question 7**

What percentage of aerodromes are under the control of training areas and runways?

**Question 8**

What percentage of barracks and camps are under the control of airfields?

**Question 9**

What proportion of research and development is managed by airports?

**Text number 17**

The Ministry of Defence headquarters is located in Whitehall and is now known as the Main Building. The building is in the neoclassical style and was originally built between 1938 and 1959 to the designs of Vincent Harris for the Ministry of Aviation and the Department of Trade. The north entrance on Horse Guards Avenue is flanked by two monumental statues by Charles Wheeler, Earth and Water. Opposite is the Gurkha Monument, sculpted by Philip Jackson and unveiled by Queen Elizabeth II in 1997. Inside is the Victoria Cross and George Cross memorials, and nearby are the Naval Air Forces and RAF memorials (on the east side, facing the riverbank). The building was renovated by Skanska under a PFI contract in 2004.

**Question 0**

In which city is the Ministry of Defence headquarters?

**Question 1**

Who designed the headquarters of the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 2**

Who designed the statues on either side of the northern entrance to the MoD headquarters?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the Ministry of Defence headquarters?

**Question 4**

Who made the Gurkha monument?

**Question 5**

What did Vincent Harris originally build in 2004?

**Question 6**

When was the Gurkha monument restored?

**Question 7**

Which group restored the Gurkha monument in 2004?

**Question 8**

When did Queen Elizabeth II unveil Horse Guards Avenue?

**Question 9**

What did Vincent Harris create near the north entrance to the Ministry of Defence headquarters?

**Text number 18**

Henry VIII's wine cellar at Whitehall Palace, built between 1514 and 1516 for Cardinal Wolsey, is in the basement of the main building and is used for entertainment. The entire vaulted brick structure of the cellar was encased in steel and concrete and moved nine feet to the west and nearly 19 feet (5.8 m) deeper in 1949, when construction resumed on the site after World War II. This was accomplished without significant damage to the structure.

**Question 0**

Who had the wine cellar at Whitehall Palace?

**Question 1**

Where is Henry VIII's wine cellar?

**Question 2**

When was the cellar in the basement of the main building built?

**Question 3**

What is the main building material of the basement of the main building?

**Question 4**

When was the basement moved?

**Question 5**

Where is Cardinal Wolsey buried?

**Question 6**

When was Henry VIII in power?

**Question 7**

Who did Cardinal Wolsey build a wine cellar for?

**Question 8**

When was Whitehall Palace moved?

**Question 9**

On which Whitehall Palace was built in 1949?

**Text number 19**

The most significant fraud conviction is that of Gordon Foxley, who was head of defence procurement at the Ministry of Defence from 1981 to 1984. Police alleged that he received a total of at least £3.5 million in bribes, including substantial bribes from overseas arms companies to influence the award of contracts.

**Question 0**

Who in the Ministry of Defence was convicted of fraud?

**Question 1**

What position was Foxley in?

**Question 2**

How many years did Foxley work for the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 3**

How much money was Foxley accused of taking?

**Question 4**

What do the police believe the bribes were intended to do?

**Question 5**

What were the overseas arms dealers convicted of?

**Question 6**

How much did foreign military contractors steal?

**Question 7**

What did the police want to influence?

**Question 8**

When was the police found to be taking bribes?

**Question 9**

Which ministry influenced the way the police investigated fraud?

**Text number 20**

A government report published by the Guardian in 2002 states that between 1940 and 1979 the Ministry of Defence "turned much of the country into a giant laboratory for secret germ warfare experiments on the public", and that many of these experiments "involved the spread of potentially dangerous chemicals and micro-organisms over large areas of the population without public knowledge". The Ministry of Defence claims that these tests were designed to simulate germ warfare and that the tests were harmless. Yet families affected by the many tests are suffering from children with birth defects and physical and mental disabilities, and many are calling for a public inquiry. According to the report, an estimated one million people were affected by these tests, including one period between 1961 and 1968 when "more than a million people on the south coast of England from Torquay to the New Forest were exposed to bacteria such as e.coli and bacillus globigii, which mimics anthrax". Two researchers commissioned by the Ministry of Defence concluded that these experiments posed no risk to the public. This was confirmed by Porton Down spokesperson Sue Ellison, who said that the results of these tests "will save lives if our country or our troops are attacked by chemical and biological weapons". Asked if such tests would continue to be carried out, she said: "Our policy is not to discuss ongoing research." It is not known whether the harmlessness of the tests was known at the time they were conducted.

**Question 0**

Which publication published a report on the Ministry of Defence in 2002?

**Question 1**

What was the Ministry of Defence accused of doing to the citizens?

**Question 2**

What do children from some families experience in the testing area?

**Question 3**

When were the alleged bacterial warfare tests carried out?

**Question 4**

When were millions of people supposedly exposed to E. coli and anthrax-like bacteria?

**Question 5**

What did Porton Down release in 2002?

**Question 6**

What did Porton Down do between 1940 and 1979?

**Question 7**

What was Porton Down's purpose in unknowingly releasing bacteria to the public?

**Question 8**

What does Torquay say about secret bacterial warfare tests?

**Question 9**

What does the Guardian ask for in secret tests?

**Text number 21**

The Ministry of Defence has been criticised for a continuing fiasco, having spent £240 million on eight Chinook HC3 helicopters, which only entered service in 2010 after being ordered in 1995 and delivered in 2001. A National Audit Office report reveals that the helicopters have been stored in air-conditioned hangars in the UK since they were delivered in 2001[why?], and troops in Afghanistan have been forced to rely on helicopters flying as a security failure. Once the Chinooks are airworthy, the total cost of the project could rise to as much as £500 million.

**Question 0**

How much did the Ministry of Defence spend on Chinook helicopters?

**Question 1**

When were the helicopters ordered?

**Question 2**

Which agency reported that the helicopters were stored and not used?

**Question 3**

In what year were helicopters introduced?

**Question 4**

What is the total estimated cost of the Chinook helicopter project?

**Question 5**

What did the National Audit Office order in 1995?

**Question 6**

When did the Inspectorate order helicopters with safety deficiencies?

**Question 7**

Since when have safety-critical helicopters been stored?

**Question 8**

How much did helicopters with safety defects cost when they were ordered in 2010?

**Question 9**

When were the helicopters that flew in Afghanistan, which had safety defects, put into service?

**Text number 22**

In April 2008, a £90 million deal was signed with Boeing for a "quick fix" to get the planes flying by 2010: the QinetiQ will downgrade the Chinook by removing some of the more advanced equipment.

**Question 0**

Which aircraft manufacturer won the contract with the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 1**

When was the Boeing contract signed?

**Question 2**

Who will downgrade the Chinook helicopters?

**Question 3**

How much was the Boeing contract worth?

**Question 4**

What was removed from the Chinook helicopters?

**Question 5**

What did Chinook sign in April 2008?

**Question 6**

What will Boeing lower?

**Question 7**

What will Boeing remove from the Chinook?

**Question 8**

When was the agreement on more advanced equipment signed?

**Question 9**

What did Chinook expect when he signed the contract?

**Text number 23**

In October 2009, the Ministry of Defence was heavily criticised for cancelling the £20 million six-monthly non-operational training budget for the Volunteer Territorial Army (VRA) and halting all non-operational training for six months until April 2010. The government eventually backed down and restored the funding. TA makes up a small proportion of the UK's operational forces. Its members train weekly in the evenings and monthly at weekends, and organise two-week exercises, usually annually and sometimes twice a year for forces undertaking other courses. The cuts would have meant a significant reduction in staff and would have had a negative impact on recruitment.

**Question 0**

When was the technical assistance budget cancelled?

**Question 1**

How much money was allocated to the volunteer regional army?

**Question 2**

When was the training for technical assistants due to continue?

**Question 3**

How much of the UK troops are TA troops?

**Question 4**

How often do TA teams train regularly?

**Question 5**

What was the regional army criticised for being removed from the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 6**

What was the final result of the removal of regional forces from the Ministry of Defence budget?

**Question 7**

What did TA finally return?

**Question 8**

What percentage of the crowd participates in other courses?

**Question 9**

How often did members of the Ministry of Defence train in 2009?

**Text number 24**

In 2013, it was reported that the Ministry of Defence had exceeded its equipment budget by £6.5 billion for orders that could take up to 39 years to complete. The MoD has previously been criticised for poor management and financial control, having invested in projects that took up to 10 or even 15 years to complete.

**Question 0**

How much did the Ministry of Defence exceed its equipment budget?

**Question 1**

When was the budget overrun detected?

**Question 2**

What criticisms have been levelled at the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 3**

What is the long-term assessment of the implementation of some of the equipment orders placed by the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 4**

How long has it taken to complete previous projects commissioned by the Ministry of Defence?

**Question 5**

How long did the Ministry of Defence exceed its equipment budget?

**Question 6**

How long has the Ministry of Defence been in existence?

**Question 7**

How long has the Ministry of Defence been mismanaged?

**Question 8**

What has the government been doing for 10-15 years?

**Question 9**

What was the mod's equipment budget in 2013?

**Document number 88**

**Text number 0**

The term high-definition was used to describe television systems from August 1936; however, these systems were only high-definition systems compared to earlier systems based on mechanical systems with a resolution of only 30 lines. The competition between companies and nations to create a true 'HDTV' lasted throughout the 20th century, with each new system being higher definition than the last. In the early 2000s this competition has continued with 4k, 5k and now 8K systems.

**Question 0**

The term "high definition" originally described television systems of which year?

**Question 1**

What was the basis of previous television systems?

**Question 2**

In what whole century did companies and nations try to achieve true HDTV?

**Question 3**

In which century were 4k, 5k and 8k systems introduced?

**Question 4**

What is the latest development in HDTV?

**Question 5**

What was published in 1935?

**Question 6**

The term "high definition" originally described vcrs from what year?

**Question 7**

What were previous television systems not based on?

**Question 8**

For what whole century did companies and nations try to achieve true SDTV?

**Question 9**

In which century were 10k systems introduced?

**Text number 1**

The British High Definition Television Service began trials in August 1936 and regular service on 2 November 1936 using both the (mechanical) Baird 240-line sequential scanning system (later inaccurately called "progressive") and the (electronic) Marconi EMI 405-line interleaved system. The Baird system was discontinued in February 1937. In 1938 France introduced its own 441-line system, variations of which were also used in several other countries. The US NTSC 525-line system was introduced in 1941. In 1949, France introduced the even higher resolution 819-line standard, which should have been a high definition system even by today's standards, but it was only monochrome, and the technical limitations of the time prevented it from achieving the resolution it should have been capable of. All these systems used interlacing and a 4:3 aspect ratio, except the 240-line system, which was progressive (the technically correct term at the time was 'sequential'), and the 405-line system, which started with a 5:4 ratio and later changed to a 4:3 ratio. The 405-line system introduced the revolutionary (at the time) idea of interlaced scanning to solve the flicker problem of the 240-line system at a frame rate of 25 Hz. The 240-line system could have doubled its frame rate, but this would have meant doubling the bandwidth of the transmitted signal, which was not an acceptable option as the video baseband bandwidth had to be 3 MHz or less.

**Question 0**

Who started the trials in August 1936?

**Question 1**

When was the Baird system abolished?

**Question 2**

Which country developed the 441-line system?

**Question 3**

What prevented the French 819-line system from achieving the definition it was capable of?

**Question 4**

Which system used interleaved scanning to correct the flicker problem on the 240 line?

**Question 5**

Who started the trials in September 1936?

**Question 6**

When was the Baird system created?

**Question 7**

Which country developed the 941-line system?

**Question 8**

What prevented the French 919-line system from achieving the definition it was capable of?

**Question 9**

Which system used interleaved scanning to correct the 940 line flicker problem?

**Text number 2**

Colour broadcasting started at a correspondingly higher resolution, the first being the US NTSC colour system in 1953, which was compatible with the earlier monochrome systems, so its 525 resolution was the same. European standards did not follow until the 1960s, when PAL and SECAM colour systems were added alongside monochrome 625-line broadcasts.

**Question 0**

What year did colour broadcasting start in the US?

**Question 1**

How many lines of resolution did the US NTSC colour system have in 1953?

**Question 2**

When did colour broadcasting start in Europe?

**Question 3**

PAL and SECAM were colour systems where?

**Question 4**

How many lines of resolution were the European monochrome transmissions?

**Question 5**

What year did black and white broadcasting start in the United States?

**Question 6**

How many lines of resolution did the UK NTSC colour system have in 1953?

**Question 7**

When did Asia start colour broadcasting?

**Question 8**

Where were PAL and SECAM systems in black and white?

**Question 9**

How many lines of resolution were used for European colour broadcasts?

**Text number 3**

In 1964, after the Tokyo Olympics, Nippon Hōsō Kyōkai (NHK, Japan's public broadcaster) began a research project to "discover the fundamental mechanism of the interaction of video and sound with the five human senses". NHK sought to create an HDTV system that scored much higher in subjective tests than NTSC's previously designated "HDTV". This new system, NHK Color, created in 1972, featured 1125 lines, a 5:3 aspect ratio and a refresh rate of 60 Hz. The Society of Motion Picture and Television Engineers (SMPTE), led by Charles Ginsburg, became the testing and research authority for HDTV technology in international theatre. SMPTE tested HDTV systems from all possible angles for various companies, but the problem of combining different formats plagued the technology for many years.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the Japan Broadcasting Corporation?

**Question 1**

What does NHK mean in Japan?

**Question 2**

In what year was NHK Color founded?

**Question 3**

What was the aspect ratio of NHK Color?

**Question 4**

Which organisation became the international authority on HDTV testing and research?

**Question 5**

What is the name of the Chinese Broadcasting Corporation?

**Question 6**

What does NHK mean in China?

**Question 7**

What year was NHK Black and White created?

**Question 8**

What was the aspect ratio of the NHK black and white picture?

**Question 9**

Which organisation became the international authority for testing and researching SDTV technology?

**Text number 4**

SMPTE tested four major HDTV systems in the late 1970s, and in 1979 the SMPTE research team published A Study of High Definition Television Systems:

**Question 0**

How many major HDTV systems did SMPTE test in the late 1970s?

**Question 1**

Who tested the four major HDTV systems in the late 1970s?

**Question 2**

Who published a study on high definition television systems?

**Question 3**

I year was published A Study of High Definition Television Systems?

**Question 4**

What did the SMPTE research team publish in 1979?

**Question 5**

How many major SDTV systems did SMPTE test in the late 1970s?

**Question 6**

Who tested the three major HDTV systems in the late 1970s?

**Question 7**

Who has published A Study of Standard Definition Television Systems?

**Question 8**

I year was published A Study of Standard Definition Television Systems?

**Question 9**

What did the SMPTE research team publish in 1989?

**Text number 5**

Since the official introduction of digital video broadcasting (DVB) wide-screen HDTV broadcasting formats in the early 2000s, the 525-line NTSC (and PAL-M) systems and the European 625-line PAL and SECAM systems are now considered standard definition television systems.

**Question 0**

When were wide-screen HDTV broadcasting methods officially introduced?

**Question 1**

Which European system is considered a standard definition television system in addition to the 625-line PAL system?

**Question 2**

In addition to NTSC, which 525-line system is considered a standard definition television system?

**Question 3**

What are the 525 and 625 line systems considered today?

**Question 4**

What is a DVD?

**Question 5**

When were wide-screen SDTV broadcasting methods officially introduced?

**Question 6**

Which Asian system is considered a standard definition TV system in addition to the 625-line PAL system?

**Question 7**

In addition to NTSC, which 525-line system is considered a high-definition television system?

**Question 8**

What 525- and 625-line systems are not considered?

**Text number 6**

In 1949, France started broadcasting with a system of 819 lines (737 active lines). The system was monochrome and was used only on the VHF network for France's first television channel. The system was discontinued in 1983.

**Question 0**

In what year did France start sending mail using the 819 line system?

**Question 1**

Which country started sending mail using the 819 line system in 1949?

**Question 2**

What did France start broadcasting in 1949?

**Question 3**

Was the French 819 line system in colour?

**Question 4**

When was the French 819 line system abolished?

**Question 5**

In what year did England start sending mail using the 819 line system?

**Question 6**

Which country started broadcasting using the 819 line system in 1959?

**Question 7**

What did France start broadcasting in 1939?

**Question 8**

Was the British 819 line system coloured?

**Question 9**

When was the French 811 line system abolished?

**Text number 7**

In 1958, the Soviet Union developed the Тransformator (Russian: Трансформатор, or transformer), the first high-resolution (definition) television system capable of producing a line-by-line1,125 image, designed to provide remote conferencing for military commanders. This was a research project and the system was never deployed in military or consumer broadcasting.

**Question 0**

What was the Soviet Transformator system eventually used for?

**Question 1**

When did the Soviet Union develop the Transformator?

**Question 2**

Who developed the Transformer in 1958?

**Question 3**

How many lines of resolution could an image using the Transformator system have?

**Question 4**

What was the aim of the Transformator system?

**Question 5**

What else was the Soviet Transformer system used for in the end?

**Question 6**

When did the Soviet Union not develop the Transformer?

**Question 7**

Who developed the Transformer in 1988?

**Question 8**

How many lines of resolution could an image using Transformator never have?

**Question 9**

What was the aim of the non-transformer system?

**Text number 8**

Japan's state broadcaster NHK was the first to develop a consumer high-definition television with an aspect ratio of 5:3.1979 The system, known as Hi-Vision or MUSE after the Multiple sub-Nyquist sampling coding used to encode the signal, required about twice as much bandwidth as the current NTSC system, but offered about four times the resolution (1080i/1125 lines). Satellite test broadcasts began in 1989, with regular testing starting in 1991, and BS-9ch 1991 regular broadcasts began on 25 November 1994, with commercial and NHK programmes.

**Question 0**

What year did NHK first develop HD television for consumers, with an aspect ratio of 5:3?

**Question 1**

Who was the first to develop a consumer HD TV with a 5:3 aspect ratio?

**Question 2**

When did the Hi-Vision satellite test broadcasts start?

**Question 3**

When did regular BS-9ch broadcasts start?

**Question 4**

When did regular testing of Hi-Vision start?

**Question 5**

What year did NHK first develop a consumer SD TV with a 5:3 aspect ratio?

**Question 6**

Who was the first to develop a consumer HD TV with a 1:3 aspect ratio?

**Question 7**

When did the lo-Vision satellite test broadcasts start?

**Question 8**

When did regular BS-8ch broadcasts start?

**Question 9**

When did regular testing of Lo-Vision start?

**Text number 9**

In 1981, the MUSE system was first introduced in the United States, using the same 5:3 aspect ratio as the Japanese system. During a visit to the MUSE demonstration in Washington, US President Ronald Reagan was impressed and formally declared that the introduction of HDTV in the US was in the "national interest".

**Question 0**

When was the MUSE system first introduced in the US?

**Question 1**

What aspect ratio did the MUSE system use when it was introduced in 1981?

**Question 2**

Which President declared the introduction of HDTV in the US to be "in the national interest"?

**Question 3**

Which system was first introduced in the United States in 1981?

**Question 4**

Which system was presented in Washington to President Ronald Reagan?

**Question 5**

When was MUSE first introduced in the UK?

**Question 6**

What aspect ratio did the MUSE system use when it was introduced in 1988?

**Question 7**

Which President declared the introduction of SDTV in the US to be "in the national interest"?

**Question 8**

Which scheme was first introduced in the UK in 1981?

**Question 9**

Which system was presented to President Bush in Washington?

**Text number 10**

Several systems were proposed as the new US standard, including the Japanese MUSE system, but the FCC rejected them all because of their higher bandwidth requirements. At that time, the number of TV channels was growing rapidly and bandwidth was already a problem. The new standard had to be more efficient and less bandwidth-intensive for HDTV than the current NTSC standard.

**Question 0**

Why did the FCC reject systems like MUSE?

**Question 1**

What grew and consumed a lot of bandwidth?

**Question 2**

Who rejected systems like MUSE as the new US standard?

**Question 3**

What was one of the requirements of the new US standards system?

**Question 4**

What was the system then?

**Question 5**

Why did the ECC reject systems like MUSE?

**Question 6**

What was reduced and consumed a lot of bandwidth?

**Question 7**

Who abandoned systems like MUSE as an old standard in the US?

**Question 8**

What was one of the requirements of the old standard system in the US?

**Question 9**

What was not an existing system at the time?

**Text number 11**

The limited standardisation of analogue HDTV in the 1990s did not lead to the global adoption of HDTV, as the technical and economic constraints at the time did not allow HDTV to operate at bandwidths higher than conventional TV.

**Question 0**

What limitations prevented the widespread adoption of HDTV in the 1990s?

**Question 1**

What HDTV was not allowed to do in the 90s?

**Question 2**

What restrictions prevented the take-up of SDTV in the 1990s?

**Question 3**

What was SDTV not allowed to do in the 90s?

**Text number 12**

Early commercial HDTV experiments, such as NHK's MUSE, required more than four times the bandwidth of standard definition transmission. Despite efforts to reduce the bandwidth of analogue HDTV to around twice that of SDTV, these television formats could still only be broadcast via satellite.

**Question 0**

How much more bandwidth will early HDTV commercial trials require than SD broadcasts?

**Question 1**

There has been an effort to reduce analogue HDTV to match how much of the bandwidth of SDTV?

**Question 2**

Despite reduced bandwidth, the HDTV format still had to be distributed how?

**Question 3**

What kind of tests require more than four times the bandwidth of an SDTV broadcast?

**Question 4**

How much more bandwidth will early SDTV commercial trials require than SD broadcasts?

**Question 5**

The aim was to reduce the bandwidth of analogue SDTV to how much of the bandwidth of SDTV?

**Question 6**

Despite reduced bandwidth, the SDTV format still had to be distributed how?

**Question 7**

What kind of tests require more than five times the bandwidth of an SDTV broadcast?

**Text number 13**

In addition, recording and reproducing the HDTV signal was a major technical challenge in the early years of HDTV (Sony HDVS). Japan was the only country where analogue HDTV was successfully broadcast to the public, with seven broadcasters sharing a single channel.

**Question 0**

How many broadcasters in Japan were sharing one channel?

**Question 1**

In which countries was analogue public HDTV successful?

**Question 2**

What was particularly challenging in the early years of HDTV?

**Question 3**

What were Japan's achievements in early HDTV?

**Question 4**

How many broadcasters in Japan were distributing the multichannel?

**Question 5**

In which countries were analogue SDTV broadcasts successful?

**Question 6**

What was particularly challenging in the early years of SDTV?

**Question 7**

What were Japan's achievements in the early days of SDTV?

**Text number 14**

Since 1972, the International Telecommunication Union's Radiocommunication Sector (ITU-R) has been working towards a global recommendation for analogue HDTV. However, these recommendations were not suitable for transmission bands suitable for home users. The standardisation of MPEG-1 in 1993 also led to the adoption of the ITU-R BT.709 recommendations. In anticipation of these standards, the Digital Video Broadcasting (DVB) organisation was established, a consortium of broadcasters, consumer electronics manufacturers and regulatory bodies. The DVB develops and adopts specifications that are formally standardised by ETSI.

**Question 0**

What does ITU-R stand for?

**Question 1**

What does DVB stand for?

**Question 2**

What is DVB?

**Question 3**

What is the role of DVB?

**Question 4**

Who will standardise HDTV definitions?

**Question 5**

What is ETU-R?

**Question 6**

What is a DVD?

**Question 7**

What is the role of DVD?

**Question 8**

Who standardises SDTV definitions?

**Text number 15**

DVB first created the standard for DVB-S digital satellite TV, DVB-C digital cable TV and DVB-T digital terrestrial TV. These transmission systems can be used for both SDTV and HDTV. In the US, the Grand Alliance proposed ATSC as the new standard for SDTV and HDTV. Both ATSC and DVB were based on the MPEG-2 standard, although DVB systems can also be used to transmit the newer and more powerful H.264/MPEG-4 AVC compression standards. Common to all DVB standards is the use of highly efficient modulation techniques to further reduce bandwidth and, above all, to reduce receiver hardware and antenna requirements.

**Question 0**

What did the Grand Alliance propose as the new standard for SDTV and HDTV?

**Question 1**

Which standard are ATSC and DVB based on?

**Question 2**

Who created the DVB-2, DVB-C and DVB-T standards?

**Question 3**

Who proposed ATSC as the new SDTV and HDTV standard?

**Text number 16**

In 1983, the International Telecommunication Union's Radiocommunication Sector (ITU-R) set up a working group (IWP11/6) to develop a single international standard for HDTV. One of the most difficult issues concerned the appropriate frame/frame refresh rate, as the world was already divided into two camps, 25/50 Hz and 30/60 Hz, largely due to differences in network frequencies. The IWP11/6 working group considered many views, and during the 1980s it contributed to developments in several areas of digital video processing, particularly in the conversion of the two main frame/frame frequencies to motion sectors, leading to developments in other areas. Although a comprehensive HDTV standard was not eventually created, agreement was reached on the aspect ratio.

**Question 0**

When did the ITU-R start working towards a single international HDTV standard?

**Question 1**

What did ITU-R start doing in 1983?

**Question 2**

What was one of the problems in setting the HDTV standard?

**Question 3**

What was used to convert between the two main frame/field rates?

**Question 4**

How many frames/field speed were mainly used in 1983?

**Question 5**

When did the ITU-R start working towards a single international DVD standard?

**Question 6**

What did ITU-R start doing in 1981?

**Question 7**

What was one of the problems with setting the DVD standard?

**Question 8**

What was used to convert the three main frame/field speeds?

**Question 9**

How many frames/field speed were used in 1981 as a priority?

**Text number 17**

Originally, the current aspect ratio of 5:3 had been the main candidate, but the influence of widescreen film meant that 16:9 (1.78) eventually proved to be a reasonable compromise between 5:3 (1.67) and the 1.85 widescreen format commonly used in cinemas. The 16:9 aspect ratio was agreed at the first meeting of the IWP11/6 working group at the BBC Research and Development Institute at Kingswood Warren. The resulting ITU-R Recommendation ITU-R BT.709-2 ("Rec. 709") includes a 16:9 aspect ratio, a defined colour scheme and scan formats of 1080i (1 080 actively interlaced lines) and 1080p (1 080 progressively scanned lines). The UK Freeview HD trials used MBAFF, which contains both progressive and interlaced content in the same encoding.

**Question 0**

What aspect ratio was agreed for the widescreen effect?

**Question 1**

Who agreed on the 16:9 aspect ratio?

**Question 2**

What influenced the choice of 16:9 aspect ratio?

**Question 3**

Which encoding contains both progressive and interleaved content?

**Question 4**

Which aspect ratio was the early favourite?

**Question 5**

What aspect ratio was agreed for the impact of full-screen film?

**Question 6**

Who agreed on the 11:9 aspect ratio?

**Question 7**

What influenced the choice of the 11:9 aspect ratio?

**Question 8**

Which encoding contains both progressive and interleaved content?

**Question 9**

Which aspect ratio was the late favourite?

**Text number 18**

It also includes an alternative 1440×1152 HDMAC scanning format. (According to some reports, some ITU members considered the 750-line (720p) format (720 progressively scanned lines) to be an enhanced television format rather than a true HDTV format, so it was not included, although several US SMPTE standards specified 1920×1080 and 1280×720p for a range of frame and field rates).

**Question 0**

Which scanning format is also included in MBAFF?

**Question 1**

What did some consider to be an enhanced TV format and not a true HDTV format?

**Question 2**

Some ITU members considered the planned 750 line to be what?

**Question 3**

What were 1920x1080i and 1280x720p defined?

**Question 4**

Which scan format is never included in MBAFF?

**Question 5**

What did some consider to be an enhanced TV format and not a true SDTV format?

**Question 6**

Some IEU members considered the planned 750 line to be what?

**Question 7**

What is not defined by 1920x1080i and 1280x720p?

**Text number 19**

HDTV technology was introduced in the United States in the late 1980s and formalised in 1993 by the Digital HDTV Grand Alliance, a group of television, electronic equipment and communications companies including AT&T Bell Labs, General Instrument, Philips, Sarnoff, Thomson, Zenith and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Field testing of HDTV at 199 locations in the United States was completed on 14 August 1994. The first public HDTV transmission in the United States was broadcast on 23 July 1996, when WRAL-HD TV station in Raleigh, North Carolina began broadcasting from the WRAL-TV tower southeast of Raleigh. WRAL-HD was the first to win the race against the HD model station in Washington, D.C., which began broadcasting on July 31, 1996, under the call sign WHD-TV, on the premises of the WRC-TV station owned and operated by NBC. The American Advanced Television Systems Committee (ATSC) HDTV system was publicly launched on 29 October 1998 as a live broadcast of astronaut John Glenn's return to space aboard the space shuttle Discovery. The signal was broadcast coast-to-coast and was seen by the public in science centres and other public theatres specially equipped to receive and display the broadcast.

**Question 0**

When was HDTV introduced in the US?

**Question 1**

Who made HDTV official in 1993?

**Question 2**

Which group was formed in the 90s by AT&T, Philips, Zenith and MIT, among others?

**Question 3**

When was the first public HDTV broadcast in the US?

**Question 4**

What does ATSC stand for?

**Question 5**

When was SDTV introduced in the US?

**Question 6**

Who made SDTV official in 1993?

**Question 7**

Which group in the 1950s included AT&T, Philips, Zenith and MIT?

**Question 8**

When was the last public HDTV broadcast in the US?

**Question 9**

What does STSC mean?

**Text number 20**

The first HDTV broadcasts in Europe, although not directly to homes, began in 1990, when the Italian broadcaster RAI used HD-MAC and MUSE HDTV technologies to broadcast the 1990 football World Cup. The matches were shown in eight cinemas in Italy and two in Spain. The link to Spain was established via an Olympus satellite link from Rome to Barcelona and then via a fibre-optic link from Barcelona to Madrid. After some HDTV broadcasts in Europe, the standard was abandoned in the mid-1990s.

**Question 0**

When were the first HDTV broadcasts in Europe?

**Question 1**

Which event was the first HDTV broadcast in Europe?

**Question 2**

When did Europe abandon standard gearboxes?

**Question 3**

Where could you watch the FIFA World Cup on HDTV?

**Question 4**

When did the first SDTV broadcasts take place in Europe?

**Question 5**

When has Europe not abandoned the standard gearbox?

**Question 6**

Where could you watch the football World Cup on SDTV?

**Text number 21**

The first regular broadcasts started on 1 January 2004, when the Belgian Euro1080 company launched the HD1 channel with a traditional Vienna New Year concert. Test broadcasts had been made since the IBC trade fair in September 2003, but the New Year's Day transmission marked the official launch of HD1 and the official introduction of HDTV in Europe.

**Question 0**

When did regular broadcasting start in Europe?

**Question 1**

Which event was first broadcast on 1 January 2004?

**Question 2**

The New Year's Day broadcast was officially launched on which channel?

**Question 3**

When did HDTV test broadcasts start in Europe?

**Question 4**

Which European company launched HD1?

**Question 5**

When did non-regular broadcasting start in Europe?

**Question 6**

Which event was first broadcast on 1 March 2004?

**Question 7**

New Year's Day broadcast did not officially launched what channel?

**Question 8**

When did SDTV test broadcasts start in Europe?

**Question 9**

Which European company launched SD1?

**Text number 22**

Euro1080, a division of the former and now bankrupt Belgian TV service company Alfacam, broadcast HDTV channels to break the pan-European stalemate of "no HD broadcasts, no HD TVs, no HD TVs bought, no HD broadcasts..." and kick-start HDTV interest in Europe. The HD1 channel was initially free-to-air and mainly featured sports, drama, music and other cultural events, broadcast with a multilingual soundtrack for 4-5 hours a day.

**Question 0**

Euro1080 was a division of which former company?

**Question 1**

What was the "chicken or the egg" stalemate that led the Euro1080 to broadcast HDTV channels?

**Question 2**

What did Euro1080 hope to achieve by broadcasting HDTV channels?

**Question 3**

How much did viewers have to pay for the HD1 channel?

**Question 4**

What was on HD1 for 4 or 5 hours a day?

**Question 5**

Euro180 was a division of which former company?

**Question 6**

What was the "chicken or the egg" stalemate that led Asia1080 to broadcast HDTV channels?

**Question 7**

What did Euro1080 hope to achieve by broadcasting SDTV channels?

**Question 8**

How much did viewers have to pay for the SD1 channel?

**Question 9**

What was SD1 for 4 or 5 hours a day?

**Text number 23**

These first European HDTV broadcasts used the 1080i format and MPEG-2 compression on the DVB-S signal on SES' Astra 1H satellite. Euro 1080 transmissions were later switched to MPEG-4/AVC compression in DVB-S2 in line with later European broadcast channels.

**Question 0**

What format was used for the first European HDTV broadcast?

**Question 1**

What package was used for the first European HDTV broadcast?

**Question 2**

What signal was used for the first European HDTV broadcast?

**Question 3**

To which press did Euro1080 later move?

**Question 4**

To which signal did Euro1080 later switch?

**Question 5**

What format was used for the first European SDTV broadcast?

**Question 6**

What package was used for the first HDTV broadcast in Asia?

**Question 7**

What signal was used for the first European SDTV broadcast?

**Question 8**

To which press did Euro1180 later move?

**Text number 24**

SES' annual Satellite Monitor market study 2010 shows that more than 200 commercial channels broadcast in HD from Astra satellites, 185 million HD-capable TVs have been sold in Europe (£60 million in 2010 alone) and 20 million households (27% of all digital satellite TV homes in Europe) watch HD satellite broadcasts (16 million via Astra satellites).

**Question 0**

According to the 2010 Satellite Monitor market survey, how many HD-capable TVs were sold in Europe?

**Question 1**

According to the 2010 Satellite Monitor market survey, how many European households watch HD broadcasts?

**Question 2**

How many pounds were spent on HD-capable TVs in Europe in 2010?

**Question 3**

What percentage of European digital satellite TV sets watched HD broadcasts in 2010?

**Question 4**

What has the number of European HD channels and viewers done since the first HDTV broadcasts?

**Question 5**

According to the 2010 Satellite Monitor market survey, how many SD-capable TVs were sold in Europe?

**Question 6**

According to the 2010 Satellite Monitor market survey, how many European households watched SD broadcasts?

**Question 7**

How many pounds were spent on SD-capable TVs in Europe in 2010?

**Question 8**

What percentage of European digital satellite TV homes watched SD in 2010?

**Question 9**

What has the number of European HD channels and viewers done since the first SDTV broadcasts?

**Text number 25**

In December 2009, the UK became the first European country to introduce high-definition content on digital terrestrial TV using the new DVB-T2 broadcasting standard, as defined in the Digital TV Group (DTG) Book D.

**Question 0**

Which European country was the first to introduce HD content using the new DVB-T2 standard?

**Question 1**

When did the new DVB-T2 broadcasting standard introduce HD content in the UK?

**Question 2**

Which transfer standard did the UK start using in December 2009?

**Question 3**

What does DTG stand for?

**Question 4**

Which European country was the first to introduce SD content using the new DVB-T2 standard?

**Question 5**

When did the UK introduce SD content via the new DVB-T2 broadcasting standard?

**Question 6**

Which transfer standard did the US start using in December 2009?

**Question 7**

What does DTD mean?

**Text number 26**

The Freeview HD service currently includes HD channels10 (December 2013[update]) and was rolled out region by region across the UK as part of the switchover to digital broadcasting, and was finally completed in October 2012. However, Freeview HD is not the first HDTV service for digital terrestrial television in Europe;

**Question 0**

How many HD channels were on Freeview HD in December 2013?

**Question 1**

When was the digital switchover completed in the UK?

**Question 2**

Which service includes 10 HD channels and ended its launch in October 2012?

**Question 3**

How was Freeview HD introduced in the UK?

**Question 4**

How many SD channels were on the Freeview SD service in December 2013?

**Question 5**

When was the digital switchover completed in the US?

**Question 6**

Which service includes 10 HD channels and ended in October 2022?

**Question 7**

How was Freeview HD introduced in the US?

**Text number 27**

If all three parameters are used, they are specified in the following format: [image size][scanning system][frame or field rate] or [image size]/[frame or field rate][scanning system].[Reference required] Often the image size or frame rate can be omitted if its value is apparent from the context. In this case, the remaining numeric parameter is specified first, followed by the scanning system.

**Question 0**

What are the three HDTV parameters?

**Question 1**

Which two parameters can be omitted if their value is apparent from the context?

**Question 2**

When can the definition of a frame size or frame rate parameter be waived?

**Question 3**

When a parameter is omitted, the remaining numeric parameter is specified first, then what?

**Question 4**

What are the three SDTV parameters?

**Question 5**

Which two parameters cannot be omitted if their value is apparent from the context?

**Question 6**

When can the definition of image size or frame rate parameters not be omitted?

**Question 7**

When a parameter is omitted, the remaining numeric parameter is specified last, after which?

**Text number 28**

For example, 1920×1080p25 means a progressive scan mode with 25 frames per second, each frame being 1 920 pixels wide and 1 080 pixels high. 1080i25 or 1080i50 means an interlaced scan mode with 25 frames (50 fields) per second, each frame being 1 920 pixels wide by 1 080 pixels high. The designation 1080i30 or 1080i60 means an interlaced scan mode with 30 frames (60 fields) at 60 per second, each frame being 1 920 pixels wide and 1 080 pixels high. The designation 720p60 indicates a progressive scan mode with 60 frames per second, each frame 720 pixels high, and 1 280 pixels horizontally.

**Question 0**

What size is each 1920x1080p25 frame?

**Question 1**

The 1920x1080p25 concept means a progressive scan format with how many frames per second?

**Question 2**

1080i25 or 1080i50 concept to identify interlaced scan format, how many frames per second?

**Question 3**

1080i30 or 1080i60 concept to identify interlaced scan format, how many frames per second?

**Question 4**

The 720p60 concept refers to a progressive scan format with how many frames per second?

**Question 5**

What size is each 120x180p25 frame?

**Question 6**

580i25 or 1380i50 concept to identify interleaved scan format, how many frames per second?

**Question 7**

1030i25 or 1480i50 concept to identify interleaved scan format, how many frames per second?

**Question 8**

The 1080i30 or 1080i60 concept identifies an interleaved scan format with how many frames per minute?

**Question 9**

The 720p60 concept means a progressive scan format with how many frames per minute?

**Text number 29**

50 Hz systems support three scan rates: 50i, 25p and 50p. 60 Hz systems support many more frame rates: 59.94i, 60i, 23.976p, 24p, 29.97p, 30p, 59.94p and 60p. In the days of standard definition TV, fractions were often rounded to integers, for example 23.976p was often called 24p or 59.94i 60i. 60 Hz high definition TV supports both fractions and slightly different integers, so strict notation is needed to avoid ambiguity. Nevertheless, 29.97i/59.94i is almost universally referred to as 60i, as is 23.976p as 24p.

**Question 0**

Which three scanning speeds are supported by 50 Hz systems?

**Question 1**

Which system supports 59.94i, 60i, 23.976p, 24p, 29.97p, 30p, 59.94p, and 60p

**Question 2**

SD TV fractions were often rounded to what?

**Question 3**

For HD fractions, strict labelling is required to avoid what?

**Text number 30**

In the commercial naming of a product, the frame rate is often omitted and given in context (e.g. 1080i TV). The frame rate can also be specified without resolution. For example, 24p means 24 progressive frames per second and 50i means 25 interlaced frames per second.

**Question 0**

What is usually given up in the commercial naming of an HDTV product?

**Question 1**

What does 24p mean?

**Question 2**

What does 50i mean?

**Question 3**

When naming a commercial HDTV product, the picture frequency can be specified without what?

**Question 4**

What is usually given up in the commercial naming of an SDTV product?

**Question 5**

What does 54p mean?

**Question 6**

What does 10i mean?

**Question 7**

When naming a commercial SDTV product, the picture frequency can be specified without what?

**Text number 31**

There is no single standard for HDTV colour support. Colours are typically transmitted using the (10-bit per channel) YUV colour space, but depending on the underlying imaging technology of the receiver, they are later converted to RGB colour space using standardised algorithms. When colours are transmitted directly over the Internet, they are usually converted into predefined 8-bit RGB channels to increase storage savings, and by default are only viewed on a computer screen (sRGB). Original broadcasters have the added advantage that the losses caused by the preconversion make these files essentially unsuitable for professional television broadcasting.

**Question 0**

Is there a single standard for HDTV colour support?

**Question 1**

Before colours are converted to RGB, they are usually transmitted using what colour space?

**Question 2**

Colours are typically transmitted via YUV and then converted to what?

**Question 3**

When colours are transferred over the internet, they are typically what?

**Question 4**

What assumption is made when transferring colours over the internet?

**Question 5**

Is there a single standard for SDTV colour support?

**Question 6**

Before conversion to RGB, colours are not usually transmitted using what colour space?

**Question 7**

Colours are typically transmitted by UUV and then converted to what?

**Question 8**

When posted on the internet, black and white is typically what?

**Question 9**

What is assumed when colours are not transmitted over the internet?

**Text number 32**

HDTV has at least twice the linear resolution of SDTV (standard definition television), so it shows more detail than analogue TV or a standard DVD. HDTV technical standards also handle 16:9 aspect ratio images without letterboxing or anamorphic stretching, which increases the effective resolution of the image.

**Question 0**

How many times higher is the linear resolution of HDTV compared to SDTV?

**Question 1**

HDTV increases the effective resolution of the picture by not using what?

**Question 2**

What is SDTV?

**Question 3**

HDTV handles what aspect ratio without letterboxing or anamorphic stretching?

**Question 4**

How many times higher is the linear resolution of SDTV?

**Question 5**

HDTV increases the effective resolution of the picture by using what?

**Question 6**

What is HDTV?

**Question 7**

What aspect ratio does SDTV handle without letterboxing or anamorphic stretching?

**Text number 33**

A very high-resolution source may require more bandwidth than is available to transmit it without loss of fidelity. The lossy compression used in all digital HDTV recording and transmission systems distorts the received picture compared to an uncompressed source.

**Question 0**

If more bandwidth is needed than is available, a very high resolution source cannot transmit without losing what?

**Question 1**

What does the compression used in all HDTV recording and transmission systems do if the resolution is too high?

**Question 2**

A very high-resolution source may require more what?

**Question 3**

If more bandwidth is needed than is available, a very low resolution source cannot transmit without losing what?

**Question 4**

What does the compression used in all SDTV recording and transmission systems do if the resolution is too high?

**Question 5**

A very low-resolution source may require more what?

**Text number 34**

The optimal transmission format depends on the video recording device used and the characteristics of the image. In order to match the source as closely as possible, the frame rate, lines and frame rate should match the frame rate of the source.

**Question 0**

The optimal format of a transmission depends on two different things.

**Question 1**

To make the source as credible as possible, which three things should match the source?

**Question 2**

To make the source as faithful as possible, the field ratio, lines and frame rate sent should match what?

**Question 3**

Which is determined by the type of video equipment used and the characteristics of the image?

**Question 4**

The optimal format of a transmission depends on which three things?

**Question 5**

To make the source as credible as possible, which five things should match the source?

**Question 6**

To make the source as faithful as possible, the transmitted field ratio, lines and frame rate should not correspond to what?

**Question 7**

The type of video recording media not used and the characteristics of the image determine what?

**Text number 35**

PAL, SECAM and NTSC picture frequencies technically apply only to analogue standard definition television, not to digital or high definition broadcasts. However, with the introduction of digital broadcasting and later HDTV, countries retained their traditional systems. In the former PAL and SECAM countries, HDTV operates at 25/50 Hz, while in the former NTSC countries HDTV operates at 30/60 Hz.

**Question 0**

PAL, SECAM and NTSC picture frequencies apply to what definition of television?

**Question 1**

PAL, SECAM and NTSC frame rates do not apply to which broadcasts?

**Question 2**

In the former PAL and SECAM countries, at what frame rate does HDTV work?

**Question 3**

In the former NTSC countries, at what frame rate does HDTV work?

**Question 4**

PEL, CAM and ETSC frame rates apply to televisions of which definition?

**Question 5**

Which PAL, SECAM and NTSC frame rates apply to which broadcasts?

**Question 6**

In the former PAL and SECAM countries, at what frame rate does SDTV work?

**Question 7**

In the former NTSC countries, at what frame rate does SDTV work?

**Text number 36**

The image resolution of standard 35 mm 35 mm film used for film projection is much higher than that of HDTV systems, and is exposed and projected at 24 frames per second (frame/s). In order to be shown on standard TV in PAL countries, the film is scanned at a TV rate of 25 frames/s, which results in a speed-up of 4.1%, which is generally considered acceptable. In NTSC countries, a TV scan rate of 30 frames/s would result in a significant speed-up if the same were attempted, and the necessary correction is made using the 3:2 pulldown technique: for each successive pair of film frames, one is held for three video frames (1/20th of a second) and the next for two video frames (1/30th of a second), giving a total time of 1/12th of a second for the two frames, thus achieving the correct average film frame rate.

**Question 0**

At what speed is a standard 35 mm photographic film exposed and projected?

**Question 1**

At what speed is the film scanned to be shown on SDTV in PAL countries?

**Question 2**

What is the technique of holding a pair of consecutive film frames for three video fields and the next for two?

**Question 3**

3:2 Pulldown gives what total time for the two frames?

**Question 4**

What is achieved with 3:2 Pulldown, which produces a total time of 1/12th of a second on two screens?

**Question 5**

At what speed is a standard 50 mm photographic film exposed and projected?

**Question 6**

At what speed is a film not scanned to be shown on SDTV in PAL countries?

**Question 7**

What is the technique of holding a pair of consecutive film frames for three video frames and the next two for two video frames?

**Question 8**

3:2 Pulldown techniques give what total time for the five frames?

**Question 9**

What is achieved with 3:2 Pulldown, which produces a total time of 1/15th of a second on two screens?

**Text number 37**

Non-movie HDTV video recordings intended for broadcast are usually recorded in either 720p or 1080i format, as specified by the broadcaster. 720p is commonly used for high-definition video distribution over the Internet, as most computer monitors operate in progressive scan mode. 720p also imposes less burdensome recording and decoding requirements than 1080i and 1080p. 1080p/24, 1080i/30, 1080i/25 and 720p/30 are most commonly used on Blu-ray Disc discs.

**Question 0**

Which two formats are typically used to record non-movie HDTV video intended for broadcast?

**Question 1**

What format is commonly used for HD video distribution on the internet?

**Question 2**

In which room do most computer monitors work?

**Question 3**

1080i, 1080p and 720p are often used on any type of disc.

**Question 4**

Which two formats are typically used to record cinematic HDTV video for broadcast?

**Question 5**

What format is usually used to distribute SD video over the Internet?

**Question 6**

In which mode do the computer screens work?

**Question 7**

1080i, 1080p and 720p are never used on any disc.

**Text number 38**

In the United States, people living within sight of television station antennas can receive free-to-air broadcasts with a television receiver equipped with an ATSC tuner (most televisions sold since2009 have this tuner). This is done with a TV antenna, just as it has been since the 1940s, except that today the signals of the major networks are broadcast in high definition (ABC, Fox and Ion Television broadcast in 720p; CBS, My Network TV, NBC, PBS and The CW in 1080i). Because their digital signals use the broadcast channel more efficiently, many broadcasters add multiple channels to their signals. Antenna laws were updated before the switchover to digital terrestrial broadcasting. Under the new laws, residents' associations and city councils are not allowed to ban the installation of antennas.

**Question 0**

What kind of tuner is needed in the US to allow residents to receive free-to-air broadcasts?

**Question 1**

The laws on antennas were updated before what?

**Question 2**

Who are these laws prohibiting from prohibiting the installation of antennas?

**Question 3**

Antenna laws prevent homeowners' associations and city councils from banning what?

**Question 4**

From which year onwards, most televisions sold have an ATSC tuner?

**Question 5**

What kind of tuner is needed in the UK to allow residents to receive free-to-air broadcasts?

**Question 6**

The laws on antennas were not updated until what?

**Question 7**

To whom do these laws allow the installation of antennas?

**Question 8**

What laws on antennas prevent residents' associations and city councils from allowing?

**Text number 39**

In addition, cable TVs can show HD content without an external box. They have a built-in QAM tuner and/or a slot for inserting a CableCARD.

**Question 0**

HD content can be shown on cable TV without what?

**Question 1**

What can cable TVs show without an external box?

**Question 2**

What features allow cable TVs to show HD content without an external box?

**Question 3**

What kind of built-in tuner allows a cable TV to show HD content without an external box?

**Question 4**

What kind of card allows cable TV to show HD content without an external box?

**Question 5**

SD content can be shown on cable TV without what?

**Question 6**

What can cable TVs show without an internal box?

**Question 7**

What features allow cable TVs to show HD content without an internal box?

**Question 8**

What kind of built-in tuner allows a cable TV to show HD content without an additional box?

**Question 9**

What kind of card allows cable TV to show HD content without an external box?

**Text number 40**

Sources of high-definition video include terrestrial broadcasting, satellite broadcasting, digital cable, IPTV (including GoogleTV Roku boxes and AppleTV or those built into "smart TVs"), Blu-ray video discs (BD) and internet downloads.

**Question 0**

Roku and AppleTV are examples of what?

**Question 1**

Internet downloads, Blu-ray videos and Apple TV are examples of what?

**Question 2**

Terrestrial broadcasting and satellite broadcasting are examples of what?

**Question 3**

Digital cable and Roku are examples of what?

**Question 4**

Roku and AppleTV are not examples of what?

**Question 5**

Internet downloads, Blu-ray videos and Apple TV are not examples of what?

**Question 6**

Digital cable and Roku are not examples of what?

**Text number 41**

Sony's PlayStation 3 has broad HD compatibility thanks to its built-in Blu-ray Disc player, as does Microsoft's Xbox 360 with the addition of Netflix and Windows Media Center HTPC streaming capabilities, and the Zune marketplace, where users can rent or buy digital HD content. Nintendo recently launched a new generation of high-definition gaming platform, the Wii U, which includes remote TV capabilities, as well as IPTV streaming capabilities such as Netflix. The HD capabilities of the consoles have led some developers to port games from previous consoles to the PS3, Xbox 360 and Wii U, often with updated or enhanced graphics.

**Question 0**

Why does PlayStation 3 have wide HD compatibility?

**Question 1**

As well as a Blu-ray player, Xbox 360 also comes with what?

**Question 2**

Which high-definition gaming platform was recently released by Nintendo?

**Question 3**

The HD capabilities of modern gaming systems have inspired developers to do what?

**Question 4**

Why does PlayStation 3 have broad SD compatibility?

**Question 5**

As well as a Blu-ray player, Xbox One also has what?

**Question 6**

Which low-resolution gaming platform was recently released by Nintendo?

**Question 7**

The HD capabilities of modern gaming systems have not inspired developers to do what?

**Text number 42**

HDTV can be recorded on D-VHS (Digital-VHS or Data-VHS), W-VHS (analogue only), a digital video recorder that supports HDTV (for example DirecTV's HD digital digital video recorder, Sky HD:DTV set-top box, Dish Network VIP 622 or VIP 722 digital video recorder receivers, or TiVo 3-series recorders or HD recorders) or an HDTV-enabled HDTV-ready HTPC. Some cable boxes are capable of receiving or recording two or more broadcasts at a time in HDTV format, and HDTV programmes, some included in the monthly subscription price of the cable service, some at an additional cost, can be played using the cable company's subscription service feature.

**Question 0**

Sky HD set-top box, TiVo Series 3 and Dish Network's VIP 622 are examples of what?

**Question 1**

What can some cable boxes do?

**Question 2**

What are the limitations of W-VHS recordings?

**Question 3**

What is D-VHS?

**Question 4**

Sky HD set-top box, TiVo's Series 3 and Dish Network's VIP 622 are not examples of what?

**Question 5**

What some cable boxes cannot do?

**Question 6**

What restrictions do W-VHS recordings not have?

**Question 7**

What is a DVD?

**Text number 43**

The huge amount of storage space required to archive uncompressed streams meant that there were no affordable uncompressed storage options available to consumers. In 2008, the Hauppauge 1212 Personal Video Recorder was introduced. This device receives HD content via component video inputs and stores the content in MPEG-2 format as a .ts file or in Blu-ray-compatible .m2ts format on a hard disk or DVD burner on a computer connected to the VCR via USB 2.0. Newer systems are able to record the broadcast high-definition programme in its 'broadcast' format or encode it in a more Blu-ray-compatible format.

**Question 0**

When was the Hauppauge 1212 Personal Video Recorder introduced?

**Question 1**

How does a personal video recorder record content?

**Question 2**

The latest systems can record HD broadcasts in which format?

**Question 3**

Which uncompressed storage option was introduced in 2008?

**Question 4**

When was the Hauppauge 1212 NonPersonal Video Recorder introduced?

**Question 5**

Why doesn't my personal video recorder record content?

**Question 6**

Recent systems can record SD transmission in which format?

**Question 7**

Which uncompressed storage option was not introduced in 2008?

**Text number 44**

Analogue tape recorders with the bandwidth to record analogue HD signals, such as W-VHS recorders, are no longer produced for the consumer market and are both expensive and rare in the aftermarket.

**Question 0**

What kind of signals can W-VHS recorders record?

**Question 1**

What kind of recorder is no longer made for the consumer market?

**Question 2**

What analogue recorders are considered aftermarket?

**Question 3**

What kind of signals can W-VHS recorders not record?

**Question 4**

What kind of tape recorder is still being produced for the consumer market?

**Question 5**

Aftermarket analogue recorders are not considered what?

**Text number 45**

In the US, the FCC's plug and play agreement requires cable companies to provide customers who rent HD set-top boxes with a "working" FireWire (IEEE 1394) set-top box on request. None of the direct broadcast satellite providers have offered this feature on any set-top box they support, but some cable TV companies have. As of July 2004[update], the boxes are not subject to FCC authorization. This content is protected by 5C encryption. This encryption can prevent copying of the content or simply limit the number of copies allowed, preventing most or all fair use of the content.

**Question 0**

What did US cable companies have to offer customers renting HD set-top boxes before 2004?

**Question 1**

When did boxes with "functional" FireWire wire no longer be included in the FCC's order?

**Question 2**

The content is now protected by what encryption?

**Question 3**

What can be prevented with 5c encryption?

**Question 4**

What did US cable companies have to offer customers renting HD set-top boxes before 2006?

**Question 5**

When were boxes with "functional" FireWire included in the FCC's mandate?

**Question 6**

What encryption is not used to protect content?

**Question 7**

What can't 5c-encryption prevent?