**Document number 212**

**Text number 0**

The fibre is most often spun into yarn or thread and made into soft, breathable textiles. The use of cotton in fabrics is known from prehistoric times; fragments of cotton cloth dating back to 5000 BC have been found in Mexico and the Indus Valley civilisation in ancient India (present-day Pakistan and some parts of India). Although cotton has been cultivated since ancient times, its widespread use led to the invention of the cotton mill, which lowered the cost of cotton production, and it is now the most widely used natural fibre for clothing.

**Question 0**

What is the most common use of cotton?

**Question 1**

On what date is the cotton dated?

**Question 2**

Where has cotton from prehistoric times been found in India?

**Question 3**

In which Central American country has cotton been found from early times?

**Question 4**

Which machines have led to the easy production and widespread use of cotton?

**Question 5**

What are fabrics most often used for?

**Question 6**

What is the date of the cotton star?

**Question 7**

Where in India have cotton samples from prehistoric times been found?

**Question 8**

In which Central American country have cotton gins been found from early times?

**Question 9**

Which textile has led to the easy and widespread use of cotton?

**Text number 1**

The earliest evidence of cotton use in South Asia is found in Mehrgarh, Pakistan, where cotton yarns have been found preserved in copper beads; these finds date to the Neolithic period (6000-5000 BC). Cotton cultivation in the region dates back to the Indus Valley civilisation, which covered parts of present-day eastern Pakistan and north-western India between 3300 and 1300 BC. The Indus Valley cotton industry was highly developed, and some of the methods used for spinning and manufacturing cotton were still in use until the industrialisation of India. Between 2000 and 1000 BC, cotton became widespread in much of India. For example, cotton has been found at the Hallus site in Karnataka, dating back to around 1000 BC.

**Question 0**

Where in Southeast Asia have early uses of cotton been found?

**Question 1**

What period is cotton in Pakistan dated to?

**Question 2**

When did the Indus Valley civilisation cover parts of India and Pakistan?

**Question 3**

Until when did the ancient methods of spinning and cotton manufacture last?

**Question 4**

When did cotton become widely used in India?

**Question 5**

Where in Southeast Asia have early industrial uses been found?

**Question 6**

What period is Pakistan's industry set in?

**Question 7**

When did cotton cover parts of India and Pakistan?

**Question 8**

Until when did ancient methods of pearl hunting last?

**Question 9**

When did copper beads become common in India?

**Text number 2**

In Iran (Persia), the history of cotton dates back to the Achaemenid period (5th century BC); however, there are few sources on cotton planting in pre-Islamic Iran. Cotton planting was common in Merv, Ray and Parsi in Iran. Persian poets, notably Ferdows' Shahname, refer to cotton ('panbe' in Persian) in their poems. Marco Polo (1200s) refers to Persia's most important products, such as cotton. John Chardin, a French traveller to Safavid Persia in the 17th century, spoke approvingly of Persia's extensive cotton holdings.

**Question 0**

From what period does the use of cotton in Iran date back?

**Question 1**

When was the Achaemenid era?

**Question 2**

Where can you find references to cotton in Iran?

**Question 3**

Which 13th century explorer saw cotton in Persia?

**Question 4**

Who was the 17th century Frenchman who discovered cotton growing in Persia?

**Question 5**

The use of cotton in France dates back to which period?

**Question 6**

When was the Persian era?

**Question 7**

Where can you find references to cotton in France?

**Question 8**

Which 13th century explorer saw cotton in France?

**Question 9**

Which Frenchman discovered cotton cultivation in Persia in the 13th century?

**Text number 3**

Although the commercial cultivation of cotton in Egypt has been known since ancient times, it only began in the 1820s, when the Frenchman M. Jumel suggested to the then ruler Mohamed Ali Pasha that he could earn a substantial income by growing a special long-staple Maho cotton (Barbadence) in Lower Egypt for the French market. Mohamed Ali Pasha accepted the proposal and granted himself a monopoly on the sale and export of cotton in Egypt; he later decreed that cotton should be grown instead of other crops. By the time of the American Civil War, annual exports had reached $16 million (120 000 bales), rising to $56 million by 1864, mainly due to the disappearance of Confederate supply from world markets. Exports continued to grow even after the re-production of US cotton, which now employed hired labour, and Egyptian exports reached 1.2 million bales per year by 1903.

**Question 0**

When did cotton begin to be grown commercially in Egypt?

**Question 1**

Which French businessman convinced the ruler of Egypt to grow cotton for the French market?

**Question 2**

Who was the ruler of Egypt in the 1820s?

**Question 3**

How high had cotton revenues risen by the time of the American Civil War?

**Question 4**

How many bales of cotton did Egypt produce by 1903?

**Question 5**

When did cotton begin to be grown commercially in the United States?

**Question 6**

Which French businessman convinced the ruler of Egypt to grow cotton for the US market?

**Question 7**

Who was the ruler of Egypt in 1903?

**Question 8**

How high had cotton revenues risen during the French Civil War?

**Question 9**

How many bales of cotton did Egypt produce by 1820?

**Text number 4**

In the late Middle Ages, cotton became known in northern Europe as an imported fibre, and the origin of cotton was known only as a plant. Since Herodotus had written in his Histories, Histories, Book III, 106, that trees grew naturally in India and produced wool, it was assumed that the plant was a tree and not a bush. This aspect is preserved in the name for cotton in several Germanic languages, such as the Germanic name Baumwolle, meaning 'cotton' (Baum meaning 'tree', Wolle meaning 'wool'). Since cotton resembled wool, the inhabitants of the region could only imagine that cotton was produced by sheep grown on the plant. John Mandeville, writing in 1350, took this now absurd belief as fact: 'There [in India] grew a wonderful tree which bore little lambs on the ends of its branches. These branches were so flexible that they bent downwards to allow the lambs to eat when they were hungry [sic]' (See Tartarian plant shovels.) By the end of the 16th century, cotton was grown throughout the warm regions of Asia and America.

**Question 0**

What was cotton considered to be like in late medieval Europe?

**Question 1**

Which ancient writer gave later ages the idea that cotton could be a tree?

**Question 2**

Which writer of 1350 said that cotton is produced by sheep growing on trees?

**Question 3**

By the end of what century did cotton begin to be grown in the Americas and Asia?

**Question 4**

Why was it easy for people to believe that cotton grew on sheep growing on plants?

**Question 5**

What was cotton like in late medieval Asia?

**Question 6**

Which ancient writer gave later ages the idea that wool could be wood?

**Question 7**

Who was the author in 1350 who said that wool is produced by sheep growing on trees?

**Question 8**

By the end of which century did cotton begin to be grown in Germany?

**Question 9**

Why was it easy for people to believe that cotton grew on sheep raised in northern Europe?

**Text number 5**

India's cotton processing industry gradually declined during the expansion and colonisation of British India in the late 1700s and early 1800s. This was largely due to the aggressive colonial trade policies of the British East India Company, which rendered the Indian cotton processing and manufacturing factories uncompetitive. Increasingly, the Indian market was forced to supply only raw cotton and, under British law, to buy manufactured textiles from Britain.

**Question 0**

How did the British administration affect cotton processing in India?

**Question 1**

During which centuries did the British administration influence cotton production in India?

**Question 2**

Which British company's policies hurt the Indian cotton industry?

**Question 3**

What cotton products did British law allow India to sell?

**Question 4**

If instead of producing fabrics, India was forced to buy cotton products?

**Question 5**

How did the East Indian regime affect cotton processing in India?

**Question 6**

During which centuries did the East Indian regime influence India's cotton production?

**Question 7**

Which British company's policies harmed the British cotton industry?

**Question 8**

What cotton products did Indian law stipulate that India was allowed to sell?

**Question 9**

Where did the British East India Company have to buy cotton products from?

**Text number 6**

The start of the Industrial Revolution in Britain greatly boosted cotton production, and textiles became Britain's leading export. In 1738, Lewis Paul and John Wyatt in Birmingham, England, patented the roller spinning machine and the flyer-and-bobbin system, which drew cotton to a more uniform thickness using two pairs of rollers moving at different speeds. Later, the invention of James Hargreaves' spinning jenny in 1764, Richard Arkwright's spinning frame in 1769 and Samuel Crompton's spinning wheel in 1775 enabled British spinners to produce cotton yarn much faster. From the late 1700s onwards, British Manchester was nicknamed 'Cottonopolis' because of the ubiquity of the cotton industry in the city and Manchester's position as the centre of the global cotton trade.

**Question 0**

Which event led to the expansion of the British cotton industry?

**Question 1**

When was the new spinning machine patented, which increased cotton production?

**Question 2**

What device did James Hargreaves invent?

**Question 3**

What was Samuel Crompton's invention in 1775?

**Question 4**

Which British city was nicknamed "Cottonopolis" because of its cotton production?

**Question 5**

What event led to the expansion of John Wyatt's cotton industry?

**Question 6**

When was the new spinning machine patented, which increased the production of frames?

**Question 7**

What device did Manchester invent?

**Question 8**

What was Samuel Crompton's invention in 1769?

**Question 9**

Which British city was nicknamed "Cottonopolis" because of its frame production?

**Text number 7**

Production capacity was improved in the UK and the US when the American Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin in 1793. Before the development of ginning machines, cotton fibres had to be pulled from the gins by hand with great difficulty. By the late 1700s, several simple ginning machines had already been developed. However, producing a single bale of cotton required more than 600 hours of human labour, making large-scale production uneconomic in the United States, even when people were used as slave labour. The ginning machine made by Whitney (the Holmes model) reduced man-hours to only about ten hours per bale. Although Whitney patented his own cotton gin, he manufactured an earlier design by Henry Odgen Holmes, for which Holmes applied for a patent in 1796. Technological developments and increasing control of world markets enabled British merchants to develop a commercial chain whereby raw cotton fibres were bought (initially) from colonial plantations, processed into cotton cloth in Lancashire mills and then exported by British ships to captive colonial markets in West Africa, India and China (via Shanghai and Hong Kong).

**Question 0**

Which invention improved the cotton industry in both America and Britain?

**Question 1**

Who was the American who invented the cotton gin?

**Question 2**

How was cotton separated before the cotton mill?

**Question 3**

What business development enabled the British to gain a grip on the world cotton market?

**Question 4**

From which source was raw cotton first bought and later resold?

**Question 5**

Which invention improved the cotton industry in both Holmes and Britain?

**Question 6**

Which British person invented the cotton mill?

**Question 7**

How were the bales separated before the cotton gin was used?

**Question 8**

What business development helped the Americans gain a grip on the world cotton market?

**Question 9**

From which source was cotton seed first bought and later resold?

**Text number 8**

By the 1840s, India was no longer able to supply the large quantities of cotton fibres needed by British mechanised mills, and transporting bulky, cheap cotton from India to Britain was time-consuming and expensive. This, coupled with the rise of American cotton as a superior type of cotton (thanks to the longer and stronger fibres of two native American species, Gossypium hirsutum and Gossypium barbadense), encouraged British merchants to buy cotton from plantations in the United States and the Caribbean. "By the mid-19th century, 'king cotton' had become the backbone of the South American economy. In the United States, cotton growing and harvesting became the main occupation of slaves.

**Question 0**

What was the difference that made American cotton better than Indian cotton?

**Question 1**

Which country in the 1840s was no longer able to supply enough cotton to British cotton mills?

**Question 2**

Where else in the Western Hemisphere did Britain buy cotton from besides the American plantations?

**Question 3**

By when had cotton become a major part of the South American economy?

**Question 4**

What was cotton called in the 19th century?

**Question 5**

What made Indian cotton different from British cotton?

**Question 6**

Which country was no longer able to supply enough cotton to the Indian cotton mills in the 1840s?

**Question 7**

Where else in the western hemisphere did India buy cotton from besides the American plantations?

**Question 8**

By when had cotton become a major part of the South Indian economy?

**Question 9**

What was the name of America in the 19th century?

**Text number 9**

During the American Civil War, American cotton exports plummeted because of the Union blockade of Southern ports and the strategic decision by the Confederate government to reduce exports in the hope of forcing Britain to recognize the Confederacy or join the war. This prompted the main buyers of cotton, Britain and France, to turn to Egyptian cotton. British and French merchants invested heavily in cotton plantations. Viceroy Isma'il's Egyptian government took out substantial loans from European bankers and stock exchanges. After the end of the American Civil War in 1865, British and French merchants abandoned Egyptian cotton and returned to cheap American exports, leading to a spiral of Egyptian deficits that led to the country's declaration of bankruptcy in 1876, a key reason for the British Empire's occupation of Egypt in 1882.

**Question 0**

When did the US cotton industry fail?

**Question 1**

Which EU action harmed southern cotton exports?

**Question 2**

Which county's cotton was bought by European buyers because of the US Civil War?

**Question 3**

What feature of American cotton attracted buyers after the end of the Civil War?

**Question 4**

What did the abandonment of Egyptian cotton mean for the Egyptian economy?

**Question 5**

When did Egypt's cotton industry collapse?

**Question 6**

Which EU measure harmed French cotton exports?

**Question 7**

Which country's cotton did Southern buyers buy for the US Civil War?

**Question 8**

What feature of Egyptian cotton attracted buyers after the end of the civil war?

**Question 9**

What did the abandonment of southern cotton mean for the Egyptian economy?

**Text number 10**

Cotton remained a key crop in the southern economy after liberation and the end of the Civil War in 1865. Sharecropping developed in various parts of the South, with landless black and white farmers farming land owned by others in exchange for a share of the profits. Some farmers rented land and paid their own production costs. Before the development of mechanised cotton pickers, cotton farmers needed additional labour to pick cotton by hand. Cotton picking was a source of income for families throughout the South. School systems in rural areas and small towns had shared holidays so that children could work in the fields while picking cotton.

**Question 0**

What was the name given to a procedure where workers worked to get a share of the profits?

**Question 1**

What was the difficulty in harvesting cotton that required a large workforce?

**Question 2**

What proportion of the southern US population was involved in cotton harvesting in addition to adults?

**Question 3**

What was the purpose of schools in the South created for children to pick cotton?

**Question 4**

What proportion of the population in the South worked as share owners?

**Question 5**

What was the name given to the procedure whereby Southerners had to work to get their share of the profits?

**Question 6**

What was the difficulty of harvesting cotton that required a larger economy?

**Question 7**

What proportion of the US South's population was involved in the school system other than adults?

**Question 8**

Which southern school assignment was created for adults to work as cotton pickers?

**Question 9**

What proportion of the population in the South worked as farmers?

**Text number 11**

Successful cultivation of cotton requires a long frost-free period, plenty of sunshine and moderate rainfall, usually between 600 and 1 200 mm (24 to 47 inches). The soil must generally be fairly heavy, although the nutrient content need not be exceptionally high. These conditions are generally met in the seasonally dry tropical and subtropical regions of the northern and southern hemispheres, but much of the cotton grown today is grown in areas with less rainfall and irrigated access to water. Production of a given year's crop usually begins shortly after the previous autumn's harvest. Cotton is a naturally perennial crop, but is grown as an annual to control pests. In the northern hemisphere, the planting period in spring varies from early February to early June. The South Plains region of the United States is the largest continuous cotton-growing area in the world. Although cotton is successfully grown on dry land (without irrigation) in this region, a steady crop can only be obtained by relying heavily on irrigation water from the Ogallala aquifer. Cotton's tolerance to some salt and drought makes it an attractive crop in arid and semi-arid areas. As water resources become scarcer around the world, economies that rely on water resources face difficulties and conflicts, as well as potential environmental problems. For example, inappropriate cultivation and irrigation practices have led to desertification in areas of Uzbekistan where cotton is a major export. During the Soviet era, the Aral Sea was used for agricultural irrigation, mainly for cotton, and now salinisation is common.

**Question 0**

What is the optimum rainfall for cotton growth?

**Question 1**

What kind of soil does cotton prefer to grow in?

**Question 2**

Why is cotton grown as an annual crop?

**Question 3**

Where in the US is considered the best place in the world to grow cotton?

**Question 4**

What tolerances make cotton an ideal crop for semi-arid areas?

**Question 5**

What is the minimum rainfall for cotton to grow?

**Question 6**

At what rainfall levels does cotton prefer to grow?

**Question 7**

Why is cotton grown as a regional crop?

**Question 8**

Where in the US is considered the best place in the world to fight pests?

**Question 9**

What are the tolerances that make cotton an ideal crop in the northern hemisphere?

**Text number 12**

GM cotton was developed to reduce the heavy dependence on pesticides. Bacillus thuringiensis (Bt) naturally produces a chemical that is harmful to only a small proportion of insects, especially the larvae of butterflies, beetles and flies, and harmless to other organisms. The gene encoding the Bt toxin is inserted into cotton, causing the cotton, called Bt cotton, to produce this natural insecticide in its tissues. In many areas, the main pests of commercial cotton are butterfly larvae, which are killed by the Bt protein in the transgenic cotton they eat. This avoids the need to use large quantities of broad-spectrum insecticides to kill lepidopteran pests (some of which have developed pyrethroid resistance). This saves natural insect predators in the farm ecology and promotes insect control without insecticides.

**Question 0**

What was GM cotton developed to end addiction to?

**Question 1**

In what form is cotton genetically modified?

**Question 2**

What bacterium is used to produce GM cotton?

**Question 3**

What agricultural plant protection techniques does the use of GM crops promote?

**Question 4**

Which part of the butterfly's life cycle is affected by Bt toxin?

**Question 5**

Stop refinancing, what was the GM larvae developed for?

**Question 6**

What form of larva is a caterpillar?

**Question 7**

What agricultural plant protection techniques does the use of caterpillar plants promote?

**Question 8**

Which part of the cotton life cycle is affected by Bt toxin?

**Question 9**

Which bacterium is used to produce cotton larvae?

**Text number 13**

However, Bt cotton is not effective against many cotton pests, such as plant insects, stink flies and aphids; depending on the conditions, insecticides may still be desirable. A 2006 study of Bt cotton in China by Cornell researchers, the China Agricultural Policy Center and the Chinese Academy of Sciences found that after seven years these secondary pests, which are usually controlled with pesticides, had increased, requiring the same level of pesticide use as without Bt cotton and lower profits for farmers due to the additional costs of GM seeds. However, a 2009 study by the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Stanford University and Rutgers University refuted this. They found that GM cotton effectively controlled bollworm. Secondary pests were mostly insects of the miridae family (plant pests), whose reproduction was linked to local temperature and rainfall and continued in only half of the villages studied. Moreover, the increase in insecticide use to control these secondary insects was much less than the overall decrease in insecticide use due to the introduction of Bt cotton. A 2012 Chinese study found that Bt cotton halved pesticide use and doubled the number of ladybirds, lacewings and spiders. According to the International Service for the Acquisition of Applications of Agricultural Biotechnology (ISAAA), 25 million hectares of GM cotton were planted worldwide in 2011. This represented 69% of the total area under cotton worldwide.

**Question 0**

What year did a study find that the use of Bt poisonous crops was not effective after 7 years?

**Question 1**

What did a 2009 study find that insect reproduction was dependent on?

**Question 2**

According to a 2012 study, what halved the use of GM crops?

**Question 3**

What doubled the use of GM cotton, according to a 2012 study?

**Question 4**

How much of the world's cotton plantations are planted with GM cotton?

**Question 5**

What did a 2009 study find that pest reproduction was dependent on?

**Question 6**

According to a 2012 study, what did the use of secondary crops halve?

**Question 7**

What doubled the use of Chinese cotton, according to a 2012 study?

**Question 8**

How much of the world's cotton is grown in China?

**Question 9**

How much GM cotton was planted in 2009?

**Text number 14**

The area under GM cotton in India grew rapidly, increasing from 50 000 hectares in 2002 to 10.6 million hectares in 2011. The total area under cotton in India was 12.1 million hectares in 2011, which means that 88% of the total area under cotton was cultivated with GM cotton. This made India the country with the highest GM cotton production in the world. A long-term study on the economic impact of Bt cotton in India, published in the journal PNAS in 2012, showed that Bt cotton has increased smallholder farmers' yields, profits and living standards. The US GM cotton crop area was 4.0 million hectares in 2011, the second largest in the world, China's GM cotton crop area was the third largest (3.9 million hectares) and Pakistan's GM cotton crop area was the fourth largest (2.6 million hectares) in 2011. The first introduction of GM cotton in Australia proved to be a success - yields were similar to non-GM varieties and much less pesticides were used to produce the crop (85% reduction). The subsequent introduction of a second GM cotton variety led to an increase in GM cotton production until 95% of Australia's cotton crop was GM in 2009, making Australia the country with the fifth largest GM cotton crop in the world. Other GM cotton producing countries in 2011 were Argentina, Myanmar, Burkina Faso, Brazil, Mexico, Colombia, South Africa and Costa Rica.

**Question 0**

How much GM cotton was planted in India in 2011?

**Question 1**

What percentage of GM cotton was planted in India in 2011?

**Question 2**

Which country has the most GM cotton cultivation on the planet?

**Question 3**

Where does US GM cotton stand in the world?

**Question 4**

What proportion of Australia's cotton crop was GM in 2009?

**Question 5**

How much GM cotton was planted in India in 2009?

**Question 6**

What percentage of GM cotton was planted in India in 2009?

**Question 7**

Which country has the largest area of non-transgenic cotton on the planet?

**Question 8**

What is the position of US non-traditional cotton in the world?

**Question 9**

What proportion of Australia's cotton crop was non-transgenic in 2009?

**Text number 15**

Organic cotton is generally understood to be cotton that comes from non-genetically modified plants and is grown without the use of synthetic agrochemicals such as fertilisers or pesticides. Its production also contributes to and enhances biodiversity and biological cycles. In the US, organic cotton farms must comply with the National Organic Program (NOP), which defines permitted practices for pest control, cultivation, fertilisation and handling of organic crops. In 2007, 265,517 bales of organic cotton were produced in 24 countries, with global production increasing by more than 50% per year.

**Question 0**

What are organic plants?

**Question 1**

Without what organic crops are to be grown ?

**Question 2**

What are synthetic chemicals?

**Question 3**

Which US group defines the permitted practices for organic farming?

**Question 4**

How much organic cotton was produced worldwide in 2007?

**Question 5**

What are NOP plants?

**Question 6**

Without what NOP plants are to be grown?

**Question 7**

What are NOP chemicals?

**Question 8**

Which US group defines acceptable practices in 24 countries?

**Question 9**

How much synthetic cotton was produced worldwide in 2007?

**Text number 16**

In North America, one of the most economically destructive pests of cotton production has historically been the feather duster. Thanks to the US Department of Agriculture's highly successful Boll Weevil Eradication Program (BWEP), this pest has been eradicated from cotton in most of the United States. This programme, together with the introduction of genetically modified Bt cotton (which contains a bacterial gene that codes for a protein produced by the plant that is toxic to several pests, including the cotton bollworm and the pink bollworm), has made it possible to reduce the use of synthetic insecticides.

**Question 0**

Which insect is the most destructive pest of the US cotton crop?

**Question 1**

What programme has effectively eradicated the beetle from the US?

**Question 2**

What is the organisation that initiated the Boll Weevil eradication programme?

**Question 3**

Which form of cotton contains a GM gene?

**Question 4**

How does the use of Bt cotton reduce addiction?

**Question 5**

Which insect is the most destructive pest of cotton grown in the BWEP area?

**Question 6**

What programme has been effective in eradicating pests in the US?

**Question 7**

What is the organisation that has started the spread of the beetle?

**Question 8**

Which form of cotton contains a genetically modified pest?

**Question 9**

How does the use of BWEP reduce addiction?

**Text number 17**

Most cotton in the United States, Europe and Australia is harvested mechanically, either with a cotton gin, which removes the cotton boll from the cotton boll without damaging the cotton plant, or with a cotton harvester, which removes the entire cotton boll from the plant. Ginning machines are used in areas where it is too windy to grow cotton ginning varieties and usually after the application of chemical defoliants or after natural defoliation after freezing. Cotton is a perennial crop in the tropics, and without defoliation or freezing, the plant continues to grow.

**Question 0**

How is most cotton harvested?

**Question 1**

What is a cotton harvester that removes the boll without damaging the plant?

**Question 2**

Which machine removes the entire head of a cotton plant?

**Question 3**

What weather conditions determine the planting of cotton types?

**Question 4**

What kind of plant is cotton?

**Question 5**

How are most plants harvested?

**Question 6**

What is a cotton harvester that removes the germ bud and damages the plant?

**Question 7**

Which machine removes chemicals from the cotton plant?

**Question 8**

What weather conditions dictate the planting of cotton defoliation?

**Question 9**

What kind of plant is leafy green?

**Text number 18**

The era of industrially produced fibres began with the development of viscose in France in the 1890s. Rayon is derived from natural cellulose and cannot be considered synthetic, but it requires extensive processing in the manufacturing process and led to cheaper substitutes for more natural materials. In the following decades, the chemical industry introduced several new synthetic fibres. The fibrous acetate was developed in 1924, DuPont introduced nylon for sewing thread in 1936, the first fibre synthesised entirely from petrochemical raw materials, and DuPont acrylic was launched in 1944. Fabrics based on these fibres were used to make some clothing, such as women's stockings made from nylon, but the cotton market was only threatened when polyester entered the fibre market in the early 1950s. The rapid expansion of polyester clothing in the 1960s caused economic difficulties for cotton-exporting economies, particularly in Central American countries such as Nicaragua, where cotton production had increased tenfold between 1950 and 1965 with the introduction of cheap chemical pesticides. Cotton production recovered in the 1970s, but collapsed to pre-1960 levels in the early 1990s.

**Question 0**

What was the first manufactured fibre?

**Question 1**

When was viscose first made in France?

**Question 2**

What kind of industry produced the synthetic fibres in the growing chain?

**Question 3**

What is made entirely from petrochemical products?

**Question 4**

Which company produced nylon and acrylic in the 1930s and 1940s?

**Question 5**

What was the first polyester fibre?

**Question 6**

When was polyester first produced in France?

**Question 7**

What kind of industry produced DuPont's growing chain?

**Question 8**

What was made entirely from DuPont?

**Question 9**

Which company produced polyester and nylon in the 1930s and 1940s?

**Text number 19**

The Cotton Research and Promotion Program (CRPP) began in the mid-1960s as a self-help programme, organised by US cotton producers in response to the continuing decline in cotton's market share. At the time, producers voted to establish a locality-based assessment system to fund the program, with built-in safeguards to protect their investment. With the passage of the Cotton Research and Promotion Act in 1966, the program joined forces to fight synthetic competitors and restore the cotton market. Today, thanks to the success of this programme, cotton has become the best-selling fibre in the United States and one of the best-selling fibres in the world.

**Question 0**

What prompted the cotton growers to produce a utility in the 1960s?

**Question 1**

Which law was passed in 1966 to support cotton producers?

**Question 2**

What kind of competitors will the 1966 law help to combat?

**Question 3**

Where has the Cotton Research and Promotion Act made cotton the best-selling fibre?

**Question 4**

What did cotton producers have to do again after the market downturn?

**Question 5**

What triggered the investment-led utility programme in the 1960s?

**Question 6**

Which law was passed in 1966 to support investment?

**Question 7**

Which competitors will the 1966 law help?

**Question 8**

Where has the Cotton Research and Promotion Act made synthetic fibres the best-selling fibres?

**Question 9**

What were synthetic producers to do after the market downturn?

**Text number 20**

Cotton is used to make a wide range of textile products. These include terry towelling for highly absorbent bath towels and bathrobes, denim for jeans, cambric (hence the term "blue-collar") for blue work shirts, corduroy, seersucker and cotton twill. Socks, underwear and most T-shirts are made from cotton. Sheets are often made of cotton. Cotton is also used to make yarn for crochet and knitting. Fabrics can also be made from recycled or reclaimed cotton that is otherwise discarded during the spinning, weaving or cutting process. Many fabrics are made entirely from cotton, but some materials are blended with other fibres such as viscose and synthetic fibres such as polyester. Cotton can be used either in knitwear or woven fabrics, as it can be blended with elastin to make a more flexible yarn for knitwear and garments such as stretchy jeans.

**Question 0**

What is cotton used for?

**Question 1**

In addition to new cotton fibres, what types of fibres can be used to make cotton products?

**Question 2**

What is cotton often mixed with to make a new type of fabric?

**Question 3**

What types of fabrics can be made from blended fibres?

**Question 4**

What can cotton yarn be used for?

**Question 5**

What are jeans used for?

**Question 6**

What types of cotton fibres can be used to produce elastin in addition to the new cotton fibres?

**Question 7**

What is cotton often mixed with to make a new type of elastin?

**Question 8**

What kind of fabrics can be made from stretch jeans?

**Question 9**

What can cotton elastane be used for?

**Text number 21**

Cottonseed oil is made from the cottonseed that remains after cotton ginning, which can be used by people after processing like any other vegetable oil. The remaining cottonseed meal is usually fed to ruminants; the gossypol in the meal is toxic to monogastric animals. Cottonseed hulls can be added to dairy cattle rations as roughage. During American slavery, cotton germ husks were used in folk medicine as an abortifacient, i.e. to induce miscarriage. Gossypol was one of many substances found in all parts of the cotton plant and was described by scientists as a 'toxic pigment'. It also appears to inhibit sperm development or even restrict sperm motility. It is also thought to interfere with the menstrual cycle by restricting the release of certain hormones.

**Question 0**

What are cotton seeds used for after they are separated from the fibres?

**Question 1**

Which product is processed cottonseed oil?

**Question 2**

What cottonseed meal is used as animal feed?

**Question 3**

What are cottonseed husks used for in animal feed?

**Question 4**

How did early researchers describe gossypol ?

**Question 5**

What are cotton seeds used for after they have been separated from the boll?

**Question 6**

What product is processed cottonseed hulls?

**Question 7**

What are root peels used for in animal feed?

**Question 8**

How did early scientists describe cottonseed oil?

**Question 9**

What prevents the development of the root bark?

**Text number 22**

Cotton lint is a fine, silky fibre that sticks to the seeds of the cotton plant after ginning. These curly fibers are typically less than 1⁄8 inch (3.2 mm) long. The term can also refer to longer textile fibres, staple fibres, as well as shorter, fluffy fibres from some mountain species. Fibres have traditionally been used in paper manufacture and as a raw material for the production of cellulose. In the United Kingdom, linters are referred to as "cotton wool". It can also be a processed product (absorbent cotton in US usage) with medical, cosmetic and many other practical uses. Sampson Gamgee first used cotton for medical purposes at Queen's Hospital (later General Hospital) in Birmingham, England.

**Question 0**

Which part of the cotton plant is used to make paper?

**Question 1**

What do cotton linters look like?

**Question 2**

What is the name of cotton lintels in the UK?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the cotton flower in the United States?

**Question 4**

Who was the first to use cotton for medical purposes?

**Question 5**

What part of wool is used to make paper?

**Question 6**

What does wool look like?

**Question 7**

What is the name of cotton linters in the United States?

**Question 8**

Who was the first to use wool in medicine?

**Question 9**

Where did Sampson Gamgee use wool medically?

**Text number 23**

Cotton lisle is a finely spun, tightly twisted type of cotton known for its strength and durability. Lisle is made up of two strands, each twisted an extra twist per inch like ordinary yarns and joined into a single yarn. The yarn is spun so that it is compact and solid. This cotton is used mainly for underwear, socks and gloves. The colours used for this yarn are brighter than those used for the softer yarn. This type of yarn was first produced in the town of Lisle in France (now Lille), hence its name.

**Question 0**

What is a fine, tightly twisted cotton fabric?

**Question 1**

What lisle is considered a fabric?

**Question 2**

What causes excess twisting of the lisle wire?

**Question 3**

Where was the lisle chain originally made?

**Question 4**

How is the colour perceived in lisle yarns compared to softer yarns?

**Question 5**

What is a fine, tightly twisted cotton glove?

**Question 6**

What is lisle as a city?

**Question 7**

What does the extra twisting of gloves produce?

**Question 8**

Where were the gloves originally made?

**Question 9**

How is colour perceived in gloves compared to tights?

**Text number 24**

The largest cotton producers are currently (2009) China and India, with annual production of around 34 million bales and 33.4 million bales respectively, most of which is used in their textile industries. The largest exporters of raw cotton are the United States, with sales of $4.9 billion, and Africa, with sales of $2.1 billion. Total international trade is estimated at $12 billion. Africa's share of the cotton trade has doubled since 1980. Neither region has a significant domestic textile industry, with textile production moving to developing countries in East and South Asia, such as India and China. In Africa, cotton is grown by a large number of smallholder farmers. Dunavant Enterprises, headquartered in Memphis, Tennessee, is Africa's leading cotton broker with hundreds of buying agents. It has ginning plants in Uganda, Mozambique and Zambia. In Zambia, it frequently provides loans for seed and expenses to the 180,000 smallholder farmers who grow cotton on its behalf, as well as advice on farming methods. Cargill also buys cotton from Africa for export.

**Question 0**

Who were the biggest cotton producers in 2009?

**Question 1**

How do the US and Africa rank as cotton exporters?

**Question 2**

What is the total international trade in cotton?

**Question 3**

Which company is the largest cotton broker in Africa?

**Question 4**

Where is Dunavant Enterprises located?

**Question 5**

Who were the biggest importers in 2009?

**Question 6**

How do the US and Africa rank as rice exporters?

**Question 7**

What is the total international trade in rice?

**Question 8**

Which company is the best cotton broker in India?

**Question 9**

Where is Cargill located?

**Text number 25**

The 25,000 cotton producers in the US receive a strong annual subsidy of $2 billion, even though China now provides the largest overall subsidy to the cotton sector. The future of these subsidies is uncertain and has led to a proactive expansion of cotton brokers in Africa. Dunavant expanded its operations in Africa by acquiring local companies. This is only possible in the former British colonies and Mozambique; the former French colonies still maintain the strict monopolies inherited from their former colonial masters to buy cotton at low fixed prices.

**Question 0**

How many subsidised cotton farmers are there in the US?

**Question 1**

What is the level of support for cotton farmers in the US?

**Question 2**

In which country do cotton producers receive the most support?

**Question 3**

Which former colonies still have a strict monopoly on cotton brokering?

**Question 4**

Where in Africa is it possible to buy cotton brokers?

**Question 5**

How many subsidised cotton farmers are there in Africa?

**Question 6**

What is the level of support for cotton farmers in Africa?

**Question 7**

Which country offers the highest subsidy rate for settlements?

**Question 8**

Which former colonies still have a strict monopoly on colonialism?

**Question 9**

Where in the US can you buy cotton brokerage?

**Text number 26**

While Brazil was fighting the US through the WTO dispute settlement mechanism against the heavily subsidised cotton industry, a group of four LDCs - Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad and Mali - also known as the "Cotton-4", have been leading the charge to reduce US cotton subsidies through negotiations. These four countries put forward a sectoral initiative in favour of cotton, which was presented by Burkina Faso's President Blaise Compaoré at the Trade Negotiations Committee on 10 June 2003.

**Question 0**

What was Brazil's argument against the US cotton industry?

**Question 1**

What are the African countries of Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad and Mali called in the cotton industry?

**Question 2**

How has Cotton-4 reacted to the US cotton subsidies?

**Question 3**

What could the US do that would please the foreign cotton industry in terms of cotton subsidies?

**Question 4**

Which organisation has Brazil used to try to curb US cotton subsidies?

**Question 5**

What was Brazil's argument against Chad's cotton industry?

**Question 6**

How has Cotton-4 affected the cotton industry?

**Question 7**

What could the US do to please the WTO on cotton subsidies?

**Question 8**

Which organisation has the United States used to try to curb subsidies to Brazil?

**Question 9**

When was the cotton subsidy introduced?

**Text number 27**

In addition to concerns about subsidies, the cotton industry in some countries is criticised for using child labour and for damaging workers' health through exposure to pesticides used in production. The Environmental Justice Foundation has campaigned against the widespread use of forced child and adult labour in cotton production in Uzbekistan, the world's third largest cotton exporter. The international production and trade situation has led to 'fair trade' cotton clothing and footwear being associated with the rapidly growing market for organic clothing, fair fashion or 'ethical fashion'. The Fair Trade scheme was launched in 2005 with producers in Cameroon, Mali and Senegal.

**Question 0**

What kind of labour has been hired in some countries?

**Question 1**

What are the reported uses that cause harm to workers in some countries?

**Question 2**

Which country has been accused of forced child and adult labour?

**Question 3**

Where does Uzbekistan rank as an exporter of cotton?

**Question 4**

Which scheme was launched in 2005 to handle organic and ethically produced products?

**Question 5**

What kind of footwear have some countries come under fire for wearing?

**Question 6**

What are the reported footwear-injurious practices in some countries?

**Question 7**

Which country has been accused of fair fashion?

**Question 8**

Where does Mali stand as an exporter of cotton?

**Question 9**

Which scheme was launched in 2005 to combat forced labour?

**Text number 28**

In 2007, a consortium of public researchers started sequencing the public genome of cotton. They agreed on a strategy to sequence the genome of cultivated tetraploid cotton. "Tetraploid means that there are two separate genomes, called A and D genomes, in the nucleus of cultivated cotton. The sequencing consortium first agreed to sequence the D genome of cultivated cotton (G. raimondii, a Central American wild cotton species) because it is small and contains few repetitive elements. Its base number is almost a third of that of tetraploid cotton (AD), and each chromosome occurs only once. The A genome of G. arboreum would be sequenced next. Its genome is about twice as large as that of G. raimondii. Part of the difference in size between the two genomes is due to retrotransposon duplication (GORGE). Once the genomes of the two diploids have been assembled, the sequencing of the actual genomes of the cultivated cotton varieties could begin. This strategy is essential; if the tetraploid genome were sequenced without the diploid genome template, the AD genomes would cluster together in their echromatic DNA sequences and the AD genomes' repetitive elements would cluster independently into A and D sequences. It would then not be possible to unravel the AD sequence jumble without comparing them to their diploid counterparts.

**Question 0**

What is the final sequencing target when the diploid cotton genomes are sequenced first?

**Question 1**

Which type of cotton has two separate genomes at its core?

**Question 2**

When did the research team decide to sequence the genome structure of tetraploid cotton?

**Question 3**

Which type of genome must be sequenced first to avoid confusion before the tetraploid form?

**Question 4**

What should be used as a reference for sequencing cotton genes to understand tetraploid forms?

**Question 5**

What is the final sequencing target when tetraploid genomes are sequenced first?

**Question 6**

Which cotton species has two separate genomes in its sequence?

**Question 7**

When did the team or researchers decide to sequence the genome structure of the diploid counterparts?

**Question 8**

Which type of genome should be sequenced first to avoid confusion before GORGE?

**Question 9**

To understand tetraploid forms, what should be used as a reference point in cotton GORGE?

**Text number 29**

Public sector efforts are continuing, with the aim of creating a high-quality draft genome sequence from reads from all sources. Public sector efforts have produced Sanger reads from BACs, phosphides and plasmids, as well as 454 reads. These latter types of reads are important for the assembly of the preliminary draft of the D genome. In 2010, two companies (Monsanto and Illumina) completed enough Illumina sequencing to cover the D genome of G. raimondii by about 50-fold. They announced that they would release the raw reads to the public. This publicity effort gave them some recognition for sequencing the cotton genome. Once the D genome is assembled from all this raw material, it will undoubtedly help in assembling AD genomes of cultivated cotton varieties, but much hard work remains to be done.

**Question 0**

Which companies completed most of the sequencing of the D genome?

**Question 1**

When was the sequencing of the D-genome of G. raimondii substantially completed?

**Question 2**

What did Monsanto and Illumina say they would do with the study?

**Question 3**

What is the apparent result of releasing the sequencing of genetic cotton to the public?

**Question 4**

Which plants are the target for sequencing wild forms of cotton?

**Question 5**

Which companies completed the bulk of the sequencing of the BAC genome?

**Question 6**

When was the sequencing of the D-genome of AD, raimondii largely completed?

**Question 7**

What did Monsanto and Illumina say they would do with the D genome of G?

**Question 8**

What is the apparent result of donating genetic cotton sequencing to AD genomes?

**Question 9**

Which plants are the target for sequencing wild forms of BAC?

**Document number 213**

**Text number 0**

In signal processing, data compression, source coding or bit rate reduction means encoding data using fewer bits than the original representation. Compression can be either lossy or lossless. Lossless compression reduces the number of bits by identifying and eliminating statistical redundancy. In lossless compression, no information is lost. Lossy compression reduces bits by identifying and removing redundant information. Reducing the size of a data file is called data compression. In data transmission, it is called source coding (coding done at the source of the data before it is stored or transmitted) as opposed to channel coding.

**Question 0**

What does it mean to encode information using fewer bits than the original representation?

**Question 1**

What can be either destructive or indestructible?

**Question 2**

What reduces the number of bits by identifying and eliminating statistical redundancy?

**Question 3**

What is the process of reducing the size of a data file called?

**Question 4**

What is the process called coding at the source before processing the data?

**Question 5**

What does it mean to encode data using fewer bits than in channel coding?

**Question 6**

What cannot be destructive or indestructible?

**Question 7**

What reduces the number of bits by identifying and removing source code?

**Question 8**

What is a process called lossless size reduction?

**Text number 1**

Compression is useful because it helps reduce the use of resources, such as data storage space or transfer capacity. Since compressed data must be decompressed before use, this extra processing incurs computational or other costs through decompression; a situation that is far from a free lunch. Data compression involves a trade-off of space-time complexity. For example, a video compression system may require expensive hardware to decompress the video fast enough to allow viewing during decompression, and the ability to fully decompress the video before viewing may be cumbersome or require additional storage space. In designing data compression systems, trade-offs must be made between various factors, including the degree of compression, the amount of distortion (when lossy compression is used), and the computing resources required to compress and decompress the data.

**Question 0**

What helps to reduce the use of resources?

**Question 1**

What needs to be dismantled?

**Question 2**

In relation to what must a space-time complexity trade be made?

**Question 3**

What kind of system involves, among other things, trade-offs?

**Question 4**

What helps to reduce trade-offs?

**Question 5**

What is subject to a time-space device?

**Question 6**

What kind of system includes, for example, storage?

**Question 7**

What does compressed data need to be to be tricky?

**Question 8**

What is the distortion caused by extra processing?

**Text number 2**

Lossless data compression algorithms usually use statistical redundancy to represent data without losing any information, so the process is reversible. Lossless compression is possible because most real-world data contains statistical redundancy. For example, an image may have color regions that do not change over several pixels; instead of encoding "red pixel, red pixel, ...", the data can be encoded as "279 red pixels". This is a basic example of run-length encoding; there are many schemes for reducing file size by eliminating redundancy.

**Question 0**

What usually benefits from statistical redundancy?

**Question 1**

What is statistical redundancy?

**Question 2**

Where can there be colours that do not change over several pixels?

**Question 3**

What usually takes advantage of run length coding?

**Question 4**

Where can there be redundancy that does not change over several pixels?

**Question 5**

What is possible, since most real-world data have coloured areas?

**Question 6**

How can many systems reduce packaging waste?

**Question 7**

What do red pixel algorithms usually use?

**Text number 3**

Lempel-Ziv (LZ) compression methods are the most popular lossless storage algorithms. DEFLATE is a variant of LZ that is optimized for decompression rate and compression ratio, but compression can be slow. DEFLATE is used in PKZIP, Gzip and PNG. LZW (Lempel-Ziv-Welch) is used for GIF images. Also of note is the LZR (Lempel-Ziv-Renau) algorithm, which is the basis of the Zip method. LZ methods use a table-based compression model where table entries are replaced by repeating strings. In most LZ methods, this table is dynamically generated from the previous data in the input. The table itself is often Huffman encoded (e.g. SHRI, LZX). Current LZ-based encoding methods that work well are Brotli and LZX. LZX is used in the Microsoft CAB format.

**Question 0**

Which packaging methods are the most popular?

**Question 1**

What is used in PKZIP, Gzip and PNG?

**Question 2**

What is the basis of the Zip method?

**Question 3**

What is the current LZ-based coding system that works well?

**Question 4**

What is used in the Microsoft CAB format?

**Question 5**

Which speed methods are the most popular?

**Question 6**

What is used in PKZIP, LZR and Huffman?

**Question 7**

What is a dynamically generated table in the Zip method?

**Question 8**

What is the current LZ-based CAB that works well?

**Question 9**

What is used in the Microsoft DEFLATE format?

**Text number 4**

The direct use of probabilistic modelling can be further refined by combining statistical estimates with an algorithm called arithmetic coding. Arithmetic coding is a more modern coding technique that uses the mathematical computations of a finite state machine to produce a sequence of coded bits from an input data symbol. It can achieve better compression results than other techniques, such as the more well-known Huffman algorithm. It uses internal memory space to avoid the need to perform one-to-one mapping of individual input symbols into separate representations that use an integer number of bits, and it clears internal memory only after encoding the entire sequence of data symbols. Arithmetic coding is particularly well suited to adaptive data compression tasks where statistics are variable and context-dependent, as it can be easily combined with an adaptive model of the probability distribution of the input data. An early example of the use of arithmetic coding was its use as an optional (but not widely used) feature of the JPEG image coding standard. Since then, it has been applied to several other models, such as H.264/MPEG-4 AVC and HEVC for video coding.

**Question 0**

What can be associated with an algorithm called arithmetic coding?

**Question 1**

What can achieve better compression?

**Question 2**

What uses up internal memory space?

**Question 3**

What can e paired with adaptive data is called arithmetic coding?

**Question 4**

What can be done to achieve a better internal memory?

**Question 5**

What uses JPEG memory space?

**Question 6**

What works well for coding standard packaging tasks?

**Question 7**

What were the early applications of the probability distribution applied to?

**Text number 5**

A lossy data package is the opposite of a lossless data package. In these systems, some degree of data loss is acceptable. If irrelevant details are removed from the data source, storage space can be saved. Lossy data compression systems are designed by studying how people perceive the data in question. For example, the human eye is more sensitive to subtle variations in luminance than to variations in colour. JPEG image compression works in part by rounding off irrelevant bits of information. There is a similar trade-off between data preservation and size reduction. Several popular compression formats, such as those used in music files, images and video, exploit these sensory differences.

**Question 0**

What kind of data compression is the opposite of lossless data compression?

**Question 1**

What can be done to save storage space?

**Question 2**

What helps by removing irrelevant pieces of information?

**Question 3**

What kind of data compression is the opposite of subtle variation?

**Question 4**

What helps by eliminating irrelevant bits from the differences in perception?

**Question 5**

What is more sensitive to size reduction in luminance than colour variations?

**Question 6**

What are Lossy data compression music files designed for?

**Question 7**

What is the equivalent packaging system?

**Text number 6**

Lossy compression uses psychoacoustic methods to remove inaudible (or less audible) components of the sound signal. Even more specialised techniques are often used to compress human speech; speech coding or voice coding is sometimes separated from voice compression as a separate discipline. The various standards for audio and speech compression are listed under audio coding formats. For example, voice compression is used in internet telephony, voice compression is used in the copying of CDs and decompression is used in audio players.

**Question 0**

What methods are used to remove inaudible components of audio signals?

**Question 1**

What packaging is usually done with even more specialised techniques?

**Question 2**

What is used in internet telephony?

**Question 3**

What is used to copy CDs?

**Question 4**

What do sound players encode?

**Question 5**

What methods are used to remove the coding components of audio signals?

**Question 6**

What pack is usually done even more psychoacoustic?

**Question 7**

What different audio and voice CDs are listed for copying?

**Question 8**

What distinguishes as a separate lossy from a sound compressor?

**Question 9**

Where is voice telephony used?

**Text number 7**

There is a close link between machine learning and compression: a system that predicts the posterior probabilities of a sequence given its entire history can be used for optimal data compression (using arithmetic coding on the output distribution), while an optimal packer can be used for prediction (finding the symbol that packs best given its past history). This correspondence has been used as a justification for using data compression as a benchmark for "general intelligence".

**Question 0**

What is machine learning closely related to?

**Question 1**

What type of compressor can be used for forecasting?

**Question 2**

What has been used as a benchmark for "general intelligence"?

**Question 3**

What kind of compressor can be used for general intelligence?

**Question 4**

What can a reference compressor be used for?

**Question 5**

What is closely related to machine equivalence?

**Question 6**

What can be used for optimal reasoning?

**Question 7**

How is the arithmetic compressor used for forecasting?

**Text number 8**

Data compression can be considered a special case of data separation: data separation consists of producing a difference based on the source and the target, and patching produces a target based on the source and the difference, while data compression consists of producing a compressed file based on the target, and decompression consists of producing a target based only on the compressed file. Data compression can thus be considered as the separation of data from an empty source file, with the compressed file corresponding to the "difference from nothing". This is the same as considering absolute entropy (which corresponds to data compression) as a special case of relative entropy (which corresponds to data differentiation) without source data.

**Question 0**

What can be considered as a specific case of data disaggregation?

**Question 1**

Given a source and a destination, what is the difference in production?

**Question 2**

What can be classified as data disaggregation with empty source data?

**Question 3**

What can be considered as a special case of relative entropy?

**Question 4**

Given a source and destination, what does it take to produce a compressed file?

**Question 5**

What can be classified as a breakdown of data by corresponding data?

**Question 6**

What does it mean to produce an objective only in a specific case?

**Question 7**

What does it mean to produce a compressed file when there is no source data?

**Text number 9**

Audio compression, which should not be confused with dynamic range compression, can reduce the bandwidth and storage requirements of audio data. Audio compression algorithms are implemented in software as audio codecs. Lossy audio compression algorithms allow better compression at the expense of fidelity and are used in a wide range of audio applications. These algorithms are almost all based on psychoacoustics to remove less audible or relevant sounds, thus reducing the space required to store or transmit them.

**Question 0**

What can be done to reduce the bandwidth and storage requirements of audio data?

**Question 1**

What is added to the software as audio codecs?

**Question 2**

Which packaging algorithms allow for more packaging at the expense of fidelity?

**Question 3**

What can be done to reduce the bandwidth and storage requirements of software?

**Question 4**

What is added to psychoacoustics as sound codecs?

**Question 5**

Which compression algorithms allow for higher compression in transit?

**Question 6**

What do algorithms rely on to remove requirements?

**Question 7**

Which audio data compression can reduce the dynamic range?

**Text number 10**

Lossless audio compression produces a digital data representation that is decompressed into an exact digital copy of the original audio stream, unlike lossy compression technologies such as Vorbis and MP3. The compression ratios are around 50-60% of the original size, which corresponds to the compression ratios of general lossless data compression. Lossless compression cannot achieve high compression ratios due to the complexity of waveforms and the rapid changes in sound formats. Codecs such as FLAC, Shorten and TTA use linear prediction to estimate the signal spectrum. Many of these algorithms use convolution with a filter [-1 1] to slightly whiten or flatten the spectrum, making traditional lossless compression more efficient. The process is reversed during decompression.

**Question 0**

What produces a digital data representation that is decoded?

**Question 1**

What are about 50-60% of the original size?

**Question 2**

Which compression cannot achieve high compression ratios?

**Question 3**

What does it mean to present decomposable algorithms?

**Question 4**

What are about 50-60% of the spectrum?

**Question 5**

What compression is not an effective way to achieve high work efficiency?

**Question 6**

Which three codecs use linear prediction to estimate the discharge?

**Question 7**

What size is similar to the generic high pressure?

**Text number 11**

Dissipative sound compression is used in a wide range of applications. In addition to direct applications (mp3 players or computers), digitally compressed audio streams are used in most video DVDs, digital TV, streaming media on the internet, satellite and cable radio, and increasingly in terrestrial radio broadcasting. Lossy compression typically achieves much higher compression efficiency than lossless compression (5-20% of the original stream instead of 50-60%) by destroying less critical information.

**Question 0**

What packaging is used in many applications?

**Question 1**

What is used in most video DVDs?

**Question 2**

Which packaging generally achieves much higher compression efficiency than lossless packaging?

**Question 3**

What packaging is used a lot for disposal?

**Question 4**

What kind of compression usually achieves much higher currents than lossless?

**Question 5**

What is used in most video DVD discs and original streams?

**Question 6**

What do you get for 5% and 50% compression?

**Question 7**

How are higher percentages for cable radio achieved with Lossy?

**Text number 12**

Most lossy compression algorithms use transforms, such as the Modified Discrete Cosine Transform (MDCT), to convert time-sampled waveforms into a transform domain to determine which information in the audio signal is irrelevant to the detection. Once the conversion is done, usually to the frequency domain, bits can be allocated to the component frequencies according to how audible they are. The audibility of spectral components is calculated using the principles of absolute threshold of hearing and simultaneous masking - the phenomenon where a signal is masked by another frequency-distinguished signal - and in some cases temporal masking - where a signal is masked by another time-distinguished signal. Contours of equal loudness can also be used to weight the detection weighting of components. Models of the human ear-brain combination that incorporate such effects are often referred to as psychoacoustic models.

**Question 0**

How can the importance of components be emphasised?

**Question 1**

What are often called psychoacoustic models?

**Question 2**

What is the name given to the process of masking a signal with another signal that is separated in time?

**Question 3**

What can be done to emphasise the importance of kosinus?

**Question 4**

What is often called psychoacoustic masking?

**Question 5**

What is the process when a signal is masked by another signal separated by an outline?

**Question 6**

What is the phenomenon where a signal is masked by another signal separated by a threshold?

**Question 7**

What is the variant that the compression frequency could use?

**Text number 13**

Other lossy compression types, such as linear predictive coding (LPC) used in speech, are source-based coders. These encoders use a model of a sound generator (such as the human vocal cord in LPC) to whiten (i.e. flatten the spectrum) of the audio signal before quantization. LPC can be considered a basic coding technique: reconstructing the audio signal using a linear predictor shapes the quantization noise of the encoder into the spectrum of the target signal and partially masks it.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the coding used with speech?

**Question 1**

What is considered a fundamental detection coding technique?

**Question 2**

What is the sound generator model used for?

**Question 3**

What is considered a basic signal coding technique?

**Question 4**

Which uses the sound quantization model?

**Question 5**

What can be thought of as the basic perception spectrum?

**Question 6**

Where does the reconstruction of the audio signal change the compressor noise of the encoder?

**Question 7**

What can be considered a generator coding technique?

**Text number 14**

The delay is due to the methods used to encode and decode the data. Some codecs analyse a longer data segment to optimise efficiency and then encode it in a way that requires decoding a larger data segment at a time (often codecs create segments called "frames" to create separate data segments for encoding and decoding). The inherent delay of an encoding algorithm can be critical; for example, in two-way data transmission such as telephone conversations, significant delays can significantly degrade the perceived quality.

**Question 0**

What are the implications of the methods used to encode and decode the data?

**Question 1**

What analyses the data statement to improve performance?

**Question 2**

What creates the segments called the "frame"?

**Question 3**

What are the implications of the methods used to encode and decode delays?

**Question 4**

What analyses the data report to increase the number of data segments?

**Question 5**

What creates a conversation, called a "frame"?

**Question 6**

What can seriously undermine the perceived segment of the data?

**Question 7**

What is the point of creating separate data segments for phones?

**Text number 15**

Unlike compression speed, which is proportional to the number of operations required by the algorithm, delay in this context refers to the number of samples that need to be analysed before the audio block is processed. In the minimal case, the delay is zero samples (for example, if the encoder/decoder simply reduces the number of bits used to quantize the signal). Time-domain algorithms such as LPC also often have low latency, which is why they are popular for speech coding in telephony. However, algorithms such as MP3 require a large number of samples to be analysed to implement a psychoacoustic model in the frequency domain, with a latency of around 23 ms (46 ms for two-way communication)).

**Question 0**

What is the number of samples that must be analysed before a sound block is processed?

**Question 1**

Which has zero samples in the minimum case?

**Question 2**

What often has low latency?

**Question 3**

What is the number of samples that need to be analysed before the coding is processed?

**Question 4**

What has zero samples in the minimum vote?

**Question 5**

What requires a large amount of speech coding to analyse?

**Question 6**

What is the latency of algorithms like LPC?

**Question 7**

What reduces the number of bits used to quantize the audio block?

**Text number 16**

If the data to be compressed is analogue (such as a voltage that varies as a function of time), it is digitised into numbers (usually integers) by quantization. This is called analog-to-digital (A/D) conversion. If the integers produced by quantization are 8 bits each, the entire range of the analog signal is divided into 256 intervals and all signal values within the intervals are quantized to the same number. If 16-bit integers are produced, the range of the analog signal is divided into 65 to 536 intervals.

**Question 0**

What changes over time?

**Question 1**

What needs to be packaged to work properly?

**Question 2**

What does "A/D" mean?

**Question 3**

What needs to be compressed in order to perform signal evaluations?

**Question 4**

How many intervals is the transformation domain divided into if 16-bit integers are produced?

**Question 5**

How many intervals is the transformation domain divided into if 8-bit integers are produced?

**Question 6**

Where are all the values of an analogue signal quantized?

**Question 7**

What is the classification of a voltage that is distributed over time?

**Text number 17**

In February 1988, the IEEE Journal on Selected Areas in Communications (JSAC) published a literature review of a wide variety of voice coding systems. Although some articles had been published before this date, this collection documented a whole range of ready-to-use, working voice coding systems, almost all of which used detection techniques (i.e. masking techniques) and some form of frequency analysis and background coding without noise. Several of these papers noted the difficulty of obtaining good, clean digital audio for research purposes. Most, if not all, of the authors of the JSAC edition were also active members of the MPEG-1 Audio Committee.

**Question 0**

What was published in the IEEE Journal in 1988?

**Question 1**

What did the literature review find?

**Question 2**

Where were most of the authors of the JSAC edition?

**Question 3**

What was published in MPEG-1 in 1988?

**Question 4**

What does digital audio document?

**Question 5**

Where were most of the papers in the JSAC edition?

**Question 6**

What does the coding collection document?

**Question 7**

What did these coders point out?

**Text number 18**

The world's first commercial broadcast audio compression system was developed by Oscar Bonello, a professor of engineering at the University of Buenos Aires. In 1983, he began developing a practical application based on the newly developed IBM PC, based on the 1967 psychoacoustic principle of critical band masking, and the broadcast automation system was launched in 1987 under the name Audicom. Twenty years later, almost all the world's radio stations were using similar technology produced by several companies.

**Question 0**

Who developed the first commercial broadcast audio compression system?

**Question 1**

Who was the professor of engineering at the University of Buenos Aires?

**Question 2**

What was launched in 1987 as Audicom?

**Question 3**

Who developed the first commercial broadcasting automation band?

**Question 4**

Who was the mission professor at the University of Buenos Aires?

**Question 5**

What was launched in 1987 as Bonello?

**Question 6**

Which computer did Bonello use to develop a practical advertisement?

**Question 7**

When was the compression principle first published?

**Text number 19**

Most video compression algorithms use lossy compression. Uncompressed video requires very high data rates. While lossless video compression codecs have a compression factor of 5-12, a typical MPEG-4 video has a lossy compression factor of between 20-200. As with all lossy compression, there is a trade-off between video quality, compression and decoding costs, and system requirements. Highly compressed video can cause visible or distracting artifacts.

**Question 0**

Which all use the most disposable packaging?

**Question 1**

What requires high data transfer speeds?

**Question 2**

What can cause visible or disturbing artefacts?

**Question 3**

What can be visible or distracting about MPEG-4?

**Question 4**

What requires very high quality?

**Question 5**

What is the trade-off between artefacts?

**Question 6**

What is the data rate between 20 and 200?

**Question 7**

What is the data rate between 5 and 12?

**Text number 20**

Some video compression methods typically work with square groups of neighbouring pixels, often called macro blocks. These pixel groups or pixel blocks are compared from frame to frame, and the video compression codec sends only the differences within these blocks. In video areas with more motion, the compression must encode more data to keep up with the larger number of changing pixels. In general, during explosions, flames, animal herds, and some panoramic shots, high-frequency detail leads to a loss of quality or an increase in the variable bit rate.

**Question 0**

Which compression typically works with square pixel groups?

**Question 1**

What is it that sends the differences within these pixels and blocks?

**Question 2**

Where does high-frequency detail lead?

**Question 3**

What compression typically works with square flame clusters?

**Question 4**

Just what is sending the differences within these bit rates?

**Question 5**

What do high-frequency explosions lead to?

**Question 6**

What sends only the difference within animals?

**Question 7**

When do high-frequency details lead to pixel blocks?

**Text number 21**

Video data can be presented as a series of still image frames. The image series contains spatial and temporal redundancy, which video compression algorithms attempt to remove or encode into a smaller size. Similarities can be encoded by capturing only the differences between frames or by using perceptual features of human vision. For example, small differences in colour are more difficult to detect than changes in brightness. Compression algorithms can reduce space by averaging the colours in these similar areas in the same way as in JPEG image compression. Some of these methods are inherently lossy, while others can preserve all relevant information from the original, uncompressed video.

**Question 0**

What can be presented as a series of still images?

**Question 1**

What can average the color of similar areas to reduce space?

**Question 2**

What is difficult to say when it comes to smaller differences?

**Question 3**

What can be represented as a series of algorithms?

**Question 4**

What can be used to average colour in similar areas to reduce variation?

**Question 5**

What's hard to say when there is less redundancy involved?

**Question 6**

What is the method by which videos can average colour similar?

**Question 7**

What is easier to spot than changes in frames?

**Text number 22**

The most effective method is to compare each frame of the video with the previous one. If there are areas of the frame where nothing has moved, the system simply issues a short command that copies that part of the previous frame bit by bit to the next. If parts of the frame move in a simple way, the compressor sends a (slightly longer) command telling the decompressor to move, rotate, lighten or darken the copy. This longer command is still much shorter than the compression inside the frame. Inter-frame compression works well for programs that the viewer just plays, but it can cause problems if the video sequence needs to be edited.

**Question 0**

What's much shorter than an intraframe package?

**Question 1**

What happens when there are areas of the frame where nothing has moved?

**Question 2**

What is an editable sequence?

**Question 3**

Which is still much shorter than a video?

**Question 4**

What happens when the frame contains reference areas?

**Question 5**

What is the sequence that can cause rotation?

**Question 6**

What tells the decompressor to move, rotate or copy?

**Question 7**

What happens if parts of the frame are moved by a strong method?

**Text number 23**

Because inter-frame compression copies data from one frame to another, if the original frame is simply cut off (or lost in transit), subsequent frames cannot be reconstructed correctly. In some video formats, such as DV, each frame is compressed independently using intraframe compression. Editing intraframe compressed video is almost as easy as editing uncompressed video: find the start and end of each frame, and copy bit by bit all the frames you want to keep, and discard the frames you don't. Another difference between intraframe and interframe compression is that in intraframe systems, each frame uses the same amount of data. In most interframe systems, certain frames (such as the "I-frames" in MPEG-2) are not allowed to copy data from other frames, so they require much more data than other nearby frames.

**Question 0**

What copies data from one frame to another?

**Question 1**

What is the type of video format?

**Question 2**

What's almost as easy as editing an uncompressed video?

**Question 3**

What copies the data from the frame to the video?

**Question 4**

What is one type of intraframe?

**Question 5**

What's almost as easy as editing the frames?

**Question 6**

What packs each DV independently?

**Question 7**

What certain packages are not allowed to do in most inter-frame systems?

**Text number 24**

Today, almost all commonly used video compression methods (e.g. ITU-T or ISO approved standards) use discrete cosine transform (DCT) to reduce spatial redundancy. N. Ahmed, T. Natarajan and K. R. Rao introduced DCT in 1974, which is commonly used in this context. Other methods such as fractal compression, matching pursuit, and discrete wavelet transform (DWT) have been studied to some extent, but are not generally used in practical products (except for the use of wavelet coding as still image encoders without motion compensation). Interest in fractal compression seems to be waning, as recent theoretical analyses have shown that such methods are not very efficient.

**Question 0**

What are all commonly used video compression methods?

**Question 1**

What does the DCT gearbox do?

**Question 2**

What is not used in practical products?

**Question 3**

What do all commonly used fractals use?

**Question 4**

What is not used in DWT?

**Question 5**

What does a wavelet do?

**Question 6**

Who approves still image encoders?

**Question 7**

Who introduced the reduction in redundancies in 1974?

**Text number 25**

Genetic compression algorithms are the latest generation of lossless algorithms that compress data (typically nucleotide sequences) using both conventional compression algorithms and genetic algorithms adapted to a specific data type. In 2012, a team of researchers at Johns Hopkins University published a genetic compression algorithm that does not use a reference genome for compression. HAPZIPPER was tailored for the HapMap data and achieves over 20-fold compression performance (95% reduction in file size), providing 2-4 times better compression performance and much faster than leading general-purpose compression utilities. To this end, Chanda, Elhaik and Bader introduced MAF-based encoding (MAFE), which reduces dataset heterogeneity by sorting SNPs by their minor allele frequency and thus homogenizing the dataset. Other algorithms developed in 2009 and 2013 (DNAZip and GenomeZip) have achieved compression ratios of up to 1200-fold, allowing a diploid human genome of 6 billion base pairs to be stored in 2.5 megabytes (relative to a reference genome or as an average of several genomes).

**Question 0**

What are the latest generation of lossless algorithms?

**Question 1**

Which coding reduces heterogeneity in a dataset by sorting SNPs?

**Question 2**

Which two algorithms have up to 1200 times the compression ratio?

**Question 3**

What are the latest generation DNAZip and GEnomeZip?

**Question 4**

Which coding reduces the heterogeneity of a dataset by sorting megabytes?

**Question 5**

Which two algorithms have an allele frequency of up to 1200 times?

**Question 6**

What offers 2-4 times better heterogeneity than the leading general-purpose packaging products?

**Question 7**

Who published a genetic compression algorithm that does not use diploids?

**Document number 214**

**Text number 0**

The Sun had the largest circulation of any UK daily newspaper, but by the end of 2013 it had fallen to second place behind the Daily Mail. Its average daily circulation was 2.2 million copies in March 2014. Between July and December 2013, the paper had an average daily readership of around 5.5 million, of which around 31% were ABC1 and 68% C2DE. Around 41% of readers are women. The Sun has been involved in many controversies throughout its history, including the coverage of the 1989 Hillsborough football stadium disaster. The regional editions of the newspaper in Scotland, Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland are published in Glasgow (The Scottish Sun), Belfast (The Sun) and Dublin (The Irish Sun).

**Question 0**

Which newspaper overtook The Sun as the biggest Saturday newspaper in the UK?

**Question 1**

What was the solar cycle in March 2014?

**Question 2**

What was the largest demographic of The Sun's readers?

**Question 3**

What percentage of The Sun's readers are women?

**Question 4**

What is one of the controversial events covered by The Sun?

**Text number 1**

On 26 February 2012, The Sun on Sunday was launched, replacing the closed News of the World and employing some of its former journalists. At the end of 2013, it was given a new look and a new typeface. The average circulation of The Sun on Sunday in March 2014 was 1 686 840 copies, but in May 2015, for the first time, The Mail on Sunday outsold its competitor by an average of 28 650 copies: 1 497 855 copies to 1 469 195 copies. Roy Greenslade issued a warning about the May 2015 figures, but believes that the Daily Mail will overtake The Sun in circulation in 2016.

**Question 0**

Which newspaper was replaced by The Sun on Sunday?

**Question 1**

In what year did The Sun change its look?

**Question 2**

What was the circulation of The Sun on Sunday in March 2014?

**Question 3**

When did the Sunday Mail overtake The Sun in sales?

**Question 4**

When is the weekly Mail predicted to overtake The Sun in circulation?

**Text number 2**

The Newspaper Reading Public of Tomorrow, a study commissioned by Cecil King from Mark Abrams at the University of Sussex, mapped demographic changes that suggested why the Herald might be in decline. The new paper was intended to increase the Herald's readership from "political radicals" to "social radicals". According to The Times, the flashy new paper, launched with an advertising budget of £400 000, "burst onto the scene with tremendous vigour". Its initial circulation of 3.5 million copies was driven by 'curiosity' and the 'novelty of the newness', and within a few weeks its circulation had fallen to the Daily Herald's previous circulation of 1.2 million.

**Question 0**

Who commissioned the Herald investigation?

**Question 1**

What was mentioned as a possible reason for the Herald's downfall?

**Question 2**

What kind of people was the new magazine supposed to attract?

**Question 3**

What was the advertising budget for the new magazine?

**Question 4**

What was the number of newspapers in the first edition of the Times?

**Text number 3**

He seized the opportunity to increase his presence on Fleet Street and struck a deal with the printers' unions, promising to reduce redundancies if he bought the newspaper. He assured the IPC that he would publish a "straightforward and honest newspaper" that would continue to support the Labour Party. Under pressure from the unions, the IPC rejected Maxwell's offer and Murdoch bought the paper for £800,000, paid in instalments. He later remarked, "I am constantly amazed at how easily I got into British newspapers."

**Question 0**

What did the future owner of the magazine promise?

**Question 1**

How did the future publisher describe the newspaper he would produce?

**Question 2**

Which party would the newspaper support?

**Question 3**

What was the price of the newspaper?

**Question 4**

Whose offer to buy the magazine was rejected?

**Text number 4**

Murdoch discovered at lunch that he had such a good relationship with Larry Lamb that no other potential editors were interviewed, and Lamb was appointed as the first editor of the new Sun. Lamb had a strong opinion of the Mirror, where he had recently worked as managing editor, and he agreed with Murdoch that the quality of a paper is best measured by its sales, and he considered the Mirror to be over-staffed and aimed primarily at an ageing readership. Lamb hastily recruited a staff of around 125 editors, chosen mostly on the basis of their availability rather than their skills.

**Question 0**

What position did Larry Lamb take at the Sun?

**Question 1**

What was Lamb's view of the Mirror?

**Question 2**

What did Lamb and Murdoch think was the best measure of newspaper quality?

**Question 3**

What was Lamb's previous role at the Mirror?

**Question 4**

How many journalists did Lamb recruit to the original Mirror staff?

**Text number 5**

From the beginning, sex was used as an important element in the content and marketing of the magazine, as Lamb believed it was the most important part of his readers' lives. The first topless Page 3 model appeared on 17 November 1970, German-born Stephanie Rahn; she was branded a "birthday girl" to mark the first anniversary of the relaunched Sun. The topless model on page 3 gradually became a regular and increasingly bold poser. Both feminists and many cultural conservatives considered the images pornographic and misogynistic. Lamb expressed some regret that she had adopted this feature, but denied that it was sexist. The Conservative council in Sowerby Bridge, Yorkshire, was the first to ban the magazine from its public library shortly after Page 3 was launched because of its overly sexual content. The decision was overturned after 16 months of campaigning by the magazine itself and the election of a Labour-led council in 1971.

**Question 0**

What did Lamb use as an important theme at the very beginning of the article?

**Question 1**

When did the first Page 3 model appear in topless?

**Question 2**

Who was the first topless model of the Page 3?

**Question 3**

Who was the first to ban a magazine from their library?

**Question 4**

When was the library ban lifted?

**Text number 6**

Politically, The Sun remained nominally a Labour party in Murdoch's early years. It supported the Labour Party led by Harold Wilson in the 1970 general election under the heading "Why It Must Be Labour", but in February 1974 it urged people to vote for the Conservative Party led by Edward Heath, while suggesting that it might support a Labour Party led by James Callaghan or Roy Jenkins. In the October election, the editorial claimed: 'All our instincts are left-wing rather than right-wing and we would vote for any able politician who called himself a social democrat'.

**Question 0**

What was the Sun's political orientation under Murdoch?

**Question 1**

Who led the Labour Party in the 1970 election?

**Question 2**

Who did Sun support in 1974?

**Question 3**

Who would Sun consider supporting from the Labour Party in 1974?

**Question 4**

Which politician did the Sun editorial announce its support for in October 1974?

**Text number 7**

Larry Lamb, the magazine's editor, was originally a Labour MP with a socialist upbringing, while his temporary successor Bernard Shrimsley (1972-75) was a middle-class, non-aligned Conservative. An extensive ITV advertising campaign, fronted by actor Christopher Timothy, may have helped The Sun overtake the Daily Mirror in 1978. Despite the labour relations of the 1970s - the so-called 'Spanish practices' of the printing unions - The Sun was very profitable, allowing Murdoch to expand into the US from 1973.

**Question 0**

Who replaced Larry Lamb on a temporary basis?

**Question 1**

What was Shrimsley's political background?

**Question 2**

Who voted for the campaign that helped The Sun overtake the Daily Mirror in 1978?

**Question 3**

Where did Murdoch start his expansion?

**Question 4**

When did Murdoch start expanding into the US?

**Text number 8**

Express Newspaper had launched the Daily Star in 1978, and by 1981 it had begun to influence sales of The Sun. A bingo was introduced as a marketing tool, and a 2 pence drop in the cover price removed the competitive advantage of the Daily Star, opening up a new circulation battle which resulted in The Sun neutralising the threat posed by the new paper. Kelvin MacKenzie, the new editor of The Sun, took up his post in 1981, just after these events and "changed the concept of the British tabloid newspaper more profoundly than [Larry] Lamb did", according to Bruce Page, MacKenzie became "a more outrageous, more divisive and more irreverent newspaper than any ever produced in Britain".

**Question 0**

Which newspaper was founded by Express Newspaper?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Daily Star start to affect sales of The Sun?

**Question 2**

What helped the Sun win the Daily Star challenge?

**Question 3**

Who became editor of the Sun in 1981?

**Question 4**

What effect were the Mackenzies said to have?

**Text number 9**

On 1 May, The Sun claimed to have "sponsored" a British missile. Under the headline "Punch this yokel: Sun missile for Galtier's gauchos", the paper published a photograph of the missile (in fact the Ministry of Defence's Polaris missile) with the large Sun logo printed on the side and the words "Here It Comes, Senors...". The magazine explained that it was 'sponsoring' the missile by attending the victory celebrations of the HMS Invincible at the end of the war. In a copy written by Wendy Henry, the paper said that the missile would soon be used against Argentine troops. Despite this, it was not well received by the troops, and copies of The Sun were soon burned. Tony Snow, The Sun's editor on board the HMS Invincible, which had 'signed' the missile, reported a few days later that it had hit an Argentine target.

**Question 0**

What did The Sun say that it had taken on sponsorship?

**Question 1**

What did it say on the side of The Sun missile?

**Question 2**

Who does The Sun say the missile would be used against?

**Question 3**

How do the troops react to being passed by?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the reporter from The Sun who reported on the missile?

**Text number 10**

One of the magazine's most famous front pages was published on 4 May 1982, commemorating the torpedoing of the Argentinean ship General Belgrano under the headline "GOTCHA". At MacKenzie's insistence and against Murdoch's wishes (the mogul was present because almost all the journalists were on strike), the headline was changed for later issues after the death toll of the Argentinean was known. John Shirley, editor of The Sunday Times, saw sailors and marines throw this edition of The Sun overboard on HMS Fearless.

**Question 0**

What was the headline in the Sun on 4 May 1982?

**Question 1**

Which Argentinian ship was torpedoed?

**Question 2**

Why did The Sun change the wording of the headline?

**Question 3**

Which journalist saw copies of The Sun being thrown into the sea?

**Question 4**

From which ship were the copies of The Sun thrown?

**Text number 11**

After the destruction of HMS Sheffield in the Argentine attack, The Sun was heavily criticised and even ridiculed for its coverage of the war in the Daily Mirror and The Guardian, and the wider media questioned the veracity of official reports and were concerned about the number of casualties, The Sun responded. "We have traitors in our midst", wrote director Ronald Spark on 7 May, accusing commentators in the Daily Mirror and The Guardian and BBC defence correspondent Peter Snow of "treason" for their reporting.

**Question 0**

Which ship was the target of the Argentine attack?

**Question 1**

Which newspapers strongly criticised The Sun's war reporting?

**Question 2**

Who was the editor-in-chief of The Sun?

**Question 3**

Who was the BBC's defence correspondent?

**Question 4**

What was Ronald Spark's accusation against the Daily Mirror, the Guardian and the BBC?

**Text number 12**

These years also included "spectacularly malicious coverage" of the Labour Party in The Sun and other newspapers. During the 1983 general election, The Sun ran an unflattering front-page picture of Michael Foot, then nearly 70, claiming that his age, looks and politics made him unfit to be Prime Minister, and the headline 'Do you really want this old fool to lead Britain?'. A year later, in 1984, The Sun made it clear that it enthusiastically supported the re-election of Ronald Reagan as President of the United States. Reagan was two weeks short of his 74th birthday when he began his second term in January 1985.

**Question 0**

Who was not fit to be Prime Minister in 1983, according to The Sun?

**Question 1**

Which party did The Sun accuse of malicious reporting?

**Question 2**

Who did The Sun support in the 1984 US presidential election?

**Question 3**

How old did Ronald Reagan become shortly after he started his second term as US President?

**Question 4**

What did the headline say that was published with a picture of Michael Foot?

**Text number 13**

During the miners' strike of 1984-85, The Sun supported the police and the Thatcher government against striking NUM miners, particularly union president Arthur Scargill. On 23 May 1984, The Sun published a front page headline 'Mine Führer' and a photograph of Scargill with his hand in the air, looking as if he was saluting the Nazis. The Sun's printers refused to print it. The Sun strongly supported the US bombing of Libya in April 1986, which was launched from British bases. Several civilians were killed in the bombing. Their leader was "Right Ron, Right Maggie". In the same year, Labour MP Clare Short tried unsuccessfully to persuade Parliament to ban the Page Three pictures, and received a newspaper outcry for her stance.

**Question 0**

Who did The Sun support during the miners' strike of 1984-85?

**Question 1**

Who was the president of the miners' union?

**Question 2**

What did Scargill's picture seem to do?

**Question 3**

What did The Sun think of the US bombing of Libya in 1986?

**Question 4**

Who was a Labour MP in 1986?

**Text number 14**

Murdoch has responded to some of the allegations against the newspaper by saying that critics are "snobs" who want to "impose their taste on everyone else", while MacKenzie claims that the same critics are people who, if they ever had a "popular idea", would have to "go into a dark room and lie down for half an hour". Both have pointed to the Sun's huge commercial success during this period and its rise as Britain's best-selling newspaper, claiming that they are "giving the public what it wants". Critics dispute this conclusion. John Pilger has said that the late 1970s issue of the Daily Mirror, in which the usual celebrity and domestic political news was replaced by an entire issue devoted to his own front-page coverage of Pol Pot's genocide in Cambodia, outsold The Sun on the same day, but it also became the only Daily Mirror issue to have sold every copy published nationally, something The Sun never achieved.

**Question 0**

How did Murdoch describe the critics of his newspaper?

**Question 1**

What did Murdoch and Mackenzie say in defence of The Sun?

**Question 2**

Who is one of The Sun's critics?

**Question 3**

What did Pilger's reporting focus on in one issue of the Daily Mirror?

**Question 4**

What is the difference between one issue of the Daily Mirror and another?

**Text number 15**

According to Max Clifford: Read All About It, by Clifford and Angela Levin, La Salle made up the story to frustrate Starr, who had worked with McCaffrey on the book. She contacted an acquaintance who worked at The Sun newspaper in Manchester. The story reportedly pleased MacKenzie, who wanted to publish it, and Max Clifford, who had been Starr's PR agent. Starr had to be persuaded that the apparent revelation would not harm him; the attention helped revive his career. In his 2001 autobiography Unwrapped, Starr wrote that the case was a complete fabrication: 'I have never eaten or even nibbled on a live hamster, gerbil, guinea pig, mouse, mole rat, mole rat or any other small mammal'.

**Question 0**

Who wrote Max Clifford: Read All About It?

**Question 1**

Who wrote the book with McCaffrey?

**Question 2**

Who was previously Starr's PR agent?

**Question 3**

How did the attention the story received affect Starr's career?

**Question 4**

What was the title of Starr's autobiography?

**Text number 16**

Starting on 25 February 1987, The Sun published a series of false stories about pop musician Elton John, which eventually led to a total of 17 libel actions. They began with a fabricated story about the singer's sexual relations with rent boys. The singer-songwriter was abroad on the date reported in the story, as was soon discovered by John Blake, a former Sun reporter recently hired by the Daily Mirror. Following a new story in September 1987, The Sun accused John of having the vocal cords of his Rottweiler guard dogs surgically removed. In November, the Daily Mirror found its rival's sole source for the rent boy story, and he admitted it was a completely fictional fabrication created for money. The inaccurate story about his dogs, which were in fact Alsatians, put pressure on The Sun, and John was awarded £1 million in an out-of-court settlement, the largest damages award in British history at the time. The Sun published a front page apology on 12 December 1988 under the headline "SORRY, ELTON". In May 1987, gay men were offered free one-way tickets to Norway to leave Britain for good: "Fly Away Gays - And We Will Pay" was the headline. In November 1987, the gay priests of the Church of England were described in a headline "Pulpit poofs".

**Question 0**

How many libel claims did The Sun receive for reporting on Elton John?

**Question 1**

Who did The Sun claim Elton John had sex with?

**Question 2**

Which reporter did the Daily Mirror pull from The Sun?

**Question 3**

Which dog breed did The Sun incorrectly report Elton John owned?

**Question 4**

Where did The Sun offer flights to gay men in 1987?

**Text number 17**

Television personality Piers Morgan, former editor of the Daily Mirror and The Sun's Bizarre Pop column, has said that in the late 1980s he was ordered by Kelvin MacKenzie to speculate on the sexuality of male pop stars in an article entitled "The Poofs of Pop". He also recalls MacKenzie's headline story in January 1989 about the first same-sex kiss in the BBC soap opera EastEnders, "EastBenders", in which he described the kiss between Colin Russell and Guido Smith as "a homosexual love scene between yuppie boys ... as millions of children watched".

**Question 0**

What did Piers Morgan opine about in his column in the late 1980s?

**Question 1**

Which magazine was Morgan the editor-in-chief of?

**Question 2**

Which BBC programme's homosexual kiss was reported in The Sun?

**Question 3**

Who shared the first homosexual kiss in EastEnders?

**Question 4**

Which column did Piers Morgan contribute to The Sun?

**Text number 18**

On 17 November 1989, The Sun headlined a news item on page 2 with the headline "STRAIGHT SEX CANNOT GIVE YOU AIDS - OFFICIAL". The Sun favourably quoted the views of Lord Kilbracken, a member of the Parliamentary Task Force on AIDS. Lord Kilbracken said that only one person in the 2,372 people infected with HIV/AIDS cited in the Department of Health report did not belong to a "high-risk group" such as homosexuals and recreational drug users. The Sun also published an editorial claiming that "at last the truth can be told... the risk of contracting AIDS if you are heterosexual is 'statistically invisible'. In other words, impossible. So now we know - everything else is homosexual propaganda." While many other British press outlets covered Lord Kilbracken's public comments, none of them made a similar claim to the Sun's editorial, and none of them presented Lord Kilbracken's ideas without context or criticism.

**Question 0**

What was the headline on page 2 of the Sun on 17 November 1989?

**Question 1**

Whose opinion did The Sun rely on in its AIDS reporting?

**Question 2**

Which groups were classified as being at high risk of AIDS?

**Question 3**

Which group did Lord Kilbracken belong to?

**Question 4**

How are other news agencies reporting Lord Kilbracken's words?

**Text number 19**

Critics pointed out that both The Sun and Lord Kilbracken extracted results from one particular study, while ignoring other reports on HIV infection and not just AIDS infection, which critics saw as an unethical politicisation of the medical issue. Lord Kilbracken himself criticised The Sun's editorial and the headline of its news story; he said that although he believed that homosexuals were at greater risk of contracting AIDS, it was still wrong to suggest that no one else could contract the disease. The Press Council condemned The Sun for "gross misrepresentation". Later, The Sun published an apology on page 28. In his textbook The Universal Journalist, journalist David Randall argued that The Sun's story was one of the worst journalistic abuses in recent history because it put its own readers at risk.

**Question 0**

What did the critics think of The Sun and Lord Kilbracken's ideas on AIDS?

**Question 1**

What did Lord Kilbracken think of the editorial in The Sun?

**Question 2**

Who criticised The Sun for its reporting on AIDS and HIV?

**Question 3**

What did David Randall say about the Sun's AIDS story?

**Question 4**

In which textbook did David Randall write his opinion?

**Text number 20**

Under the headline "Truth" on the front page, the paper printed allegations submitted to it that some fans picked the pockets of the crushed victim, others urinated on members of the emergency services when they tried to help, and some even attacked a police officer "after he gave the patient the kiss of life". Despite the headline written by Kelvin MacKenzie, the story was based on allegations, either from anonymous and unidentified sources, or hearsay accounts of what the anonymous people had said - which was made clear to MacKenzie by Harry Arnold, the reporter who wrote the story.

**Question 0**

What did the newspaper say that some fans did?

**Question 1**

Who was reported to have been assaulted while trying to help a patient?

**Question 2**

Who wrote the headline "The Truth"?

**Question 3**

Who wrote the actual story?

**Question 4**

What was the story based on?

**Text number 21**

The front page publication caused outrage in Liverpool, where the paper lost more than three quarters of its estimated 55,000 daily sales, and its sales in the city are still poor (around 12,000) more than 25 years later. It is not available in many parts of the city, with many newsagents refusing to sell it. A September 2008 documentary by Alexei Sayle, entitled Liverpool, revealed that many Liverpudlians do not even accept the newspaper for free, and those who do may simply burn or tear it up. Liverpool people call the paper "The Scum" and campaigners believe it is hampering their fight for justice.

**Question 0**

Where did The Sun lose a large part of its daily sales because of the front page?

**Question 1**

What were the estimated daily sales in Liverpool 25 years later?

**Question 2**

Which documentary was shown in 2008?

**Question 3**

What do many Liverpudlians do with paper, even if it is given to them for free?

**Question 4**

What name have the people of Liverpool given to The Sun?

**Text number 22**

In response to the verbal attacks on Wayne Rooney, who had sold his life story to The Sun in Liverpool just before his move from Everton to Manchester United, the paper devoted a full-page editorial on 7 July 2004 to apologising for the 'terrible mistake' in reporting Hillsborough's story, arguing that Rooney (who was only three years old at the time of the Hillsborough incident) should not be punished for his 'past sins'. In January 2005, Graham Dudman, editor of The Sun, admitted that the Hillsborough coverage was "the worst mistake in our history", adding: "What we did was a terrible mistake. It was a terrible, insensitive, awful article with a terrible headline; but we also say we have apologised for it, and the whole current management team is completely different from the one that published the paper in 1989."

**Question 0**

Whose footballer was verbally attacked in Liverpool?

**Question 1**

Which team did Rooney move to?

**Question 2**

How old was Rooney at the time of the Hillsborough disaster?

**Question 3**

Who was the editor of The Sun in 2005?

**Question 4**

How did Dudman describe The Sun's Hillsborough coverage?

**Text number 23**

The Sun remained loyal to Thatcher until her resignation in November 1990, although the party's popularity had fallen the previous year after the introduction of the poll tax (formally known as the Community Charge). The newspaper strongly supported this change in the way local government was funded, despite widespread opposition (including from Conservative MPs), which is thought to have contributed to Thatcher's own downfall. The tax was quickly repealed by her successor John Major, who was initially enthusiastically supported by The Sun, which believed him to be a radical Thatcherite, even though the economy was already in recession at the time.

**Question 0**

When did Margaret Thatcher leave office?

**Question 1**

What is another name for a community levy?

**Question 2**

Who replaced Thatcher?

**Question 3**

Who opposed the poll tax?

**Question 4**

What did The Sun think about the poll tax?

**Text number 24**

Although the paper initially opposed the closures, until 1997 it repeatedly called for the implementation of Thatcher policies such as privatisation of Royal Mail and cuts to social security, with editorials such as "Peter Lilley is right, we can't go on like this". The paper showed hostility to the EU and endorsed public spending cuts, tax cuts and the promotion of right-wing ministers to the cabinet, with leaders such as 'More redwood, not Deadwood'.

**Question 0**

What kind of policies did The Sun support?

**Question 1**

What is an example of a Thatcherite policy?

**Question 2**

What was The Sun's position on the EU?

**Question 3**

What is the other thing that the newspaper showed hostility towards?

**Question 4**

What was The Sun's original position on the closures?

**Text number 25**

The Sun changed its support for Labour on 18 March 1997, six weeks before the general election victory that saw New Labour leader Tony Blair become Prime Minister with a large majority, despite the newspaper's attack on Blair and New Labour up to a month earlier. The paper's front page headline read THE SUN BACKS BLAIR, and its front page editorial made it clear that while the paper still opposed some of New Labour's policies, such as the minimum wage and devolution, it believed Blair was "the breath of fresh air this great country needs". The paper said John Major's Conservatives were "tired, divided and rudderless". Blair, who had radically transformed his party's image and policies, and had seen how the paper could influence the political thinking of its readers, had for some time been courting the paper (and Murdoch) with exclusive interviews and columns.

**Question 0**

Who did The Sun give its political support to in 1997?

**Question 1**

Who became Prime Minister in 1997?

**Question 2**

What New Labour policies did The Sun oppose?

**Question 3**

How did The Sun describe John Major's Conservatives?

**Question 4**

Who greatly changed the image of the Labour Party?

**Text number 26**

In return for Rupert Murdoch's support, Blair agreed not to join the European Exchange Rate Mechanism, from which John Major had withdrawn the country in September 1992 after less than two years. Matthew Parris (a former Sun columnist) "unmasked" government minister Peter Mandelson on the BBC's Newsnight programme in November 1998. The Sun's editor David Yelland misjudged the public reaction and in his front page editorial demanded to know whether Britain was ruled by a "gay mafia" consisting of "a closed world of men with a common selfish interest". Three days later, the paper apologised in another editorial, saying that The Sun would never again reveal a person's sexuality unless it could be defended on the grounds of "overriding public interest".

**Question 0**

What did Blair do to get Rupert Murdoch's support?

**Question 1**

Who was a cabinet minister in 1998?

**Question 2**

What happened on BBC Newsnight in 1998?

**Question 3**

Who was the editor of The Sun in 1998?

**Question 4**

What did The Sun say its policy on disclosure of an individual's sexuality would be in future?

**Text number 27**

In 2003, the government accused the magazine of racism for criticising its "open door" policy on immigration. The attacks came from the Prime Minister's press officer Alastair Campbell and Home Secretary David Blunkett (later a Sun columnist). The paper refuted the claims, arguing that it was not racist to suggest that an 'influx' of uncontrolled illegal immigrants would increase the risk of terrorist attacks and infectious diseases. The paper did not help its claim by publishing a front page story on 4 July 2003 entitled "Swan Bake", which claimed that asylum seekers were slaughtering and eating swans. It later emerged that the story was not based on any facts. The Sun then published a follow-up story entitled "Now they're after our fish!". After a hearing by the Press Complaints Commission, the "clarification" was finally printed on page 41. In 2005, The Sun published photographs of Prince Harry dressed as a Nazi at a fancy dress party. The photographs caused worldwide outrage, and Clarence House was forced to issue a statement in response, apologising for any offence or embarrassment caused.

**Question 0**

What allegations did the government make against The Sun in 2003?

**Question 1**

Who specifically made the allegations against The Sun?

**Question 2**

What did the front page story of 4 July 2003 claim?

**Question 3**

Where did the allegations of racism in The Sun come from?

**Question 4**

Who did The Sun publish pictures of in a Nazi costume in 2005?

**Text number 28**

Although the paper was persistently critical of some government policies, it supported Labour in both subsequent elections, which the party won. In the 2005 general election, The Sun backed Blair and Labour to win a third consecutive election and vowed to give Blair "one last chance" to fulfil his promises, although it criticised him for a number of weaknesses, including a failure to control immigration. However, it hoped that the Conservatives (led by Michael Howard) would one day be able to return to government. In this election (which Blair had announced would be his last as prime minister), Labour won for the third time in a row, but its majority was significantly reduced.

**Question 0**

Who did The Sun support in the 2005 general election?

**Question 1**

What is one of the weaknesses that The Sun believed Blair had?

**Question 2**

Who was leading the Conservatives at the time?

**Question 3**

What did Blair say about the 2005 elections?

**Question 4**

What was the result of the 2005 elections?

**Text number 29**

On 22 September 2003, a newspaper appeared to misjudge the general mood of mental health and affection for hospitalised former world heavyweight boxing champion Frank Bruno when the front page of the first issue of the paper carried the headline "Bonkers Bruno Locked Up". When the magazine appeared on the evening of 21 September, the negative reaction led to the headline being changed to a more sympathetic "Sad Bruno in mental hospital" in the second issue.

**Question 0**

What was the front page topic on 22 September 2003?

**Question 1**

Who was featured in the article on mental health?

**Question 2**

What was the original headline on 22 September 2003?

**Question 3**

Where was the title changed after the public backlash?

**Question 4**

What had happened to Frank Bruno to get him published?

**Text number 30**

The Sun has been openly hostile to other European nations, especially the French and Germans. In the 1980s and 1990s, nationalities were routinely described in texts and headlines as 'frogs', 'Germans' or 'Huns'. Because of its opposition to the EU, the paper has referred to foreign leaders it considers hostile to Britain in derogatory terms. For example, former French president Jacques Chirac was labelled "le Worm". An unflattering photo of German Chancellor Angela Merkel, taken from behind, was captioned "I'm Big in the Bumdestag" (17 April 2006).

**Question 0**

Which two nations has The Sun been very hostile towards?

**Question 1**

What names did The Sun use to describe the French and Germans?

**Question 2**

What is the magazine's position on the EU?

**Question 3**

How did The Sun describe French President Jacques Chirac?

**Question 4**

Who is the German Chancellor criticised by The Sun?

**Text number 31**

On 7 January 2009, The Sun published an exclusive front page story claiming that contributors to the British Muslim internet forum Ummah.com had compiled a "hate killers list" of British Jews targeted by extremists because of the Gaza war. It was claimed that "[those on the forum] should take it very seriously. Expect a campaign of hate-mongering and intimidation by 20 or 30 thugs." The British magazine Private Eye claimed that Glen Jenvey, quoted by The Sun as a terrorism expert who had posted on the forum under the pseudonym "Abuislam", was the only forum member promoting the hate campaign, while other members were promoting peaceful advocacy, such as writing "polite letters". The story has since been removed from The Sun's website following complaints to the UK Press Complaints Commission.

**Question 0**

What type of forum was the January 2009 front page story in The Sun?

**Question 1**

Who was said to be the target of The Sun's front page story?

**Question 2**

Which newspaper refuted The Sun's claims in its article on the forum?

**Question 3**

According to Private Eye, who was the only forum member to express hope for a hate campaign?

**Question 4**

Which body did the complaints to which body lead The Sun to remove the story from its website?

**Text number 32**

On 9 December 2010, The Sun published a front page story claiming that the terrorist organisation Al-Qaeda had threatened a terrorist attack on Granada Television in Manchester to disrupt a live episode of the soap opera Coronation Street that evening. The paper, quoting unnamed sources, claimed that "police have put a ring of steel around tonight's live Coronation Street episode because they fear it has been targeted by Al-Qaeda". Later that morning, however, Greater Manchester Police categorically denied that it had "become aware of any threat from Al-Qaeda or any other proscribed organisation". On 28 December, The Sun published a small correction in which it admitted that "although the cast and crew were strip-searched, there was no specific threat from Al-Qaeda, as we report". The apology had been negotiated by the Press Complaints Commission. The day after the 2011 attacks in Norway, The Sun published an early edition blaming the massacre on al-Qaeda. It was later revealed that the perpetrator was the Norwegian nationalist Anders Behring Breivik.

**Question 0**

What was the alleged target of the terrorist attack, according to a front-page story in the Sun in late 2010?

**Question 1**

What was the television programme that would have been affected by the attack?

**Question 2**

What did the Manchester police say about these alleged attacks?

**Question 3**

Who negotiated an apology from The Sun for misreporting this story?

**Question 4**

Who was responsible for the 2011 attacks in Norway?

**Text number 33**

In January 2008, Wapping presses printed The Sun for the last time, and the London printing operation was moved to Waltham Cross in Broxbourne, Hertfordshire, where News International had built what it claimed was the largest printing centre in Europe, with 12 presses. It also produces The Times and Sunday Times, Daily Telegraph and Sunday Telegraph, Wall Street Journal Europe (now also Murdoch's paper), London Evening Standard and local papers. Printing of the Northern had already been moved to a new plant in Knowsley, Merseyside, and printing of the Scottish Sun to another new plant in Motherwell, near Glasgow. The three printing centres represent a £600 million investment by NI and will allow all newspapers to be produced in full colour from 2008. The Waltham Cross plant can produce one million copies per hour of a 120-page tabloid newspaper.

**Question 0**

When was The Sun last printed on Wapping presses?

**Question 1**

Where was The Sun's printing site in London moved to?

**Question 2**

How many printing machines were there in the new printing plant?

**Question 3**

Where had the northern printing press been moved to?

**Question 4**

How much had been invested in new printing facilities?

**Text number 34**

Politically, the paper's position was less clear under Gordon Brown, who succeeded Blair as prime minister in June 2007. The paper's editorials were critical of many of Brown's policies and often more supportive of those of Conservative leader David Cameron. Rupert Murdoch, head of News Corporation, the Sun's parent company, said in a 2007 meeting with the House of Lords Communications Committee, which was investigating media ownership and news reporting, that he was acting as a "traditional owner". This means that he exercises editorial control over important issues such as which political party to support in elections or which European policy to adopt.

**Question 0**

Who followed Tony Blair as Prime Minister?

**Question 1**

Who was the Conservative leader often supported by The Sun?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the company that runs The Sun?

**Question 3**

What did the House of Lords Select Committee on Communications investigate in 2007?

**Question 4**

On which issues did Murdoch claim to exercise editorial control?

**Text number 35**

During the campaign for the 2010 UK general election, The Independent newspaper ran adverts declaring that "Rupert Murdoch doesn't decide this election - you do". In response, James Murdoch and Rebekah Wade "turned up unannounced and uninvited at the Independent's editorial offices" and had an energetic discussion with its editor Simon Kelner. Several days later, the Independent reported that The Sun did not report its own YouGov polling result that 'if people believed that Clegg's party had a significant chance of winning the election', the Liberal Democrats would win 49% of the vote and with it a landslide majority.

**Question 0**

Who appeared on the Independent's editorial board?

**Question 1**

Who was the editor of the Independent?

**Question 2**

What did The Sun leave out about the upcoming elections?

**Question 3**

Who does the Independent say would not decide the election?

**Question 4**

What year was the UK general election?

**Text number 36**

On election day (6 May 2010), The Sun urged its readers to vote for David Cameron's "modern and positive" Conservatives to save Britain from the "catastrophe" it said would threaten the country if a Labour government was re-elected. The election ended in the first post-election deadlock in 36 years, with the Conservatives winning the most seats and votes but falling 20 seats short of an overall majority. They finally came to power on 11 May when Gordon Brown resigned as Prime Minister, opening the way for David Cameron to become Prime Minister by forming a coalition with the Liberal Democrats.

**Question 0**

Who did The Sun support in the 2010 elections?

**Question 1**

What did The Sun fear as a result of Labour's election?

**Question 2**

What was the result of the parliamentary elections?

**Question 3**

Which party came to power after the elections?

**Question 4**

Who did David Cameron ally with to become Prime Minister?

**Text number 37**

On 28 January 2012, four current and former employees of The Sun were arrested by police as part of an investigation into the payment of journalists to police officers for information; one police officer was also arrested in connection with the investigation. The Sun employees arrested were crime reporter Mike Sullivan, news editor Chris Pharo, former deputy editor Fergus Shanahan and former editor Graham Dudman, who later became a columnist and media writer. All five were arrested on corruption charges. Police also searched the offices of News International, the publisher of The Sun, as part of the ongoing investigation into the News of the World scandal.

**Question 0**

Why were former Sun employees detained in police custody in early 2012?

**Question 1**

What was the charge against the arrested?

**Question 2**

Which major scandal was this investigation part of?

**Question 3**

Which Sun employees were arrested?

**Question 4**

What did Graham Dudman do after he became editor of The Sun?

**Text number 38**

Key party leaders David Cameron, Nick Clegg and Ed Miliband were pictured in promotional material holding a special issue. Miliband's decision to pose with The Sun was met with a strong response. Organisations representing the families of the Hillsborough victims called Miliband's actions a "complete disgrace", while he was also criticised by Liverpool Labour MPs and the city's Labour mayor Joe Anderson. Miliband issued a statement on 13 June in which he explained that Miliband "contributed to England's efforts to win the World Cup", although "he understands that many people in Merseyside feel anger towards The Sun over the events at Hillsborough, and he is sorry for those who feel aggrieved".

**Question 0**

Who were the main leaders of the ruling party?

**Question 1**

Who criticised Milliband for posing for The Sun magazine showing the Hillsborough disaster?

**Question 2**

How did Milliband explain posing for this magazine?

**Question 3**

Who was the Labour Mayor of Liverpool?

**Question 4**

How did many people feel about The Sun's coverage of Hillsborough?

**Text number 39**

On 2 June 2013, The Sun on Sunday published a front page story about singer-songwriter Tulisa Contostavlos. The front page read: "Tulisa's cocaine deal a disgrace"; the story was written by The Sun On Sunday's undercover editor Mahzer Mahmood, who had previously worked for the News of the World. It was alleged that Tulisa introduced three film producers (actually Mahmood and two other Sun journalists) to a drug dealer and arranged an £800 deal. The scam involved tricking the singer into believing he was being considered for a role in an £8 million Bollywood film.

**Question 0**

Who was the subject of the front page story in early June 2013?

**Question 1**

Who wrote the article about Tulisa Contostavlos?

**Question 2**

What was the main claim of The Sun's story on Contostavlos?

**Question 3**

What did The Sun's journalists make Contostavlos believe?

**Question 4**

What was the headline of the front page story on Contostavlos?

**Text number 40**

In his subsequent trial, the case against Tulisa was overturned at Southwark Crown Court in July 2014, with the judge finding that there were "strong grounds" to believe that Mahmood had lied at a pre-trial hearing and tried to manipulate evidence against Tulisa's co-accused. Tulisa was acquitted of supplying Class A drugs. Following these events, The Sun published a statement in which the newspaper said it "takes the judge's remarks very seriously". Mahmood has been suspended from office pending an immediate internal investigation".

**Question 0**

How was the case against Tulisa successful?

**Question 1**

What did the judge say in the case?

**Question 2**

What kind of drugs was Tulisa accused of supplying?

**Question 3**

What action did The Sun take against Mahmood?

**Question 4**

When was the case against Tulisa heard?

**Text number 41**

In October 2014, a trial began against six senior staff and editors of The Sun newspaper. All six were charged with conspiracy to commit misconduct. Among them was The Sun's news editor Chris Pharo, who was charged with six counts, while former editor Graham Dudman and former Sun deputy news editor Ben O'Driscoll were charged with four counts each. Thames Valley district editor Jamie Pyatt and picture editor John Edwards were charged with three counts each, while former editor John Troup was charged with two counts. The trial related to illegal payments the men allegedly made to public officials, with prosecutors alleging that the men had conspired to pay public officials between 2002-11, including police officers, prison officers and soldiers. They were accused of buying confidential information about the royal family, public figures and prison inmates. They all denied the charges. On 16 January 2015, the jury acquitted Troup and Edwards of all charges against them. The jury also partially acquitted O'Driscoll and Dudman of the charges, but continued to consider the other charges against them, as well as the charges against Pharo and Pyatt. On 21 January 2015, the jury told the court that it could not reach a unanimous verdict on any of the remaining charges, and Judge Richard Marks said he would accept majority verdicts. Shortly thereafter, one of the jurors sent a message to the judge and was released. The judge told the remaining 11 jurors that their colleague had been "unwell and feeling under great pressure and stress" and that under the circumstances he was prepared to accept a majority verdict of "11-0 or 10-1". The jury was discharged on 22 January 2015 after failing to reach a verdict on the remaining charges. The Crown Prosecution Service (CPS) announced that it would seek a new trial.

**Question 0**

What were the Sun staff accused of in the 2014 trial?

**Question 1**

What was the 2014 trial about?

**Question 2**

Which employees of The Sun were accused of buying information?

**Question 3**

Who was the judge in this case?

**Question 4**

What was the result of the jury's deliberations at trial?

**Text number 42**

On 6 February 2015, it was announced that Judge Richard Marks will be replaced by Judge Charles Wide in the retrial. Two days earlier, Marks had emailed the defendants' lawyers and told them, "It has been decided (not by me, but by my parents and betters) that I will not participate in the retrial." Lisa O'Carroll wrote of the decision in the British newspaper The Guardian: "Wide is so far the only judge to have presided over a case in which a journalist has been convicted on charges of making illegal payments to public officials for stories. The journalist, whose name cannot be mentioned for legal reasons, is appealing against the conviction". A defence lawyer for the four journalists threatened to take the decision to court, and Nigel Rumfitt QC, the lawyer representing Pharo, said: "The way this has happened gives the impression that something has been going on behind the scenes which should not have been going on behind the scenes and which should have been dealt with openly". He added that respondents were "very concerned" and "entitled" to know why Marks was replaced by Wide.

**Question 0**

Who was appointed as the chairman of the retrial in 2015?

**Question 1**

In which newspaper did Lisa O'Carroll report on the selection of the judge?

**Question 2**

Who was Pharo's lawyer in the case?

**Question 3**

What did Rumfit say that respondents should have been informed of?

**Question 4**

What did the defendants' lawyers threaten to do?

**Text number 43**

On 22 May 2015, Sun journalist Anthony France was found guilty of aiding and abetting a breach of duty between 2008 and 2011. France's trial followed London Metropolitan Police's Operation Elveden, an ongoing investigation into alleged payments made to police officers and officials in exchange for information. He had paid a total of more than £22,000 to Timothy Edwards, a counter-terrorism officer working at Heathrow Airport. The policeman had already pleaded guilty in 2014 to misconduct in office and received a two-year prison sentence, but the jury in the French trial was not told. After the guilty verdict, the officer in charge of Operation Elveden, Detective Inspector Gordon Briggs, said France and Edwards had been in a "long-standing, corrupt relationship".

**Question 0**

Who was found guilty in 2015?

**Question 1**

Which Sun journalist was found guilty in 2015?

**Question 2**

Who was responsible for Operation Elveden?

**Question 3**

How much did Anthony France pay the police?

**Question 4**

Who was the police officer in charge of Operation Elveden?

**Question 5**

How did Briggs characterise the relationship between France and Edwards?

**Text number 44**

The BBC reported that France was the first journalist to be tried and convicted under Operation Elveden after the Crown Prosecution Service (CPS) revised its guidelines in April 2015 to prosecute only journalists who had made payments to police authorities over a period of time. As a result of the CPS policy change, charges had been dropped against a number of journalists who had made payments to other types of public officials, including civil servants, health care workers and prison staff. In July 2015, Private Eye reported that The Sun's parent company had refused to pay prosecution costs relating to the French trial at an expenses hearing in the Old Bailey case, leading the presiding judge to express "considerable disappointment" at the situation. Judge Timothy Pontius told the court that France's illegal actions had been part of "the clearly acknowledged conduct of The Sun", adding that "there is no doubt that News International bears some degree of moral responsibility, if not legal culpability, for the defendant's actions". The Private Eye report stated that despite this, The Sun's parent organisation was "considering disciplinary action" against France, and at the same time was also preparing to bring a case before the Court of Inquiry against the London Metropolitan Police Service for taking action against France and two other journalists.

**Question 0**

Who was the first journalist to be convicted as a result of Operation Elveden after its review?

**Question 1**

What changes did the Crown Prosecution Service make to Operation Elveden?

**Question 2**

Who is the judge commenting on France's illegal actions?

**Question 3**

Who else does Judge Pontius think should be blamed for France's actions?

**Question 4**

Who was News International considering prosecuting?

**Text number 45**

In August 2013, The Irish Sun stopped featuring topless models on page 3. An editorial was said to have followed this in 2015, and the 16 January issue was said to be the last to publish such images since the report in The Times. Following extensive media coverage of the alleged change in editorial policy, page 3 returned to its normal format on 22 January 2015. A few hours before the issue was published, the newspaper's public relations officer said the alleged closure of Page 3 was "speculation".

**Question 0**

What did The Irish Sun stop doing in 2013?

**Question 1**

What was said to be the last regular Sun magazine to publish topless models?

**Question 2**

Which newspaper claimed that The Sun stopped featuring topless models in 2013?

**Question 3**

What happened on 22 January 2015?

**Question 4**

What did The Sun's PR Manager say about The Sun's editorial change?

**Text number 46**

On 17 April 2015, The Sun columnist Katie Hopkins called migrants arriving in Britain "cockroaches" and "wild people" and said they were "spreading like a norovirus". Her statement was condemned by the United Nations Commission on Human Rights. High Commissioner Zeid Ra'ad Al Hussein said in a statement on 24 April 2015 that Hopkins used "very similar language to that used by Rwanda's Kangura newspaper and Radio Mille Collines in the run-up to the 1994 genocide", noting that both media organisations were subsequently convicted by an international court of public incitement to genocide.

**Question 0**

Which Sun columnist made controversial remarks about migrants coming to Britain in April 2015?

**Question 1**

What terms did Katie Hopkins use to describe immigrants coming to Britain?

**Question 2**

Which organisation strongly criticised Hopkins' comments?

**Question 3**

Who was the High Commissioner of the United Nations Commission on Human Rights?

**Question 4**

What did Hussein compare Hopkins' remarks to?

**Text number 47**

Hopkins' column also drew criticism on Twitter, including from Russell Brand, to whom Hopkins responded by accusing Brand of "champagne socialist humanity" for neglecting taxpayers. Simon Usborne, writing in The Independent, compared Hopkins' use of the word 'cockroach' to the Nazis' earlier use of the word and that of the perpetrators of the Rwandan genocide just before it happened. He doubted that if someone else had written the story it would have been published, and questioned the woman's continued employment at the newspaper. Zoe Williams commented in The Guardian: "It's no joke when people start talking like this. We are not giving her what she wants when we express our disgust. It's not about freedom of speech. I'm not saying to gag him: I'm saying to fight him".

**Question 0**

Which famous person condemned Hopkins' comments on Twitter?

**Question 1**

Who wrote critically about Hopkins in The Independent?

**Question 2**

Based on Hopkins' comments, who did Usborne draw similarities with Hopkins?

**Question 3**

Which writer for The Guardian criticised Hopkins?

**Question 4**

What did Williams say should be done about Hopkins?

**Text number 48**

On 9 March 2016, the front page of The Sun declared that Queen Elizabeth II supports "brexit", a common term for Britain's withdrawal from the European Union. It claimed that in 2011, during a lunch at Windsor Castle with Deputy Prime Minister Nick Clegg, the monarch criticised the union. Mr Clegg denied that the Queen had made such a statement, and a Buckingham Palace spokesman confirmed that a complaint had been made to the Independent Press Standards Organisation for breaching accuracy guidelines.

**Question 0**

What is an often-used term for Britain's withdrawal from the European Union?

**Question 1**

According to The Sun, who was in favour of Britain leaving the European Union?

**Question 2**

Where is Queen Elizabeth II said to have made critical remarks about the European Union?

**Question 3**

Who refuted the claim that the Queen was critical of the European Union?

**Question 4**

After the Queen Elizabeth II incident, who was complained to for breaching instructions on accuracy?

**Document number 215**

**Text number 0**

Pesticides are substances designed to attract, lure and then kill all pests. They are a class of biocides. The most common use of pesticides is as plant protection products (also known as pesticides), which usually protect plants from harmful effects such as weeds, fungi or insects. The use of pesticides is so widespread that the term pesticide is often considered synonymous with plant protection product, although it is in fact a broader term as pesticides are also used for non-agricultural purposes. The term pesticide includes all of the following: herbicide, insecticide, insect growth regulator, nematode, termite poison, molluscicide, fish poison, bird poison, rodenticide, predator poison, bactericide, insect repellent, animal repellent, antimicrobial, fungicide, disinfectant (antimicrobial) and disinfectant.

**Question 0**

What is the difference between a pesticide and a plant protection product?

**Question 1**

What is the purpose of a pesticide?

**Question 2**

What are the most common uses of pesticides?

**Question 3**

How can pesticides protect plants?

**Question 4**

Which product commonly used in hospitals, schools and offices is a pesticide?

**Question 5**

What are some examples of ways in which a plant protects itself from pests?

**Question 6**

How do you classify plants that protect themselves from pests?

**Question 7**

What three things do pests eat?

**Question 8**

What is one thing that some mushrooms are also used for?

**Question 9**

How are weeds also used in commercial harvesting?

**Text number 1**

Generally speaking, a pesticide is a chemical or biological substance (such as a virus, bacterium, antimicrobial or disinfectant) that repels, paralyses, kills or otherwise inhibits pests. Target pests may include insects, plant pathogens, weeds, molluscs, birds, mammals, fish, nematodes (roundworms) and microbes that destroy property, cause harm or spread disease or are vectors of disease. While pesticides have benefits, some also have drawbacks, such as potential toxicity to humans and other species. According to the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants, 9 of the 12 most hazardous and persistent organic chemicals are pesticides containing organochlorine.

**Question 0**

What are the three targets for pest control?

**Question 1**

Are pesticides chemical or biological substances?

**Question 2**

What are the potential harms of pesticides?

**Question 3**

What are pesticides supposed to prevent?

**Question 4**

How many microbes are dangerous to humans?

**Question 5**

What do nematodes do when they infect a host?

**Question 6**

What is the danger of people eating some molluscs?

**Question 7**

How many different types of toxic molluscs are found in the wild?

**Question 8**

What does being vaccinated against a virus prevent?

**Text number 2**

Pesticides can be classified by target organism (e.g. herbicides, insecticides, fungicides, rodenticides and legumes - see table), chemical structure (e.g. organic, inorganic, synthetic or biological (biopesticide), although the distinction can sometimes be blurred) and physical form (e.g. gaseous (fumigant)). Biopesticides include microbicides and biochemical pesticides. Herbicides, or plant-based pesticides, have developed rapidly. They include pyrethroids, rotenoids, nicotinoids and a fourth group including strychnine and scilliroside.:15

**Question 0**

What is one way to group pesticides?

**Question 1**

Give three examples of pesticide target organisms.

**Question 2**

What are the types of biopesticides?

**Question 3**

Which types of pesticides have grown rapidly?

**Question 4**

What examples of hybrid plants have been developed?

**Question 5**

Which pesticides should not be used in organic food?

**Question 6**

What type of pesticide can be used in organic food?

**Question 7**

What is another word used for organic chemical structure?

**Question 8**

How have insecticides evolved recently?

**Text number 3**

Many pesticides can be grouped into chemical families. The most important families of insecticides are organochlorines, organophosphates and carbamates. Organic hydrochlorinated hydrocarbons (e.g. DDT) can be subdivided into dichlorodiphenyl ethers, cyclodiene compounds and other related compounds. They act by disrupting the sodium/potassium balance of the nerve fibre, forcing the nerve to transmit continuously. Their toxicity varies widely, but they have been phased out because of their persistence and bioaccumulation potential:239-240 Organic phosphates and carbamates have largely replaced organochlorine compounds. Both act by inhibiting the enzyme acetylcholinesterase, allowing acetylcholine to transmit nerve impulses indefinitely and cause a variety of symptoms such as weakness or paralysis. Organophosphates are quite toxic to vertebrates and have in some cases been replaced by less toxic carbamates:136-137 Thiocarbamate and dithiocarbamates are subclasses of carbamates. Well-known herbicides include phenoxy and benzoic acid herbicides (e.g. 2,4-D), triazines (e.g. atrazine), ureas (e.g. diuron) and chloroethane silides (e.g. alachlor). Phenoxy compounds tend to selectively kill broadleaf weeds rather than grasses. Phenoxy and benzoic acid herbicides act like plant growth hormones, growing cells without normal cell division by breaking down the plant's nutrient transport system. 300 Triazines interfere with photosynthesis. 335 Many commonly used pesticides do not belong to these families, such as glyphosate.

**Question 0**

Organic chlorinated hydrocarbons affect the balance of which nerve fibre?

**Question 1**

Why were organochlorocarbons phased out?

**Question 2**

What type of herbicide selectively kills broadleaf weeds?

**Question 3**

Which key plan function is interrupted by the triazines?

**Question 4**

What are the symptoms of organophosphates and carbamates?

**Question 5**

What did glyphosate replace?

**Question 6**

What are the effects of glyphosate and triazine when both are used?

**Question 7**

What are the symptoms if you are exposed to both glyphosate and triazine?

**Question 8**

What else does glyphosate tend to selectively kill besides grasses?

**Question 9**

What does glyphosate do to a plant when it causes cell growth without cell division?

**Text number 4**

Pesticides can be classified according to their biological mechanism or mode of application. Most pesticides work by poisoning pests. A systemic pesticide moves inside a plant after it has been absorbed by the plant. For insecticides and most fungicides, this movement is usually upwards (through the xylem) and outwards. The result can be an increase in efficacy. Systemic insecticides, which poison the pollen and nectar on flowers, can kill bees and other necessary pollinators.

**Question 0**

How can you group pesticides?

**Question 1**

What is the main way in which the petsids carry out their tasks?

**Question 2**

In which direction do systemic pesticides usually move through the plant?

**Question 3**

Which parts of the plant are usually affected by systemic pesticides?

**Question 4**

What are the characteristics that classify the types of flower nectar?

**Question 5**

How does honey move through the plant?

**Question 6**

Why does the plant pass nectar through the xylem?

**Question 7**

How do some flowers protect themselves from damage?

**Question 8**

What does the plant do to attract pollinators?

**Text number 5**

Pesticides are used to control harmful organisms. For example, they are used to kill mosquitoes that can spread potentially fatal diseases such as West Nile virus, yellow fever and malaria. They can also be used to kill bees, wasps or ants that can cause allergic reactions. Insecticides can protect animals from diseases caused by parasites such as fleas. Pesticides can prevent diseases in humans that can be caused by mouldy food or diseased products. Herbicides can be used to remove roadside weeds, trees and shrubs. They can also be used to kill invasive weeds that can cause environmental damage. Herbicides are commonly used in ponds and lakes to control algae and plants such as aquatic weeds, which can interfere with activities such as swimming and fishing and make the water look or smell unpleasant. Uncontrolled pests such as termites and moulds can damage structures such as houses. Pesticides are used in grocery stores and food warehouses to control rodents and insects that contaminate foods such as grain. Each use of a pesticide carries a certain risk. Proper use of pesticides reduces these risks to levels that are considered acceptable by pesticide regulatory agencies such as the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and the Canadian Plant Protection Agency (PMRA).

**Question 0**

Pesticides can be used to prevent the spread of which diseases?

**Question 1**

What kind of pesticides are present in ponds and lakes?

**Question 2**

Which agency regulates pesticide safety in the US?

**Question 3**

Which agency regulates pesticide safety in Canada?

**Question 4**

What activities do mosquitoes make it difficult to participate in when they swarm?

**Question 5**

What can mosquitoes do to water quality?

**Question 6**

What environmental diseases does the EPA control?

**Question 7**

In which areas do fleas prefer to live?

**Question 8**

What pests are attracted to mouldy food left outside or diseased produce?

**Text number 6**

DDT, which is sprayed on the walls of houses, is an organic chlorine that has been used to fight malaria since the 1950s. Recent policy statements by the World Health Organization have given this approach even stronger support. However, DDT and other organochlorine pesticides have been banned in most countries worldwide because they are persistent in the environment and toxic to humans. The use of DDT is not always effective, as DDT resistance was discovered in Africa as early as 1955, and by 1972 nineteen mosquito species worldwide were resistant to DDT.

**Question 0**

What kind of pesticide is DDT?

**Question 1**

Why is DDT banned in some areas?

**Question 2**

Is the efficacy of DDT 100% guaranteed?

**Question 3**

How many species have been found to be resistant to DDT?

**Question 4**

When were 19 new mosquito species discovered in Africa?

**Question 5**

How long has DDT been banned worldwide?

**Question 6**

How positive is Africa about the ban on DDT?

**Question 7**

In what year was DDT first invented?

**Question 8**

When were mosquitoes first discovered to carry malaria?

**Text number 7**

In 2006 and 2007, about 2.4 megatonnes (5.3 × 109 lb) of pesticides were used worldwide, with herbicides (40%), insecticides (17%) and fungicides (10%) accounting for the majority of pesticide use. The United States used about 0.5 megatonnes (1.1 × 109 lb) of pesticides in 2006 and 2007, accounting for 22% of total global use. This includes 857 million pounds (389 kt) of conventional pesticides used in agriculture (80% of conventional pesticide use), industry, commerce, government, households and gardens.Pesticides are also used in the majority of US households, with 78 million out of 105.5 million households reporting some form of pesticide use. In 2007, more than 1,055 active ingredients were registered as pesticides, resulting in more than 20,000 pesticide products on the market in the United States.

**Question 0**

What is the estimated number of megatonnes of pesticides used in 2006-2007?

**Question 1**

How much of conventional pesticides are used in agriculture?

**Question 2**

How many ingredients do pesticides contain?

**Question 3**

How many pesticides are on sale in the US?

**Question 4**

How many pesticide products are sold worldwide?

**Question 5**

How many active substances were in the herbicides used in agriculture in 2006?

**Question 6**

What percentage of pesticides are sold in home and garden centers in the United States?

**Question 7**

How many kilos of pesticides does the US government use?

**Question 8**

How much of the use of conventional pesticides is the responsibility of the US government?

**Text number 8**

For every dollar ($1) spent on pesticides, four dollars ($4) is saved in crop yields. This means that the $10 billion spent on pesticides each year could save $40 billion in crop losses due to insect and weed damage. In general, farmers benefit from increased yields and the ability to grow a variety of crops all year round. Consumers of agricultural products also benefit from being able to afford large quantities of produce all year round. The general public also benefits from the use of pesticides to control insect-borne diseases and illnesses such as malaria. The use of pesticides creates a large labour market in agrochemicals.

**Question 0**

What are the financial savings on crops due to the use of pesticides?

**Question 1**

How much is spent on pesticides each year?

**Question 2**

How can consumers benefit from the hundreds saved?

**Question 3**

In which sector do pesticides create jobs?

**Question 4**

How do pesticides affect public health?

**Question 5**

How much profit does the agrochemical sector make in the US each year?

**Question 6**

How much money is spent each year on malaria control?

**Question 7**

How do farmers benefit from the $10 billion spent annually on malaria prevention?

**Question 8**

Farmers earn $10 billion a year growing what products?

**Question 9**

What is the labour market like if you want to become a farmer?

**Text number 9**

Pesticides can cause acute and delayed health effects in exposed people. Exposure to pesticides can cause a wide range of adverse health effects, from skin and eye irritation to more serious effects such as affecting the nervous system, mimicking reproductive hormones and cancer. A 2007 systematic review concluded that "most studies on non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and leukaemia showed positive associations with pesticide exposure" and therefore concluded that the cosmetic use of pesticides should be reduced. There is substantial evidence of an association between organophosphate insecticide exposure and neurobehavioural changes. There is also limited evidence on other negative effects of pesticide exposure, such as neurological effects, birth defects and foetal death,

**Question 0**

Can pesticides have serious effects on humans?

**Question 1**

What is one of the most serious effects of pesticide exposure?

**Question 2**

What is thought to potentially cause neurobehavioural changes?

**Question 3**

Which system is most often affected by non-Hodgkin's lymphoma?

**Question 4**

What two things can happen if you are pregnant and being treated for cancer?

**Question 5**

What are the problems caused by hormones produced by cancer cells?

**Question 6**

When was non-Hodgkin's lymphoma first diagnosed in the patient?

**Question 7**

What is one thing that can be caused by the use of cosmetics?

**Text number 10**

The World Health Organisation and the UN Environment Programme estimate that 3 million agricultural workers in developing countries are seriously poisoned by pesticides every year, and around 18 000 of them die. Due to inadequate regulation and safety measures, 99% of pesticide-related deaths occur in developing countries, which account for only 25% of pesticide use. According to one study, up to 25 million workers in developing countries may suffer from mild pesticide poisoning each year. In addition to agriculture, there are several other occupations that can also expose people to health effects from exposure to pesticides, such as pet sitters, gardeners and degassers.

**Question 0**

How many agricultural workers die every year in developing countries from seriously poisoned pesticides?

**Question 1**

Which occupations put people at risk of exposure to pesticide poisoning?

**Question 2**

How many workers are exposed to mild pesticide poisoning in developing countries?

**Question 3**

Why do 99% of pesticide-related deaths occur in underdeveloped countries?

**Question 4**

How many workers in the world are pet sitters, herders and degasifiers?

**Question 5**

How many people call a fumigator every year because of pests?

**Question 6**

What percentage of pet carers always follow safety measures when using clippers?

**Question 7**

Which three careers are most common in developing countries?

**Question 8**

What is one reason why pet carers can do their job without injury?

**Text number 11**

The use of pesticides raises a number of environmental concerns. More than 98% of insecticides sprayed and 95% of herbicides end up in non-target species, such as non-target species, air, water and soil. Pesticide drift occurs when pesticides suspended in the air as particles are carried by wind to other areas and can contaminate them. Pesticides are one of the causes of water pollution, and some pesticides are persistent organic pollutants and contribute to soil pollution.

**Question 0**

How much of the pesticides sprayed affect the wrong species?

**Question 1**

What happens when pesticides do not reach their target?

**Question 2**

What is it called when pesticides get caught in the wind and spread to unintended areas?

**Question 3**

What kind of pollution do pesticides cause?

**Question 4**

What is the impact of pesticide drift?

**Question 5**

Where are water-borne contaminated bugs one of the reasons?

**Question 6**

What percentage of species can live in polluted water?

**Question 7**

What do animals that dig up food from the soil contribute?

**Question 8**

What concerns are raised by the idea of animals digging for food in the soil?

**Question 9**

How many people want to eat organic food?

**Text number 12**

Because chlorinated hydrocarbon pesticides dissolve in fats rather than being excreted, organisms tend to store them almost indefinitely. Biological magnification is the process by which these chlorinated hydrocarbons (pesticides) are concentrated at each level of the food chain. Among marine animals, pesticide concentrations are higher in carnivorous fish and even higher in fish-eating birds and mammals at the top of the ecological pyramid. Global distillation is the process by which pesticides are transported from warmer regions of the globe to colder regions, particularly the polar regions and mountain tops. At relatively high temperatures, pesticides that evaporate into the atmosphere can be carried by wind over considerable distances (thousands of kilometres) to lower temperatures, where they condense and return to the ground as rain or snow.

**Question 0**

Why are hydrocarbon pesticides not excreted?

**Question 1**

How are pesticide concentrations higher up the food chain?

**Question 2**

What is called pesticide migration from warmer to cooler climates?

**Question 3**

How could pesticides travel hundreds of kilometres?

**Question 4**

How long does an animal store fat when it eats healthily?

**Question 5**

Which areas have more marine animals?

**Question 6**

Which group can store fat faster?

**Question 7**

In which area do fish-eating birds usually live?

**Question 8**

How far do fish-eating birds have to fly to get a meal?

**Text number 13**

To reduce adverse effects, it is desirable that pesticides are degradable or at least rapidly deactivated in the environment. A reduction in the activity or toxicity of pesticides is due both to the intrinsic chemical properties of the compounds and to environmental processes or conditions. For example, the presence of halogens in the chemical structure often slows down degradation in an aerobic environment. Adsorption to soil can slow down the movement of the pesticide, but it can also reduce bioavailability to microbial degraders.

**Question 0**

Which property is desired to help reduce the negative effects of pesticides?

**Question 1**

How else can the negative effects of pesticides be reduced?

**Question 2**

What is one way in which pesticides lose their effectiveness?

**Question 3**

What can slow down the movement of pesticides?

**Question 4**

What characteristics are desirable in soil for planting?

**Question 5**

What makes microbes break down?

**Question 6**

What slows down microbial degradation?

**Question 7**

What kind of environment is needed for microbial degradation?

**Question 8**

What slows down the movement of microbes?

**Text number 14**

There are alternatives to pesticides, including cultivation methods, the use of biological control agents (such as pheromones and microbicides), genetic engineering and methods to disrupt insect reproduction. The application of composted yard waste has also been used as a means of pest control. These methods are increasingly popular and often safer than traditional chemical pesticides. In addition, the EPA is increasingly registering low-risk conventional pesticides.

**Question 0**

What is one thing that can be used instead of pesticides?

**Question 1**

What natural product can be used to control pests?

**Question 2**

Why are alternative pest control methods gaining popularity?

**Question 3**

Which agency has offered to approve safer pesticides?

**Question 4**

What is one non-chemical way to control pests?

**Question 5**

What does the EPA recommend for gardening to enrich the soil?

**Question 6**

How well do insects reproduce in your garden when you use a yard waste bin?

**Question 7**

How does genetic engineering compare with traditional farming methods?

**Question 8**

What is one thing that pesticides cause when used on insects?

**Question 9**

What chemical do insects secrete when they reproduce?

**Text number 15**

The term "push-pull" became established in 1987 as an approach to Integrated Pest Management (IPM). This strategy uses a combination of behaviour-altering stimuli to manipulate insect distribution and abundance. "Push" means to repel or scare insects away from a resource to be protected. "Pull" means using specific stimuli (semiochemical stimuli, pheromones, food additives, visual stimuli, genetically modified plants, etc.) to attract pests to crops to be trapped and killed. There are a number of different elements involved in implementing the push-pull strategy in IPM.

**Question 0**

What is IPM?

**Question 1**

How can the location and number of insects be changed?

**Question 2**

What is one thing that can be used to remove pests?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the process by which pests are attracted and repelled by IPM.

**Question 4**

When did the term semiochemical stimuli become established?

**Question 5**

What is the one thing that makes people buy products they don't need?

**Question 6**

What is easier to grow than ordinary plants?

**Question 7**

What was developed in 1987 to add to foods to make them last longer on the shelf?

**Question 8**

What do marketers use in advertising to get people to buy their products?

**Text number 16**

Some evidence shows that alternatives to pesticides can be as effective as the use of chemicals. In Sweden, for example, pesticide use has halved but yields have hardly decreased [unreliable source?] In Indonesia, farmers have reduced pesticide use in rice fields by 65% and yields have increased by 15%.] A study in corn fields in northern Florida found that application of composted yard waste with a high carbon-to-nitrogen ratio to agricultural fields was highly effective in reducing populations of harmful nematodes and increasing yields; yield increases ranged from 10% to 212%; the observed effects were long-lasting, often occurring only in the third season of the study.

**Question 0**

How much was Sweden able to reduce the use of pesticides?

**Question 1**

Which other country has reduced its use of pesticides?

**Question 2**

Which natural substance has been found to be effective in increasing the yield...

**Question 3**

How much yield gain can be gained from the use of composted yard waste?

**Question 4**

What happened after Indonesia halved its use of pesticides?

**Question 5**

What happened when pesticide use in Sweden was reduced by 65%?

**Question 6**

How long did it take to get a higher yield in Sweden when it was studied?

**Question 7**

What was the yield increase in Sweden during the study?

**Question 8**

What kind of crops were studied in Sweden?

**Text number 17**

Pesticides are often referred to by the type of pests they control. Pesticides can also be considered either as biodegradable pesticides, which are broken down by microbes and other living things into harmless compounds, or as persistent pesticides, which can take months or years to break down: for example, the persistence of DDT led to its accumulation in the food chain and the killing of birds of prey at the top of the food chain. Another way of thinking about pesticides is to consider those that are chemical pesticides or that come from a common source or production method.

**Question 0**

What is one type of pesticide?

**Question 1**

How long can it take for persistent pesticides to break down?

**Question 2**

What quality caused the accumulation of DDT in different organisms?

**Question 3**

What is one way to classify pesticides?

**Question 4**

What is one characteristic that defines the nature of microbes?

**Question 5**

How long do microbes live in soil?

**Question 6**

What is one way to classify birds?

**Question 7**

What happens when there are too many microbes in the soil?

**Question 8**

Where do microbes usually come from in the environment?

**Text number 18**

The following sulfonylureas have been commercialised for weed control: Amidosulfuron, azimsulfuron, bensulfuron-methyl, chlorimuron-ethyl, ethoxysulfuron, flazasulfuron, flupyrsulfuron-methylsodium, halosulfuron-methyl, imazosulfuron, nicosulfuron, oxasulfuron, primisulfuron-methyl, pyrazosulfuron-ethyl, rimsulfuron, sulfometuron-methyl, sulfosulfuron, terbacil, bispyribac sodium, cyclosulfamuron and pyrithiobac sodium. Nicosulfuron, triflusulfuron-methyl and chlorosulfurone are broad spectrum herbicides that kill plants by inhibiting the acetolactate synthase enzyme. In the 1960s, more than 1 kg/ha (0.89 lb/ha) of the herbicide was typically used, while sulfonylureas allow only 1% of the substance to have the same effect.

**Question 0**

What are sulphonylureas commonly used for?

**Question 1**

Which types of pesticides can be classified as nicosulfuron, triflusulfuron-methyl and chlorosulfon?

**Question 2**

What enzyme restriction allows broad-spectrum herbicides to kill plants?

**Question 3**

In which year did the amount of material used as a plant protection product decrease from 1 kg/ha to the current 1%?

**Question 4**

What has acetolactate synthase been used for commercially?

**Question 5**

Which class is acetolactate synthase in when it is used in plants?

**Question 6**

In what year was acetolactate synthase created?

**Question 7**

How much acetolactazylas was used in the 1960s?

**Question 8**

What was acetolactate synthase used for in the 1960s?

**Text number 19**

Although pesticide regulations vary from country to country, pesticides and the products in which they are used are traded across international borders. To address inconsistencies between countries, in 1985 representatives of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation Conference adopted the International Code of Conduct on the Distribution and Use of Pesticides, which established voluntary standards for the regulation of pesticides in different countries. The Code was updated in 1998 and 2002. According to the FAO, the Code has raised awareness of the dangers of pesticides and reduced the number of countries where pesticide use is not restricted.

**Question 0**

Will trade in pesticides and pesticide-treated goods be restricted to the US?

**Question 1**

Which committee deals with the differences in rules on pesticide use between countries?

**Question 2**

When was an international code of practice introduced to regulate the distribution and use of pesticides?

**Question 3**

How recently have the voluntary standards for pesticide regulation been updated?

**Question 4**

When was the UN Food and Agriculture Organisation established?

**Question 5**

Why was the UN Food and Agriculture Organisation created in 1985?

**Question 6**

When was it first possible to sell pesticides across international borders?

**Question 7**

In which areas do agricultural practices differ?

**Question 8**

Where are agricultural methods traded?

**Text number 20**

Three other efforts to improve the regulation of international trade in pesticides include the United Nations London Guidelines for the Exchange of Information on Chemicals in International Trade and the United Nations Codex Alimentarius Commission.[citation needed] The former seeks to establish procedures to ensure that countries buying and selling pesticides give prior consent, while the latter aims to establish uniform standards for maximum pesticide residue levels among participating countries. Both initiatives operate on a voluntary basis.

**Question 0**

Which country has made efforts to improve controls on pesticide exchange?

**Question 1**

What is one agency that is trying to help make the pesticide trade safer?

**Question 2**

What is one important thing that should be present when countries trade pesticides?

**Question 3**

Are these agencies compulsory in countries where they exist?

**Question 4**

What does London want to do about volunteering?

**Question 5**

How can we ensure that volunteers are aware of the laws on informed consent?

**Question 6**

What does London want to create for people who want to volunteer?

**Question 7**

How are these agencies involved in regulating volunteers?

**Question 8**

Where does the UN Code Alimentarius want to engage in voluntary regulation?

**Text number 21**

Pesticide safety training and regulation of pesticide distributors are intended to protect the public from pesticide misuse, but they do not eliminate all misuse. Reducing pesticide use and choosing less toxic pesticides can reduce the risks to society and the environment from pesticide use. Integrated pest management (IPM), the use of multiple approaches to control pests, is becoming increasingly common and has been used successfully in countries such as Indonesia, China, Bangladesh, the United States, Australia and Mexico. IPM seeks to identify the wider impacts of activities on the ecosystem so that the balance of nature is not upset. New pesticides are being developed, including biological and herbal derivatives and alternatives that are believed to reduce health and environmental risks. In addition, distributors are encouraged to consider alternative means of control and to adopt methods to reduce the use of chemical pesticides.

**Question 0**

What is one measure to protect society from the misuse of pesticides?

**Question 1**

What choices can pesticide users make to reduce risks?

**Question 2**

Which country has successfully used IPM?

**Question 3**

What are the positive effects of biological and herbal derivatives?

**Question 4**

Who has the choice to use less harmful pesticides?

**Question 5**

Which countries are still heavily using chemical pesticides?

**Question 6**

Which countries endanger the environment by frequent use of pesticides?

**Question 7**

What has pesticide safety training reduced in Australia?

**Question 8**

What are the two classifications of pests in an ecosystem?

**Question 9**

In which countries are ecosystems most at risk from pesticide misuse?

**Text number 22**

In the United States, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) is responsible for regulating pesticides under the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA) and the Food Quality Protection Act (FQPA). Studies must be conducted to determine the conditions under which the substance is safe for use and its effectiveness against the intended pest(s). EPA regulates pesticides to ensure that these products do not cause adverse effects to humans or the environment. Pesticides manufactured before November 1984 continue to be re-evaluated to meet current scientific and regulatory standards. All registered pesticides are reviewed every 15 years to ensure that they meet the relevant requirements. A label is created during the registration process. The label includes instructions for the proper use of the material and safety restrictions. Pesticides are classified into a toxicity class based on acute toxicity.

**Question 0**

What is the measure of pesticides used in EPA studies?

**Question 1**

Who is protected by EPA rules?

**Question 2**

Pesticides are frequently inspected to ensure that they meet up-to-date safety regulations.

**Question 3**

How often is the safety of newly produced pesticides evaluated?

**Question 4**

How can someone learn more about the safe use and handling of an unknown pesticide?

**Question 5**

In what year was the EPO founded?

**Question 6**

How many years did it take to enact the FIFRA law?

**Question 7**

How are foods classified under the FQPA of 1984?

**Question 8**

What will happen to foodstuffs in the toxicity category after 1984?

**Question 9**

Why have foods been re-evaluated since 1984?

**Text number 23**

Some pesticides are considered too dangerous to be sold to the general public and are classified as restricted use pesticides. Only certified applicators who have passed the test can purchase or control the application of restricted use pesticides. Sales and use records must be kept and can be checked by the authorities responsible for enforcing the pesticide regulations. These records must be made available to employees and to state or local environmental authorities.

**Question 0**

What is the name given to pesticides that are considered very dangerous?

**Question 1**

What justifies the use of restricted pesticides?

**Question 2**

The EPA or other groups that regulate the use of pesticides can inspect what?

**Question 3**

What are the regional capabilities of the agencies that regulate the environment?

**Question 4**

How are certain sales data named?

**Question 5**

What prevents some applicators from selling to the public?

**Question 6**

What do employees of government agencies have to pass in order to be hired?

**Question 7**

What is something that citizens do not want the government to do to their economy?

**Question 8**

What to keep from the sale of applicators?

**Text number 24**

People have been using pesticides to protect their crops since before 2000 BC. The first known pesticide was elemental sulphur dust, which was used by the ancient Sumerians around 4500 years ago in ancient Mesopotamia. In the Rig Veda, which is about 4 000 years old, the use of poisonous plants for pest control is mentioned. Towards the 15th century, toxic chemicals such as arsenic, mercury and lead were applied to crops to kill pests. In the 17th century, nicotine sulphate was extracted from tobacco leaves to be used as an insecticide. In the 19th century, two other natural pesticides were introduced: pyrethrum, from chrysanthemums, and rotenone, from the roots of tropical vegetables. Arsenic-based pesticides were dominant until the 1950s. Paul Müller discovered that DDT was a very effective insecticide. Organochlorine compounds such as DDT were predominant, but were replaced in the USA by organophosphates and carbamates by 1975. Since then, pyrethrins have become the dominant insecticide. Herbicides became widespread in the 1960s, led by 'triazine and other nitrogen-based compounds, carboxylic acids such as 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid, and glyphosate'.

**Question 0**

What are the earliest records of pesticides used by humans?

**Question 1**

What was used as an insecticide in the 1600s?

**Question 2**

In which decade did herbicides become common?

**Question 3**

Who can be credited with the usefulness of DDT as an insecticide?

**Question 4**

What is the exact source used to produce nicotine sulphate?

**Question 5**

Where was the Rig Veda written?

**Question 6**

What three toxic chemicals were used to kill pests before 2000 BC?

**Question 7**

What was extracted from tobacco in the 1400s as an insecticide?

**Question 8**

What natural pesticide was used in the 1600s?

**Question 9**

Where was pyrethrum extracted from in the 1600s?

**Text number 25**

The first federal legislation to regulate pesticides was passed in 1910, but decades later, in the 1940s, manufacturers began producing large quantities of synthetic pesticides and their use became widespread. According to some sources, the 1940s and 1950s marked the beginning of the 'pesticide era'. Although the US Environmental Protection Agency was established in 1970 and the Pesticide Act was amended in 1972, pesticide use has increased 50-fold since 1950, and today [when?] 2.3 million tonnes (2.5 million short tonnes) of industrial pesticides are used annually. Seventy-five percent of all pesticides in the world are used in developed countries, but use in developing countries is increasing. In 2003, the National Science Foundation's Center for Integrated Pest Management published a study on the evolution of pesticide use in the United States up to 1997.

**Question 0**

When were the laws regulating pesticides first created?

**Question 1**

What would someone with a knowledge of pesticide history call the 1940s and 1950s?

**Question 2**

When did America set up the Environmental Protection Agency?

**Question 3**

How much pesticide use by countries that are well established?

**Question 4**

Which countries have published trends in pesticide use?

**Question 5**

What were the laws passed in 1940 to regulate?

**Question 6**

What manufacturers were producing in large quantities in 1910?

**Question 7**

According to some sources, what year is 1910 considered to be the beginning of 1910?

**Question 8**

How much has the use of pesticides increased since 1910?

**Question 9**

How many pesticides were used in 1910?

**Document number 216**

**Text number 0**

Somerset is a rural county, with rolling hills such as the Blackdown Hills, Mendip Hills, Quantock Hills and Exmoor National Park, and extensive flat land such as the Somerset Levels. There is evidence of human settlement dating back to the Palaeolithic period and later settlement from Roman and Anglo-Saxon times. The county played a significant role in the establishment and rise to power of King Alfred the Great and later in the English Civil War and the Monmouth Rebellion. The city of Bath is famous for its remarkable Georgian architecture and is a UNESCO World Heritage Site.

**Question 0**

What type of region is Somerset

**Question 1**

What areas are in Somerset County

**Question 2**

How far back the county was settled

**Question 3**

Which kings' rise did the province take part in

**Question 4**

What the city of Bath is famous for

**Question 5**

In which county was the English Civil War mainly fought?

**Question 6**

In which county of England was King Alfred the Great born?

**Question 7**

What started the Monmouth Rebellion?

**Question 8**

Which county in England is urban and lowland?

**Question 9**

King Alfred the Great ruled what civilisation?

**Text number 1**

The inhabitants of Somerset are mentioned in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle entry of 845 AD under the inflected form "Sumursætum", and the county is mentioned in the entry of 1015 under the same name. The archaic name Somersetshire was mentioned in the Chronicle entry of 878. Although 'Somersetshire' was commonly used as an alternative name for the county, it went out of fashion in the late 19th century and is no longer used, probably because 'Somerset' was introduced as the official name of the county after the county council was established in 1889. As in other counties where the end of the county does not end in 'shire', the addition was unnecessary as there was no need to distinguish between the county and the town within it.

**Question 0**

What the Somerset people have mentioned in their book

**Question 1**

Which archaic name was mentioned in 878?

**Question 2**

When did the county stop using Somersetshire.

**Question 3**

What was unnecessary

**Question 4**

What year did people first settle in Somerset?

**Question 5**

In what year was the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle first published?

**Question 6**

What was the last year in which the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle was published?

**Question 7**

In what year did people stop using the term "Sumursaetum" for this province?

**Question 8**

When did it start to be called Somersetshire?

**Text number 2**

After the Romans left, Britain was invaded by Anglo-Saxon peoples. By 600 AD they had taken control of much of modern England, but Somerset was still under native British control. For a while longer the British continued to block the Saxons' advance south-west, but by the early eighth century King Ine of Wessex had pushed the boundaries of the West Saxon empire far enough west that Somerset was part of it. The Saxon royal palace at Cheddar was used several times in the 10th century to host Witenagemot. After the Norman Conquest, the county was divided into 700 counties, and the Crown owned vast areas, with forts such as Dunster Castle used for control and defence. Somerset is home to HM Prison Shepton Mallet, the oldest prison in England, which was still in use before its closure in 2013, having opened in 1610. In the English Civil War, Somerset was largely on the side of Parliament, with the siege of Taunton and the Battle of Langport being key battles. In 1685, the Monmouth Rebellion was fought in Somerset and neighbouring Dorset. The rebels landed in Lyme Regis and travelled north in the hope of capturing Bristol and Bath, but were defeated at the Battle of Sedgemoor in Westonzoyland, the last battle fought in England. Arthur Wellesley took the title of Duke of Wellington from the town of Wellington, and in his memory there is a large, illuminated obelisk on a nearby hill, known as the Wellington Memorial.

**Question 0**

Who invaded Britain when the Romans left

**Question 1**

How long did it take the Anglo-Saxons to control the Somerset region?

**Question 2**

What the Royal Palace of Saxony was used for

**Question 3**

What a jail includes in Somerset County

**Question 4**

What rebellion took place in Somerset in 1685?

**Question 5**

What year did the Romans leave Britain?

**Question 6**

In what year did King Ine of Wessex come to power?

**Question 7**

In which century did the Norman conquest take place?

**Question 8**

In what year did the siege of Taunton take place?

**Question 9**

Who led the troops against the rebels in the Monmouth Rebellion?

**Text number 3**

The industrial revolution in central and northern England spelled the end of the cottage industry for most of Somerset. Farming continued to flourish, however, and in 1777 the Bath and West of England Society for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures and Commerce was founded to improve farming methods. Nevertheless, 20 years later, in 1795, John Billingsley made a survey of the county's agriculture and concluded that agricultural methods could be further improved. Coal mining was an important industry in North Somerset in the 1700s and 1800s, and by 1800 it was significant in Radstock. The Somerset coalfield reached peak production in the 1920s, but all the mines have now closed, the last in 1973. Most of the surface buildings have been removed, and apart from a winding wheel in front of the Radstock Museum, little evidence remains of their former existence. Further west, iron ore was mined from the Brendon Hills in the late 19th century; the iron ore was transported along the West Somerset Mineral Railway to Watchet Harbour, where it was shipped to the furnaces at Ebbw Vale.

**Question 0**

What ended the cottage industry in Somersets

**Question 1**

What flourished in Somerset after the industrial revolution?

**Question 2**

Which industry was important in the late 17th and 19th centuries in North Somerset?

**Question 3**

What did the West Somerset mineral transport route carry?

**Question 4**

What year did coal mining start in Somerset?

**Question 5**

Who founded the Somerset coalfield?

**Question 6**

How was coal transported from the Somerset coalfield?

**Question 7**

What year did the Bath and West of England Society for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures and Commerce cease trading?

**Question 8**

In what year was the Somerset coalfield established?

**Text number 4**

Many Somerset soldiers died during the First World War, and the Somerset Light Infantry suffered nearly 5 000 casualties. War memorials were erected in most of the county's towns and villages; only nine of the villages called 'thankful' had no fallen residents. During the Second World War, the county was a base for troops preparing for the D-Day invasion. Some of the hospitals built for the victims of the war are still in use. The Taunton stop line was established to counter a possible German invasion. The remains of its bomb boxes can still be seen along the coast and to the south through Ilminster and Chard.

**Question 0**

How many Somerset soldiers died in the First World War?

**Question 1**

How many provinces had no casualties in the First World War?

**Question 2**

Where was the province a base in the Second World War?

**Question 3**

What is the Tauton stop line

**Question 4**

Which was one of the thankful villages?

**Question 5**

Which village suffered the most casualties in the First World War?

**Question 6**

How many Somerset soldiers died in total in the First World War?

**Question 7**

How many Somerset soldiers served in the Second World War?

**Question 8**

How many pillboxes can still be seen along the coast?

**Text number 5**

During the Second World War, several decoy towns were built in Somerset to protect Bristol and other cities at night. They were designed to mimic the geometry of the 'blacked out' streets, railway lines and Bristol Temple Meads railway station in order to lure bombers away from these targets. One was built at Beacon Batch, which was on the radio beam flight path to Bristol. It was designed by Shepperton Studios from aerial photographs of the city's railway yards. The decoys had dim red lights simulating operations such as steam locomotive burning. Burning straw bales soaked in creosote were used to simulate the effects of firebombs dropped by the first wave of Pathfinder night bombers, while firebombs dropped in the right place were quickly suppressed where possible. Oil drums were also lit to simulate the effect of a burning city to trick subsequent waves of bombers into dropping their bombs in the wrong place. The Chew Magna decoy town was hit by half a dozen bombs on 2 December 1940 and more than a thousand firebombs on 3 January 1941. The following night, the Uphill herd town protecting Weston-super-Mare airfield was bombed; a dairy herd was hit by a bomb that killed some cows and seriously wounded others.

**Question 0**

Why diversionary cities were used in World War II

**Question 1**

What the diversionary cities imitated

**Question 2**

Who set up the Beacon Batch

**Question 3**

Which decoy town was hit

**Question 4**

How many times was the decoy town of Uphill bombed on 4 January 1942?

**Question 5**

Who founded the Chew Magna decoy town?

**Question 6**

How many dairy cows died when the decoy town of Uphill was bombed?

**Question 7**

Who created the Uphill Decoy Town?

**Question 8**

Where did the Pathfinder bombers usually go to bomb Somerset?

**Text number 6**

The boundaries of Somerset are largely unchanged since the Middle Ages. The River Avon formed most of the boundary with Gloucestershire, except that the hundred or so districts of Bath Forum on the River Avon were part of Somerset. Bristol began as a town on the Gloucestershire side of the River Avon, but as it grew it expanded across the river into Somerset. In 1373, Edward III declared that 'the city of Bristol with its suburbs and districts shall henceforth be separated from the counties of Gloucester and Somerset... and that it should be a county in its own right'.

**Question 0**

How long have Somerset's borders remained unchanged?

**Question 1**

Which river forms the border of Somerset

**Question 2**

What King Edward 3 did

**Question 3**

In what year was Somerset founded?

**Question 4**

In which county was Edward III born?

**Question 5**

Which county is east of Somerset?

**Question 6**

In what year did Edward III begin his reign?

**Question 7**

Is Bristol larger on the Gloucester or Somerset side of the River Avon?

**Text number 7**

Somerton took over Ilchester's status as a county town in the late 1300s, but its importance declined and the county town status passed to Taunton around 1366. The county has two cities, Bath and Wells, and 30 towns (including the county town of Taunton, which has no town council but is the capital of the only district in the county). The most populous urban areas are Bath, Weston-super-Mare, Taunton, Yeovil and Bridgwater. Many settlements have developed because of their strategic importance in relation to geographical features such as river crossings or hill valleys. Examples include Axbridge on the River Axe, Castle Cary on the River Cary, North Petherton on the River Parrett and Ilminster, which had a crossing point on the River Isle. Midsomer Norton is on the River Somer, and Radstock is crossed by Wellow Brook and the Roman Fosse Way. Chard is the southernmost town in Somerset, and at 121 metres (121 m) it is also the highest.

**Question 0**

When Somerton replaced Ilchester as the county town station.

**Question 1**

How many cities and towns in Somerset

**Question 2**

The largest populations in the province

**Question 3**

What was the strategic purpose of settling this area -

**Question 4**

The southernmost town in Somerset

**Question 5**

In what year was Taunton founded?

**Question 6**

What is the average altitude of Taunton?

**Question 7**

What is the largest urban area in Somerton?

**Question 8**

What is the northernmost town in Somerset?

**Question 9**

What is the average height above sea level in Axbridge?

**Text number 8**

The Mendip Hills to the north-east of the Somerset Levels are moderately high limestone hills. The central and western parts of the Mendip Hills were designated as an Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty in 1972 and cover 198 km2 . The main habitat type of these hills is limestone grassland with some arable cultivation. To the south-west of the Somerset Levels are the Quantock Hills, which were designated as England's first Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty in 1956. The area covers 99 square kilometres and contains heathland, oak woodland, ancient parkland and conifer plantations. The Somerset coalfield is part of a wider coalfield that extends into Gloucestershire. To the north of the Mendip Hills is the Chew Valley, and to the south on the clay floor are extensive valleys which support dairy production and drain into the Somerset Levels.

**Question 0**

Which area is located in the north-east of Somerset levels

**Question 1**

Which area has been designated as an area of outstanding natural beauty

**Question 2**

What is the name of the coalfield

**Question 3**

In which region is milk production supported

**Question 4**

How large is the Somerset coalfield?

**Question 5**

How big is the Chew Valley?

**Question 6**

What lies to the north-west of the Somerset Plains?

**Question 7**

What is east of the Mendip Hills?

**Question 8**

What types of trees are found in the Chew Valley?

**Text number 9**

The area has an extensive network of caves such as Wookey Hole, underground rivers and gorges such as Cheddar Gorge and Ebbor Gorge. The county has many rivers, including the Axe, Brue, Cary, Parrett, Sheppey, Tone and Yeo. These both feed and drain the plains and moorland of central and western Somerset. In the northern part of the county, the River Chew flows into the River Bristol Avon. The Parrett is tidal almost as far as Langport, where there is evidence of two Roman wharves. At the same location, in the reign of King Charles I, river tolls were levied on boats to fund the maintenance of the bridge.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the cave system...

**Question 1**

Name 2 gorges in the province

**Question 2**

Name some rivers in the province

**Question 3**

What did King Charles inherit from the riverboats?

**Question 4**

Where does the River Kirves flow?

**Question 5**

Which is bigger, Cheddar Gorge or Ebbor Gorge?

**Question 6**

What is the northernmost river in Somerset?

**Question 7**

What is the name of an underground river in Somerset?

**Question 8**

What is the westernmost river in Somerset?

**Text number 10**

The Somerset Levels (or Somerset Levels and Moors, as they are less commonly but more correctly known) are a sparsely populated wetland area in central Somerset between the Quantock and Mendip hills. They consist of coastal maritime clay flats and inland (often peat-based) marshes. The Polden Hills divide the plateaux in two; land to the south is drained by the River Parrett, while land to the north is drained by the Rivers Axe and Brue. The Levels have a total area of approximately 647,5 square kilometres (160 000 acres) and correspond largely to Sedgemoor District, but also include the south-western part of Mendip County. Approximately 70 percent of the area is pasture and 30 percent is cropland. This flat area of land extends some 32 km inland and barely rises above sea level. Before drainage, much of the area was under a shallow brackish sea in winter and marshy in summer. Drainage began in Roman times and was resumed at various times: by the Anglo-Saxons, in the Middle Ages by Glastonbury Abbey between 1400 and 1770, and during the Second World War by the construction of the Huntspill River. Pumping and water level control continue today.

**Question 0**

What are the levels of Somerset

**Question 1**

what the Somerset levels consist of

**Question 2**

what are the 2 parts of the Somerset levels?

**Question 3**

What is the total area of the levels?

**Question 4**

which started the process of draining the Somerset levels.

**Question 5**

How many people live in the sparsely populated Somerset Plains?

**Question 6**

What is the total area of Polden Hills?

**Question 7**

How tall is Polden Hills?

**Question 8**

What's on the east side of the Somerset Plain?

**Question 9**

How long is the River Brue?

**Text number 11**

The main coastal towns from west to north-east are Minehead, Watchet, Burnham-on-Sea, Weston-super-Mare, Clevedon and Portishead. The coastal area between Minehead and the easternmost tip of the Brean Down coast is known as Bridgwater Bay and is a National Nature Reserve. To the north of it, the coastline forms Weston Bay and Sand Bay, the northern tip of which, Sand Point, forms the lower limit of the Severn Estuary. In the central and northern parts of the county, the coastline is shallow where the wetlands of the lowlands meet the sea. In the west, the coastline is high and dramatic where the Exmoor Plain meets the sea, with high cliffs and waterfalls.

**Question 0**

What are the main coastal cities

**Question 1**

what is the name of the nature reserve

**Question 2**

what the west coast looks like

**Question 3**

What is east of Weston Bay?

**Question 4**

What is the largest coastal city?

**Question 5**

What is the smallest coastal capital?

**Question 6**

What lies between Burnham-on-Sea and Weston-super-Mare?

**Question 7**

What is the upper limit of the Severn estuary?

**Text number 12**

Like other parts of south-west England, Somerset has a temperate climate, which is generally wetter and milder than the rest of the country. The average annual temperature is around 10 °C (50.0 °F) and seasonal variations in temperature are less extreme than in most of the UK due to the close proximity of sea temperatures. The summer months of July and August are the warmest, with an average daily maximum temperature of around 21 °C (69.8 °F). In winter, average minimum temperatures are often 1 °C or 2 °C. Winter temperatures are usually 1 °C (3 °F) or 2 °C (3 °F). In summer, the high pressure of the Azores affects the south-west of England, but convective clouds sometimes form inland, reducing the amount of sunshine. Annual sunshine is slightly below the regional average of 1 600 hours. In December 1998, Yeovilton had 20 days without sunshine. Most of the rainfall in the south-west is due to the Atlantic lowlands or convection. Most of the autumn and winter rainfall is caused by the Atlantic depressions, which are the most active at that time. In summer, much of the rainfall is caused by the sun warming the surface, leading to convection and showers and thunderstorms. The average rainfall is around 700 mm. Snow typically falls on around 8-15 days. On average, the winds are highest from November to March and lowest from June to August. The prevailing wind direction is from the south-west.

**Question 0**

What is the climate like in Somerset

**Question 1**

Annual amount of sunshine in Somerset

**Question 2**

How many snow days on average

**Question 3**

Average rainfall in Somerset

**Question 4**

What is the average annual temperature?

**Question 5**

What is the average daily maximum temperature in May?

**Question 6**

How much snow falls in a normal year?

**Question 7**

What is the average minimum temperature in November?

**Question 8**

Which province in England is drier than the rest of the country?

**Text number 13**

Bridgwater became the leading port in the region during the Industrial Revolution. Large ships could sail on the River Parrett all the way to Bridgwater. Cargoes were loaded onto smaller vessels at Langport Pier, next to Bridgwater Bridge, and transported further up the river to Langport; or they could turn around at Burrowbridge and travel via the River Tone to Taunton. The Parrett is now only navigable as far as Dunball Wharf. Bridgwater was a centre for the manufacture of bricks and clay roof tiles and later cellophane in the 19th and 20th centuries, but these industries have now ceased. Bridgwater is well connected to the motorway network and has developed into a distribution centre for companies such as Argos, Toolstation, Morrisons and Gerber Juice. AgustaWestland manufactures helicopters in Yeovil, and Normalair Garratt, which builds aircraft oxygen systems, is also based in the town. Many towns have fostered small-scale light industry, such as Crewkerne's Ariel Motor Company, one of the UK's smallest car manufacturers.

**Question 0**

What is the leading port in Somerset

**Question 1**

what was made in Bridgeport in the 19th and 20th centuries.

**Question 2**

A good engine system can currently

**Question 3**

where aircraft are manufactured

**Question 4**

What many cities encourage

**Question 5**

Which company uses Langport as a distribution centre?

**Question 6**

In which city is Crewkernen Ariel Motor Company located?

**Question 7**

What was the leading port in this region before the industrial revolution?

**Question 8**

What is one of the largest car manufacturers in the UK?

**Question 9**

Which large company is based in Taunton?

**Text number 14**

Somerset is a major supplier of defence equipment and technology. The Royal Ordnance Factory, ROF Bridgwater was built between the villages of Puriton and Woolavington at the beginning of the Second World War to manufacture explosives. The factory was decommissioned and closed in July 2008. Templecombe is home to Thales Underwater Systems, and Taunton is currently home to the UK Hydrographic Office and Avimo, which became part of Thales Optics. On two occasions, in 2006 and 2007, it was announced that production at Thales Optics' Taunton site would cease, but the unions and Taunton Deane District Council sought to reverse or mitigate these decisions. Other high-tech companies include Ilminster-based opticians Gooch and Housego, while Bath is home to Ministry of Defence offices and Norton Fitzwarren is home to 40 Commando of the Royal Marines. The Royal Naval Air Station at Yeovilton is one of the UK's two active Fleet Air Arm bases, home to Royal Navy Lynx helicopters and the Royal Marines Commando Westland Sea Kings air squadron. Yeovilton employs around 1,675 military personnel and 2,000 civilian staff, with key activities including the training of aircrew and engineers and Royal Navy fighter pilots and surface pilots.

**Question 0**

What is Somerset, an important supplier

**Question 1**

What type of factory was built in Somerset?

**Question 2**

What other high-tech industries are there in Somerset?

**Question 3**

Which area is home to the Royal Marines

**Question 4**

What's happening in yeovilton

**Question 5**

When was Thales Underwater Systems founded?

**Question 6**

In what year did Avimo become part of Thales Optics?

**Question 7**

What is one of the high-tech companies headquartered in Yeovilton?

**Question 8**

Which technology company can you find in Norton Fitzwarren?

**Question 9**

In what year was Gooch founded?

**Text number 15**

Agriculture and food and drink production remain the main industries in the province, employing more than 15 000 people. Apple orchards were once abundant and Somerset remains a major producer of cider. The towns of Taunton and Shepton Mallet produce cider, particularly Blackthorn Cider, which is sold throughout the country, as well as specialist producers such as Burrow Hill Cider Farm and Thatchers Cider. The Gerber Products Company in Bridgwater is the largest producer of fruit juices in Europe, producing brands such as Sunny Delight and Ocean Spray. The development of dairy-based industries such as Ilchester Cheese Company and Yeo Valley Organic has led to the production of desserts, yoghurts and cheeses, including Cheddar cheese, some of which has the West Country Farmhouse Cheddar Protected Designation of Origin (PDO).

**Question 0**

What is the sector in which 15,000 people work in Couinty?

**Question 1**

What kind of orchids used to be abundant...

**Question 2**

Which region is important for the fruit juice industry

**Question 3**

Which region is PDO

**Question 4**

How many people work in apple orchards?

**Question 5**

In which city is Yeo Valley Organic located?

**Question 6**

Where is Ilchester Cheese Company cheese sold?

**Question 7**

Which company is the largest cheese producer in the UK?

**Question 8**

Which Somerset cheeses have been awarded the West Country Farmhouse Cheddar Protected Designation of Origin?

**Text number 16**

Traditional willow growing and weaving (such as basket weaving) is no longer as widespread as it once was, but it is still practised in the Somerset Levels and commemorated in the Willows and Wetlands Visitor Centre. Fragments of willow bark have been found near Glastonbury Lake Village, and willow was also used in the construction of several Iron Age bridges. Willow was harvested by the traditional method of cutting the tree to the main trunk. In the 1930s, over 3 600 hectares of willow were grown commercially on the plains. As plastic bags and cardboard boxes replaced the baskets, willow cultivation has declined since the 1950s. In the late 20th century, willow was grown commercially on only about 140 hectares near the villages of Burrowbridge, Westonzoyland and North Curry. The Somerset Levels is now the only area in the UK where willow is grown commercially.

**Question 0**

Where the willow grows is still being practised

**Question 1**

What is pollination

**Question 2**

What plastic bags caused

**Question 3**

Somerset is the only area where it is possible to grow commercially what

**Question 4**

In what decade was the Willows and Wetlands Visitor Centre established?

**Question 5**

How many hectares were under commercial willow cultivation in the 1950s?

**Question 6**

In which village is the most willow grown commercially today?

**Question 7**

What are willow trees most often used for nowadays?

**Question 8**

In which decade was Glastonbury Lake Village abandoned?

**Text number 17**

Towns like Castle Cary and Frome grew up around the medieval weaving industry. Street developed into a centre for the production of woollen slippers and later boots and shoes, and C. & J. Clark established its headquarters in the town. C&J Clark's shoes are no longer made there, as work was relocated to low-wage areas such as China and Asia. Instead, in 1993, redundant factory buildings were converted into Clarks Village, the first purpose-built factory outlet in the UK. C&J Clark also had shoe factories in Bridgwater, Minehead, Westfield and Weston super Marine to provide jobs outside the summer tourist season, but these satellite factories closed in the late 1980s before the Street headquarters. The Northampton-based R. Griggs Group also manufactured Dr. Martens shoes in Somerset using skilled shoemakers made redundant from C&J Clark; this work has also been relocated to Asia.

**Question 0**

What cities grew up around the weaving industry

**Question 1**

Why did C.J. Clark Shoes leave the area...

**Question 2**

Which famous shoe brand is made in Somerset?

**Question 3**

When did C.&J. Clark cease trading in Somerset?

**Question 4**

When were Dr. Martens shoes no longer made in Somerset?

**Question 5**

What was the second purpose-built factory outlet in the UK?

**Question 6**

Which village outside Street was the first to have one of C.&J. Clark's satellite sites?

**Text number 18**

The province has a long tradition of supplying freestone and building stone. Doulting Quarries supplied the freestone used in the construction of Wells Cathedral. Bath stone is also widely used. Ralph Allen promoted its use in the early 1700s, as did Hans Price in the 1800s, but it was used long before that. The stone was quarried underground at Combe Down and Bathampton Down and as a result of the Box Tunnel quarrying at places like Box in Wiltshire. Bath stone is still used today on a smaller scale, but more often as a cladding material than as a building material. Further south, Hamstone is the colloquial name for the stone from Ham Hill, which is also widely used in the building industry. Blue Lias stone has been used locally as building stone and as a raw material for lime mortar and Portland cement. Until the 1960s, Puriton had Blue Lias quarries, as did several other villages in Polden. Its quarries also supplied the cement works at Dunball, next to King's Sedgemoor Drain. Its early 20th century derelict remains were removed when the M5 motorway was built in the mid-1970s. The county has been supplying aggregates since the 1920s. Foster Yeoman is Europe's largest supplier of limestone aggregate, with quarries at Merehead Quarry. It has its own rail operation, Mendip Rail, which is used to transport aggregate by rail from the Mendip quarries.

**Question 0**

What type of stone was supplied in the province

**Question 1**

Who promoted the use of stone from the Bath area?

**Question 2**

What are the uses of Blue Lias

**Question 3**

What has the province delivered since the 1920s?

**Question 4**

In which century was Wells Cathedral built?

**Question 5**

Where is Blue Lias now mined?

**Question 6**

In which decade was Mendip Rail built?

**Question 7**

In which village is Foster Yeoman's head office located?

**Question 8**

What are aggregates used for?

**Text number 19**

Tourism is an important economic activity, estimated in 2001 to support around 23 000 people. Attractions include the coastal towns, part of Exmoor National Park, the West Somerset Railway and the RNAS Naval Air Museum in Yeovilton. The town of Glastonbury has mythical associations, including legends of the visit of the young Jesus of Nazareth and Joseph of Arimathea, and is associated with the Holy Grail, King Arthur and Camelot, which some have identified as Cadbury Castle, an Iron Age hill fort. Glastonbury also gives its name to the annual rock festival in nearby Pilton. Cheddar Gorge has caves open to visitors and also has locally produced cheese, although there is only one remaining cheese maker in the village of Cheddar.

**Question 0**

Tourism supports how many people in the province

**Question 1**

Some of the attractions in the province include

**Question 2**

What Glastonbury is about

**Question 3**

What is Glastonbury famous for?

**Question 4**

Which type of cheese is the province famous for?

**Question 5**

How many people visit Exmoor National Park each month?

**Question 6**

What year was the first annual rock festival held near Pilton?

**Question 7**

How many people attend the annual rock festival near Pilton?

**Question 8**

How many people visit the Naval Air Museum each month?

**Question 9**

In what year was the Fleet Air Arm Museum founded?

**Text number 20**

Hinkley Point C is a project to build a 3 200 MW two-reactor nuclear power plant. On 18 October 2010, the UK Government announced that Hinkley Point - the site of the now decommissioned Hinkley Point A and still operating Hinkley Point B power stations - is one of eight sites it considers suitable for future nuclear power stations. On 31 October 2011, EDF's subsidiary NNB Generation Company submitted an application for a licence to the Infrastructure Planning Committee. The Stop Hinkley protest group was set up to campaign for the closure of Hinkley Point B and to oppose the expansion of Hinkley Point. In December 2013, the European Commission opened an investigation to assess whether the project violates state aid rules. On 8 October 2014, it was announced that the European Commission had approved the project by an overwhelming majority, with only four Commissioners voting against the decision.

**Question 0**

What is Hinkley point C

**Question 1**

What was Stop Hinkley

**Question 2**

What the European Commission looked at

**Question 3**

How the Commission vote went

**Question 4**

How efficient was the Hinkley Point A nuclear power plant?

**Question 5**

How many Commissioners are there in the European Commission?

**Question 6**

How efficient is the Hinkley Point B nuclear power plant?

**Question 7**

In what year was the construction of Hinkley Point B completed?

**Question 8**

What year was Hinkley Point A closed?

**Text number 21**

Population growth is above the national average: in Somerset County, the population has increased by 6.4% since 1991 and 17% since 1981. The population density is 1.4 persons per hectare, which is comparable to 2.07 persons per hectare in South West Finland. Within the county, population densities range from 0.5 persons per hectare in West Somerset to 2.2 persons per hectare in Taunton Deane. The proportion of economically active population is higher than the regional and national averages and the unemployment rate is lower than the regional and national averages.

**Question 0**

What is the population growth rate in Somerset County?

**Question 1**

Unemployment rate in the province

**Question 2**

What percentage of the population is economically active

**Question 3**

What is the average population growth of the country since 1991?

**Question 4**

How much has the UK population grown since 1981?

**Question 5**

What is the UK national unemployment rate?

**Question 6**

How many people per hectare live in the UK on average?

**Question 7**

How many people per hectare live in the UK's least populated county?

**Text number 22**

Somerset has a large British primary population, 98.8% of whom are registered as White British and 92.4% of whom were born in the UK. Chinese are the largest ethnic group, with black ethnic minorities accounting for 2.9% of the total population. Over 25% of Somerset's population is concentrated in Taunton, Bridgwater and Yeovil. The rest of the county is rural and sparsely populated. More than 9 million tourists stay overnight in Somerset each year, which adds significantly to the population at peak times.

**Question 0**

What proportion of the population is of indigenous origin?

**Question 1**

The largest ethnic group in Somerset County is

**Question 2**

Tauton Bridgewater and Yeovil are what population centres.

**Question 3**

How many overnight stays are spent in Somerset as tourists?

**Question 4**

What is the proportion of Chinese in Somerset?

**Question 5**

How many people live in Somerset?

**Question 6**

What is the most populous town in Somerset?

**Question 7**

What proportion of Somerset residents live in Taunton?

**Question 8**

What proportion of the Chinese ethnic group lives in rural Somerset?

**Text number 23**

The Somerset ceremonial county consists of a two-tier non-metropolitan county, governed by Somerset County Council and five district councils, and two unitary authority areas (whose councils combine county and district functions). Somerset's five counties are West Somerset, South Somerset, Taunton Deane, Mendip and Sedgemoor. The two unitary authorities created on 1 April 1996 following the dissolution of the short-lived Avon County Council are North Somerset and Bath & North East Somerset.

**Question 0**

How many levels are there in Somerset County?

**Question 1**

What are the 5 areas of Somerset?

**Question 2**

What 2 The Single Authority was set up in April 1996.

**Question 3**

How many years did Avon County exist?

**Question 4**

What was the capital of Avon County?

**Question 5**

How many districts in Avon County were formed?

**Question 6**

What kind of county was Avon?

**Question 7**

How many levels of government did the county of Avon have?

**Text number 24**

The Avon and Somerset Constabulary, which is under the police force and also covers Bristol and South Gloucestershire, covers the whole county of Somerset. The Devon and Somerset Fire and Rescue Service was formed in 2007 when Somerset Fire and Rescue Service and its neighbour Devon Fire and Rescue Service merged, covering County Somerset and the whole of County Devon. The counties of North Somerset and Bath & North East Somerset are now covered by the Avon Fire and Rescue Service, which also covers Bristol and South Gloucestershire. South Western Ambulance Service covers the whole of south-west England, including the whole of Somerset; prior to February 2013, the Somerset unitary counties were part of the Great Western Ambulance Service, which merged with South Western. Dorset and Somerset Air Ambulance is a charity operating in the county.

**Question 0**

Which police force covers the ceremonial county

**Question 1**

Which fire/rescue unit was formed in 2007?

**Question 2**

What area does the South Western Ambulance Service cover?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the charity's air ambulance service?

**Question 4**

In what year was the South Western Ambulance Service founded?

**Question 5**

In what year was the Avon and Somerset Constabulary founded?

**Question 6**

What kind of organisation is Great Western Ambulance Service?

**Question 7**

Which ambulance service covers the North West of England?

**Question 8**

In what year was the Dorset and Somerset Air Ambulance Association set up?

**Text number 25**

The Glastonbury Festival of Contemporary Performing Arts is held most years in Pilton, near Shepton Mallet, and attracts over 170,000 music and culture lovers from around the world to see world-renowned performers. The Big Green Gathering, based on the green fields of Glastonbury, takes place every summer in the Mendip Hills between Charterhouse and Compton Martin. The annual Bath Literary Festival is one of several local festivals in the county, others include the Frome Festival and the Trowbridge Village Pump Festival, which despite its name is held in Farleigh Hungerford in Somerset. The West Country Carnivals, held annually in the autumn in several Somerset towns, is a major regional festival and the largest light festival in Europe.

**Question 0**

Where is the Glastonbury Music Festival?

**Question 1**

which organises a literary festival every summer

**Question 2**

The annual carnival takes place when and where

**Question 3**

How many people attend the Bath Literature Festival each year?

**Question 4**

How many people live in Pilton?

**Question 5**

What is the biggest annual music festival in Europe?

**Question 6**

Which festival takes place in Trowbridge?

**Question 7**

How many people attend the Festival of Lights each year?

**Text number 26**

In Arthurian legend, Avalon was linked to Glastonbury Tor when monks at Glastonbury Abbey claimed to have found the bones of King Arthur and his queen. Most certainly, Glastonbury was an important religious centre by the 700s, claiming to be 'the world's oldest Christian church on earth', located in the 'mystical land of Avalon'. This claim is based on the fact that the monastic community dates back to 63 AD. The monk monastery is said to have been founded in 63 63 AD, when Joseph of Arimathea legendarily visited it and was supposed to have brought the Holy Grail. Woodspring Priory and Muchelney Abbey were also important religious sites in the Middle Ages. The present Diocese of Bath and Wells covers Somerset - with the exception of the parish of Abbots Leigh and Leigh Woods in North Somerset - and a small area in Dorset. The Bishop of Bath and Wells currently holds his episcopal see in St Andrew's Cathedral Church in the town of Wells, having previously been in Bath Abbey. It was a Roman Catholic diocese before the English Reformation; the county is now part of the Roman Catholic Diocese of Clifton. The Benedictine monastery of Saint Gregory's Abbey, commonly known as Downside Abbey, is in Stratton-on-the-Fosse, and the ruins of the former Sisterhood monastery of Cleeve Abbey are near the village of Washford.

**Question 0**

What does the Arthurian legend say about Glastonbury?

**Question 1**

What has been built in Avalon

**Question 2**

The bishop's see is now where the bishop is.

**Question 3**

Where is St Greggorys Monastery

**Question 4**

What year was Glastonbury Abbey built?

**Question 5**

What year was Muchelney Abbey built?

**Question 6**

Where was Woodspring Priory?

**Question 7**

Where was Muchelney Abbey located?

**Question 8**

In what year was St Gregory's Monastery built?

**Text number 27**

Bath has several museums, including the American Museum in Britain, the Bath Museum of Architecture, the Herschel Museum of Astronomy, the Jane Austen Centre and the Roman Baths. Other places to visit that reflect the county's heritage include Claverton Pumping Station, Dunster Working Water Mill, Yeovilton Air Force Museum, Nunney Castle, Weston-super-Mare Helicopter Museum, King John's Hunting Lodge in Axbridge, Blake Museum in Bridgwater, Radstock Museum, Museum of Somerset in Taunton, Somerset Rural Museum in Glastonbury and Westonzoyland Pumping Station Museum.

**Question 0**

What some of Bath's museums

**Question 1**

What other attractions

**Question 2**

Where is Somerset Museum

**Question 3**

What is the name of Glastonbury Museum?

**Question 4**

What is the largest museum in Somerset?

**Question 5**

What is the smallest museum in Somerset?

**Question 6**

What is the most popular museum in Somerset?

**Question 7**

Which museum in Somerset has the most valuable collection?

**Question 8**

Which museum in Somerset has the largest collection?

**Text number 28**

Somerset has 11 500 listed buildings, 523 scheduled monuments, 192 conservation areas, 41 parks and gardens including Barrington Court, Holnicote Estate, Prior Park Landscape Garden and Tintinhull Garden, 36 English Heritage sites and 19 National Trust sites including Clevedon Court, Fyne Court, Montacute House and Tyntesfield, and Stembridge Tower Mill, the last remaining windmill in England. Other historic houses in the county which remain in private ownership or are used for other purposes include Halswell House and Marston Bigot. A key feature of Somerset's architecture is its medieval church towers. Jenkins writes: "These structures, with their colonnades, bell-vaulted ceilings and crowns, are, along with the Nottinghamshire alabaster, England's finest contribution to medieval art." Jenkins writes that "these structures are, along with the Nottinghamshire alabaster, England's finest contribution to medieval art".

**Question 0**

How many listed buildings are there in Somerset

**Question 1**

How many monuments in Somerset

**Question 2**

What is the key architectural style in Somerset?

**Question 3**

Name some of the county's historic detached houses

**Question 4**

What is the most popular park and garden in Somerset?

**Question 5**

What is the largest part of Somerset?

**Question 6**

What is the most popular National Trust site in Somerset?

**Question 7**

What is the largest National Trust area in Somerset?

**Question 8**

What is the most valuable National Trust site in Somerset?

**Text number 29**

Bath Rugby play at the Recreation Ground in Bath, and Somerset County Cricket Club play at the County Ground in Taunton. The county got its first football league club in 2003, when Yeovil Town were promoted to the third division as Football Conference champions. The team had achieved numerous FA Cup wins among Football League teams over the last 50 years, and since joining the elite, won promotion again as League Two champions in 2005. They came close to a second promotion in 2007 when they reached the League One play-off final but lost to Blackpool at the newly reopened Wembley Stadium. Yeovil were promoted to the Championship in 2013 after beating Brentford in the play-off final. The racecourses are located in Taunton and Wincanton.

**Question 0**

Where the rugby team plays

**Question 1**

The province's first football team is

**Question 2**

When did Yeovil get promoted to the Champions League?

**Question 3**

Where the races take place

**Question 4**

What year did Blackpool acquire the Football League club?

**Question 5**

What year did horse racing start in Wincanton?

**Question 6**

In what year was Bath Recreation Ground established?

**Question 7**

What is one of the teams that Yeovil Town have beaten to win the FA Cup?

**Question 8**

Who did Yeovil Town beat in the 2005 Championship?

**Text number 30**

The Somerset Coal Canal was built in the early 19th century to reduce the cost of transporting coal and other heavy products. The first 16 kilometres (10 miles), running from the junction of the Kennet and Avon Canal along the Cam Valley to the main reservoir at Paulton, were in use by 1805 and were linked by a series of tramways. The planned 7.3 mi (11.7 km) branch to Midford was never built, but in 1815 a tramway was constructed along its towpath. In 1871 the tramway was acquired by the Somerset and Dorset Joint Railway (S&DJR) and operated until the 1950s.

**Question 0**

Why the Somerset County Canal was built

**Question 1**

What was used along the canal

**Question 2**

What was never built

**Question 3**

What has been put in the way of Midford

**Question 4**

Who bought the tramway in 1871

**Question 5**

Who built the Somerset Coal Canal?

**Question 6**

In what year was a branch planned for Midford?

**Question 7**

In which year were several tramways completed?

**Question 8**

In what year was Paulton founded?

**Text number 31**

The usefulness of the canals was short-lived, although some have now been restored for recreational use. In the 19th century, railways were also built to and through Somerset. Before 1923, the county was served by five railway companies: the Great Western Railway (GWR), a branch of the Midland Railway (MR) to Bath Green Park (and another to Bristol), the Somerset and Dorset Joint Railway and the London and South Western Railway (L&SWR). The former main lines of the GWR are still in use, although many of its branches were scrapped by the infamous Beeching Axe. The Somerset and Dorset Joint Railway's former lines were completely closed, as was the Midland Railway's branch to Bath Green Park (and Bristol St Philips); however, the L&SWR's line remained as part of the existing West of England Main Line. None of these lines in Somerset have been electrified. Two branch lines, the West and East Somerset Railways, were saved and transferred back into private ownership as 'heritage' lines. The fifth railway was a short-lived light railway, the Weston, Clevedon and Portishead Light Railway. The West Somerset Mineral Railway carried iron ore from Brendon Hills to Watchet.

**Question 0**

How long the channels were used

**Question 1**

What was built in the 19th century

**Question 2**

How many railways served the county

**Question 3**

Were the railways electrified?

**Question 4**

Which railway lines are still in use

**Question 5**

Where does the Great Western Railway go from Somerset?

**Question 6**

What year was Beeching's axe?

**Question 7**

What year was the Dorset Joint Railway closed?

**Question 8**

Which of these lines are electrified outside Somerset?

**Question 9**

Who now owns the West Somerset Railway?

**Text number 32**

The Weston-super-Mare, Clevedon, Portishead and Minehead piers were served until the 1960s by the P and A Campbell paddle steamers, which operated regular services to Barry and Cardiff, Ilfracombe and Lundy Island. The Burnham-on-Sea pier was used for the transport of goods and one of the reasons for establishing a joint Somerset/Dorset railway was to provide a link between the Bristol Channel and the English Channel. Burnham-on-Sea Pier is the shortest pier in the UK. Royal Portbury Dock was built in the 1970s to provide additional capacity for the Port of Bristol.

**Question 0**

What were paddle boats used for until the 1960s?

**Question 1**

What was the Burnham on-sea pier used for?

**Question 2**

What is the shortest pier in the UK?

**Question 3**

What was built in the 1970s

**Question 4**

Which dock in Somerset could accommodate the largest vessels?

**Question 5**

What were Barry's piers primarily used for?

**Question 6**

What is the longest pier in Somerset?

**Question 7**

In which decade was the pier on Lundy Island built?

**Question 8**

In which decade was Portishead Pier closed?

**Text number 33**

Somerset County Schools are governed by three local education authorities - Bath and North East Somerset, North Somerset and the wider Somerset County Council. All state schools are primary schools. In some areas, primary, junior and secondary schools serve pupils from four to eleven years of age, after which pupils move on to secondary schools. Cheddar Valley and West Somerset have a three-tier system of primary, middle and upper schools, while most other schools in the county use a two-tier system. Somerset has 30 state schools and 17 independent secondary schools; Bath and North East Somerset has 13 state schools and 5 independent secondary schools; and North Somerset has 10 state schools and 2 independent secondary schools, excluding grammar schools.

**Question 0**

What are the Somerset State Schools

**Question 1**

What are the 3 levels of school

**Question 2**

How many state schools and independent secondary schools are there in Somerset?

**Question 3**

What is the average class size in Somerset independent secondary schools?

**Question 4**

What is the average class size in Somerset State High Schools?

**Question 5**

How many schools are there in Cheddar Valley?

**Question 6**

How many state secondary schools are there in Bath?

**Question 7**

How many private secondary schools are there in North Somerset?

**Text number 34**

Some secondary schools in the province have special school status. Some schools have a sixth grade, and others transfer sixth graders to colleges. Several schools, such as The Blue School in Wells and Richard Huish College in Taunton, were established years ago. Others have changed their names over the years, such as Beechen Cliff School, which was founded in 1905 as the City of Bath Boys' School and changed to its current name in 1972 when the secondary school was merged with the local grammar school to form a primary school. After the Second World War, many other schools were established and built. In 2006, 5 900 pupils took GCSEs in Somerset, 44.5% of whom achieved 5 grades A-C, including English and mathematics (compared to 45.8% in England).

**Question 0**

Which schools have been founded

**Question 1**

What was the original name of Beechen Cliff School?

**Question 2**

How well did Somerset pupils do in 2006 compared to England as a whole?

**Question 3**

In what year was the Blue School founded?

**Question 4**

What year did Richard Huish College open its doors?

**Question 5**

What percentage of students at The Blue School receive 5 grades A-C?

**Question 6**

What 5 grades A-C do they get at City of Bath Boys' School?

**Question 7**

How many students attend Richard Huish College?

**Text number 35**

There are also several independent or public schools. Many of these are for pupils aged 11-18, such as King's College, Taunton and Taunton School. King's School, Bruton, was founded in 1519 and became a royal foundation some 30 years later under Edward VI. Millfield is the largest co-educational boarding school. There are also preparatory schools for younger children, such as All Hallows and Hazlegrove Preparatory School. Chilton Cantelo School offers places for both day and boarding pupils aged 7-16. Other schools provide education for children from 3-4 years old up to the age of 18, including King Edward's School, Bath, Queen's College, Taunton and Wells Cathedral School, one of only five UK schools for school-age children. Some of these schools have religious connections, such as Monkton Combe School, Prior Park College, Sidcot School, which belongs to the Religious Society of Friends, Downside School, a Roman Catholic public school in Stratton-on-the-Fosse, next to the Benedictine Downside Abbey, and Kingswood School, founded in 1748 by John Wesley in Kingswood, near Bristol, originally to educate the sons of itinerant Methodist clergymen.

**Question 0**

Which Bruton school was awarded Royal Foundation status?

**Question 1**

What are preparatory schools for younger pupils?

**Question 2**

What is one of the Musical schools

**Question 3**

What is a Roman Catholic school

**Question 4**

In what year did Edward VI begin his reign?

**Question 5**

In what year was All Hallows founded?

**Question 6**

What ages are children taught at Monkton Combe School?

**Question 7**

What ages of children are taught at Sidcot School?

**Question 8**

In what year was Monkton Combe School founded?

**Text number 36**

The University of Bath and Bath Spa University are higher education institutions in the north-east of the county. The University of Bath was granted a Royal Charter in 1966, although its roots go back to Bristol Business School (founded in 1856) and Bath School of Pharmacy (founded in 1907). The university has a purpose-built campus in Claverton on the outskirts of Bath and has 15 000 students. Bath Spa University, based in Newton St Loe, achieved university status in 2005, and has its origins in the Bath Academy of Art (founded in 1898), Bath Teacher Training College and Bath College of Higher Education. It has several campuses and 5 500 students.

**Question 0**

Which university is in Bath

**Question 1**

When did the University of Bath receive its Royal Charter?

**Question 2**

Bath School of Pharmacy was founded in

**Question 3**

When did Bath Spa gain university status

**Question 4**

In what year did Bristol Trade School become part of the University of Bath?

**Question 5**

How many students will attend teacher training in Bath?

**Question 6**

In what year was Bath Teacher Training College founded?

**Question 7**

In what year did the Bath School of Pharmacy become part of the University of Bath?

**Question 8**

In what year was Bath College of Higher Education founded?

**Document number 217**

**Text number 0**

Yale University is an American private Ivy League research university in New Haven, Connecticut. Founded in 1701 as Saybrook Colony Collegiate School, it is the third oldest institution of higher education in the United States. The school's name was changed to Yale College in 1718 in recognition of a gift from Elihu Yale, governor of the British East India Company. The school was founded to train Congregationalist ministers in theology and sacred languages, but by 1777 the school's curriculum began to include humanities and sciences. In the 19th century, the school incorporated graduate and professional education, awarded the first doctorate in the United States in 1861, and became a university in 1887.

**Question 0**

When was Saybrook Colony Collegiate School founded?

**Question 1**

When was the Collegiate School renamed Yale College?

**Question 2**

Why was the school called Yale College?

**Question 3**

When did Yale first integrate the humanities and sciences?

**Question 4**

When did Yale award the first doctorate in the United States?

**Question 5**

When did Saybrook Colony Collegiate School close?

**Question 6**

When was the Collegiate School renamed Yale College?

**Question 7**

Why wasn't the school called Yale College?

**Question 8**

When was the last time Yale combined the humanities and sciences?

**Question 9**

When did Yale award the last doctorate in the United States?

**Text number 1**

Yale is divided into fourteen schools: the original undergraduate school, the Yale Graduate School of Arts and Sciences and twelve professional schools. The university is administered by the Yale Corporation, but the faculty of each school oversees its curriculum and degree programs. In addition to its central campus in downtown New Haven, the University owns athletic facilities in West New Haven, including the Yale Bowl, a campus in West Haven, Connecticut, and forest and nature preserves throughout New England. The University's assets include endowment assets of $25.6 billion as of September 2015, the second largest of any educational institution.The Yale University Library, which serves all schools, has more than 15 million volumes and is the third largest academic library in the United States.

**Question 0**

How many schools are there at Yale?

**Question 1**

How much is the value of Yale's endowment?

**Question 2**

How many books does the Yale University Library have?

**Question 3**

Who runs Yale College?

**Question 4**

Where is Yale's main campus?

**Question 5**

How many schools does Yale not consist of?

**Question 6**

How much of Yale's endowment is not worth?

**Question 7**

How many books are there in the Yale University laboratory?

**Question 8**

Who doesn't run Yale College?

**Question 9**

Where is the Yale branch campus?

**Text number 2**

Yale had its origins in "An Act for Liberty to Erect a Collegiate School", passed by the General Court of the Connecticut Colony in New Haven on 9 October 1701. The Act sought to establish an institution in Connecticut to train clergymen and lay leaders. Soon after, a group of ten Congregationalist ministers: Samuel Andrew, Thomas Buckingham, Israel Chauncy, Samuel Mather, Reverend James Noyes II (son of James Noyes), James Pierpont, Abraham Pierson, Noadiah Russell, Joseph Webb and Timothy Woodbridge, all of whom had studied at Harvard, met in Reverend Samuel Russell's study in Branford, Connecticut, to compile their books together to establish a school library. The group led by James Pierpont is now known as "The Founders"[citation needed].

**Question 0**

When was the "Act for Freedom to establish a Collegiate School" passed?

**Question 1**

Who voted for the "An Act for Freedom to establish a Collegiate School"?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the group that founded the Yale Library?

**Question 3**

Why was an "Act for Freedom to establish a Collegiate School" proposed?

**Question 4**

Where did the "founding fathers" go to school?

**Question 5**

When was the "Act of Freedom for the Establishment of a Collegiate School" rejected?

**Question 6**

Who never voted for "An Act for Freedom to establish a Collegiate School"?

**Question 7**

What was the name of the group that closed down the Yale Library?

**Question 8**

Why was the bill "An Act for Liberty to Erect a Collegiate School" rejected?

**Question 9**

Where did the "founding fathers" not go to school?

**Text number 3**

In 1718, at the behest of either Rector Samuel Andrew or the colony's Governor Gurdon Saltonstall, Cotton Mather contacted a successful businessman named Elihu Yale, who lived in Wales but was born in Boston and whose father David had been one of the original settlers of New Haven, and asked him for financial help to build a new building for the college. Persuaded by Jeremiah Dummer, Yale, who had made a fortune in trade while living in Madras as a representative of the East India Company, donated nine bales of goods which sold for over £560, a considerable sum at the time. Cotton Mather proposed that the school's name be changed to Yale College. At the same time, a Harvard graduate working in England convinced some 180 prominent intellectuals to donate books to Yale. The 500 books sent in 1714 represented the best of modern English literature, science, philosophy and theology. It had a profound impact on Yale's intellectual community. The student Jonathan Edwards discovered the works of John Locke and developed his original theology, known as the "new divinity". In 1722, the rector and six of his friends, who had a study group to discuss the new ideas, announced that they had renounced Calvinism, become Arminians and joined the Church of England. They were ordained in England and returned to the colonies as missionaries of the Anglican faith. Thomas Clapp became president in 1745 and struggled to return the college to Calvinist orthodoxy; but he did not close the library. Other students found Deist books in the library.

**Question 0**

Where did Elihu Yale grow up?

**Question 1**

Where was Elihu Yale born?

**Question 2**

What was Elihu Yale's father's name?

**Question 3**

Who suggested the new name for Yale?

**Question 4**

How many books were in the 1714 shipment to Yale?

**Question 5**

Where did Elihu Yale die?

**Question 6**

Where was Elihu Yale not born?

**Question 7**

What was Elihu Yale's father's nickname?

**Question 8**

Who suggested the old name of Yale?

**Question 9**

How many books were in the 1741 shipment to Yale?

**Text number 4**

Serious American students of theology and divinity, especially in New England, considered Hebrew, along with Greek and Latin, to be the classical language necessary for studying the Old Testament in its original words. The Reverend Ezra Stiles, Rector of the College from 1778 to 1795, brought with him an interest in Hebrew as a means of studying ancient biblical texts in their original language (as was the custom in other schools), He required all freshmen to study Hebrew (unlike at Harvard, where only upperclassmen were required to study the language) and is responsible for the Hebrew phrase אורים ותמים (Urim and Thummim) on the Yale seal. Stiles' greatest challenge came in July 1779, when hostile British forces occupied New Haven and threatened to destroy the College, but Yale graduate Edmund Fanning, secretary to the British general who led the occupation, intervened and the College was saved. Fanning was later awarded an honorary LL.D. in 1803 for his efforts.

**Question 0**

When was Ezra Stiles president of Yale?

**Question 1**

What course did Ezra Stiles demand from the freshmen?

**Question 2**

When did the British threaten to take over the College?

**Question 3**

Who saved Yale from British attack?

**Question 4**

What degree was awarded to Edmund Fanning for his services?

**Question 5**

When was Ezra Stiles Vice President of Yale?

**Question 6**

What course did Ezra Stiles demand from seniors?

**Question 7**

When did the British threaten to destroy the college?

**Question 8**

Who saved Yale from a French attack?

**Question 9**

What degree was Edmund Fanning stripped of for his services?

**Text number 5**

Yale's 1828 report dogmatically defended the Latin and Greek curriculum against critics who wanted more courses in modern languages, mathematics and science. Unlike higher education in Europe, there was no national curriculum for colleges and universities in the United States. In competing for students and financial support, higher education leaders struggled to keep up with the demands for innovation. At the same time, they realised that a significant proportion of their students and potential students required a classical background. The Yale Report meant that classical studies would not be abandoned. All institutions experimented with curricular changes, often resulting in dual degrees. In the decentralised environment of US higher education, balancing change and tradition was a common challenge, as no one could afford to be either fully modern or fully classical. A group of Yale professors and New Haven Congregationalist ministers articulated a conservative response to the changes brought about by Victorian culture. They focused on developing a holistic human being with religious values strong enough to resist temptations from within but flexible enough to adapt to temptations from without (professionalism, materialism, individualism and consumer culture). William Graham Sumner, who served as professor from 1872 to 1909, taught in the emerging disciplines of economics and sociology in crowded classrooms. He defeated President Noah Porter, who disliked the social sciences and wanted Yale to stick to its tradition of classical education. Porter objected to Sumner's use of Herbert Spencer's textbook, which advocated agnostic materialism, because it could harm students.

**Question 0**

When did William Graham Sumner teach?

**Question 1**

What did William Graham Sumner teach?

**Question 2**

Why was the Yale Report founded?

**Question 3**

What was the group of Yale professors and ministers trying to achieve?

**Question 4**

What changes did professors and ministers respond to?

**Question 5**

When did William Graham Winter teach?

**Question 6**

What did William Graham Sumner not teach?

**Question 7**

Why was the Yale Report closed?

**Question 8**

What was the group of Yale professors and ministers not trying to achieve?

**Question 9**

What changes did professors and ministers fail to respond to?

**Text number 6**

Revolutionary War soldier Nathan Hale (Yale 1773) was the prototype of the early 19th century Yale ideal: a manly but aristocratic scholar, equally versed in knowledge and sport, and a patriot who "regretted" that he had "but one life to lose" for his country. The Western painter Frederic Remington (Yale 1900) was an artist whose heroes idealised the battles and trials of strength in the Wild West. The fictional Yale man of the turn of the 20th century, Frank Merriwell, embodied the heroic ideal without racial prejudice, and his fictional successor, Frank Stover, in the novel Stover at Yale (1911), challenged the businessman mentality that had come to dominate the school. Students increasingly turned to sports stars as their heroes, especially as winning the big games became the goal of the student body, alumni and the team itself.

**Question 0**

What was Nathan Hale famous for?

**Question 1**

What did Frederic Remington do for a living?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the main character in "Stover at Yale"?

**Question 3**

What became the objective of the students' association?

**Question 4**

What were the subjects of Frederic Remington's paintings?

**Question 5**

What wasn't Nathan Hale famous for?

**Question 6**

What profession did Frederic Remington leave?

**Question 7**

What was the name of the antagonist in "Stover at Yale"?

**Question 8**

What became the goal of the faculty?

**Question 9**

What were the subjects of Frederic Remington's paintings?

**Text number 7**

From 1892, when Harvard and Yale met in one of the first inter-university debates, to 1909, when Harvard, Yale and Princeton held their first triangular competition, these early debates were framed by the rhetoric, symbolism and metaphors used in athletics. The debates were covered on the front pages of university newspapers and highlighted in yearbooks, and team members even received letters on their jackets that corresponded to sports letters. Debate teams were even sent to matches. However, debating never achieved the same widespread appeal as athletics. One reason may be that there is no clear winner in debates, as in sports, and that scoring is subjective. In addition, late 19th century concerns about the effects of modern life on the human body meant that athletics offered hope that neither the individual nor society was falling apart.

**Question 0**

What year was the first debate between Harvard, Yale and Princeton?

**Question 1**

When was the first debate between Harvard and Yale?

**Question 2**

How were the debates presented to university students?

**Question 3**

What did the members of the debate team get for their service?

**Question 4**

Why is there no clear winner in the debates?

**Question 5**

What year did Harvard, Yale and Princeton have their last debate?

**Question 6**

When was the last time there was a debate between Harvard and Yale?

**Question 7**

How were the debates presented to the university faculty?

**Question 8**

What did the fans of the debating team get for their services?

**Question 9**

Why is there a clear winner in the debates?

**Text number 8**

In 1909-10, football faced a crisis because the reforms of 1905-06 had not solved the problem of serious injuries. A climate of concern and suspicion prevailed, and as the crisis unfolded, the presidents of Harvard, Yale and Princeton developed a project to reform the sport and prevent any radical changes that the government had imposed on the sport. Yale President Arthur Hadley, Harvard President A. Lawrence Lowell and Princeton President Woodrow Wilson sought to develop moderate changes to reduce injuries. However, their efforts were curbed by a revolt against the Rules Committee and the creation of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association. The big three had tried to act independently of the majority, but the changes reduced injuries.

**Question 0**

Who tried to implement the football reform measures?

**Question 1**

Where did the revolt against the new football measures start?

**Question 2**

Who was the president of Yale during the rebellion?

**Question 3**

Who represented Harvard in the rule change discussions?

**Question 4**

Who represented Princeton in the rule change discussions?

**Question 5**

Who tried to implement the football reform measures?

**Question 6**

Where did the revolt against the old football measures start?

**Question 7**

Who was the vice-president of Yale during the rebellion?

**Question 8**

Who represented Harvard after the rule change discussions?

**Question 9**

Who represented Princeton before the rule change discussions?

**Text number 9**

Yale gradually expanded with the establishment of the Yale School of Medicine (1810), Yale Divinity School (1822), Yale Law School (1843), Yale Graduate School of Arts and Sciences (1847), Sheffield Scientific School (1847) and Yale School of Fine Arts (1869). In 1887, Yale College was renamed Yale University as the college continued to grow under the leadership of Timothy Dwight V. Later, the Yale School of Music (1894), Yale School of Forestry & Environmental Studies (founded by Gifford Pinchot in 1900), Yale School of Public Health (1915), Yale School of Nursing (1923), Yale School of Drama (1955), Yale Physician Associate Program (1973) and Yale School of Management (1976) were added. It would also reorganise its relationship with the Sheffield School of Science.

**Question 0**

When was Yale Medical School founded?

**Question 1**

When was Yale Divinity School founded?

**Question 2**

When was the Yale Law School founded?

**Question 3**

When were Yale Graduate Schools and Arts and Sciences established?

**Question 4**

When was Sheffield School of Science founded?

**Question 5**

When did Yale Medical School close?

**Question 6**

When did Yale Divinity School close?

**Question 7**

When was the Yale Law School closed?

**Question 8**

When did Yale Graduate Schools and Arts and Sciences close?

**Question 9**

When did Sheffield Science School close?

**Text number 10**

The extension sparked controversy over Yale's new roles. Noah Porter, a moral philosopher, served as president from 1871 to 1886. In an era of massive expansion in higher education, Porter opposed the rise of a new research university, arguing that enthusiastic adoption of its ideals would corrupt undergraduate education. Many of Porter's contemporaries criticised his administration, and historians have since disparaged his leadership. Levesque argues that Porter was not a simple reactionary, uncritically committed to tradition, but a principled and selective conservative. Rather than embracing everything old and rejecting everything new, he sought to apply long-established ethical and pedagogical principles to a rapidly changing culture. He may have misunderstood some of the challenges of his time, but he correctly anticipated the enduring tensions that have accompanied the birth and growth of the modern university.

**Question 0**

When was Noah Porter president of Yale?

**Question 1**

What idea did Noah Porter reject?

**Question 2**

What did many historians think of Noah Porter?

**Question 3**

What was Porter's reason for closing down the research university?

**Question 4**

What caused the disagreement over Yale's new position?

**Question 5**

When was Noah Porter Vice President of Yale?

**Question 6**

What idea did Noah Porter adopt?

**Question 7**

What did historians think of Noah Porter?

**Question 8**

What was Porter's reason for accepting a research university?

**Question 9**

What caused the consensus on Yle's new position?

**Text number 11**

Between 1925 and 1940, philanthropic foundations, particularly those associated with the Rockefeller family, contributed some $7 million to the Yale Institute of Human Relations and its associated Yerkes Laboratory of Primate Biology. The money was used for behavioural science research supported by foundation officials seeking to "improve humanity" within the framework of informal, loosely defined human design. Yale's behavioral scientists, led by President James R. Angell and psychobiologist Robert M. Yerkes, took advantage of the Foundation's generosity by designing research programs to study and then propose ways to control sexual and social behavior. Yerkes, for example, analysed the sexual behaviour of chimpanzees in the hope of shedding light on the evolutionary basis of human development and providing insights that could cure dysfunction. In the end, the behavioural results disappointed foundation officials, who shifted their human funds to the biological sciences.

**Question 0**

How much did charitable foundations donate between 1925 and 1940?

**Question 1**

What was the $7 million spent on?

**Question 2**

What was the aim of behavioural research?

**Question 3**

Who were the behavioural scientists responsible for the study?

**Question 4**

What kind of animal sexual behaviour did Yerkes study?

**Question 5**

How much did charitable foundations donate between 1935 and 1940?

**Question 6**

What was the $6 million spent on?

**Question 7**

What was not the aim of behavioural research?

**Question 8**

Who were the behavioural science students responsible for the study?

**Question 9**

What kind of animal eating behaviour did Yerkes study?

**Text number 12**

Slack (2003) compares three groups who conducted biological research at Yale in overlapping periods between 1910 and 1970. Yale proved to be an important research site. These groups were led by Ross Granville Harrison, Grace E. Pickford and G. Evelyn Hutchinson, and included both graduate students and more experienced researchers. All produced innovative research that included opening up new areas in embryology, endocrinology and ecology over a long period of time. The Harrison group is shown to have been a classic graduate school; the Pickford and Hutchinson groups were not. Pickford's group was successful even though he had no position or power in the department or institution. Hutchinson and his graduate and postgraduate students were highly productive, but in many different areas of ecology rather than in one focused area of research or using only one research tool. Hutchinson's example shows the need for new models for research teams, especially those involving extensive field research.

**Question 0**

Which research team provided a conventional research school environment?

**Question 1**

Which research teams provided an unusual structure to the research team?

**Question 2**

What was the Pickford Group lacking to make it more like other graduate schools?

**Question 3**

What did the Hutchinson team study?

**Question 4**

What information did the Hutchinson model provide?

**Question 5**

Which research team provided an atypical research school environment?

**Question 6**

Which research groups provided an orthodox structure for the research team?

**Question 7**

What was missing from Pickford's group to make it not so similar to other research schools?

**Question 8**

What didn't the Hutchinson team study?

**Question 9**

What information was not provided by the Hutchinson model?

**Text number 13**

Milton Winternitz led the Yale School of Medicine as its Dean from 1920 to 1935. He was dedicated to the new scientific medicine established in Germany, but he was equally passionate about 'social medicine' and the study of people in their culture and environment. He established the 'Yale system', with fewer lectures and fewer exams, and strengthened the full-time faculty system; he also founded the Yale School of Nursing and the Department of Psychiatry and built numerous new buildings. His plans for an Institute of Human Relations, intended as a haven where social scientists would collaborate with biological scientists in the holistic study of humanity, unfortunately proceeded for only a few years before opposition from disapproving anti-Semitic colleagues drove him to resign.

**Question 0**

Who was the Dean of the Yale School of Medicine from 1920 to 1935?

**Question 1**

What was the driving force behind Milton Winternitz's research?

**Question 2**

What kind of teaching style did Milton Winternitz develop?

**Question 3**

What is the Yale system?

**Question 4**

What programmes did Milton Winternitz create?

**Question 5**

Who was the Dean of the Yale School of Medicine from 1925 to 1935?

**Question 6**

What was not the driving force behind Milton Winternitz's research?

**Question 7**

Which teaching style did Milton Winternitz reject?

**Question 8**

What is not the Yale system?

**Question 9**

What programmes did Milton Winternitz quit?

**Text number 14**

The American Studies programme reflected the global ideological struggle against communism. Norman Holmes Pearson, who had worked at the Office of Strategic Studies in London during World War II, returned to Yale and led a new American Studies program in which scholarship quickly became a tool for promoting freedom. Popular with students, the program sought to teach them the fundamentals of American civilization and thereby awaken a sense of nationalism and national purpose. Also in the 1940s and 1950s, Wyoming millionaire William Robertson Coe made large donations to the American Studies programs at Yale University and the University of Wyoming. Coe wanted to celebrate the "values" of the western United States in response to the "threat of communism."

**Question 0**

Who was the first professor of the American Studies programme?

**Question 1**

Where did Norman Holmes Pearson work before Yale?

**Question 2**

What did the American Studies programme hope to teach?

**Question 3**

Who promoted the American Studies programmes at Yale and the University of Wyoming?

**Question 4**

Why did Coe donate to American research programmes?

**Question 5**

Who was the last professor of the American Studies programme?

**Question 6**

Where did Norman Holmes Pearson work after Yale?

**Question 7**

What did the American research programme hope to destroy?

**Question 8**

Who promoted Canadian studies at Yale and the University of Wyoming?

**Question 9**

Why didn't Coe donate to American study programmes?

**Text number 15**

In 1966, Yale began discussions with its sister school, Vassar College, about a merger to promote co-education at the undergraduate level. Vassar, which at the time was all-female and part of the Seven Sisters - elite colleges that historically served as sister institutions of the Ivy League when the Ivy League still admitted only men - initially agreed, but then declined the invitation. The two schools adopted the co-educational school independently in 1969. Amy Solomon was the first woman to enrol at Yale, and she was also the first woman to join Yale's student society, St. Anthony Hall. The undergraduate class of 1973 was the first class of women to begin their freshman year; at that time, all undergraduate women were housed in Vanderbilt Hall at the south end of Old Campus[citation needed].

**Question 0**

Which Yale sister school was considering a merger in 1966?

**Question 1**

Who was the first female student at Yale?

**Question 2**

Which club did Amy Solomon sign up for at Yale?

**Question 3**

What year did Yale graduate its first undergraduate class of women?

**Question 4**

Where did female students live in the first years when women were allowed to study at Yale?

**Question 5**

Which Yale sister school was considering a merger in 1996?

**Question 6**

Who was the last female student at Yale?

**Question 7**

In what company did Amy Solomon drop out of Yale?

**Question 8**

What year did Yale graduate its last undergraduate class of women?

**Question 9**

Where did women students live in the last years when women were allowed to study at Yale?

**Text number 16**

Ten years after co-education, student assault and harassment by faculty was the impetus for the groundbreaking lawsuit Alexander v. Yale. Although the case did not succeed in court, its legal arguments changed the law on sex discrimination and led to the creation of the Yale Grievance Committee and the Yale Women's Center. In March 2011, students and recent graduates, including journalists from Yale's feminist magazine Broad Recognition, filed a Title IX lawsuit against Yale, alleging a hostile sexual climate at the university. The university then established a Title IX steering committee to handle complaints of sexual misconduct.

**Question 0**

What led to the Yale Grievance Committee and the Yale Women's Centre?

**Question 1**

When was a Title IX complaint filed against Yale?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the newspaper whose several editors were involved in the Title IX complaint?

**Question 3**

What was the complaint of the Broad Recognition journalists?

**Question 4**

What did Yale do about the Title IX complaint?

**Question 5**

What led to the Yale Grievance Committee and the Yale Men's Centre?

**Question 6**

When was the Title X complaint filed against Yale?

**Question 7**

What was the name of the newspaper whose several journalists were involved in the complaint against Section X?

**Question 8**

What did the Broad Recognition authors complain about?

**Question 9**

What did Yale do about the Title X complaint?

**Text number 17**

Yale has a complex relationship with its hometown; for example, thousands of students volunteer each year with countless community organizations, but city officials, who resent Yale's exemption from local property taxes, have long pressed the university to do more to help. Under President Levin, Yale has financially supported many of New Haven's efforts to revitalize the city. Evidence suggests that the relationship between the city and the town is mutually beneficial. Yet the university's economic power grew dramatically with its financial success as the local economy declined.

**Question 0**

Why don't New Haven city officials like Yale?

**Question 1**

Who did the Yale president help in New Haven's revitalisation efforts?

**Question 2**

What has been the impact of the Yale-New Haven relationship on Yale?

**Question 3**

What has been the impact of the Yale-New Haven relationship on New Haven?

**Question 4**

Why do New Haven city officials like Yale?

**Question 5**

Which Yale president rejected New Haven's recovery efforts?

**Question 6**

What has not been the impact of the Yale-New Haven relationship on Yale?

**Question 7**

Why don't New Haven city officials like Yale?

**Question 8**

What has not been the impact of the Yale-New Haven relationship on New Haven?

**Text number 18**

The Boston Globe wrote that "if there is one school that can claim to have trained the best national leaders in the country over the past three decades, it is Yale". "Yale alumni were represented as Democratic or Republican candidates in every US presidential election from 1972 to 2004. Since the end of the Vietnam War, Yale-educated presidents have included Gerald Ford, George H.W. Bush, Bill Clinton and George W. Bush, while major party candidates during this period have included John Kerry (2004), Joseph Lieberman (vice president, 2000) and Sargent Shriver (vice president, 1972). Other Yale alumni making serious presidential runs during this period include Hillary Clinton (2008), Howard Dean (2004), Gary Hart (1984 and 1988), Paul Tsongas (1992), Pat Robertson (1988) and Jerry Brown (1976, 1980, 1992).

**Question 0**

What did the Boston Globe say about Yale?

**Question 1**

Which US presidents since the Vietnam War have studied at Yale?

**Question 2**

Which famous presidential candidates also studied at Yale?

**Question 3**

Which candidates of the main party who did not win studied at Yale?

**Question 4**

How many times were Yale alumni on the presidential ticket between 1972 and 2004?

**Question 5**

What did the Boston Globe not say about Yale?

**Question 6**

Which unknown presidential candidates also studied at Yale?

**Question 7**

Which US presidents studied at Yale before the Vietnam War?

**Question 8**

Which of the undefeated minor party candidates studied at Yale?

**Question 9**

How many times were Yale alumni on the presidential ticket between 1927 and 2004?

**Text number 19**

Several explanations have been put forward for Yale's representation in national elections after the end of the Vietnam War. Several sources cite the spirit of campus activism that has prevailed at Yale since the 1960s and the spiritual influence of the Reverend William Sloane Coffin on many future candidates. Yale President Richard Levin explains the candidacy as a result of Yale's focus on creating a "laboratory for future leaders," a priority of the institution that began under Yale presidents Alfred Whitney Griswold and Kingman Brewster. Richard H. Brodhead, former dean of Yale College and current president of Duke University, said, "We pay very close attention to community orientation in our selection processes, and Yale has a very strong tradition of volunteerism. "Yale historian Gaddis Smith notes that Yale in the 20th century had an "ethos of organized action" that led to John Kerry leading the liberal party of the Yale Political Alliance, George Pataki leading the conservative party and Joseph Lieberman leading the Yale Daily News. Camille Paglia points to the history of networking and elitism: "It is linked to the network of friendships and connections built in school." CNN suggests that George W. Bush benefited from the privileged admission granted to "the son and grandson of alumni" and "a member of a politically influential family". New York Times correspondent Elisabeth Bumiller and The Atlantic Monthly correspondent James Fallows praise the culture of community and cooperation among students, faculty and administration that reduces self-interest and strengthens commitment to others.

**Question 0**

Why did President Levin believe there were so many presidential candidates from Yale alumni?

**Question 1**

Why did Richard Brodhead believe there were so many presidential candidates from Yale alumni?

**Question 2**

Why did Gaddis Smith believe that John Kerry led the liberal party of the Yale Political Alliance?

**Question 3**

Why does CNN believe that George W. Bush was accepted to Yale?

**Question 4**

What does Elisabeth Bumiller think is the reason for the number of political alumni at Yale?

**Question 5**

Why did President Levin believe that there were so few presidential candidates from Yale alumni?

**Question 6**

Why did Richard Brodhead believe that there were so few presidential candidates among Yale alumni?

**Question 7**

Why did Gaddis Smith believe that John Kerry would never lead the Yale Liberal Party?

**Question 8**

Why does CNN believe that George W. Bush was rejected from Yale?

**Question 9**

What does Elisabeth Bumiller think is the reason for the lack of political Yale alumni?

**Text number 20**

During the 1988 presidential election, George H. W. Bush (Yale '48) mocked Michael Dukakis for having "foreign policy views that were born in a Harvard Yard boutique." When Bush was asked about the difference between Dukakis's Harvard connections and his own Yale background, he said that unlike Harvard, Yale's reputation was "so fragmented that I don't think there is any symbolism, any symbolism in the Yale situation," and said that Yale did not share Harvard's reputation for "liberalism and elitism." In 2004, Howard Dean said, "In some ways I consider myself separate from the other three (Yale) candidates in 2004. Yale changed so much between the class of '68 and '71. My class was the first class to have women, and it was the first class to make a significant effort to recruit African-Americans. It was an extraordinary time, and a whole generation changed in that time."

**Question 0**

Where did George H. W. Bush say Michael Dukakis' foreign policy was born in the 1988 election?

**Question 1**

How did George H. W. Bush describe Yale's reputation?

**Question 2**

How did George H. W. Bush describe Harvard's reputation?

**Question 3**

Why was Howard Dean proud of his graduating class?

**Question 4**

Where did George H. W. Bush say Michael Dukakis' foreign policy was born in the 1968 election?

**Question 5**

How did George W. Bush describe Yale's reputation?

**Question 6**

How did George W. Bush describe Harvard's reputation?

**Question 7**

Why wasn't Howard Dean proud of his graduating class?

**Question 8**

Why was Howard Dean proud of his unfinished class?

**Text number 21**

In 2009, former British Prime Minister Tony Blair chose Yale - along with Durham University in the UK and Universiti Teknologi Mara - as one of the sites for the Tony Blair Faith Foundation's US Faith and Globalisation Initiative. Since 2009, former Mexican President Ernesto Zedillo is the director of Yale's Centre for Globalisation Studies, where he teaches the "Debating Globalisation" seminar. Former presidential candidate and DNC chairman Howard Dean has been teaching the university seminar "Understanding Politics and Politicians" since 2009. In 2009, Yale, University College London and the hospital complexes of both schools formed an alliance to conduct research focused on directly improving patient care - a growing field known as translational medicine. President Richard Levin said that Yale has hundreds of other partnerships around the world, but "none of the current collaborations match the scale of the new partnership with UCL".

**Question 0**

What other two places did Tony Blair choose, besides Yale, for the Tony Blair Faith Foundation's United States Faith and Globalization Initiative?

**Question 1**

Who is the Director of the Yale Centre for Globalisation Studies as of 2009?

**Question 2**

Who is the former presidential candidate teaching a seminar at Yale?

**Question 3**

What is the name of Howard Dean's class at Yale?

**Question 4**

Which university did Yale Medical School collaborate with?

**Question 5**

Which three other places did Tony Blair choose, besides Yale, for the Tony Blair Faith Foundation's United States Faith and Globalization Initiative?

**Question 6**

Who is the Director of the Yale Centre for Globalisation Studies since 2008?

**Question 7**

Who is the current presidential candidate teaching a seminar at Yale?

**Question 8**

What is not the name of Howard Dean's class at Yale?

**Question 9**

Which university did Yale Medical School not team up with?

**Text number 22**

The Yale Provost's Office has elevated several women to prominent university presidencies. In 1977, Hanna Holborn Gray was appointed Acting Provost of Yale, and became President of the University of Chicago, the first woman to serve as a full president of a major university. In 1994, Judith Rodin, the provost of Yale, became the first female president of an Ivy League university at the University of Pennsylvania. In 2002, Provost Alison Richard became Vice-Chancellor of the University of Cambridge. In 2004, Provost Susan Hockfield became President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. In 2007, Vice Provost Kim Bottomly was appointed President of Wellesley College. In 2003, Rebecca Chopp, Dean of the Divinity School, was appointed President of Colgate University and now heads Swarthmore College.

**Question 0**

Who was appointed Acting President of Yale in 1977?

**Question 1**

Where did Hanna Holborn Gray go after Yale?

**Question 2**

What year did Judith Rodin become the first female president of an Ivy League school?

**Question 3**

In what year did Susan Hockfield become President of MIT?

**Question 4**

Who became Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge University in 2002?

**Question 5**

Who was appointed Acting President of Yale in 1979?

**Question 6**

Where did Hanna Holborn Gray go before Yale?

**Question 7**

What year did Judith Rodin become the first male president of an Ivy League school?

**Question 8**

In which year did Susan Hockfield become IMT President?

**Question 9**

Who became Chancellor of the University of Cambridge in 2002?

**Text number 23**

A large proportion of Yale University staff, including most maintenance staff, cafeteria workers and administrative staff, belong to a union. Clerical and technical workers are represented by UNITE HERE Local 34 and service and maintenance workers by UNITE HERE Local 35. Together with the Graduate Employees and Students Organization (GESO), an unrecognized union for graduate students, Local 34 and Local 35 form the Federation of Hospital and University Employees. FHUE also includes the food service workers at Yale-New Haven Hospital, who are members of SEIU 1199. In addition to these unions, Yale University Police Department officers belong to the Yale Police Benevolent Association, which joined the Connecticut Public Safety Employees Association in 2005. Yale security personnel voted to join the International Union of Security, Police and Fire Professionals of America in the fall of 2010 after the National Labor Relations Board ruled that they could not join AFSCME.

**Question 0**

Which union do members of the Yale University Police Department belong to?

**Question 1**

Which union do Yale guards belong to?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the unrecognised union of graduate workers?

**Question 3**

Which trade union do Yale's office and technical staff belong to?

**Question 4**

Which trade union do Yale's maintenance and repair workers belong to?

**Question 5**

Which union do members of the Yale University Police Department not belong to?

**Question 6**

Which union do Yale security guards not belong to?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the recognised trade union for graduate workers?

**Question 8**

Which union do Yale's office and technical staff not belong to?

**Question 9**

Which trade union do Yale's maintenance and repair workers not belong to?

**Text number 24**

Yale has a history of difficult and protracted collective bargaining, often culminating in strikes. Since 1968, there have been at least eight strikes, and the New York Times reported that Yale has the worst record of any US university in terms of labour tensions. Yale's unusually large endowment exacerbates wage tensions. Yale has also been accused of failing to treat its employees with respect. During the 2003 strike, however, the university claimed that more union workers were working than were on strike. Professor David Graeber was "fired" after he defended a student involved in a campus labor dispute.

**Question 0**

How many strikes have there been at Yale since 1968?

**Question 1**

What does The New York Times think about Yale's labour tension?

**Question 2**

Which professor retired in the 2003 industrial action?

**Question 3**

Why did Professor David Graeber retire during the strike?

**Question 4**

What increases tensions during the wage review?

**Question 5**

How many strikes have there been at Yale since 1986?

**Question 6**

What does The New Jersey Times think of the Yale industrial action?

**Question 7**

Which professor retired in the 2013 workers' strike?

**Question 8**

Why was Professor David Graeber hired during the strike?

**Question 9**

What eases tensions during the wage review?

**Text number 25**

Yale's central campus in downtown New Haven covers 260 hectares (1.1 km2) and includes Yale's historic main campus and the medical campus next to Yale-New Haven Hospital. In the western part of New Haven, the University has 500 hectares (2.0 km2) of athletic fields, including the Yale Golf Course. In 2008, Yale acquired the 136-acre (0.55 km2) former Bayer Pharmaceutical campus in West Haven, Connecticut, which is currently used as laboratory and research facilities. Yale also owns seven forests in Connecticut, Vermont and New Hampshire - the largest of which is the 7 840 hectare (31.7 km2) Yale-Myers Forest in Quiet Corner, Connecticut - as well as nature reserves such as Horse Island.

**Question 0**

Where does Yale own 500 acres of sports facilities?

**Question 1**

Which campus did Yale buy in 2008?

**Question 2**

What will the former Bayer Pharmaceutical campus be used for?

**Question 3**

How many forests does Yale own?

**Question 4**

How big is the largest forest owned by the YLE?

**Question 5**

Where does Yale own 5000 acres of sports facilities?

**Question 6**

Which campus did Yale buy in 2009?

**Question 7**

What will the current Bayer Pharmaceutical campus be used for?

**Question 8**

How many forests does Yale not own?

**Question 9**

How big is the smallest forest owned by YLE?

**Text number 26**

Yale is known for its largely collegiate-gothic campus and several iconic modern buildings commonly covered in architectural history courses: the Yale Art Gallery and Center for British Art by Louis Kahn, Ingalls Rink and Ezra Stiles and Morse Colleges by Eero Saarinen, and the Art & Architecture Building by Paul Rudolph. Yale also owns and has restored many notable 19th-century mansions along Hillhouse Avenue, which Charles Dickens considered the most beautiful street in America when he visited the United States in the 1840s. In 2011, Travel+Leisure listed Yale's campus as one of the most beautiful in the United States.

**Question 0**

Who called Hillhouse Avenue the most beautiful street in America in the 1840s?

**Question 1**

Who listed Yale as one of the most beautiful campuses in the US?

**Question 2**

What is Yale largely known for?

**Question 3**

When did Travel + Leisure list Yale as one of the most beautiful campuses?

**Question 4**

Who called Hillhouse Avenue the most beautiful street in America in the 1940s?

**Question 5**

Who listed Yale as one of the most beautiful campuses in the US?

**Question 6**

What is Yale largely unknown about?

**Question 7**

What is Yale less known for?

**Question 8**

When did Travel + Leisure list Yale as one of the most beautiful campuses?

**Text number 27**

Many of Yale's buildings were built in the Collegiate Gothic architectural style between 1917 and 1931, and were largely funded by Edward S. Harkness. The stone sculptures on the walls of the buildings depict modern college characters, including a writer, an athlete, a socialite drinking tea and a student falling asleep while reading. Similarly, the buildings' decorative friezes depict contemporary scenes, such as police officers chasing a mugger and arresting a prostitute (on the wall of the law school) or a student relaxing with a mug of beer and a cigarette. Architect James Gamble Rogers aged the buildings by splashing acid on the walls, deliberately breaking leaded glass windows and repairing them in medieval style, and creating niches for decorative statues that were left empty to simulate disappearances or thefts over time. In fact, the buildings only simulate medieval architecture, for although they appear to be built of massive stone blocks in the true style, most of them actually have steel frames, which were commonly used in the 1930s. One exception is the 66-metre high Harkness Tower, originally a freestanding stone building. It was strengthened in 1964 to allow the installation of the Yale Memorial Carillon.

**Question 0**

Who financed much of the architecture between 1917 and 1931?

**Question 1**

What do the stone statues on the Yale campus represent?

**Question 2**

What do the decorative friezes on the buildings show?

**Question 3**

How were James Gamble Rogers' buildings faked?

**Question 4**

How did James Gamble Rogers age the windows?

**Question 5**

Who financed much of the architecture between 1817 and 1931?

**Question 6**

What do the stone statues on the Yale campus not illustrate?

**Question 7**

What don't the decorative friezes on buildings show?

**Question 8**

How did James Gamble Rogers not really age the buildings?

**Question 9**

Why didn't James Gamble Rogers make the windows fake?

**Text number 28**

The old campus also has other examples of the Gothic style (also called neo-Gothic and collegiate Gothic), designed by architects such as Henry Austin, Charles C. Haight and Russell Sturgis. Several are associated with members of the Vanderbilt family, including Vanderbilt Hall, Phelps Hall, St Anthony Hall (commissioned for Frederick William Vanderbilt), the Mason, Sloane and Osborn laboratories, the dormitories of the Sheffield Scientific School (Yale's College of Engineering and Science until 1956) and parts of Silliman College, the largest residential college.

**Question 0**

Which architects have built buildings on Yale's old campus?

**Question 1**

What is the largest residential college?

**Question 2**

Which school was used as an engineering school until 1956?

**Question 3**

What other terms exist for the Gothic-style buildings on the old Yale campus?

**Question 4**

Which architects have built buildings on Yale's new campus?

**Question 5**

What is the smallest residential college?

**Question 6**

What is the largest industrial university?

**Question 7**

Which school was used as a school of engineering and science until 1965?

**Question 8**

What other terms exist for the Gothic-style buildings on the new Yale campus?

**Text number 29**

Alumnus Eero Saarinen, a Finnish-American architect who has designed the Gateway Arch in St. Louis, the main terminal at Washington Dulles International Airport, the Bell Labs Holmdel complex and the CBS Building in Manhattan, among others, designed Ingalls Ring in Yale and the newest residential colleges in Ezra Stiles and Morse. The latter were modelled on the medieval Italian hilltop town of San Gimignano, with its pedestrian-friendly environment and fortress-like stone towers. These Yale towers contrasted with the college's numerous Gothic towers and Georgian domes.

**Question 0**

Who created the Gateway Arch in St Louis?

**Question 1**

Which airport was designed by alumni Eero Saarinen?

**Question 2**

Where did Alumnus Eero Saarinen get the inspiration to design the Ingalls Rink ice rink at Yale?

**Question 3**

What is the counterweight to Yale's Gothic towers?

**Question 4**

What nationality is Eero Saarinen an alumnus of?

**Question 5**

Who destroyed the Gateway Arch in St. Louis?

**Question 6**

Which airport was not designed by alumni Eero Saarinen?

**Question 7**

Where did alumnus Eero Saarinen not draw inspiration for Ingalls Rink at Yale?

**Question 8**

What is the counterbalance to the hectic towers of Yale?

**Question 9**

Which nationality is Eero Saarinen not Alumnus Eero Saarinen?

**Text number 30**

The Yale Office for Sustainable Development develops and implements sustainable development practices at Yale. Yale is committed to reducing its greenhouse gas emissions by 10% from 1990 levels by 2020. As part of this commitment, the university distributes renewable energy credits to offset some of the energy used by the residential colleges. Eleven campus buildings have been nominated for LEED design and certification. Yale's Sustainable Food Project began supplying local, organic vegetables, fruits and beef to all dining halls in the residence halls. Yale is cited as a campus sustainability leader in the Sustainable Endowments Institute's College Sustainability Report Card 2008, with an overall score of B+.

**Question 0**

Who creates sustainable development practices at Yale?

**Question 1**

What percentage of Yale is committed to reducing greenhouse gas emissions below 1990 levels by 2020?

**Question 2**

How many campus buildings are candidates for LEED design and certification?

**Question 3**

Which project will bring organic food to all Yale University canteens?

**Question 4**

What grade did Yale receive in the Sustainable Endowments Institute's College Sustainability Report Card 2008?

**Question 5**

Who is rejecting sustainable development practices at Yale?

**Question 6**

What percentage of Yale is committed to reducing greenhouse gas emissions below 1990 levels by 2030?

**Question 7**

How many campus buildings are candidates for ELED design and certification?

**Question 8**

What project will bring inorganic food to all the canteens at Yale University?

**Question 9**

What grade did Yale receive in the Sustainable Endowments Institute's College Sustainability Report Card 2018?

**Text number 31**

Yale's secret society buildings (some of which are called "tombs") were built to be private yet inseparable. Berzelius, Donn Barber, an austere cube with classical details (erected in 1908 or 1910); Book and Snake, Louis R. Book and Snake. Metcalfe, Greco-Ionic style (erected 1901); Elihu, architect unknown, but built in Colonial style (built on early 17th century foundations, although the building dates from the 1700s); Mace and Chain, late Colonial, early Victorian style (built 1823). The interior moldings are said to have belonged to Benedict Arnold; Manuscript Society, King Lui-Wu, where Dan Kniley was responsible for the landscaping and Josef Albers for the brick-walled intaglio. The building is in mid-century modern style; Scroll and Key, Richard Morris Hunt in Moorish or Islamic-influenced Beaux-Arts (erected 1869-70); Skull and Bones, possibly Alexander Jackson Davis or Henry Austin in Egyptian style using brownstone (first wing completed 1856, second wing 1903, Neo-Gothic towers in the rear garden completed 1911); St. Elmo, (former tomb) Kenneth M. Murchison, 1912, plans inspired by the Elizabethan mansion. Present site, a brick colony; Shabtai, 1882, Anderson mansion, built in the Second Empire architectural style; and Wolf's Head, Bertram Grosvenor Goodhue (erected 1923-4).

**Question 0**

What is another term for some of the buildings of the Yale secret society?

**Question 1**

Who is rumoured to have owned the interior list of the Mace and Chain building?

**Question 2**

Who was responsible for the landscaping of the Manuscript Society building?

**Question 3**

Who was the architect of St Elmo?

**Question 4**

Who was the architect of the Manuscript Society building?

**Question 5**

What is another term for some of Yale's public community buildings?

**Question 6**

Who is rumoured to have owned the moulding on the exterior wall of the Mace and Chain building?

**Question 7**

Who was not responsible for the landscaping of the Manuscript Society building?

**Question 8**

Who was not the architect of St Elmo?

**Question 9**

Who was not the architect of the Manuscript Society building?

**Text number 32**

Several campus safety strategies have been put in place at Yale. The first campus police force was established at Yale in 1894, when the university contracted with the city police to operate exclusively on campus. Later hired by the university, the officers were initially brought in to contain unrest between students and city residents and to curb disruptive student behaviour. In addition to the Yale Police Department, a variety of security services are available, including blue phones, a security card and a 24-hour shuttle service.

**Question 0**

When was the first campus police established at Yale?

**Question 1**

Who were the first campus police officers?

**Question 2**

Why was the Campus Police set up?

**Question 3**

What other security measures are available at Yale in addition to the Campus Police?

**Question 4**

When was the last time Yale formed a campus police force?

**Question 5**

When were the first campus police officers shot at Yale?

**Question 6**

Who were the last campus police officers?

**Question 7**

Why was the campus police abolished?

**Question 8**

What other security measures are not available at Yale apart from the Campus Police?

**Text number 33**

Through its needs-based financial support programme, Yale is committed to meeting the full financial need demonstrated by all applicants. The majority of financial aid is awarded in the form of grants and scholarships that do not have to be repaid to the university, and the average need-based grant for the Class of 2017 was $46,395. Fifteen percent of Yale College students are not expected to have parental financial aid, and about 50 percent receive some form of financial aid. About 16 percent of the Class of 2013 had some form of student loan debt at graduation, and the average debt of borrowers was $13,000.

**Question 0**

What kind of system is Yale's financial support?

**Question 1**

How will most of the financial support come from Yale?

**Question 2**

What was the average need for financial support at Yale for the class of 2017?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Yale students are believed to be without parental help?

**Question 4**

What was the average debt of student loan borrowers in the class of 2013?

**Question 5**

What kind of system is not Yale's financial support?

**Question 6**

How can you get the least financial support at Yale?

**Question 7**

What was the average need for financial support at Yale for the class of 2007?

**Question 8**

What percentage of Yale students are believed to get all the help they need from parents?

**Question 9**

What was the average debt of student loan borrowers in 2003?

**Text number 34**

Rare books are held in several Yale collections. The Beinecke Rare Book Library has a large collection of rare books and manuscripts. The Harvey Cushing/John Hay Whitney Medical Library contains important historical medical texts, including an impressive collection of rare books, as well as historical medical instruments. The Lewis Walpole Library contains the largest collection of British literary works from the 1700s. The Elizabethan Club, technically a private organization, makes its Elizabethan folios and first editions available to qualified scholars through Yale.

**Question 0**

Where can you find a collection of historical medical equipment?

**Question 1**

Which library has the largest selection of British literary works from the 17th century?

**Question 2**

Where can qualified researchers obtain Elizabethan foils?

**Question 3**

Which library has a wide selection of rare books and manuscripts?

**Question 4**

Where can no one find a collection of historical medical equipment?

**Question 5**

Which library has the smallest selection of British literary works from the 17th century?

**Question 6**

Where can untrained researchers get hold of Elizabethan foils?

**Question 7**

Where can qualified researchers lose the Elizabethan foils?

**Question 8**

Which library has a small selection of rare books and manuscripts?

**Text number 35**

Yale's museum collections are also of international importance. The Yale University Art Gallery, the first university-affiliated art museum in the country, houses more than 180 000 works in the Swartout and Kahn buildings, including Old Masters and major modern art collections. The latter, Louis Kahn's first major American work (1953), was restored and reopened in December 2006. The Yale Center for British Art, the largest collection of British art outside the UK, grew out of a donation from Paul Mellon and is housed in another building designed by Kahn.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the country's first university partnership art museum?

**Question 1**

How many objects are in the Yale University Art Gallery?

**Question 2**

Where is the largest centre of British art, apart from the UK?

**Question 3**

Who contributed to the establishment of the Yale Centre for British Art?

**Question 4**

Who designed the building of the Yale Centre for British Art?

**Question 5**

What is the name of the country's last university art museum?

**Question 6**

How many objects are not in the Yale University Art Gallery?

**Question 7**

Where is the smallest centre of British art, apart from the UK?

**Question 8**

Who redesigned the Yale British Arts Centre building?

**Question 9**

Whose contribution decided the Yale Centre for British Art?

**Text number 36**

Yale's English and Comparative Literature departments were part of the New Criticism movement. Among the New Critics, Robert Penn Warren, W.K. Wimsatt and Cleanth Brooks were among the Yale faculty. Later, the Yale Department of Comparative Literature became the centre of American deconstruction. Jacques Derrida, the father of deconstruction, taught in the Comparative Literature Department from the late 1970s to the mid-1980s. Several other Yale faculty members also joined deconstruction, forming the so-called "Yale School". They included Paul de Man, who taught in the Departments of Comparative Literature and French, J. Hillis Miller, Geoffrey Hartman (both in the Departments of English and Comparative Literature) and Harold Bloom (Department of English), whose theoretical stance was always somewhat specific and who ultimately followed a very different path from the other members of this group. The Yale History Department has also been at the origin of important intellectual trends. Historians C. Vann Woodward and David Brion Davis are credited with starting an important stream of Southern historians in the 1960s and 1970s; similarly, the labour historian David Montgomery advised many of the country's current generation of labour historians. The Yale School and Department of Music contributed to the growth of music theory in the second half of the 20th century. The Journal of Music Theory was founded there in 1957; Allen Forte and David Lewin were influential teachers and researchers.

**Question 0**

Which of the New Critics staff were at Yale?

**Question 1**

Who is known as the father of deconstruction?

**Question 2**

Where did Jacques Derrida teach from the late 1970s to the mid-1980s?

**Question 3**

Which Yale staff labour historian advised other younger labour historians?

**Question 4**

When was The Journal of Music Theory founded?

**Question 5**

Which old critics were Yale staff?

**Question 6**

Who is known as the mother of deconstruction?

**Question 7**

Where did Jacques Derrida teach from the late 1970s to the mid-1990s?

**Question 8**

Which Yale staff job historian advised other senior job historians?

**Question 9**

When was The Journal of Music Theory not founded?

**Text number 37**

The Yale boarding school system was founded in 1933 by Edward S. Harkness, who admired the social proximity of Oxford and Cambridge and donated substantial funds to establish similar institutions at Yale and Harvard. Although Yale colleges are organisationally and architecturally similar to their English predecessors, they are dependent units of Yale College and have limited autonomy. The colleges are led by a Master and an Academic Dean who reside at the college, and each college's fellowship community consists of the university faculty and its members. Colleges offer their own seminars, social events and talks, known as "Master's Teas", but have no curricula or academic departments. Instead, all undergraduate courses are taught by the Faculty of Arts and Sciences and are open to members of any college.

**Question 0**

When was the Yale residential school system established?

**Question 1**

Who founded the Yale Boarding School system?

**Question 2**

Who runs Yale's residential schools?

**Question 3**

Are there academic programmes at Yale's residential colleges?

**Question 4**

Who teaches the undergraduate classes at Yale Residential College?

**Question 5**

When was the Yale residential school system established?

**Question 6**

Who founded the Yale business college system?

**Question 7**

Who runs Yale's industrial universities?

**Question 8**

Do Yale's residential colleges have unacademic programmes?

**Question 9**

Who teaches the graduate classes at Yale Residential College?

**Text number 38**

The original colleges in Harkness were Georgian Revival or collegiate Gothic in style, but the two colleges built in the 1960s, Morse and Ezra Stiles Colleges, are modernist. All twelve colleges are arranged around a courtyard, and each has a dining hall, courtyard, library, lounge and various student spaces. The twelve colleges are named after important former students or places of significance in the history of the university. In 2017, the University plans to open two new colleges near Science Hill.

**Question 0**

What were the architectural styles of the original Harkness colleges?

**Question 1**

Which two residential colleges are in the modernist style?

**Question 2**

What surrounds Yale's colleges?

**Question 3**

Who are Yale's colleges named after?

**Question 4**

In what year will the university open two new colleges?

**Question 5**

What kind of architectural styles did Harkness' original colleges not have?

**Question 6**

Which three residential schools are in the modernist style?

**Question 7**

What surrounds Yale's universities?

**Question 8**

Who are Yale's colleges not named after?

**Question 9**

What year will the university close two more colleges?

**Text number 39**

After the Charleston, South Carolina church shooting, Yale came under renewed criticism in the summer of 2015 for Calhoun College, one of 12 residential colleges named after John C. Calhoun, a slave owner and strong advocate of slavery in the 19th century. In July 2015, students signed a petition calling for the name to be changed. They argued in the petition that while Calhoun was revered in the 19th century as an "exceptional American statesman", he was "one of the most prolific defenders of slavery and white supremacy in US history". In August 2015, Yale President Peter Salovey addressed the freshman class of 2019, responding to racial tensions but explaining why the college would not be renamed. He described Calhoun as "an eminent political theorist, vice president of two different US presidents, secretary of war and secretary of state, and a congressman and senator representing South Carolina". He admitted that Calhoun also "believed that the highest forms of civilization depended on voluntary slavery. Not only that, but he also believed that the races he considered inferior, especially the black people, should be subjected to it for their own interests." Racial tensions escalated in the fall of 2015, focusing on comments made by Nicholas A. Christakis and his wife Erika regarding free speech. In April 2016, Salovey announced that "despite decades of strong alumni and student protests" Calhoun's name would remain on the Yale residential college campus, explaining that Yale students would be better off living in Calhoun's "shadow" so that they would be "better prepared to meet the challenges of the present and the future." He argued that removing Calhoun's name would "obscure" his "legacy of slavery rather than address it". "Yale is part of that history" and "We cannot erase American history, but we can confront it, teach it and learn from it". One change that will be given is that the title of "Master" for faculty members who serve as residential college directors will be renamed "College Director" because of its connotation of slavery.

**Question 0**

Who was Calhoun College named after?

**Question 1**

Why didn't people like the fact that the college was named after John C. Calhoun?

**Question 2**

What name changes are being made to reduce racial tensions?

**Question 3**

What did President Salovey think would happen if Calhoun's name was removed from the college?

**Question 4**

Whose comments increased racial tension in autumn 2015?

**Question 5**

Who was Calhoun College not named after?

**Question 6**

Why did people like the fact that the college was named after John C. Calhoun?

**Question 7**

Which name change will increase racial tensions?

**Question 8**

What did President Salovey believe would not happen if Calhoun's name was removed from the college?

**Question 9**

Whose comments increased racial tension in autumn 2016?

**Text number 40**

The university publishes a variety of student newspapers, magazines and newspapers. Founded in 1872, The Yale Record is the world's oldest humour magazine. Newspapers include the Yale Daily News, first published in 1878, and the weekly Yale Herald, first published in 1986. Dwight Hall is an independent, non-profit community service organization that oversees more than 2,000 Yale students working on more than 70 community service initiatives in New Haven. The Yale College Council leads several agencies that oversee campus-wide operations and student services. Yale Dramatic Association and Bulldog Productions serve the theatre and film communities. In addition, the Yale Drama Coalition coordinates and provides resources for a variety of theatrical productions sponsored by the Sudler Fund that take place each weekend. WYBC Yale Radio is a campus radio station owned and operated by students. The students used to broadcast radio shows on AM and FM frequencies, but now only have an Internet stream.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the oldest humour magazine in the world?

**Question 1**

What year was The Yale Record first published?

**Question 2**

What year was the Yale Daily News founded?

**Question 3**

When was the Yale Herald founded?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the campus radio station?

**Question 5**

What is the name of the world's newest humour magazine?

**Question 6**

What year was The Yale Record last published?

**Question 7**

What year was the Yale Daily News closed?

**Question 8**

When was the Yale Herald closed?

**Question 9**

What is the name of the TV station on campus?

**Text number 41**

Yale graduates crush clay pipes under their feet to symbolise the end of their "glorious university years", although recently the pipes have been replaced by "bubble pipes". ('Bright College Years', the university's alma mater, was composed in 1881 to the tune of Die Wacht am Rhein by Henry Durand, the class of 1881). Yale student guides tell visitors that students consider it good luck to rub the toes of the statue of Theodore Dwight Woolsey on Old Campus. In the second half of the 20th century, Bladderball, a campus-wide game played with a large inflatable ball, was a popular tradition, but was banned by the administration because of safety concerns. Despite the administration's opposition, students revived the game in 2009, 2011 and 2014, but its future remains uncertain.

**Question 0**

What are seniors crushing to celebrate their graduation?

**Question 1**

What are they destroying now instead of clay pipes?

**Question 2**

Which statue is rumoured to bring good luck when rubbed?

**Question 3**

Which part of the statue of Theodore Dwight Woolsey is said to bring good luck?

**Question 4**

What game was created that was later banned by the administration?

**Question 5**

What are the juniors smashing to celebrate their graduation?

**Question 6**

What are they destroying with clay pipes now?

**Question 7**

Which statue is rumoured to be bad luck to rub?

**Question 8**

Which part of Theodore Dwight Woolsey's statue is said to be bad luck to rub against?

**Question 9**

What game was created, which was later joined by an administration?

**Text number 42**

Yale has numerous sports facilities, including the Yale Bowl (the country's first natural "bowl" stadium and the prototype for stadiums such as the Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum and the Rose Bowl), located in the Walter Camp Field sports complex, and the Payne Whitney Gymnasium, the second largest indoor sports complex in the world. On October 21, 2000, Yale's fourth new boathouse was dedicated in the 157 years that Yale has been practicing varsity rowing. The Richard Gilder Boathouse is named in honor of former Olympic rower Virginia Gilder (79) and her father Richard Gilder (54), who donated $4 million to the $7.5 million project. Yale also maintains the Gales Ferry area, where the men's heavyweight team trains for the Yale-Harvard boat race.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the first bowl stadium in the United States?

**Question 1**

Which landmarks were affected by the Yale Bowl?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the second largest indoor sports building in the world?

**Question 3**

On what day was Richard Gilder's boathouse founded?

**Question 4**

How much did Richard Gilder's boathouse cost?

**Question 5**

What is the name of the last bowl stadium in the United States?

**Question 6**

Which landmarks were not affected by the Yale Bowl?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the second smallest indoor sports building in the world?

**Question 8**

On what day was Richard Gilder's boathouse closed?

**Question 9**

How much did it cost to destroy Richard Gilder's boathouse?

**Text number 43**

Yale has had many financial supporters, but some stand out for the size or timeliness of their donations. Among those who have made major gifts that are remembered by the University are the Harkness family (Edward, Anna and William), the Beinecke family (Edwin, Frederick and Walter), John William Sterling, Payne Whitney, Joseph E. Sheffield, Paul Mellon, Charles B. G. Murphy and William K. Lanman. The Yale Class of 1954, led by Richard Gilder, donated $70 million in honor of its 50th anniversary. Charles B. Johnson, who graduated from Yale College in 1954, pledged a $250 million gift in 2013 to support the construction of two new residential colleges.

**Question 0**

How much did Charles B. Johnson promise Yale in 2013?

**Question 1**

How much did the class of 1954 donate for its 50th anniversary?

**Question 2**

Who led the big donation from the Class of 1954?

**Question 3**

How much did Charles B. Johnson not promise Yale in 2013?

**Question 4**

How much did Charles B. Johnson promise Yale in 2003?

**Question 5**

How much did the class of 1945 donate for its 50th anniversary?

**Question 6**

How much did the Class of 1954 donate for its 40th anniversary?

**Question 7**

Who led the big donation from the class of 1945?

**Text number 44**

Yale has produced some of the best researchers in the field. Among the most famous are US Presidents William Howard Taft, Gerald Ford, George H. W. Bush, Bill Clinton and George W. Bush, Royal Crown Princess Victoria Bernadotte, Prince Rostislav Romanov and Prince Akiiki Hosea Nyabongo, heads of state such as Italian Prime Minister Mario Monti, Turkish Prime Minister Tansu Çiller, Mexican President Ernesto Zedillo, German President Karl Carstens and Philippine President José Paciano Laurel, U.S.A. Laurel and U.S.A.C. Laurel. US Supreme Court Justices Sonia Sotomayor, Samuel Alito and Clarence Thomas; US Secretaries of State John Kerry, Hillary Clinton, Cyrus Vance and Dean Acheson; authors Sinclair Lewis, Stephen Vincent Benét and Tom Wolfe; lexicographer Noah Webster; inventors Samuel F.B. Morse and Eli Whitney; patriot and "first spy" Nathan Hale; theologian Jonathan Edwards; actors, directors and producers Paul Newman, Henry Winkler, Vincent Price, Meryl Streep, Sigourney Weaver, Jodie Foster, Angela Bassett, Patricia Clarkson, Courtney Vance, Frances McDormand, Elia Kazan, George Roy Hill, Edward Norton, Lupita Nyong'o, Allison Williams, Oliver Stone, Sam Waterston and Michael Cimino; "The Father of American Football" Walter Camp, James Franco, "The Perfect Oarsman" Rusty Wailes; baseball players Ron Darling, Bill Hutchinson and Craig Breslow; basketball player Chris Dudley; football players Gary Fencik and Calvin Hill; hockey players Chris Higgins and Mike Richter; figure skater Sarah Hughes; swimmer Don Schollander; skier Ryan Max Riley; runner Frank Shorter; composers Charles Ives, Douglas Moore and Cole Porter; Peace Corps founder Sargent Shriver; child psychologist Benjamin Spock; architects Eero Saarinen and Norman Foster; sculptor Richard Serra; film critic Gene Siskel; television commentators Dick Cavett and Anderson Cooper; New York Times editor David Gonzalez; pundits William F. Gonzalez and William F. Siskel. Buckley Jr, and Fareed Zakaria; economists Irving Fischer, Mahbub ul Haq and Paul Krugman; cyclotron inventor and Nobel Prize winner in physics Ernest Lawrence; Human Genome Project Director Francis S. Collins; mathematician and chemist Josiah Willard Gibbs; and businessmen such as Time magazine founder Henry Luce, Morgan Stanley founder Harold Stanley, Boeing CEO James McNerney, FedEx founder Frederick W. Gibbs and other businessmen. Smith, Time Warner CEO Jeffrey Bewkes, Electronic Arts founder Bing Gordon and investor/philanthropist Sir John Templeton; electronic applications pioneer Austin Cornelius Dunham.

**Question 0**

Which royals have visited Yale?

**Question 1**

Which Italian Prime Minister studied at Yale?

**Question 2**

Which Mexican president went to Yale?

**Question 3**

Who was the father of American football?

**Question 4**

Which Time magazine founder went to Yale?

**Question 5**

Which royal has not visited Yale?

**Question 6**

Which Italian Prime Minister never went to Yale?

**Question 7**

Which Mexican president never went to Yale?

**Question 8**

Who was the mother of American football?

**Question 9**

Which Time magazine founder never went to Yale?

**Text number 45**

Yale University, one of the oldest universities in the United States, is a cultural reference as an institution that produces some of society's elite, and its foundations, alumni and students are prominently portrayed in fiction and American popular culture. For example, Owen Johnson's novel Stover at Yale follows the college careers of Dink Stover and Frank Merriwell, and Frank Merriwell, the model for all subsequent youth sports fiction, plays football, baseball, crew and track and field at Yale while solving mysteries and righting wrongs. Yale University also appears in F. Scott Fitzgerald's novel The Great Gatsby. Narrator Nick Carraway wrote a series of editorials for the Yale News, and Tom Buchanan was "one of the most powerful head coaches ever to play football" at Yale.

**Question 0**

Who were the main characters in Stover at Yale?

**Question 1**

Which F. Scott Fitzgerald novel is Yale part of?

**Question 2**

Which character in The Great Gatsby wrote editorials for the Yale News?

**Question 3**

Which football-playing character in The Great Gatsby played at Yale?

**Question 4**

Who wrote the novel Stover at Yale?

**Question 5**

Who were the minor characters in the film Stover at Yale?

**Question 6**

Which F. Scott Fitzgerald novel does not include Yale?

**Question 7**

Which character in The Great Gatsby read editorials for the Yale News?

**Question 8**

Which baseball-playing character in The Great Gatsby played at Yale?

**Question 9**

Who read the novel Stover at Yale?

**Document number 218**

**Text number 0**

Centuries of prosperity and growth in Europe came to a halt around 1300. A series of famines and plagues, such as the Great Famine of 1315-1317 and the Black Death, reduced the population to about half of what it was before these disasters. With the decline in population came social unrest and endemic warfare. France and England experienced serious peasant revolts, such as the Jacquerie and the Peasants' Revolt, and the Hundred Years' War, which lasted for over a century. In addition to the many problems of the period, the unity of the Catholic Church was shattered by the schism in the West. These events are sometimes called the late medieval crisis.

**Question 0**

What broke the unity of the Catholic Church?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the series of events that ended centuries of European prosperity, which began around 1300?

**Question 2**

In which year was there a great famine?

**Question 3**

Which two countries experienced peasant revolts?

**Question 4**

What major conflict occurred in Europe during the late medieval crisis?

**Question 5**

What saved the unity of the Catholic Church?

**Question 6**

What is the name of the series of events that ended centuries of prosperity in Europe from around 1400?

**Question 7**

What year was there no great famine?

**Question 8**

Which two countries have never experienced a peasant uprising?

**Question 9**

What minor conflict occurred in Europe during the late medieval crisis?

**Text number 1**

Despite these crises, the 1300s were also a time of great progress in the arts and sciences. After the revival of interest in ancient Greek and Roman texts in the Middle Ages, the Italian Renaissance began. The adoption of Latin texts had already begun before the Renaissance of the 13th century through contacts with the Arabs during the Crusades, but access to important Greek texts accelerated with the Ottoman Turkish conquest of Constantinople, forcing many Byzantine scholars to seek refuge in the West, especially in Italy.

**Question 0**

Which two ancient civilisations' interest in texts sparked the Italian Renaissance?

**Question 1**

What conflicts brought Europeans into contact with the Arabs before the 1200s?

**Question 2**

Which city was conquered by the Ottoman Turks, causing scholars to flee to Western Europe?

**Question 3**

Who conquered Constantinople?

**Question 4**

What texts did the Byzantine scholars take with them when they fled Constantinople?

**Question 5**

Interest in the texts of which two modern civilisations gave rise to the Italian Renaissance?

**Question 6**

What conflicts brought Europeans into contact with the Arabs before the 1100s?

**Question 7**

Which city was taken by the Ottoman Turks, causing scholars to flee to Eastern Europe?

**Question 8**

Who liberated Constantinople?

**Question 9**

Which texts did the Byzantine scholars not take with them when they fled Constantinople?

**Text number 2**

This flood of classical ideas was accompanied by the invention of the printing press, which facilitated the spread of the printed word and democratised learning. These two things later led to the Protestant Reformation. Towards the end of the period, the Age of Discovery began. The rise of the Ottoman Empire, culminating in the fall of Constantinople in 1453, eroded the last vestiges of the Byzantine Empire and cut off trade with the East. Europeans were forced to seek new trade routes, leading to Columbus' expedition to the Americas in 1492 and Vasco da Gama's circumnavigation of India and Africa in 1498. Their discoveries strengthened the economy and power of the European nations.

**Question 0**

Which invention led to the wider use of the printed word?

**Question 1**

In what year was Constantinople defeated?

**Question 2**

What year did Vasco da Gama sail around India and Africa?

**Question 3**

What year did Columbus make his expedition to America?

**Question 4**

The Protestant Reformation is considered to have been the result of two developments since the invention of printing.

**Question 5**

Which invention led to a decrease in the use of the printed word?

**Question 6**

What year did Constantinople rise?

**Question 7**

What year did Vasco da Gama sail across India and Africa?

**Question 8**

What year did Columbus make his expedition to Africa?

**Question 9**

The Protestant Reformation is not due to two developments following the invention of the printing press?

**Text number 3**

The term "Late Middle Ages" refers to one of the three periods of the Middle Ages, along with the Early Middle Ages and the High Middle Ages. Leonardo Bruni was the first historian to use the triad in his History of the Florentine People (1442). Flavio Biondo used a similar framework in his Decades of History from the Deterioration of the Roman Empire (1439-1453). The tripartite periodisation became standard after the German historian Christoph Cellarius published Universal History Divided into ancient, medieval, and New Period (1683).

**Question 0**

What are the two other periods of the Middle Ages besides the late Middle Ages?

**Question 1**

When was Leonardo Bruni's "History of the people of Florence" published?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the division of historical periods proposed by Bruni?

**Question 3**

Who was the author of "Decades of history of the decline of the Roman Empire"?

**Question 4**

Which work, published in 1683, led to the established use of the triennial periodic table?

**Question 5**

Besides the late Middle Ages, what are the three other periods of the Middle Ages?

**Question 6**

When was Leonardo Bruni's "History of the People of Florence" published?

**Question 7**

What is not the name of the division of the ages of history proposed by Bruni?

**Question 8**

Who was the reader of the book "Decades of history of the decline of the Roman Empire"?

**Question 9**

Which work, published in 1863, led to the established use of tripartite periodisation?

**Text number 4**

As economic and demographic methods began to be applied to the study of history, the late Middle Ages increasingly came to be seen as a period of recession and crisis. The Belgian historian Henri Pirenne continued to divide the Early Middle Ages, the High Middle Ages and the Late Middle Ages up to the time of the First World War. However, his Dutch colleague Johan Huizinga was mainly responsible for popularising the pessimistic view of the late Middle Ages in his book The Autumn of the Middle Ages (1919). For Huizinga, whose studies focused on France and the Low Countries rather than Italy, the main themes were despair and decay, not rebirth.

**Question 0**

Which methods of historical research led to the Middle Ages being seen as a period of decline and crisis?

**Question 1**

Which author popularised the pessimistic view of the late Middle Ages in his 1919 book?

**Question 2**

What was the title of Huizinga's book on the Middle Ages published in 1919?

**Question 3**

Which countries were the subject of Huizinga's research?

**Question 4**

Which nationality was Henri Pirenne a historian of?

**Question 5**

Which methods applied to chemical research led to the Middle Ages being seen as a time of decline and crisis?

**Question 6**

Which author popularised the pessimistic view of the late Middle Ages in his 1991 book?

**Question 7**

What was the title of Huizinga's book on the Middle Ages published in 1819?

**Question 8**

Which countries were not included in the Huizinga survey?

**Question 9**

What was not the nationality of historian Henri Pirenne?

**Text number 5**

In modern historiography, there is a consensus between two extremes: innovation and crisis. It is now (generally) recognised that conditions were very different north and south of the Alps, and Italian historiography often avoids the 'late Middle Ages' altogether. The term 'Renaissance' is still considered useful to describe certain intellectual, cultural or artistic developments, but it is not seen as a defining feature of the whole European historical period. Rather, the period from the early 1300s to the 1500s - sometimes even up to the 1500s - was characterised by other trends: demographic and economic decline followed by recovery, the end of Western religious unity and the subsequent emergence of the nation state, and the expansion of European influence in the rest of the world.

**Question 0**

What geopolitical entity emerged in the late Middle Ages?

**Question 1**

Which mountain range is considered a dividing line when looking at conditions in the Middle Ages?

**Question 2**

The Renaissance is commonly used to describe developments in which areas of life in the Middle Ages?

**Question 3**

Which centuries are considered to belong to the late Middle Ages?

**Question 4**

What was the general influence of the late Middle Ages on religion?

**Question 5**

Which geopolitical entity faded away in the late Middle Ages?

**Question 6**

Which mountain range is not considered a dividing line when looking at conditions in the Middle Ages?

**Question 7**

The Renaissance is never used to describe developments in which areas of life in the Middle Ages?

**Question 8**

Which centuries do not belong to the late Middle Ages?

**Question 9**

What was the general impact of the late Middle Ages on science?

**Text number 6**

After the failed alliance between Sweden and Norway between 1319 and 1365, the Pan-Scandinavian Union of Kalmar was founded in 1397. From the start, the Swedes were reluctant members of the Danish-ruled alliance. In an attempt to subjugate the Swedes, King Christian II of Denmark had a large number of Swedish aristocracy killed in the Stockholm massacre of 1520, but this only led to further hostilities and Sweden finally seceded in 1523. Norway, on the other hand, became a minor party to the alliance and remained united with Denmark until 1814.

**Question 0**

When was the Squid Federation founded?

**Question 1**

Who was the King of Denmark responsible for the Stockholm massacre?

**Question 2**

In what year did Sweden break away from the Kalmar League?

**Question 3**

Until what year did Denmark and Norway remain in the Kalmar League?

**Question 4**

What year did the Stockholm massacre take place?

**Question 5**

When was the Squid Federation not established?

**Question 6**

Which Amish king was responsible for the Stockholm massacre?

**Question 7**

In what year did Finland break away from the Squid League?

**Question 8**

Denmark and Norway remained in the Kalmar Union until what year?

**Question 9**

What year did the Stockholm massacre not happen?

**Text number 7**

Bohemia flourished in the 13th century, and the Golden Bull of 1356 elevated the King of Bohemia to the rank of imperial elector, but the Hussite revolution plunged the country into crisis. The Holy Roman Empire passed to the Habsburgs in 1438, where it remained until its dissolution in 1806. Despite the vast territories held by the Habsburgs, the empire itself remained fragmented, with much of the real power and influence resting with individual principalities. In addition, financial institutions such as the Hanseatic League and the Fugger family had great power at both economic and political levels.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Holy Roman Empire fall apart?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Golden Bull make the King of Bohemia the first of the imperial electors?

**Question 2**

What kind of institution was the Hanseatic League?

**Question 3**

In 1438, the Holy Roman Empire passed to which dynasty?

**Question 4**

In what year was the Holy Roman Empire saved?

**Question 5**

What year did the silver bull make the King of Bohemia the first of the imperial electors?

**Question 6**

In what year did the Golden Bull make the King of Bohemia the last imperial elector?

**Question 7**

What kind of institution was the Hanseatic League not?

**Question 8**

In 1483, the Holy Roman Empire passed to which dynasty?

**Text number 8**

Louis left no son as heir after his death in 1382. Instead, he named Sigismund, the 11-year-old young prince of Luxembourg, as his heir. The Hungarian nobility did not accept his claim, and an internal war ensued. Sigismund eventually gained complete control of Hungary and established his court in Buda and Visegrád. Both palaces were rebuilt and improved and were considered the richest in Europe at the time. After inheriting the throne of Bohemia and the Holy Roman Empire, Sigismund continued to pursue his policies from Hungary, but he was busy fighting the Hussites and the Ottoman Empire, which was becoming a threat to Europe in the early 15th century.

**Question 0**

In what year did Louis die?

**Question 1**

Who did Louis name as his heir?

**Question 2**

How old was Sigismund of Luxembourg when he was appointed heir?

**Question 3**

Where did Sigismund base his court after he took the Hungarian throne?

**Question 4**

What was the result of the Hungarian nobility's refusal to accept Sigismund's claim to be Louis' heir?

**Question 5**

What year was Louis alive?

**Question 6**

Who did Louis not name as his heir?

**Question 7**

How old was Sigismund of Luxembourg when he was not appointed heir?

**Question 8**

Where did Sigismund not set up his court when he took the Hungarian throne?

**Question 9**

What was the result of the Hungarian nobility accepting Sigismund's claim to be Louis' heir?

**Text number 9**

The Bulgarian Empire was in decline by the 1300s, and the Serbian rise to power was marked by the Serbian victory over the Bulgarians at the Battle of Velbazhd in 1330. By 1346, the Serbian king Stefan Dušan had declared himself emperor. However, Serbian domination was short-lived; the Serbian army led by Lazar Hrebljevanovic was defeated by the Ottomans at the Battle of Kosovo in 1389, in which most of the Serbian nobility was killed, and the southern part of the country fell under Ottoman occupation, as much of southern Bulgaria had become Ottoman territory in 1371. The northern remnants of Bulgaria were finally conquered by 1396, Serbia fell in 1459, Bosnia in 1463 and Albania was finally subdued in 1479, just a few years after the death of Skanderbeg. Belgrade, then under Hungarian control, was the last major Balkan city to fall under Ottoman rule in 1521. By the end of the Middle Ages, the entire Balkan peninsula had been annexed or had become a vassal of the Ottomans.

**Question 0**

What year did Belgrade fall to the Ottomans?

**Question 1**

Who led the Serbian army in the battle of Kosovo?

**Question 2**

What year was the Battle of Kosovo fought?

**Question 3**

Which event led to Serbia's victory over Bulgaria in 1330?

**Question 4**

Which country did the Ottomans conquer in 1479?

**Question 5**

What year did Belgrade not fall to the Ottomans?

**Question 6**

Who never led the Serbian army in the battle for Kosovo?

**Question 7**

What year was the Battle of Kosovo not?

**Question 8**

Which event led to Serbia's victory over Bulgaria in 1303?

**Question 9**

Which country did the Ottomans not conquer in 1479?

**Text number 10**

Avignon was the seat of the papal see from 1309 to 1376. After the Pope's return to Rome in 1378, the Papal States developed into a major secular power, culminating in the morally corrupt papacy of Alexander VI. Florence rose to prominence among the Italian city-states through its financial business, and the ruling Medici family became important promoters of the Renaissance through their support for the arts. Other city-states in northern Italy, mainly Milan and Venice, also expanded their territories and consolidated their power. By the early 1300s, the Sicilian Water War had divided southern Italy into the Sicilian Kingdom of Aragon and the Angevin Kingdom of Naples. In 1442, the two kingdoms were effectively united under Aragonese rule.

**Question 0**

Which city was the seat of the papal throne for most of the 13th century?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Pope return to Rome?

**Question 2**

Which conflict in the 13th century led to the division of southern Italy into two kingdoms?

**Question 3**

What were the names of the two kingdoms into which southern Italy was divided?

**Question 4**

In what year were the two southern Italian kingdoms reunited?

**Question 5**

Which city was the seat of the papal throne for most of the 13th century?

**Question 6**

What year did the Pope not return to Rome?

**Question 7**

Which conflict in the 13th century led to the division of southern Italy into two kingdoms?

**Question 8**

What were the names of the two kingdoms into which Northern Italy was divided?

**Question 9**

In what year were the two southern Italian kingdoms separated?

**Text number 11**

The marriage of Isabella I of Castile to Ferdinand II of Aragon in 1469 and the death of John II of Aragon in 1479 led to the creation of modern Spain. In 1492, Granada was conquered from the Moors, ending the Reconquista. Portugal had gradually explored the coast of Africa in the 15th century, notably under the leadership of Henry the Navigator, and in 1498 Vasco da Gama discovered the sea route to India. The Spanish monarchs responded to Portugal's challenge by funding an expedition by Christopher Columbus to find a western sea route to India, leading to the discovery of America in 1492.

**Question 0**

In which year did Isabel I and Ferdinand II marry?

**Question 1**

When was modern Spain founded?

**Question 2**

Which city did the Reconquista end with?

**Question 3**

Which explorer found the sea route to India?

**Question 4**

What year did Christopher Columbus discover America?

**Question 5**

In which year did Isabel II and Ferdinand II marry?

**Question 6**

When was Ancient Spain created?

**Question 7**

Which city's liberation ended the Reconquista?

**Question 8**

Which explorer missed the sea route to India?

**Question 9**

What year did Christopher Columbus fail to discover America?

**Text number 12**

Around 1300-1350, the Medieval Warm Period gave way to a Little Ice Age. The colder climate led to agricultural crises, the first of which is known as the Great Famine of 1315-1317. However, the demographic consequences of this famine were not as severe as the epidemics of plague, particularly the Black Death, which occurred later in the century. Estimates of the mortality caused by this epidemic vary from one third to as much as sixty percent. By about 1420, the cumulative effect of recurrent plagues and famine had reduced the European population to perhaps only a third of what it had been a century earlier. The effects of natural disasters were exacerbated by armed conflicts, particularly in France during the Hundred Years' War.

**Question 0**

Which climate period followed the Medieval Warm Period?

**Question 1**

What was the estimated upper limit for the number of deaths from the black plague?

**Question 2**

What major conflict shook France in the 1200s and 1300s?

**Question 3**

When did the Medieval Warm Period end?

**Question 4**

What was the impact of the Little Ice Age?

**Question 5**

Which climate period followed the medieval cold period?

**Question 6**

What was the lower limit of the known mortality rate for the Black Plague?

**Question 7**

What was not the effect of the Little Ice Age?

**Question 8**

What major conflict shook France in the 1200s and 1300s?

**Question 9**

When did the Medieval Warm Period begin?

**Text number 13**

As Europe's population plummeted, more land was offered to survivors and labour became more expensive. Attempts by landowners to forcibly lower wages, such as England's 1351 Workmen's Act, were doomed to fail. These attempts only served to increase peasant resentment, leading to rebellions such as the French Jacquerie in 1358 and the English Peasants' Revolt of 1381. The long-term effect was the end of serfdom in Western Europe. In Eastern Europe, however, landowners were able to take advantage of the situation and force peasant slavery into an even more severe form of oppression.

**Question 0**

When was the French Jacquerie held?

**Question 1**

Which English law was passed to reduce wages by force?

**Question 2**

What year was the workers' law passed?

**Question 3**

In what year did the English peasant rebellion take place?

**Question 4**

Which economic system finally ended in the upheavals of the 13th century?

**Question 5**

When did the French Jacquerie not happen?

**Question 6**

Which English law was repealed to reduce wages by force?

**Question 7**

In which year was the workers' statute rejected?

**Question 8**

What year did the English peasant rebellion not happen?

**Question 9**

Which economic system emerged from the upheavals of the 13th century?

**Text number 14**

Until the mid-13th century, Europe had been steadily urbanising. The Black Death also destroyed cities, but the role of urban areas as centres of learning, trade and administration ensured continued growth. By 1500, Venice, Milan, Naples, Paris and Constantinople probably had more than 100 000 inhabitants. Twenty-two other cities had populations of over 40 000. Most of these cities were located in Italy and the Iberian Peninsula, but there were also cities in France, the Empire, the Netherlands and England, as well as London.

**Question 0**

Which European cities were likely to have more than 100 000 inhabitants in 1500?

**Question 1**

How many other cities had more than 40 000 inhabitants by 1500?

**Question 2**

What event wiped out the urban population in the 13th century?

**Question 3**

Which English town had a population of over 40 000 in 1500?

**Question 4**

Which European cities were likely to have more than 1 000 000 inhabitants in 1500?

**Question 5**

Which European cities were likely to have fewer than 100 000 inhabitants in 1500?

**Question 6**

How many other cities had more than 40 000 inhabitants by 1600?

**Question 7**

What event wiped out the urban population in the 13th century?

**Question 8**

Which English town had a population of over 40 000 in 1600?

**Text number 15**

There were also changes in the recruitment and composition of armies. The use of national or feudal levies was gradually replaced by a paid force of domestic soldiers or foreign mercenaries. The practice was associated with Edward III of England and the condottieri of the Italian city-states. Swiss soldiers were particularly in demand throughout Europe. The first standing armies were also born at the same time. In Valois France, the armed forces gradually became permanent under the heavy demands of the Hundred Years' War.

**Question 0**

Which conflict in France led to the creation of standing armies?

**Question 1**

The use of hired mercenaries and indigenous soldiers replaced which method of obtaining troops?

**Question 2**

Which soldiers were in high demand in the mercenary system?

**Question 3**

Which English king is associated with the use of mercenaries in the 13th century?

**Question 4**

Which conflict in France led to the abolition of the standing armies?

**Question 5**

The use of hired mercenaries and international military forces replaced which method of obtaining troops?

**Question 6**

Which soldiers were in low demand in the mercenary system?

**Question 7**

Which soldiers were questioned by the judicial system?

**Question 8**

Which English king is associated with the use of mercenaries in the 13th century?

**Text number 16**

Alongside military development, there was also a constantly evolving chivalric code of conduct for the warrior class. This new ethos can be seen as a response to the diminishing military role of the aristocracy, which gradually became almost entirely detached from its military origins. The spirit of chivalry found expression in new types of (secular) knighthoods, the first being the Knights of St George, founded by Charles I in 1325, and the best known being the English Knights, founded by Edward III in 1348.

**Question 0**

What was the order of knighthood founded by Edward III in 1348?

**Question 1**

Who founded the Order of St George?

**Question 2**

In what year was the Order of St George founded?

**Question 3**

What was the code of conduct for military orders called?

**Question 4**

In what year was the Order of the Knight founded?

**Question 5**

Which order of knighthood was founded by Edward III in 1438?

**Question 6**

Who was one of the founders of the Order of St George?

**Question 7**

In what year was the Order of St George abolished?

**Question 8**

What was not called a military code of conduct?

**Question 9**

In what year was the Order abolished?

**Text number 17**

The French crown's growing dominance over the papacy culminated in the transfer of the Holy See to Avignon in 1309. When the Pope returned to Rome in 1377, this led to the election of different Popes in Avignon and Rome, resulting in the Papal Schism (1378-1417). The schism divided Europe along political lines; France, its ally Scotland and the Spanish kingdoms supported the Avignon papacy, while France's enemy England backed the Pope of Rome, along with Portugal, Scandinavia and most of the German princes.

**Question 0**

What was the result of the simultaneous election of two popes?

**Question 1**

Where was the Holy See moved to in 1309?

**Question 2**

What year did the Pope return to Rome from Avignon?

**Question 3**

What was the time span of the papal schism?

**Question 4**

Who were the supporters of the Avignon Pope?

**Question 5**

What was the result of the simultaneous election of three popes?

**Question 6**

Where was the Holy See moved to in 1039?

**Question 7**

What year did the Pope not return to Rome from Avignon?

**Question 8**

What was not the time of papal schism?

**Question 9**

Who were the rejectors of the Avignon papal election?

**Text number 18**

Although many events took place outside the traditional medieval period, the end of the unity of the Western Church (the Protestant Reformation) was one of the hallmarks of the Middle Ages. The Catholic Church had long struggled against heretical movements, but in the late Middle Ages it began to experience demands for reform from within. The first of these came from Oxford professor John Wycliffe of England. Wycliffe believed that the Bible should be the sole authority on religious matters, and he opposed transubstantiation, celibacy and gift-giving. Despite influential supporters among the English aristocracy, such as John of Gaunt, the movement failed to survive. Although Wycliffe himself was not disturbed, his followers, the Lollards, were eventually suppressed in England.

**Question 0**

Which Oxford professor believed that the Bible should be the sole authority on religious matters?

**Question 1**

What name were Jon Wycliffe's supporters called?

**Question 2**

What was the event that ended religious unity in the Western Church?

**Question 3**

What Catholic practices was Wycliffe speaking against?

**Question 4**

Who was one of the English aristocrats who supported the lollard movement?

**Question 5**

Which Oxford professor believed that the Bible should not be the sole authority on religious matters?

**Question 6**

Why were Jon Wycliffe supporters not invited?

**Question 7**

What was not the event that ended religious unity in the Western Church?

**Question 8**

What Catholic practices was Wycliffe speaking against?

**Question 9**

Who was one of the English aristocrats who never supported the Lollard movement?

**Text number 19**

The marriage of Richard II of England and Anne of Bohemia created links between the two nations and brought the lollard principles to his homeland. The teachings of the Czech priest Jan Hus were based on those of John Wycliffe, but his followers, the Hussites, had a much greater political influence than the Lollards. Hus gained a large following in Bohemia, and in 1414 he was invited to the Council of Constance to plead his case. When he was burned as a heretic in 1415, it caused an uprising in the Czech lands. The Hussite wars that followed were blighted by internal strife and did not lead to religious or national independence for the Czechs, but both the Catholic Church and the German element in the country were weakened.

**Question 0**

What year was Jan Hus burnt at the stake?

**Question 1**

Who did Richard II of England marry?

**Question 2**

On whose teachings did Jan Hus base his own teachings?

**Question 3**

What name were the followers of Jan Hus called?

**Question 4**

Which conflict led to the death of Jan Hus?

**Question 5**

What year was Jan Hus saved by the stake?

**Question 6**

Who did Richard I of England marry?

**Question 7**

On whose teachings did Jan Hus not base his own teachings?

**Question 8**

Why were Jan Hus's followers not invited?

**Question 9**

What conflict arose as a result of the birth of Jan Hus?

**Text number 20**

Martin Luther, a German monk, began the German Reformation by writing 95 theses in Wittenberg Castle Church on 31 October 1517. The immediate provocation that spurred this act was the renewed generosity of Pope Leo X in 1514 for the construction of the new St Peter's Church. Luther was challenged to refute his heresy at the Diet of Worms in 1521. When he refused, Charles V banned him from the empire. Under the patronage of Frederick the Wise, he was able to translate the Bible into German.

**Question 0**

What language did Martin Luther translate the Bible into?

**Question 1**

What did Martin Luther write on the Wittenberg Castle Church?

**Question 2**

In what year did Martin Luther publish his 95 theses?

**Question 3**

How did Martin Luther respond when challenged to refute his heresy?

**Question 4**

Who was the patron of Martin Luther when he was under the ban of the Empire?

**Question 5**

Which language did Martin Luther not translate the Bible into?

**Question 6**

What did Martin Luther not post to Wittenberg Castle Church?

**Question 7**

In what year did Martin Luther publish 59 theses?

**Question 8**

What was not Martin Luther's response when challenged to recant his heresy?

**Question 9**

Who was Martin Luther's patron when he was not under imperial ban?

**Text number 21**

In the late 1300s and early 1300s, a process took place - mainly in Italy, but also to some extent in the Empire - which historians have called the "commercial revolution". The innovations of the period included new forms of partnership and insurance, both of which helped to reduce the risks of commercial enterprises; bills of exchange and other forms of credit, which made it possible to circumvent the canonical laws prohibiting usury and eliminated the dangers of transporting gold coins; and new forms of accounting, notably double-entry bookkeeping, which allowed for greater control and accuracy.

**Question 0**

Which new form of accounting was created in the late 13th and early 13th centuries?

**Question 1**

In which country did the so-called "commercial revolution" mainly take place?

**Question 2**

What was the main benefit of creating new forms of partnership during the commercial revolution?

**Question 3**

What laws against lending were dealt with by creating bills of exchange?

**Question 4**

What were the benefits of the new double-entry accounting system?

**Question 5**

Which old form of accounting was created in the late 13th and early 13th centuries?

**Question 6**

In which country did the so-called "commercial revolution" never take place?

**Question 7**

What was the main benefit of creating old forms of partnership during the commercial revolution?

**Question 8**

What laws against lending were not dealt with by creating bills of exchange?

**Question 9**

What were the benefits of the new single-entry accounting system?

**Text number 22**

As the economy expanded, the commercial elite became increasingly jealous of trade rights. In towns, the power of guilds grew, while at the national level, specific companies gained monopoly power over certain trades, such as the wool industry in England. The beneficiaries of this development amassed enormous wealth. Families like the Fuggers in Germany, the Medici in Italy, the de la Poles in England and individuals like Jacques Coeur in France helped to finance the wars of kings, while also gaining great political influence.

**Question 0**

What privileges were granted to companies at national level?

**Question 1**

Which families financed the wars of kings?

**Question 2**

Which economic associations gained power in the cities?

**Question 3**

Where was Jacques Couer from?

**Question 4**

What privileges were not granted to companies at national level?

**Question 5**

What privileges were granted to companies at international level?

**Question 6**

Which families never financed the wars of kings?

**Question 7**

Which economic associations lost power in the cities?

**Question 8**

Where was Jacques Couer not from?

**Text number 23**

While there is no doubt that the population crisis of the 13th century caused a dramatic decline in production and trade in absolute terms, there has been a heated historical debate about whether the decline was greater than the decline in population. An older orthodox view holds that Renaissance artistic production was the result of an increase in abundance, but more recent studies have suggested that it may have been a so-called 'Renaissance depression'. Although convincing arguments have been put forward, the statistical evidence is simply too limited to draw any firm conclusions.

**Question 0**

What caused the decline in trade and production in the 13th century?

**Question 1**

What is the alternative to the theory that the Renaissance was a time of great abundance?

**Question 2**

What evidence is too incomplete to decide between the two theories of the Renaissance?

**Question 3**

What is considered to be the cause of the increase in artistic production during the Renaissance?

**Question 4**

What caused the increase in trade and production in the 13th century?

**Question 5**

What is the alternative to the theory that the Renaissance was not a time of great abundance?

**Question 6**

What is the alternative to the theory that the Renaissance was devoid of opulence?

**Question 7**

What evidence is too complete to make a decision between the two theories of the Renaissance?

**Question 8**

What is considered to be the cause of the decline in artistic production during the Renaissance?

**Text number 24**

The dominant school of thought in the 13th century was the Thomist school, which reconciled Aristotle's teachings with Christian theology. A judgment of the University of Paris in 1277 imposed restrictions on ideas that could be interpreted as heretical, including Aristotelian thought. An alternative was put forward by William of Ockham, who insisted that the world of reason and the world of faith should be kept separate. Ockham introduced the principle of parsimony, Occam's razor, which favoured simple theories over more complex ones and avoided speculation on unobservable phenomena.

**Question 0**

Which philosophy tried to reconcile Aristotelian teachings with Christian theology in the 13th century?

**Question 1**

Where was the 1277 judgment handed down?

**Question 2**

Which philosopher believed that reason and faith should be kept separate?

**Question 3**

What is the common name for William Occam's thrift principle?

**Question 4**

What kind of ideas were restricted in the 1277 judgment?

**Question 5**

Which philosophy tried to reconcile Aristotelian teachings with Christian theology in the 13th century?

**Question 6**

Where was the 1727 judgment given?

**Question 7**

Which philosopher believed that reason and faith must be kept together?

**Question 8**

What is the rare name for William Occam's thrift principle?

**Question 9**

What kind of ideas were restricted in the 1272 judgment?

**Text number 25**

This new approach freed scientific speculation from the dogmatic constraints of Aristotelian science and paved the way for new approaches. In particular, great advances were made in the field of theories of motion, with scholars such as Jean Buridan, Nicole Oresme and the Oxford calculators questioning Aristotle's work. Buridan developed a theory of impetus as a cause of projectile motion, which was an important step towards the modern concept of inertia. The works of these scholars anticipated the heliocentric worldview of Nicolaus Copernicus.

**Question 0**

What did Jean Buridan create to explain the movement of projectiles?

**Question 1**

Which school of scientific thought was challenged by Jean Buridan and Nicole Oresme?

**Question 2**

Which scientist is most associated with the heliocentric worldview?

**Question 3**

Which researchers made major advances in movement theories?

**Question 4**

Buridan's impulse theory led to what modern concept?

**Question 5**

What did Jean Buridan not create to explain the movement of projectiles?

**Question 6**

What did Jean Buridan destroy to explain the movement of the projectiles?

**Question 7**

Which scientific school did Jean Buridan and Nicole Oresme adopt?

**Question 8**

Which scientist is least associated with the heliocentric worldview?

**Question 9**

Which researchers did not make progress in business theory?

**Text number 26**

Some technological inventions of the period - whether of Arab or Chinese origin or unique European innovations - had a major impact on political and social development, notably gunpowder, the printing press and the compass. The introduction of gunpowder to the battlefield had an impact not only on military organisation but also on the development of the nation state. Gutenberg's loose-leaf printing press enabled not only the Reformation but also the spread of knowledge, which gradually led to a more egalitarian society. The compass and other innovations, such as the cross-post, the mariner's astrolabe and advances in shipbuilding, made possible the navigation of the world's seas and the beginnings of colonialism. Other inventions, such as spectacles and the printing clock, had a greater impact on everyday life.

**Question 0**

Who invented the mobile printing press?

**Question 1**

Which religious movement was inspired by the invention of the printing press?

**Question 2**

Which inventions of the period had a major impact on everyday life?

**Question 3**

Which invention, with military applications, helped create the nation state?

**Question 4**

Which advances in the construction sector helped to increase global shipping?

**Question 5**

Who invented the printing press?

**Question 6**

Which religious movement stopped the invention of the printing press?

**Question 7**

Which inventions of the period did not affect everyday life?

**Question 8**

What invention, which had no military applications, helped create the nation state?

**Question 9**

Which advances in the construction sector helped to reduce global shipping?

**Text number 27**

Several important technical innovations were made during this period, such as the principle of linear perspective discovered in the work of Masaccio and later described by Brunelleschi. The scientific study of anatomy, promoted by artists such as Donatello, also contributed to realism. This is particularly evident in his sculptures, which are inspired by the study of classical models. As the centre of the movement moved to Rome, the period culminated with the High Renaissance masters da Vinci, Michelangelo and Raphael.

**Question 0**

Who pushed for scientific research in anatomy for the benefit of art?

**Question 1**

What artistic principle did Brunelleschi innovate?

**Question 2**

Which two other artists were considered, along with da Vinci, to be masters of the High Renaissance?

**Question 3**

What was achieved by using the scientific study of anatomy in the field of art?

**Question 4**

What did Donatello study that inspired his sculptures?

**Question 5**

Who abandoned the scientific study of anatomy for art?

**Question 6**

Which artistic principle did Brunelleschi renew?

**Question 7**

Who are two other artists, apart from da Vinci, who are not considered masters of the High Renaissance?

**Question 8**

What was not achieved by using the scientific study of anatomy in the field of art?

**Question 9**

What did Donatello not study that inspired his sculptures?

**Text number 28**

The ideas of the Italian Renaissance slowly made their way across the Alps to northern Europe, but important artistic innovations were also made in the Netherlands. Although Jan van Eyck was not the inventor of oil painting, as previously thought, he was a master of the new medium and used it to create highly realistic and detailed works. The two cultures influenced and learned from each other, but painting in the Netherlands still focused more on textures and surfaces than on idealised Italian compositions.

**Question 0**

What were the paintings focused on in Italy?

**Question 1**

Which paintings focused on textures and surfaces?

**Question 2**

Which painter was an early master of oil as a painting medium?

**Question 3**

Jan van Eyck's paintings are known for what characteristics?

**Question 4**

Where were the paintings not concentrated in Italy?

**Question 5**

Which paintings did not focus on textures and surfaces?

**Question 6**

Which painter was the late master of oil as a painting medium?

**Question 7**

Which painter was not an early master of oil as a painting medium?

**Question 8**

Jan van Eyck's paintings are unknown because of what?

**Text number 29**

Dante Alighieri's Divine Comedy, written in the early 1300s, combined a medieval world view with classical ideals. Another promoter of the Italian language was Boccaccio with his Decameron. The adoption of the vernacular did not mean abandoning Latin, and both Dante and Boccaccio wrote extensively in both Latin and Italian, as did Petrarch later (whose Canzoniere also promoted the vernacular and whose contents are considered the first modern lyric poems). Together, these three poets established the Tuscan dialect as the norm for modern Italian.

**Question 0**

Who wrote The Divine Comedy?

**Question 1**

In which languages did Dante and Boccaccio create their works?

**Question 2**

Which dialect of modern Italian became the norm in modern Italian?

**Question 3**

What is one of Boccaccio's works that contributed to the spread of the Italian language?

**Question 4**

Whose work Canzoniere is considered the first example of modern lyric poetry?

**Question 5**

Who didn't write Divine Comedy?

**Question 6**

In which languages did Dante and Boccaccio not create their works?

**Question 7**

Which dialect became the norm in Ancient Italian?

**Question 8**

What is one of Boccaccio's works that helped to degrade the Italian language?

**Question 9**

Whose work, Canzoniere, is considered the last example of modern lyric poetry?

**Text number 30**

Music was an important part of both secular and spiritual culture, and in universities it formed part of the liberal arts quadrivium. From the beginning of the 13th century, sacred music was a form of motet, a composition with a text in several parts. From 1330 onwards, the polyphonic style emerged, a more complex combination of independent voices. Polyphony had been common in the secular music of the Provençal troubadours. Many of them had been victims of the Albigensian Crusade of the 13th century, but their influence extended to the papal court in Avignon.

**Question 0**

What was the dominant form of church music in the early 1200s?

**Question 1**

What style of church music emerged in the 1330s?

**Question 2**

In which French secular music was polyphony common?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the four subjects that made up the liberal arts in medieval universities?

**Question 4**

What was the predominant form of church music in the early 1200s?

**Question 5**

What was the predominant form of sacred music in the early 1200s?

**Question 6**

What style of church music emerged in the 1320s?

**Question 7**

In which French secular music was polyphony rare?

**Question 8**

What is not the term for the four subjects that made up the liberal arts in medieval universities?

**Text number 31**

The main exponents of the new style, often called ars nova as opposed to ars antiqua, were the composers Philippe de Vitry and Guillaume de Machaut. In Italy, where the Provençal troubadours had also found refuge, the corresponding period is known as the trecento, and the leading composers were Giovanni da Cascia, Jacopo da Bologna and Francesco Landini. A major innovator in orthodox church music in the first half of the 13th century was John Kukuzelis, who also introduced the musical notation system widely used in the Balkans in the following centuries.

**Question 0**

Who introduced the musical notation system used in the Balkans in the 13th century?

**Question 1**

What was the name of a new style of music introduced in the late Middle Ages?

**Question 2**

Which musical style was replaced by the ars nova in the 13th century?

**Question 3**

Who were the leading composers of the Trecento period?

**Question 4**

Which religion's music did Kukuzelis reform?

**Question 5**

Who introduced the non-musical marking system used in the Balkans in the 13th century?

**Question 6**

What was the name of an old style of music introduced in the late Middle Ages?

**Question 7**

Which musical style was replaced by the ars nova in the 13th century?

**Question 8**

Who were the non-leading composers of the Trecento period?

**Question 9**

Which religion's music did Kukuzelis preserve?

**Text number 32**

Morality plays emerged as a dramatic form in their own right around 1400 and flourished until 1550. The most interesting morality play is the Castle of Perseverance, which depicts the evolution of humanity from birth to death. However, the most famous morality play and perhaps the best known medieval drama is The Everyman. The Everyman receives the summons of Death, struggles to escape and finally succumbs to the inevitable. Along the way, he is abandoned by his relatives, his goods and his comradeship - only the Good Deeds accompany him to the grave.

**Question 0**

What is the most famous medieval morality play?

**Question 1**

Which form of drama was created around 1400?

**Question 2**

What goes to the grave with Everyman in a morality play?

**Question 3**

Which morality play depicted the evolution of humanity from birth to death?

**Question 4**

Who called the Everyman in the morality play?

**Question 5**

What is the least known medieval morality play?

**Question 6**

Which form of drama was created around 1300?

**Question 7**

What goes into a bargain with Everyman in a morality play?

**Question 8**

Which morality play depicted the evolution of humanity from birth to middle age?

**Question 9**

Who in the morality play never called Everyman?

**Text number 33**

In the late Middle Ages, professional actors began to appear in England and Europe. Richard III and Henry VII both maintained small forces of professional actors. Their plays were performed in the great hall of a nobleman's house, often with a raised stage at one end for the audience and a 'screen' at the other for the actors. Also important were the Mummers plays and court masquerades at Christmas. These masquerades were particularly popular under Henry VIII, who built a banqueting house in 1545 and established a banqueting office.

**Question 0**

Which late medieval English kings had their own professional acting troupes?

**Question 1**

Who performed the Christmas plays of the season?

**Question 2**

In what year did Henry VIII set up the ceremonial office?

**Question 3**

What did Henry VIII build in 1545 for the theatre arts?

**Question 4**

In which part of the noble house were the plays performed?

**Question 5**

Which early medieval English kings had their own professional acting troupes?

**Question 6**

Who performed the non-Christmas plays of the season?

**Question 7**

In what year did Henry VII set up the ceremonial office?

**Question 8**

What did Henry VIII build in 1554 for the theatre arts?

**Question 9**

In which part of the noble house were no plays performed?

**Text number 34**

Many factors contributed to the end of medieval drama, including the decline of the Catholic Church, the Protestant Reformation and the banning of religious plays in many countries. Elizabeth I banned all religious plays in 1558, and the great cyclical plays were silenced by the 1580s. Similarly, religious plays were banned in the Netherlands in 1539, in the Papal States in 1547 and in Paris in 1548. The banning of these plays destroyed the international theatre that had existed until then and forced each country to develop its own form of drama. It also allowed dramatists to turn to secular themes, and the renewed interest in Greek and Roman theatre provided them with an excellent opportunity.

**Question 0**

What was forbidden, what led to the downfall of medieval drama?

**Question 1**

In what year did Elizabeth I ban religious plays?

**Question 2**

In which year were religious plays banned in the Netherlands?

**Question 3**

What themes did dramaturgs use when religious plays were banned?

**Question 4**

Where were religious plays banned in 1548?

**Question 5**

What was not forbidden that led to the downfall of medieval drama?

**Question 6**

In what year did Elizabeth II ban religious plays?

**Question 7**

In which year were religious plays banned in the Netherlands?

**Question 8**

What themes did dramaturgs not resort to when religious plays were banned?

**Question 9**

Where were religious plays banned in 1584?

**Text number 35**

After the end of the late Middle Ages, the Renaissance spread unevenly from southern Europe to continental Europe. The intellectual transformation of the Renaissance is seen as a bridge between the Middle Ages and the Modern Age. Europeans would later enter an era of world discovery. The flood of classical ideas was accompanied by the invention of the printing press, which facilitated the spread of the printed word and democratised learning. These two things led to the Protestant Reformation. Europeans also discovered new trade routes, such as Columbus' voyage to the Americas in 1492 and Vasco da Gama's circumnavigation of Africa and India in 1498. Their discoveries strengthened the economy and power of European nations.

**Question 0**

Besides the invention of the printing press and the associated spread of the printed word, what other factor is believed to have led to the Protestant Reformation?

**Question 1**

Which continents did Vasco da Gama visit in 1498?

**Question 2**

What impact did the discoveries of Columbus and da Gama have on the peoples of Europe?

**Question 3**

Which historical period is considered a bridge between the Middle Ages and the modern era?

**Question 4**

What was discovered as a result of the voyages of both Columbus and da Gama?

**Question 5**

What other factor is not believed to have led to the Protestant Reformation besides the invention of the printing press and the associated spread of the printed word?

**Question 6**

Which continents did Vasco da Gama visit in 1489?

**Question 7**

What impact did the discoveries of Columbus and da Gama not have on the peoples of Europe?

**Question 8**

Which historical period is not considered a bridge between the Middle Ages and the modern era?

**Question 9**

What was not discovered as a result of the voyages of Columbus and da Gama?

**Text number 36**

In the late 15th century, the Ottoman Empire advanced throughout south-eastern Europe, eventually conquering the Byzantine Empire and extending its control to the Balkan states. Hungary was the last stronghold of the Latin Christian world in the East, and for two centuries it struggled to maintain its power. After the tragic death of the young Hungarian king Vladislaus I at the Battle of Varna in 1444 against the Ottomans, the kingdom passed into the hands of Count John Hunyadi, who became the regent-ruler of Hungary (1446-1453). Hunyad was considered one of the most important military figures of the 15th century: Pope Pius II awarded him the title of Athleta Christi, or Champion of Christ, because he was the only hope of resisting the Ottoman advance into central and western Europe.

**Question 0**

Which empire completed the Byzantine conquest in the late 1400s?

**Question 1**

What year was the Battle of Varna fought?

**Question 2**

Which Hungarian monarch fell at the Battle of Varna?

**Question 3**

Who was appointed regent-governor of the Kingdom of Hungary in 1446?

**Question 4**

Who gave the title of Christ's champion to John Hyundai?

**Question 5**

Which empire completed the conquest of Byzantium in the late 1300s?

**Question 6**

What year was the Battle of Varna not fought?

**Question 7**

Which Hungarian monarch was saved at the Battle of Varna?

**Question 8**

Who was appointed regent-governor of the Kingdom of Hungary in 1464?

**Question 9**

Who gave Sean Hyundai the title of Master of Christ?

**Text number 37**

Hunyadi succeeded in the siege of Belgrade in 1456 against the Ottomans, the greatest victory against that empire in decades. This battle became a real crusade against the Muslims, as the peasants were motivated by the arrival from Italy of the Franciscan friar St John Capistrano, who predicted a holy war. His influence at the time was one of the main factors that helped to achieve victory. However, the untimely death of the Hungarian lord left Pannonia defenceless and in chaos. In an extremely unusual event for the Middle Ages, the nobility elected Hunjad's son, Matthias, as King of Hungary. For the first time, a member of an aristocratic family (rather than a royal family) was crowned.

**Question 0**

Which Franciscan monk motivated peasants to fight the Muslims at the siege of Belgrade?

**Question 1**

What year was the siege of Belgrade fought?

**Question 2**

Who was elected King of Hungary by the Hungarian nobility?

**Question 3**

Which country was St Francis of Capistrano from?

**Question 4**

When John Hunyadi died, which province was left in chaos?

**Question 5**

Which Franciscan monk motivated peasants to fight for Muslims during the siege of Belgrade?

**Question 6**

What year was the siege of Belgrade not fought?

**Question 7**

Who was not elected king of Hungary by the Hungarian nobility?

**Question 8**

Which country was Saint Francis of Capistrano not from?

**Question 9**

When John Hunyadi died, which province was left alone?

**Text number 38**

King Matthias Corvinus of Hungary (1458-1490) was one of the most important figures of the era, leading campaigns to the west and conquering Bohemia in response to the Pope's call for help against Hussite Protestants. In resolving political enmities with the German Emperor Frederick III Habsburg, he also invaded his western territories. Matthew organised a Black Army of mercenaries; it was considered the largest army of its time. Using this powerful tool, the Hungarian king led wars against the Turkish armies and stopped the Ottomans during his reign. After Matthew's death and the abolition of the Black Army, the Ottoman Empire was strengthened and Central Europe was defenceless. At the Battle of Mohács, the Ottoman Empire's troops destroyed the Hungarian army, and Louis II of Hungary drowned in the Csele Brook while trying to escape. The leader of the Hungarian army, Pál Tomori, was also killed in battle. This is considered one of the last battles of the Middle Ages.

**Question 0**

How did Louis II of Hungary die?

**Question 1**

Who was the leader of the Hungarian army at the Battle of Mohács?

**Question 2**

How many years did Matthias Corvinus reign as King of Hungary?

**Question 3**

Who did Matthias defeat to conquer Bohemia?

**Question 4**

Who opposed the Hungarian army at the Battle of Mohács?

**Question 5**

How did Louis XII of Hungary die?

**Question 6**

Who was not the leader of the Hungarian army at the Battle of Mohács?

**Question 7**

In what years did Matthias Corvinus rule as King of Hungary?

**Question 8**

Who did Matthias lose to in the conquest of Bohemia?

**Question 9**

Who supported the Hungarian army at the Battle of Mohács?

**Text number 39**

These changes have led many scholars to consider this period as the end of the Middle Ages and the beginning of modern history and early modern Europe. However, this division is somewhat artificial, since ancient scholarship was never completely absent from European society. Thus, there was a continuum of development between the ancient period (through classical antiquity) and the modern period. Some historians, especially in Italy, prefer not to speak of the late Middle Ages at all, but rather see the high period of the Middle Ages as moving into the Renaissance and the modern period.

**Question 0**

Which country's historians do not specifically refer to the late Middle Ages?

**Question 1**

What created the continuum between ancient and modern times?

**Question 2**

Which period do Italian historians believe immediately followed the High Middle Ages?

**Question 3**

What do many researchers consider to be the beginning of the late Middle Ages?

**Question 4**

Which country's historians do not refer to the Early Middle Ages?

**Question 5**

What has never offered a continuum of development between ancient and modern times?

**Question 6**

Which period do Italian historians not believe came immediately after the High Middle Ages?

**Question 7**

Which period do Italian historians believe came immediately after the low period of the Middle Ages?

**Question 8**

What do many researchers consider to be the end of the Late Middle Ages?

**Document number 219**

**Text number 0**

Ann Arbor was founded in 1824, named after the wives of the founding fathers and the Bur Oak trees. The University of Michigan moved from Detroit to Ann Arbor in 1837, and the city grew rapidly in the early and mid-20th century. In the 1960s and 1970s, the city gained a reputation as a centre of left-wing politics. Ann Arbor became a centre of political activism, serving as a hub for the civil rights movement, the anti-Vietnam War movement and various student movements.

**Question 0**

When was Ann Arbor founded?

**Question 1**

Which university moved from Detroit to Ann Arbor in 1837?

**Question 2**

In the 1960s and '70s, Ann Arbor got its reputation from what?

**Question 3**

Which tree species is associated with the name of the city of Ann Arbor?

**Question 4**

Which university moved to Ann Arbor in 1873?

**Question 5**

Which Michigan town was founded in 1842?

**Question 6**

What made Ann Arbor famous in the 1950s and 60s?

**Text number 1**

Ann Arbor was founded in 1824 by land speculators John Allen and Elisha Walker Rumsey. Wayne County recorded a town charter on May 25, 1824, under the name "Annarbour"; this is the earliest known use of the town's name. Allen and Rumsey decided to name the town after their wives, named Ann, and the 640 acres (260 hectares) of Bur Oak they purchased from the federal government for $800 at $1.25 per acre. The local Ojibwa named the settlement kaw-goosh-kaw-nick after the sound of the Allen sawmill.

**Question 0**

Who founded Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

What was the occupation of Ann Arbor's founders?

**Question 2**

Which tribe named a settlement kaw-goosh-kaw-nick?

**Question 3**

How much did the founders buy land from the federal government?

**Question 4**

What were the names of the founders' wives?

**Question 5**

Ann Arbor was incorporated in Wayne County on May 24, what year?

**Question 6**

Who founded Ann Arbor in 1842?

**Question 7**

What name did the Ojibwa give the settlement based on the sound of the Rumsey saw?

**Question 8**

How much did the founder's wives pay for mediation?

**Question 9**

How many acres did the founders buy for $1.52 per acre?

**Text number 2**

The history of the University of Michigan and Ann Arbor has been closely intertwined since the university was founded in the city in 1837. The city became a regional transportation hub in 1839 with the arrival of the Michigan Central Railroad, and in 1878 the North-South Railroad was established, connecting Ann Arbor to Toledo and other southern markets. Throughout the 1840s and 1850s, settlers continued to arrive in Ann Arbor. The earlier settlers were primarily of British descent, but the newer settlers also included Germans, Irish and African Americans. In 1851, Ann Arbor was incorporated as a city, but its population declined during the depression of 1873. It was not until the early 1880s that Ann Arbor grew strongly again, with new immigrants coming from Greece, Italy, Russia and Poland. Ann Arbor experienced a boom in manufacturing, particularly in the milling industry. Ann Arbor's Jewish community also grew after the turn of the 20th century, and its first and oldest synagogue, Beth Israel Congregation, was established in 1916.

**Question 0**

Ann Arbor is linked to which university?

**Question 1**

Which city became a regional transport hub in 1878?

**Question 2**

Who were Ann Arbor's first settlers?

**Question 3**

In what year was Ann Arbor incorporated as a city?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the synagogue founded in 1916?

**Question 5**

Which railway arrived in 1893?

**Question 6**

In 1887, a north-south railroad connected Ann Arbor to which Ohio town?

**Question 7**

What was the name of Ann Arbor in 1815?

**Question 8**

What was the name of the synagogue founded in 1961?

**Question 9**

Which city became a regional transport hub in 1878?

**Text number 3**

In the 1960s and 1970s, the city gained a reputation as an important centre for liberal politics. Ann Arbor also became a centre of left-wing activism, and was a hub for the civil rights movement, the anti-Vietnam War movement and the student movement. The first major meetings of the national left-wing campus group Students for a Democratic Society were held in Ann Arbor in 1960, and in 1965 the city hosted the first anti-Vietnam War lecture in the United States. Over the next 15 years, many counterculture and New Left enterprises emerged in the city, developing large constituencies. These influences were reflected in municipal politics in the early and mid-1970s, when three members of the Human Rights Party (HRP) won seats on the city council with student votes. HRP representatives fought for anti-discrimination ordinances, decriminalisation of marijuana possession and rent regulations, among others, during their time on the council; many of these are still in force in amended form. Alongside these liberal and left-wing efforts, a small number of conservative institutions emerged in Ann Arbor. These include the Word of God (founded in 1967), a charismatic interfaith movement, and the Thomas More Law Center (founded in 1999), a religious conservative advocacy organization.

**Question 0**

When was Thomas More Law Center founded?

**Question 1**

What was Thomas More's legal team?

**Question 2**

Which party won the city council seats in the early and mid-1970s?

**Question 3**

Ann Arbor was a base for which war?

**Question 4**

In 1956, the first US teach-in against what war was held in Ann Arbor?

**Question 5**

Which religious group was founded in 1976?

**Question 6**

In what decades was Ann Arbor an important centre of conservative politics?

**Text number 4**

In recent decades, Ann Arbor has struggled with the effects of soaring land values, gentrification and urban sprawl into remote rural areas. On November 4, 2003, voters approved a greenbelt plan under which the city government purchased development rights on agricultural parcels adjacent to Ann Arbor to protect them from sprawling development. Since then, there has been a heated local debate about how and whether development within the city limits should be considered and controlled. Ann Arbor consistently tops the "best places to live" lists published annually by various media. In 2008, CNNMoney.com ranked Ann Arbor 27th out of 100 "Best Small Cities in America". In 2010, Forbes listed Ann Arbor as one of the most livable cities in the United States.

**Question 0**

Which magazine listed Ann Arbor as one of the most livable cities in the US?

**Question 1**

What kind of impacts has the City of Ann Arbor struggled with in recent years?

**Question 2**

Which plan was approved by the city's voters in 2003?

**Question 3**

What kind of plan did voters approve on 4 November 2300?

**Question 4**

What year did Forbes rank Ann Arbor 27th?

**Question 5**

What year did CNNMoney.com rank Ann Arbor as one of the most livable cities?

**Text number 5**

According to the US Census Bureau, the city has a total area of 28.70 square miles (74.33 km2), of which 27.83 square miles (72.08 km2) is land and 0.87 square miles (2.25 km2) is water, much of which is part of the Huron River. Ann Arbor is located approximately 56 km west of Detroit. Ann Arbor Charter Township borders the north and east sides of the city. Ann Arbor is located along the Huron River in a productive agricultural and fruit-growing area. Ann Arbor's landscape consists of hills and valleys, with the terrain becoming steeper near the Huron River. Elevations range from about 750 feet (230 m) along the Huron River to 1,015 feet (309 m) on the west side of town near the intersection of Maple Road and Pauline Blvd. In general, the western central and northwestern portions of the City and the northern campus of U-M are the highest portions of the City; the lowest portions are along the Huron River and in the southeast. Ann Arbor Municipal Airport, located on the south side of the city at 42°13.38′N 83°44.74′W / 42.22300°N 83.74567°W / 42.22300; -83.74567, is at an elevation of 839 feet (256 m).

**Question 0**

Which river is Ann Arbor on?

**Question 1**

What is the Ann Arbor landscape like?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the city airport?

**Question 3**

Ann Arbor is 56 miles west of which Michigan city?

**Question 4**

Which airport has an altitude of 893 feet?

**Question 5**

Which river is 570 feet high?

**Question 6**

Which side of the city has an elevation of 1,510 feet?

**Question 7**

Which river is the highest part of the city along?

**Text number 6**

Ann Arbor's nickname "tree city" comes from the dense afforestation of its parks and residential areas. The city has more than 50,000 trees along its streets and an equal number in its parks. In recent years, the emerald ash borer has ravaged many of the city's approximately 10,500,000 acres. The city has 157 municipal parks, ranging from small green spaces to large recreational areas. Several large urban parks and a university park border sections of the Huron River. The Fuller Recreation Area near University Hospital has sports fields, walking and cycling trails and swimming pools. The Nichols Arboretum, owned by the University of Michigan, is a 123-acre (50-hectare) arboretum with hundreds of plant and tree species. It is located on the east side of the city, near the university's Central Campus. Across the Huron River, just behind the university's North Campus, is the Matthaei Botanical Gardens, with 300 hectares of gardens and a large tropical conservatory.

**Question 0**

What is the nickname for the city of Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

How many parks are there in the city of Ann Arbor?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the arboretum owned by the University of Michigan?

**Question 3**

How big is the Matthaeus Botanical Garden?

**Question 4**

Which pest has destroyed many of the 15 000 000 ash trees?

**Question 5**

Which arboretum is located on 132 hectares?

**Question 6**

Which city has 175 municipal parks?

**Question 7**

Which arboretum is owned by the University Hospital?

**Question 8**

What is the name of the garden with 30 hectares of gardens?

**Text number 7**

Kerrytown Shops, Main Street Business District, State Street Business District and South University Business District are commercial areas in downtown Ann Arbor. The three commercial areas south of downtown are the areas near I-94 and Ann Arbor-Saline Road, the Briarwood Mall, and the South Industrial area. Other commercial areas include the Arborland/Washtenaw Avenue and Packard Road malls to the east, the Plymouth Road area to the northeast, and the Westgate/West Stadium areas to the west. The downtown area features a mix of 19th and early 20th century structures and modern-style buildings, as well as a farmers' market in the Kerrytown area. The commercial areas of the city are mostly two- to four-story buildings, although there are a small number of apartment buildings in the downtown area and near Briarwood Mall.

**Question 0**

Which district has a farmers' market in the city?

**Question 1**

Which parts of the city are mostly made up of 2-4 storey buildings?

**Question 2**

Which parts of the city have both 19th and 20th century and modern buildings?

**Question 3**

Which part of the city is mainly made up of two or three-storey buildings?

**Question 4**

Which mall is north of downtown Ann Arbor?

**Question 5**

Which stadium is east of Ann Arbor?

**Question 6**

Where is the farmers' market in the west side of the city?

**Text number 8**

Ann Arbor's neighborhoods range in architectural style from 19th century classical and early 20th century models to ranch-style houses. Among these houses are several kit houses built in the early 1900s. The contemporary houses are further away from the downtown area. The University of Michigan campus is surrounded by houses and apartment complexes, mainly occupied by renting students. Tower Plaza, a 26-storey condominium building located between the University of Michigan campus and downtown, is the tallest building in Ann Arbor. The Old West Side area has preserved the 19th century buildings and streetscape virtually intact. In 1972, the area was listed on the National Register of Historic Places and continues to be protected by city ordinances and a non-profit preservation group.

**Question 0**

Which century do Kit houses belong to?

**Question 1**

Who mainly lives in the buildings surrounding the university?

**Question 2**

What is the tallest building in Ann Arbor?

**Question 3**

When was the town listed on the National Register of Historic Places?

**Question 4**

Which 62-storey apartment building is the tallest building in Ann Arbor?

**Question 5**

In 1927, the Old West Side was placed on which list?

**Question 6**

At the end of what century were kit houses built?

**Question 7**

Which 62-storey apartment building is located between the University of Michigan campus and downtown?

**Text number 9**

Ann Arbor has a typical Midwestern humid continental climate (Köppen Dfa), influenced by the Great Lakes. There are four seasons: winters are cold with moderate to heavy snowfall, summers are very warm and humid, and spring and autumn are short but mild. The region experiences lake-effect weather, mainly manifested by increased cloudiness in late autumn and early winter. The monthly mean daily temperature for July is 22.6 °C (72.6 °F), and the corresponding figure for January is -4.2 °C (24.5 °F), rising to or above 32 °C (90 °F) on 10 days and falling to -18 °C (0 °F) or below on 4.6 nights. Precipitation is usually highest in the summer months, but most common in winter. Snowfall usually occurs from November to April, but occasionally as early as October, averaging 147 cm over the season. The lowest recorded temperature was -23 °F (-31 °C) on 11 February 1885 and the highest recorded temperature was 105 °F (41 °C) on 24 July 1934.

**Question 0**

How many seasons are there in Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

When does it rain the most in Ann Arbor?

**Question 2**

What is the average snowfall in the city?

**Question 3**

In which month is the average daily temperature 72.6 degrees Celsius?

**Question 4**

What was the lowest recorded temperature on 11 February 1858?

**Question 5**

What was the highest temperature recorded on 24 July 1943?

**Question 6**

What kind of weather is most common in summer?

**Question 7**

In which month is the average daily temperature 24.5 degrees Celsius?

**Text number 10**

According to the 2010 US Census, the city was home to 113 394 people, 45 634 households and 21 704 families. With a population density of 4,270.33 people per square mile (2,653.47/km²) and 49,982 housing units, and an average population density of 1,748.0 per square mile (675.0/km²), the city is less populated than inner-ring suburbs like Oak Park and Ferndale (and Detroit itself), but more densely populated than outer-ring suburbs like Livonia or Troy. The racial composition of the city was 73.0% White (70.4% non-Hispanic White), 7.7% Black or African American, 0.3% Native American, 14.4% Asian, 0.0% Pacific Islander, 1.0% other races, and 3.6% two or more races. Hispanics or Latinos made up 4.1% of the population.

**Question 0**

What is the population density of a city?

**Question 1**

What is the percentage of white people living in the city?

**Question 2**

Which parts of the city of Detroit are densely populated?

**Question 3**

During which census there were 21 407 families living in the city?

**Question 4**

Which inner ring suburbs were less populated than Ann Arbor?

**Question 5**

Which outer ring suburbs were more densely populated than Ann Arbor?

**Question 6**

In which US census year was the city's white population 37.0% white?

**Text number 11**

In 2000, 23.0% of the 45 693 households had children under 18, 37.8% were married couples living together, 7.5% had a female housekeeper without a husband and 52.5% were non-familial. 35.5% of households were made up of individuals and 6.6% had a person aged 65 or over living alone. The average household size was 2.22 and the average family size was 2.90. The age distribution was 16.8% under 18, 26.8% aged 18-24, 31.2% aged 25-44, 17.3% aged 45-64 and 7.9% aged 65 or older. The median age was 28 years. There were 97.7 men for every 100 women, compared with 96.4 men for every 100 women aged 18 and over.

**Question 0**

What is the average household size in Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

What is the average family size in the city of Ann Arbor?

**Question 2**

What is the median age in the city of Ann Arbor?

**Question 3**

What year was the average family size 2.22?

**Question 4**

To which age group do 9.7% of the population belong?

**Question 5**

To which age group does 13.7% of the population belong?

**Question 6**

What year was the median age 82?

**Question 7**

When were 87.3% of the population married couples?

**Text number 12**

The University of Michigan is shaping Ann Arbor's economy significantly. It employs about 30 000 people, including about 12 000 in the medical centre. The university's research and development funding and its graduates attract other employers to the region. High technology, health services and biotechnology are other important components of the city's economy, with numerous medical offices, laboratories and related businesses located in the city. Car manufacturers such as General Motors and Visteon also employ residents.

**Question 0**

Name some of the car manufacturers in the city of Ann Arbor.

**Question 1**

What is the number of employees at the University of Michigan?

**Question 2**

Identify the key drivers of urban growth.

**Question 3**

Which university employs around 30 000 people at the medical centre?

**Question 4**

Which university employs around 12 000 people?

**Question 5**

Who are the car manufacturers that are the main contributors to the city's economy?

**Question 6**

What are the four most important elements of the city's economy?

**Text number 13**

The area has been home to high-tech companies since the 1930s, when the International Radio Corporation introduced the first mass-produced AC/DC radio (Kadette, in 1931) and the first pocket radio (Kadette Jr., in 1933). Argus Camera Company, originally a subsidiary of International Radio Corporation, manufactured cameras in Ann Arbor from 1936 until the 1960s. Current companies include Arbor Networks (provider of Internet traffic planning and security systems), Arbortext (provider of XML-based publishing software), JSTOR (digital repository of scholarly journals), MediaSpan (provider of software and web services to the media industry), Truven Health Analytics and ProQuest, of which UMI is a member. Ann Arbor Terminals manufactured the Ann Arbor Ambassador video display terminal in the 1980s. Barracuda Networks, a provider of networking, security and storage products based on network appliances and cloud computing, opened a design office in Ann Arbor in 2008 on Depot St., and recently announced a move downtown to a building formerly used as Borders' headquarters.

**Question 0**

Which company manufactured cameras in Ann Arbor between 1936 and 1960?

**Question 1**

Which online company started in 2008 offering security, storage and networking?

**Question 2**

Which mass-produced product in the city of Ann Arbor was featured on International Radio?

**Question 3**

Which radio was mass-produced in 1913?

**Question 4**

Which camera company started manufacturing cameras in Ann Arbor in 1963?

**Question 5**

What year was the first pocket radio (Kadette) produced?

**Question 6**

In what decade did Barracuda Networks manufacture the Ann Arbor Ambassador?

**Text number 14**

Websites and online media companies operating in or near the city include All Media Guide, Weather Underground and Zattoo. Ann Arbor is home to Internet2 and Merit Network, a non-profit research and education computer network. Both are located in the South State Commons 2 building on South State Street, once home to the Michigan Information Technology Center Foundation. The city is also home to the headquarters of Google's AdWords program, the company's main source of revenue. The recent increase in the number of businesses in Ann Arbor has led to a decrease in the number of office and flex space vacancies. As of December 31, 2012, the overall office and flex space occupancy rate was 11.80%, down 1.40% from a year earlier and the lowest overall occupancy rate since 2003. The vacancy rate for office space fell to 10.65% in 2012 from 12.08% in 2011, while the vacancy rate for flex space fell slightly more, from 16.50% to 15.02%.

**Question 0**

Which company's adwords program is headquartered in Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

Name some websites or media companies based in Ann Arbor.

**Question 2**

What company is the Merit network?

**Question 3**

What was the total market volatility on 13 December 2012?

**Question 4**

In what year did the vacancy rate for flexible housing fall to 15.20%?

**Question 5**

In what year was the vacancy rate for office space 12.80%?

**Question 6**

What year was the flexible vacancy rate 16.05%?

**Question 7**

In which city is the Zattoo AdWords headquarters located?

**Text number 15**

Pfizer, once the city's second largest employer, operated a large pharmaceutical research facility on the northeast side of Ann Arbor. On 22 January 2007, Pfizer announced that it would cease operations in Ann Arbor by the end of 2008. The facility was previously operated by Warner-Lambert and before that by Parke-Davis. In December 2008, the University of Michigan Board of Regents approved the purchase of the facility, and the university plans to hire 2,000 researchers and staff over the next 10 years. The city is also home to other research and engineering centres, including those of Lotus Engineering, General Dynamics and the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). Other research centres located in the city include the US Environmental Protection Agency's National Vehicle and Fuel Emissions Laboratory and Toyota's Technical Centre. The city is also home to the National Sanitation Foundation International (NSF International), a non-profit, non-governmental organisation that develops generally accepted standards for a range of public health-related industries and topics.

**Question 0**

Who is the second largest employer in the city?

**Question 1**

Which non-profit NGO is located in Ann Arbor?

**Question 2**

How many researchers will the University of Michigan hire?

**Question 3**

Which pharmaceutical company was Ann Arbor's largest employer?

**Question 4**

Which company announced that it will cease its activities by the end of 2007?

**Question 5**

In what month of 2007 did the University of Michigan Board of Regents approve the purchase of the facilities?

**Question 6**

Which car manufacturer has a fuel emissions laboratory in Ann Arbor?

**Text number 16**

In 1971, brothers Tom and Louis Borders opened Borders Books in Ann Arbor, a warehouse of used books. The Borders chain was headquartered in the city, along with its flagship store, until it closed in September 2011. Domino's Pizza is headquartered near Ann Arbor at Domino's Farms, a 271-acre (110 ha) Frank Lloyd Wright-inspired property northeast of the city. Another Ann Arbor-based company is Zingerman's Delicatessen, which serves sandwiches and has developed a business under various brands. Zingerman's has grown into a family of businesses offering a variety of products (bakery, mail order, creamery, coffee) and services (business training). Flint Ink Corp, another Ann Arbor-based company, was the world's largest privately held ink manufacturer until it was acquired by Stuttgart-based XSYS Print Solutions in October 2005. Avfuel, a global supplier of aviation fuels and services, is also based in Ann Arbor. Aastrom Biosciences, a publicly traded company developing stem cell therapies for cardiovascular diseases, is based in Ann Arbor.

**Question 0**

When did Borders Books open in Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

Who opened the Borders Books store in Ann Arbor?

**Question 2**

Which pizza chain is headquartered in Ann Arbor?

**Question 3**

Which company was the world's largest privately owned ink manufacturer until 2005?

**Question 4**

Avfuel, a global provider of which services, is headquartered in Ann Arbor?

**Question 5**

Which bookshop opened in 1917?

**Question 6**

Which pizza chain has its headquarters on 217 hectares of land?

**Question 7**

What is the name of a building complex on 217 hectares of land to the north-east of the city?

**Question 8**

What is the largest privately owned ink manufacturer in the world?

**Question 9**

Which bookshop was founded by Tom and Lois Borders?

**Text number 17**

The University of Michigan campus has several performing arts groups and spaces, as well as museums of art, archaeology, natural history and science. Founded in 1879, the University Musical Society is an independent performing arts organization that hosts more than 60 events each year, featuring international artists in music, dance and theatre. Since 2001, Shakespeare in the Arb has presented one of Shakespeare's plays every June in a large park near the city centre. Non-university regional and local performing arts groups include Ann Arbor Civic Theatre, Arbor Opera Theater, Ann Arbor Symphony Orchestra, Ann Arbor Ballet Theater, Ann Arbor Civic Ballet (founded in 1954 as Michigan's first chartered ballet company), The Ark and Performance Network Theatre. Another of Ann Arbor's unique artistic expressions is Fairy Doors. These small gates are examples of installation art, and can be found throughout the downtown area.

**Question 0**

When was the University Music Society founded?

**Question 1**

How many events does the University Music Society organise each year?

**Question 2**

When was the Ann Arbor Civic Ballet founded?

**Question 3**

Name Michigan's first Civic Chartered Company.

**Question 4**

Which association was founded in 1897 in Ann Arbor?

**Question 5**

Which ballet company was founded in 1945?

**Question 6**

Which organisation organises more than 6 events a year?

**Question 7**

Which national theatre is linked to the university?

**Question 8**

What is the name of the Shakespeare event that started in 2011?

**Text number 18**

The Ann Arbor Hands-On Museum is located in a renovated and expanded historic fire station. The city has several art galleries, particularly in the downtown area and around the University of Michigan campus. The Main Street, South State Street and South University Avenue areas have many restaurants, and Ann Arbor ranks first among US cities in the number of booksellers and books sold per capita. The Ann Arbor District Library has four branches in addition to the main downtown building. The city is also home to the Gerald R. Ford Presidential Library.

**Question 0**

Which museum is located in the Ann Arbors Historic Downtown Fire Station?

**Question 1**

Ann Arbor is in 1st place for what goods are sold?

**Question 2**

Which presidential library is located in Ann Arbor?

**Question 3**

Which museum is located in a renovated historic police station in the city centre?

**Question 4**

How many branches does the Gerald R. Ford Presidential Library have?

**Question 5**

What kind of business is there in the city centre in particular?

**Question 6**

Where does Ann Arbor rank among US cities in the number of restaurants per capita?

**Text number 19**

Several annual events, many of which focus on the performing and visual arts, attract visitors to Ann Arbor. One such event is the Ann Arbor Art Fairs, a series of four simultaneous juried fairs held on downtown streets. They take place from Wednesday to Saturday of the third week in July and attract half a million visitors. The second is the Ann Arbor Film Festival, which takes place in the third week of March and attracts more than 2 500 films from over 40 countries each year, making it one of the few Oscar-winning festivals in the US.

**Question 0**

What kind of art fairs are held in Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the film festival in Ann Arbor?

**Question 2**

How many submissions will the Ann Arbor Film Festival receive?

**Question 3**

Which festival receives more than 5 200 proposals every year?

**Question 4**

What month is the second week of the Ann Arbor Film Festival?

**Question 5**

Which event attracts more than half a billion visitors?

**Question 6**

What week in March is the Ann Arbor Art Fair?

**Question 7**

What week in July is the Ann Arbor Film Festival?

**Text number 20**

Ann Arbor has a long history of openness to cannabis, as Ann Arbor has decriminalized cannabis, has a large number of medical marijuana dispensaries (one dispensary, People's Co-op, was located directly across the street from Michigan Stadium until it had to move a mile west), a large number of cannabis-friendly residents, and an annual Hash Bash event held on the first Saturday in April. Before (at least) the successful passage of Michigan's medical marijuana law, the event had arguably deviated from its original intent, although for years several participants have faced serious legal action for using marijuana on University of Michigan property not covered by the city's progressive and compassionate ticketing program.

**Question 0**

What medical clinics are there in Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

What are the names of the medical marijuana dispensaries in the city?

**Question 2**

Which annual event takes place on the 1st Saturday in April?

**Question 3**

What was allowed to smoke on the University of Michigan campus/

**Question 4**

What drug is the majority of residents opposed to?

**Question 5**

Which pharmacy had to move a kilometre east because of zoning?

**Question 6**

Which stadium opposite the People's Co-op is currently located?

**Text number 21**

Ann Arbor is a major scene for college sports, especially at the University of Michigan, which is part of the Big Ten Conference. The city is home to several well-known college sports arenas, including Michigan Stadium, the largest American football stadium in the world. The stadium was completed in 1927 and cost over $950,000 to build. It has a seating capacity of 109,901 after several renovations. The stadium is colloquially known as "The Big House". The Crisler Center and Yost Ice Arena are home to the school's basketball (both men's and women's) and hockey teams. Concordia University, a member of the NAIA, also offers sports teams.

**Question 0**

Who is a member of the Big Ten Conference in university sport in your city?

**Question 1**

What is the largest American football stadium in the world?

**Question 2**

What is the colloquial name of Michigan Stadium?

**Question 3**

Which stadium was completed in 1972?

**Question 4**

Where is the hockey played in which centre?

**Question 5**

Which stadium cost over $590 000 to build?

**Question 6**

Which conference does Concordia University belong to?

**Question 7**

What is the nickname of the Crisler Center?

**Text number 22**

A person from Ann Arbor is called an "Ann Arborite", and many long-time residents call themselves "city dwellers". The city itself is often referred to as "A²" ("A-square") or "A2" ("A-two") or "AA", "The Deuce" (mostly Chicagoans) and "Tree Town". In reference to the city's liberal political leanings, some sometimes refer to Ann Arbor as the "People's Republic of Ann Arbor" or "25 square miles surrounded by reality", the latter expression coming from Wisconsin Governor Lee Dreyfus' description of Madison, Wisconsin. In A Prairie Home Companion, broadcast from Ann Arbor, Garrison Keillor described Ann Arbor as "a town where people talk about socialism, but only in the finest restaurants". Ann Arbor sometimes appears in reference lists as a writer rather than a place, often with the academic degree MI, a misunderstanding of the Michigan acronym. Ann Arbor has become increasingly gentrified in recent years.

**Question 0**

What is the name of a person from Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

What has Ann Arbor become in recent years?

**Question 2**

What city is called the "People's Republic of Ann Arbor"?

**Question 3**

Which city is known for being surrounded by 52 square kilometres of reality?

**Question 4**

What was the phrase Wisconsin Governor Lee Dreyfus used to describe Ann Arbor?

**Question 5**

What is an academic degree in MI?

**Question 6**

By what name is Ann Arbor sometimes referred to because of the city's conservative political leanings?

**Text number 23**

Ann Arbor is governed by a council and an administrator. The City Council consists of 11 voting members: the Mayor and 10 City Councilors. The Mayor and City Council members serve two-year terms: the Mayor is elected every even-numbered year, and half of the City Council members are elected annually (five in even-numbered years and five in odd-numbered years). Two councillors are elected from each of the five wards. The mayor is elected for the whole city. The mayor is the chairman of the city council and has the power to appoint all members of council committees, boards and commissions with the approval of the city council. Ann Arbor's current mayor is Christopher Taylor, a Democrat who was elected mayor in 2014. The City's day-to-day operations are managed by a Mayor elected by the City Council.

**Question 0**

What form of government does Ann Arbor have?

**Question 1**

How many voting members are there in the city council?

**Question 2**

How many terms does a city mayor serve?

**Question 3**

Who is elected every even-numbered year?

**Question 4**

How many councillors are elected to a city department?

**Question 5**

Who is the current Republican mayor of Ann Arbor?

**Question 6**

Who is the administrator in charge of day-to-day operations, and who is chosen by the mayor?

**Question 7**

Who was elected mayor in the last odd-numbered year?

**Text number 24**

Ann Arbor is part of Michigan's 12th Congressional District, represented in Congress by Representative Debbie Dingell, a Democrat. At the state level, the city is part of Michigan's 18th Senate District, represented by Rebekah Warren, Democrat. In the Michigan House of Representatives, representation is divided into the 55th District (north of Ann Arbor, part of Ann Arbor Township and other surrounding areas, represented by Democrat Adam Zemke), the 53rd District (most of downtown and south of the city, represented by Democrat Jeff Irwin) and the 52nd District (southwestern areas outside Ann Arbor and western Washtenaw County, represented by Democrat Gretchen Driskell).

**Question 0**

Who will represent Congress in Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

Which district number does the city fall under at the state level?

**Question 2**

Who represents the city in the Michigan Senate?

**Question 3**

Which city is represented by the 21st Congressional District?

**Question 4**

What does the 35th Circuit consist of?

**Question 5**

Who represents the 25th District?

**Question 6**

Who represents the 81st District?

**Question 7**

Who represents the 21st District?

**Text number 25**

Left-wing politics has been particularly strong in local government since the 1960s. Voters approved charter amendments that reduced penalties for marijuana possession (1974) and sought to protect access to abortion in the city if abortion ever became illegal in the state of Michigan (1990). In 1974, Kathy Kozachenko's victory on the Ann Arbor City Council made her the first openly gay candidate in the country to win public office. In 1975, Ann Arbor became the first US city to hold a direct election in a mayoral race. The procedure was introduced by the local Human Rights Party, which feared it would split the liberal vote, but it was abolished in 1976 after being used in only one election. Since August 2009, the Democrats have held the mayoralty and all council seats. The leftward shift in city politics has earned the city the nickname "Ann Arbor People's Republic". Nationally, Ann Arbor is located in Michigan's 12th Congressional District, represented by Democrat Debbie Dingell.

**Question 0**

What kind of change will the voters of the city approve?

**Question 1**

What kind of policies have been strong in the municipal government?

**Question 2**

Ann Arbor became the 1st city in the US to vote in a mayoral race using which voting method?

**Question 3**

Which Charter amendment was adopted in 1947?

**Question 4**

Who was the first openly homosexual to win office in 1947?

**Question 5**

What kind of ballots did Ann arbor use in 1957?

**Question 6**

Which procedure was abolished in 1967 after having been used in only one election?

**Question 7**

Who is Ann Arbor's representative in the 21st Congressional District?

**Text number 26**

Other local colleges and universities include Concordia University Ann Arbor, a Lutheran liberal arts college, the University of Phoenix campus and Cleary University, a private business school. Washtenaw Community College is located in neighboring Ann Arbor Township. In 2000, Ave Maria School of Law, a Roman Catholic law school founded by Domino's Pizza founder Tom Monaghan, opened in northeast Ann Arbor, but the school moved to Ave Maria, Florida, in 2009, and Thomas M. Cooley Law School acquired the former Ave Maria buildings as a branch campus.

**Question 0**

The name of a private business school in Ann Arbor.

**Question 1**

Who founded Domino's Pizza?

**Question 2**

Which school bought the former Ave Maria building after the Roman Catholic school moved out?

**Question 3**

Which law school moved to Florida in 2000?

**Question 4**

Which Lutheran school was founded by Tom Monaghan?

**Question 5**

Which law school bought the former Ave Maria buildings in 2000?

**Question 6**

Which community college is located in Ann Arbor?

**Question 7**

Which private trade school is in Ann Arbor Township?

**Text number 27**

Public schools are part of the Ann Arbor Public Schools (AAPS) district. AAPS has one of the leading music programs in the country. As of September 2008, Ann Arbor Public Schools had 16,539 students. The district had 21 elementary schools, five middle schools (Forsythe, Slauson, Tappan, Scarlett and Clague), three traditional high schools (Pioneer, Huron and Skyline) and three alternative high schools (Community High, Stone School and Roberto Clemente). The district also operates a K-8 open school program, the Ann Arbor Open School, which operates out of the former Mack School. This program is open to all families in the district. Ann Arbor Public Schools also operates a preschool and family center with programs for at-risk infants and pre-kindergarten children. The district operates a preschool center that offers both free and fee-based programs for the district's preschool students.

**Question 0**

Ann Arbor has one of the leading programs in which subject area?

**Question 1**

What program is open to Ann Arbor residents?

**Question 2**

How many people were enrolled in public schools in 2008?

**Question 3**

In what year were there 12 elementary schools in Ann Arbor Public Schools?

**Question 4**

In what year were there 16 935 students in Ann Arbor public schools?

**Question 5**

Which high school is located in the former Mack School?

**Question 6**

Is Forsythe a traditional or alternative high school?

**Question 7**

What kind of high school is Forsythe?

**Text number 28**

The Ann Arbor News, owned by the Michigan-based Booth Newspapers chain, is the largest daily newspaper in Ann Arbor and the rest of Washtenaw County. The newspaper ended its 174-year printing run in 2009 due to financial difficulties. It was replaced by AnnArbor.com, but returned as a limited print publication under its former name in 2013. Another Ann Arbor publication that ceased production was the Ann Arbor Paper, which was published free monthly. Ann Arbor is said to be the first major city to lose its only daily newspaper. The Ann Arbor Chronicle, an online newspaper, covered local news, including meetings of the Library Board, County Board and DDA, until September 3, 2014.

**Question 0**

Who owns Ann Arbor News?

**Question 1**

When did the Ann Arbor News stop printing?

**Question 2**

What was the only city in the United States to lose its only daily newspaper?

**Question 3**

Which newspaper was published 147 years ago?

**Question 4**

Which online magazine went out of print in 2009?

**Question 5**

Which newspaper covered local news until 13 September 2014?

**Question 6**

When did Ann Arbor Paper start limited print publication?

**Text number 29**

The city's current publications include the Ann Arbor Journal (A2 Journal), a weekly community newspaper, the Ann Arbor Observer, a free monthly local newspaper, the Ann Arbor Independent, a locally owned independent weekly, and Current, a free entertainment-oriented alt-weekly. The Ann Arbor Business Review covers local business in the area. Car and Driver magazine and Automobile Magazine also operate in Ann Arbor. The University of Michigan publishes several student publications, including the independent Michigan Daily student newspaper, which reports on local, state and regional issues in addition to campus news.

**Question 0**

Which magazine is about local businesses in Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

Which car magazines are based in Ann Arbor?

**Question 2**

In addition to campus news, which university newspaper reports on local, state and regional issues?

**Question 3**

What car magazines does the University of Michigan publish?

**Question 4**

What political student newspaper does the University of Michigan run?

**Question 5**

Which university magazine is a free entertainment magazine?

**Question 6**

Which university magazine is a free monthly local newspaper?

**Text number 30**

The four major AM radio stations based in or near Ann Arbor are WAAM 1600, a conservative news and talk station, WLBY 1290, a business news and talk station, WDEO 990, a Catholic radio station, and WTKA 1050, a primarily sports station. The city's FM stations include NPR affiliate WUOM 91.7, country station WWWWW 102.9 and adult alternative station WQKL 107.1. Freeform station WCBN-FM 88.3 is a local community and college radio station operated by University of Michigan students, offering non-commercial, eclectic music and public affairs programming. The city is also served by public and commercial radio broadcasters in Ypsilanti, the Lansing/Jackson area, Detroit, Windsor and Toledo.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the conservative AM radio station in Ann Arbor?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the FM radio station in your city?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the local free community college radio station?

**Question 3**

Which FM station is known as Catholic radio?

**Question 4**

Which FM station is a sports station?

**Question 5**

Which AM station plays country music?

**Question 6**

What AM station is operated by the University of Michigan?

**Text number 31**

WPXD channel 31, a subsidiary of the ION Television network, is licensed to the city. WHTV channel 18, a MyNetworkTV-affiliated station in the Lansing market, broadcasts from a transmitter in Lyndon Township, west of Ann Arbor. Community Television Network (CTN) is a cable television channel provided by the City, with production facilities open to City residents and non-profit organizations. Detroit and Toledo area radio and television stations also serve Ann Arbor, and stations in Lansing and Windsor, Ontario serve parts of the region.

**Question 0**

WPXD channel 31 is a subsidiary of which television network?

**Question 1**

What is the abbreviation for CTN?

**Question 2**

Which ION Television Network affiliate broadcasts from Lyndon Township?

**Question 3**

Which MyNetworkTV station is licensed in the City of Ann Arbor?

**Question 4**

Where is WHTV channel 81 located?

**Question 5**

Where is WPXD channel 13 located?

**Text number 32**

The University of Michigan Medical Center, the city's only teaching hospital, was ranked the best hospital in the state of Michigan by U.S. News & World Report in 2015. The University of Michigan Health System (UMHS) includes University Hospital, C.S. Mott Children's Hospital and Women's Hospital in its core complex. UMHS also has outpatient clinics and facilities throughout the city. Other major health centers in the region include a large facility operated by the Department of Veterans Affairs in Ann Arbor and Saint Joseph Mercy Hospital in nearby Superior Township.

**Question 0**

What is the children's hospital in nearby Superior Township?

**Question 1**

Which hospital was the number one in Michigan in 2014?

**Question 2**

Which Catholic hospital is in Ann Arbor?

**Text number 33**

The city provides sewerage and water services, and water comes from the River Huron and groundwater sources. The city has two water treatment plants, one main and three outdoor reservoirs, four pumping stations and two water towers. These facilities serve the city, which is divided into five water districts. The city water utility also operates four dams along the Huron River, two of which generate hydroelectric power. The city also provides waste management services, and recycling services are provided by Recycle Ann Arbor. Other utility services are provided by private entities. Electricity and gas are provided by DTE Energy. AT&T Inc. is the primary provider of wireline telephone service in the region. Cable television services are provided primarily by Comcast.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the city-owned cable company?

**Question 1**

Which river is used by private entities for water supply services?

**Question 2**

How many pumping stations do private entities have?

**Question 3**

Who is the private company that handles recycling on behalf of the city?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the telephone operator owned by the city?

**Text number 34**

The streets of downtown Ann Arbor follow a grid pattern, which is less common in the surrounding areas. The major roads branch out from downtown like circles on a wheel onto the highways surrounding the city. The city is surrounded by three freeways: the I-94, which runs along the southern edge of the city, U.S. Highway 23 (US 23), which runs mainly along the eastern edge of Ann Arbor, and the M-14, which runs along the northern edge of the city. Other nearby highways include US 12, M-17 and M-153. Several major surface highways lead to the I-94/M-14 interchange to the west, US 23 to the east, and to areas south of the city. The city also has a system of bicycle paths and trails, including the nearly complete Washtenaw County Border-to-Border Trail.

**Question 0**

Which part of Ann Arbor is bordered by US Highway 32?

**Question 1**

The M-41 runs along what edge of the city?

**Question 2**

In which part of the city does I-49 pass?

**Question 3**

Where is the I-49/M-14 interchange?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the completed cycle route?

**Document number 220**

**Text number 0**

Gothic architecture is a style of architecture that flourished in the High and Late Middle Ages. It developed from Romanesque architecture and was followed by Renaissance architecture. Gothic architecture originated in 13th century France and lasted until the 16th century. It was known at that time as Opus Francigenum ('French work'), and the term Gothic first appeared towards the end of the Renaissance. Its characteristics include a pointed arch, a ribbed vault and flying buttresses. Gothic architecture is best known as the architecture of many of Europe's great cathedrals, monasteries and churches. It is also the architecture of many castles, palaces, town halls, guild halls, universities and, to a lesser extent, private residences such as dormitories and rooms.

**Question 0**

What is one period when Gothic architecture flourished?

**Question 1**

From which architectural style did Gothic architecture evolve?

**Question 2**

Which architectural style came after the Gothic style?

**Question 3**

Where did the Gothic architectural style originate?

**Question 4**

Gothic architecture is known for being commonly used in cathedrals and churches. What is an example of a lesser-known building type where Gothic architecture has been used?

**Question 5**

What is one period when Gothic architecture was not allowed?

**Question 6**

From which architectural style did Gothic architecture evolve?

**Question 7**

Which architectural style came alongside the Gothic style?

**Question 8**

Where did the Gothic architectural style originally fail?

**Question 9**

What architectural styles no longer exist for castles?

**Text number 1**

In the great churches and cathedrals, as well as in many urban buildings, the Gothic style was most pronounced, and its characteristics were well suited to appealing to emotions, whether of faith or civic pride. A large number of church buildings survive from this period, often the smallest of which are architecturally significant, while many large churches are considered priceless works of art and are inscribed on the UNESCO World Heritage List. For this reason, the study of Gothic architecture is largely a study of cathedrals and churches.

**Question 0**

What is an example of where the Gothic style is most strongly expressed?

**Question 1**

Where do the emotions represented by the features of the Gothic style come from?

**Question 2**

What types of buildings are still standing today from this period?

**Question 3**

With which organisation are many Gothic cathedrals listed as World Heritage sites?

**Question 4**

Why are larger cathedrals and churches associated with the Gothic style?

**Question 5**

Where is the Gothic style least pronounced?

**Question 6**

What are the emotions that are reduced by the features of the Gothic style?

**Question 7**

What is the only building style that still survives from this period?

**Question 8**

By which organisation have many Gothic cathedrals remained World Heritage sites?

**Question 9**

Why are only smaller cathedrals and churches associated with the Gothic style?

**Text number 2**

The term "Gothic architecture" was originally a derogatory description. Giorgio Vasari used the term 'barbarian German style' in his Lives of the Artists to describe what is now considered Gothic, and in the introduction to his Lives he attributes various architectural features to the 'Goths', whom he holds responsible for destroying ancient buildings after their conquest of Rome and erecting new buildings in this style. At the time of Vasari's writing, Italy had been building classical architecture, revived during the Renaissance, for a century, as evidence of a new golden age of scholarship and refinement.

**Question 0**

What is the origin of the term "Gothic architecture"?

**Question 1**

Who used the term "barbaric German style" to describe what is now known as the Gothic style?

**Question 2**

Who does Vasari believe destroyed the ancient buildings after the Roman conquest?

**Question 3**

For how long was classical architecture built in Italy during the time of Vasari?

**Question 4**

During which period was the vocabulary of classical architecture revived?

**Question 5**

What description was rejected by the term "Gothic architecture"?

**Question 6**

Who used the term "barbaric German style" to describe what is now called modern style?

**Question 7**

Who does Vasari believe destroyed the new buildings after they fell on Rome?

**Question 8**

How long had Italy stopped building in the classical architectural style by the time of Vasari?

**Question 9**

From which period was the vocabulary of classical architecture forgotten?

**Text number 3**

Most of the surviving Gothic buildings are churches. They range from small chapels to large cathedrals, and although many have been enlarged and altered in various styles, a large number have survived largely intact or sympathetically restored, showing the form, character and decoration of Gothic architecture. The Gothic style is particularly associated with the great cathedrals of northern France, the Netherlands, England and Spain, but fine examples can also be found throughout Europe.

**Question 0**

Which types of buildings remaining today are the most representative of the Gothic style?

**Question 1**

Which region is the Gothic style clearly associated with?

**Question 2**

What is another area with which the Gothic style is clearly associated?

**Question 3**

Which country is the Gothic style clearly associated with?

**Question 4**

To which other country is the Gothic style clearly linked?

**Question 5**

What types of structures are the only examples of the Gothic style today?

**Question 6**

What is one area where the Gothic style is clearly forbidden?

**Question 7**

What is the only area with which the Gothic style is clearly associated?

**Question 8**

Which country no longer has examples of Gothic buildings?

**Text number 4**

By the end of the 13th century, Europe was divided into numerous city-states and kingdoms. The territory comprising present-day Germany, southern Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Austria, Slovakia, the Czech Republic and much of northern Italy (excluding Venice and the Papal States) was nominally part of the Holy Roman Empire, but local rulers exercised considerable autonomy. France, Denmark, Poland, Hungary, Portugal, Scotland, Castile, Aragon, Navarre, Sicily and Cyprus were independent kingdoms, as was the Kingdom of Angevin, whose Plantagenet kings ruled England and large areas of what later became modern France. Norway came under English influence, while the other Scandinavian countries and Poland were influenced by trade links with the Hanseatic League. The Angevin kings brought the Gothic tradition from France to southern Italy, and the Lusignan kings brought French Gothic architecture to Cyprus.

**Question 0**

At the end of which century was Europe divided into several city states and kingdoms?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the region that covered what is now Germany, southern Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Austria, Slovakia, the Czech Republic and much of northern Italy?

**Question 2**

Where in the country today are there areas where Plantagenet kings ruled large territories?

**Question 3**

With which union did Poland have trade links?

**Question 4**

Which kings brought the Gothic style from France to southern Italy?

**Question 5**

In which century was Europe divided into two city states and an empire?

**Question 6**

Where in the country today are there areas where Plantagenet kings ruled over small territories?

**Question 7**

Which kings brought the Gothic style from France to South Asia?

**Question 8**

Which league affected trade links with Peru?

**Question 9**

What was the name of the region that covered what is now Germany, northern Denmark, the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Austria, Slovakia, the Czech Republic and much of southern Italy?

**Text number 5**

Throughout Europe, trade was growing rapidly at the time, accompanied by urban growth. In Germany and the Low Countries, there were large thriving cities that grew in relative peace, trading and competing with each other or joining together for mutual prosperity, such as the Hanseatic League. In these cities, town planning played a major role as a sign of prosperity and pride. In England and France, the feudal system still prevailed to a large extent, producing great domestic architecture for kings, dukes and bishops rather than great town houses for the townspeople.

**Question 0**

What was growing fast in Europe at this time?

**Question 1**

Which countries had substantial and prosperous cities during this period?

**Question 2**

What type of building was considered very important and a sign of wealth and achievement?

**Question 3**

What is the country that remained mostly feudal and created spectacular architecture for royalty rather than bourgeoisie?

**Question 4**

What is another country that remained mostly feudal and created spectacular architecture for royalty rather than bourgeoisie?

**Question 5**

What in Europe declined rapidly around this time?

**Question 6**

Which is the only country that had substantial and prosperous cities during this period?

**Question 7**

What type of building was considered very trivial and a sign of wealth and achievement?

**Question 8**

What is a country that remained mostly feudal and created great architecture for its bourgeois rather than its royalty?

**Text number 6**

The Catholic Church was predominant throughout Europe at the time, influencing not only faith but also wealth and power. Feudal lords (kings, dukes and other landowners) appointed bishops, and they often ruled large estates as virtual princes. By the early Middle Ages, the monastic community had grown rapidly, and several different monastic orders were common and spread their influence widely. The most important were the Benedictines, whose large monastic churches in France and England were considerably larger than any other monastic church. Part of their influence was the development of cities around them, which became centres of culture, learning and commerce. The Cluniac and Cistercian monasteries were dominant in France, and the great monastery of Cluny created a well-designed monastic site pattern that influenced all subsequent monastic building for many centuries.

**Question 0**

Which church was widespread in Europe at that time?

**Question 1**

Who appointed the bishops?

**Question 2**

During which periods did the monastic community grow rapidly?

**Question 3**

What types of churches were the Benedictines known for?

**Question 4**

What is a type of Benedictine organisation common in France?

**Question 5**

Which church was widespread across Asia at this time?

**Question 6**

Who killed the bishops?

**Question 7**

During which periods did the monastic community grow very slowly?

**Question 8**

What kind of churches were the Benedictines unfamiliar with?

**Question 9**

What is a type of Benedictine order that was rare in France?

**Text number 7**

By the 10th and 13th centuries, Romanesque architecture had become a pan-European style and building method, influencing buildings in countries as far afield as Ireland, Croatia, Sweden and Sicily. The development of Gothic architecture then influenced the same wide geographical area, but the acceptance of the Gothic style and building methods and the manifestations of Gothic taste varied from place to place. The proximity of some areas meant that the current land boundaries do not define stylistic boundaries. On the other hand, in some areas, such as England and Spain, defining features emerged that are rarely seen elsewhere, except where they were carried by itinerant craftsmen or the movements of bishops. Regional differences, visible in the great monastic churches and cathedrals of the Romanesque period, are often even more pronounced in Gothic.

**Question 0**

During which period did Romanesque architecture become a pan-European architectural style?

**Question 1**

What is one country in a geographical area that was influenced by the development of Gothic architecture?

**Question 2**

Why were the differences in style of Gothic architecture not affected by national borders?

**Question 3**

During which period did regional differences in Romanesque architecture become even more pronounced?

**Question 4**

In England and where else were there architectural styles rarely seen anywhere else?

**Question 5**

In which period did Romanesque architecture become a pan-European style of destruction?

**Question 6**

Which is the only country in the geographical area that was influenced by the development of Gothic architecture?

**Question 7**

Why were the differences in style of Gothic architecture not affected by national borders?

**Question 8**

In which period did the regional similarities in Romanesque architecture become even more pronounced?

**Question 9**

Where else but in England have you seen the kind of architecture that has often been seen everywhere else?

**Text number 8**

In northern Germany, the Netherlands, northern Poland, Denmark and the Baltic countries, local building stone was not available, but there was a strong tradition of brick building. The resulting style, brick Gothic, is known in Germany and Scandinavia as "Backsteingotik" and is associated with the Hanseatic League. In Italy, stone was used for fortifications, but brick was preferred for other buildings. Because of the extensive and varied marble deposits, many buildings were clad in marble or left undecorated on the façade for later use.

**Question 0**

In northern Germany, the Netherlands, northern Poland, Denmark and the Baltic countries, which building material was used instead of local stone?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the building style that emerged from the use of bricks?

**Question 2**

What style of building did the Hanseatic League join in Germany and Scandinavia?

**Question 3**

Why were many buildings covered with marble?

**Question 4**

What kind of façade did the buildings have if they were completed later?

**Question 5**

What was the name of the building style that was born from the use of a single brick?

**Question 6**

What style of building did the Hanseatic League break away from in Germany and Scandinavia?

**Question 7**

Why were many buildings covered with marble?

**Question 8**

What kind of façade did the buildings have if they were never completed?

**Text number 9**

Romanesque architecture (which in England was called Norman architecture because of its association with the Norman invasion) became established throughout Europe by the 13th century, providing the basic forms and units of architecture that developed throughout the Middle Ages. Important groups of buildings: the cathedral church, the parish church, the monastery, the castle, the palace, the great hall, the gateway building and the town buildings had emerged in the Romanesque period.

**Question 0**

What is Romanesque architecture known as in England?

**Question 1**

By the beginning of what century had the novelistic style become established throughout Europe?

**Question 2**

During which period did the Romanesque style influence and inspire the basic forms of architecture?

**Question 3**

What is one important building category that was recognised in the Romanesque period?

**Question 4**

What is the second category of building that was created in the Romanesque period?

**Question 5**

What kind of Romanesque architecture is no longer known in England?

**Question 6**

In which century was the novel style forgotten throughout Europe?

**Question 7**

What is one useless building category that was recognised in the Romanesque period?

**Question 8**

What is the only building category that was demolished during the Romanesque period?

**Text number 10**

The widespread adoption of what is essentially a single feature, the pointed arch, brought about the change that distinguishes Gothic from Romanesque. Technological change made possible a change in style that broke with the tradition of massive masonry and massive walls pierced by small openings and replaced it with a style in which light seems to have won over matter. Its use led to the development of many other architectural techniques, previously tested in fragmented buildings, which were then introduced to meet the structural, aesthetic and ideological needs of the new style. These include the flying buttresses, spires and lattice windows typical of Gothic church architecture. Although so strongly associated with the Gothic style, the pointed arch was first used in Western architecture in buildings that were otherwise distinctly Romanesque, such as Durham Cathedral in the north of England, Monreale Cathedral and Cefalù Cathedral in Sicily, and Autun Cathedral in France.

**Question 0**

What was the single most important design aspect that distinguished the Gothic style from the Romanesque?

**Question 1**

What is an example of an element of Gothic style that has been incorporated thanks to technological innovation?

**Question 2**

What is another example of an element of Gothic style that has been incorporated thanks to technological innovation?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the cathedral in the north of England that first introduced the use of the pointed arch?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the cathedral in Sicily that first introduced the use of the pointed arch?

**Question 5**

What was the least important single design aspect that distinguished the Gothic style from the Romanesque?

**Question 6**

What is an example of an element of Gothic style that has been overlooked thanks to technological innovation?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the cathedral in the south of England that first introduced the use of the pointed arch?

**Question 8**

What is the name of the cathedral in Sicily where the twisted arch was first introduced?

**Question 9**

What is another example of an element of Gothic style that has been forgotten thanks to technological innovation?

**Text number 11**

One of the hallmarks of Gothic architecture, the pointed arch, was previously incorporated into Islamic architecture after the Islamic conquests of Roman Syria and the Sassanid Empire in the seventh century. The pointed arch and its predecessors had been used in late Roman and Sassanian architecture; in the Roman context, it was used in early church architecture in Syria and in occasional secular structures such as the Roman bridge at Karamagara; in Sassanian architecture, parabolic and pointed arches were used in palaces and sacred buildings.

**Question 0**

What is one characteristic of the Gothic architectural style?

**Question 1**

In which architectural style was the pointed arch first used in the seventeenth century?

**Question 2**

Where else in architecture was a pointed arch also used?

**Question 3**

The Roman bridge at Karamagara is an example of what type of structure?

**Question 4**

What types of buildings used parabolic and pointed arches?

**Question 5**

What is the only characteristic of the Gothic architectural style?

**Question 6**

In which architectural style was the pointed arch first used in the fifth century?

**Question 7**

Where else in architecture was the curved arch used?

**Question 8**

What kind of construction involved many twisted arches?

**Text number 12**

Increasing military and cultural contacts with the Muslim world, such as the Norman conquest of Islamic Sicily in 1090, the Crusades beginning in 1096 and the Islamic presence in Spain, may have contributed to the adoption of the pointed arc in medieval Europe, although this hypothesis remains controversial. Certainly, in those parts of the western Mediterranean that were under Islamic rule or influence, many regional variations emerged, combining Romanesque and later Gothic traditions with Islamic decorative forms, such as the cathedrals of Monreale and Cefalù, the Alcázar in Seville and the cathedral of Teruel.

**Question 0**

What may have contributed to medieval Europe's adoption of the pointed arc?

**Question 1**

Which event in 1090 may have contributed to the adoption of the pointed arc in medieval Europe?

**Question 2**

In which parts of the western Mediterranean did the Romanesque and Islamic styles mix?

**Question 3**

In which cathedral can you see a mixture of Romanesque, Gothic and Islamic styles?

**Question 4**

What is another example of a cathedral where you can see a mixture of Romanesque, Gothic and Islamic styles?

**Question 5**

What could have prevented medieval Europe from adopting a pointed arc?

**Question 6**

What event in 1290 may have contributed to medieval Europe adopting the pointed arc?

**Question 7**

In which parts of the western Mediterranean did Asian and Islamic styles mix?

**Question 8**

What is the only cathedral where you can see a mixture of Romanesque, Gothic and Islamic styles?

**Question 9**

What is the worst example of a cathedral where you can see a mix of Romanesque, French and Islamic styles?

**Text number 13**

The distinctive forms of Gothic architecture evolved from Romanesque architecture and developed in many different geographical locations as a result of different influences and structural requirements. Barrel and articulated vaults are typical of Romanesque architecture, but the two Romanesque churches in Caen, the Abbey of Saint-Étienne and the Abbaye aux Dames, used rib vaults in 1120. Another early example is the nave and apse of Cefalù Cathedral in 1131. The rib vault above the north transept of Durham Cathedral in England, built between 1128 and 1133, is probably even earlier and was the first time pointed arches were used in a high vault.

**Question 0**

What style gave rise to the specific forms that characterise Gothic architecture?

**Question 1**

Barrel vaults and vaulted vaults are examples of what kind of architecture?

**Question 2**

What kind of vaults were used in the Abbey of Saint-Étienne and the Abbaye aux Dames?

**Question 3**

When was Durham Cathedral built?

**Question 4**

Which cathedral was the first to use pointed arches in high vaults?

**Question 5**

Which style helped to destroy Gothic architecture?

**Question 6**

Which vaults were missing from the Abbey of Saint-Étienne and the Abbaye aux Dames?

**Question 7**

When was Durham Cathedral abandoned?

**Question 8**

Which cathedral last used pointed arches in low vaults?

**Text number 14**

The Basilica of St Denis is widely cited as the first truly Gothic building, but it is best reserved for the choir, whose ambulatory has been preserved intact. Noyon Cathedral, also in France, was the earliest complete cathedral to be rebuilt in the New Style, between 1150 and 1231. Although the builders used all the features that became known as Gothic, such as pointed arches, flying buttresses and flanking vaults, they continued to use many of the features and character of Romanesque architecture, such as the rounded arches throughout the building, and changed the form to pointed when it was functionally practical.

**Question 0**

What is considered the first truly Gothic building?

**Question 1**

Which cathedral was first built in the New Style between 1150 and 1231?

**Question 2**

What is one of the features that has come to be considered an important part of the Gothic style?

**Question 3**

What is considered the last true Gothic building?

**Question 4**

Which cathedral was the first to be built in the New Style between 1140 and 1141?

**Question 5**

What is one feature that is no longer an important part of the Gothic style?

**Question 6**

When was Noyon Cathedral abandoned?

**Text number 15**

At the abbey of Saint-Denis, Noyon Cathedral, Notre Dame de Paris and the east end of Canterbury Cathedral in England, simple cylindrical columns predominate over the Gothic colonnade and axial columns. Wells Cathedral in England, whose east end was begun in 1175, was the first building in which the designer broke away from Romanesque forms. The architect completely abandoned the circular arch in favour of a pointed arch and cylindrical columns in favour of pillars consisting of groups of shafts leading to the arches. Adam Locke continued with a similar style of transept and nave, completed around 1230. The building is entirely Gothic in character. Wells Cathedral is therefore considered to be the first truly Gothic cathedral.

**Question 0**

In which cathedral do the simple cylindrical columns stand out more than the Gothic features?

**Question 1**

When did the construction of Wells Cathedral in England start?

**Question 2**

Who finished the transept and nave of Wells Cathedral around 1230?

**Question 3**

Which cathedral is considered the first thoroughly Gothic cathedral?

**Question 4**

What is another cathedral where the simple cylindrical columns stand out more than the Gothic features?

**Question 5**

What is the one cathedral where the intricate cylindrical columns stand out more than the Gothic features?

**Question 6**

When was the construction of Wells Cathedral in England stopped?

**Question 7**

Who finished the transept and nave of Wells Cathedral around 1130?

**Question 8**

Which cathedral is considered to be the only fully Gothic cathedral?

**Text number 16**

Suger, a friend and confidant of the French kings Louis VI and Louis VII, decided around 1137 to rebuild the great church of Saint-Denis, attached to the monastery, which was also the royal residence. He started from the west front and reconstructed the original Carolingian façade and its single door. He designed the façade of Saint-Denis to resemble the Roman Arch of Constantine, with a tripartite division and three large staircases to ease congestion. The rose window is the earliest known example above the west portal in France. The façade combines both circular arches and pointed arches in the Gothic style.

**Question 0**

Who decided to rebuild the great church of Saint-Denis around 1137?

**Question 1**

In which part of the cathedral did the reconstruction of the great church of Saint-Denis begin?

**Question 2**

The facade of Saint Denis resembled what other famous building?

**Question 3**

Why were three large portals used to build Constantine's Roman arch?

**Question 4**

The Saint Denis façade combines rounded arches and what other arches are combined?

**Question 5**

Who decided to rebuild the great church of Saint-Denis around 1237?

**Question 6**

Which part of the cathedral was involved in the destruction of the great church of Saint-Denis?

**Question 7**

What did the façade of Saint Denis resemble as a well-known creature?

**Question 8**

Why were nine large portals used to build Constantine's Roman arch?

**Question 9**

What does the Saint Denis façade combine pyramids and what other style of arch?

**Text number 17**

When the western façade was completed in 1140, Abbot Suger moved on to rebuild the east end, leaving the Carolingian nave in use. He designed the choir to be full of light. To achieve his goals, his masons used a number of new features that had developed or become established in Romanesque architecture, such as the pointed arch, the rib vault, the ambulatory with radial chapels, the groups of columns supporting the ribs sprung in different directions, and the flying buttresses that allowed the installation of large ecclesiastical windows.

**Question 0**

When was the western front of Saint-Denis completed?

**Question 1**

Which part of the reconstruction of Saint Denis was started after the completion of the Western Front?

**Question 2**

What style of nave was left unchanged during this part of the reconstruction of Saint Denis?

**Question 3**

What style of columns did Abbott Suger use to reconstruct Saint Denis?

**Question 4**

Which design element allowed the use of large skylights?

**Question 5**

When was the southern façade of Saint Denis removed?

**Question 6**

What type of pillars did Abbott Suger use to destroy Saint-Denis?

**Question 7**

What style of church nave was completely transformed during this part of the reconstruction of Saint Denis?

**Question 8**

Which design element allowed the use of small skylights?

**Question 9**

What part of the reconstruction of Saint Denis was delayed after the completion of the Western Front?

**Text number 18**

Although many secular buildings from the late Middle Ages have survived, Gothic architecture is at its best in cathedrals and large churches, where the essential structures and features are most evident. Before the 20th century, a Gothic cathedral or monastery was usually the landmark of its town, rising high above all domestic buildings and often topped by one or more towers, a spire and perhaps a high tower. These cathedrals were skyscrapers of the time, and were by far the largest buildings Europeans had ever seen. The architecture of these Gothic churches was influenced by a unique combination of existing techniques to create a new style of building. These techniques included the ogival arch, the pointed arch, the gabled vault and the pillars.

**Question 0**

In which buildings are the features of the Gothic architectural style most evident?

**Question 1**

Before the 1900s, the Gothic cathedral was considered what kind of building in the city where it was built?

**Question 2**

What is another name for a sharp curve?

**Question 3**

What is an example of an architectural technique seen in Gothic architecture?

**Question 4**

What is another example of an architectural technique seen in Gothic architecture?

**Question 5**

In which buildings are the features of the Gothic architectural style most evident?

**Question 6**

What is another name for twisted arcs?

**Question 7**

What is an example of an impossible technique seen in Gothic architecture?

**Question 8**

When was it typical for Gothic cathedrals to be hidden?

**Text number 19**

The eastern arm is very diverse. In England, it is usually long and can have two separate parts, a choir and a presbytery. It is often square in shape or has a projecting Lady Chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary. In France, the east end is often polygonal, surrounded by a walkway called an ambulatory, and sometimes a circle of chapels called a 'chevet'. German churches are often similar to French ones, but in Italy the eastern projection is usually just a low apsidal chapel with a sanctuary, as in Florence Cathedral.

**Question 0**

Which arm of England usually has two separate divisions, choir and presbytery?

**Question 1**

To whom is the projected Lady Chapel dedicated?

**Question 2**

What shape is the east end often in France?

**Question 3**

What is the chapel ring at the eastern end of the chapels in France?

**Question 4**

In Italy, the eastern projection outside the transept often contains what?

**Question 5**

Which part of the English arm does not usually have separate parts?

**Question 6**

Who was the projected Lady Chapel meant to harm?

**Question 7**

What shape of east end is rarely found in France?

**Question 8**

What is the name of the ball of chapels at the eastern end of French chapels?

**Text number 20**

Contrary to diffusion theory, it seems that at the same time there was a structural evolution towards a pointed arch, intended to cover spaces of irregular plan or to raise transverse vaults to the same height as diagonal vaults. The latter occurs in the aisles of the nave of Durham Cathedral in 1093. Pointed arches also occur widely in Romanesque blind decorative blind arches, where semi-circular arches are superimposed in a simple decorative pattern, and pointed arches are randomly included in the pattern.

**Question 0**

Which theory contradicts the use of a pointed arc to bring transverse knots into diagonal knots of equal height?

**Question 1**

In which cathedral is a pointed arch used to match the heights of the transverse and diagonal vaults?

**Question 2**

In which types of blind decorative arched surfaces are pointed arches common?

**Question 3**

When semicircular arcs overlap, what kind of design is created by accident?

**Question 4**

In which cathedral is a twisted arch used to match the heights of transverse and diagonal vaults?

**Question 5**

What type of decorative blinds are curved arches?

**Question 6**

When triangular arcs overlap, what kind of design is created by accident?

**Question 7**

What theory did no one support?

**Text number 21**

Unlike the semicircular vault of Roman and Romanesque buildings, the Gothic vault can be used to cover rectangular and irregularly shaped floor plans, such as trapezoids. Another structural advantage is that an acute-angled vault transfers the weight to the supporting columns or pillars at a steep angle. This allowed architects to raise the vaults much higher than was possible in Romanesque architecture. Although the use of the acute-angled arch gave the architectural forms more structural flexibility, it also gave Gothic architecture a very different and more vertical visual character than Romanesque architecture.

**Question 0**

What type of vaults can be used on rectangular and trapezoidal roofs?

**Question 1**

What are the structural benefits of the Gothic vault?

**Question 2**

What can architects elevate much higher using the Gothic versus the Romanesque genre?

**Question 3**

What kind of visual character is achieved by using a sharp curve?

**Question 4**

What type of vaults can be used for round and square roofs?

**Question 5**

What is the structural danger of the Gothic vault?

**Question 6**

What can architects raise much lower using the Gothic versus the Romanesque variety?

**Question 7**

What kind of visual character is overlooked by using a sharp curve?

**Text number 22**

Externally, towers and spires are typical of Gothic churches, both large and small, and their number and position is one of the major variables in Gothic architecture. In Italy, the spire is almost always detached from the building, as in Florence Cathedral, and is often derived from an earlier building. In France and Spain, two towers on a façade is the norm. In England, Germany and Scandinavia this is often the same arrangement, but there may also be a huge tower at the top of an English cathedral at a crossroads. Smaller churches usually have only one spire, but this can also be the case in larger buildings such as Salisbury Cathedral or Ulm Minster, which has the tallest spire in the world, slightly exceeding the tallest, 160-metre (520-foot) tower of Lincoln Cathedral, which dates from the Middle Ages.

**Question 0**

What is one feature of both large and small Gothic churches?

**Question 1**

What is another feature of both large and small Gothic churches?

**Question 2**

How many towers are typical on the facades of Gothic churches in France and Spain?

**Question 3**

In which country is the tower often detached from the main building?

**Question 4**

How many towers are there in Salisbury Chapel?

**Question 5**

What is one feature unique to small Gothic churches?

**Question 6**

How many riddles are typical of the facades of Gothic churches in France and Spain?

**Question 7**

In which country does the tower often disappear from the main building?

**Question 8**

How many towers fell in Salisbury Chapel?

**Text number 23**

On the exterior, the verticality is emphasised in particular by towers and spires and less strongly by protruding vertical buttresses, narrow semi-columns, so-called attached shafts often running through several storeys, long narrow windows, vertical mouldings around doors and figurative sculpture that emphasises the verticality and is often weakened. The roof line, gable end, columns and other parts of the building often end in small peaks, and the Milan Cathedral is an extreme example of this decorative use.

**Question 0**

What enhances the vertical appearance of the Gothic building?

**Question 1**

What is one design element of Gothic architecture that often ends in small peaks?

**Question 2**

What is another design element of Gothic architecture that often ends in small peaks?

**Question 3**

Which cathedral is a steep example of an ending with small peaks?

**Question 4**

In what other parts of Gothic buildings are small towers often placed?

**Question 5**

What prevents the vertical appearance of the Gothic building layout?

**Question 6**

What is one design element of Gothic architecture that always ends in small peaks?

**Question 7**

Which cathedral has an impossible structure of small towers?

**Question 8**

Which parts of Gothic buildings often have huge spires?

**Text number 24**

Shafts attached to the interior of a building often extend uninterrupted from floor to ceiling and meet the ribs of a vault, such as a tall tree that spreads out into branches. Vertical lines are usually repeated in the treatment of windows and wall surfaces. In many Gothic churches, particularly in France, and in the Perpendicular period of English Gothic architecture, the treatment of vertical elements in the gallery and window panelling creates a strong unifying feature that counterbalances the horizontal division of the interior.

**Question 0**

What is often found in the interiors of Gothic buildings, stretching uninterrupted from floor to ceiling?

**Question 1**

Where do vertical patterns recur in the interiors of Gothic buildings?

**Question 2**

What kind of feature is created by using vertical elements in the gallery and window trim?

**Question 3**

What does the use of vertical elements help to prevent?

**Question 4**

What is often completely broken from floor to ceiling in the interiors of Gothic buildings?

**Question 5**

Which Gothic building interiors never repeat vertical shapes?

**Question 6**

What kind of feature is ruined by using vertical elements in the gallery and window trim?

**Question 7**

What is most damaged by the use of vertical elements?

**Text number 25**

Large interiors have been a feature of Gothic cathedrals since the first building opened. In the Middle Ages, the metaphysics of light led the clergy to believe in the divinity of light and the importance of showing it in sacred spaces. Much of this belief was based on the writings of the sixth-century mystic Pseudo-Dionysius, whose book The Heavenly Hierarchy was popular among French monks. Pseudo-Dionysius believed that all light, even light reflected from metals or streaming through windows, was divine. To promote this belief, Suger, the head abbot of the church of Saint-Denis on the northern edge of Paris, urged the architects who were renovating the building to make the interior of the church as luminous as possible.

**Question 0**

What kind of light has always been typical of Gothic cathedrals?

**Question 1**

Whose writings led the clergy to believe in a deity of light?

**Question 2**

Which book became popular with monks in France and influenced the way light was used in cathedrals?

**Question 3**

Who encouraged the architects of the cathedral to let as much light into the building as possible?

**Question 4**

Who believed that all light, including light reflected from walls and surfaces, was divine?

**Question 5**

What kind of ultraviolet light has always characterised Gothic cathedrals?

**Question 6**

Whose writings led the clergy to believe in a deity of darkness?

**Question 7**

Which book was not popular with the monks in France and influenced the way light was used in cathedrals?

**Question 8**

Who encouraged the architects of the cathedral to let as little light into the building as possible?

**Question 9**

Who believed that all light, including light reflected from walls and surfaces, was fake?

**Text number 26**

There is usually a large window above the main portal, as in York Minster, or a series of windows, as in Ripon Cathedral. In France, there is usually a rose window, as in Reims Cathedral. Rose windows are also common on church facades in Spain and Italy, but are less common elsewhere and do not appear on the facades of any English cathedrals. The cathedral façade is usually richly decorated with arched or sculpted panels, or in Italy it may be decorated with the rest of the façade in polychrome marble and mosaic, as in Orvieto Cathedral.

**Question 0**

What is the size of the window above the main portal of York Minster?

**Question 1**

What type of window is often found above the main portal of French cathedrals, such as Reims Cathedral?

**Question 2**

Which cathedral facades never have rose windows?

**Question 3**

Which part of the Gothic buildings is usually richly decorated with archways or sculptures?

**Question 4**

Which Italian cathedral has multi-coloured marble and mosaic in the pediments?

**Question 5**

How big is the hole above the main portal of York Minster?

**Question 6**

What type of window is often found above the main portal of Greek cathedrals such as Reims Cathedral?

**Question 7**

Which cathedral facades never have bright windows?

**Question 8**

Which part of Egyptian buildings is usually richly decorated with arcades or carvings?

**Question 9**

Which Italian cathedral has a floor of polychrome marble and mosaic?

**Text number 27**

French cathedrals and their German and Belgian influences are characterised by their height and sense of verticality. Each French cathedral is generally uniform in style compared to the English cathedral, where almost all the buildings are very different. They are compact, with little or no projecting transepts and chapels. The western façades are very uniform, with three portals surmounted by a rose window and two large towers. Sometimes there are additional towers at the ends of the transepts. The east end is polygonal, with an ambulatory and sometimes a chevette of radial chapels. In southern France, many large churches have no transepts and some have no aisles.

**Question 0**

What is the main visual feature of French cathedrals?

**Question 1**

How many portals are typically found on the west façade of French cathedrals?

**Question 2**

How many towers are typically on the west façade of French cathedrals?

**Question 3**

What is the typical shape of the east end of French chapels?

**Question 4**

What is often missing from many of the large churches in the south of France?

**Question 5**

What is the only visual feature of French cathedrals?

**Question 6**

How many wormholes are typically found on the west façade of French cathedrals?

**Question 7**

What do many large churches in the south of France often claim?

**Question 8**

What shape is typically denied by the east end of French chapels?

**Text number 28**

English cathedrals are characterised by their extreme length and their internal emphasis on the horizontal line, which can be visually emphasised as much or more than the vertical lines. Each English cathedral (with the exception of Salisbury) has an exceptional degree of stylistic diversity compared to most French, German and Italian cathedrals. It is not unusual for each part of a building to have been built in a different century and in a different style, with no attempt at stylistic uniformity. Unlike French cathedrals, English cathedrals are widely spread out, with double transepts being heavily built and Lady Chapels added later, as in Westminster Abbey. In the western façade, doors are less prominent than in France, and the entrance to the parish is usually through a side doorway. The west window is very large and never has a rose window, which is reserved for the gable ends of the transept. The west façade may have two towers as in a French cathedral, or none at all. The transept almost always has a spire, and may be very large with a tower on top. The English east end is typically square, but it can be completely different shaped. Both the interior and exterior of the stonework is often richly decorated with carvings, especially the capitals.

**Question 0**

What is a unique design feature of English cathedrals?

**Question 1**

What types of cruciform churches are often found in English cathedrals?

**Question 2**

What size window is typically found in the west end of English cathedrals?

**Question 3**

Which English cathedrals use rose windows?

**Question 4**

Which English cathedrals almost always have a tower?

**Question 5**

What is the worst design feature of English cathedrals?

**Question 6**

What types of transepts are often missing from English cathedrals?

**Question 7**

What size cat is typically found in the west end of English cathedrals?

**Question 8**

Which English cathedrals use blacked-out windows?

**Question 9**

Which Greek cathedrals have a tower that is almost never found?

**Text number 29**

Romanesque architecture in Germany, Poland, the Czech Republic and Austria is characterised by its massiveness and modularity. In Central European Gothic architecture, this is reflected in the huge size of towers and spires, often projecting but not always complete. The western front generally follows the French pattern, but the towers are much taller and, if finished, are topped by huge, regionally typical, open towers. Because of the size of the towers, the façade between the towers can appear narrow and compressed. The east end follows a French form. The interiors of German Gothic cathedrals are characterised by their width and openness. This is also true when, as in Cologne, they are modelled on French cathedrals. German cathedrals, like French cathedrals, do not usually have strongly projecting transepts. Many hall churches (Hallenkirchen) also do not have lattice windows.

**Question 0**

In Germany, Poland and Austria, Romanesque architecture is characterised by its massive size and what other design element?

**Question 1**

What is the general style of Romanesque architecture in Germany, Poland and Austria?

**Question 2**

What does the east end of German Romanesque cathedrals typically imitate?

**Question 3**

What is a characteristic design element of German Gothic cathedrals?

**Question 4**

What are German cathedral chapels known as?

**Question 5**

Which design style makes Romanesque architecture rare in Germany, Poland and Australia?

**Question 6**

What is typically avoided at the eastern end of German Romanesque cathedrals?

**Question 7**

What is the only design element in German Gothic cathedrals?

**Question 8**

By what name are the parish churches of German cathedrals no longer known?

**Text number 30**

The Gothic cathedrals of the Iberian Peninsula are characterised by their spatial complexity, with many different shaped areas leading to each other. They are relatively wide, often with very high arched corridors topped by low domes, giving a similar open feel to the German Hallenkirche, as in the church of the Batalha monastery in Portugal. Many cathedrals are completely surrounded by chapels. Like English cathedrals, each cathedral is often different in style. This is reflected both in the addition of chapels and in the use of decorative details from different sources. Both decoration and form have been influenced by Islamic architecture and, towards the end of the period, by Renaissance details, which combine in a distinctive way with Gothic. The west façade, as in the cathedral of León, typically resembles the French west façade, but is wider in proportion to its height, often with a greater variety of details and a combination of intricate decoration and wide, smooth surfaces. Burgos Cathedral has German-style towers. The roof structures often have pierced parapets with relatively few pinnacles. The roof is often topped by towers and domes of very different shapes and designs.

**Question 0**

What is the design element that characterises Gothic cathedrals on the Iberian Peninsula?

**Question 1**

What size are the arcades of the Gothic cathedrals of the Iberian Peninsula?

**Question 2**

Which architectural style has had a major influence on the design and form of Gothic cathedrals on the Iberian Peninsula?

**Question 3**

What kind of western front does the cathedral of León resemble?

**Question 4**

What style are the towers of Burgos Cathedral?

**Question 5**

What is the design element that characterises Gothic cathedrals on the Iberian continent?

**Question 6**

What are the sizes of the arcades in the Gothic shopping centres of the Iberian Peninsula?

**Question 7**

What kind of western front does the Cathedral of León resent?

**Question 8**

What style are the spirals in Burgos Cathedral?

**Question 9**

Which architectural style lost its influence on the design and form of Gothic cathedrals on the Iberian Peninsula?

**Text number 31**

The Italian Gothic style is characterised by the use of polychrome decoration, both externally as a marble veneer on the brick façade and internally, where arches are often made of alternating black and white blocks, and where columns can be painted red, walls decorated with frescoes and apse mosaics. The ground plan is usually regular and symmetrical, and Italian cathedrals have few and widely spaced columns. The proportions are usually mathematically balanced, based on the square and the concept of 'armonìa', and, with the exception of Venice, where spectacular arches were loved, the arches are almost always equilateral. Colours and mouldings define architectural ensembles rather than fuse them. Italian cathedral facades are often polychrome, and the lunettes above the doors may have mosaics. Facades have projecting open porches and oculus or round windows rather than rose windows, and usually do not have a tower. There is usually a dome at the top of the junction. There is also often a freestanding tower and a baptismal font. The east end usually has a relatively low apse. The windows are not as large as in northern Europe, and although stained glass is common, the favourite medium for the interior is the fresco.

**Question 0**

What is unique about Italian Gothic design?

**Question 1**

What colour are the columns of Italian Gothic cathedrals often painted?

**Question 2**

What kind of arches do people like to use in Venice?

**Question 3**

What kind of windows do Italian cathedral facades have instead of rose windows?

**Question 4**

What is the preferred narrative medium for the interiors of Italian cathedrals?

**Question 5**

What is the worst feature of Italian Gothic design?

**Question 6**

What colour are the columns of Italian Gothic cathedrals always painted?

**Question 7**

What kind of arches are never used in Venice?

**Question 8**

What types of windows are usually banned on the facades of Italian cathedrals?

**Question 9**

What is the primary narrative medium in the interiors of Italian cinemas?

**Text number 32**

The Papal Palace (Palais des Papes) in Avignon is the best complete grand royal palace, along with the Royal Palace of Olite, built in the 1300s and 1300s for the kings of Navarre. Malbork Castle, built for the Master of the Teutonic Order, is an example of brick Gothic architecture. Among the former royal residences, the Doge's Palace in Venice, the Palau de la Generalitat in Barcelona, built in the 15th century for the kings of Aragon, or the famous Conciergerie, the former palace of the kings of France, in Paris, are partly preserved.

**Question 0**

Who was the Royal Palace of Olitte built for?

**Question 1**

Who was Malbork Castle built for?

**Question 2**

What type of Gothic architecture does Malbork Castle represent?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the royal residence built in Paris for French kings?

**Question 4**

When was the Palau de la Generalitat in Barcelona built?

**Question 5**

Who was the royal palace in Olite looted for?

**Question 6**

Who was Malbork Castle burnt down for?

**Question 7**

What kind of Gothic architecture is Malbork Castle a bad example of?

**Question 8**

When was the Palau de la Generalitat in Barcelona demolished?

**Question 9**

What is the name of a special apartment for French citizens in Paris?

**Text number 33**

Secular Gothic architecture can also be found in many public buildings, such as town halls, universities, squares and hospitals. The town halls of Gdańsk, Wrocław and Stralsund are important examples of northern brick Gothic built in the late 13th century. The Bruges belfry or Brussels town hall, built in the 15th century, are linked to the wealth and power of the bourgeoisie, which grew in the late Middle Ages. By the 15th century, the merchants of Burgundy's trading towns had acquired such wealth and influence that they could afford to express their power by financing huge, lavishly decorated buildings. Such expressions of worldly and economic power can also be found in other late medieval cities, such as the Llotja de la Seeda in Valencia, Spain, a purpose-built silk exchange dating from the 15th century, the partial remains of Westminster Hall in the Houses of Parliament in London, or the Palazzo Pubblico in Siena, Italy, a town hall built in the 13th century to house the offices of the then prosperous Republic of Siena. Other Italian cities, such as Florence (Palazzo Vecchio), Mantua or Venice, also have important examples of secular public architecture.

**Question 0**

What is an example of secular northern brick Gothic architecture from the 13th century?

**Question 1**

When was Brussels City Hall built?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the secular building in Spain that was built for the exchange of silk?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the 13th century town hall built for the offices of the Republic of Siena?

**Question 4**

What other Italian city has impressive secular public architecture?

**Question 5**

What is an example of secular northern brick Gothic architecture from the 13th century?

**Question 6**

When was Brussels City Hall hidden?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the earthly building in space that was built for the exchange of silk?

**Question 8**

What is the name of the 17th century town hall built for the offices of the Republic of Siena?

**Question 9**

Which is the only Italian city with public secular architecture?

**Text number 34**

By the end of the Middle Ages, university towns had also grown in wealth and importance, as reflected in the buildings of some of Europe's old universities. Particularly notable examples are the Collegio di Spagna of the University of Bologna, built in the 13th and 15th centuries, the Collegium Carolinum of the University of Prague in Bohemia, the Escuelas mayores of the University of Salamanca in Spain, the chapel of King's College in Cambridge or the Collegium Maius of the Jagiellonian University in Krakow, Poland.

**Question 0**

In which era did university towns and cities grow in wealth and importance?

**Question 1**

What is the name of a university building in Bologna, built in the 1300s and 1400s?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the University of Prague building in Bohemia?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the secular building of the University of Salamanca in Spain?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the secular building of the Jagiellonian University in Krakow, Poland?

**Question 5**

At what point in time had university towns lost their wealth and importance?

**Question 6**

What is the name of a university building in Bologna, built in the 1300s and 1600s?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the University of Prague building in the Bahamas?

**Question 8**

When was the Escuelas mayores building of the University of Salamanca in Spain destroyed?

**Question 9**

What is no longer the name of the Jagiellonian University building in Krakow?

**Text number 35**

Other cities with a lot of secular Gothic style are Bruges and Siena. Most of the surviving small secular buildings are relatively simple and straightforward; most have flat-roofed windows, with conical arches and vaulted roofs, often with only a few at the centre. The nobility's country houses slowly gave up the castle feel, even in parts of Europe such as England where defence was no longer a real concern. Many monastic buildings have been preserved as living and working quarters, for example at Mont Saint-Michel.

**Question 0**

What is a city with many secular Gothic buildings?

**Question 1**

What is another city with many secular Gothic buildings?

**Question 2**

What are the most common styles of windows in secular Gothic structures?

**Question 3**

Where do most secular Gothic buildings have pointed arches and vaulted roofs?

**Question 4**

What is the name of a surviving monastic building in England?

**Question 5**

What is the only city with a large number of secular Gothic buildings?

**Question 6**

What are all the styles of windows in secular Gothic structures?

**Question 7**

Where are the cusped arches and vaulted ceilings hidden in most secular Gothic structures?

**Question 8**

What is the name of a surviving monastic building in Egypt?

**Text number 36**

In 1663, the Archbishop of Canterbury's Lambeth Palace had a Gothic hammer-beam roof built to replace the one that was destroyed when the building was looted during the English Civil War. Also in the late 1600s, new buildings at Oxford and Cambridge Universities featured some subtle Gothic detailing, notably the Tom Tower of Christ Church in Oxford, designed by Christopher Wren. It is not easy to decide whether this was a case of Gothic survival or an early revival of Gothicism.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the residence of the Archbishop of Canterbury?

**Question 1**

In what year was the Gothic hammer-beam roof installed on the Archbishop of Canterbury's residence?

**Question 2**

In which century did the new developments in Oxford and Cambridge use specific Gothic details?

**Question 3**

Who used Gothic details to build the Tom Tower in Oxford?

**Question 4**

Where is the Archbishop of Canterbury's dentist located?

**Question 5**

In what year was a Gothic hammerbeam roof stolen from the Archbishop of Canterbury's home?

**Question 6**

In which century did the new buildings at Oxford and Yale use vague Gothic details?

**Question 7**

Who avoided Gothic details in the construction of Oxford's Tom Tower?

**Text number 37**

In England, partly in response to the philosophy of the Oxford Movement and others associated with the "high church" or Anglo-Catholic revival of the second quarter of the 19th century, influential institutionalists began to favour a neo-Gothic style in ecclesiastical, social and institutional architecture. The appeal of this Gothic revival (sometimes referred to as Victorian Gothic in Britain after 1837) gradually broadened to include both 'low church' and 'high church' clients. This period of more universal appeal, which lasted from 1855 to 1885, is known in Britain as High Victorian Gothicism.

**Question 0**

When did influential people make neo-gothicism known?

**Question 1**

By what name was the Gothic revival known in Britain after 1837?

**Question 2**

During what years was High Victorian Gothicism in Britain?

**Question 3**

Which movement was responsible for the philosophy that led to the revival of Anglo-Catholic ideas?

**Question 4**

What other architectural style did 19th century influencers prefer to use Victorian Gothic architecture in addition to church and civic architecture?

**Question 5**

When did influential people forget about neo-gothicism?

**Question 6**

What was the Gothic Death known as in Britain after 1827?

**Question 7**

What year was the High Victorian Gothic period in Africa?

**Question 8**

Which movement was responsible for the philosophy that led to the end of Anglo-Catholic ideas?

**Question 9**

What other architectural style did the 15th century influencers prefer to use over the Victorian Gothic style?

**Text number 38**

Sir Charles Barry's Parliament House in London, designed by Augustus Welby Pugin, a major exponent of the early Gothic Revival, is an example of the Gothic Revival style from its early period in the second quarter of the 19th century. Examples of the High Victorian Gothic Revival period include George Gilbert Scott's design for the Albert Memorial in London and William Butterfield's chapel at Keble College, Oxford. From the second half of the 19th century onwards, Neo-Gothicism became widespread in Britain in the design of buildings other than church and state buildings. Gothic detailing even began to appear in working-class housing designs, which were subsidised by charity, although less frequently than in upper and middle-class housing because of the cost.

**Question 0**

Who was the exterior architect of the Houses of Parliament?

**Question 1**

Who was the architect of the interior of the Parliament?

**Question 2**

What style of architecture does the Parliament House represent?

**Question 3**

Who designed the Albert Memorial in London?

**Question 4**

Who designed the chapel at Keble College, Oxford?

**Question 5**

Who was the failed architect of the Parliament building?

**Question 6**

Who was Parliament's chef?

**Question 7**

What architectural style do the Houses of Parliament imitate?

**Question 8**

Who designed the Albert Memorial in Germany?

**Question 9**

Who destroyed the chapel at Keble College, Oxford?

**Text number 39**

In France, the great figure of the Gothic revival at the same time was Eugène Viollet-le-Duc, who went beyond the historic Gothic buildings to create the Gothic as it should have been, especially in the fortified town of Carcassonne in the south of France and in some of the fortified citadels for industrial magnates. Viollet-le-Duc compiled and coordinated the Encyclopédie médiévale, a rich repository of information from which his contemporaries extracted architectural details. He vigorously restored crumbling details of French cathedrals, including the abbey of Saint-Denis and the famous Notre Dame de Paris, many of whose 'most Gothic' water columns are by Viollet-le-Duc. He taught a generation of Reform Gothic designers and showed how the Gothic style could be applied to modern building materials, particularly cast iron.

**Question 0**

Who was the protagonist of the Gothic Revival in France?

**Question 1**

Which famous French cathedral was restored and rebuilt by Viollet-le-Duc?

**Question 2**

Which modern building material did Viollet-le-Duc teach the designers of the Gothic Revival to work with?

**Question 3**

In which fortified town in southern France did Viollet-le-Duc recreate historic Gothic buildings?

**Question 4**

Which other famous French cathedral did Viollet-le-Duc work on?

**Question 5**

Who was the bad guy of the Gothic Revival in France?

**Question 6**

Which famous French cathedral was destroyed by Viollet-le-Duc?

**Question 7**

What modern building material did Viollet-le-Duc teach reformist designers to avoid?

**Question 8**

Which other famous American cathedral did Viollet-le-Duc work on?

**Question 9**

In which empty town in northern France did Viollet-le-Duc recreate historic Gothic buildings?

**Document number 221**

**Text number 0**

Georges Braque and Pablo Picasso were pioneers of the movement, and Jean Metzinger, Albert Gleizes, Robert Delaunay, Henri Le Fauconnier, Fernand Léger and Juan Gris joined in. The main influence that led to Cubism was the introduction of three-dimensional form in the late work of Paul Cézanne. A retrospective of Cézanne's paintings was held at the Salon d'Automne in 1904, and contemporary works were shown at the Salon d'Automne in 1905 and 1906, followed by two commemorative retrospectives after Cézanne's death in 1907.

**Question 0**

Name 8 people who started the movement.

**Question 1**

Which person had the greatest influence on the initiation of the movement of three-dimensional shapes?

**Question 2**

What year were Cezannes' paintings exhibited at the Salon d'Automne? Excluding retrospectives.

**Question 3**

Which movement did Picasso not take part in?

**Question 4**

Which movement did Braque not take part in?

**Question 5**

What happened in 1903?

**Question 6**

Which person was the least influential in starting a movement with three-dimensional shapes?

**Question 7**

Which year did Cezannes' paintings not feature at the Salon d'Automne?

**Text number 1**

In France, branches of cubism developed, such as orphism, abstract art and later purism. In other countries, Futurism, Suprematism, Dada, Constructivism and De Stijl developed in response to Cubism. Early Futurist paintings share with Cubism the combination of past and present, the simultaneous representation of different views of the subject, also known as multi-perspectivalism, simultaneity or multiplicity, while Constructivism was influenced by Picasso's technique of constructing a sculpture from separate elements. Other common features between these different movements are the fascination or simplification of geometric forms and the combination of mechanisation and modern life.

**Question 0**

What were the three branches of Cubism that emerged in France?

**Question 1**

What other branches were formed in countries other than France?

**Question 2**

Which branch had little in common with cubism?

**Question 3**

Which branch of cubism was Picasso influenced by?

**Question 4**

What were the four branches of Cubism that emerged in France?

**Question 5**

What other branches were formed in France?

**Question 6**

Which branch had everything in common with cubism?

**Question 7**

Which branch of cubism was not influenced by Picasso?

**Text number 2**

Cubism began in 1907-1911. Pablo Picasso's 1907 painting Les Demoiselles d'Avignon is often considered a pre-Cubist work. Georges Braque's 1908 work Houses at L'Estaque (and related works) prompted the critic Louis Vauxcelles to speak of bizarreries cubiques (cubist curiosities). Gertrude Stein referred to Picasso's 1909 landscapes, such as Reservoir at Horta de Ebro, as the first Cubist paintings. The first group exhibition organised by the Cubists was held at the Salon des Indépendants in Paris in the spring of 1911, in a hall called 'Salle 41', which featured works by Jean Metzinger, Albert Gleizes, Fernand Léger, Robert Delaunay and Henri Le Fauconnier, but no works by Picasso or Braque.

**Question 0**

Between what years did cubism begin?

**Question 1**

In the spring of what year did the first exhibition organised by the Cubists appear?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the room where the first Cubist exhibition was held?

**Question 3**

Who mentioned Picasso's landscapes in his first cubist paintings?

**Question 4**

In which city was the first Cubist exhibition held?

**Question 5**

What happened in 1906?

**Question 6**

Which painting did Picasso paint in 1908?

**Question 7**

Which painting did Braque paint in 1907?

**Question 8**

What was the name of the room where the last Cubist exhibition was held?

**Question 9**

In which city was the last Cubist exhibition held?

**Text number 3**

Historians have divided the history of Cubism into phases. According to one system, the first phase of Cubism, known as Analytical Cubism, invented retrospectively by Juan Gris, was both a radical and influential short but highly significant artistic movement in France between 1910 and 1912. The second phase, Synthetic Cubism, remained vibrant until around 1919, when the Surrealist movement gained popularity. The English art historian Douglas Cooper proposed a second system, describing the three phases of Cubism in his book The Cubist Epoch. According to Cooper, there was 'early Cubism' (1906-1908), when the movement first developed in the studios of Picasso and Braque; the second phase was called 'high Cubism' (1909-1914), when Juan Gris emerged as an important exponent (after 1911); and finally Cooper referred to 'late Cubism' (1914-1921), the last phase of Cubism as a radical avant-garde movement. Douglas Cooper used these terms restrictively to distinguish between the work of Braque, Picasso, Gris (from 1911) and Léger (to a lesser extent), which implied a deliberate valorisation.

**Question 0**

What was the first phase of cubism?

**Question 1**

Who coined the term Analytic Cubsim?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the second phase of cubism?

**Question 3**

When did High Cubism begin?

**Question 4**

When does late cubism date back to?

**Question 5**

What was the last phase of cubism?

**Question 6**

Who coined the term non-analytical cubism?

**Question 7**

From which years did Low Cubism take place?

**Question 8**

In which years did post-cubism begin?

**Text number 4**

Daniel-Henry Kahnweiler's claim, made as early as 1920, that the cubist description of space, mass, time and volume supports (rather than contradicts) the flatness of the fabric, was criticised in the 1950s and 1960s, especially by Clement Greenberg. Contemporary views of Cubism are complex, and were formed to some extent in response to the 'Salle 41' cubists, whose methods were too different from those of Picasso and Braque to be considered merely secondary. Alternative interpretations of Cubism have therefore developed. Broader views of Cubism include artists who later joined the 'Salle 41' artists, e.g. Francis Picabia; the brothers Jacques Villon, Raymond Duchamp-Villon and Marcel Duchamp, who formed the core of the Section d'Or (or Puteaux Group) from late 1911; sculptors Alexander Archipenko, Joseph Csaky and Ossip Zadkine, Jacques Lipchitz and Henri Laurens; and painters such as Louis Marcoussis, Roger de La Fresnaye, František Kupka, Diego Rivera, Léopold Survage, Auguste Herbin, André Lhote, Gino Severini (after 1916), María Blanchard (after 1916) and Georges Valmier (after 1918). Christopher Green argues that Douglas Cooper's terms were 'undermined by later interpretations of the works of Picasso, Braque, Gris and Léger, which emphasise iconographic and ideological issues rather than representational ones'.

**Question 0**

Who claimed that flat fabric supported cubism?

**Question 1**

What year was it claimed that flat fabric supports cubism?

**Question 2**

When was the claim that flat fabric supported cubism discussed?

**Question 3**

Who was the main opponent who started to argue that flat canvas did not support cubism?

**Question 4**

Whose work undermined Douglass Coopers' terminology describing cubism?

**Question 5**

Who disagreed that the flat canvas supported cubism?

**Question 6**

What year was it argued that flat canvas did not support cubism?

**Question 7**

When was it argued that a flat canvas did not support cubism?

**Question 8**

Who was the main opponent who began to agree that the flat canvas did not support cubism?

**Question 9**

Whose work refuted Douglass Coopers' terms when he did not describe cubism?

**Text number 5**

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, Europeans discovered African, Polynesian, Micronesian and Native American art. Artists such as Paul Gauguin, Henri Matisse and Pablo Picasso were fascinated and inspired by the sheer power and simplicity of the styles of these foreign cultures. Picasso met Matisse through Gertrude Stein around 1906, when both artists were just becoming interested in primitivism, Iberian sculpture, African art and African tribal masks. They became friendly rivals and competed with each other throughout their careers, perhaps leading to Picasso entering a new period in his art in 1907, influenced by Greek, Iberian and African art. Picasso's paintings from 1907 have been described as proto-cubist, notably in Les Demoiselles d'Avignon, a forerunner of cubism.

**Question 0**

Which artists of the 19th and early 20th centuries were inspired by newly discovered African, Native American, micro- and Polynesian art?

**Question 1**

What inspired Matisse, Picasso and Gauguin in the art of Indian cultures?

**Question 2**

Who did Picasso meet around 1906 who had also recently been introduced to primitivism?

**Question 3**

What was characteristic of Picasso's 1907 paintings in general?

**Question 4**

Which artists in the early 21st century are inspired by newly discovered African, Native American, micro and Polynesian art?

**Question 5**

What in indigenous art did not inspire Matisse, Picasso and Gauguin?

**Question 6**

Who did Picasso meet around 1960 who had also recently been introduced to primitivism?

**Question 7**

What was characteristic of Picasso's 1970 paintings in general?

**Text number 6**

Art historian Douglas Cooper notes that Paul Gauguin and Paul Cézanne "were particularly influential in the formation of Cubism and especially important for Picasso's paintings in 1906 and 1907". Cooper continues, "Demoiselles is commonly referred to as the first Cubist painting. This is an exaggeration, because although it was an important first step towards Cubism, it is not yet Cubist. Its disturbing, expressionistic element is even contrary to the spirit of Cubism, which looked at the world in a detached, realistic way. Nevertheless, Demoiselles is a logical image for the starting point of Cubism, because it marks the birth of a new pictorial idiom, because Picasso violently overturned established conventions in it, and because everything that followed grew out of it."

**Question 0**

According to Douglass Cooper, which two artists were very important for the formation of Cubism?

**Question 1**

What is the first cubist painting, according to Cooper?

**Question 2**

Is it true that the first cubist painting is Demoiselles?

**Question 3**

According to Douglass Cooper, which two artists were not important to the formation of Cubism?

**Question 4**

What is the last Cubist painting according to Cooper?

**Question 5**

What style is The Desmoiselles?

**Question 6**

Who said that its disturbing, expressionistic element is not at all incompatible with the spirit of cubism?"

**Text number 7**

The art historian Daniel Robbins wrote that "such conclusions are not historical", which is the most serious objection to considering the Demoiselles as the source of Cubism, where primitive art clearly had an influence. This familiar explanation 'does not take sufficient account of the complexity of the flourishing art of the period just before Picasso's new art of painting'. Between 1905 and 1908, the search for a conscious new style brought about rapid changes in art in France, Germany, Holland, Italy and Russia. The Impressionists had adopted a double vision, and both the Les Nabis group and the Symbolists (who also admired Cézanne) flattened the pictorial plane and reduced subjects to simple geometric forms. Another important influence was the neo-impressionist structure and subject matter, particularly evident in the works of Georges Seurat (e.g. Parade de Cirque, Le Chahut and Le Cirque). There were also similarities in the development of literature and social thought.

**Question 0**

What did Daniel Robbins say about the Demoiselles at the beginning of Cubism?

**Question 1**

In what years did the conscious begin to look for a new style in Germany, Italy, Russia and Holland?

**Question 2**

Which Impressionist movements were also influenced by Cubism?

**Question 3**

What technique did the Impressionists use to make simple forms of their subjects?

**Question 4**

What did Daniel Robbins say about Demoiselles being the end of cubism?

**Question 5**

In what years did the conscious begin to look for the old style in Germany, Italy, Russia and the Netherlands?

**Question 6**

Which Impressionist movements were not inspired by Cubism?

**Question 7**

What technique did the Impressionists use when they did not make simple forms of their subjects?

**Text number 8**

In addition to Seurat, the roots of Cubism can be found in two particular trends in Cézanne's later work: firstly, his breaking of the painted surface into small multi-faceted areas of paint, emphasising the multidimensional perspective provided by binocular vision, and secondly, his interest in simplifying natural forms into cylinders, spheres and cones. However, the Cubists went further than Cézanne in exploring this concept. They presented all the surfaces of the objects they were depicting on a single image plane, as if all the faces of the objects were visible at the same time. This new way of representing objects revolutionised the way objects could be visualised in painting and art.

**Question 0**

Where else but in Seurat can you see the beginnings of Cubism?

**Question 1**

Who further explored the cubist concept of simplifying shapes into cones, cylinders and spheres?

**Question 2**

How did cubism revolutionise the way we see art?

**Question 3**

Where else but in Seurat is the end of cubism?

**Question 4**

The cubists studied the simplification of shapes into cones, cylinders and spheres, but who didn't?

**Question 5**

How did cubism revolutionise the way things could not be seen in art?

**Text number 9**

The historical study of Cubism began in the late 1920s, initially based on limited sources of information, namely the opinions of Guillaume Apollinaire. It relied heavily on Daniel-Henry Kahnweiler's book Der Weg zum Kubismus (published in 1920), which focused on the development of Picasso, Braque, Léger and Gris. The terms 'analytical' and 'synthetic' have been widely accepted since the mid-1930s. Both terms are historical obsessions that have emerged only after the facts they describe have been established. Neither phase was designated as such at the time of the creation of the corresponding works. "If Kahnweiler considers Cubism to be Picasso and Braque," wrote Daniel Robbins, "our only fault is that we subject the works of other Cubists to the rigours of that limited definition."

**Question 0**

When did the historical study of cubism begin?

**Question 1**

On whose opinions was the historical study of Cubism based?

**Question 2**

Which book and whose author was one of the main sources of historical research on Cubism?

**Question 3**

When did the historical study of cubism end?

**Question 4**

What happened in the early 1920s?

**Question 5**

On whose opinions is this historical study of cubism based?

**Question 6**

Which book and by whom was one of the most important sources for the historiography of non-cubism?

**Text number 10**

The traditional interpretation of "cubism", formulated retrospectively as a means of understanding the works of Braque and Picasso, has influenced the appreciation of other 20th century artists. It is difficult to apply it to painters such as Jean Metzinger, Albert Gleizes, Robert Delaunay and Henri Le Fauconnier, whose fundamental differences from traditional cubism forced Kahnweiler to question their right to be called cubists at all. According to Daniel Robbins, "it is a profound mistake to claim that just because these artists developed differently or departed from the traditional formula, they deserved to be relegated to a secondary or satellite position in Cubism".

**Question 0**

Whose works formed the traditional meaning of Cubism?

**Question 1**

Who suggested that it was a mistake to relegate artists other than Braque and Picasso to the distant role of cubism?

**Question 2**

What other painters were not considered as cubist as Braque and Picasso?

**Question 3**

Understanding whose work formed the basis of the traditional definition of non-cubism?

**Question 4**

Who suggested that it was a mistake for artists other than Braque and Picasso to move closer to cubism?

**Question 5**

What other painters were considered as cubist as Braque and Picasso?

**Question 6**

Who said "o suggest that simply because these artists developed the same as the traditional model"

**Text number 11**

The term cubism only came into general use in 1911, mainly in connection with Metzinger, Gleizes, Delaunay and Léger. In 1911, the poet and critic Guillaume Apollinaire introduced the term on behalf of a group of artists invited to the Indépendants exhibition in Brussels. The following year, in preparation for the Salon de la Section d'Or, Metzinger and Gleizes wrote and published Du "Cubisme", a book in which they sought to dispel the confusion surrounding the word and defend Cubism (which had caused a public scandal after the 1911 Salon des Indépendants and the 1912 Salon d'Automne in Paris). This work, which clarifies their aims as artists, was the first theoretical treatise on Cubism and remains the clearest and most accessible. The result, which is not only a collaboration between the two authors, reflects the debates of the artistic circles that met at Puteaux and Courbevoie. It reflected the attitudes of Passy's group of artists, which included Picabia and the Duchamp brothers, for whom parts of it were read before publication. The concept developed in Du 'Cubisme' of looking at an object simultaneously from different points in space and time, i.e. moving around the object so that it can be photographed from several successive angles fused into a single image (multiple perspectives, moving perspective, simultaneity or multiplicity), is a widely recognised technique used by the Cubists.

**Question 0**

In what year did the term cubism become common?

**Question 1**

In 1911, which poet-critic, along with a group of poets, adopted the term cubism?

**Question 2**

Which two people were among Passy's artists?

**Question 3**

In what year did the term cubism become less used?

**Question 4**

What happened in 1910?

**Question 5**

In 1911, which poet-critic rejected the term cubism with a group of poets?

**Question 6**

Which three people were among Passy's artists?

**Text number 12**

There was a clear difference between the Kahnweiler cubists and the Salon cubists. Before 1914, Picasso, Braque, Gris and Léger (to a lesser extent) were supported by a single Parisian art dealer, Daniel-Henry Kahnweiler, who guaranteed them an annual income from the exclusive right to buy their works. Kahnweiler sold only to a small circle of specialists. His support gave his artists the freedom to experiment in relative peace. Picasso worked in Montmartre until 1912, and Braque and Gris remained there after the First World War. Léger lived in Montparnasse.

**Question 0**

Where did the Picassos work until 1912?

**Question 1**

Where did Braque and Gris stay until the end of the First World War?

**Question 2**

Where was Leger living around 1912?

**Question 3**

Where did the Picassos work until 1911?

**Question 4**

Where did Braque and Gris move to after the end of the First World War?

**Question 5**

Where was Leger not based around 1912?

**Text number 13**

The Salon Cubists, on the other hand, built their reputation mainly through regular participation in the Salon d'Automne and Salon des Indépendants, both of which were the largest non-academic salons in Paris. They were inevitably more aware of public reaction and the need to communicate. Already in 1910 a group began to form, including Metzinger, Gleizes, Delaunay and Léger. They met regularly at Henri le Fauconnier's studio near the Boulevard de Montparnasse. Writers such as Guillaume Apollinaire and André Salmon often attended these dinners. Together with other young artists, the group wanted to emphasise the exploration of form as opposed to the neo-impressionist emphasis on colour.

**Question 0**

Which four people usually met in Fauconnier's studio in 1910?

**Question 1**

Where was Fauconnier's studio located?

**Question 2**

What did the group at the Fauconnier studio want to focus on?

**Question 3**

Which five people usually met in Fauconnier's studio in 1910?

**Question 4**

Where was Fauconnier's studio destroyed?

**Question 5**

What did the group at the Fauconnier studio not want to focus on?

**Question 6**

Which group was founded in 1911?

**Text number 14**

At the Salon d'Automne that same year, the Salle 41 Indépendants group exhibited works by André Lhote, Marcel Duchamp, Jacques Villon, Roger de La Fresnaye, André Dunoyer de Segonzac and František Kupka. The exhibition was reviewed in the 8 October 1911 issue of the New York Times. The article was published a year after Gelett Burgess's The Wild Men of Paris and two years before the Armory Show, which introduced Americans accustomed to realist art to experimental styles of the European avant-garde, such as Fauvism, Cubism and Futurism. A 1911 New York Times article featured works by Picasso, Matisse, Derain, Metzinger and others completed before 1909 that were not shown at the 1911 Salon. The article was titled The "Cubists" Dominate Paris' Fall Salon and subtitled Eccentric School of Painting Increases Its Vogue in the Current Art Exhibition - What Its Followers Attempt to Do.

**Question 0**

What year did the New York Times review the Salon d'Automne?

**Question 1**

What was the subtitle of an article on cubism published in the New York TImes in 1911?

**Question 2**

List the artists who were exhibited at the Salon d'Automne?

**Question 3**

What year did the New York Times not review the Salon d'Automne?

**Question 4**

What happened on 9 October 1911?

**Question 5**

What was the subtitle of an article on cubism that was not published in the New York TImes in 1911?

**Question 6**

List the artists who were not exhibited at the Salon d'Automne?

**Text number 15**

Marcel Duchamp's Nude Descending a Staircase, No. 2 was exhibited at the 1912 Salon des Indépendants, causing a scandal even among Cubists. In fact, it was rejected by the hanging committee, which included Duchamp's brothers and other cubists. Although the work was exhibited at the Salon de la Section d'Or in October 1912 and at the Armory Show in New York in 1913, Duchamp never forgave his brothers and former colleagues for censoring his work. Juan Gris, a newcomer to the Salon, showed Picasso's Portrait (Art Institute of Chicago), while Metzinger's two exhibitions were La Femme au Cheval (Woman with a Horse) 1911-1912 (National Gallery of Denmark), Delaunay's monumental La Ville de Paris (Musée d'art moderne de la Ville de Paris) and Léger's La Noce, The Wedding (Musée National d'Art Moderne, Paris).

**Question 0**

Which Duchamp exhibition was shown at the 1912 Salon des Independants?

**Question 1**

Were Duchamp's works considered controversial when they were shown in 1912?

**Question 2**

What was one of the two exhibitions Metzinger had at the 1912 Salon des Independants?

**Question 3**

Which Duchamp exhibition was shown at the 1913 Salon des Independants?

**Question 4**

Which Duchamp painting was not controversial?

**Question 5**

What was one of the two exhibitions Metzinger had at the 1913 Salon des Independants?

**Question 6**

Where was Woman with a Door featured?

**Question 7**

Where was La Ville de Rome exhibited?

**Text number 16**

The Cubists' participation in the 1912 Salon d'Automne caused a scandal over the use of state-owned buildings, such as the Grand Palais, to display such works of art. The indignation of politician Jean Pierre Philippe Lampué appeared on the front page of Le Journal on 5 October 1912, and the controversy spread to the Paris City Council, leading to a debate in the Chambre des Députés on the use of public funds to display such art. Marcel Sembat, a Socialist representative, defended the Cubists.

**Question 0**

Which politician made the front page of Le Journa in 1912 for his indignation?

**Question 1**

Who defended the cubists in the 1912 dispute?

**Question 2**

What social issue did the Cubists at the Salon d'Automne create aversion to?

**Question 3**

Which politician was on the front page of Le Journa in 1913 for his indignation?

**Question 4**

Who defended the cubists in the 1915 dispute?

**Question 5**

On what social issue did the cubists at the Salon d'Automne not cause controversy?

**Question 6**

What happened in 1911?

**Text number 17**

Jean Metzinger and Albert Gleizes wrote Du "Cubisme" (published by Eugène Figuière in 1912 and translated into English and Russian in 1913) in the face of this public hatred. The exhibition included Le Fauconnier's large work Les Montagnards attaqués par des ours (Mountain Climbers Attacked by Bears), now in the Rhode Island School of Design Museum, Joseph Csaky's Deux Femme, Two Women (a sculpture now lost), and Kupka's highly abstract paintings Amorpha (Prague National Gallery) and Picabia's La Source, Spring (New York Museum of Modern Art).

**Question 0**

What against Metzinger and Gleizes wrote Du "Cubsime"?

**Question 1**

Who published Du "Cubisme"?

**Question 2**

What year was "Cubisme" published?

**Question 3**

What did Metzinger and Gleizes write in support of Du "Cubsime"?

**Question 4**

Who wrote "Squarism"?

**Question 5**

What year was "Squarism" released?

**Question 6**

Who published you "Squarism"?

**Question 7**

Where were Kupka's paintings not on display?

**Text number 18**

The most extreme forms of Cubism were not practised by Picasso and Braque, who opposed total abstraction. Other Cubists, notably František Kupka and the Cubists classified by Apollinaire as Orphists (Delaunay, Léger, Picabia and Duchamp), instead embraced abstraction by removing the visible subject entirely. Kupka's two works at the 1912 Salon d'Automne, Amorpha-Fugue à deux couleurs and Amorpha chromatique chaude, were highly abstract (or unrepresentative) and metaphysical. Both Duchamp in 1912 and Picabia between 1912 and 1914 developed expressive and suggestive abstraction devoted to complex emotional and sexual themes. From 1912 Delaunay painted a series of paintings called Simultaneous Windows, followed by a series called Formes Circulaires, in which he combined flat structures with bright prismatic shades; based on the optical properties of juxtaposed colours, his detachment from reality in the depiction of images was almost complete. In 1913-14, Léger produced a series of Contrasts of Forms, which placed equal emphasis on colour, line and form. His cubism, despite its abstract features, was linked to themes of mechanisation and modern life. Apollinaire supported these early developments in abstract cubism in Les Peintres cubistes (1913), in which he wrote of a new 'pure' art of painting in which the subject was removed. Despite his use of the term Orphism, however, these works were so different that they defy attempts to place them in a single category.

**Question 0**

What were Kupka's two competition entries at Salon d'Automne?

**Question 1**

What were the names of Delaunay's paintings in 1912?

**Question 2**

During which years did Leger produce Contrasts of Forms?

**Question 3**

What were Kupka's three competition entries at Salon d'Automne?

**Question 4**

What were the names of Delaunay's paintings in 1914?

**Question 5**

During which years did Leger not produce Contrasts of Forms?

**Question 6**

Who is the producer of the series called Forms are not opposites?

**Text number 19**

Marcel Duchamp, also called an Orphist by Apollinaire, was responsible for another extreme development inspired by Cubism. The finished work emerged from a shared reflection that the work itself was an object (like a painting) and that it used material remnants of the world (as in collage and papier collé in Cubist Construction and Assemblage). The next logical step for Duchamp was to present the ordinary object as a work of art in its own right, representing only itself. In 1913 he attached a bicycle wheel to a kitchen stool and in 1914 he chose a bottle drying rack as his own sculpture.

**Question 0**

Who labelled Marcel Duchamp an orphan?

**Question 1**

Which two objects did Duchamp put together in 1913?

**Question 2**

Which object did Duchamp choose as a sculpture of himself in 1914?

**Question 3**

Who stamped Marcel Duchamp, who was not an orphan?

**Question 4**

Which three objects did Duchamp put together in 1913?

**Question 5**

Which object did Duchamp choose as a sculpture of himself in 1912?

**Question 6**

What was Duchamp not responsible for?

**Text number 20**

Section d'Or, also known as the Groupe de Puteaux, founded by some of the most prominent cubists, was a collective of painters, sculptors and critics associated with cubism and orphism, active from 1911 to 1914 and made famous by its controversial show at the 1911 Salon des Indépendants. The Salon de la Section d'Or, held in October 1912 at Galerie La Boétie in Paris, was probably the most important pre-World War I Cubist exhibition to present Cubism to a wide audience. With over 200 works on display, the fact that many of the artists presented works that represented their development between 1909 and 1912 gave the exhibition the charm of a Cubist retrospective.

**Question 0**

How many works were exhibited at the Salon de la Section d'Or at Galerie La Boétie in Paris in October 1912?

**Question 1**

How many works were exhibited at the Salon de la Section d'Or at Galerie La Boétie in Paris in October 1922?

**Question 2**

What was also known as Non-Groupe de Puteaux?

**Question 3**

What is another term for Section d'voures?

**Question 4**

What was developed in 1913?

**Text number 21**

The fact that the 1912 exhibition was curated to present the successive phases of Cubism and that Du "Cubisme" was published for the occasion shows the artists' intention to make their work understandable to a wide audience (art critics, art collectors, art dealers and the general public). Thanks to the great success of the exhibition, Cubism was undoubtedly recognised as a trend in art, a genre or style with a common philosophy or objective: a new avant-garde movement.

**Question 0**

What did the 1912 Cubist exhibition show?

**Question 1**

What was not on display at the 1912 Cubist exhibition?

**Question 2**

What kind of audience was not addressed by the exhibition?

**Question 3**

What did the exhibition fail?

**Question 4**

What did not become a genre after the exhibition?

**Question 5**

What was not the new avant-garde style?

**Text number 22**

The cubism of Picasso, Braque and Gris had more than a technical or formal meaning, and the different attitudes and intentions of the salon cubists produced a different kind of cubism rather than the derivative of their work. "In any case," writes Christopher Green, "it is by no means clear to what extent these other Cubists were dependent on Picasso and Braque in developing techniques such as faceting, 'passage' and multiple perspective; they may well have arrived at such practices without knowing much about 'real' Cubism in its early stages, and were guided above all by their own understanding of Cézanne." The Cubists' works exhibited at the 1911 and 1912 Salons went beyond the traditional Cézanne-like subjects - posed model, still life and landscape - favoured by Picasso and Braque, to include broad themes of modern life. These works, aimed at the general public, emphasised the use of multiple perspectives and complex flat borders for expressive effect, while maintaining the eloquence of subjects with literary and philosophical overtones.

**Question 0**

What did Christopher Green say about the difference between traditional cubists and parlour cubists?

**Question 1**

To whom did Braque and Picasso address their works?

**Question 2**

What did Christopher Green say about the similarities between traditional cubists and parlour cubists?

**Question 3**

Who said: "It's obvious anyway"?

**Question 4**

To whom did Braque and Picasso not address their works?

**Question 5**

What happened in 1913?

**Text number 23**

In Du "Cubisme", Metzinger and Gleizes explicitly linked the sense of time to the multiple perspectives and gave symbolic expression to the concept of "duration" introduced by philosopher Henri Bergson, according to which life is subjectively experienced as a continuum in which the past flows into the present and the present merges with the future. The Salon Cubists used a faceted treatment of solid matter and space and the effects of multiple perspectives to convey a physical and psychological sense of the fluidity of consciousness and to blur the distinctions between past, present and future. One of the main theoretical innovations of the Salon Cubists, independently of Picasso and Braque, was the concept of simultaneity, based more or less on the theories of Henri Poincaré, Ernst Machi, Charles Henry, Maurice Princet and Henri Bergson. With simultaneity, the notion of separate spatial and temporal dimensions was thoroughly questioned. The linear perspective developed during the Renaissance was abandoned. The subject was no longer viewed from a particular perspective at a particular point in time, but was constructed on the basis of a choice of successive perspectives, as if it were viewed simultaneously from several angles (and in multiple dimensions) and the eye could wander freely from one perspective to another.

**Question 0**

Who are Metzinger and Gleizes linked to in Du Cubisme: the sense of time?

**Question 1**

What kind of treatment of space and time did the cubists use?

**Question 2**

Du Cubisme who so Metzinger and Gleizes not associated with a sense of time?

**Question 3**

What kind of treatment of space and time did the cubists not use?

**Question 4**

What was not a symbolic expression?

**Question 5**

What kind of philosopher was Henri Bergson?

**Text number 24**

This technique of simultaneity, of presenting multiple perspectives (or relative movement), is very complex in Gleizes' monumental Le Dépiquage des Moissons (The Harvest Pruning), exhibited at the 1912 Salon de la Section d'Or, Le Fauconnier's Abundance, exhibited at the 1911 Indépendants exhibition, and Delaunay's City of Paris, exhibited at the 1912 Indépendants exhibition. These ambitious works are among the greatest paintings in the history of Cubism. Léger's Wedding, also exhibited at the Indépendants Salon in 1912, gave form to the concept of simultaneity by presenting different motifs within a single temporal frame, where responses to the past and present interpenetrate each other with a collective force. The combination of such subjects and simultaneity links Salon Cubism with the early Futurist paintings of Umberto Boccioni, Gino Severini and Carlo Carrà, made in response to early Cubism.

**Question 0**

What does the technique of Le Depiquage by Gliezes represent?

**Question 1**

Who painted The Wedding, an exhibition at the Salon des Independants in 1912?

**Question 2**

Which of Gliezes' works was on show at the Salon de la Section d'Or?

**Question 3**

What did the technique of Gliezes' Le Depiquage not represent?

**Question 4**

Who painted The Wedding, an exhibition at the Salon des Independants in 1913?

**Question 5**

Which of Gliezes' works was not on show at the Salon de la Section d'Or?

**Question 6**

Who didn't make a response in early cubism?

**Question 7**

What did not give shape to the concept of simultaneity?

**Text number 25**

Cubism and modern European art were introduced to the United States at the legendary Armory Show in New York in 1913, which went on to Chicago and Boston. At the Armory Show, Pablo Picasso exhibited, among other Cubist works, La Femme au pot de moutarde (1910), the sculpture Head of a Woman (Fernande) (1909-10) and Les Arbres (1907). Jacques Villon presented seven important and large drypoint prints, while his brother Marcel Duchamp shocked the American public with Nude Descending a Staircase, No. 2 (1912), and Francis Picabia presented his abstract works La Danse à la source and La Procession, Seville (both 1912). Albert Gleizes presented La Femme aux phlox (1910) and L'Homme au balcon (1912), two highly stylized and facetted Cubist works. Georges Braque, Fernand Léger, Raymond Duchamp-Villon, Roger de La Fresnaye and Alexander Archipenko also presented Cubist works.

**Question 0**

What was the name of the exhibition that introduced cubism in the United States?

**Question 1**

In which city was the exhibition that brought cubism to the United States?

**Question 2**

Which work did Picasso exhibit in 1907 in the exhibition that brought Cubism to the United States?

**Question 3**

Which work, completed in 1910, did Albert Gleizes exhibit at the exhibition that brought Cubism to the United States?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the exhibition that brought cubism to China?

**Question 5**

In which city was the exhibition held that brought cubism to Canada?

**Question 6**

Where did the series go after Boston?

**Question 7**

Where was the show before New York?

**Question 8**

Which work did Picasso exhibit in 1907 in the exhibition that brought Cubism to China?

**Text number 26**

Cubist sculpture developed in parallel with Cubist painting. In the autumn of 1909, Picasso sculpted a woman's head (Fernande), in which positive features are represented by negative space and vice versa. According to Douglas Cooper: "The first true Cubist sculpture was the impressive Female Head, modelled by Picasso in 1909-10, which was the three-dimensional counterpart to many similar analytical and faceted heads in Picasso's paintings of the time." These positive/negative reversals were ambitiously exploited by Aleksandr Arshipenko in 1912-13, for example in Woman Walking. After Arshipenko, Joseph Csaky was the first sculptor to join the Cubists in Paris, with whom he held exhibitions from 1911. They were followed by Raymond Duchamp-Villon and in 1914 by Jacques Lipchitz, Henri Laurens and Ossip Zadkine.

**Question 0**

What was the name of the cubist sculpture created by Picasso in 1909?

**Question 1**

What does Douglas Cooper call Picasso's 1909 cubist sculpture?

**Question 2**

Which of Aleksandr Arshipenko's works was similar to other cubist sculptures of the time?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the cubist sculpture created by Picasso in 1907?

**Question 4**

Who carved the woman's arm?

**Question 5**

When was the Woman's Foot carved?

**Question 6**

How did Aleksandr Arshipenko's work differ from other cubist sculptures of the time?

**Question 7**

What was Aleksandr Arshipenko painting in 1915?

**Text number 27**

The major change in Cubism between 1914 and 1916 was a shift towards an emphasis on large overlapping geometric planes and flat surfaces. This grouping of painting and sculpture styles, which was particularly prominent between 1917 and 1920, was practised by a number of artists, especially those who had a contract with the art dealer and collector Léonce Rosenberg. The rigour of the compositions, the clarity and the sense of order in these works led the critic Maurice Raynal (fr) to call it 'crystal cubism'. The ideas put forward by the Cubists before the beginning of the First World War - such as the fourth dimension, the dynamism of modern life, occultism and Henri Bergson's concept of duration - had now been abandoned and replaced by a purely formal framework.

**Question 0**

What did the critic Maurice Raynal start to refer to in Cubism around 1917-1920?

**Question 1**

Whose idea of duration was left behind in favour of more concrete frameworks?

**Question 2**

What was the first period when a major change in cubism began to take place?

**Question 3**

What was the second period when a major change in cubism began to take place?

**Question 4**

When did the critic Maurice Raynal stop referring to cubism, around 1917-1920?

**Question 5**

Whose perception of duration was not left behind by more concrete frameworks?

**Question 6**

What was the first period when cubism did not start to change?

**Question 7**

What was the last period in which there was no significant change in cubism?

**Text number 28**

Cubism's most innovative period was before 1914. After the First World War, with the support of the dealer Léonce Rosenberg, Cubism returned as a central issue for artists and continued as such until the mid-1920s, when its avant-garde status was challenged by the emergence of geometric abstraction and surrealism in Paris. Many Cubists, such as Picasso, Braque, Gris, Léger, Gleizes and Metzinger, developed other styles but returned to Cubism from time to time, well after 1925. Cubism re-emerged in the 1920s and 1930s in the work of American Stuart Davis and Englishman Ben Nicholson. In France, however, Cubism went into decline from around 1925 onwards. Léonce Rosenberg's exhibitions included not only the artists who had been exiled from Kahnweiler, but also other artists such as Laurens, Lipchitz, Metzinger, Gleizes, Csaky, Herbin and Severini. In 1918, Rosenberg organised a series of Cubist exhibitions at his Galerie de l'Effort Moderne in Paris. Louis Vauxcelles tried to claim that Cubism was dead, but these exhibitions, together with the well-organised Cubist exhibition at the 1920 Salon des Indépendants and the revival of the Salon de la Section d'Or that same year, proved that Cubism was still alive.

**Question 0**

Before what year was cubism considered the most innovative?

**Question 1**

With the help of which dealer did cubism return as a central issue for artists after the First World War?

**Question 2**

What year did Rosenberg show cubist works at the Galerie de l'Effort Moderne?

**Question 3**

In which city was the Galerie de l'Effort Moderne held?

**Question 4**

Before which year was cubism considered the least innovative?

**Question 5**

With the help of which dealer did cubism return as a central issue for artists after the Second World War?

**Question 6**

What did not decrease in 1925?

**Question 7**

In what year did Rosenberg refuse to exhibit cubist works at the Galerie de l'Effort Moderne?

**Question 8**

In which city was Galerie de l'Effort Moderne banned?

**Text number 29**

The new rise of Cubism coincided with the production of a coherent theoretical literature in 1917-24 by Pierre Reverdy, Maurice Raynal and Daniel-Henry Kahnweiler, and by the artists Gris, Léger and Gleizes. The occasional return to classicism - figurative work either exclusively or alongside cubist work - experienced by many artists during this period (known as neo-classicism) has been linked to a tendency to avoid the realities of war and the cultural dominance of the classical or Latin French image during and immediately after the war. Post-1918 Cubism can be seen as part of a broad ideological shift towards conservatism in both French society and culture. Cubism itself, however, remained evolutionary, both in the work of individual artists such as Gris and Metzinger, and of artists as diverse as Braque, Léger and Gleizes. Publicly debated, Cubism became relatively uniform and open to definition. Its theoretical purity made it a yardstick against which trends as diverse as realism or naturalism, dada, surrealism and abstraction could be compared.

**Question 0**

Name three artists who contributed to the rebirth of Cubism between 1917 and 1924.

**Question 1**

Name three writers who contributed to the revival of Cubism between 1917 and 1924.

**Question 2**

In what direction did French ideals change in 1918, what influenced Cubism?

**Question 3**

Name four artists who contributed to the rebirth of Cubism between 1917 and 1924.

**Question 4**

In what direction did French ideologies change in 1919, what influenced Cubism?

**Question 5**

What did not survive evolution?

**Question 6**

What happened to cubism before 1918?

**Text number 30**

Cubism formed an important link between early 20th century art and architecture. The historical, theoretical and socio-political relationships between avant-garde practices in painting, sculpture and architecture had early influences in France, Germany, the Netherlands and Czechoslovakia. Although there are many similarities between Cubism and architecture, few direct links can be drawn between them. Most often, the links are drawn by reference to common formal characteristics: the faceted nature of form, spatial ambiguity, transparency and multiplicity.

**Question 0**

What two things did cubism in the early 20th century form an important link between?

**Question 1**

What are the four formal characteristics usually associated with cubism?

**Question 2**

In which four countries was the influence of avant-garde art particularly strong?

**Question 3**

What four things did cubism in the early 20th century form an important link with?

**Question 4**

What two things did cubism in the early 19th century form an important link between?

**Question 5**

What are the four formal features that are never associated with cubism?

**Question 6**

In which four countries was the influence of avant-garde art particularly weak?

**Question 7**

How was the reception in Italy?

**Text number 31**

Architectural interest in Cubism focused on breaking down and reconstructing three-dimensional form using simple geometric shapes juxtaposed without the illusions of classical perspective. Different elements could be superimposed, made transparent or interpenetrate each other while maintaining their spatial relationships. Cubism had become an influential factor in the development of modern architecture since 1912 (Raymond Duchamp-Villon and André Mare's La Maison Cubiste) and developed alongside architects such as Peter Behrens and Walter Gropius, simplifying the design of buildings, using materials suitable for industrial production and increasing the use of glass.

**Question 0**

What was the architecturally interested basis of cubism?

**Question 1**

Who said Cubism was becoming an influential factor in modern architecture?

**Question 2**

What was the influence of cubism on architecture with the increased use of which material?

**Question 3**

In Cubism, what was not the architectural base of interest?

**Question 4**

Who said cubism was not becoming influential in modern architecture?

**Question 5**

Which material's increased use meant the absence of cubist influence in architecture?

**Text number 32**

Cubism was relevant to an architecture that sought a style that did not need to refer to the past. Thus, what had become a revolution in both painting and sculpture was applied as part of a 'profound reorientation towards a changed world'. Filippo Tommaso Marinetti's cubo-futurist ideas influenced the attitudes of avant-garde architecture. The influential De Stijl movement adopted the aesthetic principles of neo-plasticism developed by Piet Mondrian under the influence of Parisian cubism. Gino Severini also linked De Stijl to Cubist theory through the writings of Albert Gleizes. However, the combination of basic geometric forms with natural beauty and easy industrial application - foreseen by Marcel Duchamp from 1914 - was left to the founders of Puritanism, Amédée Ozenfant and Charles-Édouard Jeanneret (better known as Le Corbusier), who exhibited their paintings together in Paris and published Après le cubisme in 1918. Le Corbusier's aim was to transfer the characteristics of his own Cubist style to architecture. Between 1918 and 1922, Le Corbusier concentrated on purist theory and painting. In 1922, Le Corbusier and his cousin Jeanneret opened a studio in Paris at 35 rue de Sèvres. His theoretical studies soon led to a wide range of architectural projects.

**Question 0**

Which cubo-futurist's ideas influenced the avant-garde of architecture?

**Question 1**

De Stijl took part in which aesthetic principles?

**Question 2**

Who developed neoplasticity?

**Question 3**

Who linked De Stijl to cubist theory?

**Question 4**

With whom did Le Corbusier open his Paris studio in 1922?

**Question 5**

Which cubo-futurist's ideas did not influence the avant-garde of architecture?

**Question 6**

Who wrote the squarist theory?

**Question 7**

What did Duchamp foresee in 1915?

**Question 8**

In which years did Le Corbusier not concentrate his efforts?

**Question 9**

What happened in 1912?

**Text number 33**

The 1912 Salon d'Automne saw the presentation of an architectural installation that quickly became known as the Maison Cubiste, signed by Raymond Duchamp-Villon and André Mare and a number of collaborators. Metzinger and Gleizes, in Du "Cubisme", written during the assembly of the "Maison Cubiste", wrote about the autonomous nature of art and stressed that the decorative should not dominate the spirit of art. For them, ornamentation was "the opposite of image". "The true image", wrote Metzinger and Gleizes, "carries the reason for its existence within itself. It can be transferred from church to drawing room, from museum to studio. Essentially independent, necessarily perfect, it need not immediately satisfy the mind: on the contrary, it should lead it gradually towards the imaginary depths where the coordinate light dwells. It is not compatible with this or that entity; it is compatible with things in general, with the universe: it is an organism...". "Marie's ensembles were accepted as frames for Cubist works because they gave the paintings and sculptures independence", writes Christopher Green, "by creating a play of contrasts, and therefore involved, in addition to Gleizes and Metzinger, Marie Laurenc, the Duchamp brothers (Raymond Duchamp-Villon designed the façade) and Marie's old friends Léger and Roger La Fresnaye". La Maison Cubiste was a fully furnished house with a staircase, wrought-iron railings, a living room - the Salon Bourgeois with paintings by Marcel Duchamp, Metzinger (Woman with a Fan), Gleizes, Laurencin and Léger - and a bedroom. It was an example of L'art décoratif, a home where cubist art could be presented in the comfort and style of modern bourgeois life. Spectators at the Salon d'Automne walked through a full-scale 10 by 3 metre plaster model of the ground floor of the Duchamp-Villon-designed façade. This architectural installation was subsequently exhibited at the 1913 Armory Show in New York, Chicago and Boston. In the New York exhibition catalogue, it is included in the Raymond Duchamp-Villon exhibition under the number 609 and the title 'Façade architecturale, plaster' (Façade architecturale).

**Question 0**

What was La Maison Cubiste?

**Question 1**

Which Metzinger work was hung in La Maison Cubiste?

**Question 2**

How big was the La Maison Cubiste model?

**Question 3**

What type of ship was La Maison Cubist?

**Question 4**

Which Metzinger work was not hung in La Maison Cubiste?

**Question 5**

How big was the Be Maison Cubiste model?

**Text number 34**

Original cubist architecture is very rare. There is only one country in the world where Cubism was actually applied to architecture - namely Bohemia (now the Czech Republic) and in particular its capital, Prague. Czech architects were the first and only ones in the world ever to design original cubist buildings. Cubist architecture flourished for the most part between 1910 and 1914, but Cubist or Cubist-influenced buildings were also built after the First World War. After the war, Prague developed a style of architecture called rondo cubism, which combined cubist architecture with circular forms.

**Question 0**

Is original cubist architecture rare?

**Question 1**

Which country applied cubism to architecture the most?

**Question 2**

What was the form of architectural cubism in Prague?

**Question 3**

What was the form of architectural cubism in France?

**Question 4**

What was built after the Second World War?

**Question 5**

What was built before the First World War?

**Question 6**

Which country did not apply cubism to architecture the most?

**Text number 35**

In their theoretical rules, Cubist architects expressed the demand for dynamism that, through creative ideas, would transcend matter and its inherent tranquillity, so that the end result would evoke in the viewer a sense of dynamism and expressive plasticity. This should be achieved by shapes derived from pyramids, cubes and prisms, by arrangements and compositions of oblique surfaces, mainly triangular, by carved facades of projecting crystalline units reminiscent of so-called diamond tiling, or even by cave dwellings reminiscent of late Gothic architecture. In this way, the entire surface of the façades, even down to the pediments and lintels, is carved. The columns and other architectural decorations are given a three-dimensional shape. New window and door shapes, such as hexagonal windows, were also created in this way. Czech cubist architects also designed cubist furniture.

**Question 0**

What was the essential element that cubist architects explained in their theoretical rules?

**Question 1**

What window shapes did Czech cubist architects use?

**Question 2**

What emotions should cubist architecture evoke in the viewer?

**Question 3**

What was the essential element that cubist architects explained in their non-theoretical rules?

**Question 4**

Which window shapes were not used by Czech cubist architects?

**Question 5**

What emotions should cubist architecture not evoke in the viewer?

**Question 6**

What types of doors were not used?

**Text number 36**

Leading cubist architects were Pavel Janák, Josef Gočár, Vlastislav Hofman, Emil Králíček and Josef Chochol. They worked mostly in Prague but also in other Bohemian cities. The most famous Cubist building is Josef Gočár's 1912 House of the Black Madonna in Prague's Old Town, which houses the world's only Cubist café, the Grand Café Orient. Vlastislav Hofman built the entrance pavilions to the Ďáblice cemetery between 1912 and 1914, and Josef Chochol designed several residential buildings under the auspices of Vyšehrad. A Cubist street lamp designed by Emil Králíček in 1912 is also preserved near Wenceslas Square, and he also built the Diamond House for the new city of Prague around 1913.

**Question 0**

Who were the leading cubist architects?

**Question 1**

Where did the leading cubist architects work?

**Question 2**

What is the most famous building of cubist architecture?

**Question 3**

Where is the house of the Black Madonna?

**Question 4**

Who built the house of the Black Madonna?

**Question 5**

Who were not the leading cubist architects?

**Question 6**

Where did the leading cubist architects study?

**Question 7**

What is the least known cubist architectural building?

**Question 8**

Where is the House of the White Madonna?

**Question 9**

Who built the White Madonna's house?

**Text number 37**

Cubism's influence extended beyond painting and sculpture. In literature, in Gertrude Stein's literary works, repetition and repeated phrases are used as building blocks, both in passages and in whole chapters. Most of Stein's important works use this technique, including the novel The Making of Americans (1906-08). Gertrude Stein and her brother Leo were not only among the first important patrons of Cubism, but also important influences on Cubism. Picasso, for his part, was a major influence on Stein's writing.

**Question 0**

Did Cubism influence other disciplines than painting and sculpture?

**Question 1**

Whose literary works used repetition, reminiscent of cubist art?

**Question 2**

What was the name of Gertrude Stein's brother?

**Question 3**

What was the title of a book by Gertrude Stein published between 1906 and 1908?

**Question 4**

Which art forms did not inspire other Cubist works?

**Question 5**

Which novel was published in 2008?

**Question 6**

Who wrote The Making of French?

**Question 7**

Who did not contribute to cubism?

**Text number 38**

Cubism is commonly associated with Guillaume Apollinaire, Blaise Cendrars, Jean Cocteau, Max Jacob, André Salmon and Pierre Reverdy. According to the American poet Kenneth Rexroth, cubism in poetry "is the conscious, deliberate separation and combination of elements into a new artistic whole, rendered autonomous by a rigorous architecture. This is quite different from the free association of the Surrealists and the combination of unconscious statement and political nihilism of the Dadaists." This is quite different from the free association of the surrealists and the combination of the unconscious statement and political nihilism of the Dadaists." Nevertheless, the influence of the Cubist poets on both Cubism and the later Dada and Surrealist movements was profound; Louis Aragon, a founding member of Surrealism, said that for Breton, Soupault, Éluard and himself, Reverdy was "our closest elder, our exemplary poet". Although these poets are not as well remembered as the Cubist painters, they continue to influence and inspire; American poets John Ashbery and Ron Padgett have recently produced new translations of Reverdy's works. Wallace Stevens' Thirteen Ways of Looking at a Blackbird is also said to show how the multiple perspectives of Cubism can be translated into poetry.

**Question 0**

Which poets are closely linked to cubism?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the American poet who is associated with talking about the strict architecture of cubism?

**Question 2**

Which two American poets have recently created new translations of Reverdy's works?

**Question 3**

What is the title of Wallace Steven's work that explains how cubism can be translated into poetry?

**Question 4**

Which poets are not in line with cubism?

**Question 5**

What is the name of the American poet who is not associated with talking about the strict architecture of cubism?

**Question 6**

Which three American poets have recently created new translations of Reverdy's works?

**Question 7**

Who wrote the book Fifteen Ways to Look at Blackbird?

**Document number 222**

**Text number 0**

Chinese political philosophy dates back to the Spring and Autumn period, especially Confucius in the 6th century BC. Chinese political philosophy was developed in response to the social and political disintegration of the country, which was typical of the Spring and Autumn period and the Warring States period. The main philosophies of the period, Confucianism, Legalism, Mohism, Agrarianism and Taoism, each had a political aspect to their philosophical schools. Philosophers such as Confucius, Mencius and Mozi focused on political unity and political stability as the basis of their political philosophies. Confucianism advocated hierarchical, merit-based governance based on empathy, loyalty and interpersonal relationships. Legalism advocated a highly authoritarian regime based on harsh punishments and laws. Mohism advocated a communal, decentralised government centred on austerity and asceticism. Agrarians advocated a peasant-centred communalism and egalitarianism. Taoism advocated proto-anarchism. Legalism was the dominant political philosophy of the Qin dynasty, but was replaced by state religion in the Han dynasty. Before China's transition to communism, statism remained the dominant political philosophy in China until the 20th century.

**Question 0**

What exactly dates back to Confucius from the 6th century BC?

**Question 1**

What century does Chinese political philosophy date back to?

**Question 2**

Chinese political philosophy was developed in response to what?

**Question 3**

What was in favour of a communal, decentralised administration, centred on thrift and asceticism?

**Question 4**

Which dates back to the 6th century AD.

**Question 5**

What was the response to the increased social and political awareness in China?

**Question 6**

What was in favour of a communitarian, centralised administration centred on austerity and asceticism?

**Question 7**

Who was in favour of a government based on empathy, loyalty and personal relationships?

**Question 8**

Who was in favour of peasant rebellion and equality?

**Question 9**

When did agrarianism begin?

**Question 10**

What was Mencius believed to have done in the 6th century BC?

**Question 11**

What characteristic was common to all philosophies?

**Question 12**

In which spring and autumn period did legalism prevail?

**Question 13**

What replaced legalism during the Qin Dynasty?

**Text number 1**

Western political philosophy has its roots in ancient Greek philosophy, where political philosophy dates back at least to Plato. Ancient Greece was dominated by city-states that experimented with different forms of political organisation, which Plato grouped into four categories: timocracy, tyranny, democracy and oligarchy. One of the first, very important classical works of political philosophy was Plato's Republic, followed by Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics and Politics. Roman political philosophy was influenced by the Stoics, including the Roman statesman Cicero.

**Question 0**

Where does Western political philosophy come from?

**Question 1**

Which philosophy dates back at least to Plato?

**Question 2**

What ruled ancient Greece?

**Question 3**

What gave rise to Western philosophy?

**Question 4**

Which philosophy dates back to the post-Platonic era?

**Question 5**

What civilisation was ruled by independent cities that experimented with different types of government?

**Question 6**

Which Roman statesman was inspired by Plato?

**Question 7**

Into which four categories did Aristotle divide Greek political organisations?

**Question 8**

What is the first important work of political organisation?

**Question 9**

Which example of Stoic influence followed the influence of Plato?

**Question 10**

What dominated Western political philosophy?

**Question 11**

How did Cicero group the ancient Greek government?

**Question 12**

What was the impact of the Thiocracy in Rome?

**Text number 2**

Indian political philosophy developed in ancient times, making a clear distinction between (1) nation and state (2) religion and state. The constitutions of the Hindu states evolved over time and were based on political and legal writings and prevailing social institutions. The institutions of the state were broadly divided into administration, governance, defence, law and order. The mantranga, the main governing body of these states, consisted of the king, the prime minister, the commander-in-chief of the army and the king's high priest. The Prime Minister headed the Committee of Ministers together with the Chief Executive (Maha Amatya).

**Question 0**

What makes a clear distinction between nation and state and religion and state?

**Question 1**

What was divided into administration, governance, defence, law and order?

**Question 2**

What was the governing body of the Hindu states?

**Question 3**

Which political philosophy does not make a clear distinction between nation and state or religion and state

**Question 4**

What has evolved over time, based on legal agreements and obscure social institutions?

**Question 5**

Which state institutions were divided into narrow, well-defined entities?

**Question 6**

Which governing body of the states listed the prime minister and civil servants?

**Question 7**

What were the political and legal agreements that made up the Indian administration?

**Question 8**

What were the constitutions of the Maha States based on?

**Question 9**

How was the Committee of Ministers divided?

**Question 10**

Which prevailing social institution made a clear distinction between nation and religion?

**Question 11**

What was the executive director's governing body?

**Text number 3**

Chanakya, 4th century BC Indian political philosopher. The Arthashastra tells the wise ruler about the science of politics, foreign and military policy, the spy state system, state control and economic stability. Chanakya quotes several authorities such as Bruhaspat, Ushanas, Prachetasa Manu, Parasara and Ambi, and describes himself as a descendant of a family of political philosophers whose immediate predecessor was his father Chanaka. Another influential surviving Indian treatise on political philosophy is Sukra Neeti. An example of the legal codes of ancient India is the Manusmṛti or Laws of Manu.

**Question 0**

Who was an Indian political philosopher who lived in the 4th century BC?

**Question 1**

What gives a wise ruler an insight into the science of politics?

**Question 2**

What is an example of an ancient Indian legal code?

**Question 3**

Who was an Indian political philosopher in the fourth century AD?

**Question 4**

What gives a wise ruler an insight into economics?

**Question 5**

"Which authorities does Ambi cite?

**Question 6**

Who is the predecessor of Chanakan?

**Question 7**

Where is Sukra Neeti an example of a legal code?

**Question 8**

Who was the 4th BC Indian Arthashastra?

**Question 9**

What examples of governance does Bruhaspati give?

**Question 10**

Which authorities are quoted by Ambi?

**Question 11**

Whose descendant is Prachetasa?

**Question 12**

Who is Ushanas' father?

**Text number 4**

The early Christian philosophy of Augustine Hippolytus was greatly influenced by Plato. A key shift in Christian thought was the de-emphasis of the Roman world's Stoicism and theory of justice, and the emphasis on the role of the state in applying grace as a moral example. Augustine also preached that man is not a member of his own city, but a citizen of either the city of God (Civitas Dei) or the city of man (Civitas Terrena). Augustine's City of God is an influential work of the period, attacking the thesis of many Christian Romans that the Christian vision could be realized on earth.

**Question 0**

Who was a major influence on the early Christian philosophy of Augustine of Hippo?

**Question 1**

What was the key change in Christian thinking?

**Question 2**

Who also preached that man is not a member of his own city?

**Question 3**

What does Civitas terrena mean?

**Question 4**

What does Civitas Dei mean?

**Question 5**

Who influenced the Christian philosophy of Augustine of Hippo?

**Question 6**

Which philosophy modernises Christian thinking?

**Question 7**

What is the city of humanity?

**Question 8**

Which Christian belief did Augustine's City of Man challenge?

**Question 9**

Who taught that man was a member of his city?

**Question 10**

Who influenced Terrena's view on the moderation of Stoicism?

**Question 11**

What was one of the changes brought about by Augustine?

**Question 12**

Where did Plato mention that people belong?

**Question 13**

Where does Hippos' view attack what Christians believed?

**Question 14**

What is one thing that Plato changed in the Roman world?

**Text number 5**

The rise of Islam, based on the Koran and Muhammad, dramatically changed the balance of power and perceptions of the origins of power in the Mediterranean. Early Islamic philosophy emphasised the inescapable link between science and religion and the ijtihad process of discovering truth - virtually all philosophy was 'political' because it had real implications for governance. This view was challenged by the 'rationalist' Mutazi philosophers, who had a more Hellenistic outlook, reason over revelation, and as such are known to modern scholars as the first speculative theologians of Islam, supported by a secular aristocracy that sought freedom of action independent of the caliphate. By late antiquity, however, the 'traditionalist' Asharite view of Islam had generally prevailed. According to the Asharites, reason had to be subordinate to the Qur'an and the Sunnah.

**Question 0**

What dramatically changed the balance of power and perceptions of the origins of power in the Mediterranean?

**Question 1**

What underlined the inescapable link between science and religion?

**Question 2**

Who challenged the views of early Islamic philosophy?

**Question 3**

What were the views of the "rationalist" mutazi philosophers?

**Question 4**

What will help balance the balance of power in the Mediterranean?

**Question 5**

What early philosophy emphasised the separation of science and religion?

**Question 6**

Which philosophers put revelation above reason?

**Question 7**

Who were the first theologians of Islam?

**Question 8**

Who has said that the Koran must be subordinate to reason?

**Question 9**

Which focused on the link between reason and freedom of action?

**Question 10**

What rise was based on the views and science of modern scientists?

**Question 11**

Which group challenged the Hellenic view of Islam?

**Question 12**

To what must reason submit, according to the Mutasilian philosophers?

**Question 13**

What process did speculative theologians use to find the truth?

**Text number 6**

Islamic political philosophy was in fact rooted in the sources of Islam - namely the Qur'an and the Sunnah, the words and practices of Muhammad - which made it essentially theocratic. In Western thought, however, it is generally assumed that it was a special domain, peculiar only to the great philosophers of Islam: al-Kind (Alkindus), al-Farab (Abunaser), İbn Sina (Avicenna), Ibn Bajjah (Avempace), Ibn Rushd (Averroes) and Ibn Khaldun. Islamic political concepts such as kudrah (power), sultan, ummah, cemaa (duty) - and even the 'essential' terms of the Qur'an - ibadah (worship), din (religion), rab (master) and ilah (divinity) - are taken as the basis for analysis. Thus, not only the ideas of Muslim political philosophers, but also many other jurists and ulama put forward political ideas and theories. For example, the ideas of the khawarijs of the early years of Islamic history on khilaffa and umma, or the ideas of Shi'a Islam on the concept of imamah are taken as evidence of political thought. The clashes between the Ehl-i Sunna and Shi'ism in the 7th and 8th centuries were genuinely political in nature.

**Question 0**

What were the clashes between the Ehl-i Sunna and the Shiites like?

**Question 1**

What were the sources of Islamic political philosophy?

**Question 2**

What is the basis for the analysis?

**Question 3**

Which political philosophy had its roots in theology?

**Question 4**

What are the religious beliefs of Islam?

**Question 5**

What collided in the seventh and eighth centuries?

**Question 6**

What is the religious concept of Islam?

**Question 7**

What were the clashes between Bajja and Rushd in the 7th and 8th centuries?

**Question 8**

What sources is Avicenna based on?

**Question 9**

How does ilah generally assume the roots of Islamic philosophy?

**Question 10**

What did the Ehl-i-Sunna and the Shi'ites have to say about Islam?

**Question 11**

What do ideas of a general political nature testify to in the early history of Islam?

**Text number 7**

Medieval political philosophy in Europe was heavily influenced by Christian thought. It had much in common with Islamic Mutazalite thought, in the sense that while Roman Catholics subordinated philosophy to theology, they did not subordinate reason to revelation but, in cases of conflict, to the faith of reason, like the Asharites of Islam. The scholastics combined Aristotle's philosophy with St Augustine's Christianity, emphasising the possible harmony between reason and revelation. Perhaps the most influential political philosopher in medieval Europe was St Thomas Aquinas, who helped reintroduce the works of Aristotle, which had only reached Catholic Europe through Muslim Spain, and the commentaries of Averroes. The works used by Aquinas set the agenda, as scholastic political philosophy dominated European thought for centuries, even into the Renaissance.

**Question 0**

What were the strong influences of Christian thinking?

**Question 1**

With which school of thought did medieval political philosophy have much in common?

**Question 2**

Who was the most influential political philosopher in medieval Europe?

**Question 3**

What influenced medieval politics?

**Question 4**

What did the Roman Catholics subject theology to?

**Question 5**

How did Christian thought differ from Mutazalite Islamic thought?

**Question 6**

Who emphasises the missing harmony between reason and revelation?

**Question 7**

Which medieval philosopher helped write some of Aristotle's works?

**Question 8**

What influenced the Islamic thinking of the Mutazalites in Europe?

**Question 9**

Who was the most influential Asharite in medieval Europe?

**Question 10**

What did Averroes help to reintroduce in Europe?

**Question 11**

How did Averroes use Aristotle's works in Europe?

**Question 12**

Who was the most influential political philosopher who made Averroes' comments?

**Text number 8**

One of the most influential works of this boom was The Prince, written by Niccolò Machiavelli in 1511-12 and published after Machiavelli's death in 1532. This work, together with The Discourses, a rigorous analysis of the classical period, had a major influence on modern political thought in the West. A minority (including Jean-Jacques Rousseau) interpreted The Prince as a satire intended to be given to the Medicis after they had retaken Florence and expelled Machiavelli from Florence. Although the work was written for the di Medici family to perhaps influence them to release Machiavelli from exile, Machiavelli was more in favour of a Florentine republic than the oligarchy of the di Medici family. In any case, Machiavelli presents a pragmatic and somewhat consequentialist view of politics, in which good and evil are merely means to an end: a secure and powerful state. Thomas Hobbes, well known for his social contract theory, extended this view in the early 1600s during the English Renaissance. Although Machiavelli and Hobbes did not believe in the divine right of kings, they both believed in the inherent selfishness of the individual. This belief necessarily led them to accept strong central power as the only way to prevent the breakdown of the social order.

**Question 0**

What was one of the most influential works of the era?

**Question 1**

When was Niccolo Machiavelli's The Prince published?

**Question 2**

Who wrote Prince?

**Question 3**

Who was known for his theory of the social contract?

**Question 4**

Which influential work was written in 1532?

**Question 5**

What was published just before Machiavelli's death?

**Question 6**

The Prince and what other works influenced medieval political thought?

**Question 7**

What was written to free the Mattice family from exile?

**Question 8**

Who is known for his social contract theory from the 1700s?

**Question 9**

What did Thomas Hobbes write between 1511 and 1512?

**Question 10**

What year after which Jean-Jacques Rousseau died?

**Question 11**

What did di Medici do for the West?

**Question 12**

Who banished Hobbes from Florence?

**Question 13**

Which group did Thomas Hobbes support more than others?

**Text number 9**

These theorists were guided by two basic questions: first, what right or need led people to form states, and second, what could be the best form of state. These basic questions were accompanied by a conceptual distinction between the concepts of 'state' and 'government'. It was decided that 'state' refers to a set of permanent institutions through which power is distributed and its exercise justified. The term 'government' referred to a particular group of people who used the institutions of the state and created laws and regulations that bound people, including themselves. This conceptual distinction still operates in political science, although some political scientists, philosophers, historians and cultural anthropologists have argued that most of the political activity in a given society takes place outside the state, and that there are societies that are not organised as states but which must nevertheless be considered in political terms. As long as the concept of natural order was not introduced, social science could not develop independently of theistic thinking. Since the Cultural Revolution in England in the 17th century, which spread to France and the rest of Europe, society has been subject to natural laws such as those of the physical world.

**Question 0**

What would it mean to have a set of permanent institutions through which power is shared and justified?

**Question 1**

Which refers to a particular group of people who occupied state institutions?

**Question 2**

Society has been considered to be subject to natural laws similar to what?

**Question 3**

Which two questions linked the concepts of state and government?

**Question 4**

Which term referred to a set of temporary institutions through which power could be distributed to justify its use?

**Question 5**

Which term referred to individuals who created laws and regulations that bound other people?

**Question 6**

What conceptual distinction still works in science?

**Question 7**

What is society believed to have been exposed to since the 1700s?

**Question 8**

What is the one issue that drove the government?

**Question 9**

What has happened since power started to be shared and justified in Europe?

**Question 10**

What theistic thinking led to the division between state and government?

**Question 11**

What society that is not organised into states is still functioning?

**Question 12**

What does the rest of Europe say about political action?

**Text number 10**

These theories strongly influenced political and economic relations, as the concept of the guild was subordinated to the theory of free trade, and Protestant churches, which were under the authority of each nation-state and also preached in the vulgar or mother tongue of each region (in a way often vehemently resented by the Roman Catholic Church), increasingly challenged the dominant theology of the Roman Catholic Church. However, the Enlightenment was a direct attack on religion, and Christianity in particular. The most outspoken critic of the Church in France was François Marie Arouet de Voltaire, a figurehead of the Enlightenment. After Voltaire, religion in France would never be the same again.

**Question 0**

The concept of the guild was subordinate to which theory?

**Question 1**

What increasingly challenged the dominance of Roman Catholic theology?

**Question 2**

The Enlightenment was an outright attack on what?

**Question 3**

Who was the most outspoken critic of the French Church?

**Question 4**

The guild concept was better than which theory?

**Question 5**

To what was the Roman Catholic Church subordinate?

**Question 6**

What was the evolution of that?

**Question 7**

Who is the most outspoken supporter of the Church in France?

**Question 8**

After whom was philosophy never the same again in France?

**Question 9**

To which concept was the Enlightenment subordinate?

**Question 10**

Who challenged Voltaire's theological supremacy?

**Question 11**

What were the political and economic relations under attack?

**Question 12**

Who was the most outspoken critic of free trade theory?

**Question 13**

What happened to religion in France after the concept of the guild?

**Text number 11**

In the Ottoman Empire, these ideological reforms were not implemented, and these views did not enter the mainstream of thought until much later. Nor did this doctrine spread in the New World and the advanced civilisations of the Aztecs, Mayans, Incas, Mohicans, Delawares, Hurons and especially the Iroquois. Iroquois philosophy in particular contributed much to Christian thought of the time, and in many cases actually inspired some of the institutions adopted in the United States: for example, Benjamin Franklin greatly admired some of the methods of the Iroquois Confederacy, and much of early American literature emphasised the political philosophy of the natives.

**Question 0**

In what area were these ideological reforms only implemented much later?

**Question 1**

Whose philosophy contributed much to Christian thinking at that time?

**Question 2**

Who greatly admired some of the methods of the Iroquois Confederacy?

**Question 3**

In what area were ideological reforms carried out much earlier?

**Question 4**

Where in the New World did this doctrine spread?

**Question 5**

Who took inspiration from some of the Huron's methods?

**Question 6**

Whose literature emphasises the religious philosophy of the natives?

**Question 7**

What inspired Aztec civilisations in the United States?

**Question 8**

What was the focus of early Mohican literature?

**Question 9**

Who admired the methods of the Incan Confederacy?

**Question 10**

What happened when the methods of the Iroquois Confederacy were introduced into the Ottoman Empire?

**Question 11**

What perspective influenced the New World doctrine at that time?

**Text number 12**

John Locke in particular exemplified this new era of political theory with his Two Treatises of Government. In it, Locke presents a theory of the state of nature that directly complements his understanding of how political development occurs and how it can be established by contractual obligations. Locke set out to overturn Sir Robert Filmer's patriotically based political theory in favour of a natural system based on nature in a given given system. The theory of the divine right of kings became a passing fancy, subject to the kind of ridicule with which John Locke regarded it. Unlike Machiavelli and Hobbes but like Aquinas, Locke would accept Aristotle's dictum that man as a social animal strives to be happy in a state of social harmony. Contrary to the prevailing Aquinasian view of the soul's salvation from original sin, Locke believed that the human mind comes into this world as a tabula rasa. For Locke, knowledge is not innate, revealed, or based on authority, but is subject to uncertainty, tempered by reason, tolerance, and moderation. For Locke, the absolute ruler proposed by Hobbes is unnecessary, since natural law is based on reason and the human pursuit of peace and survival.

**Question 0**

Who was responsible for Two Treatises of Government?

**Question 1**

Whose political theory did Locke refute?

**Question 2**

According to Locke, the absolute ruler is the what proposed by Hobbes?

**Question 3**

Who is reviewing Two government contracts?

**Question 4**

What could be found for Sir Robert Filmer through contractual obligations?

**Question 5**

Which of John Locke's theories was a passing fancy?

**Question 6**

What Machiavellian and Hobbesian theory was not accepted by the lock?

**Question 7**

What Aquinas believed came into this world is tabula rasa?

**Question 8**

Which work was written by Sir Rober Fleming?

**Question 9**

What theory was Aquinas mocking?

**Question 10**

What did Locke accept that Machiavelli and Hobbes also believed?

**Question 11**

What did Sir Robert Filmer believe about the birth of the human mind?

**Question 12**

What did Hobbes believe about the acquisition of knowledge?

**Text number 13**

The Marxist critique of capitalism developed by Friedrich Engels was one of the key ideological movements of the 20th century, alongside liberalism and fascism. The industrial revolution brought about a revolution in political thought along the same lines. Urbanisation and capitalism had a profound impact on society. At the same time, the socialist movement began to take shape. Marxism developed in the mid-19th century, and socialism in general became increasingly popular, mainly among the urban working class. Marx created the principles that the future revolutionaries of the 20th century - Vladimir Lenin, Mao Zedong, Ho Chi Minh and Fidel Castro - used without completely breaking away from the past. Although Hegel's philosophy of history resembles that of Immanuel Kant, and Karl Marx's theory of revolution for the common good is based in part on Kant's conception of history, Marx declared that he would turn Hegel's dialectic, which "stood on its head", "right side up again". Unlike Marx, who believed in historical materialism, Hegel believed in the phenomenology of the spirit. By the end of the 19th century, socialism and trade unions were firmly established as part of the political landscape. In addition, various branches of anarchism, such as those of Mikhail Bakunin, Pierre-Joseph Proudhon or Peter Kropotkin, and syndicalism also gained some prominence. In the Anglo-American world, anti-imperialism and pluralism began to take hold at the turn of the 20th century.

**Question 0**

Who developed the Marxist critique of capitalism?

**Question 1**

What was one of the key ideological movements of the 20th century?

**Question 2**

What triggered the parallel revolution in political thought?

**Question 3**

Who developed liberalism and fascism?

**Question 4**

Which revolution was parallel but urbanisation and capitalism?

**Question 5**

Which movement emerged in the mid-20th century?

**Question 6**

Whose theory of revolution resembles Immanuel Kant's philosophy of history?

**Question 7**

Who were the established members of the political scene at the end of the 20th century?

**Question 8**

What political system did capitalism support?

**Question 9**

Which revolutionaries used Mikhail Bakunin's theories in the 20th century?

**Question 10**

Which two groups were politically established by the turn of the 20th century?

**Question 11**

Which two ideas were emerging in the late 19th century in the Anglo-American world?

**Question 12**

What was the anti-capitalist movement of the 20th century created by Vladamir Lenin?

**Text number 14**

The First World War was a watershed event in human history, changing views on governments and politics. The Russian Revolution of 1917 (and similar, if less successful, revolutions in many other European countries) brought communism - and Leninist political theory in particular, but to a lesser extent Luxembourgism (gradually) - onto the world stage. At the same time, social democratic parties won elections and formed governments for the first time, often following the introduction of universal suffrage. However, a group of Central European economists led by the Austrian school economists Ludwig von Mises and Friedrich Hayek concluded that the various new socialist and fascist doctrines of governmental power were different forms of political totalitarianism.

**Question 0**

What was the turning point in human history?

**Question 1**

When was the Russian Revolution?

**Question 2**

What brought communism?

**Question 3**

What did Ludwig Von Mises and Friedrich Hayek advocate?

**Question 4**

What changed thanks to Leninism?

**Question 5**

When did universal suffrage I start?

**Question 6**

What did the social democratic parties do after the introduction of communism?

**Question 7**

What led European countries to identify the inspirers behind the new government doctrines?

**Question 8**

What different types of Luxembourgism were identified?

**Text number 15**

From the end of the Second World War until 1971, when John Rawls published A Theory of Justice, political philosophy in Anglo-American academia declined as analytic philosophers became sceptical that normative judgements could have cognitive content, and as political science turned to statistical methods and behaviourism. In continental Europe, by contrast, political philosophy flourished enormously in the post-war decades, with Marxism dominating the field. This was the time of Jean-Paul Sartre and Louis Althusser, and the victories of Mao Zedong in China and Fidel Castro in Cuba, as well as the events of May 1968, increased interest in revolutionary ideology, especially among the new left. Several emigrants from continental Europe to Britain and the United States - including Karl Popper, Friedrich Hayek, Leo Strauss, Isaiah Berlin, Eric Voegelin and Judith Shklar - encouraged further study of political philosophy in the Anglo-American world, but in the 1950s and 1960s they and their students remained at odds with the analytical establishment.

**Question 0**

Who published A Theory of Justice?

**Question 1**

What did John Rawls publish?

**Question 2**

On which continent did political philosophy flourish?

**Question 3**

The events of May 1968 led to an increased interest in what?

**Question 4**

What declined in China between the end of the Second World War and 1971?

**Question 5**

What was continental Europe sceptical about?

**Question 6**

Where did Marxism turn from the end of the Second World War to 1971?

**Question 7**

Which group was interested in revolutionary ideology in the 1950s and 1960s?

**Question 8**

Which immigrants to the US and Britain encouraged the study of Marxism?

**Text number 16**

Communism was a major focus, especially in the 1950s and 1960s. Colonialism and racism were important issues that emerged. In general, political issues were clearly approached pragmatically rather than philosophically. Much of the academic debate dealt with one or both of two pragmatic issues: how (or whether) to apply utilitarianism to political problems, or how (or whether) to apply economic models (such as rational choice theory) to political issues. The rise of feminism and LGBT social movements, as well as the end of colonialism and the political marginalisation of minorities such as African-Americans and sexual minorities in developed countries, has led to the importance of feminist, postcolonial and multicultural thinking. This led philosophers Charles W. Mills in his book The Racial Contract and Carole Patemen in her book The Sexual Contract to challenge the social contract that excludes people of colour and women.

**Question 0**

What remained a major priority in the 1950s and 1960s?

**Question 1**

What has been the trend in approaching political issues?

**Question 2**

Who wrote the Pact of Shame?

**Question 3**

Who wrote the Sexual Contract?

**Question 4**

What was political exclusion in the 1950s and 1960s?

**Question 5**

What was the trend in dealing with racism?

**Question 6**

What did utilitarianism lead to in the developed world?

**Question 7**

What did communism mention about who was excluded from society?

**Question 8**

What was one approach to the debate on colonialism?

**Text number 17**

In Anglo-American academic political philosophy, the publication of John Rawls' A Theory of Justice in 1971 is considered a milestone. Rawls used a thought experiment, the original position, in which representative parties choose, from behind a veil of ignorance, the principles of justice as the basic structure of society. Rawls also criticised utilitarian approaches to questions of political justice. Robert Nozick's 1974 book Anarchy, State, and Utopia, which won the National Book Award, responded to Rawls from a libertarian perspective and brought academic acclaim to libertarian views.

**Question 0**

What did John Rawsl publish?

**Question 1**

Who published the theory of justice?

**Question 2**

When was A Theory of Justice published?

**Question 3**

Who wrote Anarchy, State and Utopia?

**Question 4**

What did Robert Nozick write in 1971?

**Question 5**

What did John Rawls write in 1974?

**Question 6**

Which prize did John Rawls' book win?

**Question 7**

What is Robert Nozick's book considered to be in American philosophy?

**Question 8**

What perspective did John Rawls have when he responded to Rober Nozick?

**Text number 18**

In parallel with the rise of analytical ethics in Anglo-American thought, several new philosophical trends emerged in Europe in the 1950s and 1980s that sought to critique existing societies. Most of them used elements of Marxist economic analysis, but combined them with a cultural or ideological emphasis. Thinkers who emerged from the Frankfurt School, such as Herbert Marcuse, Theodor W. Adorno, Max Horkheimer and Jürgen Habermas, combined Marxist and Freudian perspectives. In a slightly different vein, several other continental thinkers, still largely influenced by Marxism, emphasised structuralism and a 'return to Hegel', with (post-)structuralists (though mostly without this label) such as Gilles Deleuze, Michel Foucault, Claude Lefort and Jean Baudrillard. The situationalists were more influenced by Hegel; Guy Debord, in particular, transposed the Marxian analysis of commodity fetishism to the field of consumption and explored the relationship between consumption and the formation of a dominant ideology.

**Question 0**

Which school was Herbert Marcuse from?

**Question 1**

The Frankfurt School thinkers combined the Marxist and what other perspectives?

**Question 2**

Who in particular moved Marxist analysis from commodity fetishism to the field of consumption?

**Question 3**

What thinkers came out of the Foucault school?

**Question 4**

What perspectives did the Anglo-Americans share?

**Question 5**

What influenced the thinkers when they emphasised consumption?

**Question 6**

Who brought Marxist commodity fetishism into the cultural mainstream?

**Question 7**

What happened in Europe that led to the criticism of Hegel in the 1950s and 1980s?

**Text number 19**

The second debate developed around the critique of liberal political theory by Michael Walzer, Michael Sandel and Charles Taylor. The debate between liberals and communitarians is often seen as valuable for generating new philosophical problems rather than as a profound and illuminating clash of perspectives. These and other communitarians (such as Alasdair MacIntyre and Daniel A. Bell) argue that, contrary to liberalism, communities are more important than individuals and should therefore be the focus of political action. Communitarians tend to support greater local control and economic and social policies that promote the growth of social capital.

**Question 0**

What is often considered worthy of generating new philosophical problems?

**Question 1**

What kind of control do communitarians usually advocate?

**Question 2**

What kind of economic and social policies do communitarians generally advocate?

**Question 3**

What is valuable for increasing local control?

**Question 4**

What does political theory generally support in communities?

**Question 5**

What kind of policies do individuals support?

**Question 6**

Around what did the conflict of views develop?

**Question 7**

Who says that individuals should be politically focused?

**Text number 20**

A couple of overlapping political perspectives that emerged in the late 20th century are republicanism (or neo- or citizen-supremacy) and the capability approach. The emerging republican movement seeks to offer an alternative definition of liberty to Isaiah Berlin's positive and negative forms of freedom, namely 'liberty as non-domination'. Unlike liberals, who understand liberty as 'non-interference', 'non-domination' means that individuals are not subject to the arbitrary will of any other person. To a liberal, a slave who is not interfered with may be free, but to a republican, the mere status of slave, regardless of how the slave is treated, is abhorrent. Notable republicans include historian Quentin Skinner, lawyer Cass Sunstein and political philosopher Philip Pettit. Pioneered by economists Mahbub ul Haq and Amartya Sen and further developed by jurist Martha Nussbaum, the capability approach has a similar understanding of freedom: it is the actual ability to act. In both the capability approach and republicanism, freedom of choice is seen as something that needs to be resourced. In other words, it is not enough to be legally able to do something; there must also be a real ability to do something.

**Question 0**

When did republicanism and the talent approach emerge?

**Question 1**

What aims to provide an alternative definition of freedom to Isaiah Berlin's positive and negative forms of freedom?

**Question 2**

What approach did Mahbub ul Haq and Amartya Sen pioneer?

**Question 3**

When did the perspectives of lawyer and non-intervention appear?

**Question 4**

For a liberal, what is a political point of view that is not interfered with?

**Question 5**

What is the approach to republicanism developed by Mahbub ul Haq and Amartya Sen?

**Question 6**

How do both political perspectives deal with arbitrary will?

**Question 7**

What does the economist movement seek to define differently?

**Document number 223**

**Text number 0**

An alloy is a mixture of metals or a mixture of a metal and another element. Alloys are defined by the bonding nature of the metal. An alloy may be a solid solution of metal elements (one phase) or a mixture of metal phases (two or more solutions). Intermetallic compounds are alloys with defined stoichiometry and crystal structure. Zintl phases are sometimes also considered as mixtures, depending on the type of bond (see also: Van Arkel-Ketelaar triangle for classification of binary compounds).

**Question 0**

What is an alloy?

**Question 1**

What are mixtures defined as?

**Question 2**

When is Zintl considered a mixture?

**Question 3**

What is the classification of metallic elements in solid solution?

**Question 4**

What is always a mixture of metal and other elements?

**Question 5**

What is defined by the nature of its atomic bond?

**Question 6**

Which type of solution has one phase in two or more solutions?

**Question 7**

Which phases are always considered mixtures?

**Text number 1**

An alloy is a mixture of either pure or relatively pure chemical elements that forms an impure substance (mixture) that retains the properties of the metal. An alloy differs from an impure metal, such as wrought iron, in that the impurities added in the alloy are usually desirable and usually have some benefit. Alloys are made by mixing two or more substances, at least one of which is a metal. This is usually called the elementary metal or base metal, and the name of this metal may also be the name of the alloy. The other constituents may or may not be metals, but when mixed with a molten base metal they are soluble and dissolve in the mixture.

**Question 0**

What kind of substance is a mixture?

**Question 1**

What happens when an alloy is mixed with molten alkali?

**Question 2**

What does the mixture consist of?

**Question 3**

What metal is impure other than an alloy?

**Question 4**

What is a mixture of contaminants?

**Question 5**

What is a pure substance that retains the properties of a metal?

**Question 6**

What desirable property does the alloy and the impure metal not have?

**Question 7**

Mixing anything that produces a mixture

**Question 8**

What metal is pure other than an alloy?

**Text number 2**

When a mixture cools and solidifies (crystallises), its mechanical properties often differ considerably from those of its individual constituents. Normally a very soft and malleable metal such as aluminium can be modified by alloying it with another soft metal such as copper. Although both metals are very soft and ductile, the resulting aluminium alloy is much harder and stronger. When a small amount of non-metallic carbon is added to iron, an alloy called steel is obtained. Because steel is very strong and ductile (much more ductile than pure iron), and because it can be significantly modified by heat treatment, it is one of the most common alloys in modern use. Adding chromium to steel can improve its resistance to corrosion to produce stainless steel, while adding silicon changes the electrical properties of the steel to produce silicon steel.

**Question 0**

How is steel made?

**Question 1**

What kind of metal is soft like copper?

**Question 2**

What can be added to steel to improve corrosion resistance?

**Question 3**

What is better than pure iron?

**Question 4**

What is another word for when mixtures solidify?

**Question 5**

What happens when hydrogen and iron are added to metallic hydrocarbons?

**Question 6**

What kind of metal is copper?

**Question 7**

What makes steel more corrosive?

**Question 8**

Which properties remain the same when it cools down?

**Question 9**

Which aluminium alloy is most common?

**Text number 3**

Although elements are usually soluble in liquid form, they may not always be soluble in solid form. If the metals remain soluble in the solid state, the mixture forms a solid solution, which becomes a homogeneous structure of identical crystals called a phase. If the mixture cools and the constituents become insoluble, they may separate to form two or more different types of crystals, resulting in a heterogeneous microstructure of different phases. In other mixtures, however, the insoluble components may only separate after crystallisation. These alloys are called intermetallic because, if cooled very rapidly, they will first crystallise into a homogeneous phase, but will be supersaturated with secondary constituents. Over time, the atoms in these supersaturated alloys separate within the crystals to form intermetallic phases that internally reinforce the crystals.

**Question 0**

What causes the mixture to form a solid solution?

**Question 1**

What is the purpose of intermetallic phases?

**Question 2**

What are mixtures called in which the insoluble elements are only separated after crystallisation?

**Question 3**

What is always soluble as a solid and an unsoluble?

**Question 4**

Which substances do not dissolve as solids?

**Question 5**

What happens to the alloy if the medical support is an insoluble solid?

**Question 6**

What is the name given to mixtures in which the soluble elements separate after crystallisation?

**Question 7**

What crystals do intermetallic alloys support?

**Text number 4**

Some alloys occur naturally, such as electrum, which is an alloy of silver and gold formed on Earth. Meteorites are sometimes naturally occurring alloys of iron and nickel, but they are not Earth-born. One of the first man-made alloys was bronze, which is made by mixing the metals tin and copper. Bronze was a very useful alloy for the ancients because it is much stronger and harder than either of its constituents. Steel was another common metal alloy. In ancient times, however, it could only be produced as an occasional by-product of heating iron ore in a fire (smelting) during iron making. Other ancient alloys include tin, brass and pig iron. In modern times, steel can be produced in many forms. Carbon steel can be made by varying only the carbon content, resulting in soft alloys such as mild steel or hard alloys such as spring steel. Alloy steels can be made by adding other elements, such as molybdenum, vanadium or nickel, to produce alloys such as high speed steel or tool steel. Small amounts of manganese are usually added to most modern steels as it removes unwanted impurities such as phosphorus, sulphur and oxygen which can have adverse effects on the alloy. However, most alloys were not created until the 20th century, such as various alloys of aluminium, titanium, nickel and magnesium. Some modern superalloys, such as incoloy, inconel and hastelloy, can be composed of many different components.

**Question 0**

What is electrum made of?

**Question 1**

What mixture is formed in nature?

**Question 2**

What was one of the first mixtures made by humans?

**Question 3**

What metal is made by combining tin and copper?

**Question 4**

When did people start making mixtures?

**Question 5**

What is an artificial alloy of silver and gold?

**Question 6**

Meteorites contain what Earth-derived alloy?

**Question 7**

Iron and which metal formed the first man-made alloy?

**Question 8**

What did people start making in the 20th century?

**Question 9**

What adds the desired impurities to modern steel?

**Text number 5**

The term alloy is used to describe a mixture of atoms in which the primary constituent is a metal. The primary metal is called a base, matrix or solvent. Secondary constituents are often called solutions. If a mixture contains only two types of atoms, excluding impurities, such as a copper-nickel alloy, it is called a binary alloy. If a mixture contains three types of atoms, such as iron, nickel and chromium, it is called a ternary mixture. A mixture with four constituents is called a quaternary mixture, while a mixture with five constituents is called a quaternary mixture. Since the percentage of each ingredient can be varied, the possible variations of any mixture are called a system. In this respect, all different forms of a mixture containing only two constituents, such as iron and carbon, are called binary systems, while all possible combinations of a ternary mixture, such as mixtures of iron, carbon and chromium, are called ternary systems.

**Question 0**

Matrix and solvent are other names for what?

**Question 1**

What is another name for solutions?

**Question 2**

What is the name of a mixture with four ingredients?

**Question 3**

The five-part mixture is known as?

**Question 4**

Which term describes a mixture of atoms that contains at least some metal?

**Question 5**

What is another name for the main metal or solute in an alloy?

**Question 6**

A mixture of five what is called a quaternary mixture?

**Question 7**

Which type of alloy contains ten ingredients?

**Text number 6**

Although the alloy is technically an impure metal, when talking about alloys the term "impurities" usually refers to those elements that are not wanted. These impurities are often found in base metals or solutions, but can also be added during the alloying process. For example, sulphur is a common impurity in steel. Sulphur readily combines with iron to form iron sulphide, which is very brittle and causes weak spots in the steel. Lithium, sodium and calcium are common impurities in aluminium alloys that can have a detrimental effect on the structural integrity of castings. In contrast, otherwise pure metals containing undesirable impurities are often referred to as "impure metals" and are not usually called alloys. Oxygen in air readily combines with most metals to form metal oxides, especially at the higher temperatures encountered during alloying. During the alloying process, care is often taken to remove excess impurities using fluxes, chemical additives or other methods of extraction metallurgy.

**Question 0**

What is the property of iron sulphide?

**Question 1**

What makes pure metals impure metals?

**Question 2**

What are three common impurities in aluminium alloys?

**Question 3**

What happens when using fluxes and chemical additives during the alloying process?

**Question 4**

What is the term for the desired elements of a mixture?

**Question 5**

What is a rare impurity in steel?

**Question 6**

Lithium, sodium and which other elements are common in steel?

**Question 7**

What chemical substances are used during the alloying process to add impurities?

**Question 8**

Which element in the air does not readily combine with most metals?

**Text number 7**

The term "alloy" is sometimes used in everyday language as a synonym for a particular metal alloy. For example, car tyres made from aluminium alloys are commonly referred to simply as "alloy wheels", although in fact steels and most other metals in practical use are also alloys. Steel is such a common alloy that many objects made from it, such as wheels, barrels or beams, are simply referred to by the name of the object, assuming it is made of steel. When made of other materials, they are typically specified as such (e.g. "bronze wheel", "plastic barrel" or "wooden beam").

**Question 0**

What is the name of a common alloy?

**Question 1**

What is something about a car that was once made of alloy?

**Question 2**

Steel and other very practical metals are also called what?

**Question 3**

Aluminium alloy is sometimes used as a synonym for what?

**Question 4**

Why are some objects made of iron referred to only by name?

**Text number 8**

Alloying a metal is done by combining it with one or more other metals or non-metals, which often improve its properties. For example, steel is stronger than iron, its main element. Alloys usually have lower electrical and thermal conductivity than pure metals. The physical properties of an alloy, such as density, reactivity and Young's modulus, may not be very different from those of its elements, but the engineering properties, such as tensile strength and shear strength, may differ significantly from those of its constituent materials. This is sometimes due to the size of the atoms in the alloy, as larger atoms exert a compressive force on neighbouring atoms and smaller atoms exert a tensile force on their neighbours, helping the alloy to resist deformation. Sometimes alloys can behave in markedly different ways, even if the number of one element is small. For example, impurities in semiconducting ferromagnetic alloys lead to different properties, as first predicted by White, Hogan, Suhl, Tian Abrie and Nakamura. Some alloys are made by melting and mixing two or more metals. Bronze, an alloy of copper and tin, was the first metal alloy found in the prehistoric period, now known as the Bronze Age; it was harder than pure copper and was originally used for tools and weapons, but was later replaced by metals and alloys with better properties. In more recent times bronze has been used for ornaments, clocks, statues and bearings. Brass is an alloy of copper and zinc.

**Question 0**

What can be done to improve the properties of a metal?

**Question 1**

Pure metals have higher electrical and thermal conductivity than what?

**Question 2**

What do you get when you mix copper and tin?

**Question 3**

When was the bronze season?

**Question 4**

Copper and zinc together form what?

**Question 5**

What is done by combining one or more metals and removing non-metals?

**Question 6**

Which have higher electrical and thermal conductivity than pure metals?

**Question 7**

What do you get when you mix copper and iron?

**Question 8**

What is combined with tin to make brass?

**Question 9**

Who do the smaller atoms exert a compressive force on?

**Text number 9**

Alloys are often prepared to modify the mechanical properties of the base metal to achieve hardness, toughness, ductility, ductility or other desired properties. Most metals and alloys can be hardened by creating defects in their crystal structure. These defects are created during plastic deformation, such as hammering or bending, and are permanent unless the metal is recrystallised. However, the properties of some alloys can also be modified by heat treatment. Almost all metals can be softened by annealing to recrystallise the alloy and correct defects, but many cannot be hardened by controlled heating and cooling. Many aluminium, copper, magnesium, titanium and nickel alloys can be strengthened to some extent by some heat treatment process, but few alloys respond in the same way as steel.

**Question 0**

What treatment can be used to change its properties?

**Question 1**

Metal softening can be achieved?

**Question 2**

Can aluminium, copper, magnesium, titanium and nickel be strengthened?

**Question 3**

Annealing softens metals by achieving what?

**Question 4**

what is being done to stabilise the properties of base metals?

**Question 5**

|Creating defects, what softens metal?

**Question 6**

What does recrystallisation make permanent?

**Question 7**

What does annealing harden?

**Question 8**

Where does annealing cause faults?

**Text number 10**

At a certain temperature (usually between 820 °C (1 500 °F) and 870 °C (1 600 °F) depending on the carbon content), the steel base metal undergoes a change in the atomic order of its crystal structure, called allotropy. In this case, small carbon atoms enter the interstices of the iron crystal and diffuse into the iron matrix. When this happens, the carbon atoms are said to be in solution or mixed with the iron, forming a single, homogeneous crystalline phase called austenite. If the steel is cooled slowly, the iron gradually becomes a low temperature allotrope. In this case, the carbon atoms no longer dissolve with the iron, but are forced to precipitate out of solution, forming intercrystalline spaces. The steel then becomes heterogeneous and consists of two phases: carbon (carbide), cementite and ferrite. This type of heat treatment produces steel that is quite soft and flexible. However, if the steel is cooled rapidly, the carbon atoms do not have time to precipitate. When the steel is cooled rapidly, a diffusion (martensitic) transformation occurs, in which the carbon atoms become trapped in the solution. This causes an inherent deformation of the iron crystals as the crystal structure tries to change to its low temperature state, making the iron very hard and brittle.

**Question 0**

What is the name of steel when it is made up of two phases?

**Question 1**

What are the two stages in which steel becomes heterogeneous?

**Question 2**

What are the properties of steel if it is cooled too quickly?

**Question 3**

What causes soft and flexible steel?

**Question 4**

Allotrophy occurs between which temperatures?

**Question 5**

What changes when steel reaches 870°F?

**Question 6**

What are called iron crystals that feed carbon atoms?

**Question 7**

What becomes brittle if it cools too slowly?

**Question 8**

Steel that cools too quickly is soft and what?

**Question 9**

Where is the carbon atom when steel is called slow?

**Text number 11**

In contrast, most heat-treatable alloys are precipitation hardening alloys, which have the opposite effect to steel. When these alloys are heated to solution and then rapidly cooled, they become much softer than normal in the non-diffusive transformation and then harden as they age. Solutions of these alloys precipitate over time to form intermetallic phases that are difficult to separate from the base metal. Unlike steel, where the solid solution separates to form different crystal phases, precipitation hardening alloys separate to form different phases within the same crystal. These intermetallic alloys appear homogeneous in crystal structure but tend to behave heterogeneously, becoming hard and to some extent brittle.

**Question 0**

Precipitation hardening mixtures produce the opposite effects to?

**Question 1**

Precipitation hardening mixtures are sometimes also?

**Question 2**

What makes the mixtures softer than normal?

**Question 3**

What precipitation hardening mixtures behave in the same way?

**Question 4**

Which mixtures soften when cooled slowly?

**Question 5**

Which mixtures soften with age?

**Question 6**

What types of mixtures become soft and brittle?

**Question 7**

Which are easy to distinguish from base metal?

**Text number 12**

When a molten metal is mixed with another substance, the mixture can form by two mechanisms called atomic exchange and interstitial exchange. The relative size of each element in the mixture is of primary importance in determining which mechanism is involved. When the atoms are relatively similar in size, an atom-exchange mechanism usually occurs in which some of the atoms forming metal crystals are replaced by atoms from another constituent. This is called a substitution mixture. Examples of substitutional alloys are bronze and brass, where some of the copper atoms are replaced by either tin or zinc atoms. In the interstitial mechanism, one atom is usually much smaller than the other, so it cannot successfully replace an atom in the base metal crystals. The smaller atoms become trapped in spaces between atoms in the crystal matrix, called interstitials. This is called an interstitial alloy. Steel is an example of an interstitial alloy because very small carbon atoms fit into the spaces between the iron matrix. Stainless steel is an example of a combination of interstitial and substitutional alloy because the carbon atoms fit in the spaces, but some of the iron atoms are replaced by nickel and chromium atoms.

**Question 0**

Bronze and brass are examples of what?

**Question 1**

Do tin or zinc atoms replace copper atoms to create?

**Question 2**

What is the name of one interstitial mixture?

**Question 3**

Stainless steel is an example of which two alloys?

**Question 4**

What is formed when molten metal is separated from other substances?

**Question 5**

What is it called when the atoms of another constituent are replaced by metal crystals?

**Question 6**

What is formed when copper is replaced by a tin or zinc atom?

**Question 7**

Which two mixtures are still a combination?

**Text number 13**

Humans began using metal alloys from meteorite iron, a naturally occurring alloy of nickel and iron. It is the main component of iron meteorites, which occasionally fall to Earth from outer space. Since metallurgical processes were not used to separate the iron from the nickel, the alloy was used as such. Meteoric iron could be forged from red heat into objects such as tools, weapons and nails. In many cultures it was shaped with a cold hammer into knives and arrowheads. They were often used as anvils. Meteoric iron was very rare and valuable, and for ancient people it was difficult to work it.

**Question 0**

What was one of the first mixtures used by humans?

**Question 1**

What is meteoritic iron made of?

**Question 2**

What can forged meteorite iron do?

**Question 3**

Where does meteorite iron come from?

**Question 4**

How does meteoric iron come to Earth?

**Question 5**

What was the first metal alloy used by man?

**Question 6**

What was used to separate iron and nickel from meteoritic iron? And

**Question 7**

What was formed from meteorite iron with a hot hammer?

**Question 8**

What kind of iron was readily available to people?

**Text number 14**

Iron is generally found on Earth in the form of iron ore, with the exception of one original iron-rich deposit in Greenland, which was used by the Inuit. However, original copper was found worldwide, as well as silver, gold and platinum, which were also used to make tools, jewellery and other objects from Neolithic times onwards. Copper was the hardest and most widespread of these metals. It became one of the most important metals for the ancients. Eventually people learned to smelt metals like copper and tin from ore, and around 2500 BC began to alloy the two metals into bronze, which is much harder than its constituents. Tin was rare, however, and was found mainly in Britain. In the Middle East, people began to alloy copper and zinc to make brass. Ancient civilisations took into account the different properties of the alloy and the different properties it produced, such as hardness, ductility and melting point, under different temperature and working temperature conditions, and thus developed much of the information contained in modern alloy phase diagrams. Arrowheads of the Chinese Qin Dynasty (c. 200 BC) were often made with a hard bronze head and a softer bronze tongue, and the alloys were combined to prevent both blunting and fracture during use.

**Question 0**

Where is the only iron deposit on Earth?

**Question 1**

When did bronze start to be formed?

**Question 2**

What do copper and zinc form?

**Question 3**

Where is tin most often found?

**Question 4**

Which metal was the hardest for the ancients?

**Question 5**

What iron ore is usually found in Greenland?

**Question 6**

What kind of copper is rare on Earth?

**Question 7**

What was used to make tools for jewellery before the Neolithic period?

**Question 8**

What did people start forging around 2500 AD?

**Question 9**

What was rare in Britain?

**Text number 15**

Mercury has been smelted from sino-ores for thousands of years. Mercury dissolves many metals, such as gold, silver and tin, to form amalgams (a mixture in a soft paste or liquid form at ambient temperature). Amalgams have been used in China since 200 BC to coat precious metals, i.e. to coat objects called "gilding", such as armour and mirrors. The ancient Romans often used mercury-tin amalgams to gold-plate their armour. The amalgam was applied as a paste and then heated until the mercury evaporated, leaving gold, silver or tin. Mercury was often used in mining to extract precious metals such as gold and silver from ore.

**Question 0**

What does mercury make most metals do?

**Question 1**

Since when have amalgams been used?

**Question 2**

What did the ancient Romans use to gild their armour?

**Question 3**

Gold and silver were separated from their ores using?

**Question 4**

Where is sino-opera smelted?

**Question 5**

Amalgams melt mercury into what metals?

**Question 6**

What has been used in China since 200 AD?

**Question 7**

What is used to coat objects with common metals?

**Question 8**

What did the Chinese use to gold-plate their armour?

**Text number 16**

Many ancient civilisations associated metals with purely aesthetic purposes. In ancient Egypt and Mycenae, gold was often alloyed with copper for red gold or with iron for bright burgundy gold. Gold was often alloyed with silver or other metals to produce different coloured gold types. These metals were also used to reinforce each other for practical purposes. Copper was often added to silver to produce sterling silver, which increased the strength of silver for use in vessels, silverware and other practical objects. Precious metals were often mixed with less valuable materials to fool buyers. Around 250 BC, the king commissioned Archimedes to devise a way to check the purity of the gold in the crown, and upon discovering Archimedes' principle, the famous bathhouse shouted "Eureka!"

**Question 0**

Ancient civilisations often alloyed metals for what reason?

**Question 1**

Red gold is made by combining gold and?

**Question 2**

When was the Archimedes' Principle discovered?

**Question 3**

Who shouted "Eureka!" when he checked the purity of the crown?

**Question 4**

Buyers were often fooled by the mixing of precious metals?

**Question 5**

Who alloyed metals for commercial purposes?

**Question 6**

What do you get when you alloy gold with tin?

**Question 7**

Ten is often added to what to get sterling silver?

**Question 8**

For which practical objects was softer silver used?

**Question 9**

What was Archimedes given to do in 250 AD?

**Text number 17**

The term tin covers a variety of alloys consisting mainly of tin. As a pure metal, tin was far too soft to be used for any practical purpose. In the Bronze Age, however, tin was a rare metal, and in many parts of Europe and the Mediterranean it was often more valuable than gold. To make jewellery, forks and spoons or other objects, tin was usually alloyed with other metals to increase its strength and hardness. These metals were usually lead, antimony, bismuth or copper. These solvents were sometimes added individually in varying amounts or in combination to make a wide range of objects, from practical items such as vessels, surgical tools, candlesticks or funnels, to decorative objects such as earrings and hairpieces.

**Question 0**

Tina is mostly made up of?

**Question 1**

Why was tin rarely used for everyday purposes?

**Question 2**

Which metal was valued more highly than gold in the Bronze Age in Europe and the Mediterranean?

**Question 3**

What has been done to make the tin stronger?

**Question 4**

What metals were alloyed with tin to strengthen it?

**Question 5**

Which alloys consist mainly of lead?

**Question 6**

What was it rarely used for?

**Question 7**

Where was gold the most valuable metal in the Bronze Age?

**Question 8**

What practical objects were made from tin without solvents?

**Text number 18**

The first known smelting of iron began in Anatolia around 1800 BC. It was called the bloomery process and produced very soft but ductile wrought iron. By 800 BC the iron-making technique had spread to Europe and arrived in Japan around 700 AD. Pig iron, a very hard but brittle alloy of iron and carbon, was produced in China as early as 1200 BC, but did not reach Europe until the Middle Ages. Pig iron has a lower melting point than iron and was used to make cast iron. However, these metals had little practical use until the use of steel for crucibles began around 300 BC. These steels were of poor quality, and pattern welding, introduced around the 1st century AD, sought to balance the extreme properties of alloys by laminating them to produce a stronger metal. Around 700 AD, the Japanese began alternately forging bloomer steel and cast iron to increase the strength of their swords, using clay solutions to remove slag and impurities. This method of Japanese swordsmithing produced one of the purest steel alloys of the early Middle Ages.

**Question 0**

Where did iron smelting start?

**Question 1**

When did iron smelting start?

**Question 2**

When did ironmaking technology start in Japan?

**Question 3**

Pig iron is made up of iron and what else?

**Question 4**

What makes pig iron different from ordinary iron?

**Question 5**

Where bronze was first smelted

**Question 6**

Which smelting process was developed in 800 AD?

**Question 7**

Which technology arrived in Europe in 1800 BC?

**Question 8**

Where did railway technology arrive in 700 BC?

**Question 9**

What was produced in China in 1200 AD?

**Text number 19**

The use of iron started to become more common around 1200 BC, mainly due to the disruption of trade routes for tin, but iron is much softer than bronze. However, very small amounts of steel (a mixture of iron and about 1% carbon) were always a by-product of the refining process. The ability to alter the hardness of steel by heat treatment was known as early as 1100 BC, and the rare material was prized in the manufacture of tools and weapons. Since the ancients were unable to produce temperatures high enough to melt iron completely, it was not until the introduction of blister steel in the Middle Ages that steel began to be produced in decent quantities. This method involved adding carbon by heating wrought iron in a brazier for a long time, but the penetration of the carbon was not very deep, so the alloy was not homogeneous. In 1740, Benjamin Huntsman started melting blast furnace steel in a crucible to even out the carbon content, thus creating the first process for the mass production of tool steel. Huntsman's process was used to make tool steel until the early 1900s.

**Question 0**

The heat treatment of steel has been known since when?

**Question 1**

When did people start melting iron?

**Question 2**

Who created the first process for mass production of tool steel?

**Question 3**

When did Benjamin Huntsman start melting blast furnace steel?

**Question 4**

What became common in 1280 BC?

**Question 5**

Softness, what could be changed in 1100 BC?

**Question 6**

What common materials were valued in the manufacture of tools and weapons?

**Question 7**

What was produced in decent quantities from 1100 BC onwards?

**Question 8**

What process was used to make tool steel until the 19th century?

**Text number 20**

When the blast furnace was introduced in Europe in the Middle Ages, much larger quantities of pig iron could be produced than wrought iron. Because pig iron could be melted, people began to develop processes to reduce the carbon in liquid pig iron oil to make steel. Reduction was introduced in the 1700s, when molten pig iron was stirred in air to remove the carbon by oxidation. In 1858, Sir Henry Bessemer developed a steelmaking process in which hot air was blown through liquid pig iron to reduce the carbon content. The Bessemer process enabled steel to be produced on a large scale for the first time. As the Bessemer process became more widespread, other steel alloys began to follow. Mangalloy, an alloy of steel and manganese with extreme hardness and toughness, was one of the first alloy steels, developed by Robert Hadfield in 1882.

**Question 0**

What did the tummy help to do to the pig iron in the Middle Ages?

**Question 1**

What was created by reducing carbon in liquid crude iron oil?

**Question 2**

When did the puddling start?

**Question 3**

When was the Bessemer process developed?

**Question 4**

Steel and manganese combine to form what?

**Question 5**

What made it possible to produce larger quantities of wrought iron than pig iron in the Middle Ages?

**Question 6**

What was created by reducing carbon in liquid wrought iron?

**Question 7**

What was introduced in the 1600s?

**Question 8**

What year did Henry Bessemer create Mangalloy?

**Question 9**

Which steel alloy was created by Henry Bessemer?

**Text number 21**

Alfred Wilm discovered precipitation hardening alloys in 1906. Precipitation hardening alloys, such as certain aluminium, titanium and copper alloys, are heat treatable alloys that soften when quenched (cooled rapidly) and then harden over time. After quenching a three-component alloy of aluminium, copper and magnesium, Wilm found that the hardness of the alloy increased when it was allowed to age at room temperature. Although the phenomenon was not explained until 1919, duralumin was one of the first 'age-hardening' alloys to be used, and was soon followed by many other alloys. Because these alloys often combine high strength with low weight, they became widely used in many industries, including the construction of modern aircraft.

**Question 0**

Who discovered precipitation hardening mixtures?

**Question 1**

When were the precipitation hardening mixtures discovered?

**Question 2**

What happens to precipitation hardening mixtures after they have been extinguished?

**Question 3**

One of the first "age hardening" mixtures used was called?

**Question 4**

What was used to build modern aircraft?

**Question 5**

What is done to ensure that precipitation hardening mixtures cure immediately?

**Question 6**

Which term refers to cooling over time?

**Question 7**

Who discovered precipitation hardening alloys in 1919?

**Question 8**

Which phenomenon was explained in 1906?

**Question 9**

What was used to build early aircraft?

**Document number 224**

**Text number 0**

Norfolk Island (i/ˈnɔːrfək ˈaɪlənd/; Norfuk: Norf'k Ailen) is a small island in the Pacific Ocean between Australia, New Zealand and New Caledonia, 1,412 km directly east of Evans Head on the Australian mainland and about 900 km from Lord Howe Island. The island is part of the Commonwealth of Australia. Together with two neighbouring islands, it forms one of Australia's outer territories. The island has a population of 1 796 people living in an area of about 35 square kilometres. Its capital is Kingston.

**Question 0**

In which ocean is Norfolk Island located?

**Question 1**

How far are the nearest land masses to Norfolk Island?

**Question 2**

What is the capital of the island of Norfolk?

**Question 3**

How many people live on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 4**

How far is Evans Head from Norfolk Island?

**Question 5**

From which ocean was Norfolk Island moved?

**Question 6**

How far is the furthest land mass from Norfolk Island?

**Question 7**

What is the only town on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 8**

How many people have left the island of Norfolk?

**Question 9**

Which island has no capital?

**Text number 1**

Norfolk Island was inhabited by East Polynesians, but was long uninhabited when it was settled by Britain as part of the Australian settlement in 1788. The island served as a penal colony for prisoners from 6 March 1788-5. The island was used as a settlement between 15 May 1855, except for an 11-year break between 15 February 1814 and 6 June 1825, when it was abandoned. On 8 June 1856, the island began permanent civilian settlement when it was colonised from Pitcairn Island. In 1913, the United Kingdom ceded Norfolk to Australia for administration as an external territory.

**Question 0**

Who inhabited the island of Norfolk?

**Question 1**

What purpose did Norfolk Island serve for most of the period from 1788 to 1855?

**Question 2**

When did civilians start living permanently on Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

Where did the first permanent residents of Norfolk Island settle in 1856?

**Question 4**

In what year did the United Kingdom hand over Norfolk Island to Australia?

**Question 5**

Who destroyed the island of Norfolk?

**Question 6**

What purpose did Norfolk Island serve for most of the period from 1788 to 1855?

**Question 7**

When did civilians start to leave Norfolk permanently?

**Question 8**

Where were the first permanent civilians banned from Norfolk Island in 1856?

**Question 9**

In what year did the United Kingdom hand over the island of Norfolk to American control?

**Text number 2**

Sir John Call argued that the island of Norfolk had the advantages of being uninhabited and growing New Zealand flax. In 1786, the British government included Norfolk Island as an additional colony in its New South Wales Settlement Plan, as proposed by John Call. The decision to settle Norfolk Island was taken because Empress Catherine II of Russia had decided to restrict the sale of hemp. Virtually all the hemp and flax needed by the Royal Navy to make rope and sailcloth was imported from Russia.

**Question 0**

In what year did the British government include Norfolk Island as an additional colony?

**Question 1**

Who proposed the inclusion of Norfolk Island in the British settlement in 1786?

**Question 2**

The British government of which Australian state planned to colonise Norfolk Island by incorporating it as an aid settlement?

**Question 3**

What woman was instrumental in the British decision to settle Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

Where did most of the hemp and flax used by the Royal Navy come from?

**Question 5**

In what year did the German government include the island of Norfolk as an additional colony?

**Question 6**

Who in 1786 rejected the idea of Norfolk Island being included in the British settlement?

**Question 7**

Which German state did the British government plan to colonise and at the same time include the island of Norfolk as an additional colony?

**Question 8**

What woman influenced the Russians' decision to colonise Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

Where did most of the cheese and wine used by the Royal Navy come from?

**Text number 3**

As early as 1794, Lieutenant Governor Francis Grose of New South Wales proposed its closure as a penal colony because it was too remote and difficult for shipping and too expensive to maintain. The first group of people left in February 1805, and by 1808 only about 200 people remained, forming a small settlement until the remnants were removed in 1813. A small number remained to slaughter cattle and destroy all the buildings so that no one, especially from other European countries, could be tempted to visit the area and claim it for themselves. The island was abandoned between 15 February 1814 and 6 June 1825.

**Question 0**

When did Lieutenant Governor Francis Grose of New South Wales start proposing the closure of Norfolk Island as a penal colony?

**Question 1**

Why did Francis Grose think that Norfolk Island should be closed as a penal colony?

**Question 2**

When did the first group of people leave Norfolk?

**Question 3**

How many people were on Norfolk Island by 1808?

**Question 4**

Why did a small group of people stay on Norfolk Island when the others had already left?

**Question 5**

When did Lieutenant Governor Francis Grose of New South Wales start proposing that Norfolk Island be opened as a permanent penal colony?

**Question 6**

Why did Francis Grose think that Norfolk Island should be considered a penal colony?

**Question 7**

When did the first group of people save Norfolk Island?

**Question 8**

How many people died on Norfolk Island by 1808?

**Question 9**

Why did one person stay on Norfolk Island when the others had already left?

**Text number 4**

In 1824, the British government instructed Thomas Brisbane, Governor of New South Wales, to take control of Norfolk Island to send "prisoners of the worst kind". Its remoteness, which had previously been seen as a disadvantage, was now seen as an advantage in holding recalcitrant male prisoners. It has long been assumed that the prisoners arrested were repeat offenders, or 'twice-convicted capitalists', men transported to Australia for further colonial crimes for which they had been sentenced to death and spared the gallows on condition that they were allowed to live on Norfolk Island. However, a recent study using a database of 6,458 convicts on Norfolk Island has shown that the reality was somewhat different: more than half of them had been arrested on Norfolk Island without ever having been convicted in a colonial court, and only 15% had been released from the death penalty. Moreover, the vast majority of prisoners sent to Norfolk had committed non-violent property crimes, with an average length of imprisonment of three years.

**Question 0**

Who urged New South Wales Governor Thomas Brisbane to send the worst prisoners to Norfolk Island?

**Question 1**

What previous disadvantage of Norfolk Island was seen as an advantage of keeping male prisoners?

**Question 2**

What were the prisoners on Norfolk Island spared on the mainland?

**Question 3**

How many prisoners are on the Norfolk Island database?

**Question 4**

How long was the average prisoner imprisoned on Norfolk Island?

**Question 5**

Who stopped New South Wales Governor Thomas Brisbane from sending the worst prisoners to Norfolk Island?

**Question 6**

What previous disadvantage of Norfolk Island was seen as an advantage of keeping women prisoners?

**Question 7**

What were the prisoners on Norfolk Island sentenced to on the mainland?

**Question 8**

How many prisoners are no longer on the Norfolk Island database?

**Question 9**

What was the average length of a prisoner's escape from Norfolk Island?

**Text number 5**

The next settlement began on 8 June 1856 on the island of Norfolk. They were descendants of Tahitians and HMS Bounty rebels, including descendants of Fletcher Christian. They resettled from the Pitcairn Islands, which had become too small for the growing population. On 3 May 1856, 193 people left the Pitcairn Islands on board the Morayshire. On 8 June, 194 people arrived, with one baby born on the voyage. The Pitcairn people occupied many of the buildings remaining from the penal settlements and gradually established a traditional farming and whaling industry on the island. Although some families decided to return to Pitcairn in 1858 and 1863, the island's population continued to grow. They welcomed more settlers, who often arrived with whaling fleets.

**Question 0**

Who did the next settlement on Norfolk Island descend from?

**Question 1**

Where did the next settlement settle on Norfolk Island?

**Question 2**

On 3 May 1856, how many Pitcairnites set sail for Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the ship on which the Pitcairners sailed to Norfolk?

**Question 4**

What professions did the Pitcairners set up while on Norfolk?

**Question 5**

Who restricted the next settlement on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 6**

Where was the next settlement on Norfolk Island bombed?

**Question 7**

How many Pitcairners arrived on Norfolk Island on 3 May 1856?

**Question 8**

What was the name of the canoe on which the Pitcairners travelled to Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

What occupations did the Pitcairners punish while on Norfolk?

**Text number 6**

After the establishment of the Commonwealth of Australia in 1901, Norfolk Island was transferred to the new Commonwealth government and administered as an external territory. During the Second World War, the island became an important air base and refuelling station between Australia and New Zealand and New Zealand and the Solomon Islands. An airstrip was built by Australian, New Zealand and US soldiers in 1942. As Norfolk Island was a New Zealand responsibility, it was guarded by the New Zealand Army's N Force in a large army camp with a capacity of 1 500 men. N Force replaced another company of the Australian Imperial Army. The island proved too remote to be attacked during the war, and N Force left the island in February 1944.

**Question 0**

When was the Commonwealth of Australia established?

**Question 1**

During which major event did Norfolk Island become an important air base and refuelling station?

**Question 2**

Who built an airbase on Norfolk Island used during the Second World War?

**Question 3**

Who was responsible for the island of Norfolk during the Second World War?

**Question 4**

When did the N forces leave Norfolk Island during the Second World War?

**Question 5**

When was the Commonwealth of Australia hidden?

**Question 6**

During what small event did Norfolk Island become an important air base and refuelling station?

**Question 7**

Who removed the airbase used on Norfolk Island during the Second World War?

**Question 8**

Whose responsibility did Norfolk Island escape during the Second World War?

**Question 9**

When did the N forces leave Norfolk Island during the First World War?

**Text number 7**

Economic problems and declining tourism led the Norfolk Island administration to turn to the Australian federal government for help in 2010. In return, the islanders were to pay income tax for the first time, but would be entitled to higher social benefits. By May 2013, however, no agreement had been reached and the islanders were forced to leave in search of work and social security. An agreement was finally signed in Canberra on 12 March 2015, replacing self-government with a local council, but against the wishes of the Norfolk Island government. The majority of Norfolk Islanders have opposed Australia's plan to make changes to Norfolk Island without first consulting them and giving them a say. 68% of voters opposed the forced changes.

**Question 0**

What led Norfolk Island to ask Australia for help in 2010?

**Question 1**

What benefits were the people of Norfolk Island told they would get from Australian help?

**Question 2**

What really happened after Norfolk Island asked Australia for help?

**Question 3**

On 12 March 2015, an agreement was finally signed in Canberra on what to do with Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

What percentage of Norfolk Island voters opposed the changes brought by Australia?

**Question 5**

What led Norfolk Island to ask Russia for help in 2010?

**Question 6**

What benefits were the people of Norfolk Island said to be gaining from Russian aid?

**Question 7**

What actually happened after the island of Norfolk asked Russia for help?

**Question 8**

What agreement was never signed in Canberra on 12 March 2015?

**Question 9**

What percentage of Norfolk Island voters opposed the changes brought by Russia?

**Text number 8**

Norfolk Island is located in the South Pacific Ocean, east of the Australian mainland. Norfolk Island is the main island of a group of islands in the region, and is located at 29°02′S 167°57′E / 29.033°S 167.950°E / -29.033; 167.950. It covers an area of 34.6 square kilometres (13.4 square miles), has no large internal water bodies and has 32 kilometres of coastline. The island's highest point is Mount Bates (319 m above sea level), located in the northwest quarter of the island. Most of the terrain is suitable for agriculture and other agricultural uses. Phillip Island, the second largest island in the region, is located at 29°07′S 167°57′E / 29.117°S 167.950°E / -29.117; 167.950, seven kilometres south of the main island.

**Question 0**

In which part of the Pacific Ocean is Norfolk Island located?

**Question 1**

Which way is Norfolk Island in relation to Australia?

**Question 2**

What are the coordinates of Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the mountain at the highest point on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the second largest island of Norfolk?

**Question 5**

In which part of the Atlantic Ocean is Norfolk Island located?

**Question 6**

In what way is Norfolk Island no longer in a relationship with Australia?

**Question 7**

What are the fake coordinates of Norfolk Island?

**Question 8**

What is the name of the mountain at the lowest point on Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

What is the name of the second worst island on Norfolk Island?

**Text number 9**

The coastline of the island of Norfolk consists of varying degrees of cliffs. There is a downward slope towards Slaughter Bay and Emily Bay, the site of the original colonial settlement of Kingston. Norfolk Island has no secure harbour facilities, with loading berths at Kingston and Cascade Bay. All non-domestically produced goods are brought in by ship, usually to Cascade Bay. Emily Bay, protected from the Pacific by a small coral reef, is the only safe area for recreational swimming, although Anson and Ball Bays offer surfing in the waves.

**Question 0**

What is the Norfolk coast made of?

**Question 1**

Where is the site of the original colonial settlement of Kingston in the Norfolk Islands today?

**Question 2**

How are goods brought to Norfolk?

**Question 3**

Where are imported goods usually sent in Norfolk?

**Question 4**

Where can you surf on Norfolk Island?

**Question 5**

What is Norfolk city centre made of?

**Question 6**

Where is the site of the original colonial settlement of Kingston in the Norfolk Islands to be relocated?

**Question 7**

How do people steal goods from Norfolk Island?

**Question 8**

Where are imported goods usually stolen from on Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

Where on Norfolk Island is it illegal to surf?

**Text number 10**

Norfolk has 174 indigenous plants, 51 of which are endemic. At least 18 of the native species are rare or endangered. The Norfolk Island palm (Rhopalostylis baueri) and the smooth tree fern (Cyathea brownii), the tallest tree fern in the world, are common in Norfolk Island National Park but rare elsewhere on the island. Before European settlement, most of Norfolk Island was covered by subtropical rainforest, with a canopy of Araucaria heterophylla (Norfolk Island pine) in exposed areas and the palm Rhopalostylis baueri and the tree nuts Cyathea brownii and C. australis in wetter sheltered areas. Understorey vegetation was dense and the forest floor was covered with lianas and ferns. Only a small area (5 km2 ) of rainforest remains, which was declared a national park on Norfolk Island in 1986.

**Question 0**

How many plants are found only on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 1**

How many of the plants found only on Norfolk Island are rare or endangered?

**Question 2**

Where can you find the tallest fern in the world?

**Question 3**

What covered most of the island of Norfolk before European colonisation?

**Question 4**

How much rainforest remains on Norfolk Island today?

**Question 5**

How many plants can you only eat on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 6**

How many of the plants found only on Norfolk Island are extinct?

**Question 7**

Where can you find the world's smallest fern?

**Question 8**

What covered most of the island of Norfolk after European colonisation?

**Question 9**

How much rainforest was lost on Norfolk Island today?

**Text number 11**

Norfolk is a relatively small and isolated oceanic island, with few land-based birds, but there is a high level of endemism among them. Many of the endemic species and subspecies have become extinct due to extensive clearing of the island's native subtropical rainforest for agriculture, hunting and persecution as agricultural pests. The birds have also been affected by mammals such as rats, cats, pigs and goats, as well as competitors such as the blackbird and redbreast.

**Question 0**

What types of birds are scarce on Norfolk Island?

**Question 1**

What is one of the causes of the extinction of many birds on Norfolk Island?

**Question 2**

What is the other thing that caused the extinction of many birds on Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

What non-bird predators caused the suffering of bird populations on Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

Which invasive birds caused the suffering of bird populations on Norfolk Island?

**Question 5**

What type of birds are there billions of on Norfolk Island?

**Question 6**

What is one of the reasons why many birds on Norfolk Island are thriving?

**Question 7**

What is the other thing that made many birds on Norfolk Island flourish?

**Question 8**

What other non-bird creatures caused the bird populations on Norfolk Island to celebrate?

**Question 9**

Which non-native birds caused the bird populations on Norfolk Island to be so happy?

**Text number 12**

Norfolk's Nepean Island group of islands is also home to nesting seabirds. The Provins' Finch was hunted to extinction locally by the early 1800s, but has shown signs of returning to Phillip Island. Other seabirds that nest there include the white-necked kingfisher, kermadec bird, wedge-tailed godwit, Australian kestrel, red-tailed tropicbird and grey warbler. Norfolk Islanders have traditionally collected eggs seasonally from the noctuid tern (known locally as the whale bird).

**Question 0**

On which island in the Norfolk archipelago do seabirds nest?

**Question 1**

Which near-extinct bird on Norfolk Island has shown signs of population growth?

**Question 2**

Where on Norfolk Island have you seen Provincial Finches nesting?

**Question 3**

What other gull species nest on Phillip Island?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the sooty tern known on Norfolk Island?

**Question 5**

Which island in the Norfolk archipelago is home to bioluminescent birds?

**Question 6**

Which near-extinct bird on Norfolk Island has shown signs of population decline?

**Question 7**

Where on Norfolk Island has the Provincial Finch never been seen nesting?

**Question 8**

What other gull species on Phillip Island have become extinct?

**Text number 13**

Whales were historically abundant around the island, as commercial hunting was practised on the island until 1956. Today, the larger whales have disappeared, but even today many species such as humpback whales, minke whales, sei whales and dolphins can be spotted close to the beaches and scientific surveys have been carried out regularly. Southern right whales were once regular migrants to Norfolk Island, which is why whalers dubbed the island the 'centre point', but their numbers have declined considerably due to historic hunting and further illegal whaling by the Soviet Union and Japan, with the result that there are no or very few whales left in these areas and on Lord Howe Island, although some remnants still remain.

**Question 0**

What used to be abundant in the waters around Norfolk Island?

**Question 1**

When was the commercial sea yachting on Norfolk Island stopped?

**Question 2**

What species of cetaceans can be seen on Norfolk Island today?

**Question 3**

What other species can be seen off the coast of Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

What type of whales were once abundant on Norfolk Island, but are now all but gone?

**Question 5**

What was never abundant in the waters around Norfolk Island?

**Question 6**

When was recreational sea hunting on Norfolk Island stopped?

**Question 7**

What extinct whale species can be seen on Norfolk Island today?

**Question 8**

What other species can only be seen far from the shores of Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

What types of whales were once rare near Norfolk Island but are now abundant?

**Text number 14**

62% of islanders are Christians. The first chaplain, Reverend G. H. Nobbs, a Methodist church was founded in 1884, and in 1891 a Seventh-day Adventist congregation, led by one of Nobbs' sons, was established. This development was influenced to some extent by dissatisfaction with G. H. Nobbs, a more organised and formal Church of England worship ritual influenced by the Melanesian mission, a decline in spirituality, the influence of visiting American whalers, literature sent by Christians influenced by the Pitcairn story, and the introduction of Seventh-day Adventism by descendants of the rebels still living on Pitcairn. The Roman Catholic Church began its work in 1957, and in the late 1990s a group left the former Methodist Church (then the Uniting Church) to form a charismatic community. In 2011, 34% of ordinary residents identified themselves as Anglican, 13% as Uniting Church, 12% as Roman Catholic and 3% as Seventh-day Adventist. Nine per cent belonged to other religions. Twenty-four per cent had no religion and seven per cent did not declare a religion. Typical ordinary parishioners in any church did not exceed 30 local residents in 2010[update]. Three older church denominations have good facilities. Priests are usually short-term visitors.

**Question 0**

What percentage of the population of the island of Norfolk is Christian?

**Question 1**

Who was the first chaplain on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 2**

What kind of congregation was formed after the death of Reverend G.H. Nobbs in 1884?

**Question 3**

Who led the first Seventh-day Adventist church on Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

In 2010, there were no more than what number of parishes on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 5**

What percentage of the population of Norfolk Island are Christians avoiding?

**Question 6**

Who was the first chaplain on the island of Norfolk to be deported?

**Question 7**

Which church was banned after the death of Reverend G.H. Nobbs in 1882?

**Question 8**

Who led the first Sixth-day Adventist church on Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

What figure do typical church congregations on Norfolk Island exceed up to 2010?

**Text number 15**

The islanders speak both English and a Creole language called Norfuk, which is a mixture of 17th century English and Tahitian. Norfuk is becoming less popular as more tourists travel to the island and more young people leave for work and study. However, efforts are being made to keep the Norfuk language alive through dictionaries and by changing the names of some attractions into Norfuk equivalents. In 2004, by an act of the Norfolk Island Assembly, Norfolk became the second official language of the island. The long title of the law is: "Act on the recognition of the Norfolk Island language (Norf'k) as the official language of Norfolk Island". The language called Norf'k is described as the language 'spoken by the descendants of the first free settlers on Norfolk Island, who were descendants of the settlers on Pitcairn Island'. The law recognises and protects the use of the language, but does not require it; official use must be accompanied by an accurate English translation. In the 2011 census, 32% of the total population reported speaking a language other than English, and just under three quarters of the customary resident population spoke Norfolk.

**Question 0**

What languages do the people of Norfolk speak?

**Question 1**

What is the language of Norfolk a mixture of?

**Question 2**

Who was the first speaker of Norfolk Island's Norfuk language?

**Question 3**

What is the official language of Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

What proportion of Norfolk Island residents knew Norfolk in 2011?

**Question 5**

What languages are restricted by the inhabitants of Norfolk Island?

**Question 6**

What does not affect the language of the morphs?

**Question 7**

What is the unofficial language of Norfolk Island?

**Question 8**

What part of Norfolk Island doesn't understand any Norfolk as of 2011?

**Text number 16**

Norfolk Island is the only territory outside Australia to have achieved self-government. The Norfolk Island Act 1979, passed by the Australian Parliament in 1979, is the law under which the island was administered until the Norfolk Island Legislation Amendment Act 2015 was passed. The Australian Government administers the island through the Administrator, currently Gary Hardgrave. From 1979 to 2015, the Legislative Assembly was elected by referendum for a maximum term of three years, although legislation passed by the Australian Parliament allowed it to extend its laws to the Territory if it wished, including the power to repeal any laws passed by the Assembly.

**Question 0**

What is the only region outside Australia that is self-governed?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the law that used to govern the island of Norfolk?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the new law governing Norfolk Island, adopted in 2015?

**Question 3**

Who is the current manager of Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

How many years did the Legislative Council last between 1979 and 2015?

**Question 5**

Which is one of the two areas outside mainland Australia that is self-governed?

**Question 6**

What is the name of the Norfolk Island Act?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the new law governing Norfolk Island, adopted in 2016?

**Question 8**

Who is the future manager of Norfolk Island?

**Text number 17**

There were nine seats in the Assembly, and voters cast nine equal votes, of which up to two could be cast for a single candidate. This is a voting method called "weighted first past the post". Four members of the Assembly formed the Executive Council, which planned policy and acted as an advisory body to the governing authority. The last Prime Minister of Norfolk Island was Lisle Snell. Other ministers included the Minister of Tourism, Industry and Development, the Minister of Finance, the Minister of Heritage and Community Services and the Minister of the Environment.

**Question 0**

How many seats are there in the Norfolk Island Assembly?

**Question 1**

What voting method does Norfolk Island use for its Assembly?

**Question 2**

Which council was formed by the four members of the Assembly to plan policy for Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

Who was the last Prime Minister of Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

What is the official name of the Minister responsible for tourism on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 5**

How many seats will the Norfolk Island Assembly remove?

**Question 6**

Which voting method does Norfolk Island ban in its Assembly?

**Question 7**

Which Council is made up of the three members of the Assembly responsible for policy-making on Norfolk Island?

**Question 8**

Who was the only Prime Minister of Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

What is the official name of the king responsible for tourism on the island of Norfolk?

**Text number 18**

Disagreements over the island's relations with Australia were highlighted in the Australian government's 2006 review. The most radical of the two models proposed in the review would have reduced the island's Legislative Assembly to the status of a local council. However, in December 2006, the Australian Government abandoned the review and left the current governance arrangements in place, as changes to the governance model would have caused "significant disruption" to the island's economy.

**Question 0**

How many models did Australia propose to the Norfolk Island Legislative Assembly?

**Question 1**

Where do the more serious of the proposed plans threaten to reduce the size of Norfolk Island?

**Question 2**

When did the Australian government stop looking at Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

The Australian government said changes to the Norfolk Island government would cause what?

**Question 4**

How many models in Australia ended up in the Norfolk Island Legislative Assembly?

**Question 5**

Which of the proposed plans would pose a more serious threat to the composition of Norfolk Island?

**Question 6**

When did the European government stop its review of Norfolk Island?

**Question 7**

What did the Australian government say that the Norfolk Island government changes would not cause?

**Text number 19**

On 19 March 2015, it was announced that the Commonwealth would abolish self-government on the island and replace it with a local council, with services provided to the island by the State of New South Wales. The reason given was that the island had never achieved self-sufficiency and was heavily subsidised by the Commonwealth to the tune of $12.5 million in 2015 alone. This meant that residents would have to start paying Australian income tax, but would also be covered by Australian welfare schemes such as Centrelink and Medicare.

**Question 0**

When did the Commonwealth of Australia announce that Norfolk Island would no longer be administered by itself?

**Question 1**

What did the Commonwealth want to replace the Norfolk Island government with?

**Question 2**

Which state is the proposed Council from?

**Question 3**

What benefits will the new Council bring to the people of Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

What would the people of Norfolk Island have to pay with the new Council?

**Question 5**

When did the Commonwealth of Australia announce that Norfolk Island would always be self-governed?

**Question 6**

What did the Commonwealth want to link the Norfolk Island government to?

**Question 7**

Which country was rejected by the proposed Council?

**Question 8**

What benefits would Norfolk Islanders lose with the new Council?

**Question 9**

What would Norfolk Islanders have to stop paying under the new council?

**Text number 20**

The Norfolk Islands Legislative Assembly decided to hold a referendum on the proposal. Voters were asked on 8 May 2015 whether Norfolk Islanders should be free to decide their political status and economic, social and cultural development and "be consulted in a referendum or plebiscite on the future governance model for Norfolk Island before the Australian Parliament takes action to implement such changes". In the vote, 68% of the 912 voters voted in favour. Norfolk Island Premier Lisle Snell said that "the referendum results invalidate Canberra's claims that the reforms put before the Australian Parliament proposing the abolition of the Legislative Assembly and the Norfolk Island Parliament were overwhelmingly supported by Norfolk Islanders".

**Question 0**

When did the Norfolk Island Legislative Assembly vote on the proposed Australian reforms?

**Question 1**

How many Norfolk Islanders voted on 8 May 2015?

**Question 2**

What percentage of Norfolk Islanders voted in favour of self-government?

**Question 3**

Who is the Prime Minister of Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

According to Lisle Snell, the Australian Parliament thought that abolishing the autonomy of Norfolk Island would be what?

**Question 5**

When did the Norfolk Island Legislative Assembly vote on the proposed Chinese reforms?

**Question 6**

How many people on Norfolk Island lost their vote on 8 May 2015?

**Question 7**

What percentage of Norfolk Islanders voted for worse governance?

**Question 8**

Who is the main brother of Norfolk Island?

**Text number 21**

Norfolk Island was originally a colony that was acquired as a settlement, but it was never covered by British settlement law. It was recognised as a territory of Australia, separate from all the states, by the Norfolk Island Act 1913 (Cth), which was passed under the Territorial Power (section 122 of the Constitution) and came into force in 1914. In 1976, the Supreme Court of Australia unanimously declared that Norfolk Island is part of the Commonwealth. In 2007, the Supreme Court of Australia reaffirmed the validity of legislation which makes Australian citizenship a necessary condition for voting and eligibility to stand for election to the Norfolk Island Legislative Assembly.

**Question 0**

Norfolk Island was originally what?

**Question 1**

Norfolk Island became the territory of which country?

**Question 2**

How was Norfolk Island recognised as Australian territory?

**Question 3**

Who decided in 1976 that the island of Norfolk was part of the Commonwealth?

**Question 4**

What was the necessary condition for voting on Norfolk Island?

**Question 5**

What was Norfolk Island up against?

**Question 6**

Which country's city did Norfolk Island become?

**Question 7**

In what way was Norfolk Island rejected as Australian territory?

**Question 8**

Who decided in 1974 that the island of Norfolk was part of the Commonwealth?

**Question 9**

What was an unnecessary voting requirement on Norfolk Island?

**Text number 22**

The island has separate immigration controls from the rest of Australia. Until recently, even immigration of other Australian citizens to Norfolk Island was severely restricted. In 2012, immigration controls were relaxed when all Australian and New Zealand citizens were granted unrestricted entry and the ability to apply for residency, subject only to passing a police check and being able to pay into the local health system. From 1 July 2016, the Australian immigration system will replace the current immigration arrangements operated by the Norfolk Island Government.

**Question 0**

What has been severely restricted on Norfolk Island until recently?

**Question 1**

When were the immigration protocols on Norfolk Island relaxed?

**Question 2**

What contributed to the relaxation of immigration protocols on Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

What do Australian and New Zealand citizens need to do to apply for Norfolk Island residency?

**Question 4**

When will Australia's immigration system replace Norfolk Island's immigration policy?

**Question 5**

What has been strongly encouraged on Norfolk Island until recently?

**Question 6**

When were immigration protocols tightened on Norfolk Island?

**Question 7**

What caused the damage to the mitigation of immigration protocols on Norfolk Island?

**Question 8**

What should Australian and New Zealand citizens avoid in order to apply for a residence permit on Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

When will the Russian immigration system replace the Norfolk Island immigration policy?

**Text number 23**

Australian citizens and residents from other parts of the country now have an automatic right of residence on the island when they meet these criteria (Immigration (Amendment No. 2) Act 2012). Australian citizens are required to carry either a passport or identity card to travel to Norfolk Island. All non-Australian citizens must have a passport when travelling to Norfolk Island, even if they are arriving from elsewhere in Australia. Australian visa holders travelling to Norfolk Island have left the Australian immigration territory. Unless they hold a multiple-entry visa, their visa has expired and they will need a new visa to re-enter mainland Australia.

**Question 0**

What automatic right do Australian citizens and residents have on Norfolk Island after they meet the criteria of the Immigration (Amendment No. 2) Act 2012?

**Question 1**

What do Australian citizens need to travel to Norfolk Island?

**Question 2**

What do citizens of other countries need to travel to Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

If someone has an Australian visa and wants to travel to Norfolk Island, where should they go?

**Question 4**

What happens to travellers with an Australian visa who do not leave the Australian migration zone?

**Question 5**

What automatic right do Australian citizens and residents lose on Norfolk Island after meeting the criteria in the Immigration (Amendment No. 2) Act 2012?

**Question 6**

What do Australian citizens need to talk about Norfolk Island?

**Question 7**

What do citizens of other countries need to talk about Norfolk?

**Question 8**

If someone has an American visa and wants to travel to Norfolk Island, where should they go?

**Question 9**

What happens to travellers with a US visa who do not leave the Australian migration zone?

**Text number 24**

Non-Australian citizens who are permanently resident in Australia should be aware that during their stay on Norfolk Island they are "outside Australia" within the meaning of the Immigration Act. This means that a valid immigrant visa or resident third-country national return visa is still required to return to the mainland from Norfolk Island, and the time spent on Norfolk Island is also not counted towards the residency requirement for future resident third-country national return visas. On the other hand, Norfolk Island is part of Australia under Australian citizenship law and any time spent on Norfolk Island by an Australian permanent resident counts as time spent in Australia for the purposes of applying for Australian citizenship.

**Question 0**

Under what law are non-Australian residents "outside Australia" while on Norfolk Island?

**Question 1**

What does a non-Australian citizen need to do to return to the mainland from Norfolk Island?

**Question 2**

Norfolk Island is considered part of what in Australian citizenship law?

**Question 3**

Under Australian citizenship law, time spent by an Australian permanently resident on Norfolk Island does what?

**Question 4**

How are non-Australian residents declared "inside Australia" while on Norfolk Island?

**Question 5**

What does a non-US citizen living on Norfolk Island need to return from Norfolk Island to the mainland?

**Question 6**

Where is Norfolk Island considered separate in Australian citizenship law?

**Question 7**

Which island is no longer considered part of Australia?

**Text number 25**

Norfolk Island Hospital is the only health centre on the island. Norfolk Island is not covered by Medicare and the Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme. All visitors to Norfolk Island, including Australians, are advised to take out travel insurance. Although minor surgery can be performed at the hospital, patients with serious illnesses cannot be treated on the island and will be flown back to mainland Australia. A charter flight can cost around A$30 000. For serious emergencies, the Royal Australian Air Force provides medical evacuations. There is one ambulance on the island, staffed by volunteers from St John Ambulance Australia.

**Question 0**

What is the name of the only health centre on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 1**

What is recommended for visitors to Norfolk Island to buy?

**Question 2**

Where are patients in need of serious treatment on Norfolk Island flown to?

**Question 3**

Who handles serious medical emergencies on Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

Who will operate one ambulance on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 5**

What is one of the many health centres on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 6**

What is recommended for sale to visitors to Norfolk Island?

**Question 7**

Where are the patients on Norfolk Island who need serious treatment being held?

**Question 8**

Who handles non-serious medical emergencies on Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

Who broke the ambulance available on Norfolk Island?

**Text number 26**

The Australian government controls the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) and its revenues, which extends 200 nautical miles (370 km) from Norfolk Island (about 428 000 km2), and the territorial sea claims within three nautical miles (6 km) of the island. There is a strong island view that part of the revenue from the Norfolk EEZ should be used to provide services such as health and infrastructure on the island, for which the island is responsible, in the same way that the Northern Territory can generate revenue from its mineral reserves. The exclusive economic zone provides the islanders with fish, its only significant resource. Norfolk Island has no direct control over any marine areas, but has an agreement with the Commonwealth through the Australian Fisheries Management Authority (AFMA) to fish recreationally in a small part of the Exclusive Economic Zone, known locally as "The Box". There has been speculation that the zone may contain oil and gas deposits, but this has not been proven. There is no significant arable land or permanent cropland on the island, although about 25% of the island is under permanent pasture. There is no irrigated land. The currency of the island is the Australian dollar.

**Question 0**

What services do Norfolk Island residents think should be available in the Norfolk Island EEZ?

**Question 1**

What is Norfolk Island's only significant natural resource?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the area where residents of Norfolk Island are allowed to fish for recreational purposes?

**Question 3**

What is estimated to be available in the Norfolk Island EEZ?

**Question 4**

What percentage of Norfolk Island is under permanent pasture?

**Question 5**

What services do Norfolk Islanders think should be available from the Norfolk Island EEZ?

**Question 6**

What is Norfolk Island's only natural resource?

**Question 7**

What is the name of the area where people on Norfolk Island are allowed to fish illegally?

**Question 8**

What is speculated to be prohibited in the EEZ of Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

How much of Norfolk Island is no longer permanent pasture?

**Text number 27**

Norfolk Island residents do not pay Australian federal taxes, creating a tax haven for locals and visitors alike. In the absence of income tax, the island's legislature collects money through import duties, fuel taxes, medical taxes, a 12% GST levy and local and international phone calls. On 6 November 2010, Norfolk Island Premier David Buffett announced that the island would voluntarily give up its tax-exempt status in exchange for financial assistance from the federal government to cover substantial debts. The introduction of income taxation will now come into effect on 1 July 2016, and there are differing opinions on these changes on the island, but many understand that the continuation of the island's administration requires the island to contribute funds to the Commonwealth's revenue pool in order for the island to receive support for government functions such as health care, education, medical care and infrastructure. Prior to these reforms, Norfolk Islanders were not entitled to social services. It seems that the reforms concern companies and trustees and not just individuals.

**Question 0**

Norfolk Island residents and visitors do not pay what?

**Question 1**

Who is the Prime Minister of Norfolk Island?

**Question 2**

What was David Buffett's reason for giving up his tax exemption on Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

When will income tax be introduced on Norfolk Island?

**Question 4**

What services were not available to Norfolk Island residents before this announcement?

**Question 5**

What do Norfolk Island residents and visitors always pay?

**Question 6**

Who is the chief of Norfolk Island?

**Question 7**

What was David Buffett's reason for maintaining the tax exemption on Norfolk Island?

**Question 8**

When will income tax be abolished on Norfolk Island?

**Question 9**

What services were not available to Norfolk Island residents after this announcement?

**Text number 28**

In 2004[update], there were 2,532 telephone lines in use, consisting of analogue (2,500) and digital (32) circuits. There is one radio station locally (Radio Norfolk 89.9FM), which broadcasts on both AM and FM frequencies. Norfolk also has one television station (Norfolk TV), which broadcasts local programming, and transmitters for the Australian channels ABC, SBS, Imparja Television and Southern Cross Television. The Internet country code Top Level Domain (ccTLD) is .nf.

**Question 0**

How many main telephone lines were in use on Norfolk Island in 2004?

**Question 1**

How many analogue telephone lines were in use on Norfolk Island in 2004?

**Question 2**

How many local radio stations are there on Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the only television station on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 4**

What is the country-code top-level domain name for the Norfolk Island Internet?

**Question 5**

How many main telephone lines on Norfolk Island were stolen in 2004?

**Question 6**

How many analogue telephone lines were removed from Norfolk Island in 2004?

**Question 7**

How many local radio stations are banned on Norfolk Island?

**Question 8**

What is the name of the only telephone on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 9**

What is no longer the area code for the Norfolk Island Internet country code?

**Text number 29**

There are no railways, waterways, ports or harbours on the island. Kingston and Cascade have loading docks, but ships cannot get near either of them. When a supply ship arrives, it is unloaded by whaleboats pulled by rafts, five tonnes at a time. Which dock is used depends on the weather at the time. Often, the berth on the leeward side of the island is used. If the wind changes significantly during unloading/loading, the vessel moves to the other side. Visitors often gather to watch the action when the service vessel arrives.

**Question 0**

Where are the loading piers on Norfolk Island?

**Question 1**

How is the supply vessel unloaded when it arrives at Norfolk Island?

**Question 2**

What determines the berth used by supply vessels arriving on Norfolk Island?

**Question 3**

Where can you find a frequently used pier on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 4**

Who usually watches when the supply ships unload on Norfolk Island?

**Question 5**

Where on Norfolk Island do the loading platforms capsize?

**Question 6**

How does the service vessel fly when it arrives at Norfolk Island?

**Question 7**

What does not affect the berth used by supply vessels arriving on Norfolk Island?

**Question 8**

Where can you find a rarely used pier on the island of Norfolk?

**Question 9**

Who can never be found watching the dismantling of supply vessels on Norfolk Island?

**Document number 225**

**Text number 0**

Burke was born in Dublin, Ireland. His mother Mary, née Nagle (c. 1702-1770) was a Roman Catholic from County Cork (and a cousin of Nano Nagle), while his father, Richard, a successful lawyer (died 1761), was a member of the Church of Ireland; it is unclear whether this is the same Richard Burke who converted from Catholicism. The Burke dynasty is descended from an Anglo-Norman knight, surnamed de Burgh (Latin name de Burgo), who arrived in Ireland in 1185 after Henry II of England invaded Ireland in 1171.

**Question 0**

Where was Burke born?

**Question 1**

What was Burke's mother's maiden name?

**Question 2**

When did Burke's mother die?

**Question 3**

When did Burke's father die?

**Question 4**

When did the Burke ancestors arrive in Ireland?

**Question 5**

In which city was Mary nee Nagle born?

**Question 6**

When was Richard Burke born?

**Question 7**

What is the Latinized form of the surname Burke?

**Question 8**

When did Henry II invade England?

**Question 9**

Who converted to Catholicism?

**Text number 1**

In 1744, Burke began his studies at Trinity College Dublin, a Protestant institution that until 1793 did not allow Catholics to study for degrees. In 1747 he founded a debating society called Edmund Burke's Club, which in 1770 merged with the TCD Historical Society to form the College Historical Society, the oldest society of college students in the world. The minutes of the Burke's Club meetings are still in the Historical Society's collections. Burke graduated from Trinity University in 1748. Burke's father wanted him to study law, and for this purpose he went to London in 1750, where he was admitted to Middle Temple University, but soon gave up law to travel in continental Europe. After avoiding law studies, he earned his living by writing.

**Question 0**

When did Burke start studying at Trinity College Dublin?

**Question 1**

What kind of people were denied degrees at Trinity College Dublin?

**Question 2**

When did Edmund Burke set up the debating society?

**Question 3**

With which club did Edmund Burke's debating club merge in 1770?

**Question 4**

When did Edmund Burke graduate?

**Question 5**

When was Trinity College Dublin founded?

**Question 6**

What year did Trinity College ban Catholics?

**Question 7**

Who did Edmund Burke's club resign from?

**Question 8**

To which group of people did Middle Temple refuse to grant degrees?

**Question 9**

In what year did Burke abandon jurisprudence?

**Text number 2**

Burke argued that Bolingbroke's arguments against revealed religion could also apply to all social and civil institutions. Lord Chesterfield and Bishop Warburton (and others) initially thought that the work was genuinely written by Bolingbroke and not satire. All reviews of the work were positive, and critics particularly appreciated the quality of Burke's literary expression. Some critics missed the ironic nature of the book, which led Burke to state in the preface to the second edition (1757) that it was a satire.

**Question 0**

Which bishop did not understand the satirical nature of Burke's book?

**Question 1**

Which Lord did not understand the satirical nature of Burke's book?

**Question 2**

When was the second edition of Burke's book published?

**Question 3**

Where did Burke make it clear that his book was satire?

**Question 4**

What did Bolingbroke speak for?

**Question 5**

Where did Lord Chesterfield believe Bolingbroke's arguments could also apply?

**Question 6**

What did critics object to in particular in Burke's work?

**Question 7**

What did Burke say in the foreword to the first edition of the book?

**Question 8**

Which bishop wrote the foreword to Burke's book?

**Text number 3**

Richard Hurd believed that Burke's imitation was almost perfect and that this defeated his purpose: the ironist "should see to it by constant exaggeration that the mockery shines through the imitation". Whereas this Vindication is everywhere confirmed, not only in language and according to the principles of L. Bol. but with such apparent, or rather such real, seriousness that half his purpose is sacrificed to another". A minority of scholars have held that Burke wrote the Vindication in earnest and later abandoned it only for political reasons.

**Question 0**

Who thought Burke's imitation was too perfect to be an effective mockery?

**Question 1**

Why did some scholars think that Burke had not intended his book to be satire, but later claimed that it was satire?

**Question 2**

Whose principles was Burke emulating?

**Question 3**

What, according to Richard Hurd, made Burke's satire perfect?

**Question 4**

What is the name of one researcher who believes Burke wrote Vindication in earnest?

**Question 5**

What is the title of a book written by Richard Hurd?

**Question 6**

Why did Hurd believe that Burke's imitation was almost perfect?

**Question 7**

Whose principles was L. Bol imitating?

**Text number 4**

On 25 February 1757, Burke signed a contract with Robert Dodsley to "write a history of England from the time of Julius Caesar to the reign of Queen Anne", eighty quarto pages (640 pages) long, nearly 400,000 words. It was to be submitted for publication by Christmas 1758. Burke completed the work by 1216 and finished it; it was not published until after Burke's death, and was included in a collection of his works entitled An Essay Towards an Abridgement of the English History, published in 1812. G. M. Young did not appreciate Burke's history, claiming that it was 'demonstrably a translation from the French'. Commenting on the story that Burke stopped his history because David Hume published his, Lord Acton said that 'it is always unfortunate that the reverse was not the case'.

**Question 0**

When did Burke sign the Treaty on the History of England?

**Question 1**

How many words long was Burke's history of England supposed to be?

**Question 2**

How many pages long was Burke's history of England supposed to be?

**Question 3**

When was Burke's History of England published?

**Question 4**

Which author's History of England, published before Burke's, might have dissuaded Burke from continuing his own?

**Question 5**

What is the name of David Hume's story?

**Question 6**

Which critic praised the Frenchness of Burke's text?

**Question 7**

When was Hume's History of England published?

**Question 8**

How long was the book written by Robert Dodsley?

**Question 9**

How many words was Lord Acton's comment?

**Text number 5**

In the year following this agreement, Burke set up with Dodsley the influential Annual Register, a journal in which various authors review international political events of the previous year. It is unclear to what extent Burke contributed to the Annual Register: in his biography of Burke, Robert Murray quotes the Register as evidence of Burke's opinions, but Philip Magnus does not refer directly to the Register in his biography. Burke remained editor until at least 1789, and there is no evidence that any other author contributed to the publication before 1766.

**Question 0**

Which publication did Burke find?

**Question 1**

What types of international events did the annual register cover?

**Question 2**

Until what year was Burke the only known author of the Register?

**Question 3**

Burke was editor of the Register until at least what year?

**Question 4**

Who wrote Burke's biography?

**Question 5**

What was set up in the year before the agreement?

**Question 6**

Whose biography did Burke write?

**Question 7**

When did Burke become editor-in-chief?

**Question 8**

Who wrote Dodsley's biography?

**Question 9**

Until what year was Dodsley the sole author of the Register?

**Text number 6**

Around the same time, Burke met William Gerard Hamilton (known as "Single-speech Hamilton"). When Hamilton was appointed Secretary General of Ireland, Burke went with him to Dublin as Private Secretary, a post he held for three years. In 1765, Burke became private secretary to the then Prime Minister of Great Britain, the liberal Whig statesman Charles Rockingham, Marquess of York, who remained Burke's close friend and associate until his untimely death in 1782. Rockingham also introduced Burke as a Freemason.

**Question 0**

What was William Gerard Hamilton's nickname?

**Question 1**

Who was William Gerard Hamilton's private secretary?

**Question 2**

When did Burke become Private Secretary to the Prime Minister?

**Question 3**

Who invited Burke to join the Freemasons?

**Question 4**

Which political party did Charles, Marquess of Rockingham belong to?

**Question 5**

What was Burke's nickname?

**Question 6**

Who was Burke's secretary?

**Question 7**

Which country was Burke Secretary General of?

**Question 8**

What year did Burke go with Hamilton to Dublin?

**Question 9**

When did Hamilton die?

**Text number 7**

Burke played a leading role in the debate on the constitutional limits on the king's executive power. He was strongly opposed to the King's unlimited power and defended the role of political parties in maintaining a principled opposition capable of preventing abuses by either the monarch or certain factions in the government. His most important publication in this respect was Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents, published on 23 April 1770, which Burke attributed to a 'secret influence' from a neo-Tory group, which he called 'the friends of the king', whose system of 'external and internal administration is commonly called, in the technical language of the court, the double cabinet'. Britain needed a party with 'an unswerving adherence to principle and a commitment to unity against all the temptations of interest'. Party differences, 'whether for good or ill, are inseparable from free government'.

**Question 0**

Who did Burke want constitutional restrictions on?

**Question 1**

What kind of institution does Burke think could stand up against the abuse of power?

**Question 2**

What kind of group were the "friends of the king"?

**Question 3**

What was Burke's most important publication on limiting royal power?

**Question 4**

Who wanted to limit the power of political parties?

**Question 5**

What was the name of the magazine published by the Neo-Torans?

**Question 6**

When did Burke take a leading role in the debate?

**Question 7**

Which party did Burke believe had strong principles?

**Question 8**

What was the nickname of Burke and his friends?

**Text number 8**

In May 1778, Burke supported a motion in Parliament to review restrictions on Irish trade. However, his constituents, the people of the great trading city of Bristol, urged Burke to oppose free trade with Ireland. Burke countered their objections and said: "If this conduct of mine deprives me of their franchise at the next election, it will be an example to the future members of Parliament of England that at least one man had the courage to oppose the wishes of his constituents, though his prudence assured him that they were wrong".

**Question 0**

Which country did Burke propose to restrict trade with?

**Question 1**

What city did Burke represent in Parliament?

**Question 2**

When did Burke propose the Irish trade restriction?

**Question 3**

What was Bristol's main industry?

**Question 4**

Which country did Burke want to reduce trade with?

**Question 5**

Which city supported Burke's decisions?

**Question 6**

When was trade with Ireland originally restricted?

**Question 7**

Why did Burke say that he agreed with the will of his constituents?

**Text number 9**

Burke not only presented a peace agreement to Parliament, he presented four carefully argued reasons against the use of force. He presented his objections in a systematic way, focusing on one of them before moving on to the next. His first concern was that the use of force should be temporary and that uprisings and protests against British rule in America should not be. Secondly, Burke was concerned about the uncertainty as to whether Britain would win the conflict in America. "Arms build-up", Burke said, "is not a victory". Thirdly, Burke raised the question of damage; it would not be good for the British government to go to war in a scorched earth and have its desired target (America) damaged or even rendered useless. American colonists could always retreat to the mountains, but the land they left behind would probably be unusable, either accidentally or deliberately. The fourth and final reason for avoiding the use of force was experience; the British had never tried to contain an unruly colony by force, and they did not know if they could, let alone thousands of miles from home. All these concerns were valid, but some of them also proved prophetic - the American colonists did not surrender, despite the dire situation, and the British ultimately failed to win a war fought on American soil.

**Question 0**

Where was Burke concerned that Britain might not win the war?

**Question 1**

How many reasons did Burke give against violence?

**Question 2**

How far away was the potential conflict that Burke was arguing for?

**Question 3**

To which area might the American migrants have retreated?

**Question 4**

Who did Burke think Britain would win the war?

**Question 5**

What did Burke say was a victory?

**Question 6**

How many reasons did Burke give for the use of force?

**Question 7**

What kind of war did Burke advocate for the government?

**Question 8**

What geographical feature would prevent the Americans from withdrawing?

**Text number 10**

One of the reasons this speech was so admired was the passage about Lord Bathurst (1684-1775); Burke describes that in 1704 an angel predicted to Bathurst the future greatness of England and also of America: "Young man, there is an America - which at present does little but amuse you with tales of wild men and coarse manners; but before you taste death, it will prove as great as all the commerce which at present excites the envy of the world." Samuel Johnson was so irritated by its constant praise that he made a parody of it, in which the devil appears to a young Whig and predicts that in a short time Whiggism will poison even the American paradise!

**Question 0**

When did Lord Bathurst die?

**Question 1**

When did the angel speak to Bathurst?

**Question 2**

Which political position did Samuel Johnson say would soon poison America?

**Question 3**

When was Lord Bathurst born?

**Question 4**

Who appeared as a Whig in Samuel Johnson's writings?

**Question 5**

What did Bathurst predict?

**Question 6**

When did Samuel Johnson die?

**Question 7**

What mythical creature prophesied to Burke?

**Question 8**

Who was impressed by Bathurst's prediction?

**Question 9**

What political party did Johnson claim the angel represented?

**Text number 11**

Lord North's administration (1770-1782) attempted to put down the colonists' rebellion by military force. British and US forces clashed in 1775, and in 1776 the US Declaration of Independence was issued. Burke was horrified by the celebrations in Britain at the American defeat in New York and Pennsylvania. He argued that this authoritarianism was changing England's national character. Burke wrote: "As for the good people of England, they seem day by day more and more to assume the character of the government which they have been made to tolerate. I am convinced that in a few years the national character has been greatly changed. We no longer appear to be the enthusiastic, curious, envious, and fiery-hearted people that we were before.".

**Question 0**

When did Lord North take office?

**Question 1**

When did Lord North leave office?

**Question 2**

What victories against the Americans did the British celebrate?

**Question 3**

What did Burke think of the British celebrating victories against the Americans?

**Question 4**

When was the US Declaration of Independence issued?

**Question 5**

When was Lord North born?

**Question 6**

What did Lord North think of the British celebrations?

**Question 7**

In which states did the Americans beat Britain?

**Question 8**

What did Burke argue would change authoritarianism?

**Question 9**

What was published in 1775?

**Text number 12**

The Paymaster General Act of 1782 ended the office's lucrative tenure. Previously, Paymasters had been able to withdraw money from HM Treasury at their discretion. Now they had to deposit the money they had requested to be withdrawn from the Treasury in the Bank of England, where it had to be withdrawn for specific purposes. The Treasury would receive a monthly statement of Paymaster's balance in the bank. This law was repealed by the Shelburne administration, but the law that replaced it reproduced almost verbatim the text of the Burke Act.

**Question 0**

Where had Paymasters been able to get money directly from until 1782?

**Question 1**

Where would the money from Paymasters withdrawal requests go after 1782?

**Question 2**

Whose administration repealed the Paymaster General Act?

**Question 3**

When was the Paymaster General Act passed?

**Question 4**

When did Paymasters start receiving money directly from HM Treasury?

**Question 5**

Who could no longer make withdrawals from the Bank of England after 1782?

**Question 6**

How often could payers make withdrawals?

**Question 7**

Which administration proposed the Paymaster law?

**Question 8**

The Paymaster Act allowed Paymaster to withdraw funds from any source at its discretion?

**Text number 13**

Burke was a leading sceptic of democracy. Although he admitted that in theory it might in some cases be desirable, he insisted that democratic government in Britain in his time would be not only incompetent but also oppressive. He opposed democracy for three reasons. First, government required an intelligence and a breadth of knowledge rarely found among the common people. Second, he thought that if ordinary people had the right to vote, they would have dangerous and angry passions that could easily be aroused by demagogues; he feared that the authoritarian impulses fuelled by these passions would undermine cherished traditions and established religion, leading to violence and confiscation of property. Third, Burke warned that democracy would create tyranny over unpopular minorities who needed the protection of the upper class.

**Question 0**

What kind of government does Burke think would be incompetent?

**Question 1**

For how many reasons was Burke opposed to democracy?

**Question 2**

What did Burke think could stir up the dangerous passions of ordinary people?

**Question 3**

What kind of impulses did Burke think could gain power through the passions of the people?

**Question 4**

Who did Burke think was protecting unpopular minorities?

**Question 5**

What kind of government system did Burke favour?

**Question 6**

How many reasons did Burke give for the intelligence of the common people?

**Question 7**

Which group did Burke believe fuelled the passions of the demagogues?

**Question 8**

Who did Burke say unpopular minorities protect?

**Question 9**

What did Burke say the establishment was undermining?

**Text number 14**

For years, Burke tried to exonerate Warren Hastings, the former governor-general of Bengal, which led to the trial in 1786. His interaction with the British Empire in India began long before Hastings' impeachment trial. Parliament had been considering the Indian question for two decades before the impeachment. The trial was the culmination of years of anxiety and deliberation. In 1781, Burke was first able to delve into issues relating to the East India Company when he was appointed chairman of the Commons Select Committee on East India - from then until the end of the trial, India was Burke's primary concern. The committee was tasked with 'investigating alleged injustices in Bengal, the war with Hyder Ali and other Indian problems'. While Burke and the committee were focusing on these issues, another 'secret' committee was set up to look into the same matters. The reports of both committees were drafted by Burke. Among other things, the reports conveyed to the Princes of India that Britain would not go to war against them and called for the HEIC to recall Hastings. This was Burke's first call for a substantive change in imperial practice. Speaking to the full House of Commons on the Committee's report, Burke described the Indian question as one that "began with 'commerce' but 'ended with empire'".

**Question 0**

When was Warren Hastings prosecuted?

**Question 1**

Where was Hastings a former governor?

**Question 2**

How long before the Hastings trial had Britain been involved in Indian unrest?

**Question 3**

Where was Burke appointed president in 1781?

**Question 4**

When Burke said that India's problems "started with trade", where did he say the problems ended?

**Question 5**

Who tried to prosecute Burke?

**Question 6**

When was Burke taken to court?

**Question 7**

Which country was Hastings governor of at the time of the prosecution?

**Question 8**

When did the war with Hyder Ali start?

**Question 9**

Who did Burke want Hastings to invite back?

**Text number 15**

On 4 April 1786, Burke presented a bill of indictment to the House of Commons against Hastings for high crimes and misdemeanours. The prosecution, which did not begin until 14 February 1788 in Westminster Hall, would be the 'first great public discursive event in England' to bring the morality and duty of imperialism into the public consciousness. Burke was already known for his eloquent rhetoric, and his participation in the trial only added to its popularity and importance. In Burke's indictment, full of emotional indignation, Hastings was branded a 'captain general of injustice' who never ate 'without causing famine', whose heart was 'dead to the core' and who resembled both a 'hellish spider' and a 'ferocious vulture devouring the carcasses of the dead'. The House of Commons eventually prosecuted Hastings, but he was later acquitted of all charges by the House of Lords.

**Question 0**

When did Burke press charges against Hastings?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the official charge?

**Question 2**

Which house freed Hastings?

**Question 3**

Which house prosecuted Hastings?

**Question 4**

In what way did Burke say Hastings "devours the dead"?

**Question 5**

When did Hastings present his article against Burke?

**Question 6**

What nickname did Burke get for his emotional indignation?

**Question 7**

What did the House of Commons compare Hastings to?

**Question 8**

When was Hastings prosecuted by the House of Lords?

**Question 9**

Which house freed Burke?

**Text number 16**

Initially, Burke did not condemn the French Revolution. In a letter of 9 August 1789, Burke wrote: "England looks on with astonishment at the French struggle for freedom, and does not know whether to blame or applaud it! Although I thought I had seen something like it going on for many years, there is still something paradoxical and mysterious about it. It is impossible not to admire the spirit, but the old Parisian fury has burst forth in a shocking way.". The events of 5-6 October 1789, when a group of Parisian women marched on Versailles to force King Louis XVI to return to Paris, turned Burke against it. In a letter to her son Richard Burke on 10 October, she said: "I heard today from Laurence, who has sent me papers confirming the threatening state of France, in which the constituent elements of human society seem to be disintegrating and in whose place a world of monsters is being created, in which Mirabeau is leading as the great anarchist and in which the late Grand Monarch is as ridiculous as he is a pathetic figure." On 4 November, Charles-Jean-François Depont wrote to Burke asking him to support the revolution. Burke replied that all his criticisms of it should be understood as "merely an expression of scepticism", but he added: "You may have undermined the monarchy, but you have not restored liberty". In the same month, he described France as a "ruined country". Burke first publicly condemned the Revolution in Parliament on 9 February 1790, in a debate on the army review, prompted by Pitt and Fox's praise of the Revolution:

**Question 0**

Who did the Parisian women want to return to Paris?

**Question 1**

What was the name of Burke's son?

**Question 2**

Who asked Burke to support the French Revolution?

**Question 3**

When did Burke first publicly denounce the French Revolution?

**Question 4**

What did Burke condemn in August 1789?

**Question 5**

When did Burke march on Versailles?

**Question 6**

When did Burke write to Laure?

**Question 7**

Who did Burke want to support the revolution?

**Question 8**

When did Pitt and Fox officially quit the revolution?

**Text number 17**

In January 1790, Burke read to the Revolutionary Society a sermon delivered by Dr Richard Price on 4 November 1789, entitled A Sermon on the Love of Country. The Society had been founded to commemorate the Glorious Revolution of 1688. In this sermon, Price advocated a philosophy of universal 'human rights'. Price argued that love of country 'implies no conviction of its superior worth to other countries, or any particular preference for its laws and system of government'. Instead, Price argued that English people should see themselves 'as citizens of the world rather than as members of any particular community'.

**Question 0**

When did Richard Price preach a sermon to the Revolutionary Society?

**Question 1**

What was the Revolutionary Society celebrating?

**Question 2**

Who does Price think should see themselves as citizens of the world?

**Question 3**

What philosophy did Price support?

**Question 4**

What was the name of Burke's sermon?

**Question 5**

When was the Revolution Society founded?

**Question 6**

How does Burke think the English should see themselves?

**Question 7**

When did Burke propose the idea of universal rights for men?

**Question 8**

When did Price read Burke's sermon?

**Text number 18**

Immediately after reading Price's sermon, Burke wrote a draft of what would eventually become Reflections on the Revolution in France. According to a press announcement on 13 February 1790, Burke would soon publish a pamphlet on the Revolution and its British supporters, but he spent the whole year revising and expanding it. On 1 November, he finally published Reflections, which became an instant bestseller. At five shillings a pamphlet, it was more expensive than most political pamphlets, but by the end of 1790, ten editions had been printed and some 17 500 copies had been sold. The French translation appeared on 29 November, and on 30 November the translator Pierre-Gaëton Dupont wrote to Burke that 2 500 copies had already been sold. Ten editions of the French translation had been printed by June 1791.

**Question 0**

Which of Burke's writings was inspired by Price's sermon?

**Question 1**

When did Burke publish his Reflections on the Revolution in France?

**Question 2**

How many copies of Reflections on the Revolution in France were sold in two months?

**Question 3**

Who translated "Reflections on the French Revolution" into French?

**Question 4**

When did the tenth edition of the French translation of "Reflections on the Revolution in France" appear?

**Question 5**

What did Price write after his first sermon?

**Question 6**

How much did most pamphlets cost at the time?

**Question 7**

How many had been sold by June 1791?

**Question 8**

Who translated Burke's work from French?

**Question 9**

Which pamphlet was published on 13 February 1790?

**Text number 19**

Burke suggested that "we fear God, we look with reverence on kings, with affection on parliaments, with duty on judges, with respect on priests, and with reverence on nobles. Why? Because when such thoughts are brought to our minds, it is natural that we should be influenced by them". Burke defended this prejudice on the ground that it is "the general bank and capital of nations and ages" and superior to individual reason, which is small in comparison. "Prejudice," Burke argued, "may be quickly applied in an emergency; it engages the mind in advance in a steady course of wisdom and virtue, and does not leave man hesitating at the moment of decision, doubtful, perplexed, and undecided." Prejudice makes a man's virtue a habit". Burke criticises social contract theory by arguing that society is indeed a contract, but "partnership is not only between the living, but also between the living, the dead and the born".

**Question 0**

Who did Burke say we look up to with respect?

**Question 1**

Who did Burke say we were looking at with affection?

**Question 2**

Who did Burke say we should look up to?

**Question 3**

How did Burke say we should deal with nobility?

**Question 4**

How did Burke say we relate to judges?

**Question 5**

What theory was Burke praising?

**Question 6**

Burke claimed that the agreement did not apply to what groups of people?

**Question 7**

Who did Burke say was looking at us with respect?

**Question 8**

Who did Burke say owed us money?

**Question 9**

Who did Burke say would give us respect?

**Text number 20**

The most famous passage in Burke's Reflections was his description of the events of 5-6 October 1789 and Marie-Antoinette's part in them. Burke's description differs little from that of modern historians who have used primary sources. However, his use of flowery language in his description attracted both praise and criticism. Philip Francis wrote to Burke that what he wrote about Marie-Antoinette was 'sheer nonsense'. Edward Gibbon, however, took a different view: "I admire her chivalry". An Englishman who spoke to the Duchess of Biron told Burke that when Marie-Antoinette read the passage in question, she burst into tears and took a long time to finish it. Price had rejoiced that the King of France had been 'led to victory' during the October Days, but for Burke this symbolised the counter-revolutionary sentiment of the Jacobins and their natural feelings, which, to his horror, shared his own view - that the shameless attack on Marie-Antoinette was a cowardly attack on a defenceless woman.

**Question 0**

Who appeared in the most famous part of Burke's reflections?

**Question 1**

Who said that Burke wrote about Marie-Antoinette "pure farce"?

**Question 2**

Who admired Burke's chivalry?

**Question 3**

How did Marie-Antoinette react to Burke's writings about her?

**Question 4**

What name did Philip Frans call Marie-Antoinette?

**Question 5**

When did Marie-Antoinette read Burke's writings?

**Question 6**

How did Marie-Antoinette react to Edward Gibbon's praise?

**Question 7**

Who admired Pope Francis' chivalry?

**Question 8**

Who thinks October was a cowardly attack on the Jacobins?

**Text number 21**

Louis XVI translated the reflections "head to head" in French. Whig MPs Richard Sheridan and Charles James Fox disagreed with Burke and resigned. Fox thought the Reflections were "very distasteful" and "favoured Conservative principles". Other Whigs, such as the Duke of Portland and Earl Fitzwilliam, privately agreed with Burke, but did not wish to publicly part company with their Whig colleagues. Burke wrote on 29 November 1790: 'I have received from the Duke of Portland, Lord Fitzwilliam, the Duke of Devonshire, Lord John Cavendish, Montagu (Frederick Montagu MP) and many other representatives of the old Whig Stamina the perfect approval of the principles of that work, and friendly sympathy with the execution of it'. The Duke of Portland said in 1791 that when someone criticized Reflections to him, he stated that he had recommended the book to his sons because it contained a true Whig creed.

**Question 0**

Who re-translated the reflections into French?

**Question 1**

Which British ministers disagreed with Burke's reflections?

**Question 2**

Which political party was Charles James Fox?

**Question 3**

Which political party was Earl Fitzwilliam from?

**Question 4**

Which political party was Richard Sheridan from?

**Question 5**

What did Charles James Fox translate?

**Question 6**

Which Whigs publicly supported Burke?

**Question 7**

Who was the Duke of Portland?

**Question 8**

When did John Cavendish write to Burke?

**Question 9**

Who did the Duke of Devonshire recommend Reflections to?

**Text number 22**

Burke's reflections sparked a pamphlet war. In 1791, Thomas Paine wrote The Rights of Man in response to Burke, Mary Wollstonecraft published A Vindication of the Rights of Men and James Mackintosh wrote Vindiciae Gallicae. Mackintosh was the first to regard Reflections as a "manifesto of the counter-revolution". Later, Mackintosh shared Burke's views and, after meeting him in December 1796, stated that Burke was 'minutely and accurately informed of all the facts relating to the French Revolution, with marvellous accuracy'. Mackintosh later said, "Burke was one of the first thinkers of his time and one of the greatest orators. He has no equal in any age, except perhaps Lord Bacon and Cicero, and his works contain more political and moral wisdom than those of any other writer'.

**Question 0**

Who wrote "Human Rights"?

**Question 1**

Who wrote "A Vindication of the Rights of Men"?

**Question 2**

Who said that Reflections was a "counter-revolutionary manifesto"?

**Question 3**

Who was Mackintosh comparing Burke to?

**Question 4**

What kind of wisdom did Mackintosh say Burke had?

**Question 5**

When did Mary Wollstonecraft publish her answer?

**Question 6**

When did Mary meet Burke?

**Question 7**

What did Mackintosh claim he had more of than any other writer?

**Question 8**

Who did Thomas Paine compare Burke to?

**Question 9**

What did Paine call Reflections?

**Text number 23**

In November 1790, François-Louis-Thibault de Menonville, a member of the French National Assembly, wrote to Burke, praising Reflections and asking for more "very refreshing intellectual nourishment" to publish. And so Burke did, in April 1791, when he published a Letter to a Member of the National Assembly. Burke called on outside forces to reverse the course of the revolution, attacking, among others, the late French philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau, who was the object of a personality cult that had developed in revolutionary France. Although Burke acknowledged that Rousseau sometimes showed a 'remarkable understanding of human nature', he was mostly critical of him. Although he did not meet Rousseau when he visited Britain in 1766-7, Burke was a friend of David Hume, with whom Rousseau had stayed. According to Burke, Rousseau 'had no other principle to affect his heart or guide his understanding than vanity', which 'possessed him almost to the point of madness'. He also cited Rousseau's Confessions as proof that Rousseau's life was full of "obscure and vulgar vices" which were not "screened or dotted here and there with virtues, or even distinguished by any single good deed". Burke contrasted Rousseau's theory of universal benevolence with the fact that Rousseau had sent his children to a foundling hospital: 'He loves his kind, but hates his kin'.

**Question 0**

Who asked Burke for more "very refreshing mental food"?

**Question 1**

When did Burke publish his "Letter to a Member of the National Assembly"?

**Question 2**

Which French philosopher was Burke attacking?

**Question 3**

When did Rousseau visit Britain?

**Question 4**

Who did Rousseau stay with when he visited Britain?

**Question 5**

Where did Burke belong?

**Question 6**

What did François-Louis-Thibault de Menonville publish in April 1791?

**Question 7**

When did Jean-Jacques Rousseau die?

**Question 8**

What did Rousseau say Burke was in terms of understanding human nature?

**Question 9**

Which vicious book did Hume publish?

**Text number 24**

These events and the resulting disagreements within the Whig Party led to its disintegration and the severing of Burke's friendship with Fox. In a debate in Parliament on Britain's relations with Russia, Fox praised the principles of the revolution, although Burke was unable to respond, being 'under the constant cries of questioning from his own side of the House'. When Parliament debated the Quebec bill on the Canadian constitution, Fox praised the revolution and criticised some of Burke's arguments, such as hereditary power. On 6 May 1791, when the second debate on the Quebec bill took place in Parliament, Burke took the opportunity to reply to Fox and denounce the new French constitution and 'the terrible consequences which flow from the French idea of the rights of man'. Burke argued that these ideas were the antithesis of both the British and US constitutions. Burke was interrupted and Fox intervened, saying that Burke should be allowed to continue speaking. However, a motion of censure was moved against Burke for his remarks on French affairs, and Lord Sheffield moved a motion of censure, which Fox seconded. Mr Pitt made a speech in praise of Burke, and Mr Fox made a speech in which he both criticised and praised Burke. He questioned the sincerity of Burke, who seemed to have forgotten the lessons he had learned from him, quoting Burke's own speeches of fourteen and fifteen years earlier.

**Question 0**

Fox praised revolutionary principles in a debate about what country?

**Question 1**

What kind of power did Fox think Burke was wrong about?

**Question 2**

Which constitution did Burke denounce on 6 May 1791?

**Question 3**

Fox quoted Burke's speech how long ago?

**Question 4**

When did Parliament debate the Quebec bill?

**Question 5**

Who interrupted Burke?

**Question 6**

What was Lord Sheffield's speech about Burke?

**Question 7**

Fox quoted his own words how long ago?

**Question 8**

Who condemned the Canadian Constitution?

**Text number 25**

At this point Fox whispered that "the friendship was not lost". "Unfortunately it has," Burke replied, "I have indeed made a great sacrifice; I have done my duty, even though I have lost a friend. There is something in the abominable French constitution that poisons everything it touches." This provoked a response from Fox, but he was unable to hold his tongue for a while, as tears and emotion overwhelmed him, appealing to Burke to remember their unyielding friendship, but also repeating his criticism of Burke and uttering 'unusually bitter sarcasm'. This only exacerbated the discord between the two men. On 5 June 1791, Burke showed his resignation from the party by writing to Fitzwilliam and refusing to receive money from him.

**Question 0**

When did Burke leave the Whig Party?

**Question 1**

Who did Burke turn down money from?

**Question 2**

What did Burke mean when he said that he "poisons everything it touches"?

**Question 3**

Who would have thought that Fox and Burke could still be friends?

**Question 4**

Who thought Fox and Burke's friendship was lost?

**Question 5**

Who refused to take money from Burke?

**Question 6**

When did Burke leave the party?

**Question 7**

Who kept a friend at the expense of a duty?

**Question 8**

What did Fox say about the French Constitution?

**Question 9**

Who overcame their emotions to finish their speech?

**Text number 26**

Burke knew that many members of the Whig Party did not share Fox's views, and he wanted to provoke them into condemning the French Revolution. Burke wrote that he wanted to present the entire Whig party as "tolerant and acquiescent in these proceedings" so that he could "encourage them to a public declaration of what every one of their acquaintance knows privately to be their... opinion". On 3 August 1791, Burke therefore published his Appeal from the New to the Old Whigs, in which he renewed his criticism of the radical revolutionary programmes inspired by the French Revolution and attacked the Whigs who supported them as being contrary to the traditional principles of the Whig Party.

**Question 0**

What did Burke want the Whigs to condemn?

**Question 1**

What did Burke publish on 3 August 1791?

**Question 2**

In Burke's view, the French Revolution was against whose principles?

**Question 3**

Burke attacked the Whigs, who were for what?

**Question 4**

What did the Whig Party want Burke to condemn?

**Question 5**

Which pamphlet was published by Fox on 3 August 1791?

**Question 6**

When did Burke write that he wanted to represent the whole party?

**Question 7**

Which party was condemned by the French Revolution?

**Question 8**

Burke believes that most party members agreed with which opponent?

**Text number 27**

Although Whig magnates like Portland and Fitzwilliam privately agreed with Burke's appeal, they wished he had used more moderate language. Fitzwilliam felt that the petition contained "doctrines in whose name I have long since sworn". Francis Basset, a Whig backbench MP, wrote to Burke: "...although I did not then express my views, for reasons which I will not now specify, I am in complete disagreement with Mr Fox and the main opposition to the French Revolution". Burke sent a copy of the petition to the King, and the King asked his friend to convey to Burke that he had read it 'with great satisfaction'. Burke wrote of its reception. They are secretly dismayed. They agree with me, but they are afraid to talk about it for fear of offending Fox. ... They leave me to my own devices; they see that I can do myself justice'. Charles Burney considered the book "the most admirable book - the best and most useful on political subjects I have ever seen", but felt that the differences between Burke and Fox in the Whig Party should not be made public.

**Question 0**

Who thinks Burke should have written in a more moderate tone?

**Question 1**

Who said he was "totally different from Mr Fox"?

**Question 2**

What was Francis Basset's political party?

**Question 3**

What did Burke think the Whigs were secretly thinking?

**Question 4**

Who thinks Burke and Fox should not have made their allegations public?

**Question 5**

Who did Burke want to use more moderate language?

**Question 6**

What kind of Whig was Fitzwilliam?

**Question 7**

Who claimed to be like Mr Fox?

**Question 8**

To whom did Basset send a copy of his letter?

**Question 9**

Who wanted the claim to be made public?

**Text number 28**

Burke advocated war against revolutionary France because he saw Britain fighting on the side of the royalists and emigrants in the civil war, rather than against the whole French people. Burke also supported the Vendée royalist uprising, describing it in a letter to William Windham on 4 November 1793 as 'the only cause in which I have much heart'. On 7 October, Burke wrote to Henry Dundas urging him to send reinforcements as he saw it as the only theatre of war that could lead to a march on Paris. Dundas, however, did not follow Burke's advice.

**Question 0**

To whom did Burke write on 4 November 1793?

**Question 1**

Which faction in La Vendee's uprising did Burke support?

**Question 2**

Who did Burke ask to send reinforcements to La Vendee?

**Question 3**

Where did Burke think the march to La Vendee would lead?

**Question 4**

What did Burke advocate Britain to fight against?

**Question 5**

Who wrote to Burke on 4 November 1793?

**Question 6**

Which group did Burke oppose in La Vendée?

**Question 7**

When did Henry Dundas write to Burke?

**Question 8**

Whose advice did Dundas follow?

**Question 9**

Burke felt that supporting the war against the revolution was against which nation?

**Text number 29**

Burke believed that the government was not taking the rebellion seriously enough, and this view was confirmed by a letter he had received on 23 October from Prince Charles of France (S.A.R. le comte d'Artois) asking him to act for the royalists in the government. On 6 November, Burke was obliged to reply, 'I am not in His Majesty's service, nor am I consulted at all on his affairs'. Burke published his remarks on the Allied policy towards France, which he had begun in October, in which he said: 'I am sure that everything has shown us that in this war against France one Frenchman is worth twenty foreigners. La Vendée is proof of this".

**Question 0**

When did Prince Charles write to Burke?

**Question 1**

How many foreign supporters did Burke think a French royalist was worthy of?

**Question 2**

What did Burke see as proof of the importance of the French royalists?

**Question 3**

To which country did Prince Charles belong?

**Question 4**

In which article does Burke comment on the importance of La Vendee?

**Question 5**

Who thinks Burke didn't take the uprising seriously?

**Question 6**

How many foreigners did Burke say were worth twenty Frenchmen?

**Question 7**

What area did Prince Charles use to justify his views?

**Question 8**

When did Burke enter Her Majesty's service?

**Question 9**

Who told the Burke French that they were more valuable than foreigners?

**Text number 30**

On 20 June 1794, Burke was commended by MPs for his work on the Hastings trial, and he immediately resigned his seat, to be replaced by his son Richard. A tragic blow was dealt to Burke when, in August 1794, he lost Richard, to whom he had been tenderly attached and in whom he saw signs of promise which were not open to others and which, in fact, seemed non-existent (although this view may rather have reflected the fact that Richard Burke had been successful in the early struggle for Catholic emancipation). King George III, whose favour Burke had won by his attitude to the French Revolution, wanted to make him Earl of Beaconsfield, but the death of his son deprived him of such an honour and all its attractions, so the only reward he agreed to accept was a pension of £2,500. Even this modest reward was attacked by the Duke of Bedford and the Earl of Lauderdale, to whom Burke replied in his Letter to a Noble Lord (1796): 'It cannot at present be too often repeated, line by line, precept by precept, until it becomes the proverb: "Reform is not reform"'. He claimed that he was rewarded on merit, but the Duke of Bedford was rewarded purely on inheritance, his ancestor being the original pensioner: 'My pension was from a gentle and benevolent sovereign, his pension from Henry the Eighth'. Burke also hinted at what would happen to such people if their revolutionary ideas were realised, and included a description of the British constitution:

**Question 0**

When did Burke get the vote of thanks?

**Question 1**

When did Burke's son die?

**Question 2**

What did King George III want to make of Burke the Earl?

**Question 3**

How much money did Burke accept instead of the title of Count?

**Question 4**

Who attacked Burke because he was receiving recognition from King George III?

**Question 5**

When did Burke put forward the vote of thanks?

**Question 6**

Who did Burke thank in June 1794?

**Question 7**

When did Richard resign?

**Question 8**

What pension did the Duke of Bedford receive?

**Question 9**

Who wanted to make Richard Burke an Earl?

**Text number 31**

Burke's last publications were the Letters of Kingslayer's Peace (October 1796), which resulted from the Pitt government's peace negotiations with France. Burke saw this as an appeasement that damaged national dignity and honour. In another letter, Burke wrote of the French Revolutionary Government: 'Individuality has been left out of their plan of government. The state is all in all. Everything is referred to the production of power; then everything is entrusted to its use. It is military in its principles, in its policies, in its spirit and in all its movements. The sole object of the State is to rule and conquer - to rule minds by conversion, to rule bodies by arms."

**Question 0**

What was Burke's last publication?

**Question 1**

When was Burke's last release?

**Question 2**

What did Burke think was missing from the French revolutionary government?

**Question 3**

What did Burke think were the only objectives of the French revolutionary government?

**Question 4**

What negotiations did Burke consider to be appeasement?

**Question 5**

What was Pitt's last release?

**Question 6**

Who did Burke think had too much individuality?

**Question 7**

What did Burke say was problematic in his first letter?

**Question 8**

What did Burke believe was good for national dignity?

**Text number 32**

This is considered the first explanation of the modern concept of the totalitarian state. Burke saw the war with France as ideological, against the "doctrine of arms". He hoped that France would not be divided because it would affect the balance of power in Europe, and that the war was not against France but against the revolutionaries who ruled it. Burke said: "It is not a question of France extending a foreign empire to other nations: it is a question of a sect aiming at a universal empire and beginning with the conquest of France".

**Question 0**

What did Burke think the war against France was against?

**Question 1**

Burke wished, what land would not be divided?

**Question 2**

What kind of empire did Burke think the French revolutionaries wanted?

**Question 3**

Against whom did Burke think the war was directed, not so much against France?

**Question 4**

What kind of doctrine did Burke propose?

**Question 5**

Which country did Burke want to divide?

**Question 6**

What kind of empire does Burke think Europe should become?

**Question 7**

What did Burke say France was trying to expand?

**Text number 33**

In November 1795, the high price of corn was debated in Parliament, and Burke wrote a note to Pitt on the subject. In December, Samuel Whitbread MP introduced a bill to give judges the power to set minimum wages, and Fox said he would vote for it. This debate probably prompted Burke to edit the memo, which indicated that Burke would soon publish a letter on the subject to Arthur Young, secretary of the Board of Agriculture, but he did not finish it. These fragments were added to the memo after his death and published posthumously in 1800 as Thoughts and Details on Scarcity, in which Burke explained 'some of the doctrines of political economists in relation to agriculture as a means of subsistence'. Burke criticised policies such as maximum prices and government wage regulation and set out what the limits of government should be:

**Question 0**

Who did Burke write to about the price of corn?

**Question 1**

Who proposed the minimum wage bill in 1795?

**Question 2**

Who was the secretary of the Agriculture Council?

**Question 3**

Burke's unfinished letter to Arthur Young became part of what publication?

**Question 4**

When was "Thoughts and details on scarcity" published?

**Question 5**

When did Pitt write to Burke?

**Question 6**

Which bill did Fox propose?

**Question 7**

What was the subject of the letter that Arthur Young did not fill in?

**Question 8**

What was the name of the letters published by Young?

**Question 9**

When did Fox die?

**Text number 34**

Writing to a friend in May 1795, Burke identified the causes of discontent: 'either Indianism [i.e. the corporate tyranny of the British East India Company] as it affects these countries and Asia, or Jacobinism as it affects the whole of Europe and the state of human society itself. The latter is the greatest evil". By March 1796, however, Burke had changed his mind: 'Our government and our laws are threatened by two different enemies, which are eroding its foundations: Indianism and Jacobinism. In some cases they act separately, in others together: but of this I am certain, that the first is by far the worst and most difficult to deal with, and among other reasons, that it weakens and destroys the power which ought to be used with the greatest credibility and vigour against the second, and that it gives Jacobinism the strongest weapons against all official government."

**Question 0**

Whose rise to power did Burke think was malignant?

**Question 1**

What did Burke call corporate tyranny in India?

**Question 2**

Which continent was affected by Jacobinism?

**Question 3**

When did Burke decide that Indianism was the greatest threat?

**Question 4**

What did Burke think was the worst threat in 1795?

**Question 5**

What did Burke consider to be overrated?

**Question 6**

Who carried out the Protestant takeover?

**Question 7**

What did Burke originally call Indian?

**Question 8**

When did Burke decide that being Indian was not as big a problem?

**Question 9**

Burke never changed his mind about which ideology, which he called "the greatest evil"?

**Text number 35**

Burke believed that property was essential to human life. Because Burke was convinced that people wanted to be controlled and governed, the distribution of property formed the basis of a social structure that helped to develop control within the property hierarchy. He saw the social changes brought about by property as a natural sequence of events that should occur as humanity progressed. He also believed that the division of property and the class system kept the ruler in check with the needs of the classes below him. Since property largely harmonised or defined the social class divisions, class was also seen as a natural part of the social contract, whereby the placing of persons in different classes was in the common interest of all subjects. Concern about property is not Burke's only influence. As Christopher Hitchens summarizes, "If modern conservatism can be traced back to Burke, it is not only because he appealed to property owners for stability, but also because he appealed to the everyday interest in preserving the ancestral and the memorable."

**Question 0**

What did Burke see as crucial to human life?

**Question 1**

What does Burke think the social hierarchy should be based on?

**Question 2**

Who did Burke think benefited from the social class structure?

**Question 3**

Who wrote that Burke "appealed to property owners"?

**Question 4**

What did Hitchens think Burke supported conservation?

**Question 5**

Who influenced modern conservatism?

**Question 6**

What did Christopher Hitchens consider essential to human life?

**Question 7**

What did Burke think kept the classes in check?

**Question 8**

What did Hitchens appeal to?

**Question 9**

What did Burke think was against the natural order of events?

**Text number 36**

In the 19th century, both liberals and conservatives praised Burke. Burke's friend Philip Francis wrote that Burke "was a man who truly and prophetically foresaw all the consequences that would result from the adoption of French principles", but because Burke wrote so passionately, people doubted his arguments. William Windham spoke from the same House of Commons bench as Burke had spoken from after his resignation from Fox, and one observer said Windham spoke 'like the ghost of Burke' when he made a speech against peace with France in 1801. William Hazlitt, Burke's political opponent, considered Burke to be among his three favourite writers (the others being Junius and Rousseau) and considered 'the test of the reason and integrity of a man of the opposite party was whether he would allow Burke to be a great man'. William Wordsworth was originally a supporter of the French Revolution and attacked Burke in his Letter to the Bishop of Llandaff (1793), but by the early 19th century he had changed his mind and began to admire Burke. In Two Addresses to the Freeholders of Westmorland, Wordsworth called Burke 'the wisest politician of his age', whose predictions 'have been confirmed by time'. He later revised his poem The Prelude to include Burke's praise ('Genius of Burke! forgive the pen seduced/By specious wonders') and described him as an old oak. Samuel Taylor Coleridge experienced a similar reversal: he had criticised Burke in The Watchman, but in Friend (1809-10) Coleridge defended Burke against accusations of inconsistency. Later, in Biographia Literaria (1817), Coleridge considers Burke a prophet and praises Burke for referring 'habitually to principles. He was a scientific statesman and therefore a seer'. Henry Brougham wrote of Burke: '... all his prophecies, with one momentary expression, were more than fulfilled: anarchy and bloodshed had taken France, conquest and convulsions had ravaged Europe... the providence of mortals is often unable to penetrate so far into the future as this'. George Canning believed that Burke's speculations "have been justified by the course of subsequent events, and almost all the predictions have been accurately fulfilled". In 1823 Canning wrote that he considered Burke's 'last works and words as a manual of my political action'. Conservative Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli "was deeply acquainted with the spirit and sentiment of Burke's later writings".

**Question 0**

Who thought Burke was prophetic about the consequences of the French Revolution?

**Question 1**

What did Francis think was too much in Burke's writings?

**Question 2**

Who made speeches in Parliament very similar to Burke's?

**Question 3**

When did Windham speak out against peace with France?

**Question 4**

When did Wordsworth originally attack Burke?

**Question 5**

When did both liberals and conservatives condemn Burke?

**Question 6**

When did Fox make a speech against peace with France?

**Question 7**

Who were Windham's favourite writers besides Burke?

**Question 8**

What did Burke criticise Francis for saying in his writings was too much?

**Question 9**

When did Benjamin Disraeli say that he was deeply influenced by Burke?

**Text number 37**

19th century Liberal Prime Minister William Ewart Gladstone regarded Burke as "the magazine of wisdom for Ireland and America" and wrote in his diary, "I made many extracts from Burke - sometimes almost divine". The radical MP and opponent of the Corn Law, Richard Cobden, often praised Burke's Thoughts and Details on Scarcity. The liberal historian Lord Acton considered Burke one of the three greatest liberals, along with William Gladstone and Thomas Babington Macaulay. Lord Macaulay wrote in his diary. Admirable! The greatest man since Milton". John Morley, the Liberal MP for Gladstone, published two books on Burke (including a biography) and was influenced by Burke, including his views on prejudice. For the Cobden radical Francis Hirst, Burke 'deserved a place among English libertarians, though he was the most conservative of all lovers of liberty and reformers, the least abstract, always seeking to preserve and reform rather than to reform. In politics, he resembled a modern architect who renovates an old house rather than tearing it down and building a new one in its place'. Burke's Reflections on the Revolution in France was controversial at the time of its publication, but after his death it became his most famous and influential work and a manifesto of conservative thought.

**Question 0**

Which political party did Gladstone belong to?

**Question 1**

Which countries did Gladstone consider Burke to be wise about?

**Question 2**

What was Cobden an activist against?

**Question 3**

Lord Macaulay thought Burke was the best writer since who?

**Question 4**

Who thought Burke was like an architect who renovated an old house instead of tearing it down?

**Question 5**

Which law was William Ewart Gladstone opposed?

**Question 6**

What pamphlet did Lord Acton praise?

**Question 7**

Who did Macaulay think was the best man since Burke?

**Question 8**

How many books did Lord Acton publish about Burke?

**Question 9**

Which architect admired Burke?

**Text number 38**

Historian Piers Brendon argues that Burke laid the moral foundations for the British Empire, epitomised by the Warren Hastings trial, which ultimately proved to be its undoing: when Burke declared that "the British Empire must be governed by the plan of liberty, for nothing else will govern it", this was "...an ideological germ that proved fatal". This was Edmund Burke's paternalistic doctrine that colonial government was a trust. It had to be used for the benefit of the oppressed people so that they would eventually achieve their birthright - their freedom". As a result of this view, Burke opposed the opium trade, which he called 'a smuggling adventure', and denounced 'the great disgrace to British character in India'.

**Question 0**

Who thought the Burke Hastings trial was the moral foundation of the British Empire?

**Question 1**

Where does Burke think the British Empire should be governed?

**Question 2**

What did Burke call a "smuggling adventure"?

**Question 3**

What did Burke think had disgraced Britain in India?

**Question 4**

Which historian laid the foundations for the morality of the British Empire?

**Question 5**

What did Burke say that the freedom plan must be guided by?

**Question 6**

What, according to Burke, had disgraced India in Britain?

**Question 7**

What nickname did Burke give to his paternalistic doctrine?

**Question 8**

What kind of doctrine did Hastings propose?

**Text number 39**

Burke's religious literature comprises published works and commentaries on religion. Burke's religious thought was based on the belief that religion is the foundation of civil society. He strongly criticised deism and atheism and emphasised Christianity as an instrument of social progress. Born in Ireland to a Catholic mother and a Protestant father, Burke was a strong defender of the Anglican Church but also sensitive to the concerns of Catholics. He combined the preservation of a state (established) religion with the preservation of constitutional freedoms for citizens, and stressed the benefits of Christianity not only for the souls of believers but also for political arrangements.

**Question 0**

Which church did Burke defend the most?

**Question 1**

What did Burke consider to be the basis of society?

**Question 2**

What religion was Burke's mother?

**Question 3**

What religion was Burke's father?

**Question 4**

Burke thought religion was useful for what else but souls?

**Question 5**

What did Burke consider to be the basis of religion?

**Question 6**

Which of Burke's parents was an atheist?

**Question 7**

Which of Burke's parents was a deist?

**Question 8**

What did Burke think made the political arrangements difficult?

**Question 9**

Burke showed no interest in what sect of Christianity?

**Document number 226**

**Text number 0**

The independent state of Samoa ( Samoan name Malo Sa 'oloto Tuto 'atasi o Sāmoa, IPA: [ˌsaːˈmoa]), commonly known as Samoa (Samoan name: Sāmoa) and formerly known as Western Samoa, is a unitary parliamentary republic with eleven administrative regions. The two main islands are Savai'i and Upolu, surrounded by four smaller islands. The capital is Apia. The Lapita people discovered and settled the Samoan islands about 3 500 years ago. They developed a unique language and cultural identity.

**Question 0**

What was Samoa's old name?

**Question 1**

How many administrative regions are there in Samoa?

**Question 2**

How many small islands surround Savai'i and Upolu?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the capital of Samoa?

**Question 4**

How long ago were the Samoan islands discovered?

**Question 5**

What was Lapita known as in the past?

**Question 6**

What is the capital of Lapita?

**Question 7**

When did the raptors find and settle in Malo?

**Question 8**

What are two things that the Tutos developed when they settled in Malo?

**Question 9**

How many small islands surround Malo?

**Text number 1**

The origins of Samoans are closely studied in modern Polynesian studies in various disciplines, such as genetics, linguistics and anthropology. Scientific research continues, although there are several different theories, one of which suggests that the Samoans originated from Austronesian predecessors during the eastern expansion of Lapita from Southeast Asia and Melanesia between 2 500 and 1 500 BC. The origins of the Samoans are currently being reassessed in the light of new scientific evidence and the discovery of charcoal deposits since 2003.

**Question 0**

In what year did the new discoveries change the direction of research on Samoan origins?

**Question 1**

Which field of research, apart from linguistics and genetics, studies the origins of Samoans?

**Question 2**

One theory is that the Samoans originated from which people during the expansion of Lapita?

**Question 3**

Which year marks the end of Lapita's eastern expansion?

**Question 4**

What disciplines are used to study where Australians come from?

**Question 5**

During which period did Australians migrate from South-East Asia and Melanesia?

**Question 6**

Why are Australians' origins now being reassessed?

**Question 7**

From which period is there new evidence to reassess the origins of Austronesians?

**Question 8**

Whose origins are being investigated in the Melanesia study?

**Text number 2**

Missionary work in Samoa was started in the late 1830s by John Williams of the London Missionary Society, who arrived in Sapapali from the Cook Islands and Tahiti. According to Barbara A. West, "Samoans were also known to practice 'headhunting', a warrior ritual in which a warrior would take the head of a slain opponent to give to his leader and thus prove his bravery." However, Robert Louis Stevenson, who lived in Samoa from 1889 until his death in 1894, wrote in his book A Footnote to History: Eight Years of Trouble in Samoa, "... the Samoans are a gentle people".

**Question 0**

Who was the first missionary in Samoa?

**Question 1**

Which English organisation did John Williams belong to?

**Question 2**

According to Barbara A. West, which war ritual did the indigenous people of Samoa practice?

**Question 3**

Which prominent writer who lived in Samoa called Samoans "gentle people"?

**Question 4**

In what year did Robert Louis Stevenson die?

**Question 5**

What was Barbara A. West doing in the late 1830s?

**Question 6**

Which group did Barbara A. West belong to?

**Question 7**

What ritual did Robert Lewis Stevenson say the Samoans practised?

**Question 8**

In what year did John Williams die?

**Question 9**

Which work did John Williams write about the Samoan people?

**Text number 3**

Britain also sent troops to protect British businesses, port rights and the consulate. This was followed by eight years of civil war, during which each of the three powers supplied arms, training and in some cases combat troops to the warring Samoan parties. The Samoan crisis reached a critical point in March 1889, when all three colonial rivals sent warships to the port of Apia, and large-scale war seemed imminent. A huge storm on 15 March 1889 damaged or destroyed the warships and the military conflict came to an end.

**Question 0**

Which country sent its army to protect its interests in Samoa?

**Question 1**

How many years did the Samoan Civil War last?

**Question 2**

How many rivals competed for power in the war?

**Question 3**

When was the decisive climax of the civil war?

**Question 4**

What natural disaster ended the war in the port of Apia?

**Question 5**

What interests were the Samoans trying to protect?

**Question 6**

How many years did the British Civil War last?

**Question 7**

What happened to end the British Civil War?

**Question 8**

How many Samoan parties took part in the war?

**Question 9**

On what day did the Samoans rise up and fight for their own interests?

**Text number 4**

From the end of the First World War until 1962, New Zealand ruled Samoa as a C-class mandate under the auspices of the League of Nations and later the United Nations. This was followed by a series of New Zealand administrators who were responsible for two major events. In the first, about a fifth of Samoans died in the 1918-1919 influenza epidemic. Between 1919 and 1962, Samoa was administered by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which was specifically set up to oversee the New Zealand Islands and Samoa. In 1943, this department was renamed the Islands Department after the New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs was established to manage New Zealand's foreign affairs.

**Question 0**

Which country ruled Samoa until 1962?

**Question 1**

During which years was Samoa's influenza outbreak?

**Question 2**

Which official organisation was in charge of Samoa for most of the 20th century?

**Question 3**

What was the new name of the Foreign Office in 1943?

**Question 4**

What proportion of Samoa's total population died from influenza during the epidemic?

**Question 5**

How long did the UN rule Samoa?

**Question 6**

What proportion of New Zealand's population died of influenza between 1918 and 1919?

**Question 7**

Which organisation was responsible for the administration of New Zealand between 1919 and 1962?

**Question 8**

What was the new name of the Foreign Office in 1918?

**Question 9**

How was New Zealand classified under the League of Nations and the UN?

**Text number 5**

However, Samoans greatly resented the colonial influence of New Zealand and blamed New Zealand's mismanagement for inflation and the disastrous 1918 influenza epidemic. By the late 1920s, the anti-colonial resistance movement had gained widespread support. One of the Mau leaders was Olaf Frederick Nelson, a half-Samoan, half-Swedish merchant. Nelson was eventually expelled in the late 1920s and early 1930s, but he continued to support the organisation financially and politically. In keeping with the Mau's non-violent philosophy, the newly elected leader, Supreme Commander Tupua Tamasese Lealofi, led his uniformed Mau colleagues in a peaceful demonstration in central Apia on 28 December 1929.

**Question 0**

In which decade was support for opposing the New Zealand regime at its peak?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the Mau leader of Samoan and Swedish descent?

**Question 2**

What was the philosophy behind the Mau resistance?

**Question 3**

What title was given to Tupua Tamasese Lealof, the elected leader of Mau?

**Question 4**

On what day did the Mau protesters demonstrate on the streets of Apia?

**Question 5**

For which events did New Zealand hold Samoa responsible?

**Question 6**

What did Olaf Frederick Nelson lead on 28 December 1929?

**Question 7**

Where did Olaf Fredrick Nelson organise and lead the demonstration?

**Question 8**

What did the Commander-in-Chief Tupua Tamasese Lealofi disapprove of?

**Question 9**

What was the philosophy of most New Zealanders?

**Text number 6**

New Zealand police attempted to arrest one of the leaders of the protest. When he resisted, a struggle broke out between the police and the Mau. The police began firing randomly into the crowd, and a Lewis machine gun, which had been installed for the protest, was used to disperse the demonstrators. Chief Tamasese was shot from behind and killed as he tried to bring peace and order to the Mau protesters, shouting "Peace, Samoa". Ten others were killed the same day and around 50 injured by gunshot wounds and police batons. That day became known in Samoa as Black Saturday. Mau grew, remained steadfastly non-violent and expanded to include a very influential women's section.

**Question 0**

What kind of weapon was used against the Mau protesters?

**Question 1**

Was Chief Tamasese injured or killed in the protest?

**Question 2**

What phrase did the Mau chief shout when he tried to calm his people?

**Question 3**

How many Mau died, in addition to Chief Tamasese, as a result of the violence that broke out that day?

**Question 4**

What do Samoans call the historic day of the Mau protest?

**Question 5**

What kind of weapon was used against the New Zealand police?

**Question 6**

How many New Zealand police officers were killed during the protest?

**Question 7**

Why do New Zealanders call it Mau protest day?

**Question 8**

How many women were injured in the demonstration?

**Question 9**

What did the New Zealand police shout to the public?

**Text number 7**

After repeated efforts by the Samoan independence movement, the New Zealand Western Samoa Act 1961, passed on 24 November 1961, granted Samoa independence on 1 January 1962, when the Guardianship Treaty ended. Samoa also signed a Treaty of Friendship with New Zealand. Samoa, the first small island state in the Pacific to become independent, joined the Commonwealth on 28 August 1970. Although independence was achieved in early January, Samoa celebrates its Independence Day on 1 June each year.

**Question 0**

How did Samoa become independent?

**Question 1**

When did Samoa's independence take effect?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the treaty that ended with Samoa's independence from New Zealand?

**Question 3**

Where was Samoa in the order of the small island states in its independence-declaring territory?

**Question 4**

On what day will Samoans celebrate their independence from New Zealand?

**Question 5**

When did New Zealand become independent?

**Question 6**

What other day does New Zealand celebrate its Independence Day each year?

**Question 7**

How did New Zealand become independent in 1961?

**Question 8**

What did the Commonwealth sign with New Zealand?

**Question 9**

When did New Zealand join the Commonwealth?

**Text number 8**

Fiame Mata'afa Faumuina Mulinu'u II, one of the country's four highest chiefs, became Samoa's first Prime Minister. The other two chiefs were appointed as joint heads of state for life at independence. Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole died in 1963, leaving Malietoa Tanumafili II as the sole Head of State until his death on 11 May 2007, when Samoa changed from a constitutional monarchy to a de facto parliamentary republic. The next Head of State, Tuiatua Tupua Tamasese Efi, was elected by the legislature on 17 June 2007 for a five-year term, and was re-elected in July 2012 without any candidates.

**Question 0**

What was the office of Fiame Mata'afa Faumuina Mulinu'u II?

**Question 1**

What was the term of office of Samoa's first joint heads of state?

**Question 2**

In what year did the first of the two heads of state die?

**Question 3**

Who was Samoa's head of state in 2006?

**Question 4**

What form of government did Samoa have before it became a de facto parliamentary republic?

**Question 5**

When did Fiame Mata'afa Faumuina Mulinu'u II die?

**Question 6**

When Mulinu'u II died in 1963, who was left as the sole head of state?

**Question 7**

What kind of government was Tamasese before it became a de facto parliamentary republic?

**Question 8**

How long was Malietoa Tanumafili II elected in 2007?

**Question 9**

What happened when Malietoa Tanumafili II stood for re-election in 2012?

**Text number 9**

The unicameral legislature (Fono) is composed of 49 members who serve for 5 years. Forty-seven are elected by Samoans from the regional districts to hold the title of matai; the other two are elected from separate electoral lists by non-Samoans who have no connection to the Chief. Universal suffrage was introduced in 1990, but only chiefs (matai) can stand for Samoan seats. There are more than 25 000 matai in the country, of whom around 5% are women. The Prime Minister, elected by the Fono by majority vote, is appointed by the Head of State to form the government. The Head of State appoints the Prime Minister's choices to 12 government posts, and the Fono gives them a permanent vote of confidence.

**Question 0**

What do Samoans call their legislative soul?

**Question 1**

How many Fono members are there?

**Question 2**

How many of Fono's members are elected to the post?

**Question 3**

What is the percentage of female matrices in Samoa?

**Question 4**

Which position on the board is elected by majority vote in Fono?

**Question 5**

In what year was Fono founded?

**Question 6**

How many non-Samolians are there in the country?

**Question 7**

How many cabinet posts are appointed by women?

**Question 8**

What is one thing that women don't have when they are members of Fono?

**Question 9**

What year were women allowed to stand in Samoan elections?

**Text number 10**

The capital village of each district manages and coordinates the affairs of the district and, among other things, provides the highest title in each district. For example, the district capital of A'ana is Leulumoega. The highest title in A'ana is TuiA'ana. The oratorical group that confers this title - the Faleiva (house of nine) - is located in Leulumoega. The same applies to the other regions. In the Tuamasaga district, the highest title in the district - the title of Malietoa - is awarded by FaleTuamasaga, located in Afega.

**Question 0**

Which district is the capital of Leulumoega?

**Question 1**

What is the Samoan word for "house of nine" in Leulumoega?

**Question 2**

What is A'ana's primary title?

**Question 3**

What is the top name of the Tuamasaga district?

**Question 4**

In which city does FaleTuamasaga do business?

**Question 5**

What are Afega's responsibilities in each district?

**Question 6**

What is the word for Afega according to the group of speakers?

**Question 7**

What is the preferred name for a village in the Capital Region?

**Question 8**

What is the highest title in the Afega district?

**Question 9**

In which city does TuiA'ana do business?

**Text number 11**

The Samoan islands are the result of volcanism, the source of which is the Samoan hotspot, probably caused by a mantle cloud. Although all the islands are of volcanic origin, only Savai'i, Samoa's westernmost island, is volcanically active, with the most recent eruptions occurring on Matavanu Mountain (1905-1911), Mata o le Af (1902) and Mauga Af (1725). The highest point on Samoa is Mount Silisili at 1858 m. The Saleaula lava fields on the northern coast of Savai'i are the result of the eruptions of Mount Matavanu, which left behind 50 km² of solidified lava.

**Question 0**

What natural process formed the land masses that became the islands of Samoa?

**Question 1**

Which of Samoa's islands have active volcanoes?

**Question 2**

What is the name of Samoa's highest peak?

**Question 3**

How many metres is 6 096 feet?

**Question 4**

Which volcano created the lava fields of Saleaula?

**Question 5**

What is the source of the solidified lava of Mata o le Af?

**Question 6**

What is different about Mauga Afi compared to other islands?

**Question 7**

What is the highest point of Mauga Af?

**Question 8**

When was the nappy cloud discovered near Magua Alf?

**Question 9**

What is Mata o le Afi likely to be the result of?

**Text number 12**

The country's currency is the Samoan tālā, issued by the Central Bank of Samoa. Samoa's economy has traditionally been dependent on agriculture and fishing at the local level. In modern times, development aid, remittances from private families abroad and the export of agricultural products have become key factors in the country's economy. Agriculture employs two-thirds of the workforce and accounts for 90% of exports, which include coconut cream, coconut oil, noni (nonu fruit juice, as it is called in Samoan) and copra.

**Question 0**

Which institution is responsible for Samoa's currency?

**Question 1**

Which industry besides agriculture has supported Samoa's local economy?

**Question 2**

Which fruit juice is Samoa's main export?

**Question 3**

How much of Samoa works in agriculture?

**Question 4**

What kind of oil does Samoa export?

**Question 5**

How much of the country uses Samoa land?

**Question 6**

What percentage of Samoans receive money from abroad?

**Question 7**

What resources does Samoa not produce and has to import?

**Question 8**

What percentage of Samoans are fishermen?

**Question 9**

What fruit has Samoan tala traditionally depended on?

**Text number 13**

The Samoan government has called for deregulation of the financial sector, the promotion of investment and continued fiscal discipline. Observers see labour market flexibility as a fundamental strength for future economic development.The sector has been greatly helped by large capital investments in hotel infrastructure, political instability in neighbouring Pacific countries and the creation in 2005 of Virgin Samoa, a joint venture between the government and Virgin Australia (then Virgin Blue).

**Question 0**

In which sector would the Samoan government like to see deregulation?

**Question 1**

Which segment's flexibility could support Samoa's economic growth?

**Question 2**

Which infrastructure has benefited greatly from capital investment?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the team between Samoa and Virgin Australia?

**Question 4**

Does Samoa benefit or suffer from the political upheavals in the surrounding countries?

**Question 5**

What have our Pacific neighbours demanded?

**Question 6**

What is the strength of Virgin Blue and its activities?

**Question 7**

What two things have helped the launch of Virgin Samoa?

**Question 8**

What year did the Samoan government call for financial deregulation?

**Question 9**

What was launched as a joint venture between Pacific countries and venture capitalists?

**Text number 14**

Before the German colonial occupation, Samoa produced mainly copra. German traders and settlers actively introduced large-scale plantations and developed new industries, particularly cocoa beans and rubber, relying on workers imported from China and Melanesia. When the value of natural rubber plummeted around the end of the First World War (WWI), the New Zealand government encouraged the production of bananas, for which there is a large market in New Zealand[citation needed].

**Question 0**

What was Samoa's main product before the Germans arrived?

**Question 1**

At the end of the First World War, the price of which product fell significantly?

**Question 2**

What did Samoa start growing more of to make up for the lost value of rubber?

**Question 3**

Which country's government wanted Samoa to grow bananas for them?

**Question 4**

Besides Melanesia, which country sent a lot of workers to Samoa's cocoa and rubber plantations?

**Question 5**

What did China produce before the Melanesian colonisation?

**Question 6**

What new industries did China produce in Somoa?

**Question 7**

What happened when the price of cocoa beans fell?

**Question 8**

Which products have a large market in Melanesia?

**Question 9**

Which groups developed new industries and plantations in Melanesia?

**Text number 15**

Samoa's staple products are copra (dried coconut meat), cocoa beans (for chocolate) and bananas. Annual production of both bananas and copra has been between 13 000 and 15 000 metric tonnes (about 14 500 to 16 500 short tonnes). If the hornbill were eradicated from Samoa, Samoa could produce over 40 000 metric tonnes (44 000 short tonnes) of copra. Samoa's cocoa beans are of very high quality and are used in fine New Zealand chocolates. Most are Criollo-Forastero hybrids. Coffee grows well, but production has been uneven. WSTEC is the largest coffee producer. Rubber has been produced in Samoa for years, but its export value has little impact on the economy [referred ].

**Question 0**

What is a copra?

**Question 1**

How many tonnes of bananas and copra does Samoa produce each year?

**Question 2**

Which pest is the biggest threat to Samoan crops?

**Question 3**

Are cocoa beans grown in Samoa of high or low quality?

**Question 4**

Which company produces more coffee than any other in Samoa?

**Question 5**

How many tonnes is the annual production of coffee?

**Question 6**

What would happen if rubber was not produced in Samoa?

**Question 7**

What kind of coffee plants are grown in Samoa?

**Question 8**

Which company is the biggest producer of copra?

**Question 9**

What is the impact of the value of copra exports on the economy?

**Text number 16**

Samoans' religious affiliations include Christian parish church 31.8%, Roman Catholic 19.4%, Methodist 15.2%, Church of God 13.7%, Mormon 7.6%, Seventh Day Adventist 3.9%, Worship Centre 1.7%, Other Christian 5.5%, Other 0.7%, None 0.1%, Unspecified 0.1% (2011 estimate). Until 2007, the head of state, His Highness Malietoa Tanumafili II, was a Bahá'í convert. Samoa has one of the seven Bahá'í houses of worship in the world; it was completed in 1984 and inaugurated by the Head of State. It is located in Tiapapata, 8 km from Apia.

**Question 0**

What is the most popular church in Samoa?

**Question 1**

What percentage of Samoa's population are Mormons?

**Question 2**

Where is the Bahá'í place of worship in Samoa?

**Question 3**

Which Samoan head of state may have worshipped in a Bahá'í house of worship?

**Question 4**

Which religion is practised by 19.4% of the Samoan population?

**Question 5**

What percentage of Samoans were Methodists in 2007?

**Question 6**

Who was Samoa's Head of State until 2011?

**Question 7**

When was the Roman Catholic church built in Samoa?

**Question 8**

Who consecrated the Roman Catholic church built in 1984 in Samoa?

**Question 9**

Where is the Roman Catholic Church in Samoa?

**Text number 17**

Some Samoans are spiritual and religious, and have subtly adapted the dominant religion of Christianity to "fit in" with Fa'a Samoa and vice versa. Thus, ancient beliefs continue to co-exist with Christianity, especially in terms of traditional customs and rituals of Fa'a Samoa. At the heart of Samoan culture is the principle of vāfealoa'i, the relationship between people. These relationships are based on respect, or fa'aaloaloa. When Christianity was introduced to Samoa, most Samoans converted. Today, 98% of the population professes to be Christians.

**Question 0**

What is the religion of the majority of Samoans?

**Question 1**

Which word for relationships is at the heart of Samoan culture?

**Question 2**

What word is used in Samoa to mean "respect"?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Samoans call themselves Christians?

**Question 4**

What religion does the fa'aaloalo practice?

**Question 5**

What word sums up the core beliefs of Christianity?

**Question 6**

What percentage of the population believes in Fa'a Samoa?

**Question 7**

What is the practice of Christianity based on?

**Question 8**

What happened when fa'a Samoa was introduced?

**Text number 18**

The Samoan word for dance is siva, which includes unique gentle body movements to music and tells a story, although Samoan men's dances can be more physical and upbeat. Sasa is also a traditional dance in which rows of dancers perform quick synchronized movements to the beat of wooden drums (pate) or rolled mats. Another male dance is the fa'ataupati, or slap dance, which creates rhythmic sounds by slapping different parts of the body. The dance is believed to have originated from the slapping of insects on the body.

**Question 0**

What does "siva" mean in Samoan?

**Question 1**

What is the name of the traditional Samoan dance, which is performed in synchronised rows?

**Question 2**

What are pates?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the Samoan dance that only men can dance?

**Question 4**

"Slap dance" probably imitates the movements of the Samoans trying to get rid of what creature?

**Question 5**

What is the Samoan word for rhythm?

**Question 6**

What is another dance that men don't do?

**Question 7**

Why was the shiva dance created?

**Question 8**

What kind of tools are used to perform the page?

**Question 9**

What else does a sasa do besides having unique gentle body movements to music?

**Text number 19**

Albert Wendt is a prominent Samoan writer whose novels and stories tell the stories of the Samoan experience. In 1989, his novel The Flying Fox in the Tree of Liberty was made into a feature film in New Zealand, directed by Martyn Sanderson. Another novel, Sons for the Return Home, was also made into a feature film in 1979, directed by Paul Maunder. Born on American Samoa, John Kneubuhl was an accomplished playwright, screenwriter and author. Sia Figiel won the 1997 Commonwealth Writers' Prize for fiction in the South East Asia/Pacific region for her novel 'Where We Once Belonged'. Momoe Von Reiche is an internationally acclaimed poet and artist. Tusiata Avia is a performance poet. Her first book of poetry, Wild Dogs Under My Skirt, was published by Victoria University Press in 2004. Dan Taulapapa McMullin is an artist and writer. Other Samoan poets and writers include Sapa'u Ruperake Petaia, Eti Sa'aga and Savea Sano Malifa, editor of the Samoa Observer.

**Question 0**

Which Samoan author wrote Flying Fox in Freedom Tree?

**Question 1**

In which country was The Flying Fox in the Tree of Liberty made into a feature film?

**Question 2**

Which Wendt novel was made into a film directed by Paul Maunder?

**Question 3**

Who won the Commonwealth Writers' Prize for fiction for their book "Where We Once Belonged"?

**Question 4**

What kind of literature does Tusiata Avia write?

**Question 5**

Which novel was written by Martyn Sanderson?

**Question 6**

What happened to Martyn Sanderson's novel in 1989?

**Question 7**

What did Paul Maunder win in 1997?

**Question 8**

Which novel was written by Paul Maunder?

**Question 9**

Which book of poetry was published by John Kneubuhl in 2004?

**Text number 20**

Popular local bands include The Five Stars, Penina o Tiafau and Punialava'a. The Yandall Sisters' cover song Sweet Inspiration reached number one in New Zealand in 1974. King Kapisi was the first hip hop artist to win New Zealand's prestigious APRA Silver Scroll Award in 1999 for his song Reverse Resistance. The music video for Reverse Resistance was filmed on Savai in his village. Other successful Samoan hip hop artists include rapper Scribe, Dei Hamo, Savage and Tha Feelstyle, whose music video Suamalie was filmed in Samoa.

**Question 0**

Which popular Samoan band has a number in its name?

**Question 1**

Which song covered by a Samoan band was number one in New Zealand in 1974?

**Question 2**

Which award did King Kapisi win for his song Reverse Resistance?

**Question 3**

Which hip hop artist shot the music video for his song Suamalie on Samoa?

**Question 4**

What year was King Kapisi the first hip hop artist to win the APRA Silver Scroll?

**Question 5**

When did The Five Stars hit number one in New Zealand?

**Question 6**

Which prize was awarded to Penina o Tiafu in 1999?

**Question 7**

For which song did Penina o Tiafau win an award in 1999?

**Question 8**

What style of music does Penina o Tiafau use?

**Question 9**

Where was The Five Stars music video filmed?

**Text number 21**

Lemi Ponifasio is a director and choreographer who is internationally renowned with his dance company MAU. Neil Ieremia's Black Grace ensemble has also received international recognition for its tours in Europe and New York. Hip hop has had a significant impact on Samoan culture. According to Dr. Katerina Martina Teaiwa of the University of Hawaii at Manoa, "hip hop culture in particular is popular among Samoan youth". As in very many other countries, hip hop music is popular. Moreover, the integration of hip hop elements into the Samoan tradition "also testifies to the portability of the dance forms themselves" and the "circularity through which people and all their embodied knowledge pass". Dance, both in its traditional form and in its more modern forms, has remained a key cultural currency for Samoans, especially young people.

**Question 0**

What name did Lemi Ponifasio give his dance group?

**Question 1**

Which musical genre had a major influence on Samoan culture?

**Question 2**

Which Samoan choreographer founded Black Grace?

**Question 3**

Which professor from the University of Hawaii at Manoa wrote about the relationship between hip hop, dance and traditional Samoan culture?

**Question 4**

Among which age group is hip hop and dance most popular in Samoa?

**Question 5**

What has Neil Leremia's company MAU gained from its tours in Europe and NY?

**Question 6**

What is Lemi Ponifasio's role in Black Grace?

**Question 7**

What is popular among Samoan youth, according to Lemi Ponifasio?

**Question 8**

Among which group is the MAU dance group popular?

**Question 9**

What form of dance is taught at the University of Hawaii?

**Text number 22**

Director Sima Urale is an award-winning filmmaker. Urale's short film O Tamaiti won the prestigious Best Short Film award at the 1996 Venice Film Festival. Her first feature film Apron Strings opened the 2008 NZ International Film Festival. Siones Wedding, a feature film co-written with Oscar Kightley, was financially successful after premiering in Auckland and Apia. The Orator, completed in 2011, was the first fully Samoan film shot in Samoa in the Samoan language, with Samoan actors telling a uniquely Samoan story. Written and directed by Tusi Tamasese, the film received much praise and attention at film festivals around the world.

**Question 0**

Who made the film O Tamaiti?

**Question 1**

What was Sima Urale's first feature film?

**Question 2**

Which film was the first ever all-Samoan production?

**Question 3**

Who wrote and directed The Orator?

**Question 4**

What year was Apron Strings the opening film of the NZ International Film Festival?

**Question 5**

Which film directed by Oscar Knightley won the Best Short Film award in 1996?

**Question 6**

At which event did Oscar Knightley's first feature film open?

**Question 7**

What was the name of the first all-Samoan film made in 1996?

**Question 8**

Who wrote and directed The Wedding of Siones in 2011?

**Question 9**

Where did the film Apron Strings receive critical acclaim and attention in 2011?

**Text number 23**

Rugby union is Samoa's national sport, and the national team, nicknamed Manu Samoa, is consistently competitive against teams from much more populous countries. Samoa has participated in every Rugby World Cup since 1991, reaching the quarter-finals in 1991 and 1995 and the second round of the 1999 World Cup. At the 2003 World Cup, Manu Samoa came close to beating eventual world champions England. Samoa also played in the Pacific Nations Cup and the Pacific Tri-Nations The sport is managed by the Samoa Rugby Football Union, a member of the Pacific Islands Rugby Alliance, and therefore also participates in the international Pacific Islands Rugby Union team.

**Question 0**

Why do Samoans call their national rugby team affectionate?

**Question 1**

Since which year has Samoa's team not missed out on the Rugby World Cup?

**Question 2**

Which organisation manages the Samoa rugby team?

**Question 3**

Which world champion team was almost beaten by Manu Samoa in 2003?

**Question 4**

What year did Manu Samoa qualify for the second round of the World Cup?

**Question 5**

What is England's national sport?

**Question 6**

How long has England participated in every Rugby World Cup?

**Question 7**

How often did England reach the quarter-finals?

**Question 8**

When was England close to beating Samoa?

**Question 9**

Which union has England been a member of since 1991?

**Text number 24**

Rugby League is mostly played by Samoans living in New Zealand and Australia,[citation needed] with Samoa reaching the quarter-finals of the 2013 Rugby League World Cup made up of players playing in the NRL, Super League and domestic players. Many Samoans and New Zealanders or Australians of Samoan descent play in the Super League and National Leagues in the UK. Francis Meli, Ta'ane Lavulavu from Workington Town, Maurie Fa'asavalu from St Helens and David Fatialofa from Whitehaven, as well as Setima Sa, who signed a contract with London Irish Rugby Club. Other prominent players from New Zealand and Australia have also represented the Samoan national team. In 2011, 10 teams participated in the Samoan Rugby League domestic competition, with plans to increase the number of teams to 12 in 2012.

**Question 0**

In which competition did the Samoa rugby team reach the quarter-finals in 2013?

**Question 1**

In which country other than Australia might Samoan rugby players live?

**Question 2**

Which Samoan rugby player has signed a contract with London Irish rugby club?

**Question 3**

How many teams played in the Samoa Rugby League in 2011?

**Question 4**

Which rugby club did Maurie Fa'asavalu play for?

**Question 5**

What do Australians living in New Zealand play most often?

**Question 6**

Which players made up the British rugby team in 2013?

**Question 7**

How many teams played in the 2013 Rugby League World Cup?

**Question 8**

Which rugby club did Francis Meli sign with in 2012?

**Question 9**

How many teams will there be in the NRL in 2012?

**Document number 227**

**Text number 0**

Pope Paul VI (Latin Paulus VI, Italian Paolo VI), born Giovanni Battista Enrico Antonio Maria Montini (Italian pronunciation: [dʒioˈvani baˈtista enˈriko anˈtonjo marˈija monˈtini]; 26 September 1897 - 6 August 1978), reigned as Pope from 21 June 1963 until his death in 1978. As successor to Pope John XXIII, he continued the Second Vatican Council, which he had concluded in 1965, and implemented its numerous reforms and promoted better ecumenical relations with Eastern Orthodox and Protestants, leading to many historic meetings and agreements. Montini served in the Vatican Secretariat of State from 1922 to 1954. While in the Secretariat of State, Montini and Domenico Tardini were considered the closest and most influential colleagues of Pope Pius XII, and in 1954 Pope Pius XII appointed Montini Archbishop of Milan, the largest diocese in Italy. Montini automatically became secretary of the Italian Bishops' Conference. He was elevated to the College of Cardinals by John XXIII in 1958, and after John XXIII's death Montini was considered one of his most likely successors.

**Question 0**

On what day was Pope Paul VI born?

**Question 1**

On what day did Pope Paul VI die?

**Question 2**

In what year did Pope Paul VI end the Second Vatican Council?

**Question 3**

When was Paul VI elected Pope?

**Question 4**

What was Pope Paul VI's first name at birth?

**Text number 1**

When Montini was elected Pope, he took the papal name Paul VI (the first to take the name "Paul" since 1605) to signify a renewed worldwide mission to spread the message of Christ, following the example of the Apostle St Paul.He reconvened the Second Vatican Council, which had automatically ended with the death of John XXIII, and gave it priority and direction. After the Council had completed its work, Paul VI took over the interpretation and implementation of its mandates, often walking a fine line between the conflicting expectations of the various factions of Catholicism. The breadth and depth of the reforms which affected all areas of Church life during his pontificate went beyond the similar reform policies of his predecessors and successors. Paul VI was a Marian devotee who spoke repeatedly at Marian congresses and Mariological meetings, visited Marian shrines and published three Marian encyclicals. Following his famous predecessor, St Ambrose of Milan, he appointed Mary Mother of the Church at the Second Vatican Council. Paul VI sought dialogue with the world, with other Christians, other religions and atheists, without excluding anyone. He saw himself as a humble servant of a suffering humanity and demanded significant changes from the rich of North America and Europe for the poor of the Third World. His views on birth control, most famously published in the 1968 cycle Humanae vitae, and other political issues were often controversial, especially in Western Europe and North America.

**Question 0**

What kind of believer was Pope Paul VI?

**Question 1**

What name had not been used for the Pope since 1605?

**Question 2**

In what year was the name "Paul" last used as a papal name before Pope Paul VI became Pope?

**Question 3**

What did Pope Paul VI reconvene when he became Pope?

**Question 4**

Which publication promoted Pope Paul VI's views on abortion?

**Text number 2**

Giovanni Battista Montini was born in the village of Concesio in the province of Brescia, Lombardy, in 1897. His father Giorgio Montini was a lawyer, journalist, leader of Catholic activities and member of the Italian Parliament. His mother was Giudetta Alghisi, from a rural noble family. He had two brothers, Francesco Montini, who became a doctor, and Lodovico Montini, who became a lawyer and politician. He was baptised Giovanni Battista Enrico Antonio Antonio Maria Montini on 30 September 1897. He attended the Jesuit-run Cesare Arici School and in 1916 he obtained a diploma from the Arnaldo da Brescia Public School in Brescia. Illness often interrupted his studies.

**Question 0**

In which Italian province was Giovanni Battista Montini born?

**Question 1**

In which Italian village was Giovanni Battista Montini born?

**Question 2**

Which political organisation was Giovanni's father a member of?

**Question 3**

How many brothers did Giovanni have?

**Question 4**

Where did Giovanni's mother come from?

**Text number 3**

In 1916, he entered a seminary to become a Roman Catholic priest. He was ordained on 29 May 1920 in Brescia and celebrated his first Mass in Brescia, in the Basilica of Santa Maria delle Grazie. Montini completed his studies in Milan and in the same year he obtained a doctorate in canon law. He then studied at the Gregorian University, La Sapienza University in Rome and, at the request of Giuseppe Pizzardo, at the Accademia dei Nobili Ecclesiastici. In 1922, at the age of twenty-five, again at the request of Giuseppe Pizzardo, Montini moved to the Secretariat of State, where he worked under Pizzardo, together with Francesco Borgongini-Duca, Alfredo Ottaviani, Carlo Grano, Domenico Tardini and Francis Spellman. Thus he did not spend a single day as vicar. In 1925 he co-founded the Morcelliana publishing house in Brescia, which focused on the promotion of 'Christian culture'.

**Question 0**

In what year did Montini enter a Catholic seminary to become a priest?

**Question 1**

In which field did Montini obtain his doctorate?

**Question 2**

In which city did Montini complete his doctorate?

**Question 3**

At what age did Montini join the Secretariat of State?

**Question 4**

Where did Montini continue his studies at the request of Giuseppe Pizzardo?

**Text number 4**

The only foreign diplomatic experience Montini had was his work at the Nunciature in Warsaw, Poland in 1923. Like Achille Ratti before him,[a] he felt confronted with the enormous problem of excessive nationalism, which was not limited to Poland: 'This form of nationalism treats foreigners as enemies, especially foreigners with whom we share borders. The aim is to expand one's own country at the expense of one's immediate neighbours. People grow up feeling isolated. Peace becomes a temporary compromise between wars." When he was invited back to Rome, he was happy to go, because "this is the end of a period in my life that has provided useful, if not always happy, experiences".

**Question 0**

What political problem did Montini feel he needed to solve as a diplomat in Poland?

**Question 1**

How did Montini see Polish nationalism as a problem?

**Question 2**

What humanitarian concept did Montini consider nationalism to violate?

**Question 3**

What kind of political stability was threatened by violent nationalism?

**Question 4**

Where did Montini like to return to after his season in Poland?

**Text number 5**

His organisational skills led him to a career in the Roman Curia, the papal civil service. In 1931, Pacelli appointed him to teach history at the Pontifical Diplomatic Academy In 1937, when his mentor Giuseppe Pizzardo was appointed Cardinal and succeeded by Domenico Tardini, Montini was appointed under Cardinal Pacelli as Deputy for Ordinary Affairs, who was Secretary of State to Pope Pius XI. From Pius XI, whom he respected, he adopted the view that learning was a lifelong process and that history was the magister vitae of life. His closest superior in the Vatican was Domenico Tardini, with whom he got on well. Pacelli's election as Pope in 1939, which everyone expected and which Pope Pius XI openly promoted in his last years, was a good omen for Montini, whose position was strengthened under the new Cardinal Secretary of State Luigi Maglione. He met the Pope every morning until 1954, developing a very close relationship:

**Question 0**

What kind of natural ability helped Montini in his career in the Roman Curia?

**Question 1**

When was Paccelli elected Pope?

**Question 2**

With whom did Montini have the relationship that eventually prepared him for the papacy?

**Question 3**

Where did Montini teach history?

**Question 4**

Who was Montini's mentor who eventually became a cardinal?

**Text number 6**

At the outbreak of war, Maglione, Tardini and Montini were the main figures in the Vatican's Ministry of Foreign Affairs, since during the war years they were the ones who sent or received the dispatches addressed to them. Montini was responsible for the 'ordinary business' of the Secretariat of State, which took up a large part of the morning of each working day. In the afternoons he moved to the third floor of the Pope's private secretary's office. Pius XII had no personal secretary. Like many popes before him, he delegated his secretarial duties to the Secretariat of State. During the war years, thousands of letters arrived on the Pope's desk from all over the world, most of them asking for understanding, prayer and help. Montini's task was to formulate replies in the name of Pius XII, expressing his sympathy and understanding and offering help where possible.

**Question 0**

Which department did Montini supervise while working in the Secretariat of State?

**Question 1**

To which organisation did Montini, Maglione and Tardini belong?

**Question 2**

What role did Montini play for Pius XII?

**Question 3**

To what did Montini respond on behalf of Pius XII?

**Question 4**

What time was Montini in charge of Vatican communications?

**Text number 7**

At the Pope's request, he set up an information office for prisoners of war and refugees, which between 1939 and 1947 received almost ten million (9 891 497) requests for information and provided more than eleven million (11 293 511) answers about missing persons. On several occasions, the government of Benito Mussolini openly attacked Montini as a politician and political interloper, but on each occasion he was strongly defended by the Vatican. In 1944, Luigi Maglione died and Pius XII appointed Tardini and Montini as joint heads of the Foreign Ministry. Montini's admiration was almost childish when he described Pope Pius XII:

**Question 0**

In what year was the Prisoners and Refugees Information Office set up?

**Question 1**

How many enquiries about missing persons has Mintini received?

**Question 2**

What did the Italian government accuse Montini of?

**Question 3**

With whom did Montini feel he had a brother-like connection?

**Question 4**

Which Italian Prime Minister attacked Montini for his political positions?

**Text number 8**

As Secretary of State, Montini coordinates outreach to the persecuted in monasteries, parishes, seminaries and church schools. At the Pope's request, together with Pascalina Lehnert, Ferdinando Baldelli and Otto Faller, he founded the Pontificia Commissione di Assistenza, which helped a large number of Romans and refugees from all over the world with accommodation, food and other material aid. In Rome alone, this organisation distributed nearly two million portions of free food in 1944. The Vatican and the papal residence Castel Gandolfo were opened to refugees. In Castel Gandolfo alone, some 15,000 people lived, supported by the Pontificia Commissione di Assistenza. At the request of Pius XII, Montini also contributed to the re-establishment of the Church Sanctuary and offered protection to hundreds of Allied soldiers who had escaped from the Axis prison camps, Jews, anti-fascists, socialists, communists and, after the liberation of Rome, German soldiers, partisans and other displaced persons. After the war, and later as Pope, Montini transformed the Pontificia Commissione di Assistenza into the largest charity, Caritas Italiana[b].

**Question 0**

Who asked Montini to join the Church Asylum movement?

**Question 1**

To which wartime group did the Vatican and the Papal Residence open its doors?

**Question 2**

How many people lived in Castel Gofolfo during the war?

**Question 3**

Which organisation did Montini set up with other colleagues to help refugees?

**Question 4**

What did Montini seek to restore to help persecuted Jews and Allied soldiers?

**Text number 9**

Pius XII spoke about Montini's appointment from his sickbed on the radio to the congregation of St. Peter's on December 12, 1954. Both Montini and the Pope had tears in their eyes when Montini resigned from their dioceses, which had 1 000 churches, 2 500 priests and 3 500 000 souls. On 5 January 1955, Montini officially took over his Milan Cathedral. After preparations, Montini held his new duties as Archbishop and kept in touch with all groups of believers in Milan. He enjoyed meetings with intellectuals, artists and writers.

**Question 0**

In what year did Pius XII give a radio address announcing the appointment of Montini as Pope?

**Question 1**

In which year did Montini become Archbishop of the Milan Cathedral?

**Question 2**

On what day did Montini become Archbishop of Milan?

**Question 3**

In which Italian city was Montini appointed archbishop?

**Question 4**

Where was Pius XII when he announced the appointment of Montini as Archbishop?

**Text number 10**

Montini and Angelo Roncalli were considered friends, but when Roncalli as Pope John XXIII announced the new Ecumenical Council, Cardinal Montini reacted with disbelief and said to Giulio Bevilacqua: "This old boy doesn't know what kind of hornet's nest he is stirring up." He was appointed to the central preparatory commission in 1961. During the Council, his friend Pope John XXIII invited him to live in the Vatican. He was a member of the Commission for Special Affairs, but took little part in the discussions on the various issues. His main adviser was Monsignor Giovanni Colombo, whom he later appointed to succeed him in Milan. The Commission was greatly overshadowed by John XXIII's insistence that all the Council's work be completed in a single session before Christmas 1962, the 400th anniversary of the Council of Trento, a demand which may have been influenced by the Pope's recent knowledge that he had cancer.

**Question 0**

Which group was Montini against reforming?

**Question 1**

In which year was Montini appointed as a member of the Central Preparatory Commission?

**Question 2**

Where did the Pope ask Cardinal Montini to live?

**Question 3**

What did Montini avoid as a member of the Committee on Supplementary Affairs?

**Question 4**

What illness had the Pope contracted?

**Text number 11**

During his time in Milan, Montini was known as a progressive member of the Catholic hierarchy. Montini broke new ground in pastoral care, which he reformed. He used his authority to ensure that Pius XII's liturgical reforms were implemented at local level, and used innovative methods to reach out to the people of Milan: huge posters announced that 1,000 voices would speak to them between 10 and 24 November 1957. More than 500 priests and many bishops, cardinals and lay people gave 7,000 sermons during that period, not only in churches but also in factories, meeting rooms, houses, courtyards, schools, offices, military barracks, hospitals, hotels and other places where people gather. His aim was to restore faith in a city where religion was almost non-existent. "If only we could say the Lord's Prayer and know what it means, we would understand the Christian faith."

**Question 0**

What political views was Montini known for as a member of the Catholic leadership?

**Question 1**

Which part of the Catholic priesthood did Montini seek to reform?

**Question 2**

What media did Montini use to promote the church's sermons to the people of Milan?

**Question 3**

How many "voices" did Montini's posters claim the people of Milan could hear?

**Question 4**

How many sermons were preached to the Italian people between 10 November and 24 November?

**Text number 12**

Archbishop Montini was invited by Pius XII to Rome in October 1957, where he gave the keynote address at the Second Congress of Lay Apostles of the World. Previously, as pro-secretary, he had worked diligently to unite a worldwide organization of lay people from 58 nations, representing 42 national orders. He presented them to Pius XII in Rome in 1951. The second meeting in 1957 gave Montini the opportunity to express the lay apostolate in modern terms. We love everyone, but especially those who need help... We will love our time, our technology, our art, our sport, our world."

**Question 0**

Who did Montini address as Archbishop in 1957?

**Question 1**

According to Montini, what does the term apostolate mean?

**Question 2**

How many nations did Montini hope to unite as Secretary-General?

**Question 3**

When was Montini's first meeting to discuss the unification of Catholic lay members?

**Text number 13**

Although some cardinals seem to have considered him a papabile, a likely candidate for the papacy, and he may have received some votes in the 1958 conclave, Montini was not yet a cardinal, making him an unlikely choice.On 28 October 1958, Angelo Roncalli was elected pope and took the name John XXIII. On 17 November 1958, L'Osservatore Romano announced a consistory to create new cardinals. Montini's name topped the list. When the Pope elevated Montini to the cardinalate on 15 December 1958, he became Ss. Silvestro e Martino ai Monti Cardinal Priest. He simultaneously appointed him to several Vatican congregations, which led to Montini's many visits to Rome in the years to come.

**Question 0**

What role was Montini not considered a likely candidate for?

**Question 1**

What was to come from Montini?

**Question 2**

Who was elected Pope in 1958?

**Question 3**

When did Montini finally become a cardinal?

**Question 4**

Which Cardinal Montini became Cardinal of which diocese?

**Text number 14**

As Cardinal Montini travelled to Africa (1962), where he visited Ghana, Sudan, Kenya, Congo, Rhodesia, South Africa and Nigeria. After the trip, John XXIII gave him a private audience during the trip, which lasted several hours. On his fifteen other trips, he visited Brazil (1960) and the United States (1960), including New York, Washington, Chicago, Notre Dame University in Indiana, Boston, Philadelphia and Baltimore. During his time as Cardinal, he usually spent his holidays at Engelberg Abbey, a remote Benedictine monastery in Switzerland.

**Question 0**

Which country did Montini visit as a cardinal?

**Question 1**

In which year did Montini travel to Africa as a cardinal?

**Question 2**

How many foreign trips did Montini make as a cardinal?

**Question 3**

What year did Montini visit the United States?

**Question 4**

Where did Montini like to retire as a cardinal?

**Text number 15**

Unlike the papabile cardinals Giacomo Lercaro, Cardinal of Bologna, and Giuseppe Siri, Cardinal of Genoa, he was not identified with either the left or the right, nor was he considered a radical reformer. He was considered the most likely to continue the Vatican II Council, which, already without concrete results, had lasted longer than John XXIII, who had a vision but "no clear programme", had expected. His rhetoric seems to have had a tone of excessive optimism, a confidence in progress that was characteristic of the 1960s." When John XXIII died of stomach cancer on 3 June 1963, it triggered a conclave to elect a new pope.

**Question 0**

What role was Montini not considered to play, unlike some of his fellow cardinals?

**Question 1**

Which organisation did the church expect Montini to continue?

**Question 2**

What illness caused the death of Pope John XXIII?

**Question 3**

What year did Pope John XXIII die?

**Question 4**

What role did the death of Pope John XXIII play in the election of the Pope?

**Text number 16**

Paul VI removed much of the papacy's royal glory. He was the last pope to be crowned for the time being; his successor, Pope John Paul I, replaced papal coronations (which Paul had already changed considerably, but which he left obligatory in his 1975 apostolic constitution Romano Pontifici Eligendo) with papal inaugurations. Paul VI donated his own papal tiara, a gift from his former archdiocese of Milan, to the Basilica of the National Shrine of the Immaculate Conception in Washington, DC (where it is on permanent display in a crypt) as a gift to American Catholics.

**Question 0**

What did Paul VI donate to the Basilica of the National Shrine of the Immaculate Conception?

**Question 1**

Which group gave Paul VI the papal tiara?

**Question 2**

Where is the Basilica of the National Shrine of the Immaculate Conception?

**Question 3**

Who was the last pope to be crowned?

**Question 4**

Which ceremony was left in place by Paul VI in the 1975 Apostolic Constitution?

**Text number 17**

During the Vatican II Council, the Council Fathers avoided statements that might anger Christians of other faiths. The President of the Secretariat of Christian Unity, Cardinal Augustin Bea, always had the full support of Paul VI in his efforts to ensure that the language of the Council was friendly and open to the sensitivities of the Protestant and Orthodox Churches, which he had invited to all sessions at the request of Pope John XXIII. Bea was also heavily involved in the adoption of Nostra aetate, which regulates the Church's relations with the Jewish faith and members of other religions[d].

**Question 0**

Who was the chairman of the Christian Unity Secretariat?

**Question 1**

What did Paul VI believe in in maintaining a friendly attitude towards people of other Christian faiths?

**Question 2**

Who insisted that Protestant and Orthodox Christians be invited to all Council meetings?

**Question 3**

Which cardinal was heavily involved in the passage of Nostra aetate?

**Question 4**

Which Vatican tried to avoid offending other Christian faiths with the sessional language of the advisers?

**Text number 18**

After being elected bishop of Rome, Paul VI first met the priests of his new dioceses. He told them that in Milan he was beginning a dialogue with the modern world and asked them to seek communion with all people in all walks of life. Six days after his election, he announced that he would continue Vatican II and convened the inauguration on 29 September 1963. In his radio address to the world, Paul VI recalled the uniqueness of his predecessors, the strength of Pius XI, the wisdom and intelligence of Pius XII and the love of John XXIII. As his "papal objectives", he mentioned the continuation and completion of Vatican II, the reform of canon law and the improvement of social peace and justice in the world. The unity of Christianity would be at the heart of his action.

**Question 0**

What did Paul VI want to keep open with the modern world and with people from all walks of life?

**Question 1**

How many days after Paul VI's election did he announce that he would continue Vatican II?

**Question 2**

On what day did Vatican II reconvene?

**Question 3**

What did Paul VI announce six days after his election that he would continue to do?

**Question 4**

What did Paul want to renew as newly elected Pope?

**Text number 19**

He reminded the Fathers of the Council that only a few years earlier, Pope Pius XII had published the encyclical Mystici corporis on the mystical body of Christ. He asked them not to repeat or create new dogmatic definitions, but to explain in simple words how the Church sees herself. He thanked the representatives of other Christian communities for their presence and asked their forgiveness if the Catholic Church was guilty of divorce. He also reminded the Council Fathers that many Eastern bishops were unable to attend because Eastern governments did not allow their travel.

**Question 0**

What order did Pope Pius XXIII give concerning the body of Christ?

**Question 1**

How does the Catholic liturgy relate to the body of Christ?

**Question 2**

In what language did Paul VI want the Church to communicate dogma?

**Question 3**

In which region were bishops prevented from attending the Paul VI ecumenical meeting?

**Question 4**

What did Paul VI ask other Christians to forgive him for?

**Text number 20**

Paul VI opened the third section on 14 September 1964 and told the Council Fathers that he considered the text on the Church to be the most important Council document. When the Council discussed the role of the bishops in the papal election, Paul VI issued a memorandum of explanation affirming the primacy of the Pope. Some saw this measure as interference in the Council's affairs. The American bishops called for an urgent resolution on religious freedom, but Paul VI insisted that it be adopted together with related texts such as ecumenism. The Pope closed the session on 21 November 1964 by officially proclaiming Mary Mother of the Church.

**Question 0**

Which topic did Paul VI consider the most important for the Church's deliberations?

**Question 1**

Who did Paul VI consider the most important in the Catholic hierarchy?

**Question 2**

What did the American Bishops' Conference meet for?

**Question 3**

Which saint did Paul VI name as the mother of the Catholic Church?

**Question 4**

In what year did Paul VI officially appoint Mary as the mother of the Catholic Church?

**Text number 21**

Between the third and fourth sessions, the Pope announced reforms concerning the Roman Curia, the revision of canon law, the provisions on mixed marriages and birth control. He opened the last session of the Council and consulted with the bishops of countries where the Church was persecuted. Several texts proposed for his approval had to be amended. However, agreement was eventually reached on all the texts. The Synod was concluded on 8 December 1965, the feast of the Immaculate Conception.

**Question 0**

What did Paul VI do between the third and fourth ecumenical councils?

**Question 1**

What does the Catholic Church consider "mixed" in a "mixed marriage"?

**Question 2**

What is celebrated on 8 December in the Catholic calendar?

**Question 3**

What year was Paul Vi's last council meeting?

**Question 4**

With whom did Paul VI celebrate overcoming persecution in other countries?

**Text number 22**

Pope Paul VI knew the Curator of Rome well, having worked there for a generation between 1922 and 1954. He implemented his reforms in stages, not in one go. On 1 March 1968 he issued a decree, a process initiated by Pius XII and continued by John XXIII. On 28 March, with the decree Pontificalis Domus, and in several apostolic constitutions issued in the following years, he reformed the entire curatorship, which included reducing bureaucracy, streamlining existing congregations, and giving non-Italians greater representation in curatorial posts.

**Question 0**

Who did Paul VI work for between 1922 and 1954?

**Question 1**

In what year did Paul VI issue the decree?

**Question 2**

With whom did Paul VI issue the decree in 1968?

**Question 3**

What did Paul VI's reforms reduce in the curia?

**Question 4**

Whose representation was extended by the disciplinary reforms?

**Text number 23**

Paul VI revolutionised the papal elections by decreeing that only cardinals under the age of 80 would be allowed to participate in future conclaves. In his motu proprio Ecclesiae Sanctae of 6 August 1966, he also called on all bishops to offer their retirement to the Pope at the latest when they reached the age of 75. This requirement was extended to all cardinals of the Catholic Church on 21 November 1970. With these two decrees, the Pope filled several posts with younger bishops and cardinals and further internationalised the Roman Curia in the wake of several age-related resignations.

**Question 0**

At what age did Paul VI restrict the participation of cardinals in conclaves?

**Question 1**

At what age did Paul VI call for bishops to retire?

**Question 2**

At what age were the cardinals required to retire in a later order in 1970?

**Question 3**

What did Paul VI do with age and pension restrictions?

**Question 4**

When was Paul Vi's Ecclesiae Sanctae published?

**Text number 24**

Liturgical reform had been part of the liturgical movements of the 20th century, mainly in France and Germany, which Pius XII officially recognised in his Mediator Dei cycle. During Pius XII's pontificate, the Vatican relaxed the regulations on the use of Latin in Roman Catholic liturgies and allowed some use of vernacular languages for baptisms, funerals and other celebrations. In 1951 and 1955, the Easter liturgies were revised, and in particular the Easter Triduum was reintroduced. Vatican II did not make any changes to the Roman Missal, but mandated its general revision in Sacrosanctum Concilium. After the Vatican Council, in April 1969, Paul VI approved a 'new order of the Mass', promulgated in 1970, as stated in the Acta Apostolica Sedis, to 'put an end to experiments' with the Mass, which included the addition of three new Eucharistic prayers to the hitherto unified Roman canon.

**Question 0**

What language was traditionally used in Roman Catholic services?

**Question 1**

What was revised between 1951 and 1955?

**Question 2**

What was reintroduced with the reform of the Easter liturgy?

**Question 3**

Which service was announced by Paul Vi in 1969?

**Question 4**

How many new prayers were included in the official Mass reforms of 1969?

**Text number 25**

Paul VI's Mass was also in Latin, but the use of vernacular languages was accepted. The Pope had issued other directives in 1964, 1967, 1968, 1969 and 1970, focusing on the reform of all liturgies in the Church of Rome. These major reforms were not welcomed by all and in all countries. The sudden apparent 'banning' of the 400-year-old Mass, the last typical edition of which had been promulgated only a few years earlier in 1962 by Paul's predecessor John XXIII, was not always well explained. Some saw as vandalism the fact that liturgists were still experimenting with new Masses, such as the use of pop and folk music (as opposed to the Gregorian chant advocated by Pope Pius X), and the simultaneous changes in the order of shrines. In 2007, Pope Benedict XVI clarified that the 1962 Mass of John XXIII and the 1970 Mass of Paul VI are two forms of the same Roman rite, the first of which, which had never been "juridically abrogated", is now "an extraordinary form of the Roman rite", while the second "is and remains the normal form of the Eucharistic liturgy - Forma ordinaria".

**Question 0**

What language was adopted in Paul VI's reforms for use in the Catholic Mass?

**Question 1**

How old was the Mass reformed by Paul VI?

**Question 2**

What kind of music was used in the traditional mass?

**Question 3**

Who united the views of the two previous popes on the Roman Catholic Mass?

**Question 4**

In what year were the different versions of the Catholic mass finally united?

**Text number 26**

In 1964, Paul VI established a secretariat for non-Christians, later renamed the Pontifical Council for Interreligious Dialogue, and a year later a new secretariat (later the Pontifical Council) for dialogue with non-believers. In 1993, Pope John Paul II incorporated the latter into the Pontifical Council for Culture, which he had created in 1982. In 1971, Paul VI established a Pontifical Office for Economic Development and Disaster Relief. To promote common bonds with all people of goodwill, he established an annual Day of Peace to be celebrated on the first day of January each year. In an effort to improve the position of Christians behind the Iron Curtain, Paul VI engaged in dialogue with the Communist authorities at various levels and hosted Foreign Minister Andrei Gromyko and Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Council Nikolai Podgorny at the Vatican in 1966 and 1967. The situation of the Church in Hungary, Poland and Romania improved during his pontificate.

**Question 0**

Who created the Pontifical Council for Culture?

**Question 1**

What organisation did Paul VI set up to enable the Church to deal with non-believers?

**Question 2**

What was the non-believers' secretariat finally called?

**Question 3**

Which prime minister did Paul VI try to interact with to help Catholics in communist countries?

**Question 4**

What does the Catholic Church celebrate on 1 January each year?

**Text number 27**

In 1976, Montini became the first pope in modern history to deny accusations of homosexuality. In January 1976, his organisation published the homily Persona Humana: A Declaration on Certain Questions of Sexual Ethics, which banned premarital or extramarital sex, condemned homosexuality and prohibited masturbation. It prompted the French writer and former diplomat Roger Peyrefitte, in an interview published in Tempo magazine, to accuse Montini of hypocrisy and of having a long-term lover who was a film actor. According to rumours both in the curatorial world and in Italian society, it was Paolo Carlini, who played a small role as a hairdresser in Audrey Hepburn's film Roman Holiday. Peyrefitte had already published the allegations in two books, but the interview (previously published in a French gay magazine) brought the rumours to the attention of a wider audience and caused a stir. In a short speech to a crowd of around 20,000 in St Peter's Square on 18 April, Montini called the allegations "monstrous and slanderous insinuations" and appealed for prayers on his behalf. All Italian Roman Catholic churches prayed for Montini on "a day of consolation". In 1984, a New York Times correspondent repeated the allegations.

**Question 0**

In what year did the Catholic Church ban premarital and extramarital sex?

**Question 1**

Who was accused of homosexuality in 1976?

**Question 2**

Who made the accusations about Montini's homosexuality?

**Question 3**

Who was Montini's alleged lover?

**Question 4**

On what day did Montini publicly address accusations of homosexuality?

**Text number 28**

Pope Paul VI became the first pope to visit six continents, and was by then the most travelled pope in history, earning him the nickname "the pilgrim pope". His travels opened up new avenues for the papacy, which were continued by his successors John Paul II and Benedict XVI. He travelled to the Holy Land in 1964, to the Eucharistic Congresses in Bombay, India, and Bogota, Colombia. In 1966, however, he was twice refused permission to visit Poland for the 1000th anniversary of Polish baptism. In 1967, fifty years after the first apparition, he visited Fátima in Portugal. In 1969 he made a pastoral visit to Africa. On 27 November 1970, he was assassinated at Manila International Airport in the Philippines. He was only lightly stabbed by the assassin Benjamín Mendoza y Amor Flores, but the Pope's personal bodyguard and trip organiser, Msgr. Paul Marcinkus.

**Question 0**

How many continents did Paul VI visit as Pope?

**Question 1**

What was Paul VI's nickname during his papacy?

**Question 2**

In which year did Paul VI travel to the Holy Land?

**Question 3**

In which country was an attempt made on the life of Paul VI?

**Question 4**

Who organised Paul Vi's visit to Manila?

**Text number 29**

Pope Paul VI became the first pope to visit the Americas when he flew to New York in October 1965 to address the United Nations. As a gesture of goodwill, the Pope donated two pieces of papal jewellery, a diamond pendant and a ring, to the UN, hoping that the proceeds from their auction would support the UN's efforts to end human suffering. During the Pope's visit, as US involvement in the Vietnam War escalated under President Johnson, Paul VI made a plea for peace at the UN:

**Question 0**

To which group did Paul VI address in New York in 1965?

**Question 1**

Who was the first Pope to visit the United States?

**Question 2**

To whom did Paul VI give a diamond pin and a ring in the hope of raising funds to help people worldwide?

**Question 3**

What did Paul VI ask the UN to promote during the Vietnam War?

**Question 4**

Which US president was in office when Paul VI first visited America?

**Text number 30**

Like his predecessor Pius XII, Paul VI emphasised dialogue with all the nations of the world by establishing diplomatic relations. The number of foreign embassies accredited to the Vatican doubled during his pontificate. This was a sign of the new understanding between Church and State, first formulated by Pius XI and Pius XII but imposed by Vatican II. The Pastoral Constitution Gaudium et Spes stated that the Catholic Church is not bound to any form of government and is ready to cooperate with all forms of government. The Church retained the right to elect its own bishops without interference from the state.

**Question 0**

What number doubled during the papacy of Paul VI?

**Question 1**

With whom did Paul Vi want to have an ongoing dialogue?

**Question 2**

Where does the document state that the Catholic Church is not subject to any government?

**Question 3**

Who did the church retain in its constitutional document the right to elect without state interference?

**Question 4**

Which organisation formally outlined the church's relationship with the state?

**Text number 31**

Ecclesiam suam was given in Rome at the Church of St Peter's on the Feast of the Transfiguration on 6 August 1964, the second year of his papacy. It is considered an important document identifying the Catholic Church with the Body of Christ. A later Council document, Lumen Gentium, stated that the Church lives in the Body of Christ, raising questions about the difference between 'is' and 'lives'. Paul VI appealed to "all people of good will" and discussed the need for dialogue within and between churches and with atheism.

**Question 0**

In which Catholic document is the Catholic Church compared to the body of Christ?

**Question 1**

Which document declares that the Roman Catholic Church lives in the body of Christ?

**Question 2**

What was celebrated in the Catholic calendar when Eccelsiam suam was issued in 1964?

**Question 3**

On what day is the Feast of the Transfiguration celebrated?

**Question 4**

In which city is St. Petersburg Cathedral located?

**Text number 32**

Sacerdotalis caelibatus (Latin for "celibate priesthood"), published on 24 June 1967, defends the Catholic Church's tradition of priestly freedom in the West. This encyclical was written after Vatican II, when the Catholic Church questioned and revised many long-standing practices. Priestly liberty was seen as a discipline rather than a dogma, and some had expected it to be relaxed. In response to these questions, the Pope reaffirms that celibacy is a long-standing practice with a special significance in the Catholic Church. The encyclical Sacerdotalis caelibatus of 24 June 1967 confirms the Church's traditional teaching that celibacy is the ideal state and remains obligatory for Roman Catholic priests. Celibacy symbolises the reality of the Kingdom of God in the midst of modern society. Priestly celibacy is closely linked to the sacramental priesthood. However, while Paul VI was considered generous during his pontificate in allowing bishops to grant legitimacy to priests who wished to leave the priesthood, John Paul II sharply reversed this position in 1980 and cemented in the 1983 canon law that only the Pope can grant legitimacy in exceptional cases.

**Question 0**

What is considered to be the ideal situation for priests in the Catholic Church?

**Question 1**

What symbolises the reality of living as a Roman Catholic priest in today's world?

**Question 2**

Which document from 1967 promotes the Church's position on priesthood celibacy?

**Question 3**

What kind of law locked the Catholic Church's position on clergy celibacy?

**Question 4**

In what year was the canon law passed confirming celibacy in the priesthood?

**Text number 33**

Of his eight encyclicals, Pope Paul VI is best known for his encyclical Humanae vitae (On Human Life, subtitled Regulation of Birth), published on 25 July 1968. In it, he reaffirmed the Catholic Church's traditional view of marriage and marital relations and further condemned artificial birth control. The Pope had two Pontifical Committees and numerous independent experts to study the latest advances in science and medicine on the issue of artificial birth control. which the Pope noted in his encyclical The views expressed by Paul VI reflected the teachings of his predecessors, in particular Pius XI, Pius XII and John XXIII, and never changed, as he repeatedly argued in the early years of his papacy.

**Question 0**

Which of Paul VI's encyclicals is best known in Catholic history?

**Question 1**

What did Paul VI condemn in Humanae Vitae?

**Question 2**

What kind of contraception does the Catholic Church condemn?

**Question 3**

How many encyclicals did Paul VI publish?

**Question 4**

What does Humanae Vitae mean?

**Text number 34**

For the Pope, as for all his predecessors, marriage is much more than a union between two people. They form a union of a loving couple and a loving God, in which the two persons create a new person materially, while God completes the creation by adding a soul. This is why Paul VI teaches in the first sentence of Humanae vitae that the transplantation of human life is the most serious task, in which the spouses freely and responsibly cooperate with God the Creator. This divine partnership, according to Paul VI, does not permit arbitrary human decisions that may limit divine providence. The Pope does not paint too romantic a picture of marriage: it is a source of great joy, but also of difficulties and hardship. For Paul VI, the question of human reproduction goes beyond the disciplines of biology, psychology, demography or sociology. The reason for this, according to Paul VI, is that conjugal love has its origin in God, who 'is love'. It is from this fundamental value that he defines his position:

**Question 0**

With whom do Paul VI says a man and a woman are in covenant besides each other?

**Question 1**

What does God give to a child of a married couple?

**Question 2**

Who is considered love?

**Question 3**

From whom is married love born?

**Question 4**

What kind of relationships did Paul VI deal with in Humanae VItae?

**Text number 35**

Reaction to the continued ban on artificial birth control in Enkyrika was very mixed. In Italy, Spain, Portugal and Poland, encyclical was welcomed. In Latin America, the Pope and his encyclical developed strong support. When World Bank President Robert McNamara declared at the annual meeting of the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank Group in 1968 that countries that allowed contraceptive practices would be privileged to receive resources, doctors in La Paz, Bolivia, found it offensive that money would be exchanged for the conscience of the Catholic people. In Colombia, Cardinal Archbishop Aníbal Muñoz Duque declared that if US conditionality undermines the Pope's teachings, we would rather not receive a cent. The Bolivian Senate passed a resolution stating that the Humanae vitae document could be debated in terms of its implications for individual conscience, but that it was most significant because the Pope's document defended the right of developing countries to determine their own population policies. The Jesuit magazine Sic devoted an issue to the encyclical and published articles in support of it.

**Question 0**

Who was the President of the World Bank in 1968?

**Question 1**

What did the World Bank encourage developing countries to give access to?

**Question 2**

In which country did doctors call the World Bank's offer of resources in exchange for liberal birth control policies "insulting"?

**Question 3**

Who said Colombia didn't want American help if it insisted on changing the Catholic Church's position on birth control?

**Question 4**

Which country did Cardinal Archbishop Anlbal Munoz Duque represent?

**Text number 36**

Paul VI was concerned but not surprised by the negative reaction of Western Europe and the United States. "Fear not", he said he told Edouard Gagnon on the eve of the publication of the cyclopaedia, "in twenty years' time I shall be called a prophet". A biography on the Vatican's website on his confirmation of the priestly ordination and traditional contraceptive teaching states that "controversies over these two declarations overshadowed the last years of his pontificate". Pope John Paul II later reaffirmed Humanae vitae and expanded it in Evangelium vitae.

**Question 0**

To whom did Paul VI tell "not to be afraid" when the Church published its statement on birth control?

**Question 1**

How did Paul VI declare he would be seen in 25 years' time?

**Question 2**

Who is the Pope responsible for Evangelium Vitae?

**Question 3**

Which Pope confirmed Paul VI's Humanae Vitae?

**Question 4**

What did Western Europe and the United States oppose?

**Text number 37**

After the Council, Paul VI contributed in two ways to the continued growth of ecumenical dialogue. Separate brothers and sisters, as he called them, could not participate in the Council as invited observers. After the Council, many of them took the initiative to seek out their Catholic colleagues and the Pope in Rome, who welcomed such visits. However, the Catholic Church itself recognised from many previous ecumenical meetings that much needed to be done internally to be an open partner in ecumenism. To those entrusted with the highest and deepest truth, and therefore Paul VI believed that he had the most difficult task to mediate. For Paul VI, ecumenical dialogue required the whole person of the Catholic: the whole mind, will and heart. Paul VI, like Pius XII before him, did not want to give in at the lowest possible point. Yet Paul felt compelled to confess his fervent, gospel-based desire to be all things to all people and to help all people. As a follower of Peter, he felt Christ's words, 'Do you love me more', like a sharp knife plunging into the marrow of his soul. For Paul VI, these words signified love without limits and underline the Church's fundamental approach to ecumenism.

**Question 0**

Which city did the Pope encourage Catholics from other countries to visit?

**Question 1**

In how many ways did Paul VI contribute to ecumenical dialogue between Catholics?

**Question 2**

What does Catholic ecumenical dialogue entail for Paul VI?

**Question 3**

According to Paul VI, how much is required of a person in order to participate fully in ecumenical dialogue?

**Question 4**

To which historical figure can the words "Do you love me more" be attributed?

**Text number 38**

This was an important step towards restoring the link between Rome and Constantinople. It resulted in the Joint Declaration of the Catholic and Orthodox Churches of 1965, which was read out simultaneously on 7 December 1965 at a public meeting of the Vatican II Council in Rome and at a special ceremony in Istanbul. The declaration did not end the schism, but showed a desire for greater reconciliation between the two churches. In May 1973, the Coptic Patriarch of Alexandria, Shenouda III, visited the Vatican, where he met Pope Paul VI three times. The joint declaration and the common confession of faith issued after the visit showed that there are practically no more theological differences between the Coptic and Roman Catholic Churches.

**Question 0**

Which statement dealt with the relationship between Italy and Greece in the Catholic Church?

**Question 1**

In what year was the joint declaration of Catholics and Orthodox read?

**Question 2**

In which city was the joint Catholic and Orthodox declaration read?

**Question 3**

Who visited the Vatican in May 1973 to try to negotiate relations between Orthodox and Catholics?

**Question 4**

How many times did Coptic Patriarch Shenouda III meet Paul VI in 1973?

**Text number 39**

Paul VI was the first Pope to officially receive the Anglican Archbishop of Canterbury, Michael Ramsey, as head of the Church, after Archbishop Geoffrey Fisher visited Pope John XXIII on 2 December 1960 for a private audience. Ramsey met Paul three times during his visit and opened an Anglican centre in Rome to increase their mutual acquaintance. He praised Paul VI[e] and his contribution to unity. Paul replied that "by entering our house, you enter your own house, we will gladly open our doors and our hearts to you". The two church leaders signed a joint declaration putting an end to the disputes of the past and outlining a common programme for the future.

**Question 0**

Who was the first Pope to meet an Anglican archbishop as an official head of the Church since 1960?

**Question 1**

Who was the Archbishop of Canterbury during the papacy of Paul VI?

**Question 2**

How many times did Archbishop Ramsey meet Paul VI?

**Question 3**

Which centre did Archbishop Ramsey open in Rome to improve Anglican-Catholic relations?

**Question 4**

In which centre of Italy did Archbishop Ramsey open an Anglican centre?

**Text number 40**

At the end of the visit, Cardinal Augustin Bea, Director of the Secretariat for Promoting Christian Unity, added: "Let us go forward in Christ. God wants that. Humanity is waiting for it." It was at the time of this visit, and in the light of the Congregation for the Doctrine of the Faith's strong condemnation of mixed marriages, that Paul VI and Ramsey appointed a preparatory commission to put into practice a common agenda on issues such as mixed marriages. The result was the Joint Declaration of Malta, the first common agreement on a confession of faith since the Reformation. Paul VI was a good friend of the Anglican Church, which he described as "our dear sister church". This description was unique to Paul and was not used by later popes.

**Question 0**

What did Cardinal Augustin Bea's secretariat contribute?

**Question 1**

Which group condemned mixed marriages?

**Question 2**

What kind of non-Catholic denomination was Paul VI considered a great ally of?

**Question 3**

What church did Paul VI call "our beloved sister church"?

**Question 4**

Who called the Anglican Church "our beloved sister church"?

**Text number 41**

In 1965, Paul VI decided to set up a joint working group with the World Council of Churches to explore all possible options for dialogue and cooperation. Over the next three years, eight meetings were held, resulting in many joint proposals. Close cooperation on social justice and development and on third world issues such as hunger and poverty was proposed. On the religious side, it was agreed to participate together in an annual week of prayer for Christian unity. A joint working group was tasked with preparing texts to be used by all Christians. On 19 July 1968, a meeting of the World Council of Churches was held in Uppsala, Sweden, which Pope Paul called a sign of the times. He sent his blessing ecumenically: 'May the Lord bless all that you do for the unity of Christians'. The World Council of Churches decided to include Catholic theologians in its committees, provided they had the support of the Vatican.

**Question 0**

In what year was a group set up to work with the World Council of Churches to promote dialogue between Catholic Christians and other Christian denominations?

**Question 1**

What year did the World Council of Churches meet in Uppsala, Sweden?

**Question 2**

Which theologians did the World Council of Churches decide to include in its committees?

**Question 3**

In which country did the World Council of Churches meet in 1968?

**Question 4**

Whose support did the World Council of Churches require from Catholic theologians working in joint committees?

**Text number 42**

Lutherans were the first Protestant church to offer dialogue to the Catholic Church in September 1964 in Reykjavik, Iceland. As a result, joint study groups were formed on a number of issues. Dialogue with the Methodist Church began in October 1965, following formal praise from church representatives for the remarkable changes, friendship and cooperation that had taken place over the previous five years. Four years later, the Reformed Churches began a dialogue with the Catholic Church. Fredrik A. Schiotz, President of the Lutheran World Federation and member of the Central Committee of the World Council of Churches, said at the 450th anniversary of the Reformation that the earlier commemorations were seen as almost a triumph. The Reformation should be celebrated as a thanksgiving to God, his truth and renewed life. He welcomed the announcement by Pope Paul VI to commemorate the 1900th anniversary of the death of the Apostle Peter and the Apostle Paul and promised to participate and cooperate in the celebrations.

**Question 0**

Who were the first Protestants to contact the Catholic Church in Iceland in 1964?

**Question 1**

In what year did the Catholic Church begin diplomatic relations with the Methodist Church?

**Question 2**

In what year did the Catholic Church begin diplomatic relations with the Lutheran Church?

**Question 3**

Who presided over the World Council of Churches during the 450th anniversary of the Reformation?

**Question 4**

To whom did Schiotz say that we should be grateful for the Reformation?

**Text number 43**

Paul VI supported the new harmony and cooperation with Protestants on many levels. When Cardinal Augustin Bea visited him to ask for permission to do joint Catholic-Protestant Bible translation work with Protestant Bible Societies, the Pope walked up to him and exclaimed, "As far as cooperation with the Bible Societies is concerned, I am all for it." He gave his formal approval on Pentecost 1967, the feast day on which the Holy Spirit descended on Christians and, according to Christian tradition, overcame all linguistic difficulties.

**Question 0**

With whom did Paul VI advocate cooperation in translating the Bible?

**Question 1**

Who asked Paul VI for permission to work with Protestants to translate the Bible?

**Question 2**

In what year did Paul VI officially declare his support for the baptismal translation?

**Question 3**

With which group of Christians did Paul VI support and approve cooperation?

**Text number 44**

He appointed the next three popes as cardinals, including Pope Emeritus Benedict XVI. His immediate successor, Albino Luciani, who took the name John Paul I, was appointed Cardinal at the consistory of 5 March 1973. Karol Wojtyła was appointed Cardinal at the consistory of 26 June 1967. Joseph Ratzinger was appointed Cardinal at a small consistory of four nominations on 27 June 1977, including Bernardin Gantin of Benin, Africa. This became Paul VI's last consistory before his death in August 1978. Towards the end of his papacy, Pope Paul was asked if he intended to retire at the age of 80, and he replied: "Kings can abdicate, popes cannot."[quote].

**Question 0**

How many future popes did Paul VI first create as cardinals?

**Question 1**

Who did Paul VI make a cardinal on 27 June 1977?

**Question 2**

Which future Pope was made a cardinal by Paul VI on 26 June 1967?

**Question 3**

In what year did Paul VI die?

**Question 4**

What name did Albino Luciani take as Pope?

**Text number 45**

On 14 July 1978, Pope Paul VI left the Vatican for the papal summer residence at Castel Gandolfo, visiting the tomb of Cardinal Giuseppe Pizzardo, who had introduced him to the Vatican half a century earlier. Although he was ill, he agreed to meet the new Italian President Sandro Pertini for more than two hours. In the evening, he watched a western film on television and was only delighted to see "horses, the most beautiful animals God had created". He had trouble breathing and needed oxygen. On Sunday, at the Feast of the Transfiguration, he was tired but wanted to recite the Angelus. He could not and was not allowed to do so, but stayed in bed and his fever rose.

**Question 0**

Where was Paul VI going on 14 July 1978?

**Question 1**

What was considered the Pope's summer residence?

**Question 2**

Who was the Prime Minister of Italy in July 1978?

**Question 3**

How long did the ailing Paul VI meet Sandro Pertini in 1978?

**Question 4**

What animals did Paul VI consider to be "the most beautiful animals that God ever created"?

**Text number 46**

On 20 December 2012, Pope Benedict XVI declared in an audience with the Cardinal Prefect of the Congregation for the Causes of Saints that the late Pope had lived a life of heroic virtue, which means that he can be called "venerable". On 9 May 2014, Pope Francis accepted the miracle, which was due to the intercession of Paul VI. Paul VI's beatification ceremony took place on 19 October 2014, which means that he can now be called "blessed". His liturgical feast day is celebrated on his birthday, 26 September, and not on the day of his death, as is usually the case.

**Question 0**

In what year was Paul VI grafted?

**Question 1**

On what day was Paul VI born?

**Question 2**

Whose liturgical feast is celebrated on 26 September?

**Question 3**

On what day was the embellishment ceremony of Paul VI performed?

**Question 4**

What is the merit of Paul VI and officially adopted on 9 May 2014?

**Text number 47**

In December 2013, Vatican officials accepted an alleged miracle, attributed to the late Pope's intercession, of the healing of an unborn child in California, USA in the 1990s. It was expected that Pope Francis would accept the miracle in the near future, thus justifying the beatification of the late Pope. In February 2014, it was reported that the theologians consulting the Vatican's Congregation for the Causes of Saints recognised the miracle attributed to the late Pope.

**Question 0**

According to the Vatican, who could be credited with the healing of the unborn child in the 1990s?

**Question 1**

Who approved the miracle of Paul VI?

**Question 2**

Which group was responsible for recognising the miracle of Paul Vi?

**Question 3**

What is the process of recognising a saint called?

**Text number 48**

The Italian magazine Credere reported on 24 April 2014 that the late Pope could possibly be beatified on 19 October 2014. The paper also reported that several cardinals and bishops would meet on 5 May to confirm the previously approved miracle and then present it to Pope Francis, who might sign the beatification decree shortly afterwards. The Congregation for the Causes of Saints held that meeting and concluded positively that the healing was indeed a miracle that could be attributed to the late Pope. The matter will now soon be submitted to the Pope for approval.

**Question 0**

Which newspaper reported the story of the pending sainthood of Paul VI?

**Question 1**

What kind of miracle is addressed to Pope Paul VI?

**Question 2**

Which group did Paul VI declare a miracle of healing?

**Question 3**

Who had to accept the conclusion of the Congregation for the Causes of Saints that Paul VI performed a miracle?

**Question 4**

Who had to sign the decree declaring Paul VI a saint?

**Text number 49**

On basic Church education, the Pope was adamant. On the tenth anniversary of Humanae vitae, he reaffirmed this teaching. In style and method, he was a disciple of Pius XII, whom he deeply respected. He suffered attacks against Pius XII for his alleged silence during the Holocaust. Pope Paul VI was not as remarkable as his predecessor: he was not credited with the encyclopaedic memory, linguistic skills or brilliant writing style of Pius XII, nor did he have the charisma and outpouring of love, humour and human warmth of John XXIII. He took on the unfinished reform work of these two popes and completed it diligently, with great humility and common sense, and without great fanfare. In doing so, Paul VI saw himself following in the footsteps of the Apostle Paul, who was torn in many directions like St Paul, who said: "I am drawn to two sides at once, for the cross always divides." This was his life's work.

**Question 0**

What was Pius XII accused of not condemning?

**Question 1**

Whose theology did Paul VI continue during his papacy?

**Question 2**

What kind of work did Paul VI complete that the two previous popes had started?

**Question 3**

On what anniversary did Paul VI reaffirm the beliefs set out in Humanae vitae?

**Question 4**

Who was the pope before Paul VI who was known for his warmth and humour?

**Text number 50**

Unlike his predecessors and successors, Paul VI refused to curse his opponents. He warned but did not punish those who disagreed. The new theological freedoms he promoted led to a diversity of opinion and uncertainty among believers. New demands were put forward which were taboo in the Council, the reintegration of lapsed Catholics, the sacramental nature of confession and the role of women in the Church and its functions. The conservatives complained that 'women wanted to be priests, priests wanted to marry, bishops became regional priests and theologians claimed absolute teaching authority. Protestants demanded equality, homosexuals and divorcees demanded full acceptance." The changes, such as the reorientation of the liturgy, changes to the ordinary Mass, the changes to the liturgical calendar proposed in the motu proprio Mysterii Paschalis and the relocation of the tabernacle, were controversial among some Catholics.

**Question 0**

Who did Paul VI refuse to damn?

**Question 1**

What did many other Catholics and Christians think of Paul VI's reforms?

**Question 2**

What is the reason for the divisions among Catholics during the papacy of Paul VI?

**Question 3**

How did the congregation view the readmission of lapsed Catholics to the Church?

**Text number 51**

Some criticised Paul VI's decision; the newly created Synod of Bishops had only an advisory role and could not take decisions on its own, even though the Council decided to do just that. Five such synods were held during the pontificate of Paul VI, and he is said to have implemented all their decisions. Related questions were raised about the new National Bishops' Conferences, which became mandatory after Vatican II. Others questioned his policy towards the East, his links with communism and the agreements he made for the benefit of the faithful.

**Question 0**

How many bishops' meetings were held during the papacy of Paul VI?

**Question 1**

Which conferences became mandatory after Vatican II?

**Question 2**

With which political movement was Paul VI criticised for having an affair?

**Question 3**

The Council of the Church, chaired by Paul VI, decided who can make decisions independently of Rome?

**Question 4**

How many of his bishops' decisions did Paul VI eventually implement?

**Text number 52**

From his bed, he attended Sunday mass at 18:00. After Communion, the Pope suffered a massive heart attack, after which he lived for three hours. On 6 August 1978, at 9.41 pm, Paul VI died at Castel Gandolfo. According to his will, he was not buried in an ornate tomb in the Vatican grottoes, but in a tomb in the ground. He is buried with the other popes under the floor of St Peter's Basilica. In his will he asked to be buried in "real earth", so he does not have a decorative sarcophagus but an underground tomb.

**Question 0**

How long did Paul VI live after suffering a massive heart attack in 1978?

**Question 1**

When did Paul VI die?

**Question 2**

On what day did Paul VI die?

**Question 3**

What did Paul VI say mass about on the day he died?

**Question 4**

Which apartment was Paul VI living in on the day of his death?

**Text number 53**

With the six consistories, Paul VI continued the policy of internationalisation begun by Pius XII in 1946 and continued by John XXIII. In his 1976 consistory, five of the twenty cardinals were from Africa, one of them the son of a tribal chieftain with fifty wives. He also elevated several notable Latin Americans, including Eduardo Francisco Pironio of Argentina, Luis Aponte Martinez of Puerto Rico and Eugênio de Araújo Sales and Aloisio Lorscheider of Brazil. There were voices within the Church at the time that the European period of the Church was coming to an end, including the British Cardinal Basil Hume. At the same time, the members of the College of Cardinals lost some of their former influence after Paul VI decreed that not only cardinals but also bishops could participate in the committees of the Roman Curia. The age limit of 80 years imposed by the Pope, the increase in the number of cardinals by almost 100% and the reform of the royal vestments of the 'princes of the Church' further contributed to the service-oriented perception of cardinals during his pontificate. However, many in Western Europe welcomed the increase in the number of cardinals from the Third World and the Pope's emphasis on related issues.

**Question 0**

How many cardinals were from Africa in 1976?

**Question 1**

Which country was Cardinal Eduardo Francisco Pironi representing?

**Question 2**

What country did Cardinal Araujo Sales represent?

**Question 3**

In which group of committees did Paul VI declare that both bishops and cardinals could participate?

**Question 4**

What kind of clothing did Paul VI reform?

**Text number 54**

Paul VI abandoned many of the traditional symbols of the Pope and the Catholic Church; Pope Benedict XVI reversed some of his changes to the papal habit in the early 2000s. Refusing to wear the colourful military uniforms of the Vatican army from centuries ago, he got rid of them. He became the first pope to visit five continents. Paul VI systematically continued and complemented the efforts of his predecessors to transform the Eurocentric Church into the Church of the world by involving bishops from all continents in the administration of the Church and in the synods he convened. His motu proprio Pro Comperto Sane of 6 August 1967 opened the Roman Curia to the bishops of the world. Until then, only cardinals could be leading members of the Curia.

**Question 0**

Which theatre costumes did Paul VI remove from the Vatican?

**Question 1**

Who was the first pope to visit the five continents?

**Question 2**

Where did Paul VI turn the focus of the Church during his papacy?

**Question 3**

Which group of clergy did Paul VI involve in Vatican decision-making, who had previously been denied influence in this area?

**Question 4**

Which papal statement under Paul VI opened the Vatican's doors to global influences?

**Document number 228**

**Text number 0**

Electric motors are used in applications as diverse as industrial fans, blowers and pumps, machine tools, household appliances, power tools and disk drives. Electric motors can be powered from DC sources such as batteries, motor vehicles or rectifiers, or from AC sources such as the mains, inverters or generators. Small motors may be present in electric clocks. General-purpose motors, with highly standardised dimensions and characteristics, provide convenient mechanical power for industrial applications. The largest electric motors are used for marine propulsion, pipeline compression and pumped storage applications, with rated outputs of up to 100 megawatts. Electric motors can be classified according to the type of electrical energy source, internal structure, application and type of motion output, among others.

**Question 0**

What is the maximum rating of an electric motor?

**Question 1**

What is the most important example of a DC power supply?

**Question 2**

What does AC mean?

**Question 3**

What is DC?

**Question 4**

Which device commonly has small motors?

**Question 5**

What is the minimum rating of an electric motor?

**Question 6**

What is the main example of an RC power supply?

**Question 7**

What does EC mean?

**Question 8**

What is DCC?

**Question 9**

Which device has the fewest large engines?

**Text number 1**

Perhaps the first electric motors were simple electrostatic devices developed by a Scottish monk, Andrew Gordon, in the 1740s. The theoretical principle of generating mechanical power through the interaction of an electric current and a magnetic field, Ampère's power law, was later discovered by André-Marie Ampère in 1820. The conversion of electrical energy into mechanical energy by electromagnetic means was demonstrated by the British scientist Michael Faraday in 1821. A freely suspended wire was immersed in a pool of mercury and a permanent magnet (PM) was placed on top. When a current was passed through the wire, the wire rotated around the magnet, indicating that the current created a tight circular magnetic field around the wire. This engine is often demonstrated in physics experiments where toxic mercury is replaced by salt water. Although Barlow's wheel was an early improvement on Faraday's demonstration, these and similar homopolar motors were not suitable for practical applications until the end of the century.

**Question 0**

Who created the first electrostatic device?

**Question 1**

Who discovered the principles of magnetic and electrical interaction?

**Question 2**

In what year did Faraday convert electrical energy into mechanical energy?

**Question 3**

Which toxic substance originally served as a saltwater in primitive engines?

**Question 4**

Who created the last electrostatic device?

**Question 5**

Who discovered the principles of magnetic and electrical non-interaction?

**Question 6**

In what year did Faraday convert non-electrical energy into mechanical energy?

**Question 7**

Which toxic substance did not originally act as a brine in primitive engines?

**Text number 2**

In 1827, Hungarian physicist Ányos Jedlik began experimenting with electromagnetic coils. Jedlik solved the technical problems of continuous rotation by inventing a commutator, and he called his early devices "electromagnetic self-rotators". Although they were only used for educational purposes, in 1828 Jedlik introduced the first device incorporating the three main components of practical DC motors: a stator, a rotor and a commutator. No permanent magnets were used, since the magnetic fields of both the stationary and rotating parts were generated solely by the currents flowing through their windings.

**Question 0**

In what year did Jedlik start experimenting with electromagnetism?

**Question 1**

In addition to the stator and the commutator, what is the DC motor component?

**Question 2**

What did Jedlik call his earliest devices?

**Question 3**

What invention solved the problem of constant rotation?

**Question 4**

What Jedlik's improved device eliminated the need for?

**Question 5**

What year did Jedlik start experimenting with non-electromagnetism?

**Question 6**

In addition to the stator and the commutator, what is a non-DC motor component?

**Question 7**

What name did Jedlik not call his earliest devices?

**Question 8**

What invention solved the problem of discontinuous rotation?

**Question 9**

What did Jedlik's improved device make necessary?

**Text number 3**

After many other more or less successful attempts with relatively weak rotating and reciprocating devices, the Prussian Moritz von Jacobi created the first true rotary electric motor in May 1834, which developed considerable mechanical power. His motor set a world record, which Jacobi himself did not improve until four years later, in September 1838. His second engine was powerful enough to propel a 14-person boat across a wide river. It was not until 1839/40 that other developers around the world succeeded in building similar and later more powerful engines.

**Question 0**

When did the developers competing with Jacobi match his achievements?

**Question 1**

What was Jacob's improved engine used for propulsion?

**Question 2**

Who created the first real electric motor?

**Question 3**

Who broke the world record for Jacob's first engine?

**Question 4**

How long did it take for Jacob's first world record to be broken?

**Question 5**

When did developers competing with Jacob fail to match his achievements?

**Question 6**

What was Jacob's improved engine used to keep it from running?

**Question 7**

Who created the first fake electric motor?

**Question 8**

Who broke the world record for Jacob's second engine?

**Question 9**

How long did it take Jacob to break the second world record?

**Text number 4**

The first DC electric motor with a commutator, capable of powering machines, was invented by British scientist William Sturgeon in 1832. Following Sturgeon's work, American inventor Thomas Davenport built a commercially viable commutator-type DC motor, which he patented in 1837. The motors ran at speeds of up to 600 revolutions per minute and powered machine tools and printing presses. Due to the high cost of primary battery power, the motors were not commercially successful and Davenport went bankrupt. Several inventors followed Sturgeon in the development of DC motors, but all faced the same battery power cost problems. Electricity distribution had not yet been developed at that time. Like Sturgeon's motor, there was no practical commercial market for these motors.

**Question 0**

Who developed the first mnotor that could be used in machines?

**Question 1**

Which inventor went bankrupt?

**Question 2**

What was the biggest problem when early electric motors were applied in industry?

**Question 3**

What further technical development was needed to make electric motors viable?

**Question 4**

How fast did Sturgeon and Davenport's engines run?

**Question 5**

Who developed the last engine suitable for machines?

**Question 6**

Which inventor never went bankrupt?

**Question 7**

What was not the biggest problem with the application of early electric motors in industry?

**Question 8**

What technological development has always been necessary to make electric motors viable?

**Question 9**

How slow were Sturgeon and Davenport's engines?

**Text number 5**

A major turning point in the development of DC machines came in 1864, when Antonio Pacinotti first described a ring-armature, in which symmetrically grouped coils were interlocked and connected to commutator bars, whose brushes supplied a virtually unvarying current. The first commercially successful DC motors came after Zénobe Gramme's invention of the Pacinotti model in 1871. In 1873, Gramme demonstrated that his dynamo could be used as a motor, and gave a spectacular demonstration at exhibitions in Vienna and Philadelphia by connecting two such DC motors up to two kilometres apart, one as a generator. (See also 1873 : l'expérience décisive [decisive work] .).

**Question 0**

What made the Pacinotti engine a major step forward?

**Question 1**

Who created an engine like Pacinotti's?

**Question 2**

How far apart were the engines in Gramme's performances?

**Question 3**

What was Gramme using the second device in addition to the engine for?

**Question 4**

In which two cities did Gramme organise his demonstrations?

**Question 5**

What made the Pacinotti engine a meaningless step forward?

**Question 6**

Who created an engine that is very different from Pacinotti?

**Question 7**

How similar were the engines in Grameen's performances?

**Question 8**

Why did Gramme not use another device in addition to the engine?

**Question 9**

In which two cities did Gramme never organise his demonstrations?

**Text number 6**

In 1886, Frank Julian Sprague invented the first practical DC motor, a non-sparking motor whose speed remained relatively constant under varying loads. Other electrical inventions by Sprague at this time greatly improved the electrical distribution of electricity from the power grid (earlier work done for Thomas Edison), enabled the power of electric motors to be restored to the power grid, allowed electrical power to be distributed to carriages via overhead wires and carriage poles, and provided electrical controls for operations. This enabled Sprague to use electric motors to invent the first electric trolley system in 1887-88 in Richmond, VA, an electric elevator and control system in 1892, and an electric subway with independently operated centrally controlled cars, first installed in 1892 in Chicago on the South Side Elevated Railway, where it was popularly known as the "L". Sprague's engine and related inventions sparked an explosion of interest in electric motors and their use in industry, while almost simultaneously another great inventor was developing their primary competitor, which became much more common. The development of electric motors with acceptable efficiency was delayed for several decades because the extreme importance of the relatively small air gap between rotor and stator was not recognised. The St. Louis motor, long used in classrooms to illustrate the principles of motors, is for the same reason extremely inefficient and does not look like a modern motor at all.

**Question 0**

What needs to be between the rotor and the stator to increase efficiency?

**Question 1**

Who invented the first practical DC motor?

**Question 2**

What was the step forward in transport made possible by Sprague's plans?

**Question 3**

What was the name of Chicago's first electric trolley system?

**Question 4**

Who did Sprague work for at the beginning of his career?

**Question 5**

What can't be between the rotor and the stator to increase efficiency?

**Question 6**

Who invented the first practical DC motor?

**Question 7**

What was the transport advance that made Sprague's plans impossible?

**Question 8**

What was the name of Chicago's last electric trolley system?

**Question 9**

Who did Sprague not work for at the start of his career?

**Text number 7**

The use of electric motors revolutionised industry. Industrial processes were no longer limited to power transmission using shafts, belts, compressed air or hydraulic pressure. Instead, each machine could be equipped with its own electric motor, allowing easy control at the point of use and improving transmission efficiency. In agriculture, electric motors removed the need for human and animal muscle power for tasks such as handling grain or pumping water. The use of electric motors in the home reduced heavy work in the home and allowed higher standards of comfort, convenience and safety. Today, electric motors account for more than half of the electricity consumed in the United States.

**Question 0**

How much energy do electric motors consume in the modern United States?

**Question 1**

In which area did electric motors reduce dependence on humans and animals?

**Question 2**

What else do electric motors reduce besides shafts, belts and compressed air?

**Question 3**

Where did electric motors improve comfort and safety?

**Question 4**

How much energy do electric motors consume in the modern UK?

**Question 5**

In which area did electric motors not reduce dependence on humans and animals?

**Question 6**

Apart from axles, belts and compressed air, what else did electric motors not reduce the need for?

**Question 7**

Where have electric motors not improved comfort and safety?

**Text number 8**

In 1824, the French physicist François Arago proposed the existence of rotating magnetic fields, known as Arago's rotations, which Walter Baily demonstrated in 1879 by manually turning switches on and off, and which were in effect the first rudimentary induction motor. In the 1880s, many inventors tried to develop working AC motors because the advantages of AC in long-distance high-voltage transmission were counterbalanced by the inability to run motors on AC. Galileo Ferraris and Nikola Tesla independently invented the first AC commutatorless induction motors, with the former presenting a working motor model in 1885 and the latter in 1887. In 1888, the Royal Academy of Sciences of Turin published a study by Ferrari which detailed the principles of the motor's operation, but stated that 'a device based on this principle cannot have any commercial value as a motor'. In 1888, Tesla presented his paper A New System for Alternating Current Motors and Transformers to the AIEE, in which he described three patented two-phase four-pole four-pole motor types: one four-pole rotor formed a non-self-starting reluctance motor, a second twisted rotor formed a self-starting induction motor, and the third was a true synchronous motor in which the rotor winding is separately energized by a DC supply. However, one of Tesla's patents filed in 1887 also described a short-circuited wound rotor induction motor. George Westinghouse promptly bought Tesla's patents, hired Tesla to develop them and commissioned C. F. Scott to help Tesla, but Tesla left for other assignments in 1889. The constant-speed AC induction motor proved unsuitable for street cars, but Westinghouse's engineers successfully adapted it to power a mining operation in Telluride, Colorado, in 1891. Mikhail Dolivo-Dobrovolsky was a staunch promoter of the three-stage development, inventing the three-stage cage rotor induction motor in 1889 and the three-phase transformer in 1890. This type of motor is used today in most commercial applications. However, he argued that Tesla's motor was not viable because of the two-phase pulses, which prompted him to continue his three-phase work. Although Westinghouse achieved his first practical induction motor in 1892 and developed a series of 60 hertz multiphase induction motors in 1893, these early Westinghouse motors were two-phase motors with a wound rotor until B. G. Lamme developed the rotary bar wound rotor. The General Electric Company began developing three-phase induction motors in 1891. By 1896, General Electric and Westinghouse signed a cross-licensing agreement for the bar wound rotor, later called the squirrel cage rotor. Induction engines improved so much as a result of these inventions and innovations that a 100 horsepower (HP) induction engine today has the same mounting dimensions as a 7.5 HP engine in 1897.

**Question 0**

Who built the first induction motor?

**Question 1**

What kind of power were early engines unable to use?

**Question 2**

Who bought Tesla's patents?

**Question 3**

For which application was the Tesla engine first used?

**Question 4**

What is another name for the bar winding rotor?

**Question 5**

Who built the second induction motor?

**Question 6**

What kind of power were the late engines unable to use?

**Question 7**

Who sold Tesla's patents?

**Question 8**

For which application was the Tesla engine never used?

**Question 9**

What is not another name for a bar-wound rotor?

**Text number 9**

A commutator is a mechanism used to connect the input of most DC machines and certain AC machines, consisting of slip rings insulated from each other and from the shaft of the electric motor. The motor armature current is fed through stationary brushes in contact with a rotating commutator, which causes the required current to reverse and optimally feeds the machine as the rotor rotates from pole to pole. If this reversal of current does not occur, the motor would brake to a stop. With significant progress in recent decades due to improved technology in electronic controllers, sensorless control, induction motor and permanent magnet motor fields, electromechanically commutated motors are increasingly replacing externally commutated induction and permanent magnet motors.

**Question 0**

What would the rotor do without reversing the current?

**Question 1**

What switches the input of most DC motors?

**Question 2**

Where is the power to the engine supplied from?

**Question 3**

Which two engine types are currently on the rise?

**Question 4**

What would the rotor do when the current reverses?

**Question 5**

What switches the power of most DC motors?

**Question 6**

Where is the motor not powered?

**Question 7**

Which two engine types are now descendants?

**Text number 10**

A commutated DC motor has a set of rotating windings wound around an armature mounted on a rotating shaft. The shaft also has a commutator, which is a long-life rotary electrical switch that periodically reverses the current flowing through the rotor windings as the shaft rotates. Thus, each brushed DC motor has an alternating current flowing through its rotating windings. The current passes through one or more pairs of brushes on top of the commutator; the brushes connect the external power supply to the rotating armature.

**Question 0**

What does a communicator do?

**Question 1**

What is the current characteristic of brushed DC motors?

**Question 2**

Where do brushes get their power?

**Question 3**

What is the most important characteristic of a commutated DC motor shaft?

**Question 4**

What does the separator do?

**Question 5**

What is the current characteristic of brushed RC motors?

**Question 6**

Where are the brushes not getting power?

**Question 7**

What is not the most important characteristic of a commutated DC motor shaft?

**Text number 11**

A rotary anchor consists of one or more windings wound around a laminated, magnetically "soft" ferromagnetic core. The current from the brushes passes through one of the windings of the commutator and the armature, causing the armature to become a temporary magnet (electromagnet). The magnetic field produced by the armature interacts with a stationary magnetic field produced either by the PM winding or by another winding, the field coil, as part of the motor frame. The force between the two magnetic fields tends to rotate the motor shaft. The commutator switches current to the windings as the rotor spins, so that the magnetic poles of the rotor never come into complete alignment with the magnetic poles of the stator field, so the rotor never stops (like a compass needle), but spins as long as current is applied.

**Question 0**

What is called a temporary magent to create a passing current?

**Question 1**

What rotates the motor shaft?

**Question 2**

Which element of the motor prevents the poles from aligning?

**Question 3**

Which non-motorised device shows why a commutator is needed?

**Question 4**

What is called a current that flows to create a non-temporary magent?

**Question 5**

What is not rotating the motor shaft?

**Question 6**

Which engine element makes the poles align?

**Question 7**

Which motor device shows why a commutator is needed?

**Text number 12**

Many of the limitations of a classic DC motor with a commutator are due to the fact that the brushes have to be pressed against the commutator. This causes friction. Sparks are created when the brushes form and break circuits through the rotor windings as the brushes cross the insulating gaps between the commutator parts. Depending on the construction of the commutator, this can include the brushes short-circuiting adjacent parts - and thus the ends of the coil - momentarily as they cross the gaps. In addition, the inductance of the rotor windings causes the voltage of each coil to rise when its circuit is opened, increasing the sparking of the brushes. This sparking limits the maximum speed of the machine, as too rapid sparking will overheat, wear out or even melt the commutator. The current density of the brushes per unit area, combined with their resistivity, limits the power of the motor. Making and breaking electrical contact also causes electrical noise; sparking causes RFI. The brushes eventually wear out and need to be replaced, and the commutator itself wears out and needs to be serviced (for larger motors) or replaced (for smaller motors). The commutator assembly for a large motor is an expensive element that requires precise assembly of many parts. In small engines, the commutator is usually permanently integrated in the rotor, so replacing it usually requires replacing the entire rotor.

**Question 0**

How is RFI generated?

**Question 1**

What do the brushes need to be in contact with?

**Question 2**

What happens when there is contact between engine parts?

**Question 3**

What are the sparking restrictions?

**Question 4**

Which engine parts need replacement and maintenance the most?

**Question 5**

How is RFID produced?

**Question 6**

What do the brushes not need to be in contact with?

**Question 7**

What does not result from contact between engine parts?

**Question 8**

What is not limited by sparking?

**Question 9**

Which engine parts need the least replacement and maintenance?

**Text number 13**

With large brushes you want a larger brush contact area to maximise engine power, but with small brushes you want a small mass to maximise engine speed without excessive bouncing and sparking. (Small brushes are also desirable for lower cost.) More rigid brush springs can also be used to make brushes of a given mass operate at higher speeds, but at the cost of higher friction losses (lower efficiency) and faster wear on the brushes and commutator. The design of DC motor brushes therefore has to make a trade-off between output power, speed and efficiency/wear.

**Question 0**

Where do large brushes fit?

**Question 1**

Where do small brushes fit?

**Question 2**

Which brushes are the cheapest?

**Question 3**

How can the speed of larger brushes be increased?

**Question 4**

Apart from wear, what is the disadvantage of rigid brush springs?

**Question 5**

Where do small brushes fit?

**Question 6**

What are small brushes not suitable for?

**Question 7**

Which types of brushes are not the cheapest?

**Question 8**

How can the speed of larger brushes be reduced?

**Question 9**

Apart from wear, what is the disadvantage of rigid brush springs?

**Text number 14**

The PM motor does not have a field winding in the stator frame, but relies on PM motors to generate a magnetic field against which the rotor field interacts to produce torque. In larger motors, compensating windings in series with the armature can be used to improve commutation under load. Since this field is fixed, it cannot be adjusted for speed control. PM fields (stators) are convenient in miniature motors to eliminate the current consumption of the field winding. Most larger DC motors are of the "dynamo" type with stator windings. In the past, PM windings could not maintain a high flux if they were disassembled; field windings were more practical for obtaining the required flux. However, large PM machines are expensive, dangerous and difficult to assemble, which favours field windings in large machines.

**Question 0**

Where can the PM motor not be adjusted?

**Question 1**

What is another name for PM fields?

**Question 2**

What design feature is missing from the PM engine?

**Question 3**

What do field coils offer?

**Question 4**

Where can the PMM motor not be adjusted?

**Question 5**

What is another name for PMM fields?

**Question 6**

What is missing from the PMM engine?

**Question 7**

What do field coils not offer?

**Text number 15**

To minimise overall weight and size, high energy magnets made of neodymium or other strategic elements can be used in miniature PM motors; most such magnets are a neodymium-iron-boron alloy. Due to the higher flux density, electric motors with high-energy PM magnets are at least competitive with all optimally designed single-supply synchronous and induction electric motors. Miniature motors are similar in design to the picture, but with at least three rotor modes (to ensure starting regardless of rotor position) and an outer casing of steel tubing that magnetically connects the outer surfaces of the curved field magnets.

**Question 0**

Why are high-energy magnets used in miniature PM motors?

**Question 1**

Where are high-energy magnets typically made?

**Question 2**

What does the outer casing of a miniature engine look like?

**Question 3**

How do PM motors differ from other electric motors?

**Question 4**

Why are high-energy magnets used in large PM motors?

**Question 5**

Where will high-energy magnets never be made?

**Question 6**

What does the outer casing of a miniature engine not resemble?

**Question 7**

How do PM motors differ from other electric motors?

**Text number 16**

Universal motors operate at standard grid frequencies and are often less than 1000 watts. Universal motors were also the basis of the traditional traction motor for electric locomotives. In this application, the use of AC power to drive a motor originally designed to operate on DC power would result in power losses due to eddy current heating of their magnetic components, in particular the motor field pole pieces. A DC motor would have used solid (unlaminated) iron, and these are rarely used today.

**Question 0**

What is the typical maximum range for universal motors?

**Question 1**

What type of engine was used in track traction applications?

**Question 2**

What is the result when an alternating current is applied to a DC motor?

**Question 3**

Where were the hub pieces for the universal motor built?

**Question 4**

What is the maximum atypical range for universal motors?

**Question 5**

What type of engine was not used in track traction applications?

**Question 6**

What is the result when DC current is used in a DC motor?

**Question 7**

What are the pole pieces for the universal motor not built from?

**Text number 17**

The advantage of the universal motor is that AC power can be used in motors with some of the more typical characteristics of DC motors, in particular high starting torque and very compact design if high speeds are used. The disadvantage is the maintenance and short life problems caused by the commutator. Such motors are used, for example, in food mixers and power tools, which are used only intermittently and often have high starting torque requirements. The multiple forks of the field coil allow (inaccurate) stepwise speed adjustment. Household mixers advertising multiple speeds often combine a field coil with multiple branches and a diode that can be placed in series with the motor (so that the motor operates on half-wave rectification). Universal motors are also suitable for electronic speed control, making them an ideal choice for appliances such as household washing machines. The motor can be used for drum mixing (both forward and reverse) by changing the field winding relative to the armature.

**Question 0**

What kind of motor can use both AC and DC power?

**Question 1**

Which part of the universal motor is most likely to fail?

**Question 2**

When is torque most important in general purpose motor applications?

**Question 3**

How does connecting the field winding of a washing machine cause the drum to mix?

**Question 4**

How is the step-by-step speed control implemented?

**Question 5**

What kind of motor can use both DC and DC power?

**Question 6**

Which part of the universal motor is unlikely to be damaged?

**Question 7**

When is torque least important in universal motor applications?

**Question 8**

Turning off the field winding on washing machines causes the drum to agitate how?

**Text number 18**

SCIM motors cannot turn the shaft faster than the frequency of the power grid allows, while universal motors can operate at much higher speeds. This makes them useful in applications such as blenders, vacuum cleaners and hair dryers where high speed and lightness are required. They are also commonly used in portable power tools such as drills, grinders, circular and jigsaws, where the motor characteristics work well. Many vacuum cleaners and lawnmowers have motors that exceed 10 000 rpm, while many similar miniature grinders have motors that exceed 30 000 rpm.

**Question 0**

What RMP do weed trimmer engines run on?

**Question 1**

What RMP do the miniature mills run on?

**Question 2**

What types of engines can run much faster than universal engines?

**Question 3**

What features make universal motors desirable for consumer applications such as hairdryers?

**Question 4**

At what RRP do weed trimmer engines run?

**Question 5**

At what RMR value do miniature mills operate?

**Question 6**

What types of engines with universal motors can not run much faster?

**Question 7**

What features make universal motors undesirable in consumer applications such as hairdryers?

**Text number 19**

The currents induced in this winding form the magnetic field of the rotor. The shape of the rotor bars determines the speed and torque characteristics. At low speeds, the current induced in the short-circuit winding is almost at line frequency and tends to be in the outer parts of the rotor cage. As the motor accelerates, the slip frequency decreases and more current is in the inner parts of the winding. When the rods are shaped so that the resistance of the inner and outer parts of the winding is changed, what is effectively a variable resistance is added to the rotor circuit. However, most such motors have uniform rods.

**Question 0**

What determines the characteristics of speed and torque?

**Question 1**

Where is the most power at high speed?

**Question 2**

Is the current frequency higher or lower at high speed?

**Question 3**

What can be achieved by changing the shapes of the beams?

**Question 4**

Where can variable resistance be created?

**Question 5**

What does not determine the characteristics of speed and torque?

**Question 6**

Where is the most power at low speed?

**Question 7**

Is the currentless frequency higher or lower at high speed?

**Question 8**

What happens if the shapes of the beams are not changed?

**Question 9**

Where variable resistance cannot be created?

**Text number 20**

In a WRIM motor, the rotor winding consists of several turns of insulated wire, and is coupled to slip rings on the motor shaft. An external resistor or other control devices can be connected to the rotor circuit. The resistors allow the speed of the motor to be controlled, even though considerable power is dissipated in the external resistor. A transformer can be fed from the rotor circuit to return slip frequency power, which would otherwise be lost, back to the power system via an inverter or a separate motor-generator.

**Question 0**

Where could the resistor be fixed?

**Question 1**

What can a resistor control?

**Question 2**

How can wasted energy be saved?

**Question 3**

Where does the converter get fed from?

**Question 4**

Where might the resistance not be fixed?

**Question 5**

What resistance can never be controlled?

**Question 6**

How can wasted power not be saved?

**Question 7**

Where not to feed the converter?

**Text number 21**

When using a load with a torque curve that increases with speed, the motor operates at a speed where the torque developed by the motor is equal to the torque of the load. Decreasing the load causes the motor to speed up, and increasing the load causes the motor to slow down until the torque of the load and the motor are equal. When operating in this way, slip losses are lost in the secondary resistances, and can be very significant. Speed control and net efficiency are also very poor.

**Question 0**

What will the engine do if the load is reduced?

**Question 1**

What will the engine do if the load is increased?

**Question 2**

Where do the slip losses disappear?

**Question 3**

How effective is such a structure?

**Question 4**

What will the engine do if the load is not reduced?

**Question 5**

What will the engine do if the load is reduced?

**Question 6**

Where are the sliding losses not lost?

**Question 7**

How inefficient is such a structure?

**Text number 22**

A common application for a torque motor is the feed and take-up spool motors of a tape drive. In this application, which is controlled at low voltage, the characteristics of these motors allow a relatively stable light tension to be applied to the tape, whether or not the tape is fed past the tape ends by the capstan. Torque motors operating at higher voltages (and thus higher torque) can also achieve fast forward and reverse winding without the need for additional mechanics such as gears or clutches. In the world of computer games, torque motors are used in force-sensitive steering wheels.

**Question 0**

How are torsion motors used in computer games?

**Question 1**

What does a torque motor at low voltage produce?

**Question 2**

What does a torque motor produce at high voltage?

**Question 3**

What is not needed at the tape drive if a torque motor is used?

**Question 4**

Why are torsion motors not used in computer games?

**Question 5**

What does a torque motor produce at high voltage?

**Question 6**

What does a torque motor at low voltage produce?

**Question 7**

What is needed at the tape drive if a torque motor is used?

**Text number 23**

Another common application is the control of an internal combustion engine's throttle valve in combination with an electronic governor. In this application, the engine acts as a return spring counterweight to move the throttle in accordance with the power of the governor. The latter controls the engine speed by counting the electrical pulses from the ignition system or the magneto and makes small adjustments to the amount of current supplied to the engine according to the speed. If the engine starts to slow down at the desired speed, the current is increased, the engine develops more torque, pulls against the back spring and opens the throttle. If the engine is running too fast, the governor reduces the amount of current supplied to the engine, causing the return spring to pull back and close the throttle.

**Question 0**

What part of the internal combustion engine is controlled by the governor?

**Question 1**

What's the Governor got to do with it?

**Question 2**

What changes would the Governor make?

**Question 3**

What would a governor do to an engine that is running too fast?

**Question 4**

Which internal combustion engine component is not controlled by the governor?

**Question 5**

What has the Governor been disconnected from?

**Question 6**

What kind of changes would the Governor never make?

**Question 7**

What would the regulator do to an engine that is running too slowly?

**Text number 24**

A synchronous electric motor is an AC motor characterised by a rotor that rotates on windings that pass by magnets in synchrony with the AC current and the magnetic field that drives it. Another way of saying this is that it has no slip under normal operating conditions. Unlike an induction motor, which must slip to produce torque. One type of synchronous motor is similar to an induction motor, but the rotor is excited by a DC field. Slip rings and brushes are used to conduct the current to the rotor. The rotor poles are coupled together and move at the same speed, hence the name synchronous motor. The second type, intended to produce low load torque, has flat blades grounded to a conventional squirrel-cage rotor, forming separate poles. The second type of motor, such as Hammond's pre-World War II bells and the older Hammond organs, has no rotor windings and has separate poles. It is not self-starting. The bell has to be started manually by a small knob on the back, while the older Hammond organs had an additional starter motor connected by a spring-loaded manual clutch.

**Question 0**

How much slip is there in a synchronous motor?

**Question 1**

How does an induction motor produce torque?

**Question 2**

How to start a Hammond clock without rotor windings?

**Question 3**

How can a synchronous motor be made more like an induction motor?

**Question 4**

How is power supplied to the rotor of a synchronous motor?

**Question 5**

How much slip is there in a non-synchronous engine?

**Question 6**

How does an induction motor not produce torque?

**Question 7**

How to start a Hammond clock with a rotor winding?

**Question 8**

How can a synchronous motor be made less like an induction motor?

**Question 9**

How is the rotor of a synchronous motor not energised?

**Text number 25**

Hysteresis synchronous motors are typically (mainly) two-phase motors with a phase transfer capacitor for the second phase. They start like induction motors, but when the slip speed is reduced sufficiently, the rotor (smooth cylinder) is temporarily magnetised. Its distributed poles make it act like a PMSM. The rotor material, like that of a normal nail, remains magnetised, but it can also be demagnetised without much difficulty. When the rotor poles are running, they stay in place and do not drift.

**Question 0**

What do the rotors of hysteresis synchronous motors do when the traction speed is reduced?

**Question 1**

What do the hysteresis synchronous motor hubs do during operation?

**Question 2**

What do hysteresis synchronous motors resemble when started?

**Question 3**

How can the rotor of a hysteresis synchronous motor be described?

**Question 4**

What do the distributed hubs of a hysteresis synchronous motor look like?

**Question 5**

What do the rotors of hysteresis synchronous motors do when the traction speed increases?

**Question 6**

What do the hysteresis synchronous motor hubs not do during operation?

**Question 7**

What do hysteresis synchronous motors not resemble when started?

**Question 8**

How can the rotor of a hysteresis synchronous motor not be described?

**Question 9**

What do the split hubs of a hysteresis synchronous motor look like?

**Text number 26**

In dual-fed electric motors, there are two independent multi-phase winding assemblies that produce active (i.e. work) power for the energy conversion process, and at least one winding assembly is electronically controlled for variable speed control. Two independent multiphase winding assemblies (i.e., dual anchors) is the maximum number that can be provided in a single package without overlapping topologies. Double-wound electric motors are machines with an effective constant torque speed range twice the synchronous speed at a given excitation frequency. This is twice the constant torque speed range of single-fed electric machines with only one set of active windings.

**Question 0**

Which type of motor has two independent multiphase winding assemblies?

**Question 1**

What are the advantages of independent multiphase winding sets?

**Question 2**

What is one of the independent multiphase coil sets configured for?

**Question 3**

What is the advantage of dual-fuel engines over single-fuel engines?

**Question 4**

Which type of motor has three separate multiphase winding assemblies?

**Question 5**

What is not the advantage of independent multiphase winding sets?

**Question 6**

What is one dependent multiphase winding set configured for?

**Question 7**

What are the disadvantages of dual-fuel engines compared to single-fuel engines?

**Text number 27**

None of the principles of the motors described above require that the iron (steel) parts of the rotor actually rotate. If the soft magnetic material of the rotor is made in the form of a cylinder, the torque is applied (apart from the effect of hysteresis) only to the windings of the electromagnets. The coreless or ironless DC motor which takes advantage of this fact is a special type of PM DC motor. These motors, optimised for high acceleration, have a rotor built without an iron core. The rotor can take the form of a cylinder filled with a winding or a self-supporting structure consisting only of magnetic wire and bonding material. The rotor fits inside the magnets of the stator; a magnetically soft stationary cylinder inside the rotor forms the magnetic flux return path of the stator. In another arrangement, the rotor winding encloses the stator magnets. In this arrangement, the rotor fits within the magnetically soft cylinder, which can act as a motor housing, and likewise provides a return path for the flux.

**Question 0**

What is the difference between a coreless DC motor and a DC motor?

**Question 1**

What is missing in a coreless DC motor?

**Question 2**

What shapes can a rotor take?

**Question 3**

What is the difference between a nuclear-free RC engine and a non-nuclear engine?

**Question 4**

What can't you find in a non-nuclear RC engine?

**Question 5**

What shapes can the rotor not take?

**Text number 28**

Because the rotor is much lighter (in mass) than a conventional rotor formed by copper windings on steel plates, the rotor can accelerate much faster and often reaches a mechanical time constant of less than 1 ms. This is particularly true if aluminium is used for the windings instead of heavier copper. However, since there is no metal mass in the rotor to act as a cooling element, even small coreless motors often have to be cooled by compressed air. Overheating can be a problem in the design of coreless DC motors.

**Question 0**

What is the likely problem with DC motors without cores?

**Question 1**

What is the weight ratio between a conventional rotor and a coreless rotor?

**Question 2**

What are the advantages of a nuclear-free rotor compared to conventional rotor options?

**Question 3**

How to cool an engine without nuclear cooling?

**Question 4**

What function is missing when the core is missing a metal mass?

**Question 5**

What is the likely problem with coreless RC motors?

**Question 6**

How can a nuclear worm rotor not match the weight of conventional rotors?

**Question 7**

What advantage does a coreless rotor not have over conventional alternatives?

**Question 8**

How do you heat a non-nuclear engine?

**Question 9**

A surplus of metallic mass in the core causes the absence of which function?

**Text number 29**

These motors were originally invented to use the capacitor(s) of magnetic tape drives in the burgeoning computer industry, where minimum time to reach operating speed and minimum stopping distance were critical. Pancake motors are still widely used in high-performance servo-controlled systems, robotic systems, industrial automation and medical devices. Thanks to the variety of designs available today, this technology is used in applications ranging from high temperature military applications to low cost pump and basic servo motors.

**Question 0**

What was the original purpose of pancake engines?

**Question 1**

What are the advantages of pancake engines?

**Question 2**

In what military applications are pancake engines used today?

**Question 3**

What kind of servo-controlled systems use pancake motors?

**Question 4**

What was the original purpose of waffle engines?

**Question 5**

What are the advantages of waffle engines?

**Question 6**

In what military applications are waffle engines currently used?

**Question 7**

What kind of servo-controlled systems use wave motors?

**Text number 30**

A servomotor is a motor, very often sold as a complete module, used in a feedback control system for position or speed control, mainly in control valves such as motorised control valves. Servomotors are used in applications such as machine tools, pen writers and other process systems. Motors intended for use in servomechanisms must have well documented speed, torque and power characteristics. The speed vs. torque curve is quite important and is highly relative for a servo motor. Dynamic response characteristics such as winding inductance and rotor inertia are also important; these factors limit the overall performance of the servo loop. For large, powerful but slow-responding servo loops, conventional AC or DC motors and drive systems with motor position or speed feedback can be used. When dynamic response requirements increase, more specialised motor designs, such as coreless motors, are used. The improved power density and acceleration characteristics of AC motors compared to DC motors favour PM synchronous motors, BLDC, induction and SRM applications.

**Question 0**

What can servo motors be used for?

**Question 1**

What needs to be well understood when applying a servo motor to a deployment?

**Question 2**

What factors limit the performance of servo motors?

**Question 3**

What types of motors can be used in large, slow servos?

**Question 4**

When can nuclear motors be used in servo applications?

**Question 5**

What should servo motors never be used for?

**Question 6**

What should not be well understood when applying for a servo motor?

**Question 7**

What factors do not limit the performance of servo motors?

**Question 8**

What types of motors can be used in small, fast servos?

**Text number 31**

A servo system differs from some stepper motor applications in that position feedback is continuous while the motor is running; a stepper motor system relies on the motor not "missing steps" to achieve short-term accuracy, although a stepper motor system may have a "home switch" or other element to ensure long-term stability of control. For example, when a typical dot matrix computer printer starts up, its controller causes the print head stepper motor to drive to the left limit, where a position sensor determines the home position and stops the stepping. As long as power is on, a bidirectional counter in the printer's microprocessor monitors the printhead position.

**Question 0**

How do servo motors differ from stepper motors?

**Question 1**

How does the stepper motor system achieve stability?

**Question 2**

What makes the printer's home switch work?

**Question 3**

What kind of counter tracks the location of the print head?

**Question 4**

What should a stepper motor not do?

**Question 5**

How do servo motors differ from stepper motors?

**Question 6**

How does a stepper motor system fail to achieve stability?

**Question 7**

What causes the printer's home switch to break?

**Question 8**

What kind of counter tracks the position of the weight foot?

**Question 9**

The stepper motor must not do what?

**Text number 32**

Stepper motors are a type of motor often used when precise rotation is required. In a stepper motor, an internal rotor containing particle pedals, or a magnetically soft rotor with separating poles, is controlled by external magnets that are electronically switched. The stepper motor can also be considered as a cross between a DC motor and a rotary solenoid. When each winding is tuned in turn, the rotor is subjected to the magnetic field produced by the tuned field winding. Unlike a synchronous motor, a stepper motor in its application cannot rotate continuously, but "steps" - starts and stops rapidly - from one position to another as the field coils are energised and de-energised in sequence. Depending on the sequence, the rotor can turn backwards or forwards, and can change direction, stop, speed up or slow down arbitrarily at any time.

**Question 0**

When are stepper motors most useful?

**Question 1**

Which two devices can describe a stepper motor?

**Question 2**

Where are the rotors of the stepper motor pointing?

**Question 3**

How does a stepper motor differ from a synchronous motor?

**Question 4**

What speeds and positions is the stepper motor capable of?

**Question 5**

When are stepper motors least useful?

**Question 6**

Which three devices can describe a stepper motor?

**Question 7**

What do the rotors of a stepper motor align themselves without?

**Question 8**

How does a stepper motor differ from a synchronous motor?

**Text number 33**

Simple stepper motor controllers switch the field windings completely de-energised or completely de-energised, allowing the rotor to "roll" to a limited number of positions; more sophisticated controllers can proportionally control the power of the field windings, allowing the rotors to be positioned between gear points and thus rotate very smoothly. This mode of operation is often referred to as microstepping. Computer-controlled stepper motors are one of the most versatile forms of positioning systems, especially when they are part of a digital servo-controlled system.

**Question 0**

What is a feature of an advanced stepper motor?

**Question 1**

What is achieved by proportional control of the field coils of a stepper motor?

**Question 2**

What is another name for smooth rotation?

**Question 3**

With which other device are stepper motors most versatile?

**Question 4**

What is not a feature of an advanced stepper motor?

**Question 5**

What is not achieved by proportional control of the field coils of a stepper motor?

**Question 6**

What is another name for rough rotation?

**Question 7**

Where else are stepper motors not the most versatile?

**Text number 34**

Stepper motors can be easily rotated to a specific angle in separate steps, which is why they are used to position the read and write heads of computer disk drives. They were used for the same purpose before the gigabyte era in computer disk drives, where the accuracy and speed they provided was sufficient to correctly position the read and write heads of a hard disk drive. As drive density increased, the accuracy and speed limitations of stepper motors made them obsolete in hard disk drives - the accuracy limitation made them unusable and the speed limitation made them uncompetitive - so newer hard disk drives use voice-coil-based main drive systems. (The term "voice coil" is historical in this context; it refers to the design of a typical (cone-type) speaker. This structure was used for a time for head positioning. Modern inverters have a pivoting coil mount; the coil swings back and forth, a bit like the blade of a rotating fan. However, the coil leads (magnetic wire) of a modern actuator move perpendicular to the magnetic power lines, like a voice coil).

**Question 0**

Why were stepper motors abandoned in computer operating systems?

**Question 1**

What do newer computer drivers use instead of stepper motors?

**Question 2**

In which direction are modern reel actuators moving?

**Question 3**

To what device does the term "voice coil" historically refer?

**Question 4**

Why were stepper motors not abandoned in computer operating systems?

**Question 5**

What do newer computer drivers not use instead of stepper motors?

**Question 6**

Which way do modern reel actuators not move?

**Question 7**

To which device does the term "voice coil" not historically refer?

**Text number 35**

Stepper motors were and still are often used in computer printers, optical scanners and digital copiers to move the optical scanning element, the print head carriage (in dot matrix and inkjet printers) and the platen or feed rollers. Similarly, many computer plotters (replaced since the early 1990s by large-format ink-jet and laser printers) used rotary stepper motors to move the pen and platen; typical options were either linear stepper motors or servo motors with closed-loop analogue control systems.

**Question 0**

List two options for rotary stepper motors in printing applications.

**Question 1**

What do the stepper motors move in the scanner?

**Question 2**

What do stepper motors move in printers and copiers?

**Question 3**

List two options for rotary stepper motors in non-printing applications.

**Question 4**

What do the stepper motors not move in the scanner?

**Question 5**

What do stepper motors not move in printers and copiers?

**Text number 36**

As the armature windings of a DC or universal motor move through a magnetic field, a voltage is induced in them. This voltage is against the motor's supply voltage and is called the "electromotive force (emf)". The voltage is proportional to the speed of the motor. The motor's back voltage, together with the internal resistance of the winding and the voltage drop across the brushes, must be equal to the voltage across the brushes. This is the basic mechanism of speed control in a DC motor. If the mechanical load increases, the motor slows down, reducing the back torque current and drawing more current from the supply network. This increased current produces additional torque to balance the new load.

**Question 0**

What is called the resistive voltage against the motor supply voltage?

**Question 1**

EMP is proportional to what?

**Question 2**

What is the voltage in the brushes?

**Question 3**

If the load increases, what happens to the power intake?

**Question 4**

What is called a voltage that is not opposite to the supply voltage of the motor?

**Question 5**

ENP is in relation to what?

**Question 6**

The voltage in the brushes is not equal to what?

**Question 7**

If the load decreases, what happens to the current?

**Text number 37**

All electromagnetic motors, including the types mentioned here, derive their torque from the vector output of interacting fields. Once these have been determined by mathematical analysis using FEA or other tools, the torque can be calculated as the integral of all force vectors multiplied by the radius of each vector. The current flowing through the winding produces fields, and in a motor using magnetic material, the field is not linearly proportional to the current. This makes the calculation difficult, but a computer can perform many of the necessary calculations.

**Question 0**

What do I need to know to calculate the torque?

**Question 1**

How are the many calculations to determine the torque performed?

**Question 2**

How is torque determined?

**Question 3**

What is the torque formula?

**Question 4**

What do you not need to know to calculate torque?

**Question 5**

How are the very few calculations to determine torque done?

**Question 6**

How is the torque undefined?

**Question 7**

What is the formula for not determining torque?

**Text number 38**

When optimally designed within a given core saturation limit and for a given active current (i.e. torque current), voltage, pole-pair number, excitation frequency (i.e. synchronous speed) and air gap flux density, all classes of electric motors or generators have essentially the same maximum continuous shaft torque (i.e., operating torque) in a given air gap region with winding slots and back-plate depth, which determines the physical size of the electromagnetic core. In some applications, torque surges greater than the maximum operating torque are required, such as short bursts of torque to accelerate an electric vehicle from a stationary position. Magnetic core saturation or safe operating temperature rise and voltage will always limit magnetic core saturation, and there are significant differences between classes of electric motors or generators when torque exceeds maximum operating torque.

**Question 0**

What factors determine the torque on the axle?

**Question 1**

What determines the size of an electromagnetic nucleus?

**Question 2**

What limits excessive torque?

**Question 3**

Which factors do not determine the torque of the axle?

**Question 4**

What determines the size of a non-electromagnetic nucleus?

**Question 5**

What does not limit excessive torque?

**Text number 39**

The brushless wound-rotor synchronous double-feed machine (BWRSDF) is the only electrical machine with a truly dual-port transformer circuit topology (i.e. both ports are independently energized without a short-circuit port). Dual-port transformer circuit topology is known to be unstable and requires a multi-stage slip-ring brush configuration to transfer limited power to the rotor winding set. If a precision means were available to instantaneously adjust the torque angle and slip for synchronous operation while the motor or generator is running, while simultaneously supplying brushless power to the rotor winding set, the active current of the BWRSDF machine would be independent of the reactive impedance of the transformer circuit, and torque surges significantly greater than the maximum operating torque and well beyond the practical capabilities of any other type of electrical machine would be possible. Torque surges of more than eight times have been calculated.

**Question 0**

What is the only device with a dual port transformer circuit topology?

**Question 1**

What is a brushless wound rotor?

**Question 2**

How does a brushless wound rotor achieve stability?

**Question 3**

What is the theoretical maximum size of a brushless twisted rotor?

**Question 4**

What is the only device with a triple gate transformer circuit topology?

**Question 5**

What is a brush-filled spiral rotor?

**Question 6**

How does a brushless wound rotor fail to achieve stability?

**Question 7**

What is not the theoretical maximum for a brushless twisted rotor?

**Text number 40**

The continuous torque density of conventional electric machines is determined by the air gap area and the depth of the backbone, which are determined by the rated power of the armature winding assembly, the speed of the machine and the achievable air gap current density before core saturation. Despite the high coercivity of neodymium or samarium cobalt particles, the constant torque density is practically the same in electric machines with optimally designed armature winding sets. The continuous torque density is related to the cooling method and the allowable operating time before destruction by overheating or particle damage of the windings.

**Question 0**

What determines the continuous torque density?

**Question 1**

Which three factors determine the air gap area and the depth of the wing?

**Question 2**

What is continuous torque density?

**Question 3**

How does the constant torque density vary between well-designed engines?

**Question 4**

What determines the discontinuous torque density?

**Question 5**

What is the fourth factor that determines the air gap area and the depth of the wake?

**Question 6**

What does the constant torque density not indicate?

**Question 7**

How does the discontinuous torque density vary between well-designed engines?

**Text number 41**

The electrostatic motor is based on the attraction and repulsion of an electric charge. In general, electrostatic motors are dual versions of traditional coil-based motors. They usually require a high-voltage power supply, although very small motors use a lower voltage. Conventional electric motors, on the other hand, use magnetic attraction and repulsion and require high current at low voltage. Benjamin Franklin and Andrew Gordon developed the first electrostatic motors in the 1750s. Today, electrostatic motors are often used in microelectromechanical systems (MEMS), where operating voltages are less than 100 volts and where moving, charged disks are much easier to manufacture than coils and iron cores. Molecular machines that drive living cells are also often based on linear and rotary electrostatic motors [reference].

**Question 0**

What kind of motor is based on the attraction and repulsion of electric charge?

**Question 1**

What are electrostatic motors like two?

**Question 2**

What kind of power supply do electrostatic motors usually have?

**Question 3**

Which two inventors developed the first electrostatic engines?

**Question 4**

What type of motor is used in microelectromechanical systems?

**Question 5**

Which type of motor does not rely on the attraction and repulsion of electric charge?

**Question 6**

What are electrostatic motors like three?

**Question 7**

What kind of power supply is not usually available for electrostatic motors?

**Question 8**

Which two inventors developed the second electrostatic motor?

**Question 9**

What type of motor is used in macroelectromechanical systems?

**Document number 229**

**Text number 0**

Switzerland (/ˈswɪtsərlənd/), officially the Swiss Confederation (Latin: Confoederatio Helvetica, abbreviated CH), is a country in Europe. Although Switzerland is still called the "Swiss Confederation" for historical reasons, modern Switzerland is a federal republic of 26 cantons, with the seat of the federal authorities in Bern, known as the Bundesstadt ("federal city").The country is located in western and central Europe,[note 4] and is bordered by Italy to the south, France to the west, Germany to the north, and Austria and Liechtenstein to the east. Switzerland is a landlocked country, geographically divided between the Alps, the Swiss plateau and the Jura, with a surface area of 41 285 km2. The Alps cover most of the territory, but Switzerland's population of about 8 million is concentrated mainly on the plateau, where the main cities are located: Zurich and Geneva are the two global and economic centres.

**Question 0**

What is the official name of Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What kind of government does Switzerland have?

**Question 2**

How many cantons are there in the Swiss Confederation?

**Question 3**

What are the 3 geographical features that divide Switzerland?

**Question 4**

What is the population of Switzerland?

**Text number 1**

The foundation of the Swiss Confederation is traditionally dated 1 August 1291, which is celebrated annually on Switzerland's National Day. The country has a long history of armed neutrality - it has not been in a state of international war since 1815 - and only joined the United Nations in 2002. However, it has an active foreign policy and is a frequent participant in peace-building processes around the world. In addition to being the birthplace of the Red Cross, Switzerland is home to a number of international organisations, including the second largest office of the United Nations. At European level, it is a founding member of the European Free Trade Association, but is not part of the European Union or the European Economic Area. However, it participates in the Schengen area and the EU internal market through a number of bilateral agreements.

**Question 0**

What is the traditional founding day of the Swiss Confederation?

**Question 1**

In which year did Switzerland join the United Nations?

**Question 2**

Which country is the birthplace of the Red Cross?

**Question 3**

In which year was Switzerland last involved in an international war?

**Question 4**

What Swiss holiday is celebrated every year on 1 August?

**Text number 2**

Switzerland lies at the crossroads of Germanic and Romanic Europe and is made up of four main linguistic and cultural areas: German, French, Italian and Romansh. Although the Swiss speak mainly German, they do not form a nation in the sense of a common ethnic origin or language. Rather, Switzerland's strong sense of identity and community is based on a shared historical background, common values such as federalism and direct democracy, and Alpine symbolism. Due to its linguistic diversity, Switzerland is known by several different national names: Schweiz [ˈʃvaɪts] (German);[note. 5] Suisse [sɥis(ə)] (French); Svizzera [ˈzvittsera] (Italian); and Svizra [ˈʒviːtsrɐ] or [ˈʒviːtsʁːɐ] (Romanian)[note 6].

**Question 0**

What are the four main linguistic and cultural areas that make up Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What is the common language in Switzerland?

**Question 2**

What do French Swiss call Switzerland?

**Question 3**

What do the German Swiss call Switzerland?

**Question 4**

What do Italian Swiss call Switzerland?

**Text number 3**

Switzerland is one of the richest and most prosperous countries in the world. Switzerland ranks at or near the top in a number of national performance indicators, such as transparency of governance, civil liberties, quality of life, economic competitiveness and human development. It has the highest nominal wealth (financial and non-financial assets) per adult in the world, according to Credit Suisse, and the eighth highest GDP per capita in the IMF rankings. Zurich and Geneva are both ranked among the best cities in the world for quality of life, the former being the second best in the world by Mercer.

**Question 0**

How does Switzerland rank globally in areas such as quality of life and civil liberties?

**Question 1**

Which country has the highest nominal wealth per adult in the world, according to Credit Suisse?

**Question 2**

Which two Swiss cities have been ranked as the best quality cities in the world?

**Question 3**

Which assets are included in nominal assets?

**Question 4**

What is Switzerland's ranking in terms of GDP per capita in the IMF ranking?

**Text number 4**

The English name Switzerland is a combination of Switzer, an obsolete term for Swiss, which was in use in the 1500s and 1900s. The English adjective Swiss is a loan from the French word Suisse, which has also been in use since the 1500s. The name Switzer is derived from the Low German name Schwiizer, which was derived from the inhabitants of Schwyz and the surrounding region, one of the cantons of Waldstätten, which formed the core of the old Swiss Confederation. The name originated as an exonym used for the pars pro toto Confederate troops. The Swiss began to use the name for themselves after the Swiss War of 1499, and it was used in conjunction with the name Eidgenossen (literally: comrades by oath), which had been in use since the 13th century.

**Question 0**

What was the Swiss term for Switzerland in the 1500s and 1900s?

**Question 1**

Where does the English adjective Swiss come from?

**Question 2**

Where does the name Switzer come from?

**Question 3**

What did the Alemannic Schwiizer help to form the core of?

**Text number 5**

The toponym Schwyz itself is first recorded in 972, as the Old High German Suittes, which may eventually be related to Suedan "to burn" and refers to a forest area that was burned and cleared for construction. The name was extended to the area under cantonal control, and after the Swabian War of 1499 it gradually came to be used for the whole of the Confederation. The German name Schwiiz in Swiss is similar to the name of a canton and a commune, but differs from each other by using the definite article (d'Schwiiz means federal, but Schwyz means canton and town).

**Question 0**

In what year was the toponym Schwyz first attested as the old Upper German name Suittes?

**Question 1**

When did the name Schwyz begin to be used throughout the federal state?

**Question 2**

What was the Swiss-German name Schwyz?

**Question 3**

What was the name d'Schwiiz used for?

**Text number 6**

The earliest known cultural tribes in the region belonged to the Hallstatt and La Tène cultures, named after the archaeological site of La Tène, north of Lake Neuchâtel. The La Tène culture developed and flourished towards the end of the Iron Age from about 450 BC, possibly under the influence of the Greeks and Etruscans. One of the most important tribal groups in the Swiss region was the Helvetians. In 58 BC, the Helvetians, harassed by the Germans, decided to abandon the Swiss plateau and move to western Gaul, but were pursued by Julius Caesar's army and defeated at the Battle of Bibractes, in present-day western France, forcing the tribe to move back to their original homeland. In 15 BC. Tiberius, who became Rome's second emperor, and his brother Drusus conquered the Alps and incorporated them into the Roman Empire. The area inhabited by the Helvetians - the namesakes of the later Confoederatio Helvetica - became part of Rome's Gallia Belgica province and then its Germania Superior province, while the eastern part of present-day Switzerland was annexed to the Roman province of Raetia. Sometime around the beginning of the Common Era, the Romans maintained a large legionary camp at Vindon, now a ruin at the confluence of the Aare and Reuss rivers near the town of Windisch, a suburb of Bruges.

**Question 0**

Who were the two earliest known cultural tribes in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

Which Swiss cultural tribe developed and flourished at the end of the Iron Age?

**Question 2**

Which Swiss tribal group was defeated by Julius Caesar at the Battle of Bribact when they tried to flee the Swiss plain?

**Question 3**

In what year did Tiberius conquer the Alps and annex them to the Roman Empire?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the great legionary camp, now a ruin, which the Romans maintained around the beginning of the Common Era?

**Text number 7**

Around 260 AD. The fall of Agri Decumates, a region north of the Rhine, turned the present-day Swiss Empire into a frontier. Repeated attacks by lowland tribes caused the Roman towns and economy to decline, forcing the population to seek shelter near Roman fortifications such as the Castrum Rauracense near Augusta Raurica. The empire built a second line of defence along the northern border (the so-called Danube-Iller-Rhine-Limes), but at the end of the fourth century, increasing Germanic pressure forced the Romans to abandon the linear defence concept, and the Swiss plateau was finally opened up to Germanic settlement.

**Question 0**

In what year did the fall of the Agri Decumates region transform present-day Switzerland?

**Question 1**

Around 260 AD, what forced the inhabitants of Roman cities to seek shelter in Roman fortresses?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the concept used by the Roman Empire to build a second line of defence on its northern border?

**Question 3**

What increased pressure forced the Romans to abandon their defensive concept at the end of the 4th century?

**Question 4**

Who got to occupy the Swiss plateau by the end of the 4th century?

**Text number 8**

In the early Middle Ages, from the end of the 4th century, the western part of what is now Switzerland was part of the territory of the kings of Burgundy. The Alemanni settled the Swiss plateau in the 5th century and the Alpine valleys in the 8th century, forming Alemannia. Modern Switzerland was then divided between the Kingdoms of Alemannia and Burgundy. The whole region became part of the expanding Frankish Empire in the 6th century, after Clovis I defeated the Alemanni at Tolbiac in 504 AD and the Franks later ruled Burgundy.

**Question 0**

Which region of what is now western Switzerland was part of at the end of the 4th century?

**Question 1**

Where did the Alemanni settle in the 5th century?

**Question 2**

Where did the Alemanni settle in the 800s and form Alemannia?

**Question 3**

Which two kingdoms formed what is now Switzerland in the 800s?

**Question 4**

To which kingdom did the whole of what is now Switzerland belong in the 6th century?

**Text number 9**

By 1200, the Swiss plateau belonged to the Savoy, Zähringer, Habsburg and Kyburg families. Some regions (Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, later known as Waldstätten) were granted imperial directorship, giving the empire direct control over the mountain ranges. After the death of the male line of the Kyburg dynasty in 1263, the Kyburg dynasty fell in 1264 AD, after which the Habsburgs under King Rudolf I (Holy Roman Emperor in 1273) claimed the Kyburg lands and annexed them, extending their territory into the eastern Swiss plateau.

**Question 0**

In 1200, which area was made up of the houses of Savoy, Zahringer, Habsburg and Kyburg?

**Question 1**

What caused the fall of the Kyburg dynasty in 1264 AD?

**Question 2**

Who took over the lands of Kyburg after their fall in 1264 AD?

**Question 3**

Under which Holy Roman Emperor were the Habsburgs in 1273 AD?

**Question 4**

What were these three regions, Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden, known as?

**Text number 10**

By 1353, the three original cantons had joined with the cantons of Glarus and Zug and the city-states of Lucerne, Zurich and Bern to form an eight-state "old federation", which existed until the end of the 15th century. This expansion increased the power and wealth of the Confederation. By 1460, the confederations controlled most of the territory south and west of the Rhine up to the Alps and the Jura mountains, especially after Habsburg victories (Battle of Sempach, Battle of Näfels), the defeat of Charles the Bold of Burgundy in the 1470s and the success of Swiss mercenaries. The Swiss victory in the Swabian War against the Swabian League of Emperor Maximilian I in 1499 marked de facto independence within the Holy Roman Empire.

**Question 0**

In what year did the three original cantons merge with five other cantons to form the "old federation" of eight states?

**Question 1**

Until what century did the old eight-state federation exist?

**Question 2**

How did the expansion of the three cantons into eight affect the status of the Confederation?

**Question 3**

Who controlled most of the territory south and west of the Rhine by 1460?

**Question 4**

Which Swiss victory in 1499 effectively marked independence within the Holy Roman Empire?

**Text number 11**

The old Swiss Confederation had gained a reputation for invincibility in these earlier wars, but the expansion of the Confederation suffered a setback in 1515 when the Swiss were defeated at the Battle of Marignano. This ended the so-called 'heroic' era of Swiss history. The success of Zwingli's Reformation in some cantons led to religious conflicts between the cantons in 1529 and 1531 (the Chapel Wars). It was not until more than a century after these internal wars, in 1648, that the peace of Westphalia recognised the independence of Switzerland from the Holy Roman Empire and its neutrality.

**Question 0**

Which battle was the first to interrupt the seemingly invincible battle of the Old Swiss Confederacy in 1515?

**Question 1**

Which inter-cantonal conflicts led to the Chapel Wars?

**Question 2**

In what year did European countries first recognise Switzerland's independence from the Holy Roman Empire?

**Question 3**

During which two years were the Chapel Wars fought?

**Question 4**

Who finally recognised Swiss neutrality at the Peace of Westphalia?

**Text number 12**

In 1798, the revolutionary French government conquered Switzerland and introduced a new unitary constitution. This centralised the country's administration and effectively abolished the cantons: in addition, Mulhouse joined France and the Valtellina Valley, the Republic of Cisalp, seceded from Switzerland. The new regime, known as the Republic of Hell, was very unpopular. It had been imposed by a foreign invading army, destroying centuries of tradition and turning Switzerland into a mere satellite state of France. The brutal suppression of the Nidwalden rebellion by the French in September 1798 was an example of the oppressive presence of the French army and the resistance of the local population to the occupation.

**Question 0**

Who conquered Switzerland in 1798?

**Question 1**

What did the French government impose on Switzerland in 1798 when the Swiss government was centralised?

**Question 2**

What was abolished when Switzerland introduced a single constitution?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the new administration that came into being when the Republic of Cisalpine seceded from Switzerland?

**Question 4**

Which unpopular republic destroyed centuries of Swiss tradition?

**Text number 13**

When war broke out between France and its rivals, Russian and Austrian troops invaded Switzerland. The Swiss refused to fight alongside the French in the name of the infernal republic. In 1803, Napoleon organised a meeting in Paris attended by leading Swiss politicians from both sides. The result was the Act of Conciliation, which restored much of Switzerland's autonomy and established a confederation of 19 cantons. From then on, Swiss policy was largely about reconciling the tradition of cantonal autonomy with the need for central government.

**Question 0**

Which troops invaded Switzerland during the Republic of Hell when war broke out between France and its rivals?

**Question 1**

Who refused to fight alongside the Republic of Hell when it was invaded by the Russians and Austrians?

**Question 2**

Which law was the result of a meeting of Swiss politicians organised by Napoleon?

**Question 3**

What did the Conciliation Act restore?

**Question 4**

How many cantons were introduced as confederations by the Arbitration Act?

**Text number 14**

The return of power to the patricians was only temporary. Following unrest and repeated violent clashes, such as the Züriputsch of 1839, a civil war (Sonderbundskrieg) broke out in 1847 when some Catholic cantons tried to form a separate confederation (Sonderbund). The war lasted less than a month and resulted in fewer than 100 deaths, most of them from friendly fire. Although the Sonderbundskrieg may seem insignificant compared to other European riots and wars of the 19th century, it had a major impact on the psychology and society of both the Swiss people and Switzerland.

**Question 0**

What did the Catholic cantons try to establish that caused the civil war in 1839?

**Question 1**

What caused most of the 1100 casualties in the Swiss Civil War in 1839?

**Question 2**

How long did the Swiss Civil War in 1839 last?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the Swiss Civil War in 1839?

**Question 4**

How much of an impact did the Sonderbundskrieg have on the psychology and society of the Swiss and Switzerland?

**Text number 15**

So, at a time when revolutionary uprisings were taking place elsewhere in Europe, the Swiss drew up a constitution that provided for a federal system, largely inspired by the American example. The constitution provided for a central government and left the cantons the right to self-government in local matters. Those in favour of cantonal power (Sonderbund Kantone) were recognised, and the National Assembly was divided into an upper house (the Council of State, with two representatives per canton) and a lower house (the National Council, with representatives elected from across the country). Referendums were made compulsory for the purpose of amending the Constitution.

**Question 0**

Which example inspired much of the new Swiss constitution, which provided for a federal structure?

**Question 1**

What did the new Swiss Constitution give the cantons in the cantons?

**Question 2**

How many houses was the Swiss National Assembly divided into?

**Question 3**

What was the name of the House of Lords, which consisted of 2 representatives from each canton?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the House of Commons whose representatives were elected throughout the country?

**Text number 16**

During the Second World War, the Germans drew up detailed invasion plans, but Switzerland was never invaded. Switzerland was able to maintain its independence thanks to military deterrence, concessions to Germany and good fortune, as major events during the war delayed the invasion. A general mobilisation of the armed forces was ordered under the command of General Henri Guisan. The Swiss military strategy was changed from static defence at the frontiers to protect the economic heartland to organised long term attrition and retreat to strong, well-stocked positions high in the Alps, known as Reduit. Switzerland was an important base for espionage for both sides in the conflict, and frequently relayed messages between the Axis powers and the Allies.

**Question 0**

While the Germans were making plans to invade, during which war did Switzerland avoid an invasion?

**Question 1**

Who was the head of the Swiss Central Command during the Second World War?

**Question 2**

What did General Henry Guisan order for a general mobilisation during the Second World War?

**Question 3**

What was the original aim of the Swiss military strategy?

**Question 4**

What were Reduit?

**Text number 17**

Both the Allies and the Axis powers blockaded the Swiss trade. Economic cooperation and credit to the Third Reich varied according to the perceived likelihood of invasion and the availability of other trading partners. Concessions peaked after the cutting of a major rail link through Vichy France in 1942, leaving Switzerland completely surrounded by the Axis powers. During the war, Switzerland interned more than 300,000 refugees, and the Geneva-based Red Cross played an important role during the conflict. Strict immigration and asylum policies and economic relations with Nazi Germany sparked controversy, but not before the end of the 20th century.

**Question 0**

Who blocked trade with Switzerland during the Second World War?

**Question 1**

What was cut off in 1942, leaving Switzerland completely surrounded by the Axis powers?

**Question 2**

How many refugees did Switzerland intern during the Second World War?

**Question 3**

When did the economic relations between Switzerland and Nazi Germany start to become contentious?

**Question 4**

Where was the headquarters of the International Red Cross?

**Text number 18**

Switzerland was the last western republic to grant women the right to vote. It was adopted by some Swiss cantons in 1959 and implemented at federal level in 1971 and, after resistance, in the last canton of Appenzell Innerrhoden (one of the two remaining Landsgemeinde) in 1990. When women gained the right to vote at federal level, their political importance rose rapidly: the first woman on the executive board of the seven-member Federal Council was Elisabeth Kopp, who served from 1984 to 1989, and the first woman president was Ruth Dreifuss in 1999.

**Question 0**

Who did Switzerland finally grant the right to vote to after the rest of the Western Republic?

**Question 1**

When did women in Switzerland gain the right to vote at federal level?

**Question 2**

Who was the first woman in the Federal Council?

**Question 3**

Who was Switzerland's first female president?

**Question 4**

In what year did Ruth Dreifuss become President?

**Text number 19**

In 2002, Switzerland became a full member of the United Nations, leaving the Vatican City State as the last widely recognised country without full membership of the UN. Switzerland is a founding member of EFTA, but is not part of the European Economic Area. An application for membership of the European Union was sent in May 1992 but did not go ahead because the EEA was rejected in December 1992, leaving Switzerland as the only country to launch a referendum on the EEA. Since then, several referendums have been held on the EU question; due to the mixed reaction of the population, the membership application has been suspended. However, Swiss legislation is gradually being aligned with EU law and the government has signed several bilateral agreements with the European Union. Switzerland, together with Liechtenstein, has been fully integrated into the EU since Austria joined in 1995. On 5 June 2005, Swiss voters approved Schengen accession by a 55% majority. EU commentators saw the result as a sign of support for Switzerland, which has traditionally been seen as an independent country unwilling to join supranational bodies.

**Question 0**

In which year did Switzerland become a full member of the United Nations?

**Question 1**

What did Swiss voters agree to join on 5 June 2005?

**Question 2**

What percentage of Swiss voters voted in favour of joining the Schengen Agreement?

**Question 3**

Although Switzerland is a founding member of EFTA, what is it not part of?

**Question 4**

What has surrounded Switzerland and Liechtenstein since 1995?

**Text number 20**

Switzerland stretches north and south of the Alps in western and central Europe, and its 41 285 square kilometres (15 940 square miles) cover a wide variety of landscapes and climates. With around 8 million inhabitants, the average population density is about 195 people per square kilometre. The more mountainous southern half of the country is much less densely populated than the northern half. The largest canton, Grisons, which is entirely in the Alps, has a population density of 27 /km² (70 /sq mi).

**Question 0**

How big is Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What is the average population density in Switzerland?

**Question 2**

What is the population density of Graubunden, the largest canton in the Alps?

**Question 3**

Which half of Switzerland is more mountainous?

**Question 4**

Which mountain range does Switzerland extend over, both north and south?

**Text number 21**

Switzerland is located between latitudes 45° and 48° N and longitudes 5° and 11° E. It comprises three basic topographical areas: the Swiss Alps in the south, the Swiss Plateau or Central Plateau in the south and the Jura Mountains in the west. The Alps are a high mountain range running through the central and southern part of the country, covering about 60% of the total surface area. Most of Switzerland's population lives in the Swiss plateau. The high valleys of the Swiss Alps contain many glaciers, covering a total area of 1,063 square kilometres. They are the source of the main waters of several major rivers, such as the Rhine, Inn, Ticino and Rhône, which flow in four directions throughout Europe. The hydrographic network includes several of the largest freshwater bodies in central and western Europe, including Lake Geneva (also known as Lac Léman in French), Lake Constance (known as Bodensee in German) and Lake Maggiore. Switzerland has more than 1,500 lakes and holds 6% of Europe's freshwater reserves. Lakes and glaciers cover about 6% of the country's surface area. The largest lake is Lake Geneva, located in western Switzerland and shared with France. The Rhône is both the main source and outlet of Lake Geneva. Lake Constance is the second largest lake in Switzerland and, like Lake Geneva, is the intermediate point of the Rhine on the Austrian-German border. Although the Rhône flows into the Mediterranean Sea in the Camarque region of France and the Rhine into the North Sea in Rotterdam, the Netherlands, some 1,000 kilometres apart, the two sources are located in the Swiss Alps only about 22 kilometres apart.

**Question 0**

Which topographical base area is located in the south of Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What is the topographic base area in central Switzerland?

**Question 2**

What is the topographic base area in western Switzerland?

**Question 3**

How much of Switzerland's total land area is covered by the Alps?

**Question 4**

What is the largest lake in Switzerland?

**Text number 22**

48 of Switzerland's mountains are 4 000 metres or more above sea level. Monte Rosa is the highest at 4 634 m, although the Matterhorn (4 478 m) is often considered the most famous. Both are located in the Pennine Alps in the canton of Valais. The part of the Bernese Alps above the deep glacial Lauterbrunnen valley, with 72 waterfalls, is famous for the Jungfrau (4 158 m), the Eiger and Mönch mountains and the many picturesque valleys in the area. The long Engadine valley in the south-east, which includes the St. Moritz region in the canton of Grisons, is also well known; the highest peak in the neighbouring Bernina Alps is Piz Bernina (4 049 m).

**Question 0**

What is the highest mountain in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What is often considered the most famous mountain in Switzerland?

**Question 2**

How many mountains in Switzerland are at least 4000 metres above sea level?

**Question 3**

Where are Monte Rosa and Matterhorn located?

**Text number 23**

The Swiss climate is generally temperate, but can vary greatly from place to place, from the glacial conditions at the top of the mountains to the often pleasant, almost Mediterranean climate of the southern tip of Switzerland. In the south of Switzerland, there are some valley areas where cold-resistant palm trees grow. Summers are generally warm and humid, with intermittent rainfall, making them ideal for grazing and pasturing. Less humid winters in the mountains can last for weeks, while low-lying lands tend to suffer from inversion, with no sunshine for weeks at a time.

**Question 0**

Where are the glacial conditions in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What is the typical weather in Switzerland during the summer months?

**Question 2**

What can be missing from inverted lowlands, sometimes for weeks at a time?

**Question 3**

What is the climate like at the southern tip of Switzerland?

**Text number 24**

The weather phenomenon known as the foehn (similar in effect to the chinook wind) can occur in all seasons and is characterised by a surprisingly warm wind that brings very low relative humidity north of the Alps during the rainy seasons south of the Alps. This works both ways over the Alps, but is more effective when it blows from the south because the wind from the south is steeper. Valleys running from south to north have the best effect. The driest conditions prevail in all the valleys within the Alps, where rainfall is lower because incoming clouds lose much of their content as they cross the mountains before reaching these areas. Large Alpine areas, such as Graubünden, remain drier than the pre-alpine areas and, as in the main Valais valley, grapes are grown there.

**Question 0**

What is a weather phenomenon characterised by unexpected warm winds that bring low relative humidity to the northern Alps during the rainy season in the southern Alps?

**Question 1**

What time of year can the fohn occur?

**Question 2**

Where do clouds lose most of their content before reaching the interior of the Alpine valleys?

**Question 3**

What type of grapes are grown in the Valais Valley?

**Question 4**

Which wind direction is more effective during a föhn?

**Text number 25**

Swiss ecosystems can be particularly fragile, as the many fragile valleys separated by high mountains often form a unique ecology. The mountain areas themselves are also vulnerable, as they are rich in plants that do not occur at other altitudes and are under some pressure from visitors and grazing. The climatic, geological and topographical conditions of the Alpine region make it a very fragile ecosystem, particularly sensitive to climate change. However, according to the 2014 Environmental Performance Index, Switzerland ranks first among 132 countries in terms of environmental protection, due to its high scores for environmental public health, high reliance on renewable energy sources (hydropower and geothermal energy) and management of greenhouse gas emissions.

**Question 0**

Where did Switzerland rank in terms of environmental performance according to the 2014 Environmental Performance Index?

**Question 1**

What is it about mountain areas that makes their ecosystems particularly fragile?

**Question 2**

To what are Alpine ecosystems particularly vulnerable?

**Question 3**

Which energy sources does Switzerland rely on heavily?

**Text number 26**

The Federal Constitution of 1848 is the legal basis of the modern federal state. It is one of the oldest constitutions in the world. A new constitution was adopted in 1999, but it did not bring any significant changes to the federal structure. The Constitution defines the fundamental and political rights of individuals and the participation of citizens in public affairs, divides powers between the federal government and the cantons, and defines the powers and competences of the federal government. At the federal level, there are three main organs of government: the bicameral Parliament (legislative body), the Federal Council (executive power) and the Federal Court (judiciary).

**Question 0**

When was the Swiss Federal Constitution adopted?

**Question 1**

When was the new constitution adopted in Switzerland?

**Question 2**

How many of the main administrative bodies in Switzerland are at federal level?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the Swiss government's legislative body?

**Question 4**

What is the name of the executive body of the Swiss government?

**Text number 27**

The Swiss Parliament consists of two chambers: the Council of State, with 46 members (two from each canton and one from each semi-canton) elected according to a system defined by each canton, and the National Council, with 200 members elected by proportional representation according to the population of each canton. The term of office of the members of both parliaments is 4 years. When both chambers are in joint session, they are collectively known as the Federal Assembly. Referendums allow citizens to question any law passed by parliament and to initiate changes to the federal constitution, making Switzerland a direct democracy.

**Question 0**

How many members are there in the National Council?

**Question 1**

How long have members of both houses of the Swiss Parliament been members?

**Question 2**

What is the common name of both chambers of the Swiss Parliament when both are in joint session?

**Question 3**

How can citizens challenge any law passed by Parliament?

**Question 4**

How can citizens propose amendments to the federal constitution?

**Text number 28**

The Federal Council forms the federal government, runs the federal administration and acts as the collective head of state. It is a collegiate body of seven members elected by the Federal Assembly for a four-year term, which also supervises the Council. The President of the Federation is elected by the Federal Assembly from among the seven members, traditionally on a rotating basis and for a one-year term of office; the President presides over the cabinet and acts as a representative. However, the President is primus inter pares, with no additional powers, and remains a head of department within the administration.

**Question 0**

What acts as a collective head of state?

**Question 1**

How many members are there in the Council?

**Question 2**

Who elects the members of the Council?

**Question 3**

What is the traditional name for the President of the Confederation?

**Question 4**

Who elects the president of the federal government from among its seven members?

**Text number 29**

Direct democracy and federalism are the hallmarks of the Swiss political system. Swiss citizens are subject to three jurisdictions: municipal, cantonal and federal. The Federal Constitution of 1848 defines a system of direct democracy (sometimes called semi-direct or representative direct democracy because it is assisted by the more conventional institutions of representative democracy). The instruments of this system at the federal level, known as Volksrechte (civil rights), include the right to submit a constitutional initiative and a referendum, both of which can overturn parliamentary decisions.

**Question 0**

How many jurisdictions apply to Swiss citizens?

**Question 1**

What is the legal jurisdiction for Swiss citizens?

**Question 2**

What kind of democracy was defined in the Federal Constitution of 1848?

**Question 3**

What are the two things citizens have the right to ask for to overturn Parliament's decisions?

**Question 4**

What are the two hallmarks of the Swiss political system?

**Text number 30**

Similarly, a federal constitutional initiative allows citizens to vote on a constitutional amendment nationally if 100,000 voters sign the amendment within 18 months [Note 8] Parliament may supplement the amendment with a counter-proposal, and voters must indicate their preference on the ballot paper if both proposals are approved. Amendments to the Constitution, whether made by initiative or by Parliament, must be approved by a double majority of national referendums and cantonal referendums [Note 9].

**Question 0**

How many voters are needed to put a constitutional amendment to a national vote?

**Question 1**

How long do citizens have to collect enough votes to put a constitutional change to a national vote?

**Question 2**

How can Parliament complement the amendment proposed by citizens?

**Question 3**

What should voters do on the ballot paper when Parliament adds an addition?

**Question 4**

How many national and cantonal referendums are needed to approve a constitutional amendment?

**Text number 31**

The cantons have a permanent constitutional status and a high degree of independence compared to other countries. Under the federal constitution, all 26 cantons have equal status. Each canton has its own constitution, parliament, government and courts. However, there are significant differences between the individual cantons, particularly in terms of population and geographical area. The cantons range in population from 15 000 (Appenzell Innerrhoden) to 1 253 500 (Zurich) and in area from 37 km2 (Basel-Stadt) to 7 105 km2 (Graubünden), with a total of 2 485 municipalities. Within Switzerland there are two enclaves: Büsingen is in Germany and Campione d'Italia in Italy.

**Question 0**

How many cantons are equal under the federal constitution?

**Question 1**

What are the two biggest differences between cantons?

**Question 2**

What is the population of the largest canton?

**Question 3**

What is the population of the smallest canton?

**Question 4**

How big is my smallest range?

**Text number 32**

Switzerland has traditionally avoided alliances that might lead to military, political or direct economic action, and has been neutral since the end of its expansion in 1515. Its policy of neutrality was recognised internationally at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Switzerland only became a full member of the United Nations in 2002 and was the first country to join by referendum. Switzerland maintains diplomatic relations with almost all countries and has historically acted as a mediator between other states. Switzerland is not a member of the European Union; the Swiss people have consistently rejected membership since the early 1990s. However, Switzerland participates in the Schengen area.

**Question 0**

When was Switzerland's policy of neutrality recognised internationally?

**Question 1**

What was Switzerland the first country to join the UN?

**Question 2**

Why have the Swiss people consistently rejected membership since the 1990s?

**Question 3**

How long has Switzerland traditionally been neutral?

**Question 4**

What is Switzerland's attitude to alliances that might lead to military or political action?

**Text number 33**

Several international institutions are based in Switzerland, partly because of its policy of neutrality. Geneva is the birthplace of the Red Cross and Red Crescent movement, the Geneva Conventions and, since 2006, the United Nations Human Rights Council. Although Switzerland is one of the most recent countries to join the UN, the Palace of Nations in Geneva is the second largest UN centre after New York, and Switzerland was a founding member and home country of the League of Nations.

**Question 0**

How long has Switzerland hosted the UN Human Rights Council?

**Question 1**

What is the second largest UN centre?

**Question 2**

Where did the Red Crescent movement start?

**Question 3**

Where is the League of Nations located?

**Text number 34**

In addition to the United Nations Headquarters, the Swiss Confederation is home to many UN agencies, including the World Health Organization (WHO), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the International Telecommunication Union (ITU), the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and around 200 other international organisations, such as the World Trade Organization (WTO) and the World Intellectual Property Organization (WHO). The annual meetings of the World Economic Forum in Davos bring together top international business and political leaders from Switzerland and other countries to discuss major global issues such as health and the environment. In addition, the Bank for International Settlements (BIS) has been headquartered in Basel since 1930.

**Question 0**

Who hosts many UN agencies in addition to UN headquarters?

**Question 1**

What does ILO mean?

**Question 2**

What will be discussed at the World Economic Forum in Davos?

**Question 3**

What does BIS stand for?

**Question 4**

What does UNHCR stand for?

**Text number 35**

The Swiss militia system is structured so that soldiers keep their military equipment, including all personal weapons, at home. Some organisations and political parties find this practice controversial, but the Swiss mainstream supports the system. Conscription applies to all male Swiss citizens; women can serve voluntarily. Men are usually called up for military training at the age of 18. Around two thirds of young Swiss are fit for service; for those who are not, various alternative forms of service are available. Each year, around 20 000 people are trained in recruitment centres for 18-21 weeks. The Army XXI reform was approved by referendum in 2003 and replaced the previous army model "Army 95", reducing the size of the army from 400 000 to around 200 000. Of these, 120 000 are in regular army training and 80 000 are reservists who do not participate in training.

**Question 0**

Where do Swiss militias keep the equipment they receive from the army?

**Question 1**

Who is subject to compulsory military service in Switzerland?

**Question 2**

Who can volunteer to serve in the Swiss army?

**Question 3**

What replaced Army 95 in 2003?

**Question 4**

How many people in Army XXI are actively participating in regular military training?

**Text number 36**

Switzerland has a stable, prosperous and high-tech economy, and is very prosperous, being the richest country in the world per capita in several rankings. In 2011, it was the world's richest country on a per capita basis (when the definition of 'wealth' includes both financial and non-financial assets), and according to the 2013 Credit Suisse Global Wealth Report, Switzerland was the country with the highest average wealth per adult in 2013. In terms of nominal GDP, Switzerland is the world's nineteenth largest economy and the thirty-sixth largest in terms of purchasing power parity. Despite its small size, it is the twentieth largest exporter. Switzerland has the highest European ranking in the Index of Economic Freedom 2010, but also offers a wide range of coverage through public services. Nominal GDP per capita is higher than in the largest Western and Central European economies and Japan. In purchasing power parity-adjusted terms, Switzerland ranks 8th in the world in terms of GDP per capita according to the World Bank and IMF (15th according to the CIA Worldfactbook).

**Question 0**

How does the Swiss economy rank globally in terms of nominal GDP?

**Question 1**

How does the Swiss economy rank globally in terms of purchasing power parity?

**Question 2**

Where does the World Bank rank Switzerland in terms of purchasing power adjusted GDP per capita?

**Question 3**

What was Switzerland's score in the 2010 Index of Economic Freedom?

**Text number 37**

According to the World Economic Forum's Global Competitiveness Report, the Swiss economy is currently the most competitive in the world, and the European Union has ranked Switzerland as the most innovative country in Europe. For most of the 20th century, Switzerland was the most prosperous country in Europe (GDP per capita). In 2007, the gross median household income of Swiss households at purchasing power parity was estimated at USD 137 094 and median income at USD 95 824. Switzerland also has one of the largest current account balances in the world in relation to GDP.

**Question 0**

Where did the World Economic Forum's Global Competitiveness Report rank the Swiss economy?

**Question 1**

What was the median gross household income in Switzerland in 2007?

**Question 2**

What was the median income in Switzerland in 2007?

**Question 3**

How does the European Union assess the Swiss economy?

**Text number 38**

Switzerland's main economic sector is industry. Manufacturing industry is largely made up of the production of speciality chemicals, health and medical products, scientific and precision instruments and musical instruments. The main exports are chemicals (34% of exports), machinery/electronics (20.9%) and precision instruments/watches (16.9%). Exports of services account for one third of exports. The services sector - in particular banking and insurance, tourism and international organisations - is another important sector for Switzerland.

**Question 0**

What is the most important economic sector in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What accounts for 34% of Swiss exports?

**Question 2**

What accounts for 20.9% of Swiss exports?

**Question 3**

What accounts for 16.9% of Swiss exports?

**Question 4**

What proportion of exports are services exports?

**Text number 39**

There are around 3.8 million people working in Switzerland, and around 25% of workers were union members in 2004. The Swiss labour market is more flexible than in neighbouring countries and the unemployment rate is very low. The unemployment rate rose from a low of 1.7% in June 2000 to a peak of 4.4% in December 2009. In 2014, the unemployment rate is 3.2%. The population growth due to net immigration is relatively high, at 0.52% of the population in 2004. Foreign nationals accounted for 21.8% of the population in 2004, about the same as in Australia. GDP per hour worked is the 16th highest in the world, at 49.46 international dollars in 2012.

**Question 0**

What percentage of employees belonged to a trade union in 2004?

**Question 1**

How many people work in Switzerland?

**Question 2**

What was the unemployment rate in Switzerland in 2014?

**Question 3**

What was the share of foreigners in the Swiss population in 2014?

**Question 4**

What was the peak in unemployment in December 2009?

**Text number 40**

The Swiss economy is largely dominated by the private sector and has low tax rates by Western standards, with one of the lowest overall tax rates in the developed world. Switzerland is relatively easy to do business in and currently ranks 20th out of 189 countries in the Ease of Doing Business index. The slow growth that Switzerland experienced in the 1990s and early 2000s has increased support for economic reform and alignment with the European Union. According to Credit Suisse, only around 37% of residents own their own home, one of the lowest home ownership rates in Europe. Housing and food prices were 171% and 145% of the EU-25 index in 2007, compared with 113% and 104% in Germany.

**Question 0**

How does Switzerland rank among 189 countries in the Ease of Doing Business index?

**Question 1**

What proportion of residents own their homes, according to Credit Suisse?

**Question 2**

How do Swiss tax rates compare with Western standards?

**Text number 41**

The Swiss federal budget was 62.8 billion Swiss francs in 2010, equivalent to 11.35% of the country's GDP in that year; however, regional (cantonal) and municipal budgets are not counted as part of the federal budget, and total public spending is closer to 33.8% of GDP. The main sources of revenue for the federal government are VAT (33%) and direct federal taxes (29%), while the main expenditure is in the areas of social welfare and finance and taxation. Swiss federal expenditure has increased from 7% of GDP in 1960 to 9.7% in 1990 and 10.7% in 2010. The social assistance and finance and taxation sectors have increased from 35% in 1990 to 48.2% in 2010, while expenditure in the agriculture and defence sectors has decreased significantly, from 26.5% in 1990 to 12.4% in 2015 (2015 estimate).

**Question 0**

How big was the Swiss federal budget in 2010?

**Question 1**

What are the two main sources of revenue for the federal government?

**Question 2**

Which sectors are the main source of federal spending?

**Question 3**

In which areas has federal spending decreased?

**Question 4**

How much was the estimated cut in agriculture and defence spending in 2015?

**Text number 42**

Agricultural protectionism - a rare exception in Swiss free trade policy - has contributed to high food prices. According to the OECD, product market liberalisation has lagged behind many EU countries. However, domestic purchasing power is among the best in the world. Apart from agriculture, there are few economic and trade barriers between the European Union and Switzerland, and Switzerland has free trade agreements worldwide. Switzerland is a member of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA).

**Question 0**

What has contributed to high food prices in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What kind of trade agreements does Switzerland have worldwide?

**Question 2**

What is EFTA?

**Question 3**

What is Switzerland's world ranking in terms of domestic purchasing power?

**Question 4**

Where does the OECD say Switzerland lags behind many EU countries?

**Text number 43**

Education in Switzerland is very diverse, as the Swiss constitution delegates responsibility for the school system to the cantons. Switzerland has both public and private schools, including many international private schools. The minimum age for primary school is around six years in all cantons, but most cantons offer free "children's school" starting at the age of four or five. Depending on the school, primary school continues until the fourth, fifth or sixth grade. Traditionally, the first foreign language at school has always been another national language, although recently (2000) English was introduced for the first time in a few cantons.

**Question 0**

Who has jurisdiction over the Swiss school system?

**Question 1**

What is the minimum age for primary school in all cantons?

**Question 2**

What do most cantons offer for free when children are 4 or 5 years old?

**Question 3**

When was English introduced as the first foreign language in many cantons?

**Question 4**

How long will primary school last?

**Text number 44**

Switzerland has 12 universities, ten of which are run by the cantons, and they generally offer a range of non-technical subjects. Switzerland's first university was founded in 1460 in Basel (which had a medical faculty) and has a tradition in Swiss chemical and medical research. The largest university in Switzerland is the University of Zurich, with nearly 25 000 students. The two federally funded institutes are ETHZ in Zurich (founded in 1855) and EPFL in Lausanne (founded in 1969 as such, formerly an institute associated with the University of Lausanne), both of which have an excellent international reputation[note 10].

**Question 0**

How many universities are there in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

How many of Switzerland's 12 universities operate at cantonal level?

**Question 2**

When was Switzerland's first university founded?

**Question 3**

What is the largest university in Switzerland?

**Question 4**

How many students study at the University of Zurich?

**Text number 45**

Many Nobel Prizes have been awarded to Swiss scientists, including the world-famous physicist Albert Einstein, who developed his theory of special relativity while working in Bern. More recently, Vladimir Prelog, Heinrich Rohrer, Richard Ernst, Edmond Fischer, Rolf Zinkernagel and Kurt Wüthrich have been awarded Nobel Prizes. In all, 113 Nobel Prize winners in all fields have been associated with Switzerland,[note 11] and nine Nobel Peace Prizes have been awarded to organisations based in Switzerland.

**Question 0**

Which world-famous Swiss physicist developed his theory of special relativity while working in Bern?

**Question 1**

How many Nobel Prizes have been awarded to Swiss scientists in total?

**Question 2**

How many times has the Nobel Peace Prize been awarded to organisations in Switzerland?

**Text number 46**

Geneva and the nearby French department of Ain are home to CERN, the world's largest laboratory dedicated to particle physics research. Another important research centre is the Paul Scherrer Institute. Notable inventions include lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD), the scanning tunnelling microscope (Nobel Prize) and adhesive tape. Some technologies made it possible to explore new worlds, such as Auguste Piccard's pressurised balloon and the Bathyscaphe, which allowed Jacques Piccard to reach the deepest part of the world's oceans.

**Question 0**

What is the largest laboratory in the world?

**Question 1**

Who co-hosts CERN with the French department of Ain?

**Question 2**

What research is CERN dedicated to?

**Question 3**

Which major Swiss invention won the Nobel Prize?

**Question 4**

Who invented the pressurised balloon?

**Text number 47**

Switzerland voted against membership of the European Economic Area in a referendum in December 1992 and has since maintained and developed its relations with the European Union (EU) and European countries through bilateral agreements. In March 2001, the Swiss people rejected in a referendum the opening of accession negotiations with the EU. In recent years, the Swiss have in many ways brought their economic practices largely into line with those of the EU in an effort to improve their international competitiveness. The economy grew by 3% in 2010, 1.9% in 2011 and 1% in 2012. Full EU membership is the long-term goal of some members of the Swiss government, but there is considerable popular opposition to this, backed by the conservative SVP party. Western French-speaking regions and urban areas in the rest of the country tend to be more pro-EU, but their share of the population is not nearly as large.

**Question 0**

How has Switzerland maintained its relationship with the EU?

**Question 1**

What have the Swiss done in recent years to harmonise their economic practices?

**Question 2**

What have the Swiss tried to improve by adapting to EU economic practices?

**Question 3**

How much did the Swiss economy grow in 2010?

**Question 4**

Which conservative party opposes EU membership?

**Text number 48**

The Government has established the Integration Agency under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Economy. To reduce the negative consequences of Switzerland's isolation from the rest of Europe, Bern and Brussels signed seven bilateral agreements to further liberalise trade relations. The agreements were signed in 1999 and entered into force in 2001. These first bilateral agreements included the free movement of persons. In 2004, a second series covering nine areas was signed and subsequently ratified, including the Schengen Agreement and the Dublin Convention. They are still discussing new areas of cooperation.

**Question 0**

How many bilateral agreements were signed between Bern and Brussels to further liberalise trade relations?

**Question 1**

What was in the first bilateral agreements on people?

**Question 2**

When was the second set of nine bilateral agreements signed?

**Question 3**

What has happened to the second set of bilateral agreements since then?

**Question 4**

What were the original bilateral agreements intended to minimise the negative consequences?

**Text number 49**

In 2006, Switzerland approved CHF 1 billion of grant investment in the poorer countries of southern and central Europe to support cooperation and create positive links with the EU as a whole. A new referendum is needed to approve CHF 300 million to support Romania and Bulgaria and their recent accession. Switzerland has also been under pressure from the EU and sometimes internationally to reduce banking secrecy and raise tax rates to EU levels. Preparatory discussions are ongoing in four new areas: opening up the electricity market, participation in the European GNSS project Galileo, cooperation with the European Centre for Disease Prevention and recognition of certificates of origin for foodstuffs.

**Question 0**

Where did Switzerland approve CHF 1 billion of aid investment in 2006?

**Question 1**

Where has the EU and Member States put pressure on Switzerland to reduce its banking activities?

**Question 2**

What has the EU been pushing Switzerland to do on tax rates?

**Text number 50**

On 9 February 2014, Swiss voters narrowly approved, by 50.3%, an initiative by the national conservative Swiss People's Party (SVP/UDC) to limit immigration and thus restore the quota system for the entry of foreigners. The initiative was mainly supported in rural Switzerland (57.6% support), in the suburbs (51.2% support), in the outlying towns (51.3% support) and in the canton of Ticino (69.2% support), while the metropolitan centres (58.5% support) and the French-speaking part of Switzerland (58.5% support) tended to reject it. Some news commentators argue that this proposal is in fact contrary to the bilateral agreements on the free movement of persons between these countries.

**Question 0**

What did Swiss voters approve in February 2014 to narrowly limit?

**Question 1**

What was reintroduced for the entry of foreigners in February 2014?

**Question 2**

Which Swiss centres most often rejected the quota system for foreigners?

**Question 3**

What was the rejection rate for the French-speaking part of the Swiss quota system?

**Question 4**

What do some news commentators say the proposal on restricted immigration violates?

**Text number 51**

The previous ten-year moratorium on new nuclear power plants was the result of a citizens' initiative voted on in 1990, which passed with 54.5% in favour and 45.5% against. Plans to build a new nuclear power plant in the canton of Bern have been suspended since the accident at the Fukushima Daiichi plant in 2011. The Swiss Federal Office of Energy (SFOE) is an agency of the Federal Ministry of the Environment, Transport, Energy and Communications (DETEC) responsible for all matters relating to energy supply and use. The agency supports the 2000 Watt Society Initiative, which aims to reduce the country's energy use by more than half by 2050.

**Question 0**

What was the reason for the 10-year moratorium on nuclear power plant construction?

**Question 1**

What accident caused the delay in plans for the new nuclear power plant in Bern?

**Question 2**

What does SFOE stand for?

**Question 3**

What does DETEC stand for?

**Question 4**

What is the 2000 Watt Society Initiative, which aims to more than halve by 2050?

**Text number 52**

On 25 May 2011, the Swiss government announced its intention to phase out nuclear energy over the next 2-3 decades. "The government has voted for a gradual phase-out because we want to ensure a secure and independent energy supply," Energy Minister Doris Leuthard told a press conference in Bern on the same day. "Fukushima showed that the risk of nuclear power is too high, which in turn has also increased the cost of this form of energy." The first reactor would reportedly be decommissioned in 2019 and the last in 2034. Parliament will debate the plan in June 2011, and a referendum on the plan could also be held.

**Question 0**

What was the timetable set by the Swiss government in 2011 for phasing out nuclear energy?

**Question 1**

What was the reason given by the Swiss government for phasing out nuclear energy?

**Question 2**

When is Switzerland's first nuclear reactor due to be decommissioned?

**Question 3**

When is Switzerland's last nuclear reactor due to be decommissioned?

**Question 4**

Who is Doris Leuthard?

**Text number 53**

More than 350 million passengers pass through Europe's most dense rail network, which is 5 063 km (3 146 mi) long, every year. In 2007, each Swiss citizen travelled an average of 2 258 km by rail, making Switzerland the most enthusiastic user of rail transport. The network is mainly managed by the Federal Railways, with the exception of Grisons, where the 366 km narrow-gauge railway is managed by the Rhaetian Railways and includes some World Heritage lines. The AlpTransit project is currently building new railway base tunnels through the Alps to reduce travel times between north and south.

**Question 0**

How many passengers does Europe's busiest rail network carry each year?

**Question 1**

On average, how many kilometres did each Swiss person travel by rail in 2007?

**Question 2**

Who mainly manages the Swiss railway system?

**Question 3**

What is the Alp-Transit project to reduce travel time?

**Question 4**

Under which mountains will railway tunnels be built for the Alp-Transit project?

**Text number 54**

The Swiss road network, managed by the private and public sectors, is financed by tolls and vehicle taxes. The Swiss motorway system requires that both cars and lorries can use its roads by purchasing a vignette (toll sticker) for 40 Swiss francs for one calendar year. The Swiss motorway network has a total length of 1 638 km (1 018 mi) (in 2000) and a surface area of 41 290 km2 , making it one of the densest motorways in the world. Zurich Airport is Switzerland's largest international airport, handling 22.8 million passengers in 2012. Other international airports include Geneva Airport (13.9 million passengers in 2012), EuroAirport Basel-Mulhouse-Freiburg in France, Bern Airport, Lugano Airport, St. Gallen-Altenrhein Airport and Sion Airport. Swiss International Air Lines is the flag carrier of Switzerland. Its main hub airport is Zurich.

**Question 0**

How will the Swiss road network, managed by the private and public sectors, be financed?

**Question 1**

How much does the Swiss motorway network charge for a toll sticker that entitles you to use Swiss roads for a year?

**Question 2**

Which airport is the largest international airport in Switzerland?

**Question 3**

What is the name of the Swiss national airline?

**Question 4**

How many passengers used Zurich Airport in 2012?

**Text number 55**

Switzerland is one of the top green countries in the developed world, having signed the Kyoto Protocol in 1998 and ratified it in 2003. Together with Mexico and the Republic of Korea, it forms the Environmental Integrity Group (EIG). The country is very active in recycling and anti-pollution legislation and is one of the world's top recyclers, with between 66% and 96% of recyclable materials recycled, depending on the region of the country. The 2014 Global Green Economy Index ranked Switzerland among the 10 greenest economies in the world.

**Question 0**

When did Switzerland sign the Kyoto Protocol?

**Question 1**

When will Switzerland ratify the Kyoto Protocol?

**Question 2**

What were Switzerland, Mexico and the Republic of Korea?

**Question 3**

What percentage of recyclable materials is recycled in Switzerland?

**Question 4**

How did Switzerland rank in the 2010 Global Green Economy Index?

**Text number 56**

In many places in Switzerland, the disposal of household waste is subject to a fee. Waste (with the exception of dangerous objects, batteries, etc.) is only collected if it is in bags with a payment sticker or in official bags for which an additional fee is paid at the time of purchase. This provides an economic incentive to recycle as much as possible, as recycling is free. Illegal disposal of rubbish is not tolerated, but enforcement of such laws is generally limited to offences of illegal disposal of larger quantities of waste at road crossings and in public areas. Fines for non-payment of waste fees range from 200 to 500 Swiss francs.

**Question 0**

What does Switzerland charge for waste disposal to encourage recycling?

**Question 1**

What are the fines if the waste fee is not paid?

**Question 2**

What is the recycling fee in Switzerland?

**Text number 57**

In 2012, the share of foreign residents in the population was 23.3%. The majority of them (64%) came from European Union or EFTA countries. Italians were the largest single group of foreigners with 15.6% of the total foreign population. They were followed by Germans (15.2%), immigrants from Portugal (12.7%), France (5.6%), Serbia (5.3%), Turkey (3.8%), Spain (3.7%) and Austria (2%). Immigrants from Sri Lanka, the majority of whom were former Tamil refugees, were the largest group of Asian origin (6.3%). In addition, 2012 figures show that 34.7% of the Swiss permanent resident population aged 15 and over, or 2 335 000 people, had an immigrant background. One third of this population (853 000) had Swiss nationality. Four fifths of the persons with an immigrant background were themselves immigrants (first generation foreigners and Swiss citizens by birth and nationality), while one fifth were born in Switzerland (second generation foreigners and Swiss citizens by birth and nationality). In the 2000s, domestic and international institutions expressed concern about what they perceived as an increase in xenophobia, particularly in some political campaigns. In its response to a critical report, the Federal Council stated that "racism unfortunately exists in Switzerland", but noted that the high proportion of foreigners in the country and the generally unproblematic integration of foreigners underline Switzerland's openness.

**Question 0**

What percentage of the population were foreigners in 2010?

**Question 1**

Who were the largest single group of foreigners in 2010?

**Question 2**

What proportion of the population aged 15 and over had a migrant background in 2012?

**Question 3**

What percentage of immigrants were born in Switzerland in 2012?

**Question 4**

What was the institutional concern about migrants in the 2000s?

**Text number 58**

Switzerland has four official languages: mainly German (63.5% of the total population were foreigners in 2013), French (22.5%) in the west and Italian (8.1%) in the south. The fourth official language, Romansh (0.5%), is a Romani language spoken locally in the south-eastern trilingual canton of Grisons, and is designated in Article 4 of the Federal Constitution as a national language alongside German, French and Italian, and in Article 70 as an official language where the authorities communicate with Romani-speaking persons. However, federal laws and other official acts do not have to be issued in Romani.

**Question 0**

How many official languages are there in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What is the main official language of Switzerland?

**Question 2**

What is the main official language in the west of Switzerland?

**Question 3**

What is the main official language in the south of Switzerland?

**Question 4**

What is the least popular official language in Switzerland?

**Text number 59**

In addition to the official language forms, the four language areas of Switzerland also have their own local dialectal forms. The importance of dialects in each language area varies considerably: in German-speaking areas, dialects of Swiss German have become more common since the second half of the 20th century, especially in the media, such as radio and television, and are used as everyday language, while in written communication, the Swiss Standard German dialect is almost always used instead of a dialect (cf. digitalisation of the language). In contrast, in French-speaking areas, local dialects have almost disappeared (only 6.3% of the population of Valais, 3.9% of Freiburg and 3.1% of Jura still spoke dialects at the end of the 20th century), while in Italian-speaking areas dialects are mainly confined to the family environment and occasional conversations.

**Question 0**

How many language areas in Switzerland have their own local dialect?

**Question 1**

Which dialect is increasing in German-speaking areas?

**Question 2**

What has happened to the local dialects in French-speaking regions?

**Question 3**

Where are dialects usually confined in Italian-speaking areas?

**Text number 60**

The main official languages (German, French and Italian) have terms called helvetisms, which are not used outside Switzerland. Helvetisms are, roughly speaking, a large number of words typical of Swiss Standard German that do not appear in Standard German or in other German dialects. These include terms from surrounding linguistic cultures in Switzerland (German billette from French), from a similar term in another language (Italian azione, used not only as an act but also as a reduction of German Aktion). In the French spoken in Switzerland, there are similar terms, equally known as helvetisms. The most common features of Helvetisms are in vocabulary, phrases and pronunciation, but certain Helvetisms are also specific in syntax and orthography. Duden, one of the sources for defining standard German, knows about 3000 helvetisms. Modern French dictionaries, such as Petit Larousse, contain several hundred helvetisms.

**Question 0**

What are the terms that are not used outside Switzerland?

**Question 1**

Where can you find the most common features of hellisms?

**Question 2**

What are the several hundred words in today's French dictionaries?

**Text number 61**

Swiss citizens are generally required to buy health insurance from private insurance companies, which in turn must approve each applicant. Although the system has the highest costs, it is comparable to other European countries in terms of health outcomes; patients of Swiss citizens are reported to be generally very satisfied with the system. In 2012, life expectancy was 80.4 years for men and 84.7 years for women - the highest in the world. However, health expenditure is particularly high at 11.4% of GDP (2010), in line with Germany and France (11.6%) and other European countries and significantly lower than the US (17.6%). Since 1990, there has been a steady increase, reflecting the high cost of services provided. With an ageing population and new healthcare technologies, healthcare expenditure is likely to continue to rise.

**Question 0**

Who do Swiss citizens have to buy health insurance from?

**Question 1**

Who do private insurers have to accept?

**Question 2**

What was Switzerland's life expectancy in 2012 in the world ranking in 2012?

**Question 3**

Which population segment is likely to increase health expenditure in the future?

**Question 4**

What does new high-tech mean in healthcare?

**Text number 62**

Two-thirds to three-quarters of the population live in urban areas. Switzerland has gone from being largely rural to urban in just 70 years. Since 1935, urban development has taken over as much of the Swiss landscape as in the previous 2 000 years. Urban sprawl affects not only the plains but also the Jura and the foothills of the Alps, and land use is a growing concern. Since the early 2000s, however, population growth has been higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

**Question 0**

How much of the Swiss population lives in cities?

**Question 1**

How has population growth in urban areas compared to rural areas since the early 2000s?

**Question 2**

How many years did it take Switzerland to change from a largely urban country to a rural one?

**Text number 63**

Switzerland has a dense urban network, with large, medium-sized and small towns complementing each other. The high plateau is very densely populated, with around 450 people per square kilometre, and the landscape shows constant signs of human presence. The major metropolitan areas of Zurich, Geneva-Lausanne, Basel and Bern tend to grow in importance. In international comparison, these urban areas are more important than their population size would suggest. In addition, the two main centres of Zurich and Geneva are known for their particularly good quality of life.

**Question 0**

What is the population density of the plateau?

**Question 1**

Which 2 centres are known for their particularly good quality of life?

**Question 2**

Where does the weight of the largest metropolitan areas tend to be?

**Text number 64**

Christianity is the predominant religion in Switzerland (about 71% of the Swiss population and 75% of Swiss citizens) and is divided between the Catholic Church (38.21% of the population), the Swiss Reformed Church (26.93%), other Protestant churches (2.89%) and other Christian denominations (2.79%). Evangelicalism has recently increased. Immigration has brought with it Islam (4.95%) and Eastern Orthodoxy (around 2%), which are important minority religions. According to a 2015 Gallup International poll, 12% of Swiss people defined themselves as "convinced atheists".

**Question 0**

What is the predominant religion in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

What religion has immigration brought in at 4.95%?

**Question 2**

What religion has immigration brought 2%?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Swiss people are convinced atheists, according to a 2015 Gallup poll?

**Question 4**

What percentage of Christians are Catholics?

**Text number 65**

According to the 2000 census, other Christian minority communities include Neo-Pentecostalism (0.44%), Pentecostalism (0.28%, mainly within the Schweizer Pfingstmission), Methodism (0,13%), the Neo-Postolic Church (0.45%), Jehovah's Witnesses (0.28%), other Protestant denominations (0.20%), the Old Catholic Church (0.18%) and other Christian denominations (0.20%). Non-Christian religions include Hinduism (0.38%), Buddhism (0.29%), Judaism (0.25%) and others (0.11%). 4.3% did not give an opinion. In 2012, 21.4% said they were unchurched, i.e. not affiliated with any church or other religious body (agnostic, atheist or simply not affiliated with any official religion).

**Question 0**

What percentage of Swiss people said they did not belong to a church in 2012?

**Question 1**

According to the 2000 census, what percentage of Swiss people are Pentecostals?

**Question 2**

According to the 2000 census, what percentage of Swiss people are Jehovah's Witnesses?

**Question 3**

What percentage of Swiss people are Buddhists according to the 2000 census?

**Text number 66**

Historically, Catholics and Protestants have been roughly evenly represented in the country, and in most parts of the country majorities have been plural. Geneva converted to Protestantism in 1536, just before John Calvin arrived there. One canton, Appenzell, was officially divided into Catholic and Protestant parts in 1597. The major cities and their cantons (Bern, Geneva, Lausanne, Zurich and Basel) used to be predominantly Protestant. Central Switzerland, Valais, Ticino, Appenzell Innerrhodes, Jura and Fribourg are traditionally Catholic. The Swiss constitution of 1848, freshly inspired by the clashes between Catholic and Protestant cantons that culminated in the Sonderbundskrieg, deliberately defines an associative state allowing peaceful coexistence between Catholics and Protestants. A 1980 initiative calling for the complete separation of church and state was rejected by 78.9% of voters. Some traditionally Protestant cantons and towns now have a slight Catholic majority, not because their membership has increased, on the contrary, but only because since about 1970 a steadily growing minority has not belonged to any church or other religious body (21,4 % in Switzerland in 2012), especially in traditionally Protestant areas such as the city of Basel (42 %), the canton of Neuchâtel (38 %), the canton of Geneva (35 %), the canton of Vaud (26 %) or the city of Zurich (city: over 25%; canton: 23%).

**Question 0**

When did Geneva convert to Protestantism?

**Question 1**

How does the Constitution of 1848 define the commonwealth?

**Question 2**

When did the majority of voters reject the demand for a complete separation of church and state?

**Question 3**

What percentage of voters rejected the separation of church and state in 1980?

**Text number 67**

Three of the main European languages are official in Switzerland. Swiss culture is characterised by its diversity, which is reflected in a wide range of traditional customs. A region may have strong cultural links with a neighbouring country that shares a language, while the country itself is rooted in Western European culture. An exception is the linguistically isolated Romansh culture of Graubünden in eastern Switzerland, which has survived only in the upper valleys of the Rhine and Inn, and which tries to preserve its rare linguistic tradition.

**Question 0**

Which culture is linguistically isolated from the rest of Switzerland?

**Question 1**

Where is the Roma culture located?

**Question 2**

How many of the major European languages are official languages in Switzerland?

**Text number 68**

Alpine symbolism has played a central role in shaping the country's history and Switzerland's national identity. Today, some concentrated mountain areas have a strong and highly energetic ski resort culture in winter and a hiking (ger: das Wandern) or mountain biking culture in summer. Other areas have a year-round tourist-oriented recreational culture, but the quieter seasons are spring and autumn, when there are fewer visitors. Many areas also have a traditional farming and herding culture, with small farms located throughout the outskirts of towns. Folk art is kept alive by organisations throughout the country. In Switzerland, it is mainly expressed in music, dance, poetry, woodcarving and embroidery. The alphorn, a trumpet-like instrument made of wood, has become the embodiment of traditional Swiss music, along with the yodel and the accordion.

**Question 0**

What symbolism has played an important role in shaping Swiss history?

**Question 1**

What is the highly energetic culture in some concentrated mountain areas in winter?

**Question 2**

What is the name of the wooden trumpet-like instrument that has become the embodiment of traditional Swiss music?

**Question 3**

What is the traditional culture of many small farms?

**Text number 69**

Broadcasting is subject to more government control than the print media, especially as regards funding and licensing. The Swiss Broadcasting Corporation, recently renamed SRG SSR, is responsible for the production and broadcasting of radio and television programmes. SRG SSR's studios are located in different language areas. Radio content is produced in six central studios and four regional studios, while television programmes are produced in Geneva, Zurich and Lugano. Thanks to an extensive cable network, most Swiss people can also watch programmes from neighbouring countries.

**Question 0**

What makes the government control the broadcast media more than the print media?

**Question 1**

Where are television programmes produced?

**Question 2**

What was the name of the Swiss Broadcasting Corporation recently changed to?

**Text number 70**

Skiing, snowboarding and mountaineering are among the most popular sports in Switzerland, as the country's nature is particularly well suited to these activities. Winter sports have been practised by locals and tourists alike since the second half of the 19th century, when tobogganing was invented in St. Moritz. The first world skiing championships were held in Mürren (1931) and St. Moritz (1934). Moritz hosted the second Winter Olympics in 1928 and the fifth Olympic Games in 1948. The most successful skiers and world champions are Pirmin Zurbriggen and Didier Cuche.

**Question 0**

Which 3 mountain sports are the most popular in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

Where was the sledge invented?

**Question 2**

When were the first ski races held in the Murren?

**Question 3**

In which city was the second Winter Olympics held in 1928?

**Text number 71**

The Swiss are football fans, and the national team is nicknamed "Nati". The headquarters of the International Federation of Association Football (FIFA) is in Zurich. Switzerland hosted the 1954 World Cup and co-hosted Euro 2008 with Austria. The Swiss Super League is the country's professional football league. For the 2014 World Cup finals in Brazil, the local police force is closely monitoring the country's German-speaking cantons to prevent celebrations more than an hour after the end of the match. Europe's highest football ground, at 2 000 metres above sea level, is located in Switzerland and is called the Ottmar Hitzfeld Stadium.

**Question 0**

What is the nickname of the Swiss national football team?

**Question 1**

What does FIFA stand for?

**Question 2**

Where is the highest football ground in Europe?

**Question 3**

Where is FIFA located?

**Question 4**

Which FIFA World Cups will Switzerland host?

**Text number 72**

Many Swiss also follow hockey and support one of the 12 clubs in the A-League, the most popular league in Europe. In 2009, Switzerland will host the IIHF World Championship for the 10th time. It also became the world vice-champion in 2013. Numerous lakes make Switzerland an attractive place for sailing. The largest, Lake Geneva, is home to the sailing team Alinghi, which became the first European team to win the America's Cup in 2003 and successfully defended the title in 2007. Tennis has become an increasingly popular sport, with Swiss players such as Martina Hingis, Roger Federer and most recently Stanislas Wawrinka winning several Grand Slam tournaments. Swiss professional wrestler Claudio Castagnoli is currently on the WWE payroll and is a former US champion.

**Question 0**

What will Switzerland host for the 10th time in 2009?

**Question 1**

What was the name of the first European sailing team to win the America's Cup in 2013?

**Question 2**

Which Swiss professional wrestler is currently under contract with WWE?

**Question 3**

Which Swiss sailing team was the first to win the America's Cup in 2003?

**Text number 73**

Motor racing tracks and events were banned in Switzerland after the 1955 Le Mans disaster, with the exception of events such as hillclimbing. During this period, the country still produced successful racing drivers such as Clay Regazzoni, Sebastian Buemi, Jo Siffert, Dominique Aegerter, successful World Touring Car Championship driver Alain Menu, Le Mans 24 Hours winner Marcel Fässler in 2014 and Nürburgring 24 Hours winner Nico Müller in 2015. Switzerland also won the A1GP World Championship in 2007-08 with driver Neel Jan. Swiss motorcyclist Thomas Lüthi won the MotoGP 125cc World Championship in 2005. In June 2007, the Swiss National Council, one chamber of the Swiss Federal Assembly, voted to lift the ban, but the other chamber, the Swiss Council of State, rejected the amendment and the ban remains in force.

**Question 0**

What was banned in Switzerland in 1955 after the Le Mans accident?

**Question 1**

Who voted to lift the ban on motor sport events in June 2007?

**Question 2**

Who rejected the vote in 2007 to lift the ban on motor sports in Switzerland?

**Question 3**

Which successful World Touring Car Championship driver was born in Switzerland despite a ban on motor racing?

**Question 4**

Which Swiss motorcycle rider won the 2005 MotoGP World Championship in the 125cc class?

**Text number 74**

Traditional sports include Swiss wrestling, or "Schwingen". It is an old tradition from rural central cantons, and some consider it a national sport. Hornussen is another indigenous Swiss sport that is like a cross between baseball and golf. Steinstossen is a Swiss variation of stone throwing, in which a heavy stone is thrown. It has been practised only among Alpine populations since prehistoric times, and is recorded as having taken place in Basel in the 13th century. It is also a central part of the Unspunnenfest competition, first held in 1805, the symbol of which is an 83.5 kg stone called the Unspunnenstein.

**Question 0**

Which popular Swiss sport is a cross between baseball and golf?

**Question 1**

What old, traditional sport do some Swiss consider to be their national sport?

**Question 2**

What will be thrown in the Swiss Steinstossen competition?

**Question 3**

Which Swiss population is the only one to have practised Steinstossen since prehistoric times?

**Question 4**

What was the name of the 83.5 kg stone that symbolised the first Unspunnenfest in 1805?

**Text number 75**

Swiss cuisine is varied. Although some dishes, such as fondue, raclette or rösti, are present throughout the country, each region has developed its own gastronomy according to differences in climate and languages. Traditional Swiss cuisine uses ingredients similar to those found in other European countries, as well as unique dairy products and cheeses such as Gruyère and Emmental, produced in the Gruyère and Emmental valleys. The number of fine dining restaurants is high, especially in western Switzerland.

**Question 0**

Which part of Switzerland has a particularly high concentration of fine dining restaurants?

**Question 1**

What unique cheese is made in the Gruyeres valleys of Switzerland?

**Question 2**

What differences have primarily contributed to the regional variations in Swiss cuisine?

**Question 3**

What dairy product is produced in the Emmental Valley?

**Question 4**

How do the ingredients of traditional Swiss cuisine differ from those of other European countries?

**Text number 76**

The most popular alcoholic drink in Switzerland is wine. Switzerland is known for the diversity of grapes grown, due to the wide variation in soil, air, altitude and light. Swiss wines are mainly produced in Valais, Vaud (Lavaux), Geneva and Ticino, with a small proportion of white wines. Vineyards have been cultivated in Switzerland since Roman times, although certain traces of even earlier origins can be found. The most common varieties are Chasselas (Fendant in Valais) and Pinot noir. Merlot is the main variety produced in Ticino.

**Question 0**

What is the most popular alcoholic drink in Switzerland?

**Question 1**

When did vineyards start to be cultivated in Switzerland?

**Question 2**

What type of wine makes up the small majority of wine produced in Switzerland?

**Question 3**

What are the two most common types of wine in Switzerland?

**Question 4**

Which 4 types of terrain are responsible for Switzerland's significant grape growing?